

**HOST COMMUNITY RESIDENTS AND LONG-TERM EVENT OUTCOMES: THE
ROLE OF TRUST, KNOWLEDGE, AND POWER IN THE PUBLIC/GOVERNMENT
RELATIONSHIP**

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Abstract

Residents are main actors in the context of publicly funded sport events due to their role as taxpayers, and the importance of their support in an event's success. The use of taxpayer dollars for hosting sport events is typically justified by event proponents (e.g., the local government) by highlighting purported positive event outcomes for the community. The extent to which such outcomes are attained may therefore influence the relationship between residents and their local government. Thus, the purpose of this dissertation was to investigate the long-term outcomes of publicly funded, non-mega sport events, and to examine the role of trust, knowledge, and power in the public/government relationship and event support in relation to these outcomes. To achieve this purpose, I focused on two publicly funded non-mega sport events, specifically the 2011 and 2019 Canada Winter Games, and drew on agency theory. The project progressed through three phases of research, each culminating in a research article. The first phase involved outlining the theoretical approach taken for this project. Next, I investigated the event objectives and long-term outcomes from resident and event provider perspectives. Finally, I investigated the public/government relationship by determining factors that predict general political trust and event support.

The first article explains how agency theory, and the concepts of power, knowledge, and trust can be used to investigate political implications of publicly funded sport events. The second article suggests that while most residents evaluated their respective event positively, the interests of residents and event providers regarding event objectives and outcomes diverge. The final article revealed that event experiences positively predicted event support three- and 11-years following the event, and that residents' power (i.e., ability to influence) negatively predicted political trust, while knowledge (i.e., understanding) positively impacted political trust in the

event context. The three articles are preceded by a general introduction and are wrapped-up by a concluding chapter.

Cumulatively, the results demonstrate that actors within the context of a publicly funded non-mega sport event may act as principals and agents in various moments of the event hosting process. Further, findings suggest that ensuring host residents are informed of the event will foster trust in the local government, and that community-focused tangible outcomes in particular will foster event support. This dissertation contributes conceptually and empirically to sport event management literature by taking a long-term post-event perspective on publicly funded, non-mega sport events. Practically, event providers should ensure that residents are fully informed of the event hosting process, and should ensure that tangible, and sustainable event outcomes occur as these seem to impact the most residents in a host community even from a long-term perspective. Finally, this work outlines the need for future research addressing methodological challenges in non-mega sport event research, investigating opportunism and monitoring in principal-agent relationships, and determining appropriate public engagement strategies for sustainable event outcomes.

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Statement of Authorship

The author of this dissertation (herein referred to as author) was responsible for the development and structure of this doctoral research project investigating the relationship between event host city residents and their local government. She was the lead researcher, and therefore formulated the research questions, study design and methodology, conducted data collection and analysis, and wrote all three contributing articles along with the introductory and conclusion chapters. The author acknowledges the support and guidance of her supervisor, Dr. Marijke Taks, throughout the execution of the project. Given Chapters II, III, and IV are co-authored works either published or under review in peer reviewed journals, the following paragraphs are meant to provide clarity regarding the contribution of the author and her doctoral supervisor.

Chapter II depicts the theoretical underpinning of the dissertation project and extends the use of agency theory in the sport event context. Chapter II was developed and written by the author with minimal involvement from the supervisor. The author completed all necessary reading and conceptualization, as well as writing for the manuscript. Once a draft was complete, the supervisor provided feedback on the manuscript in preparation for submission to the *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics* (IJSPP). Neither the author nor the supervisor are affiliated with IJSPP. Upon receiving blinded peer-review suggestions from IJSPP, the author consulted with the supervisor on how to best incorporate suggestions and improve the manuscript. In adherence to the *American Psychological Association* (7th edition) guidelines for authorship, the author willingly listed the supervisor as a secondary author. This submission was accepted for publication by IJSPP on May 27, 2022. The author has permission from the publisher to reprint the manuscript in this dissertation.

Chapter III, which includes the qualitative data collected for this study was developed and written by the author with minimal involvement from the supervisor. The author developed the research questions and methodology, completed data collection, analysis, and interpretation, and wrote the manuscript. The supervisor served as a discussion partner for the interpretation of the results. The supervisor was informed of and discussed the work of the author throughout the development of the chapter. The author wrote a draft of the manuscript upon which the supervisor provided feedback and suggestions for improvement in preparation for submission to a peer review outlet. The manuscript was submitted to *Event Management*. Upon receiving blinded peer-review feedback, the author revised the manuscript and discussed any changes made with the supervisor. The submission was accepted for publication by *Event Management* on August 5, 2022. The author has permission to reprint the manuscript in this dissertation.

Chapter IV, which includes the quantitative data collected for this study was developed and written by the author with support from the supervisor. The author developed the research question, the questionnaire items and constructs, completed data collection and analysis, and wrote the manuscript. The supervisor provided support particularly during the data analysis process and was consulted throughout development of the manuscript. The author wrote a full draft of the manuscript upon which the supervisor provided feedback and suggestions for improvement in preparation for submission. The manuscript was submitted to *European Sport Management Quarterly* in December 2022.

The author of this dissertation certifies any ideas, quotations, or any other material from the work of others included here, published or otherwise, are fully acknowledged in accordance with the standard referencing practices of the *American Psychological Association* (7th edition).

The author declares this is a true copy of the dissertation and has not been submitted for an additional degree to any other institution.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Government, broadly defined, is responsible for providing social services to the public (Carey et al., 2017; Lazar & Seal, 2005). Various levels of government in Canada (municipal, provincial/territorial, and federal) each have different roles in this regard yet are all responsible for governing the use of taxpayers' dollars to meet the needs of citizens. Municipal, or local government in particular is charged with offering safe public spaces for citizens to use such as parks, libraries, and community centres, supporting local arts and recreation initiatives, and ensuring day-to-day operations run smoothly like waste removal, emergency services, and public transportation (Carey et al., 2017). More strategically, local governments are tasked with making decisions regarding housing and infrastructure policy, law enforcement, and municipal budgets. Decisions that local government officials make on behalf of their citizens can affect citizens' voting behaviour and citizens' feelings towards their local government (Kellison & Mills, 2020).

One part of a local government's role is related to tourism, arts, culture, and sport and recreation initiatives (Carey et al., 2017). For instance, an aspect of a local government strategy may be developing a tourism marketing campaign or determining how much public funding to devote to sport infrastructure development. Often, local government will also be tasked with working alongside other stakeholders to decide whether their city should bid for, and ultimately host, publicly funded sport events (Black, 2008; Carey et al., 2017; Misener & Mason, 2010).

Publicly funded sport events are sport events of any size that utilize a substantial amount of public funding (i.e., taxpayer dollars) to either bid for or host the event. This funding in the form of monetary support is usually accompanied by in-kind support. Publicly funded sport events can vary in size and type from mega events requiring significant resource allocation (e.g.,

the Olympics or FIFA World Cup) to small, one-off sport events (Gammon, 2020). Scholars have typified sport events based on their economic impact (Gratton et al., 2000), media reach (Chappelet & Parent, 2017), and based on the resources needed to host the event (Agha & Taks, 2015). Despite these suggestions, there remains a lack of consensus regarding how to typify sport events. In the context of this study, I focus on non-mega sport events that are one-off, smaller in scope, impact, and resource demand than mega sport events (Agha & Taks, 2015), yet still create a shock in the host community (Taks et al., 2015) and require a substantial amount of public funding. This definition best described the type of events in question (The Canada Games, discussed in more detail below). Thus, I refer to the events I study throughout this dissertation as “non-mega sport events” hereafter.

Regardless of the type of publicly funded sport event, decisions that local governments make regarding level of financial support are important given the opportunity-cost of such decisions in a context where funds are finite (Crompton, 1995; Kesenne, 2012; Taks et al., 2011). For instance, if a government chooses to support a sport event and draws on public money to do so, there may be other (non-)sport initiatives or projects that could have been funded otherwise. Often, to justify sport event support, governments will highlight the positive outcomes that may arise from hosting, including, but not limited to, economic (see Agha & Taks, 2018; Baade & Matheson, 2016; Daniels et al., 2004; Jiménez-Naranjo et al., 2016), social (see Bull & Lovell, 2007; Chen et al., 2018; Deery & Jago, 2010; Gibson et al., 2014; Girginov & Hills, 2009; Ma & Kaplanidou, 2017), urban development (see Andranovich et al., 2001; Burbank et al., 2001; Smith, 2012) and sport participation (see Aizawa et al., 2018; Chalip et al., 2017; Hayday et al., 2017; Ramchandani et al., 2015; Veal et al., 2019; Weed et al., 2015) outcomes.

While a local government may have multiple roles and responsibilities within their community, their ultimate task is to ensure the needs of their citizens are met as well as possible (Carey et al., 2017; Lazar & Seal, 2005; Tindal, 1977). This role includes decisions related to sport events, how public money is used, and whether public needs and interests are met through sport event hosting. Therefore, the extent to which residents know about events, are engaged in decision making, whether promised outcomes are achieved, and their actual experiences with a sport event may have implications for how residents feel about their local government.

Given claims made by event proponents regarding possible event impacts, scholars have investigated the extent to which hosting sport events can bring about such positive outcomes. This work has largely been conducted in the context of mega sport events, where limited economic outcomes are observed for the host community, and evidence of social outcomes, particularly long-term social outcomes, is lacking. Thus, scholars have pointed to first a strategic turn in seeking positive event outcomes (see Chalip, 2000, 2004; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008), and have suggested that perhaps smaller, or non-mega sport events have more potential for host communities compared to their mega sport event counterparts (see Agha & Taks, 2015; Taks, 2013, 2016).

Considering these lines of thought, this dissertation sought to investigate the long-term outcomes of publicly funded, non-mega sport events (in this case two iterations of the Canada Games), and to examine the role of trust, knowledge, and power in the public/government relationship and event support in relation to these outcomes. The following sections provide an overview of relevant literature and substantiate the research questions investigated to achieve the purpose of the project. Next, the research approach is presented, including the research context,

philosophical worldview, research design, and methods. Finally, an outline of the dissertation is offered before proceeding to chapter II.

Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

Actors in the (Publicly Funded) Sport Event Context

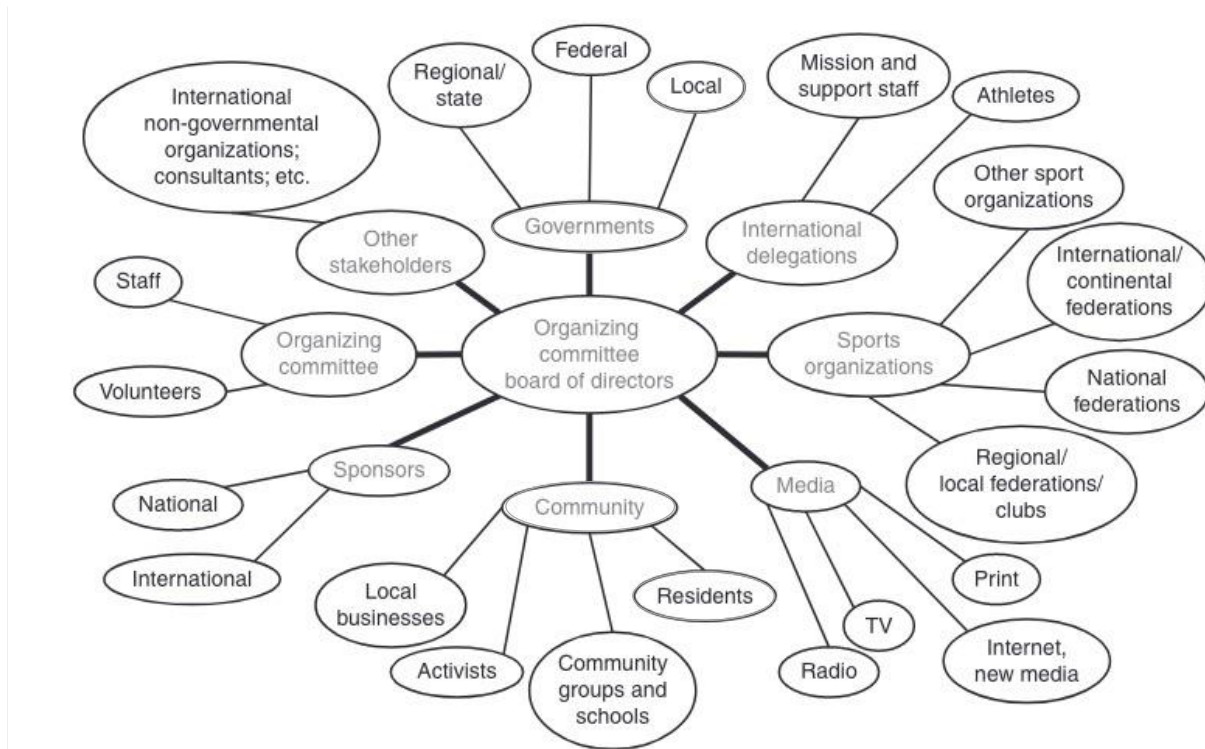
Scholars have clearly articulated that there are many actors involved in bidding for, and hosting sport events of all sizes (see Parent & Chappelet, 2017). For instance, event rights holders, sport organizations, sponsors, athletes, host residents, event organizing committees, local, regional, and national governments, each have interests and roles in sport event hosting (Parent, 2016; Parent & Chappelet, 2017). Figure 1.1 below represents many of the actors involved in the major sport event context. Scholars have often used stakeholder theory to better understand the roles, responsibilities, and relationships between actors within event contexts.

Stakeholder theory focuses on those individuals or groups who affect, or are affected by, an organization's actions (Freeman, 1984; Friedman et al., 2004). In sport event research, scholars have employed stakeholder theory to understand planning and implementation processes (Parent, 2008), risk management (Leopkey & Parent, 2009; Parent & Séguin, 2007), and more broadly, decision making (Parent, 2010). Stakeholder theory provides researchers the opportunity to investigate a central organization and the multitude of actors (their stakeholders) within a sport event context. Typically, the event organizing committee or rights holder has been considered the central organization in this context (see Figure 1.1 below; Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013). Existing work in this area has offered important insights into how sport events are bid for, planned, implemented, and how event outcomes may be managed. Within the broader network of sport event stakeholders, the (local) government and host city residents have a relationship which exists prior to, during, and long after an event is hosted. This relationship is of particular

importance for publicly funded sport events. Thus, the two specific actors that I focus on in this dissertation are the host residents and the (local) government.

Figure 1.1

A major sport event's stakeholder map



Note. Shaded areas demonstrate the actors of interest in this study. Adapted from *Managing major sports events: Theory and practice*, (pp. 17) by M. M. Parent and S. Smith-Swan, 2013. Copyright 2013 by Routledge. Reprinted with permission.

Role of the Government

In Canada, all three levels of government (federal, provincial/territorial, and municipal) are involved in sport, and therefore sport events, to varying extents. The role of government actors in sport event hosting depends on a few factors, such as to which level of government we are referring, and what type of event is being sought. Generally, the coordination and collaboration between levels increases along with the complexity of the event in question (Carey et al., 2017).

The Canadian federal government has been directly involved in sport broadly, and sport events specifically, since the 1960s (Comeau, 2013; McCloy, 2009; McCloy & Thibault, 2013; Thibault & Harvey, 2013). Currently the Canadian Sport Policy 2012 highlights events as means to promote economic development, community development, high-performance sport success, civic pride and engagement, and general benefits for Canadian communities (Government of Canada, 2012). Further, the Federal Policy on Hosting International Sport Events clearly outlines the federal government's position regarding event hosting. While these documents indicate political support of sport and sport events specifically, federal funding systems like the Hosting Program indicate financial support of certain sport event hosting initiatives as well. Provincial and territorial governments are similarly involved in supporting sport in general, and sport events specifically. This support is indicated in provincial and territorial policies and funding opportunities, and the political support often offered when events are sought after. For example, the Province of Alberta published *Going the Distance: The Alberta Sport Plan* in 2014. This policy outlined the province's strategy to advance sport through 2024, including the Alberta Government's goal of hosting more local, provincial, national, and international sport events. The policy clearly demonstrated the Province's will in seeking and funding events at all levels (Alberta Government, 2014).

Local governments in Canada are comprised of elected officials, and the public servants who work to implement municipal policy and city services (Carey et al., 2017). As discussed above, local government has a wide variety of roles and responsibilities regarding its residents, including but not limited to, infrastructure development and maintenance, waste removal, and social provisions such as recreation and culture services (Lazar & Seal, 2005). In the context of publicly funded sport events, local government may be involved in bidding for, and hosting

events either through political, financial, and in-kind support. Municipal governments may also have policies or strategic documents to help guide decision making in relation to event bidding and hosting. For instance, the City of Red Deer has recently developed a *Major Event Strategy and Destination Development Framework* (2021). This strategy outlines the city's goal of "being recognized as the top major event destination among mid-sized cities in Canada." (Expedition Management Consulting & City of Red Deer, 2021). In this strategic document, events are highlighted as ways to meet economic and social goals within the city, and a key component of the city's broader destination development strategy. Sport events are clearly positioned as desirable and appropriate for the City of Red Deer to meet these goals.

Each level of government's involvement in sport event bidding and hosting, and the type and extent of support will depend on the type of event as well. For instance, a small, one-off, day-long sport event in small town Nova Scotia will likely not receive the attention of the federal or provincial governments, while hosting a mega event like the Olympic Games will require much interest and financial commitment from all three levels of government (Bakhsh et al., 2022). The role of each level of government in the event contexts included in this study are outlined in more detail in the research context section below and in Chapter III.

Host Residents

Host residents are typically defined as those individuals living within the city in which an event is hosted. Elsewhere, this group has been defined as the host community (Derom et al., 2017). Host residents are a central actor within sport event contexts, and particularly publicly funded sport event contexts, for two main reasons. First and foremost, host residents are taxpayers and therefore their tax dollars may be used to fund aspects of sport event hosting or event-related development within a city (e.g., infrastructure development and/or improvement).

Further, justification for hosting an event in the first place often includes potential positive outcomes for the host community in general, not only for those involved in sport. This means that for their investment, host residents deserve some type of return from their city hosting an event (Davies et al., 2019; Késenne, 2012). Second, host residents' support of event hosting is integral to the success of hosting an event (Helsen et al., 2022; Preuss & Solberg, 2006; Rocha, 2020).

Given governments' role in supporting sport event hosting, their role in meeting the needs of the public, and residents' role as taxpayer, I suggest that the local government should, at least in part, be responsible for ensuring that community-focused event objectives are worked towards, and ideally met, post-event. The public/government relationship is thus worthy of investigation in the context of publicly funded sport events.

Theorizing the Public/Government Relationship

While stakeholder theory, described above, provides an overall picture of the actors involved in sport event processes, the investigation of the public/government relationship in publicly funded sport events requires a narrower perspective. The relationship between these two actors specifically could be conceptualized as an exchange relationship, or as a principal/steward or principal-agent relationship. In an exchange relationship, residents are assumed to provide event support if the benefits of the event outweigh the costs, whereas in stewardship or agency relationships, the government is positioned as acting *for*, or *on behalf of*, residents. Each of these approaches will be discussed briefly below.

Social Exchange Theory. Research focusing on host residents, sport events, and the public/government relationship to date has primarily used social exchange theory to better understand how and why residents do or do not support hosting events (e.g., Kim & Manoli,

2022). Social exchange theory posits that if one party determines the benefits of a potential interaction or exchange to outweigh the costs, that they will engage in that exchange (Ap, 1992; Blau, 1986). When considering the role of the government in supporting sport event hosting, social exchange theory could be used to investigate the public/government relationship in regard to sport event objectives and outcomes.

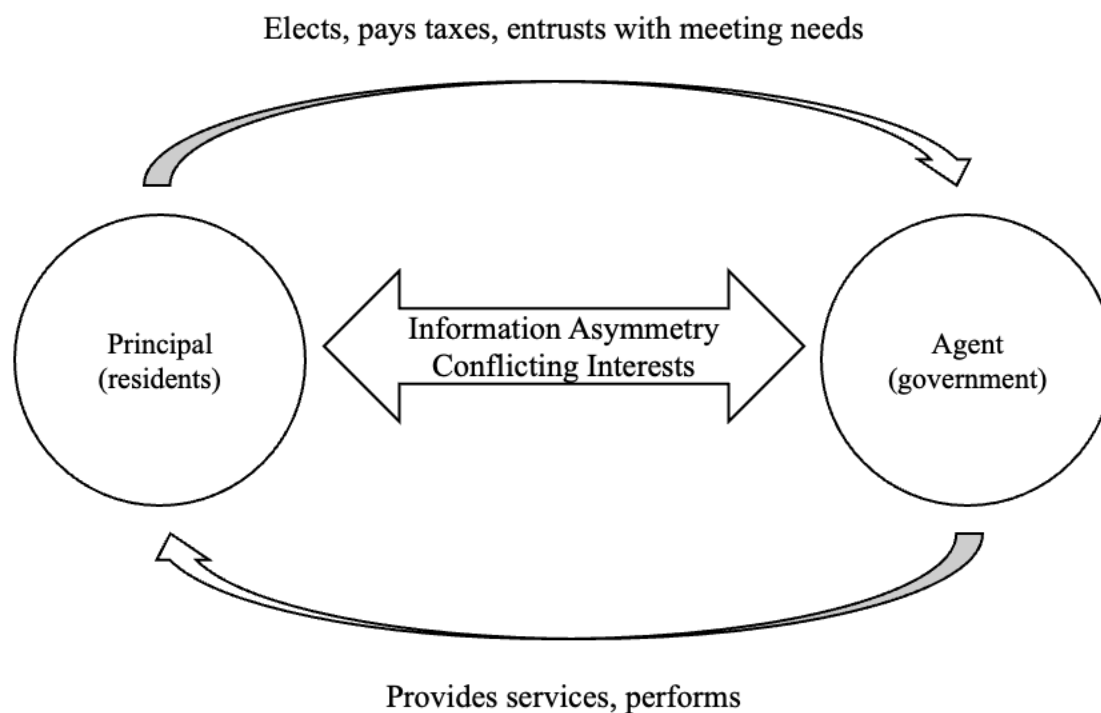
Social exchange theory is a valid and useful theory for investigating event support and event outcomes, and its popularity in sport event research supports this (Deery & Jago, 2010; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012; Weimar & Rocha, 2017). However, the extent of its use in this area leaves other theoretical perspectives lacking, and as such there is an opportunity to conceptualize the public/government relationship in regard to event objectives and outcomes in a different way. Of particular importance is that social exchange theory does not position the government explicitly as an actor that is meant to work for its residents. Stewardship theory and agency theory both offer this particular perspective, each through a unique lens.

Stewardship Theory. Stewardship theory explains a dyadic relationship between two parties: a steward and its principals. In stewardship theory, principals delegate certain tasks to their stewards, who are charged with working in the principal's best interest (Davis et al., 1997). Stewardship theory is underpinned by the assumption that actors within the relationship want to act altruistically and are motivated not by their own goals but by the goals of their principals (Schillemans, 2013). Stewardship theory could allow researchers to centre the dyadic public/government relationship within the sport event research context, and as citizens, we may want to believe that our governments act in our best interest; however, the assumption of altruism in the sport event context may not necessarily fit. In the context of sport event hosting, it has been observed in many different instances where government decisions do not align with

resident interests and needs (discussed in more detail below), and therefore, while actors may be well-intentioned, the central tenets of agency theory as opposed to stewardship theory seem to prevail in this context.

Agency Theory. Agency theory, or principal-agent theory, consists of theorizing the relationship between two parties; the principal who delegates certain tasks or responsibilities to their agent (Eisenhardt, 1989a; Mitnick, 1973; Shapiro, 2005). A basic visual representation of the principal-agent relationship in the political context is outlined in Figure 1.2. Agency theory has its roots in economics, where the principal-agent relationship primarily exists within contractual, business contexts (see Jensen & Meckling, 1976). However, fields such as political science and sociology have since adapted and applied the theory to other contexts as well.

According to Mitnick (1973), the principal-agent relationship is not unlike the relationship between constituents and elected officials, whereby the elected officials (agents) are acting for the constituents (principals). Agency theory is underpinned by two main concepts, or problems; information asymmetry and conflicting interests (Waterman & Meier, 1998). Information asymmetry describes how often the agent will have more information than their principal in a specific context. Conflicting interests describes how the principal and the agent will have different interests and goals in the partnership. The extent to which information asymmetry and conflicting interests occur in a principal-agent relationship determine the extent to which the agent may act opportunistically and put their own needs ahead of those of their principal. Thus, the main assumption of agency theory is that the agent will act in their own self-interest when possible.

Figure 1.2*Principal-Agent Relationship*

Note. Adapted from Twinomurinzi and Ghartey-Tagoe (2011)

The theoretical approach for this dissertation is therefore grounded in applying agency theory to the public/government relationship in the sport event context and draws specifically on how resident experiences with a sport event may influence their relationship with their local government. Agency theory has been applied in various sporting contexts (e.g., Geeraert & Drieskens, 2015; Mason, 1997; Mason et al., 2006; Mason & Slack, 2005; Schlesinger & Doherty, 2020; Steele & Scherrer, 2018); however, has not yet been applied to the public/government relationship in a sport event context. Phase 1 of this project outlines the application of agency theory to the sport event context and is described in Chapter II below. The theoretical approach to this project is also subsequently described in relation to each of the two empirical papers, presented in Chapters III and IV.

Interest Alignment, Event Objectives, and Outcomes

Government event supporters have often justified hosting and financial contributions by promoting various supposed event legacies or outcomes for the host community. The interests in event hosting of the event providers, including the government, and host residents may not necessarily align (McGillivray & McPherson, 2012). For instance, in the context of mega event hosting, political motivations can drive hosting, while the outcomes of events may be inequitable and, ultimately citizens may not reap many, or any, benefits (Black, 2017). When interests do align, and event objectives are planned with the host community in mind, such objectives may still not be realized post-event.

The concept of legacy has become embedded in the sport event bidding and hosting process since the 1980s (Leopkey & Parent, 2016). In 2007, Preuss defined sport event legacies as all that remains following an event. Preuss (2007) conceptualized legacy using a cube, focusing on planned, unplanned, positive, negative, tangible, and intangible categorizations of legacy. Prior to Preuss' definition, scholars identified and categorized various outcomes of events. For instance, Ritchie (1984) identified six categories of impacts from hallmark events. These included sociocultural, economic, political, psychological, tourism/commercial, and physical (Ritchie, 1984). Other research has distinguished between the triple-bottom-line of event impacts, that is, the economic, social, and environmental outcomes of hosting. Research existing in each of these three areas has primarily focused on the impacts of mega sport events (Taks, 2013).

Economically, most research has highlighted the lack of positive economic impact from hosting mega sport events (Késenne, 2012; Müller, 2017), while others have outlined the cost overruns associated with hosting such large events (Flyvbjerg et al., 2021). Scholars have

outlined that the methods used to produce economic impact assessments on mega sport events are typically imbalanced, and therefore suggest an inflated positive impact (Késenne, 2012; Taks et al., 2011). When methods such as cost-benefit analyses are used; however, it is clear that often the costs of hosting outweigh the benefits for the host community (Black, 2008).

Given the lack of economic legacy or positive economic outcomes from mega sport events, event proponents have turned to highlighting supposed positive social impacts from hosting. These included social outcomes like social cohesion, well-being, psychic income, sport participation and community spirit, and more (Fredline et al., 2003; Taks & Rocha, 2022). In their research on social outcomes from sport events, researchers have found that while there may be some short-term positive impacts, there is inconsistent and limited evidence to suggest that social outcomes are sustainable and remain long after hosting (Chen et al., 2018; Gibson et al., 2014). For example, investigating event outcomes eight months post-event, Gibson and colleagues (2014) found that while psychic income increased from pre- to post-event, social cohesion decreased.

Elsewhere, Rocha (2020) found that residents' perceptions of event outcomes of the 2016 Olympic Games decreased in the two years post-event. While some researchers have begun focusing on a longer-term perspective (e.g., Bakhsh et al., 2022; Rocha, 2020), there remains a lack of research on event outcomes longer than two years after hosting. In relation to increased sport participation, research does not support a sustained effect from hosting sport events (for notable exceptions, see Aizawa et al., 2018; Chalip et al., 2017). Thus, without strategic and deliberate planning, there is a lack of long-term positive social outcomes for the host community (Chalip et al., 2017; Misener, 2015). This suggests that promises made by event proponents regarding the outcomes intended for host residents do not necessarily come to fruition, and

therefore may not fulfill the interests of host residents, or at the least are not meeting presupposed, well-intentioned, event objectives.

Indeed, scholars have determined that simply hosting an event does not produce lasting, sustainable, and positive outcomes for the host community (Chalip, 2017; Derom et al., 2017; Taks et al., 2015). Thus, researchers have suggested various ways to strategically plan for, and pursue, event outcomes as well as conditions within which such outcomes are more likely to occur. First, many sport event scholars have turned to the concept of leveraging as opposed to legacy. Leveraging was first introduced by Chalip (2000, 2006) and is focused on the strategic use of sport events to achieve pre-determined objectives. Leveraging was initially developed in the context of mega sport events and focused on how events could be used as tools in achieving economic and tourism objectives (Chalip, 2000; Chalip & Leyns, 2002; O'Brien, 2007) and social goals (Chalip, 2006; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). The economic leverage model is based on the event portfolio of the city or region and focuses on increasing visitor spending and extending their stays in the area in order to improve economic potential of the event (Chalip, 2017). The social leverage model is based on leveraging *communitas* (the sense of community that can occur for those attending a sport event) and *liminality* (a feeling of celebration and the sense that social rules have been relaxed) associated with an event and aligning the event with the targeted social issues identified in the host area (Chalip, 2006, 2017). While leveraging for long-term, sustainable outcomes of sport events, challenges remain in applying leveraging tactics in practice. Researchers continue to express that leveraging is challenging due to the relationships necessary to execute the strategy, the necessary capacity to carry out leveraging plans which some organizations may lack, and certain restrictions on what leveraging strategies may be employed (Chalip, 2014; Kelly et al., 2019).

Second, scholars have begun to point to the potential of smaller, non-mega sport events to achieve pre-determined objectives, impact the host community positively, or at the least, mitigate negative impacts that may be seen in the mega sport event context. Where mega sport events, or Type A events are “irregular, one-off, major international spectator events generating significant economic activity and media interest” (Gratton et al., 2000, p. 26), non-mega sport events are those events which are one-off, smaller in resource demand, yet still create a shock in the host community (Taks et al, 2015). These one-off non-mega sport events align more with Gratton and colleagues’ (2000) Type C events; “irregular, one-off, major international spectator/competitor events generating limited economic activity” (p. 26) and Type D events; “major competitor events generating limited economic activity and part of an annual cycle of sports events” (p. 26). The potential of these smaller non-mega sport events in comparison to their mega sport event counterparts has been attributed to non-mega sport events’ smaller resource demand (Agha & Taks, 2015) and their likelihood of being more embedded within local communities (Taks, 2013), amongst other factors. Research investigating legacy and leveraging in the context of non-mega sport events is indeed promising yet has also highlighted challenges in strategically using events to reach broader objectives. In the context of non-mega sport events in particular, leveraging research has highlighted the need for sustained partnerships and collaborative planning in pursuit of realizing benefits from sport events (Misener et al., 2015; Smith, 2010; Taks et al., 2015).

Finally, the notion of a multi-sectoral event portfolio has been the topic of various research. Scholars such as Ziakas and Costa (2011), and Clark and Misener (2015), for instance, have suggested cities create event portfolios that provide the tools to strategically work towards broader objectives. A combination of event sizes and types (e.g., arts, food and culture, sport,

music, etc.) in a city may have more potential for meeting resident needs than hosting a one-off mega event or focusing mainly on one sector. In this way, local governments can plan for a schedule of non-mega sport events that fit into their city's event portfolio without potentially diverting resources or energy away from other opportunities.

Regardless of the type of sport event and the types of outcomes sought, the strategic pursuit of outcomes aligned with the needs of the community is essential for sustainable positive impacts from sport events to occur. While research investigating objectives and outcomes of mega sport events suggests that community-focused event objectives may not be met, little is known of these topics in the non-mega sport event context, particularly from a long-term perspective. Therefore, in Phase 2 of this dissertation, I investigated event objectives and long-term outcomes from host resident and event provider (i.e., local government) perspectives. As such, I sought to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What were the long-term community-focused objectives of a publicly funded non-mega sport event?

RQ1a: How were residents involved?

RQ1b: To what extent were host city residents aware of objectives?

RQ2: What are the long-term community-focused outcomes of a publicly funded non-mega sport event?

RQ2a: According to event providers?

RQ2b: According to host city residents?

RQ3: How do long-term outcome perspectives correspond between the two groups?

Event Experiences and Investigating the Public/Government Relationship

Given the established relationship between the government and host residents in the context of publicly funded sport events, residents' experiences with an event may influence their relationship with their local government, thus this relationship is worth investigating. In addition to the importance of resident support in the success of an event, scholars have acknowledged the potential role of residents in decision making and taking into account community needs when planning and holding events (Burbank et al., 2001; Getz & Page, 2016; Hall, 1992; Misener & Mason, 2006).

Increasingly, residents have been involved in deciding whether their city is to bid for an event through voting in public referenda. Such votes allow residents to indicate their support, or lack thereof, for hosting an event in their city, and thus exercise their ability to participate in public decision making (Kellison & Mills, 2020; Maennig, 2017; Streicher et al., 2019). In one sport-related example, Kellison and Mills (2020) investigated resident support of public funding for a stadium, though no official referendum took place. The authors found that residents' views on stadium funding predicted their likelihood to vote in a future general election (Kellison & Mills, 2020). These findings clearly demonstrate how sport-related public decision making has broader political implications, supporting the need for further investigation into how sport-related decisions influence the public/government relationship. Elsewhere, Coates and Wicker (2015) investigated a failed referendum in the context of a potential 2022 Winter Olympic Games Bid in Munich, Germany. The authors analyzed determinants of voting favourably for hosting the Games, and found that, amongst other factors, political affiliation and concerns regarding crowding-out of regular tourists may have limited favourable votes. In other recent examples, Oslo, Norway, Sion, Switzerland, and Krakow, Poland, amongst other cities have

withdrawn bids based on negative referenda results or poor public support (Johnston et al., 2021).

Clearly resident support is integral to an event's success. Thus, event proponents may attempt to influence the narrative of potential event outcomes to demonstrate purported positive outcomes for the host community (Anderson & Taks, 2018; Könecke et al., 2016; Sant & Mason, 2015). In one example in the context of the 2010 Vancouver Olympic and Paralympic Games bid, Sant and Mason (2015) found that pro-bid supporters used economic impact messaging to garner support during a time of economic challenge in the host area, then shifted the dominant narrative towards less-tangible aspects of legacy as a public vote drew near. Similarly, taking a socio-political discourse perspective, Anderson and Taks (2018) examined how a local government exercised control over residents' perspectives of a non-mega sport event (the 2013 International Children's Games).

Typically, referenda are held in the context of mega sport events, where large amounts of public funding are invested into hosting; however, these instances further demonstrate the connection between the public, government, and public decision making in sport spaces more broadly. Given that non-mega sport events are often more embedded within the host community, and that they are more pervasive (i.e., more non-mega sport events may be hosted by one location over a given period), residents' involvement in event hosting and how this may influence their relationship with their local government is worthy of investigation in the publicly funded, non-mega sport event context.

Aside from the aforementioned studies investigating resident support in referenda and legacy-focused discourse, scholars have also investigated the extent to which resident perceptions of event outcomes may predict event support. Primarily drawing on social exchange

theory, researchers have indicated that the more positive outcomes perceived by residents, the more likely they are to support the event (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Helsen et al., 2022; Johnston et al., 2021; Kaplanidou et al., 2013; Weimar & Rocha, 2017). For example, Johnston and colleagues (2021) found that residents who perceived an increase in community pride from event hosting were more likely to support hosting a future Commonwealth Games in their community.

Considering the connections between resident engagement in decision making and event impact perceptions, scholars have begun to investigate how these factors influence individuals' trust in their government. To do so, concepts of impact or outcome perceptions, knowledge, power, and trust have been used, often alongside event support. Knowledge refers to an individual's perceived understanding of the context at hand (Nunkoo et al., 2018). Power refers to an individual's perceived influence in the context at hand, and their perceived influence over other parties in that context (Nunkoo, 2015; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). This conceptualization of power stems from Lukes (2004) who explains three types of power, one of which focuses on an individual's ability to influence others' actions. Trust refers to a graded judgement of another party within the context (Levi & Stoker, 2000; Wong et al., 2011). A discussion of the conceptualization of knowledge, power, and trust can be found in Chapters II and IV.

Using knowledge, power, and trust, researchers have found that residents' knowledge of, and power in, an event hosting context may impact their relationship with their government and their support of events. For example, Nunkoo and colleagues (2018) found that residents' knowledge in the event context predicted their trust. In the tourism context, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012) found evidence to suggest that residents' perceptions of their influence in tourism development (i.e., power) predicted their trust in government. Further, residents' trust in

their government has been found to impact their event outcome perceptions (Gursoy et al., 2017) and their event support (Ouyang et al., 2017). To date, this work has only been conducted in the context of mega sport events (predominantly the 2014 FIFA World Cup) and has investigated such relationships prior to the event in question taking place.

However, as discussed above, non-mega sport events are often more embedded within communities. Therefore, non-mega sport events may have more influence on how residents perceive their government. Further, given the enduring public/government relationship prior to, and well past an event, a long-term investigation of how hosting may impact the public/government relationship is warranted. Furthermore, the aforementioned literature has primarily focused on investigating resident *perceptions* as opposed to actual lived experiences of an event (for exceptions see Helsen et al., 2022; Oshimi et al., 2021; Taks et al., 2020). Some existing work suggests that resident expectations pre-event may be higher than their evaluation of experiences post-event (see Gibson et al., 2014; Rocha, 2020; Taks & Rocha, 2022), thus the relationship between resident knowledge of, power in, and experiences of, an event context post-event may differ than that of pre-event. As such, the implications of hosting sport events and the long-term outcomes of such events may influence the relationship between residents and their government for years following the event.

Therefore, building off the theoretical approach in phase 1 and the data collected in phase 2 of this dissertation, phase 3 involved investigating the public/government relationship and event support in the context of publicly funded, non-mega sport events. To do so, I sought to answer the following research questions:

RQ4: How do host community residents' knowledge and power of an event and event experiences (social impact and outcomes) affect general political trust (DV1) from a long-term post-event perspective?

RQ5: How do host community residents' knowledge and power of an event, event experiences (social impact and outcomes), and general political trust affect event support (DV2) from a long-term post-event perspective?

Summary

Both local government as event supporters, decision makers, and funders, and host residents as taxpayers, play an important role in the context of publicly funded sport events. Often, positive outcomes from hosting events are touted as justification for providing public funds to such ventures. However, the interests of host residents may not be met, and event objectives may not be realized, particularly from a long-term perspective. The extent to which residents know about event hosting, are involved in event-related decisions (power), and their event experiences may influence their relationship with their local government (i.e., trust), given the government's role in providing appropriate services for its residents. Thus, the purpose of this dissertation is to investigate the long-term outcomes of publicly funded, non-mega sport events, and to examine the role of trust, knowledge, and power in the public/government relationship and event support in relation to these outcomes.

The literature review above has outlined specific gaps in existing literature that this dissertation addresses. Theoretically, this dissertation focuses on a central dyadic relationship in the context of publicly funded sport events – that between the public and their government. While this relationship has been investigated to some extent in mega event contexts and in tourism (e.g., Gursoy et al., 2017; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013), there

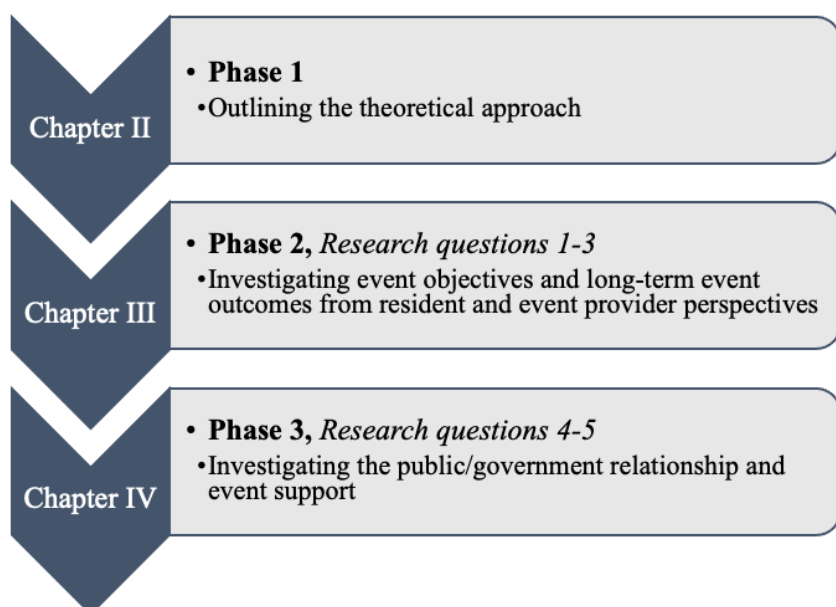
remains a lack of understanding regarding how sport event experiences may influence residents' relationships with their local government. In this study, I used agency theory in a new way to investigate the dyadic public/government relationship, advance our understanding of publicly funded sport events, and to contribute to theoretical advancement in sport (event) management.

Methodologically and contextually, there have been calls for research in the context of non-mega sport events and for more long-term event outcome research. To date, scholars have outlined that smaller events may have more potential than mega sport events in achieving positive, or at least mitigating negative, outcomes (e.g., Agha & Taks, 2015; Taks, 2013, 2016). Further, research to date has often lacked a perspective longer than two years post-event (Rocha, 2020). In this dissertation, I address both gaps in the field by investigating two publicly funded non-mega sport events three- and 11-years post event.

The theoretical perspective and contribution of the dissertation, as well as each research question above are addressed as outlined in Figure 1.3 in the following chapters.

Figure 1.3

Dissertation project output overview



Research Context

The Canada Games

The Canada Games are a series of national, publicly funded non-mega sport events that were initially started in 1967 to help build national unity in Canada (McCloy, 2009; Morrow & Wamsley, 2010), and to develop stronger Canadian athletes for ultimate performance on the international stage (McDonald & McLaughlin, 1977). The Canada Games began at a time where the Canadian federal government was concerned with unity between French and English Canada, as well as declining physical activity rates and poor international sporting performances (McCloy, 2009; Bodin & Misener, 2020). The implementation of a national youth multi-sport event was seen as one way to address these concerns. Since 1997, the Canada Games have been governed by the Clear Lake Agreement, which clearly outlines the role of all levels of the Canadian government in ensuring the Games occur every two years (Government of Canada, 1997). Since the implementation of the Clear Lake Agreement, the Games have evolved but they remain politically driven and a significant component of the Canadian sport system. The Canada Games are financially supported by all three levels of government – local, provincial/territorial, and federal, for both operational and capital costs. The objectives of the Canada Games broadly include athlete development, national unity, community development, and sport development (Bodin & Misener, 2020). The Games' place in Canadian sport is demonstrated by wording in the Federal Policy for Hosting International Sport Events, which highlights the events' importance in Canadian sport even though the Games are not specifically governed by the policy in question (Government of Canada, 2008).

The Canada Games occur on a bi-annual basis, alternating between winter and summer events, similar to the Olympic and Paralympic Games schedule. Hosts for each iteration of the

Games are determined by the Canada Games Council, yet hosting locations rotate thereby allowing each Province and Territory an opportunity to host. The hosting rotation was established as part of the Clear Lake Agreement in 1997. Typically, the Canada Games are hosted in mid-sized Canadian cities, where the Games may have an impact on the community but also where hosting is relatively feasible in terms of resources and existing facilities.

For my doctoral research, I chose to use two iterations of the Canada Games as cases. I had previous research experience with the Canada Games from investigating their role in the Canadian sport system while completing my Master of Arts degree in 2018. Further, I had begun developing working relationships with staff at the Canada Games Council when applying for a grant in partnership with the organization in 2019. These logistical factors along with the Games' role in Canadian sport and the amount of public funding used to host the Games made them an appropriate context for this study. The two iterations of the Canada Games that served as objects of investigation for this study were the 2011 Canada Winter Games, held in Halifax, Nova Scotia and the 2019 Canada Winter Games, held in Red Deer, Alberta. This research project was planned and conducted independently from the Canada Games Council, both event host societies, and the host municipalities.

The following sections provide brief contextual information regarding each of the two events studied, and the cities within which they were hosted. More thorough contextual information regarding the events and their specific objectives is provided in Chapter III.

2011 Canada Winter Games – Halifax, Nova Scotia

The 2011 Canada Winter Games were hosted in Halifax, the capital of Nova Scotia. Halifax is a mid-sized Canadian city located on the East Coast of Canada. Prior to hosting the 2011 Canada Winter Games, Halifax had hosted the first summer iteration of the Canada Games

in 1969. The 2011 event was the first Canada Games that required event legacy objectives to be formally incorporated into the event bidding process. Therefore, the 2011 Canada Winter Games provided the longest time frame within which to investigate long-term event outcomes (data collection occurred ten- to 11-years post-event). This time frame offered a useful context through which to advance our understanding of long-term event outcomes given existing research is typically conducted within two years of an event wrapping up. Logistically, I had existing personal connections with individuals who had lived in Halifax during the Games, and therefore had some relationships upon which to draw when recruiting participants.

Politically, the local government and elected officials had changed in the time between the event bid and hosting, and data collection for this project. Although the project at hand addresses residents' perspectives of the local government in general and not specific individuals, this is worth noting. In Halifax, the mayor during the 2011 Games had since moved positions and was no longer working in the province. The current mayor of Halifax (during data collection) had been involved in local politics during the 2011 Canada Games bidding and hosting process; however, was not directly involved in the Games (R. Smith, personal correspondence, March 25, 2021). Similarly, city councillors from Games-time had either retired or moved to other positions since the Games.

2019 Canada Winter Games – Red Deer, Alberta

The 2019 Canada Winter Games were held in Red Deer, Alberta, a mid-sized Canadian city located halfway between Alberta's two largest cities – Calgary and Edmonton. Red Deer had not hosted a Canada Games prior to hosting the 2019 event. At the time of data collection, the 2019 Canada Winter Games was the most recent edition of the Winter Games. Investigating the 2019 Canada Winter Games offered the opportunity to investigate longer-term event outcomes

(two- to three-years post-event), while mitigating the potential for inadequate recall which may arise from investigating longer time frames (such as that of the 2011 Games; Gavin, 2013). This timeframe was appropriate since existing long-term post-event research in the mega sport event context has been completed up to two years post-event (e.g., Rocha, 2020). Further, I had existing relationships with individuals who worked as staff within the event's host society and knew of people living in Red Deer at the time of the Games.

The Red Deer mayor was in their role during the event bid, hosting, and during most of data collection for this project. However, mid-way through collecting focus group data, and prior to questionnaire data collection, the city underwent a municipal election, and a new mayor was elected. Most city councillors involved in local politics during the bid for, and hosting of, the Games were still in their positions during event provider interviews. Resident focus groups were conducted in the context of a municipal election, which may have affected some responses and the trajectory of some discussions.

Influence of COVID-19

It would be remiss not to address the influence of the COVID-19 pandemic on this project. Data for this project was collected during the COVID-19 pandemic, which meant that all data were collected virtually (via video conference, phone, or online questionnaires). While the mode of data collection did not seem to affect the results, lockdowns and public health restrictions leading up to and during portions of data collection may have influenced individuals' responses to certain questions, particularly those regarding use of facilities, or the community's ability to capitalize on the Games in 2020 onwards. While participants in Halifax had the opportunity to see their city at full capacity for approximately nine years post-event, Red Deer participants had only one-year post-event prior to the pandemic. As can be seen in Chapter III,

some participants noted that the pandemic limited the city's opportunity to capitalize on hosting the event.

Research Approach

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), a research approach is comprised of three components – the philosophical worldview from which the research is approached, the research design, and the methods. As such, this section will progress through each of these components.

Philosophical Worldview

A philosophical worldview, paradigm, or perspective comprises of how an individual views the world and the nature of knowledge (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Crotty, 1998; Guba, 1990), that is, their ontological and epistemological perspectives. Ontology refers to how reality is conceptualized (e.g., is there one “real” world?; Guba & Lincoln, 1994), while epistemology refers to the relationship between the knower and knowledge (e.g., does the knower influence what is to be known?; Guba & Lincoln, 1994). A researcher's philosophical worldview, therefore, influences each aspect of the research process (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Critical realism is a philosophical perspective whose emergence is largely attributed to Roy Bhaskar (Archer et al., 1998). Bhaskar developed critical realism while interrogating whether the natural sciences and social sciences need to be investigated in different ways (Bhaskar & Lawson, 1998). Stemming from critical naturalism and transcendental realism (Bhaskar & Lawson, 1998), critical realism suggests that reality is multi-layered, and seeks to include all perspectives in a holistic understanding of our social world (Bhaskar, 2010). Critical realists adhere to a realist ontology, while simultaneously rejecting a fully objectivist epistemology (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Therefore, if philosophical paradigms are conceptualized on a spectrum, critical realism lies somewhere between a postpositivist and a

constructivist worldview. Critical realism has been discussed philosophically since the 1970s; however, has only recently been applied empirically in sport studies research (see Byers, 2013; Downward, 2005; Lusted, 2018).

Byers and colleagues (2019) outlined four layers of reality acknowledged by critical realism described by Tsoukas (1994) in relation to mega sport event legacy. These are the superficial, material reality (e.g., legacy plans, bid documents, and policies), ideal reality (e.g., diverse views on how to realize these plans), artifactual reality (e.g., reactions to legacy, or support of legacy), and the most complex layer, social reality (e.g., the social aspects of individuals that shape their reactions and opinions of legacy; Byers et al., 2019). These four levels of reality become increasingly complex, intangible and abstract, allowing the researcher to holistically examine a phenomenon or context, and consider a variety of opinions and perspectives (Tsoukas, 1994). Throughout the research process I collected data and perspectives aligned with each of these layers of reality thus, this study was guided by a critical realist ontological perspective.

Research Design

This project was completed using a parallel, multiple case study methodology, as described by Yin (2018). As described above in the context section, the units of analysis were the 2011 Canada Winter Games and the 2019 Canada Winter Games. Using a parallel, multiple case study methodology aligns with my philosophical perspective in that it allowed for flexibility in investigating various facets of a subject of study and offered opportunity to investigate the social and historical contexts relevant to the research questions at hand (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007). Case studies also lend themselves well to answering how and why questions (Yin, 2018) and examining different perspectives of one topic from various sources of data (Eisenhardt &

Graebner, 2007), further strengthening the methodology's applicability in this project. Yin's (2018) case study approach in particular, compared to others such as those of Stake (1995) and Merriam (1998), is aligned with a positivist worldview, and is therefore supported by a critical realist perspective and supports the use of mixed methods approaches such as that undertaken here and discussed below.

I engaged in an exploratory sequential mixed methods research design. Mixed methods research involves collecting both qualitative and quantitative data and allows for a rigorous research approach engaging a variety of perspectives (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). A mixed methods approach is compatible with the philosophical approach (critical realism) and methodology (multiple case study) outlined above. Mixed methods research further aligns with a case study methodology, as it allows for a broad and holistic investigation of the case(s) at hand (Eisenhardt, 1989b; Yin, 2018).

Methods

Following Creswell and Creswell's (2018) description of a research approach, methods include data collection and data analysis. Given mixed methods research approaches involve collecting both qualitative and quantitative data, the project at hand progressed through multiple phases of data collection from a variety of sources. This strategy is also aligned with a critical realist philosophy and a case study methodology. While the project output is three separate papers, the questionnaire design stemmed specifically from the qualitative data collected to ensure context-specific questionnaires were administered. Three sources of qualitative data were collected in phase 2 of the project, informing the alignment of perspectives between groups. These were; documents and policies, semi-structured interviews with event providers, and focus groups with host city residents. Then, in phase 3, quantitative data were collected via

questionnaires provided to host city residents to investigate how event experiences may have influenced political trust and event support. The following sections briefly outline each data collection process, with more detail provided in the subsequent dissertation papers.

Data Collection

Data collection proceeded through four steps – document collection, interviews, focus groups, and questionnaires. In some cases, the process is outlined briefly below to avoid repetition with dissertation papers in chapters three and four. Information that was not included in the dissertation papers is outlined in more detail here, and where appropriate, included in appendices.

Documents and Policies

Pertinent documents and policies were collected to inform the context of the study and to provide insight into the event and policy objectives outlined prior to each event. To collect relevant documents and policies, I carried out searches on the local and provincial government websites, as well as general searches through Google. Search terms when using government websites included phrases such as “Canada Winter Games” and “Canada Games”, and searches on general search engines and the Canada Games Council website included more specific phrases such as “Halifax 2011 Canada Games legacy” and “Red Deer 2019 Canada Games legacy”. Specific host society documents were obtained from the Canada Games Council with the permission of a contact person on their staff. Further documents were collected throughout the interview process if interviewees were willing to share additional information. For example, municipal planning and evaluation documents were offered by municipality staff during their interviews. A total of 2,697 pages were included in the study. Chapter III provides more information regarding the source and number of documents collected, and Appendix A includes

a list of all documents and policies analyzed for this project. Once collected, all documents were uploaded to NVivo for organizational and data analysis purposes.

Semi-Structured Interviews

To further inform the perspective of event providers, intended event outcomes, and their opinions of event outcomes, I conducted semi-structured interviews with local government elected officials and staff, and host society staff and board members. Interviews were conducted between March and May 2021. I recruited individuals from both event contexts at the same time and thus collected data simultaneously. To recruit participants, I used information gleaned from the documents collected to identify relevant roles and individuals connected to each event. This allowed for purposive sampling and ensured that interview participants were able to respond to the interview questions. Individuals were contacted using publicly available contact information (predominantly email). Following initial interviews, snowball sampling was used to contact more participants. In these cases, participants were asked to share my contact information with other individuals who they felt could speak to the topics covered in the interview.

All interviews were conducted virtually, and either over video-conferencing applications (e.g., Zoom, Teams) or phone, depending on the participant's preference. Ten interviews were conducted in the Halifax context, ranging from 20 minutes to one hour. Twelve interviews were conducted in the Red Deer context, ranging from 36 minutes to one hour and 17 minutes. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. Upon transcription, interview transcripts were uploaded to NVivo to prepare for data analysis. Specific interview participant information such as pseudonym, de-identified job descriptor, and event affiliation is outlined in Chapter III, and the interview guide is provided in Appendix B.

Focus Groups

Focus groups with host city residents were conducted to gain an understanding of residents' experiences with, and general opinions of their respective event and its outcomes. When interested participants were unable or unwilling to attend a focus group, participants were offered the opportunity to participate in a one-on-one interview instead. The focus group guide is available below in Appendix C. Focus group recruitment began in July 2021 and continued through October 2021. First, I posted on social media (Twitter, Facebook, LinkedIn), and contacted personal connections in each city to ask them to do the same. Further, interviewees who indicated being able to offer additional help in recruiting focus group participants were asked to share the study information with interested parties. By the end of August 2021, two focus groups from Red Deer and one focus group from Halifax had been completed.

In September 2021, I began reaching out to community groups in each city to request assistance in recruiting additional focus group participants. Basic Google and Google Maps searches for “community group”, “neighborhood association”, “cultural association”, “Community club”, “Community recreation club”, and “volunteer association” were conducted to identify appropriate groups to contact. Organizations identified through these searches will collectively be referred to as “community groups” henceforth. The City of Halifax website was further used to identify non-profit groups that manage community gardens and trail networks, as well as neighborhood community developers. Groups contacted included charity/volunteer groups (i.e., Lions Clubs, Kinsmen Clubs), neighborhood associations, business associations, hobby groups (i.e., Toastmasters), cultural/heritage groups, and religious groups, to name a few. Locations that may have poster boards for community news were contacted as well (e.g., local coffee shops, public libraries).

Once community groups and organizations were identified, they were contacted via email asking to share focus group information with their members either via social media, their website, or other means appropriate for their group. If no response was received within one week of the initial request, I sent a follow-up email. In total, 111 community groups were contacted (44 in Red Deer, 67 in Halifax). Sixty-eight groups did not respond, 26 responded “Yes” to the request to share focus group information with their networks, and 19 responded “No” to the request. An additional eight did not have valid email addresses or responded that they needed more information. Table 1.1 lists the categories and responses of groups contacted. A complete list of all 111 groups contacted is available in Appendix D of this dissertation. Upon doing more research regarding participant recruitment, Craigslist and Kijiji ads were also posted mid-October to attempt to reach additional participants.

Table 1.1

Community Groups Contacted for Recruitment

City	Group Type	Response				Total
		Yes	No	None	Other	
Halifax	Businesses/Business Associations	3	0	6	0	9
	Charity/Volunteer Groups	0	0	3	0	3
	Community Association/Neighborhood Groups	1	0	1	0	2
	Community Centres/Public Spaces	1	0	2	0	3
	Community Gardens	2	1	7	5	15
	Cultural/Heritage Groups	2	1	3	0	6
	Halifax community Developers*	0	1	5	0	6
	Hobbies/Activities	2	0	5	0	7
	Religious Groups	1	4	1	0	6
	Trail Associations	0	0	7	1	8
	Other	0	1	1	0	2
	Total					67
Red Deer	Businesses/Business Associations	0	1	2	1	4
	Charity/Volunteer Groups	1	0	5	0	6

Community Association/Neighborhood Group	7	0	9	0	16
Community Centres/Public Spaces	2	0	1	1	4
Cultural and Heritage Groups	2	0	0	0	2
Hobbies/Activities	1	0	7	0	8
Religious Groups	0	0	2	0	2
Other	1	0	1	0	2
Total					44
Total	26	9	68	8	111

Note. *Halifax community developers are individuals associated with the municipality in community development leadership roles

In total, I conducted two focus groups (respectively three and two participants) and three one-on-one interviews with Halifax residents (8 participants total). These ranged from 38 minutes to 1 hour and 48 minutes. I conducted five focus groups (respectively five, three, three, two, and two participants) and four one-on-one interviews with Red Deer residents (19 total participants). The Red Deer resident discussions ranged from 32 minutes to 1 hour 31 minutes. Specific participant information including pseudonym, sport, and event involvement is provided in Chapter III. All focus groups and interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim and were subsequently added to NVivo to facilitate data analysis.

Questionnaires

For the final phase of this project, host city residents aged 18 years or older and who were aware of their respective event were recruited to complete a questionnaire. Two similar questionnaires were created based on existing literature and previous phases of data collection. The questionnaires investigated residents' event experiences (social impact experiences and infrastructure experiences), knowledge, and power in relation to the event, their trust in local government, and their event support. Demographic items such as age, gender, education, income,

and sport involvement were also included in the questionnaire. A sample of the questionnaire used is available in Appendix E.

Participants were recruited via social media, snowball sampling through past participants, community groups, and Survey Monkey Audience data. Due to challenges in recruiting, data were collected and analyzed from a total of 284 participants. Detailed information regarding the specific items used and recruitment tactics undertaken are included in Chapter IV below.

Data Analysis

Qualitative Data Analysis

Qualitative data collected from each phase of research were organized using NVivo and were analyzed using Braun and Clarke's (2006, 2012, 2019) approach to thematic analysis. Documents were analyzed first to help build context of the cases and to help identify potential interview participants. Interview transcripts were analyzed next, followed by focus group transcripts upon completion of data collection in October 2021. Thematic analysis involves six steps to data analysis, progressing through familiarizing oneself with the data through to reporting results (Braun & Clarke, 2012). This approach allowed me to identify patterns, and therefore themes, from the data as well as allowing me to analyze information across the data set and all data collection methods (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2012). Additional detail regarding the steps taken to analyze the qualitative data collected in this study is available in Chapter III. Thematic analysis is particularly appropriate for a mixed methods case study, which involves multiple forms of data, further demonstrating cohesion within this study (Tracy, 2010).

Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative questionnaire data collected for this project were used to answer research question four. To determine factors that may predict political trust and event support,

residents' experiences of the event, knowledge, and power were used as independent variables to test two conceptual models, outlined in Chapter IV. First, questionnaire responses were downloaded from the Survey Monkey platform and were amalgamated into one Microsoft Excel document. The data were then cleaned prior to uploading the data set to the analysis software. SPSS AMOS 26 was used to first conduct a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to test the measurement model and to test divergent and discriminant validity; second, SPSS was used to conduct two hierarchical regression analyses to test the proposed conceptual models. Additional detailed analysis information is provided in Chapter IV.

Research Quality

Indicators of research quality vary depending on the philosophical underpinnings of the research project at hand and the researchers conducting the project. For positivists, research quality may be evaluated based on generalizability and validity, while post-positivists or constructivists may focus more on factors like coherence, ethical considerations, and rigor (Ballinger, 2006). Guba (1981) explained how to ensure quality naturalistic research, which they described as a philosophical approach that assumes no one single truth or reality, and that the inquirer (researcher) and the object of research are interrelated. More recently, some scholars have focused on describing how to ensure quality qualitative research (Ravenek & Rudman, 2013; Tracy, 2010)

In their paper, Guba (1981) explains that trustworthiness in naturalistic research is achieved when credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability have been demonstrated. Other scholars, such as Tracy (2010) have further advanced criteria for research quality. Tracy (2010) suggested eight criteria for assessing quality in qualitative research. However, some of these criteria are similar to Guba's. For instance, Tracy's (2010) criteria

“resonance” includes demonstrating transferability. Following the critical realist approach taken for this study, which has roots in naturalistic inquiry, I will demonstrate how aspects of my study design ensured research quality using a combination of both Guba’s (1981) and Tracy’s (2010) criteria.

First, I employed purposive sampling throughout the semi-structured interview phase of data collection, indicating rich rigor (Tracy, 2010) and transferability (Guba, 1981). Purposive sampling allowed for me to maximize the information collected and perspectives heard in that particular phase of the study (Guba, 1981). Across the entire study I ensured multiple perspectives were sought (multivocality) from a range of sources and data (triangulation), indicating both confirmability and credibility for Guba (1981) and credibility for Tracy (2010). Further, documents and policies were collected in part at the same time as semi-structured interviews were conducted, fulfilling Guba’s (1981) suggestion for overlap methods and thus ensuring dependability. Throughout the dissertation and the resulting papers, I have also engaged in thick description of the research context and themes, indicating transferability (Guba, 1981), resonance, and credibility (Tracy, 2010). The successful publication of two of the three dissertation papers to date indicates confirmability, as well as meaningful coherence and significant contribution (Tracy, 2010). Finally, ethics approval certificates for both qualitative (#H-01-21-6507) and quantitative (#H-01-22-7734) phases of this project were obtained from the university’s research ethics board, ensuring the research was conducted ethically and thus adhering to Tracy’s (2010) ethics criteria for quality research.

Dissertation Outline

To achieve the broader purpose of my project, I organized this dissertation into three main papers following the article-based dissertation format. This approach allowed me to work

sequentially and ensure my research was disseminated via academic journals in a timely manner. The dissertation is then tied together with a global discussion and conclusion chapter. Below is a brief summary of each subsequent chapter.

Chapter II – Phase 1: Theoretical Approach

Chapter II, including the first dissertation paper, addresses the theoretical and conceptual underpinnings of the project, and advances the application of agency theory in sport event management research. This paper, titled *Unpacking the public/government relationship in the context of sport events: An agency theory approach*, was published in the *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics* in July 2022 (Bodin & Taks, 2022b). The purpose of this paper is to offer a conceptual approach to exploring the host resident/government relationship in the sport event context. As is done throughout the dissertation, we position host residents as the principal and the local government as agent. By presenting a proposed conceptual framework, we suggest using concepts of knowledge, power, and trust to evaluate how a host resident's event experience may influence their feelings towards their local government.

Chapter III – Phase 2

Chapter III includes the second dissertation paper, which addresses alignment of event objectives and outcomes between host residents and those responsible for bringing a publicly funded sport event to a city, specifically the local government, and includes the qualitative data collected for this project. This paper, titled *"We...We Had Fun, We Did Have Fun.": Long-Term Sport Event Outcomes And Community Tensions* was published in *Event Management* in August 2022 (Bodin & Taks 2022a). The paper draws on the qualitative data collected for this dissertation. Overall, the findings from this paper support existing research that calls for multi-sectoral event portfolios in cities to meet broader objectives. Further, our findings highlight that

while residents may evaluate their respective events positively, their experiences differed from those communicated by event providers.

Chapter IV – Phase 3

Chapter IV includes the third dissertation paper, which utilizes the quantitative data collected for this project. In this paper, I seek to extend our understanding of how residents' experiences with a sport event may influence their relationship with the government and their event support. The paper, titled *Predicting political trust and event support in the context of publicly funded sport events* was submitted to the *European Sport Management Quarterly* in December 2022. Overall, the findings from this paper suggest that residents' event experiences remain important long-term and highlight the role that public engagement can have in the public/government relationship.

Chapter V – Discussion and Conclusion

Chapter V concludes the dissertation, summarizes the key findings, and provides a discussion of themes that cut across the preceding three chapters. Specifically, Chapter V focuses on how data from Chapters III and IV relate to the theoretical approach outlined in Chapter II, the salience of infrastructure outcomes as long-term impacts of non-mega sport events, and broader implications of municipal projects and political trust. Further, given the contribution of the dissertation to long-term and non-mega sport event research, methodological challenges and implications are discussed. Finally, I address (de)limitations of the research and future directions for scholarship in this area.

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Chapter II

Unpacking the Public/Government Relationship in the Context of Sport Events: An Agency

Theory Approach

Bodin, K., & Taks, M. (2022). Unpacking the public/government relationship in the context of sport events: An agency theory approach. *International Journal of Sport Policy and Politics*, 1–15. doi: 10.1080/19406940.2022.2102669

Governments are often, at least in part, responsible for bringing sport events to a community and determining the amount of public funding invested into such events (Anderson & Taks, 2018). Government support is generally offered based on the assumption that hosting an event will positively impact the host community (McCloy, 2009). Meanwhile, government's primary function in a democratic society is to provide services and resources to the public so that their needs (i.e., education, health, infrastructure, leisure, etc.) may be met (Alford, 2002). Due to the government's role and responsibility to act in the best interest of the public, the public/Government relationship is important in the context of publicly funded sport events since taxpayer dollars are often used to work towards purported positive event outcomes, such as economic development or the enhancement of residents' social lives, which may not come to fruition.

Some existing work suggests that resident perceptions of sport event impacts and their relationship with the local government are related. Scholars have applied the concepts of trust, knowledge, and power in various ways to better understand residents' feelings towards tourism development (e.g., Nunkoo, 2015) and event support (e.g., Gursoy et al., 2017). Using the concept of political trust alongside social exchange theory, researchers found that higher levels

of trust among residents had a positive relationship with residents' perceived event impacts, and therefore event support (Gursoy et al., 2017) and citizen support of tourism development (Nunkoo, 2015; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). As a result, scholars have suggested that event and tourism industries have a significant political role in communities (Nunkoo, 2015). Further work has investigated the relationship between the host community and the local government analyzing public referenda in the context of sport events (Maennig, 2017; Streicher et al., 2019) and stadium subsidies (see Kellison & Mills, 2021; Kellison & Mondello, 2014). Additional research suggests that major sport events create a shock in the local community and affect residents regardless of their involvement with the event (Taks et al., 2015). Therefore, such events may affect the relationship between host residents and the local government if residents' needs are affected through hosting the event, for better or worse. Despite work demonstrating the importance of the relationship between the public and the government in the context of sport events, there remains little research investigating the intricacies of this relationship. As such, the purpose of this contribution is to offer a conceptual approach to explore the host resident/local government relationship in the sport event context. We suggest employing agency theory to situate the public/government dyadic relationship at the centre of the sport event context, and therefore better understand how the local government may serve host residents in the context of publicly funded sport events and investigate the political implications that sport events may have in communities.

Agency theory describes the relationship between a principal and an agent. The principal delegates certain tasks or responsibilities to a perceived expert, the agent (Shapiro, 2005; Waterman & Meier, 1998). Scholars outside of sport research have established that the principal-agent relationship central to agency theory has implications in the public administration space

where, for example, elected officials act on behalf of citizens. (Kiser, 1999; Miller, 2005; Mitnick, 1973; Shapiro 2005). These connections suggest that agency theory could be useful in understanding publicly funded sport events, whereby the local government (the agent) is responsible for acting on behalf of the host community residents (the principal). While we acknowledge that many actors exist within the sport event context, we suggest agency theory as a point of departure for this investigation as it offers the opportunity to centre the public/government dyadic relationship in sport event inquiry, and to focus on host residents and their experiences in the event process.

By investigating tenets of the principal-agent relationship using concepts such as knowledge, power, and trust, which have been explored in the sport event context previously (see Gursoy et al., 2017), researchers will be able to better understand the context of sport events and the relationship between the public and government entities who attract and financially support those events within the host community.

Agency Theory

At its core, agency theory describes the relationship between two parties; the (1) principal, who delegates specific tasks or responsibilities to an (2) agent (Jensen & Meckling, 1976; Shapiro, 2005; Waterman & Meier, 1998). This relationship is referred to as the principal-agent, or agency, relationship (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). The principal-agent relationship is most simply characterized by an issue of control, where principals cannot always control or monitor the actions of the agent (Kiser, 1999). This is generally attributed to the assumption that agents and principals have, to some degree, different preferences, interests, or goals, and that the agent is better informed of the context or task than the principal. Therefore, principal-agent problems are often characterized by two main complications; information asymmetry and

conflicting interests (e.g., an agent may want to maximize their profits, while the principal is expecting to pay as little as possible for a quality service). Information asymmetry and conflicting interests can ultimately lead to agent opportunism, where the agent can take advantage of the situation and act in their own best interest as opposed to that of their principal (Waterman & Meier, 1998).

Agency theory has been used and developed across a variety of disciplines, including but not limited to economics, law, political science, and sociology (Kiser, 1999; Shapiro, 2005). Agency theory was first developed and gained traction in economics. The economic stream of agency theory is focused on understanding contract-based exchange relations, which are assumed to be based on rational choice behaviour where actors seek to maximize their own utility (Saam, 2007). In broader management and economic fields, principal-agent relationships have most often been empirically examined within corporations and applied to relationships such as those between Chief Executive Officers and managers, or managers/employers and employees (Kiser, 1999). From this perspective, agency theory is typically focused on reducing issues of control and monitoring so that principals can mitigate the chances of the agent acting in their own best interests as opposed to those of the principal (i.e., agent opportunism; Mason & Slack, 2005; Miller & Whitford, 2002). Scholars have critiqued economic-based variations of agency theory for not considering the role of context in principal-agent relationships, for relying too heavily on the assumption of rational choice and a dyadic relationship (Shapiro, 2005), and for lacking empirical implications (Kiser, 1999).

Sociological variations of agency theory and approaches to principal-agent relationships have moved the theory beyond its rational choice roots (Kiser, 1999). Sociologists using this approach consider the broader context surrounding the principal-agent relationship at hand,

reflecting on how both multiple agents and multiple principals may exist in a relationship, and how actors may act as both principals and agents, indicating the likelihood of multiple principal-agent relationships in a given context (Kiser, 1999; Shapiro 2005). Additionally, sociologists have added to economic-based agency theory by introducing concepts such as knowledge, power, and trust in the evaluation of relationships (Shapiro, 2005; Saam 2007). These aspects of agency theory from a sociological perspective address limitations of the economic-based version of the theory. Similarly, stewardship theory is rooted in sociology and also considers the relationship between two parties (the steward and the principal). However, this theory assumes that the steward acts altruistically and that the relationship is ultimately trustworthy (Davis et al., 1997). This directly contrasts the economics-based agency theory's assumption that agents act in their own best interests. Existing work in sport research suggests that the needs of residents are overshadowed by the interests of the elite (e.g., Késenne, 2012; McGillivray and McPherson 2012), making agency theory more applicable in the sport event context. For example, scholars have found in some cases that while event objectives may be well-intentioned (e.g., increasing sport participation), post-event outcomes may not come to fruition due to community-focused initiatives ultimately being overshadowed by the need to hold a successful event (Taks et al., 2018), and due to how events are planned and governed by temporary host societies (Parent, 2008). While specific community-focused objectives and outcomes will vary between event contexts (e.g., some cities may focus on more sport and physical activity participation opportunities for people with disabilities, while others may focus on infrastructure development), the objectives and promises under which governments and event providers present a possible event bid to residents, and the outcomes of that event, may play a role in how residents evaluate their local government moving forward. In other cases, residents may feel broader community

needs such as housing or education should be prioritized over hosting, again potentially influencing how residents evaluate their elected officials should an event be supported with taxpayer dollars.

In political science, scholars have most often applied agency theory according to its rational choice roots to better understand how politicians can control bureaucrats (i.e., Banfield, 1975), and to understand policymaking and implementation; both most often investigated in the context of the American political system (Kiser, 1999; Weingast 1984). However, political science has instigated some important departures from economic-based agency theory, demonstrating the flexibility of the theory in various contexts. In his overview of multiple foundations of agency theory, Kiser (1999) indicated that, similar to sociological approaches, political science uses of the theory have better considered the potential role of third parties, as well as the possibility of multiple principals in a relationship, when compared to economic applications. Further, Worsham et al. (1997) explained that relationships in the political arena are much more varied than those in economics, and therefore while agency theory is an appropriate lens, the economic-based notion of rational choice may not take this complexity into consideration. As such, like sociological applications of agency theory, the authors advocated for better consideration of the “social-political-economic context” (Worsham et al., 1997, p. 432) in which the principal-agent relationship exists.

Agency theorists in economics, sociology, and political science have all suggested that the theory has implications in public administration more broadly (Kiser, 1999), and in relation to the public/government relationship specifically (Mitnick, 1973; Shapiro, 2005), demonstrating parallels between principals and their agents, and the relationship between constituents and elected officials as well as the relationship between politicians and public servants/bureaucrats

(Waterman & Meier, 1998; Weingast, 1984). This existing work and application suggest that scholars using agency theory can help better understand the relationship between host residents and the local government in cities that hosts publicly funded sport events.

Agency Theory in Sport (Event) Research

Agency theory has been taken up by scholars in sport management broadly, and sport event work more specifically. In sport research, agency theory has largely been used according to its classic roots in economics (Yeh & Taylor, 2008). Mason and Slack (2005) provided a thorough overview of agency theory and its potential value as a framework for understanding the sport industry. The authors highlighted in their work that agency theory grew from organisational economics and has been used accordingly. In their conceptual application of agency theory to sport, Mason and Slack (2005) indicated that there are a variety of contracting (or principal-agent) relationships within North American professional sports between actors such as leagues, players, and agents. Using the North American professional sport context, the authors explained that agency theory can be used to better understand relationships within the complex “organizational whole” (Mason & Slack, 2005, p. 51).

In their review of sport governance research approaches, Yeh and Taylor (2008) further explained that agency theory can be used to understand the relationship between board of directors and organisation staff, or CEOs/managers and owners within a sport organisation. Yeh and Taylor (2008) pointed out several limitations to traditional, or economic-based agency theory that has typically been applied in sport research to date. These limitations include the dyadic nature of the traditional principal-agent relationship which does not consider complexity in many organisational contexts, including those in sport, and the assumption that effectiveness is largely dependent on monitoring and control functions between principals and agents. These

limitations can, in part, be mitigated by employing a sociological approach to agency theory, as described above, and will be further addressed in subsequent sections.

Sport scholars have, in some cases, acknowledged other forms of principal-agent theory, which address these limitations identified by Yeh and Taylor (2008) to an extent. For example, Geeraert and Drieskens (2015) investigated how the EU controls FIFA and UEFA using a principal-agent perspective. Although not the main focus of analysis, the authors considered a more network-based approach to principal-agent theory than previous sport research applications of the theory. In doing so, Geeraert and Drieskens (2015) drew on Shapiro (2005) and Waterman and Meier's (1998) works suggesting that actors may take on both principal and agent roles in certain contexts. Mason and Slack (2005) similarly suggested that future work using this approach in sport research focus on principal-agent dyads with varying levels of information asymmetry and monitoring (Mason and Slack 2005). Although not the focus of their conceptual work, the authors acknowledged that agency theory approaches from sociology, which address these suggestions, may be particularly useful in sport studies. Such observations have implications in the sport event context where the local government or City staff may act as agents in relation to residents, and simultaneously act as principal in relation to the local organizing committee, discussed further below.

To date, agency theory has been used in sport research to understand sport organisations (e.g., Mason & Slack 2005), in sport event governance research (e.g., Geeraert, 2017; Mason et al., 2006; Solberg, 2018), and sport governance more broadly (e.g., Geeraert & Drieskens, 2015). In existing work applying agency theory to sport contexts, authors have explored a variety of principal-agent relationships, demonstrating the flexibility of the theoretical approach. Table 2.1

provides an overview of how some existing work has used agency theory to conceptualise relationships within various sporting contexts.

Table 2.1

Principal-agent Relationships in Sport Research

Paper	Principal	Agent
Foreman, Bendicksen, and Cowden (2020)	National Football League (NFL) Owners	NFL Head Coaches
Geeraert (2017)	International Sport Organisations	Host Government and Local Organizing Committee
Geeraert and Drieskens (2015)	European Union	FIFA/UEFA
Mason (1997)	NFL	NFL Team Franchises
Mason and Slack (2001)	Professional Hockey Players	Agents
Mason and Slack (2005)	Various (e.g., players, individual league franchise, professional league)	Various (e.g., agents, players, team management, player's association)
Mason, Thibault, and Misener (2006)	International Olympic Committee	International Olympic Committee Members
Schlesinger and Doherty (2020)	State	Voluntary Sport Clubs
Solberg (2018)	Government	Organisations benefitting from the event (e.g., International Sport Federations)

Specifically, agency theory has been applied in the sport event context to analyse corruption within international sport organisations (Mason et al., 2006) and sport event governance (Geeraert, 2017; Solberg 2018). Mason and colleagues (2006) examined the behaviour of International Olympic Committee (IOC) members in relation to corruption and self-interested actions. In their use of agency theory, the authors considered the IOC as the principal, and the IOC members as the agents. Within this conceptualization of the IOC/IOC member

relationship, the authors pointed out that in case where there is no single individual or organisation responsible for monitoring the behaviour of the agent, principal-agent problems may be more likely (Mason et al., 2006). This may be particularly relevant in the case of host residents and local government in general, and in the context of sport events in particular, where residents are indeed a group of many diverse individuals. Further, residents ultimately have little power to monitor their governments to ensure that objectives and promises are met apart from voting rights, which may only be exercised every few years during an election, a sort of outcome-based incentive (Miller, 2005). Therefore, it may be more appropriate to evaluate principal-agent relationships in the context of sport events in relation to how an event may influence the relationship in addition to how to improve efficiency (e.g., cost effectiveness, event outcomes, limiting opportunism, etc.) via monitoring and contracting, which has been the dominant approach thus far.

For instance, Geeraert (2017) used agency theory to theorize the governance and organisation of sport events by positioning both the host government alongside the local organizing committee as specialized agents. Meanwhile, the international sport organisation (e.g., the IOC) acted as principal (Geeraert, 2017). Geeraert suggested that ex-ante and ex-post approaches to contracting and monitoring costs, profitability, and economic outcomes using screening processes and steering, for example, could act as control mechanisms in reducing principal-agent problems in this relationship. Geeraert (2017) framed the International Sport Organization (ISO)/Local Organizing Committee and Host Government (LOC+HG) relationship as central in the sport event context and suggested that the ISO needs to implement control mechanisms in order to ensure that the LOC+HG act more in line with ISO interests. However, this conceptualization of the sport event context continues to focus significantly on monitoring

and contracting, but also on the ISO, without considering the needs and interests of the host residents who ultimately pay for and are impacted by such events.

Solberg (2018) similarly positioned the government and other event stakeholders as the actors in the event principal-agent relationship. Solberg (2018) considered the government to be the principal, and the stakeholders who benefit from the event (e.g., international sport federations), the agents. In their work, Solberg (2018) further acknowledged the role of the host residents and resident support in relation to a publicly funded event. The author stated that the support of the residents for an event may influence politicians to support the event financially in order to gain favour for re-election (Solberg 2018). While this relationship is acknowledged, host residents were not included in the author's conceptualization of agency theory in the sport event context. Although existing work on sport events and related principal-agent relationships offers useful perspectives on event governance, and advocates for including multiple stakeholders in related research (Geeraert & Drieskens, 2015; Mason et al., 2006), previous work neglects to include host residents – significant financial contributors – as a stakeholder in the process of publicly funded sport events.

We acknowledge that multiple principal-agent relationships such as those addressed in previous literature exist in the context of sport events. For example, the local government may indeed act as principal in relation to events rights holders and other stakeholders, as suggested by Solberg (2018), as well as act as an agent in relation to other stakeholders, as suggested by Geeraert (2017). Further, at various stages of an event process (i.e., through bidding, and then planning and implementation), principal-agent roles may shift depending on how the event in question is governed. The approach we present here; however, focuses on host residents within the traditional dyadic principal-agent relationship, with the host residents as principal and the

local government (and possibly the LOC) as agents. Our use of sociological foundations of agency theory offers space to consider the context and other important actors in the context of sport events as well while maintaining focus on host residents and the government's role in acting within the best interest of its citizens.

Recently, the application of agency theory in sport research has supported the idea that the theory can explain the relationships that the government has with various actors. Schlesinger and Doherty (2020) used agency theory to better understand how certification for sport clubs may help to mitigate some challenges that exist in the state (principal)/voluntary sport club (agent) relationship. This work suggested that the application of agency theory in political science domains and political contexts discussed above is also relevant to sport studies. When considering Schlesinger and Doherty's (2020) work alongside work using agency theory in sport events, advancing the use of agency theory to investigate the public/government relationship in this context is supported.

A Renewed Approach to Using Agency Theory in the Sport Event Context

Given the importance of host residents in the context of sport events, we apply agency theory to include host residents, and consider them as the principal who delegates tasks and responsibilities to the government, who acts as the agent. To better understand this principal-agent relationship in particular, we suggest employing the sociological understanding of agency theory to consider knowledge, power, and trust in the public/government relationship. Following Waterman and Meier (1998), we suggest empirical avenues through which scholars can consider the extent to which principal-agent problems exist in this relationship. In doing so, agency theory can be used in sport event research to investigate the relationship between the public and local government. Furthermore, and as highlighted above, much of the sport-related work using

agency theory to date has been conceptual, with limited empirical application (for exceptions see Foreman et al., 2020; Mason & Slack, 2001; Schlesinger & Doherty, 2020). The approach suggested herein offers researchers the building blocks to begin using agency theory empirically to better understand and focus on host residents in the sport event space. The following sections will outline our suggested approach. First, we explain the principal-agent relationship at hand, followed by how agency theory can be applied in a new way to advance our understanding of sport event contexts. Table 2.2 below, outlines how each concept addressed may be applied to, and manifested in, the sport event context.

Table 2.2

Conceptual Approach Overview

Concept	Explanation	Event Context
Principal	The principal delegates tasks	Host Community Residents
Agent	The agent completes tasks on behalf of the principal	Local Government
Knowledge	Refers to an individuals' (perceived) understanding of the other party's role in a relationship (Nunkoo, 2015)	Residents' knowledge of the event context, and the government's role may influence their ability to monitor the government's actions in relation to the event.
	Higher levels of knowledge amongst the principal may reduce information asymmetry, indicating a stronger P-A relationship (Saam, 2007)	Examining residents' knowledge of the event context may demonstrate the degree to which information asymmetry exists.

Power	<p>Individuals' (perceived) ability to influence decisions in a given context; to exercise their own will over others' (Kiser, 1999)</p> <p>Ability of principal to control agent or context may decrease P-A problems, reduce conflicting interests, and limit agent opportunism (Saam, 2007)</p>	<p>Residents' involvement in, or ability to 'control' the event context or event process may influence the local government's actions and possibly shift their interests, reducing the chances for them to act opportunistically, indicating a stronger P-A relationship.</p>
Trust	<p>Trust is a conditional, relational, judgement (Levi & Stoker, 2000)</p> <p>Increased trust(worthiness) is tied to decreased principal-agent problems; more efficient relationship (Greenwood & Van Buren, 2010; Miller & Whitford, 2002)</p>	<p>Residents' trust in their local government may (1) influence their support of the event, and (2) may be influenced by their experiences of the event.</p> <p>Trustworthiness on the part of the government may ensure the host residents' expectations are considered and needs are met.</p>

Host Residents as Principal/Local Government as Agent

To explore the host resident/local government relationship in the sport event context, we conceptualize the relationship between the host residents and the local government as a principal-agent relationship. In this case, we situate the host residents as the principal, who delegate tasks to the local government; the agent. This relationship exists outside of the sport event context due to the role the government plays in a democratic society more broadly (Kitschelt & Wilkinson, 2007; Worsham et al., 1997). Ultimately, citizens vote in and, therefore, entrust elected officials to guide public servants, work on policy, act in the residents' best interests, and be responsible stewards of public money (Alford, 2002). In many cases, this manifests in the ways in which government provides basic needs of residents such as education, infrastructure, and in some systems healthcare (Alford, 2002), as well as leisure and

entertainment opportunities, such as tourism, recreation, and sport (Burbank et al., 2001; Nunkoo, 2015).

In regard to sport events, governments are often, at least in part, responsible for bringing events to a city, and for determining parameters within which events may be hosted in a certain community (Anderson & Taks, 2018). In the context of major sport events, governments are often responsible for (partially) funding the event, play a role in organizing and promoting the event (alongside the local event organizing committee), while also offering political support (McCloy, 2009). Scholars have explained, in numerous ways, that governments may choose to support sport events due to the events' perceived, or assumed, positive impacts on the host community, region, or city (Burbank et al., 2001). Such impacts include, for example, economic impact, social impact, infrastructure development, or sport participation outcomes, and are typically expressed in event bid documents. Due to the government's role in this process, and their responsibility to act on behalf of the host residents, we can extend the nature of the public/government (principal-agent) relationship to the sport event context.

Using an agency theory approach to understand sport events and the public/government relationship situates the event within a broader context of the host city and offers insight into the event hosting itself and how the sport event may influence the public/government relationship in the future. To investigate the relationship between these two parties, we suggest drawing on sociological foundations of agency theory, including the consideration of the sociopolitical context in question, as opposed to the often-used economic foundations of the theory. To do so, researchers may draw on a wide variety of government documents, meetings, policies, and data from various sources and perspectives. To contextualize the public/government relationship researchers will want to understand how the parties have interacted in the past. For instance,

drawing on meeting minutes and learning about public engagement efforts from years leading up to the event will provide a historical perspective from which the event context can be understood. Similar sources of data can be used to determine resident needs and potential conflicting interests between residents/government, which will be outlined in more detail below.

As discussed above, taking a sociological approach to agency theory addresses some of the previous critiques of the theory. For example, the simplicity of the dyadic relationship is addressed in sociological applications of the theory by considering context and offering opportunities for multiple principals or multiple agents in the analysis. While the consideration of multiple actors is similar to other theories such as stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984) or stakeholder-agency theory (Hill & Jones, 1992), an agency theory approach allows for the focus of the inquiry to be on one central dyadic relationship situated within a broader context where one actor is tasked with acting *for* the other, as opposed to on multiple stakeholders and the network as a whole. Further, while stakeholder theory offers a view of the complex sport event space including host societies, sponsors, sport organisations, and more, Phillips and colleagues (2003) have suggested that stakeholder theory is primarily a theory of the firm. On the contrary, agency theory has demonstrated applications in both business settings and public administration settings (Kiser, 1999), suggesting that agency theory offers the flexibility needed to investigate this context.

Scholars across disciplines have critiqued agency theory for its lack of empirical application (e.g., Kiser, 1999). While some work in sport research has applied the approach empirically, empirical work using agency theory in the sport event context has been limited to date. The conceptual approach offered herein will take into account the role of knowledge, power, and trust, and offers ways to measure each concept in the dyadic principal-agent

relationship, thereby providing an empirical avenue for better understanding the context within which the relationship is situated. We suggest measuring characteristics of principal-agent relationships (conflicting interests, information asymmetry and potential agent opportunism) by using knowledge, or the principals' (perceived) understanding of the other party's role in a relationship (Nunkoo et al., 2018), power as a principal's (perceived) ability to influence decisions and associated actions in a given context; to exercise their own will over others' (Kiser, 1999), and trust (the degree to which the principal trusts the agent to fulfill their role; Levi & Stoker, 2000). Each of these are explained further below, along with conceptual propositions and methodological suggestions.

Knowledge

Knowledge refers to an individuals' understanding of the other party's role in a relationship (Nunkoo, 2015) and of the context at hand in general. As suggested elsewhere, knowledge may indeed be indicative of one party's (in this case, the agent's) transparency but is also related to individuals gathering information which therefore allows them to form a judgement about the other party (Nunkoo et al., 2018). By determining residents' level of knowledge in a given situation, we can better understand the discrepancy between that of the principal and the agent, therefore providing insight into information asymmetry in the relationship.

In agency theory literature, the principal's knowledge or understanding of the context within which the principal-agent relationship exists has been connected to a reduction in information asymmetry, and, therefore, a stronger principal-agent relationship where both the agent and principal may benefit (Saam, 2007). In the sport event context, residents' knowledge and understanding of the event and the government's role may influence their ability to monitor

the government's actions. By understanding the sociopolitical context, as explained above, and residents' knowledge of the situation, scholars can learn how information may or may not be accessible to residents', potential government initiatives to act transparently and communicate with residents can be evaluated, and ways that the public may be informed about events in the future may be improved.

Proposition 1: We suggest that by measuring residents' knowledge of the context, researchers can determine the extent to which information asymmetry exists. Higher levels of knowledge reported by residents may therefore demonstrate lower information asymmetry in the relationship.

To measure knowledge, researchers may employ quantitative methods by asking residents about their level of agreement with items such as "I know about sport event development in my community", or "I understand the role of the local government regarding sport events" (Nunkoo et al., 2018). Existing work in the sport event space has explored the ability of governments and event supporters to shift host resident perceptions via sociopolitical discourse surrounding events (Anderson & Taks, 2018; Sant & Mason, 2015). Therefore, qualitatively, scholars may wish to engage in discourse analysis of traditional or social media outlets to better understand how information is shared with residents and how residents' knowledge of the context may be shaped.

Power

Power has been conceptualized in various ways. In this case, power refers to an individuals' (i.e., the principal's) perceived ability to influence decisions and exercise their own will over others' (i.e., the agent; Miller, 2005). Elsewhere, the principal's power has been described as their ability to control the agent or context (Geeraert & Drieskens, 2015). As such, the more power the principal has in the relationship, the more likely they may be able to

influence the agent's actions, and possibly shift their interests, and at the least, may be more likely to limit agent opportunism (Saam, 2007) in the case that interests do not align.

Existing research in the sport event context suggests that interests between involved parties do conflict (e.g., McGillivray & McPherson, 2012), and that the elite in a community often benefit more than the public (e.g., Késenne, 2012). As mentioned in a previous section, scholars have suggested that actors within the principal-agent relationship may exercise power to control, and therefore shift, the other actors' preferences (Geeraert & Drieskens, 2015).

Therefore, in the case of sport events, residents' involvement in, or ability to control the event context or event process may influence the actions of the agent and possibly shift their interests and goals, perhaps reducing the degree to which interests conflict, or at the very least providing residents with some control to reduce the extent to which agents may act opportunistically.

Understanding how residents perceive their control of event hosting and whether they are a part of decision making processes can further offer insight into how local governments may better engage the public at various points leading up to, during, and following a sport event.

Proposition 2: We suggest that power can be used to measure an individual's ability to influence actions and possibly the interests and goals of the agent and indicates the extent to which the agent is able to act opportunistically.

Here, it is important first to investigate how interests between parties may conflict (or perhaps align), and how agent actions, and possibly interests may have shifted due to the principals' power (or lack thereof). To do so, researchers may draw on the sociopolitical context of the event in question, as described above, and may conduct interviews or focus groups with associated parties to determine event expectations, objectives, and broader community goals and expectations (e.g., sport or non-sport infrastructure development, social outcomes). Upon

determining the sociopolitical context and conflicting interests, scholars may measure residents' power using items such as "I had personal influence in sport event planning and development" (Nunkoo, 2015). Further, observation at community events or town hall meetings, as well as interviews and focus groups with diverse groups of residents in host cities can inform how, and to what extent, residents are involved in event planning and decision making in their community (i.e., power), ultimately informing the extent to which principal-agent problems may exist.

Overall, based on our proposed theoretical approach, fewer public engagement and outreach opportunities may indicate less power and knowledge on the part of the principal, resulting in information asymmetry, conflicting interests, and ultimately a higher chance of agent opportunism. Conversely, if residents are adequately engaged in decision making and event planning, they would likely report higher levels of knowledge, power, and trust, indicating a stronger principal-agent relationship. Table 2.3 outlines examples of survey items and interview questions that may be used to investigate knowledge and power in future research applications.

Table 2.3

Applying a principal-agent approach in sport event research

Concept	Potential qualitative methods questions	Potential quantitative methods questions
Knowledge	Why do you think your city bid to host this event?	Indicate your level of agreement...
	What do you feel were the objectives of the event? [Were you aware of event objectives?]	I know the possible impacts of sport events on my community ⁽¹⁾
	What do you feel were the event outcomes?	I understand the role of the local government regarding sport events ⁽¹⁾
Power	How were you involved with the event?	I know about sport event development in my community ⁽¹⁾
	To what extent did you feel you had the opportunity to be involved?	Indicate your level of agreement... I had/have the opportunity to participate in sport event planning ⁽¹⁾

	What opportunities existed for the public to provide feedback and opinions in Games-related planning?	I had/have personal influence in sport event planning ⁽¹⁾ I have discussed sport event planning with others in my community ⁽¹⁾
Trust	How did event objectives align with what you feel your community needed? To what extent do you feel event objectives were met? Who do you feel should be responsible for ensuring event objectives are met?	Indicate your level of trust in... Your local municipality ⁽²⁾ Your province/state/territory ⁽²⁾ Local government elected officials to make the right decisions about sport events ⁽²⁾ Local government to look after the interest of the host community in sport event development ⁽²⁾

Note. Items adapted from ⁽¹⁾Nunkoo (2015) and ⁽²⁾Gursoy et al. (2017)

Trust

Levi and Stoker (2000) described trust as relational, conditional, and a judgement that may be either dichotomous (trust vs. do not trust) or graded (trusts to a certain degree). Of particular importance here is the notion of political trust. Political trust is one way that individuals evaluate their political systems, in part based on their expectations (Wong et al., 2011). While the role of trust in agency theory has been discussed in terms of intra-organizational relationships (see Beccarra & Gupta, 1999), there remains potential for trust to be important in other principal-agent relationships as well, such as those between elected officials and constituents, or in this case, host residents and local government in the sport event context. Trust was not initially included in the economic-based agency theory conceptualization (Casadesus-Masanell, 2004); however, scholars rooted in sociology have since demonstrated that trust is an important component in principal-agent relationships, as with other social relationships and contexts (Beccerra & Gupta, 1999; Casadesus-Masanell, 2004; Ensminger, 2001). Trust has been suggested as a key component for principal-agent relationships to function

as efficiently as possible (i.e., minimizing principal-agent problems; Miller & Whitford, 2002), in part because the existence of trust in a relationship indicates that the principal may have adequate knowledge of the context (Ensminger, 2001; Greenwood & Van Buren, 2010). However, the application of trust in agency theory has not yet been applied to the sport event context.

Gursoy and colleagues (2017) investigated the role of political trust in the exchange relationship between event organizers and host residents. The authors found that citizens' trust had a significant effect on positive event impact perceptions leading to event support. This finding supports the notion that political trust exists in the public/government relationship prior to a sport event being hosted and may influence the successful hosting of such event. Gursoy et al. (2017); however, framed their findings in a way that focused on increasing resident support for the event. By investigating trust alongside agency theory as we suggest here and contextualizing this investigation in relation to resident needs and event objectives, scholars can uncover how event experiences may influence an individual's feelings towards their local government, which has broader implications for society outside of sporting spaces. Using agency theory in this way focuses the inquiry host residents' needs and experiences in the event context, with the ultimate goal of ensuring that event proponents, and the government (who is responsible for acting on behalf of residents) act in residents' best interest. In doing so, resident support of the sport event may be a welcomed side-effect yet is not the main goal of improving the principal-agent relationship.

Given the emerging understanding of the potential role of trust in the sport event context in relation to sport event impact perceptions (see Gursoy et al., 2017), there is evidence to suggest that host residents' experiences with an event may influence their trust in the local

government. Hosting a sport event and the extent to which resident needs are met may affect residents' trust in their government moving forward, influencing the principal-agent relationship in the long-term and in non-sport contexts as well. For example, if certain event objectives are deemed appropriate by residents and are promised in the lead-up to an event, but do not come to fruition, residents' trust in their government may be tarnished for future sport-related endeavours as well as in other aspects of social life. In investigating support of stadium funding, Kellison and Mills (2021) have found some relationship between an individual's feelings toward public funding of a stadium and their future voting intentions. Emerging research such as this suggests connections between sport-related decisions made by governments and the public's broader relationship with their government.

Proposition 3: As suggested by previous literature regarding trust and principal-agent problems, we propose that higher levels of knowledge and power (i.e., lower information asymmetry, conflicting interests, and less chance for opportunism) may be related to higher levels of trust in government on the part of residents.

Proposition 4: Increased levels of trust may in turn be related to higher likelihood of supporting future events, and likelihood of voting for, or re-electing, involved politicians.

To take up this approach, scholars could employ quantitative research approaches and measure political or general trust in a host community in relation to individuals' event experiences and their perceived power and knowledge of the context. Established scales to measure political trust, such as those used in large-scale surveys (e.g., World Values Survey; see Zmerli & Newton, 2017), or those already adapted to the sport context by Gursoy and colleagues (2017) can be applied to various geographical and political contexts. Scholars could also use specific qualitative questions in interview or focus group settings to uncover individuals' feelings

towards their local elected officials. Here, a longitudinal approach (i.e., pre-, during, and post-event) would be welcome to determine how individuals' knowledge and power, as well as event experiences may change individuals' feelings of trust over time. Examples of survey items and interview questions are listed above in Table 2.3.

All the aforementioned propositions and conceptual connections will need to be empirically tested in future research, perhaps by employing some of the methodological suggestions offered in the sections above. Further, we suggest taking into consideration sport and event-specific involvement (e.g., by using Shank and Beasley's (1998) 8-item scale of sport involvement) as well as other contextual factors such as, but not limited to, the political climate at hand, and timing within the event process when considering how event experiences and perspectives on event objectives and outcomes may influence the public/government relationship. These suggestions are outlined in the following section.

Implications and Conclusion

Given their role as funders of publicly financed sport events, host residents need to be considered as primary stakeholders in relation to sport events. As the entity that ultimately makes decisions and acts on behalf of residents, the relationship between the local government and host residents should be investigated in this context. Examining the relationship between the public and local government can offer valuable insight into how resident needs may be better accounted for throughout each phase of the event process, and into how sport events may affect the relationship beyond the event and therefore how an event may impact a community politically. Throughout this contribution, we have suggested taking a sociological approach to agency theory, and incorporating concepts of knowledge, power, and trust to better investigate aspects of this principal-agent relationship, and to advance our understanding of the political impact of

events. When considering knowledge, power, trust, and the public/government principal-agent relationship together, scholars can form a better understanding this integral aspect of sport events. Using a sociological agency theoretical approach allows for trust to be considered in the principal-agent relationship at hand. Further, advancements in agency theory from a sociological perspective offer the opportunity for a broader understanding of the context within which the relationship exists (Kiser, 1999) and may provide insight into the role actors outside of this main dyad have in the relationship (Geeraert & Drieskens, 2015).

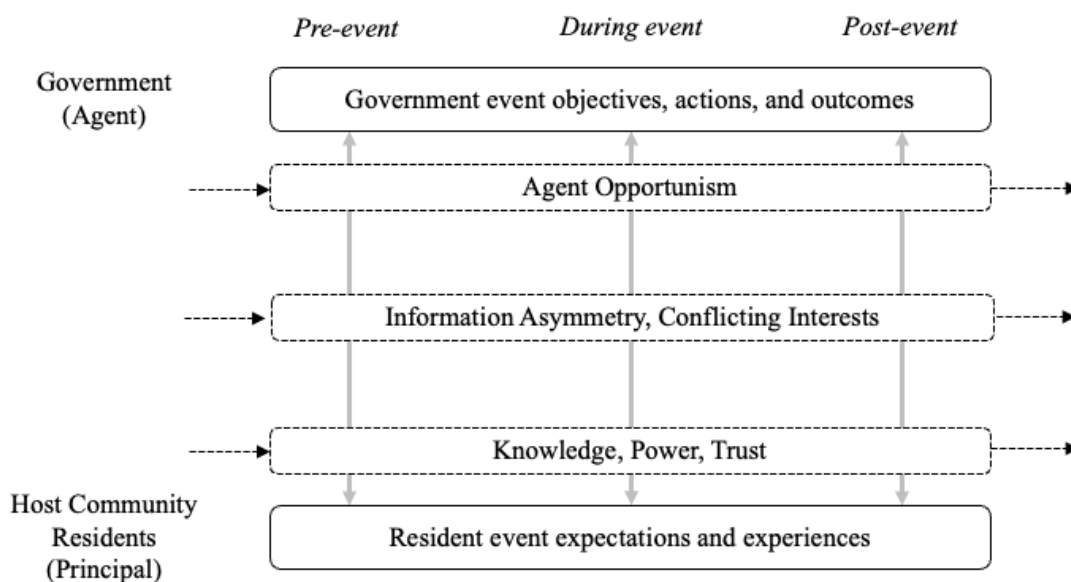
This conceptual approach warrants empirical testing, and as such methodological suggestions were presented, and future research directions are discussed here. As suggested throughout the sections above, applying an agency theory approach empirically involves collecting data from multiple perspectives both to inform the social-political-economic context as well as investigate the interests of each party in the principal-agent relationship at hand. Researchers may choose to employ either qualitative or quantitative research approaches to understand the interests and goals of both the local government and affiliated actors (such as politicians and public servants), as well as host residents, while also investigating host residents' knowledge, power, and trust in regard to their government and the event in question. We have outlined examples of interview questions and questionnaire items in Table 2.3 to clearly demonstrate how researchers may apply this conceptual approach in future research.

One potential way that this conceptual approach can be used in future research is to investigate the extent to which the principal-agent relationship changes over time, and how sport events may therefore impact the relationship. To do so, data on these dimensions (knowledge, power, and trust) can be collected before, during, and after an event, alongside resident event expectations and experiences, and event objectives and outcomes. Investigating these concepts

using a longitudinal approach would allow researchers to determine the extent to which residents' experiences with a sport event may influence their relationship with the local government. Furthermore, such an approach could offer insight into how the relationship at hand may change at various modes of the event process (i.e., planning, implementation, wrap-up; Parent, 2008) and in the long-term following a Games. For example, knowledge, power, and trust could be investigated using some of the suggested approaches outlined in Table 2.3 pre-, during, and post-event in relation to event objectives and outcomes to determine how hosting an event and pursuing associated outcomes may influence the relationship between the host residents and the local government. If, for example, host residents feel as though they had an opportunity to influence decision making and that their needs will be met by the event perhaps based on pre-event messaging, they may report high levels of knowledge, power, and trust pre-event. Subsequently, if post-event they feel as though promises and objectives were not met, they may report lower levels of knowledge, power, and trust in sport processes following an event. These conceptual relationships are presented in Figure 2.1, demonstrating how an agency theoretical approach using knowledge, power, and trust may be applied over time in the event context. The dotted lines in Figure 2.1 indicate the potential variability of each concept over time throughout the event process, as well as in relation to the other concepts represented. The vertical arrows connecting host community residents and the government indicate how alignment in perspectives between principal and agent may influence each concept.

Figure 2.1

Visual representation of agency theory approach considering knowledge, power, and trust in the context of sport event hosting



Note. The dotted lines indicate the potential variability of concepts over time and at various points in the event process. The vertical solid arrows indicate how the alignment in perspectives between principal and agent may influence each concept.

The implications of this approach are two-fold. First, focusing on the host residents as principal shifts the focus from garnering host resident support towards meeting resident needs and ensuring the principal-agent relationship is efficient. Instead of asking how sport event supporters can gain more favour from host residents, a better understanding of the public/government relationship will help to uncover how sport event supporters can meet the needs and expectations of their largest benefactors. Work extending and testing this conceptual approach can be applied practically to provide guidance to event managers, politicians, City staff, and policymakers when pursuing and hosting sport events. For example, understanding information asymmetries and conflicting interests, and therefore potential opportunism, could

help inform municipal engagement strategies which allow residents the opportunity to guide and steer the direction of event hosting. Data collected following an event and learning about the extent to which resident needs were met (or not) can help inform resident communication and public engagement strategies employed in the bidding of future events.

Finally, applying knowledge, power, and trust in the context of agency theory may offer insight into how sport events affect the relationship between host residents and the local government (Taks & Misener, 2015). This offers broad implications for better understanding the role that sport events may have within cities, regions, and countries politically and far beyond the event itself. Data collected longitudinally could offer governments and policymakers with the opportunity to better understand how a specific event context may influence residents' relationship with the local government, offering insight into how future initiatives should be approached and how sport events may influence the public's political trust and the public/government relationship as a whole as it exists outside of the sport event context as well.

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Chapter III

“We...We Had Fun, We Did Have Fun”: Long-Term Sport Event Outcomes And Community Tensions

Bodin, K., & Taks, M. (2022). “We ... We Had Fun, We Did Have Fun”: Long-term Sport Event Outcomes and Community Tensions. *Event Management*, 26(8), 1745–1763.
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In many democratic nations, sport and physical activity broadly are, at least in part, steered and funded by various levels of government (Bergsgard et al., 2007). As a part of this broader sport and physical activity support, governments often seek, support, and determine public investment in sport event hosting for their communities (Anderson & Taks, 2018). Justification for such support is typically based on the assumption that social, economic, and cultural objectives may be met simply by hosting a sport event (McCloy, 2009). Given the pervasiveness of sport events in societies globally, many scholars have investigated the potential of sport event hosting and the role of sport events in meeting such objectives. Much of this existing work has focused on mega-sport events (e.g., the Olympics) and suggests that sweeping positive outcomes for the host city's general public do not necessarily come to fruition from merely hosting an event (Gibson et al., 2014) and that costs of hosting vastly outweigh any benefits (Müller, 2015). Moreover, there has been little evidence to suggest a positive long-term (i.e., more than two years post-event) impact from such large events, and indeed a strategic approach to using events of any size as tools for positive outcomes is necessary (Taks et al., 2015).

However, as stewards of taxpayer dollars, governments are responsible for ensuring

public funds are used appropriately and promises are maintained (Alford, 2002). As such, sport event scholars have suggested employing strategies such as event leveraging and event portfolios, and that non-mega sport events may have more potential for reaching planned outcomes. For this study, non-mega sport events are defined as one-off, publicly funded sport events that are smaller than their mega-counter parts (e.g., the Olympics and FIFA World Cup) yet still create a shock in the community (Taks et al., 2015). The potential of non-mega sport events has been evidenced in some empirical studies (e.g., Kerwin et al., 2015) and conceptual work (e.g., Agha & Taks, 2015). However, little is known about the extent to which the interests of event providers and city residents align in the context of non-mega sport events. Taking an agency theory perspective, which sets us up to consider the government's role as acting on behalf of residents, the purpose of this paper is to investigate the alignment of event objectives and outcomes from the perspective of host city residents and those responsible, in part, for bringing an event to a city, namely the local government. In doing so, we aim to better understand the relationship between the public and local government in the context of non-mega sport events. Throughout this paper we consider community as context, referring to physical space and neighbourhoods, allowing for "describing how the outcomes of sport organizations are experienced by a range of actors" (Rich et al., 2021, p. 4) within this context. As such, we refer to host residents as individuals who reside in the event host city, are part of the communities in question, and can therefore be affected by the event, regardless of their involvement with the event or not.

Literature Review

Economically, scholars have found that the costs of hosting mega sport events significantly outweigh the economic return (Késenne, 2012). Further, hosting mega sport events

typically costs more than originally planned, with all Olympic Games held between 1960 and 2016 experiencing cost overruns (Flyvbjerg et al., 2021). With mounting skepticism regarding the economic impact of events, scholars have investigated the less tangible, yet appealing potential of social impacts from events. Some short-term social impacts have been observed from mega sport events. For example, Gibson et al. (2014) investigated resident perceptions and social capital in the 2010 FIFA World Cup context. The authors collected pre- and post-event surveys from host residents. The results demonstrated that psychic income increased from pre- to post-event while social capital decreased. Data collected eight months following the end of the event demonstrated that short-term impacts may be evident however are ultimately unsustainable (Gibson et al., 2014). Similarly, research suggests that a short-term boost in subjective well-being may occur during and following an event, but again is relatively unsustainable long-term (Taks & Rocha, in press).

As evidenced here, sport event scholars are hesitant to suggest that hosting such events may have a long-term impact on the public. Regardless, some examples of long-term impacts exist for specific cohorts and contexts. Aizawa et al.'s (2018) cohort study investigated sport participation outcomes from the 1964 Tokyo Olympic Games and found that individuals aged 10-19 years old during the Games were more likely to be physically active in the years that followed. Chalip and colleagues (2017) found that concerted financial support of sport participation in the case of the 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games may have contributed to higher sport participation rates amongst youth in the Los Angeles area compared to the national average. While these two examples indicated some long-term effects from the mega sport events investigated, the authors pointed to the importance of the specific event contexts in influencing such outcomes (Aizawa et al., 2018; Chalip et al., 2017). Despite these studies, there remains a

concern that the long-term impact promises made by event supporters during the bid and lead-up phases of an event seldom come to fruition.

Considering this lack of evidence, event scholars have suggested strategic approaches to better meet city objectives and community needs using events. Chalip (2004) introduced leveraging as an approach to strategically use events for achieving pre-determined goals. Leveraging is focused on how events could be used as tools to achieve economic and tourism objectives through increasing visitor spending (Chalip, 2004; O'Brien, 2007), and achieving social goals in the host area by leveraging liminality and *communitas* (Chalip, 2006).

Ziakas and Costa (2011) further developed the notion of an event portfolio, suggesting that a strategic collection of different events can be more beneficial to meeting a host community's policy objectives than a string of one-off events. The authors suggested that different event genres can meet the interests and needs of various groups within a community (Ziakas & Costa, 2011). In Clark and Misener's (2015) investigation of an event portfolio in London, Ontario, Canada, the authors found that the city had hosted a sequence of sport events and recognized the use of events within the city's broader development goals. However, the authors identified several challenges in developing and enacting a sustainable and strategic event portfolio, including creating and sustaining relationships, a lack of connection between arts, culture, and sport, and incoherent strategic goals and objectives. Similar challenges have been identified when trying to enact leveraging strategies, including relationship-building, lack of capacity, and events-based restrictions regarding what initiatives may be worked towards (Chalip, 2014; Kelly et al., 2019). As demonstrated here, scholars have suggested ways to use events strategically, and while cities have begun to employ some of these methods in practice, challenges remain. Further, scholars have indicated that there is often a discrepancy between the

interests of the local community and the objectives of sport event organizers and policymakers (McGillivray & McPherson, 2012). As such, there remains a need for further research regarding how to leverage events and build sustainable event portfolios for lasting outcomes and for meeting diverse community interests.

Alongside work in the event leveraging and event portfolio spaces, event scholars have indicated that non-mega sport events may have more potential for meeting event objectives, fulfilling city needs, and have lower chance of exceeding a city's capacity (financial, or otherwise). Non-mega sport events are more often embedded within a host community, and therefore may be better poised for meeting community needs (Smith, 2009) and may better foster the relationships needed for successful leveraging initiatives. These events could, therefore, better meet bid and policy objectives compared to mega sport events (Kerwin et al., 2015); however, there remains limited empirical research investigating this potential. In their work, Agha and Taks (2015) built a conceptual model demonstrating how the 'fit' between a city's capacity and the event's resource demand are imperative in determining whether an event could have positive and lasting impacts, or at least do no harm to a host city long-term.

While literature suggests more potential for positive economic and social outcomes from non-mega sport events, there remains little empirical information about how government and resident interests align, and the government/public relationship in this context. Regardless, given that specific types of one-off smaller events, like their mega sport event counterparts, are often at least partially publicly funded, residents deserve some positive outcomes from hosting (Késenne, 2012). Much of what is known about the public/government relationship in the context of sport events focuses on resident support of events, as well as work investigating public referenda in the context of sport events.

Many scholars have investigated public support for sport events, often alongside individuals' perceptions of sport event impacts, as discussed earlier. Unsurprisingly, those individuals who perceive more positive event impacts are more likely to support the event (Weimar & Rocha, 2017). Furthermore, research on the sociopolitical discourse of sport events has found that event proponents (government officials, corporate and sport leaders) use media messaging to highlight the benefits of sport events and minimize drawbacks of hosting to garner public support (Sant & Mason, 2015). Often, investigating public support of events is framed as an integral aspect of hosting a successful event (Rocha, 2020). While this is indeed important, we also want to highlight the importance of focusing on learning how to better meet public interests/needs to gain public support as opposed to focusing on gaining public support for hosting a successful event. The former approach may better centre the host residents in decision- and policy-making processes. In doing so, developing a resident-centric strategic approach to publicly funded sport event bidding and hosting may be employed to work towards sustainable sport event impacts.

Practically, event support is often gauged through public referenda. Public referenda have often resulted in Games either not being pursued such as the case for Munich's 2022 Winter Olympic Games bid (Coates & Wicker, 2015), or in the case of the 1976 Olympic Winter Games, being moved (Maennig, 2017). While public support is certainly important for an event's success and residents should be involved in decision making to some extent, it is also important to note that simply holding public referenda does not automatically ensure an equitable distribution of public goods once decisions are made (Maennig, 2017). Further, scholars have recently begun investigating event "insiders'" perspectives on referenda. Johnston and colleagues (2021) found that event insiders (i.e., city event officials, elected officials) were

resistant to referendums and some felt as though other modes of public consultation could be more valuable. Research on public referenda and sport event support indicates residents' central role in sporting event processes. Similarly, sport event governance scholars have noted the importance of public participation in the sport event process (Parent & Naraine, 2016). However, there remain gaps in our understanding of how other public consultation and engagement strategies may be used in the context of sport events.

Taking these research trends together, we see that there remains work to be done in pursuing a better understanding of how residents' interests, as taxpayers, can be accounted for in publicly funded sport event outcomes, particularly taking a long-term view in the context of non-mega sport events. As such, the purpose of this paper is to investigate the alignment of event objectives and outcomes from the perspective of host city residents and those responsible, in part, for bringing an event to a city, namely the local government. In doing so, we aim to better understand the relationship between the public and local government in this context and aim to work towards informing future public engagement strategies.

Theoretical Perspective

The theoretical perspective guiding this study is agency theory. Agency theory describes the relationship between two parties; 1) the principal, who delegates tasks or responsibilities to 2) the agent, who is charged with carrying out these tasks and responsibilities (Shapiro, 2005). Principal-agent relationships are often characterized by two problems: information asymmetry and conflicting interests (Waterman & Meier, 1998). Information asymmetry occurs when the agent has more information about a specific problem or context than the principal. Conflicting interests occur when the interests of the principal and the agent do not align. When these two

problems co-exist, the agent is in a position where they may act in their own interest at the expense of the principal.

In the sport event context, we consider the local government as agent, acting on behalf of the host city residents, the principal. Existing research suggests that event proponents (government officials, for example) and residents may have conflicting interests (McGillivray & McPherson, 2012). Further, depending on the event context, residents may not be privy to certain event-specific information that could influence their relationship to the event. An agency theory approach allows us to position the local government as working on behalf of its residents in the context of a publicly funded sport event, and therefore centres the host city residents' needs in the context. While we acknowledge that the sport event context is much more complex than a dyadic principal-agent relationship (see Parent, 2008), we take this approach to focus on the relationship between the government as decision makers and resident taxpayers.

Research Approach

To achieve the research purpose, this study investigated several specific research questions regarding event objectives and outcomes from the perspective of host city residents (any individual living in the host city, regardless of involvement with the event) and event providers (local elected officials, City staff, event staff, event board members). The research questions were:

1. What were the event objectives?
 - a. How were residents involved?
 - b. To what extent were residents aware?
2. What are the long-term outcomes of the event?
 - a. According to event providers?

- b. According to host city residents?
3. How do perspectives correspond between groups?

To answer these research questions, we have used a parallel, multiple case study methodology (Yin, 2018). The units of analysis were the 2011 Canada Winter Games, held in Halifax, Nova Scotia, and the 2019 Canada Winter Games, held in Red Deer, Alberta. These event contexts are elaborated upon in the following section. A case study methodology allows for flexibility in investigating various facets of the subject of study, considers contextual elements relevant to the research questions, and supports investigating multiple perspectives from various data sources (Yin, 2018).

Context

This study was conducted in the context of two national publicly funded, non-mega sport events in Canada – the 2011 Canada Winter Games, held in Halifax, Nova Scotia, and the 2019 Canada Winter Games, held in Red Deer, Alberta. The Canada Games are a national youth multi-sport event held every two years, alternating between summer and winter iterations (Government of Canada, 1997). The Canada Games are governed by the Canada Games Council and are partly funded by all three levels of Canadian government (federal, provincial/territorial, municipal). Each iteration of the Canada Games is planned and executed by a local host society (known in other event contexts as the organizing committee), comprised of a board of directors and numerous event staff. The following sections provide additional contextual information regarding each event, the host cities, and planned event outcomes.

2011 Canada Winter Games - Halifax, Nova Scotia

The Regional Municipality of Halifax is a port city on Canada's east coast and is the provincial capital of Nova Scotia. Halifax hosted the Canada Winter Games from February 11 to

27, 2011. At the time Halifax had a population of approximately 390,095. As of the 2016 Canadian Census, 11.4% of Halifax residents identified as a visible minority (no data available for 2011; Statistics Canada, 2017a). During the 2011 Games, 2,700 athletes competed in 22 sports. Approximately 5,000 volunteers contributed to hosting the Games (Canada Games Council, 2019). The Canada Games are supported financially by all three levels of Canadian government. Typically for a Canada Games, the federal government contributes funding for operational and capital aspects of the event, and the province and municipality contribute capital funding and in-kind support for the host society (Government of Canada, 1997). For the 2011 iteration of the Canada Games, the budget was roughly 37 million Canadian dollars, \$24.4 million of which was public funding. Two new venues were built for the Games – the Canada Games Centre and the Emera Speedskating Oval, and existing infrastructure such as a performing arts theatre at Citadel High School was upgraded. The Canada Games Centre is a multi-use recreation centre including a 25-metre pool, indoor walking track, gym, and meeting rooms (Canada Games Centre, 2012). The Emera Speedskating Oval was initially meant to be a temporary facility; however, following the Games the community raised funds to maintain it for free public use. In the winter, skating equipment is available for free rental, and in the summer the oval is used for rollerblading, skateboarding, and other similar activities.

2019 Canada Winter Games – Red Deer, Alberta

Red Deer is a mid-sized city in Alberta, located halfway between the province's two largest cities – Calgary and Edmonton. Red Deer hosted the Canada Winter Games from February 15 to March 3, 2019. At the time, Red Deer had a population of approximately 101,000. As of the 2016 Canadian Census 15.5% of Red Deer residents identified as a visible minority (Statistics Canada, 2017b). During the 2019 Games, 3,600 athletes competed in 19

sports, with 4,600 volunteers contributing to host (2019 Canada Winter Games, 2020). According to documents collected for this study, the budget for the Red Deer Games was 44.3 million Canadian dollars, approximately \$30.2 million of which was public funds. Three new venues were built – The Gary W. Harris Canada Games Centre at Red Deer Polytechnic (a local college), an outdoor speedskating oval, and the Gary W. Harris Celebration Plaza in downtown Red Deer. Upgrades were made to existing venues, such as the River Bend Golf and Recreation area and local ski hills. The Gary W. Harris Canada Games Centre is a multi-use recreation centre and primarily services students and staff at Red Deer Polytechnic. The speedskating oval is used for training and competitions, and the celebration plaza is a multi-purpose outdoor event space available for public use through the City of Red Deer (2019 Canada Winter Games, 2020).

Data Collection

Document collection

First, we collected relevant documents and policies for each case (listed in Table 3.1) to provide context and insight into the event objectives outlined before each event, and the outcomes evaluated by the host society and municipality post-event. The information gleaned from document and policy analysis provided initial guidance on discussions about each event in general and set us up for appropriate conversations in both the semi-structured interviews and the focus groups. Further, document analyses allowed us to develop infographics outlining each event's planned objectives and the outcomes according to bid and planning documents, and post-event reports. The infographics were used in the focus group discussions (outlined below) and are presented in Figures 3.1 and 3.2.

Table 3.1*Document Frequency Table*

Category	2011 Canada Winter Games	2019 Canada Winter Games
Bid Committee and Host Society	8	5
Municipality		
Games-Specific	5	4
Council Meetings	13	6
Other	2	9
Province		
Policy	1	6
Press Release	10	0
Canada Games Council	1	3
Other Stakeholders	12	3
News Articles	3	8
Total (# pages)	55 (1,197 pages)	44 (1,500 pages)

Semi-structured interviews with event providers

To better understand event providers' perspectives and interests, we conducted semi-structured interviews with individuals from the elected local government, City staff, and event host society staff and board members. While we are mainly interested in the relationship between the local government/City and residents, individuals primarily involved with the event host society were included here as well, given the host society's role in event planning and implementation. Throughout the results and discussion sections, this group of participants will often be referred to as "PROV" to denote "providers." All individuals had formal and direct roles in bidding for, or planning their respective event. Participants were identified by internet search and document analysis and were contacted via publicly available email addresses. With each interview, existing participants were also asked to share the study information with others for snowball sampling. Ten interviews for the Halifax event and 12 for the Red Deer event were completed in spring 2021. Because of the COVID-19 pandemic, all interviews were done

virtually over Zoom or Microsoft Teams. The interviews lasted between 20 minutes and 1 hour 16 minutes, were audio- and video-recorded, and transcribed verbatim. Interview participants' pseudonyms and de-identified job descriptors are listed in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Interview Participants

Event Context	Interviewee (Int. #)	De-Identified Job Descriptor
2011 Canada Winter Games	Erika (H.1)	Government Official (Provincial)
	Brad (H.2)	Elected Official (Municipal)
	Danny (H.3)	Host Society Staff
	Eric (H.4)	Host Society Staff
	Jeff (H.5)	Host Society Board Member
	Richard (H.6)	Sport Organization Staff (Provincial)
	Ethan (H.7)	Municipal Staff
	Natalie (H.8)	Municipal Staff
	Sophie (H.9)	Elected Official (Municipal, Provincial)
	Jeremy (H.10)	Elected Official (Municipal)
2019 Canada Winter Games	Carl (RD.1)	Elected Official (Municipal)
	Michele (RD.2)	Host Society Staff
	Patrick (RD.3)	Municipal Staff
	Janet (RD.4)	Municipal Staff
	Gregory (RD.5)	Host Society Staff
	Tom (RD.6)	Host Society Board Member
	Dean (RD.7)	Host Society Staff
	Jason (RD.8)	Municipal Staff
	Amber (RD.9)	Municipal Staff
	Kim (RD.10)	Host Society Board Member
	Nick (RD.11)	Host Society Staff
	Tony (RD.12)	Host Society Staff

Focus groups with residents

To inform the host resident perspective in this study, we engaged in focus groups with individuals 18 years of age and older and who had lived in the respective City before and since the event. We define “host residents” broadly; therefore, individuals were encouraged to participate regardless of their involvement with sport or the event itself. Throughout the results and discussion sections, this group of participants will often be referred to as “RES” to denote

“residents.” Participants were recruited via social media, the lead author’s personal connections, community message boards, community groups and associations, and snowball sampling. Some participants were not involved in their respective event, while others had Games-time volunteer roles. Due to scheduling and recruitment challenges, some participants completed one-on-one interviews instead of a focus group. Two focus groups and three one-on-one interviews were conducted for the Halifax event. For Red Deer, five focus groups and four one-on-one interviews were conducted. A total of 27 individuals participated across the two events. All resident focus groups and interviews were held between August and October 2021 over Zoom because of COVID-19 restrictions. The conversations ranged from 37 minutes to 1 hour and 47 minutes, were audio- and video-recorded, and transcribed verbatim. Host resident participants are presented in Table 3.3 with pseudonyms, focus group/interview descriptors, and each participant’s event involvement.

Table 3.3

Resident Focus Group and Interview Participants

Event Context	Participant (FG/Int. #)	Event Involvement	Sport Involvement
2011 Canada Winter Games	Candice (H.FG1)	None	Outdoor Recreation
	Catherine (H.FG1)	Volunteer	Recreational
	Marissa (H.FG1)	None	Recreational
	Laura (H.FG2)	Ceremony performer	Dance
	Monica (H.FG2)	None	Recreational
	Sierra (H.Int1)	Volunteer	Recreational
	Rachel (H.Int2)	None	Little to none
	Colton (H.Int3)	None	Recreational
2019 Canada Winter Games	Russell (RD.FG1)	None	None
	Cheryl (RD.FG1)	Volunteer	Trained as official, volunteer
	Yasmin (RD.FG1)	None	Sport parent
	Brett (RD.FG1)	Volunteer	Competitive
	David (RD.FG1)	Volunteer	Competitive
	Phil (RD.FG2)	Involved due to job	Recreational
	Hannah (RD.FG2)	Involved due to job	Recreational, sport parent

Ken (RD.FG2)	Volunteer; involved due to job	Recreational, volunteer
Paul (RD.FG3)	Volunteer	Recreational
Michaela (RD.FG3)	Volunteer	Recreational, sport parent
Maria (RD.FG3)	Volunteer	Spectator, volunteer
Justin (RD.FG4)	None	Recreational
Lucy (RD.FG4)	None	None
Jessica (RD.FG5)	Volunteer	Recreational, trained as official
Betty (RD.FG5)	Volunteer	Sport parent
Taylor (RD.Int1)	Volunteer	Volunteer
Dawn (RD.Int2)	None	None
Susan (RD.Int3)	Volunteer	None
Brandon (RD.Int4)	Volunteer	Volunteer

Focus groups were conducted in two parts; first, participants were asked questions about their event and sport involvement, their memory of the event, and how they felt the event impacted their community. Second, participants were presented with an infographic that outlined community-focused event objectives and outcomes as they had been described and evaluated in the event documents from an earlier phase of the project. This offered participants the opportunity to discuss how they felt about and had experienced some of the items that were apparent in event documents. Further, given the time that had passed since each event, the infographic acted as a memory aide.

Data Analysis

All documents and policies collected, and interview and focus group transcripts were uploaded into NVivo to organize the data and facilitate analysis. We then used thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2012) to analyze the data. Thematic analysis involves six steps to data analysis, progressing through familiarizing oneself with the data through coding, developing sub-themes and themes, ending with reporting results (Braun & Clarke, 2012).

First, the lead author analyzed the collected documents to provide context of each event and familiarize themselves with the planned event objectives and outcomes from the perspective of

event providers. This process involved notetaking and iterative discussion with the second author. To analyze the interview and focus group data, the lead author read through the data set and took handwritten notes of pertinent information and topics to revisit to familiarize themselves with the data. Upon completing this first round of notetaking, the lead author consulted the second author to discuss ideas and initial interpretation of the data. Next, the lead author inductively coded the data set, often re-reading excerpts and re-visiting earlier codes as analysis progressed. Finally, upon consulting with the second author, led by their understanding of related literature, the lead author developed themes by grouping codes related to the research questions. Taking a thematic analysis approach allowed us to develop patterns and themes in the data and analyze information across multiple sources of information and data collection methods (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2012), ultimately fulfilling the project's purpose.

Results And Discussion

As discussed above in relation to each event context and the focus group discussions, descriptive infographics were created for each event outlining the objectives and outcomes derived from the document analyses. We determined theory- and data-driven categories of event objectives to organize the multitude of event objectives outlined in the documents. These included infrastructure, sport development, sustainability, art and culture, economic, social, and other. The outcome column was left blank if there was no information in the post-event documents explaining the outcomes of the associated objectives. It is important to note that the information gathered for the infographics reflected event provider perspectives through post-event reports, impact assessments, and municipal meeting minutes. The long-term evaluation of outcomes is better reflected through interview and focus group results outlined below. The infographics are presented in Figures 3.1 and 3.2 to offer insight into research questions one and

two, to provide more in-depth information regarding some of the goals each city had in hosting their Games, and to foreground the interview and focus group results and discussion that follow.

Figure 3.1

Infographic of event objectives and outcomes – 2011 Canada Winter Games














Community-Focused Event Objectives and Outcomes - 2011 Canada Winter Games in Halifax, NS		
<small>Information in this flyer is derived from organizational documents related to the 2011 Canada Winter Games</small>		
	Objectives	Outcomes
 Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Multi-sport recreation facility Ski Martock and Ski Wentworth upgrades Additional facility upgrades (i.e., Cole Harbour Place, Citadel High, Halifax Forum, St. Mary's University) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Canada Games Centre multi-sport facility Trail upgrades, snowmaking/maintenance equipment \$15 million in capital upgrades to existing venues \$50,000 to complete the construction of the Spatz Theatre at Citadel High School Long-track speedskating oval at the Commons (unplanned outcome)
 Sport Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Canada Games Legacy Fund of at least \$1 million Build champions Equipment distribution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> \$1.5 million legacy fund managed by Sport Nova Scotia \$1.1 million in sport equipment left over
 Sustainability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Green footprint Increased awareness of environmental issues 	
 Art & Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased capacity in arts and culture community 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spatz Theatre construction Scholarship funding through Nova Scotia Talent Trust
 Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> \$38 million visitor spending \$81 million economic activity in the province \$59.5 million economic activity in HRM 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> \$6.1 million visitor spending \$58.3 million economic activity in province \$34.9 million economic activity in HRM
 Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Increased community pride Increased community image Volunteer development Increased sport participation Improved diversity and inclusion (disability, aboriginal peoples, gender equity, multiculturalism) Improved health behaviours of citizens Youth participation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 5063 trained volunteers (850 bilingual)

Figure 3.2*Infographic of event objectives and outcomes – 2019 Canada Winter Games*

Community-Focused Event Objectives and Outcomes - 2019 Canada Winter Games in Red Deer, AB		
Information in this flyer is derived from organizational documents related to the 2019 Canada Winter Games		
	Objectives	Outcomes
 Infrastructure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multi-sport recreation facility • Long-track speedskating oval • River Bend Golf and Recreation Area • Canyon Ski Resort • Games Celebration Plaza • Facility upgrades (i.e., Central school, Red Deer arena) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gary W. Harris Canada Games Centre at Red Deer College • Great Chief Park long track speedskating oval • River Bend Golf and Recreation Area (incl. biathlon, ski trails) • Upgrade to mogul area, snowmaking equipment • Gary W. Harris Celebration Plaza downtown • \$14.5 million invested across five capital projects
 Sport Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Canada Games Legacy Fund • Inspire athletic excellence • New leadership group for sport • Equipment distribution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • \$650,000 left to Legacy Fund Society for distribution, applications due February 2021 • Central Alberta Sport Authority formed in 2020 • \$500,000 of equipment donated
 Sustainability	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Educate the public about sustainability 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Waste sorting initiative was implemented but relatively unsuccessful • Water filling stations were used • Leftover food was donated to the Mustard Seed • 2019 trees planted
 Art & Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Celebrate Red Deer and Alberta culture • Install a new Ghost of Red Deer • Community art installation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ghost of Red Deer Project not pursued • Community Art Project <i>Unity through Sport</i> on south side of Central Elementary School
 Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expected \$132 million economic impact • Promote Tourism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • \$110.3 million economic activity in AB (incl. \$92.4 million in Red Deer) • \$68.3 million in spending
 Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote social inclusion, diversity, community identity • Connect the nation • Volunteer development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No significant increase in residents' pride, connection to Red Deer was measured. Some anecdotal evidence. • Red Deer declaration for safe/inclusive sport was developed to prevent harassment, abuse • Volunteer Central database maintained post-Games (4000 Games-time volunteers) • Volunteer policy created at municipality.
 Other		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • City of Red Deer now has a Major Events Strategy for pursuing future hosting opportunities

The researchers identified three overarching themes from the interview and focus group data that answered the research questions, namely: (1) differences in scope and type of outcome, (2) community engagement and event phase, and (3) events for events' sake or for community

needs? Each theme is outlined and discussed alongside descriptive quotes from interview and focus group participants.

Theme 1: Differences in Scope and Types of Outcomes

Differences in the scope and types of impacts were apparent between groups of participants (PROV compared to RES) as well as within groups, primarily between Games-time volunteers (RES-vol) and other residents (RES-non vol), and between City staff and elected officials (PROV-gov) and host society staff (PROV-host).

Between group differences

First, event providers typically cited a wider array of benefits, which ultimately seemed to be attributed to a narrower group (i.e., sporting communities). Event outcomes cited by this group included tangible outcomes such as infrastructure development and less tangible outcomes, such as capacity building, skill development, social outcomes, networking, and more. Interestingly, event *objectives* cited within the policies and documents analyzed were wide in scope and type and included many intangible objectives. Event *outcomes* that event provider interviewees discussed; however, were much narrower in scope. During their interviews, many providers still discussed intangible *outcomes* (capacity building, networking, etc.); however, these conversations were more in relation to sport organizations, event venues, and other associated groups in the city. Conversely, conversations about event *objectives* were often in relation to the broader community.

Alternatively, residents often referred to broader/larger groups, such as the broader community (compared to only sport participants, for example), yet cited fewer event outcomes, focusing mainly on infrastructure improvements and perceived economic outcomes. Further, non-sport involved individuals pointed to how some changes were positive, despite disrupting

aspects of the city. For example, Yasmin (RD.FG1) explained how the new recreation centre in Red Deer replaced a trail system she used.

“...the Harris gym that was built in a piece of wilderness where I used to walk my dogs. And I haven't been there since the gym was built, because now there's a gym in the way. But other than that, I think they're great facilities, because they really, you know, they've raised Red Deer from, you know, a small town into a bigger town, a better town.” (Yasmin, RD.FG1).

Overall, these individuals evaluated the event positively, but expressed more skepticism or critique of the event than the event providers interviewed.

While some residents did not realize that less tangible outcomes/goals had been tied to the event, they nonetheless mentioned having fun or feeling a sense of community pride at the time of the event. Dawn (RD.Int2), a Red Deer resident, while explaining some of the challenges and frustrations she experienced in relation to the arts and culture offerings at the Games, paused to reassure the researcher; “We...we had fun, we did have fun.” Her exclamation points to how many residents seemed to experience a sort of tension between experiencing the Games positively in the moment, while still seeing ways that their respective event could have done more for a wider group of people or could have been used more strategically within the community.

Notably, all Halifax residents discussed the Emera Oval as the largest positive outcome from the Games, as it is currently a free, community-focused outdoor recreation space. Here, Colton is explaining the participatory nature of the oval.

“And you've got it right, like very participatory, really gets people engaged in sport in what I think is a really accessible way. So, there are tons of sizes, figure skates, ice skates, all

free of charge to rent... And you're able to borrow whatever equipment you might need.”

(Colton, H.Int3)

Regardless of their knowledge of, or experience with, event objectives and outcomes, most residents agreed that the events were worth it and that the infrastructure developments were valuable to the community, particularly when such developments were widely accessible and participatory. Russell explained that he was pleased to see how the upgraded facilities in his city were not unnecessary or absurdly expensive like those often seen in the context of mega sport events, supporting some existing work on the potential benefits of non-mega sport events compared to their mega event counterparts (e.g., Taks, 2013, 2016). Russell stated, “I've been thrilled to see how much all the upgraded facilities have been used for a whole host of different purposes, you know, so it wasn't there... they haven't been the white elephant [you see] with bigger events.” (Russell, RD.FG1).

While the tone of many conversations with residents was positive, this does not necessarily suggest that there was complete alignment between interests of the residents and those involved in detailed event planning. Specifically, as we will see in the third theme below, many residents who were not heavily sport involved individuals had other ideas about how city resources could have been allocated to meet similar goals.

These findings indicate that various stakeholder groups have to some extent conflicting, or at least diverging, interests. According to agency theory, these diverging interests create an opportunity for the agent to act opportunistically in relation to the principal (Waterman & Meier, 1998). However, the extent to which opportunism occurs in sport event governance and planning has yet to be seen and may be less of an issue in the context of smaller events than their mega-sport event counterparts. While opportunism has not yet been investigated in this way, to our

knowledge, features of non-mega sport events, such as community embeddedness (Taks, 2016) and lower resource demands (Agha & Taks, 2015) compared to mega sport events may reduce the chances of opportunism in such contexts. Determining the extent to which conflicting interests allow the agent to act opportunistically in the sport event context would be a worthwhile avenue for future research. What is interesting to note is how these conflicting interests are navigated in the relationship between the host city (PROV-gov) and the host society (PROV-host), discussed below.

Within group differences

Differences in scope and type of event outcomes also existed within groups of participants. Amongst event providers, city staff and elected officials (PROV-gov) interviewed were unsurprisingly more oriented towards broader community needs and were generally somewhat more skeptical of long-term event outcomes than host society staff and board members (PROV-host). While city staff interviewed expressed their role in trying to work for all community members, there seemed to be challenges in meeting some broader objectives through the event, largely due to the division of tasks with the host society and the focus on planning and executing the event. For example, Amber (RD.9) expressed that in some cases the Games shifted priorities in the city regarding which recreation facilities were built or upgraded. She explained “and the Games, again, I don't want to use the word trumped, but certainly prioritized some facilities over others” (Amber, RD.9). Amber and Jason (RD.8) both expressed that these Games-based decisions may not have been fully embraced by residents, causing some tension amongst certain community groups. However, both noted that funding was possible for Games-related projects and otherwise would not have been available to the host city. PROV-host participants, on the other hand, rarely situated their comments within the broader community,

and more readily described the event without mentioning such competing priorities. Amber and Jason's comments here point to the nuances of accessing funding for a community that may only be available if an event is hosted. The extent to which residents were aware of these constraints was not discussed; however, suggests the importance of informing host residents of the requirements to host events and those often tied to funding opportunities (Kelly et al., 2019).

The differences in perspective within groups of participants evident here aligns with existing work on event legacies and planning, where many scholars have observed challenges in meeting pre-determined objectives due to how events are typically planned and governed with a temporary host society (Parent, 2008). The differences in roles and perspectives of PROV-gov and PROV-host highlight some important features of agency theory, and how actors may be considered both agent and principal in one context. In this study, we focus on the public/government relationship; however, these findings suggest that while city staff and elected officials are acting on behalf of residents, they are also relying on the host society to meet event-related targets and outcomes. These findings suggest that the city may act as both principal and agent in the sport event context, which has been suggested in broader agency theory literature (Shapiro, 2005). This finding also supports existing conceptual work suggesting that events rights' holders act as principals, while host societies act as agents in the sport event context (Geeraert, 2017). Here, however, we see the role of the host city shift depending on the context and in relation to other groups. In one scenario, PROV-gov is the agent working on behalf of residents, the principal. Yet in other scenarios, PROV-gov is the principal delegating tasks and processes to PROV-host. This finding and alignment with existing agency theory work provide important insight into how working to meet resident needs may be facilitated or hindered in the sport event planning process.

Similar differences existed within the group of resident participants. Those individuals involved at Games-time as volunteers (RES-vol) were generally much more positive about event outcomes, as they cited experiencing far more intangible outcomes than those not involved in the event (RES-non vol). For example, RES-vol discussed making lasting friendships and feeling more prepared to help host future events (i.e., skill development and capacity building). Conversely, residents who were not involved as Games-time volunteers focused more on tangible event outcomes (i.e., infrastructure) and seldom referred to long-term intangible outcomes. This finding suggests that perhaps a more strategic or concerted effort to include non-sport involved individuals in the event process is key for meeting community needs and aligning interests amongst and within groups of stakeholders, particularly regarding intangible event outcomes.

This theme suggests that conflicting interests may exist to varying extents only amongst certain groups, as is also evidenced in public discourse analyses around sport events (Anderson & Taks, 2018). Discussions with participants in this project suggest that experiences of event outcomes of RES-vol were much more aligned with planned objectives and outcomes of all event providers, while RES-non vol were somewhat left out, despite being promised certain broader community-focused outcomes. One explanation could be information asymmetry, a core issue in the principal-agent relationship. In the context of this project, those closer to their respective events had a better sense of what the event offered and how to take advantage of the experience. To rectify this in the future, a clear strategy to inform those residents who are not directly involved in sport may be necessary to bring them into the fold of the event and may provide residents more information regarding the opportunities and constraints related to event hosting, including access to funding (Kelly et al. 2009). Conversely, simply informing a group of

opportunities and potential benefits is likely not enough. Moreover, time and resource constraints may hinder meaningful community consultation and involvement. Thus, while we recognize that this may be challenging to implement in practice, a resident-centred strategic planning approach needs to be considered to engage as many community sectors as possible.

Theme 2: Community Engagement and Event Phase

Residents' feelings towards the Games and their involvement in decision making shifted over time, depending on the phase of the event (i.e., event planning, implementation, and wrap-up; Parent, 2008). Most host residents indicated that they did not know what was happening or did not feel involved in larger decision making processes before the event or before applying to volunteer. Many indicated that this was ok, and things just seemed to be taken care of, or that they trusted those individuals in decision making positions. Individuals who were not involved in sport at the time, mentioned that they had a hard time before the event evaluating whether hosting would be worth it. For example, one resident, Catherine, indicated that they would not have known what they wanted in their community before the event, but now they are happy with the developed infrastructure. She expressed her thoughts as follows; "I don't know if I could say at the time, I certainly didn't think, Hey, we need a long track speedskating oval. Although if someone had asked me afterward... That's to me one of the greatest outcomes" (Catherine, H.FG1).

Residents mentioned that during the Games the experience was overall positive; however, several participants mentioned being disappointed with the lack of long-term outcomes from their point of view. In Red Deer, many participants wished that there had been a more concerted effort to maintain the momentum created by the Canada Winter Games; however, they also acknowledged the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on their city (which began one year

following the Games). The impact of the sociopolitical context created by COVID-19 cannot be understated in this case, and participants across both groups mentioned how cancellations and lockdowns from the pandemic influenced the city's ability to capitalize on the Games.

In both event contexts, some residents, particularly those not directly involved in sport in their community, discussed a lack of long-term consultation and planning for the end-user of facilities. In the case of Halifax, a group of residents had worked hard for several years prior to the Games to get a recreation centre funded and built in their neighborhood. At the time, the Games were seen as an opportunity to unlock additional funding for a bigger and better facility to replace an existing facility in disrepair. However, once the Games were awarded this group was not involved in the development of the facility, nor have they been involved in the direction of the facility as a community space after the event. This sparked frustration in some residents and, like findings above, indicates that residents may need to be better consulted in the long-term use and direction of event-led facilities.

In their focus group, Candice and Marissa discussed how the community was involved before the Games, but this changed once the event was awarded. In Candice's quotation, she refers to the city's desire, and need for, a 50-metre pool.

“We had a subcommittee. We went around to look at other facilities in the region Dartmouth, Sackville. And yes, the 50-metres was always part of the ask. ... We really do not have a respectable 50-metre pool. And there was a lot of public meetings. I know when the partnerships were created to fund the Canada Games Centre that sort of got chopped off.” (Candice, H.FG1)

Later, Marissa added that she felt there has been a lack of consultation in the direction of the facility following the Games; “So I think, anyway, that's just my two cents about it, that the

community, in my opinion hasn't had a lot of input into the development of what it is." (Marissa, H.FG1).

In Red Deer, some members of the art community similarly mentioned being disappointed that a building in the city's centre had not been properly renovated for its intended use following the Games – a cultural centre. These individuals felt that the city's main concern was to prepare for the Games, and that the long-term use of the facility was an afterthought. In one focus group, participants discussed how the city's Central Middle School building had been renovated for the Games. The participants agreed that the outside of the building and the surrounding area had been significantly improved prior to the Games; however, Lucy voiced her frustration over how the renovations suited the intended use of the building:

"It's the old Central Middle School, and the Canada Winter Games Office... during the games, that's where all the media worked out of too. And now it is Red Deer's Cultural Centre... I have a very negative comment about this... It's unfortunate, because, you know, it's a city facility. And it received money to be upgraded to suit the Winter Games. However, not enough planning or consideration was given to the ultimate user of that space. And it is poorly suited for its current use. And the city doesn't have the funds to really to make it work for a cultural centre. And that's unfortunate that the upgrading was done and not a thought given to who the long-term tenant was going to be." (Lucy, RD.FG4).

The findings expressed in this theme highlight three main points. First, in relation to agency theory problems (Waterman & Meier, 1998), there seemed to be a disconnect, or information asymmetry, between residents and event providers regarding Games-related projects, particularly prior to the Games and in the long-term use of facilities, creating

dissatisfaction or tensions between groups. Second, the notion of conflicting interests arises here again in terms of the overall event planning process. While the interests of many community members were more focused on long-term use of certain facilities and participatory use of those facilities, it seems as though the interests of the event took precedence in decision making. Again, this is unsurprising based on past research and evidence highlighting the challenges of meeting long-term goals in a temporary event organization (Leopkey & Parent, 2016). Regardless, the results here are pertinent given that in both cases of Red Deer and Halifax, the facilities that residents discussed in this way (the Canada Games Centre and the Central Middle School) are City facilities, suggesting that the host city was indeed responsible for ensuring that their long-term intended use was executed appropriately.

Finally, the findings here suggest the need for strategic and creative public consultation and engagement initiatives throughout the event process; perhaps using different approaches at various timepoints (Misener & Mason, 2010). While it would be impossible to please every community member within a host city, there seems to be room for improvement in gathering public opinion and offering involvement opportunities to the public in not only the lead-up to the Games, as suggested in theme one, but post-Games as well. Doing so may help to reduce the possibility, or severity of, conflicting interests and information asymmetry, or at least the extent to which the agent may act opportunistically, leading to a stronger public/government relationship post-event.

Theme 3: Event for Event's Sake, or Meeting Community Needs?

This theme highlights how the different groups (RES compared to PROV) perceived each event's objectives and opportunity-cost (Késenne, 2012). For event providers, the event was often described as an opportunity for city growth, “putting the city on the map”, building hosting

capacity to host future larger events, and networking. In the quotation below, Eric, a host society staff member, explained this regarding building hosting capacity.

“I know a lot of Canada Games communities that have hosted go after that sport tourism sector and because once you host the Canada Games, you can demonstrate you can basically host any national championship, and then international championships, and that can spin into other community events or cultural events or concerts or whether it ends up being whatever the strategy is for that community.” (Eric, H.4)

While some event providers indicated skepticism regarding the long-term potential for events to change a city, overall, the perspectives of event providers suggested that the event was *the best* way to move their city forward economically, socially, and in terms of sport development at the time of bidding and hosting the Games. Specifically, this sentiment was discussed in relation to how the Canada Winter Games would allow each city to host future events, as though that was the goal of hosting.

On the other hand, residents acknowledged the Games' value for the sporting community, but expressed much more skepticism regarding the broader impact of the Games. Susan pondered this idea in her interview; “And so what is the, you know, maybe in the sporting community, there's something, but I you know, as a community member, I don't know what the legacy is.” (Susan, RD.Int3). Ultimately, residents expressed many other ways that their city could achieve objectives, and rarely discussed hosting future events as the main goal moving forward.

While the event was generally received positively by residents, as discussed in the previous two themes, it was seen as *only one of many* ways to meet the city's social and economic goals. For example, several participants in both event contexts openly discussed how

they felt that arts and culture, or more participatory sport activities/facilities could have made longer-term impacts compared to the Games. One participant suggested that building smaller skating rinks in several neighborhoods would have served Halifax better than building the Emera Skating Oval in the city's centre. Monica explained here that the city had some plans for a neighborhood skating network; however, the Games changed those plans.

“And people do enjoy [the oval]. But what had been going on in the background at that point was the city was already in the middle of a kind of a recreation, winter skating venue analysis. And they had gotten so far as to be planning a network of neighborhood rinks... And so, the idea of doing the oval meant that the network of outdoor skating rinks wouldn't be happening.” (Monica, H.FG2)

Other ideas like building outdoor multi-use parks or splash pads, venues for more accessible sports like soccer, multiple smaller facilities instead of one or two large ones and activating the downtown core with a variety of event types (e.g., sport, arts, culture, etc.) were all cited as ways that similar outcomes could have been achieved without hosting a costly event. For example, in their discussion, Betty and Jessica wondered if similar feelings of community pride could have been achieved by building more accessible recreation spaces, demonstrated by Betty, when she said, “I wonder in the summer, sometimes if, if we couldn't have taken that money and maybe had just as much sense of community from building free accessible things for kids in the city to do?” (Betty, RD.FG5).

Residents generally had a positive experience and evaluation of the event and resulting facilities, particularly those that were community-focused and participatory, yet in hindsight demonstrated some skepticism regarding whether the event was the best way to achieve city goals, again illustrating a tension for some individuals between enjoying the event but also

realizing the drawbacks. Furthermore, regardless of sport or event involvement, residents indicated that hosting the Canada Winter Games in their city had diverted some resources away from other initiatives or had left the volunteer community tapped out directly following the event. Susan explained this idea clearly in her interview; “I guess maybe the other thing that it took away from the community was any other groups that were looking for volunteers or looking for sponsorship... [the Games] became the major focus.” (Susan, RD.Int3). While no one mentioned these as reasons to avoid hosting events in the future, these were nonetheless seen as drawbacks of hosting, highlighting the importance of strategic event use within cities (Chalip, 2014). These notions are similar to what has been observed in the context of mega sport events as well, though likely occur here to a lesser extent due to the lower resource demands of hosting a non-mega sport event (Agha & Taks, 2015).

The sentiments expressed here by host city residents highlight the challenges in attempting to meet community needs using funding tied to event-focused criteria and may not otherwise be available to a city (Kelly et al., 2019). In some cases, such funding may be too restrictive to meet diverse community needs. In other cases, host residents may not necessarily be aware of such challenges and constraints tied to funding that becomes available when a city seeks a successful event bid. A lack of understanding, or information asymmetry (as discussed in agency theory; see Waterman & Meier, 1998) in this way, could lead host residents to evaluate the actions and decisions of event providers differently than if they had the contextual knowledge required to make informed evaluations.

The findings here again solidify the importance of meaningful public engagement efforts including informing citizens about strategic plans throughout the event process, and strategic event portfolio planning across a variety of sectors (e.g., sport, art, culture, etc.) at the city or

even regional level. Specifically, regarding city event portfolios, the sentiments expressed by participants here indicate the need for cities to strategically engage multiple sectors in their event-based planning and development efforts. Clark and Misener (2015) similarly highlighted how diversity in a city's event strategy can assist with long-term, sustainable use of events within a community. Ensuring a well-balanced event portfolio may help to ensure that community interests are met across events, as opposed to focusing on sport specifically which likely adds to the tension between sport and the arts and culture communities that was apparent in this study.

Conclusion and Implications

Given the role of government as supporters and funders of publicly funded sport events, and the role of residents as taxpayers, the relationship between host city residents and their local governments is integral in the context of publicly funded sport events, regardless of their scope and size (Agha & Taks, 2015). Using an agency theory perspective of local government as agent and host city residents as principal, this study investigated how interests of the two groups aligned or diverged in the context of two different publicly funded, non-mega sport events. This purpose ultimately offered insight into how resident interests may be met or worked towards through a sport event, and how the public may be meaningfully involved in public decision-making surrounding events.

The findings above demonstrate that while host city residents may evaluate an event as generally positive, their interests and perspectives still diverge from those of event providers. Differences *within* participant groups (i.e., amongst event providers and amongst host city residents) existed in both event contexts, suggesting tension within both host cities regarding the benefits and drawbacks of hosting. Further, results here indicated that event providers experienced a wider scope of event outcomes (i.e., tangible, and intangible outcomes), while host

city residents were more likely to draw on their experiences with tangible outcomes (e.g., facilities). Host residents also demonstrated more skepticism about the long-term outcomes of the events overall and indicated that they wondered whether their cities could have achieved similar outcomes in more sustainable ways. While this perspective from host residents is certainly valid, it may indicate a lack of understanding regarding the complexities of accessing funding for event-focused developments (Kelly et al., 2019). While other projects in the community may have been more ideal or desired by some community members, funding used to build event-led facilities likely would not have been available at all outside of hosting.

Moreover, local governments are constrained in their decision making processes around events through a lack of autonomy (Késenne, 2012). In addition, community consultation and involvement may be greatly hindered by time and available resources, amongst other challenges (see Misener & Mason, 2010). Finally, a distinct tension between residents from the sport and arts and culture communities was apparent. The above findings support the importance of multi-sectoral event portfolios within cities, as suggested elsewhere (e.g., Clark & Misener, 2015). Our results indicate a need for early and sustained public education and engagement initiatives in an event process, as host residents' perspectives on their involvement and influence in the event seemed to change over time. This also seemed to manifest in changes in information asymmetry and interest alignment between the agent (event providers, local government) and the principal (residents) at different points in the event process.

The results of this study demonstrate how residents' interests and experiences of events differ from those of event providers. This finding is connected to the notion of conflicting interests in a principal-agent relationship (Shapiro, 2005) and could facilitate agent opportunism (where the agent acts in their own interests as opposed to those of their principal; Shapiro, 2005).

The extent to which agent opportunism may occur in non-mega sport events remains to be seen; however, existing literature pointing to the potential of non-mega sport events (e.g., Taks, 2013) may suggest that opportunism in smaller events may be less likely than in mega-sport event contexts.

One potential solution to conflicting interests as evidenced here could be to address the information asymmetry between event providers and residents as outlined in theme two. This could look like event providers better informing the public about strategic planning and event objectives, or better engaging the public in decision making processes. While education and public consultation processes are often challenging and require significant resources, public engagement in this way may offer more opportunity for sustainable event outcomes and therefore a longer-term positive return on the use of taxpayer dollars for hosting. Event managers, policymakers, and city staff and officials can learn from this work to better include host city residents at all stages of the event planning process. In doing so, the focus on resident event support may shift from informing to gain public support for hosting a successful event to engaging participation and learning how to better meet public interests/needs to gain public support. The latter approach centres the host residents in decision- and policy-making processes as opposed to the event itself and may lead to more sustainable event hosting within a community.

Two factors limited this study. First, many host resident participants were involved in sport or were Games-time volunteers at their respective event. Despite this limitation it is important to note that a wide array of opinions and perspectives were represented herein. Second, the long-term nature of the project was both a strength and a limitation. Little long-term event outcome research exists; however, the timing of data collection 10 years following the Halifax

event created some challenges. Participant recruitment was challenging, and for those who did participate, recall of event-related details was difficult. As a result, interviews and focus groups for Halifax were often shorter than those for Red Deer.

Future research should focus on strategies to reach non-sport-involved study participants to continue advancing our understanding of individuals outside the event or sporting space. Further, to better grasp the long-term outcomes of sport events, researchers will need to work on mitigating challenges experienced in this study. Finally, our findings herein may inspire future research investigating how interest alignment between (PROV vs. RES) and within groups (PROV-host vs. PROV-gov, RES-vol vs. RES-non vol) may influence individuals' event support and feelings towards local government. Further, drawing on broader public engagement and consultation literature to better consider the timing and type of public engagement strategies in an event context will offer additional insight into how residents may be involved in public decision making.

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Chapter IV

Predicting Political Trust and Event Support in the Context of Publicly Funded Sport Events

The sport event context includes many actors and stakeholders, including, but not limited to, event rights holders, sport organizations, athletes, sponsors, host residents, spectators, and multiple levels of government (Parent & Chappelet, 2017). While all these actors play a role in sport event bidding, planning, and implementation, host residents in particular play an essential part for two reasons. First, in the context of publicly funded events, they contribute financially to bidding for and hosting the event (Kesenne, 2012). Second, scholars have identified that resident support of a sport event is integral to the event's success (Rocha, 2020) and that their support is often influenced by their perceptions of event impacts (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Ouyang et al., 2017). Local government plays a crucial role in event bidding and hosting as well, as they are often, at least in part responsible for determining the amount of funding directed towards a publicly funded sport event, and the allocation of said public resources. Event funding is primarily justified by supposed positive event outcomes for the community (Müller, 2017). Therefore, the extent to which residents feel their needs and such positive outcomes have been met may indicate whether their interests align or conflict with those of the local government. As such, the relationship between host residents and local government actors is central to the context of publicly funded sport events. Moreover, research suggests that residents' experiences with publicly funded sport-related projects may influence their relationship with their local government (Kellison & Mills, 2021) and their event impact perceptions may influence event support (Gursoy et al., 2017). However, this has yet to be empirically tested in the context of publicly funded non-mega sport events.

Despite some work on the public/government relationship in tourism research (Nunkoo, 2015; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013), there is limited research investigating relationships between aspects of the public/government relationship in the sport event context, such as residents' power to influence, knowledge of the event context, residents' event experiences, their political trust, and event support. Further, most work investigating residents and sport events has focused on residents' perceptions of benefits or costs of an event, or perceptions of event outcomes as opposed to residents' actual experiences with the event (Taks et al., 2020). This study addresses these gaps by taking a long-term post-event perspective, allowing residents to reflect on their lived experiences with the event and the event outcomes. As such, the purpose of this study is to extend our understanding of how residents' experiences with a sport event may influence their relationship with the government and their event support from a long-term post-event perspective. Using agency theory to position the host resident and local government relationship at the centre of the sport event context, we draw on data collected from residents in the host communities of two past non-mega sport events – the 2011 Canada Winter Games in Halifax, Nova Scotia, and the 2019 Canada Winter Games in Red Deer, Alberta. First, we investigate factors that predict general political trust, and second, we investigate factors that predict event support.

Literature and Theoretical Framework Review

The Public/Government Relationship in the Context of Events

Scholars have often acknowledged the important role that host community residents play in the success of an event (Helsen et al., 2022; Rocha, 2020), as well as the importance of including residents in decision making and taking into account community needs when planning and holding events (Getz & Page, 2016; Misener & Mason, 2006). The importance of resident

support in sport-related initiatives is reflected in political processes such as event referenda to inquire about residents' event support before formally bidding for an event (Maennig, 2017; Streicher et al., 2019), and in sport stadium referenda (Kellison & Mills, 2021). Researchers have outlined the pertinence of how government and host residents may interact in the context of sport events in previous research focused on sociopolitical discourse (see Anderson & Taks, 2018) and how media messages are shaped for public consumption (see Sant & Mason, 2015). In these works, researchers have demonstrated that event providers such as the local government may attempt to shape host resident perceptions of event hosting and potential event outcomes to better align with their agendas, and to engender event support.

Governments often justify financial support for sport events based on the purported benefits to the host community. Researchers have found that economic benefits of hosting, at least in the context of mega sport events, seldom warrant public contributions (Késenne, 2012; Müller, 2015). Therefore, event supporters have turned to using less tangible, social impacts as justification for hosting events and scholars began investigating these social outcomes as a result (Taks, 2013). Most social impact research has been completed in the context of mega sport events, where scholars have investigated well-being and social capital (Gibson et al., 2014; Rocha, 2020) and sport participation impacts (Veal et al., 2019). While scholars have found some evidence for short-term positive social impacts, there remains limited evidence that these are sustainable long-term (for notable exceptions see Aizawa et al., 2018; Chalip et al., 2017). Furthermore, other scholars have suggested that non-mega sport events may have more potential for meeting sustainable, long-term objectives than evidenced in the mega events context (Taks, 2013, 2016). This potential may be partially due to their embeddedness within the local community and the opportunity for more local autonomy (Taks, 2013).

Longevity of Sport Event Experiences

Findings regarding the longevity of social impacts according to host residents are inconsistent. Balduck and colleagues (2011) collected data one week prior and one week following the 2007 Tour de France and found that residents' positive impact perceptions increased, and negative perceptions decreased. However elsewhere, in the context of the 2016 Rio Olympic and Paralympic Games, Rocha (2020) found a decrease in resident perceptions of event outcomes from four- and two- years pre- to two-years post-event. Rocha (2020) suggested this effect was due to hopeful promises prior to the event taking place and a lack of follow-through post-event. Meanwhile, based on research conducted three- and eight-months following the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Gibson et al. (2014) suggested that while short-term impacts may be evident, they are likely unsustainable. To address the lack of long-term event outcome research, we investigated two events that occurred three- and 11-years prior to data collection. We further distinguished between social impact experiences (i.e., during event experiences), and infrastructure experiences (post-event, or outcome experiences).

Factors Affecting Event Support

Researchers have also investigated how resident perceptions of events and their impacts influence their support of sport events in their community. For instance, Gursoy and Kendall (2006) collected data during the 2002 Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games in Salt Lake City and tested a proposed model of resident support for mega sport events. Their model demonstrated how community concern and community attachment, for example, impacted perceived costs and benefits of hosting the event, thereby impacting residents' support of the event. The study results suggested that residents may glorify benefits and overlook costs related to the event (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). Elsewhere, scholars have found that residents'

perceptions of mega event impacts pre-event influenced their event support (Gursoy et al., 2017; Ouyang et al., 2017). In their work, Oshimi and colleagues (2021) focused their investigation on social impact experiences and found that post-event (four months following the 2019 Rugby World Cup) feel-good-factor, sport participation, and social capital contributed significantly to predicting event support, while social cohesion did not. Across event support studies, scholars have found that impact perceptions pre-, during, and post-event, are important in understanding event support, and, unsurprisingly, that those who evaluate event impacts more positively are more likely to support the event (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Rocha, 2020).

Knowledge, Power, and Trust in Agency Theory

In this paper, we engage with agency theory to position host residents at the centre of the event context. Agency theory examines a dyadic relationship between (1) the principal, who delegates or entrusts certain tasks to (2) the agent (Waterman & Meier, 1998). The principal-agent relationship is characterized by two main problems – information asymmetry, and conflicting interests, each of which may lead to the agent taking advantage of the principal (Waterman & Meier, 1998). We position host residents as principal, and the local government as agent, who is ultimately working on behalf of their residents (Bodin & Taks, 2022b). Taking an agency theory approach allows us to evaluate how local governments may act in residents' best interest. To further understand the public/government relationship in the sport event context, we use the concepts of knowledge, power, and residents' event experiences and investigate how they relate to residents' political trust and event support. The principals' power and knowledge in the context of their agency relationship, and their trust in the agent may indicate the extent to which the agent can act opportunistically thereby possibly affecting trust in the public/government relationship as well as event support (Bodin & Taks, 2022b).

Knowledge can be conceptualized as an individual's understanding of a particular context (e.g., that of a publicly funded sport event), or in the case of agency theory, the role of the other party in the relationship (Bodin & Taks, 2022b). Measuring knowledge in a principal-agent relationship such as that between host residents and the local government can provide insight into information asymmetry, and the strength of the relationship at hand (Saam, 2007). For instance, if residents report knowing about the sport event context or sport event development in their city, this may indicate lower information asymmetry and thus fewer principal-agent problems, leading to a stronger relationship (Bodin & Taks, 2022b). In this context and for this study, we define power as an individual's ability to influence decisions in a particular context (e.g., that of a publicly funded sport event) and their ability to exercise their own will over others' (Kiser, 1999). As argued elsewhere, the principal's perceived power in an agency relationship may reduce conflicting interests and limit agent opportunism (Bodin & Taks, 2022b), again leading to a more trusting principal-agent relationship.

Finally, trust can be conceptualized as a graded relational judgement (e.g., trusts to a certain degree; Levi & Stoker, 2000). Specifically, political trust is one way that residents may evaluate their local government and political systems and indicates that the government will do what is right by its citizens (Wong et al., 2011). Trust may be of particular importance in principal-agent relationships as it may indicate that the principal has been provided adequate information to evaluate the relationship (Bodin & Taks, 2022b). Further, scholars have suggested that trust in principal-agent relationships indicates a lack of principal-agent problems (Miller & Whitford, 2002). As such, the principal's trust in their agent may be influenced by their knowledge of, and power in, the event context.

Scholars have employed knowledge, power, and trust in sport event and tourism development contexts (Gursoy et al., 2017; Nunkoo, 2015; Nunkoo et al., 2018). For example, Nunkoo (2015) hypothesized that residents' knowledge of and power in tourism development, as well as their perceived tourism outcomes would influence their levels of trust. Interestingly, Nunkoo (2015) found that perceived benefits of tourism development positively predicted political trust while perceived costs did not add to the prediction of trust. Further findings in this study suggested that both knowledge and power have positive significant relationships with general political trust. Similarly, Nunkoo and colleagues (2018) investigated the determinants of trust in the context of the 2014 FIFA World Cup, held in Brazil and found that residents' trust in government was determined by perceptions of corruption and transparency in mega-event planning institutions, and the residents' knowledge of the government's role in the event context.

Elsewhere, scholars have investigated the relationship between political trust and impact perceptions. For instance, Gursoy and colleagues (2017) found that residents' trust in their government predicted their event impact perceptions of the FIFA 2014 World Cup. Conversely, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012) found that perceived costs and benefits significantly predicted trust in the context of tourism development. To date, research investigating the relationship between event hosting and trust in government has been conducted prior to event hosting and has most often investigated how trust predicts perceptions (e.g., Gursoy et al., 2017; Ouyang et al., 2017). Given the outcomes of event hosting often touted by event providers (Anderson & Taks, 2018; Leopkey & Parent, 2016) and the role of the government in event bidding and hosting, the long-term evaluation of residents' event experiences alongside political trust can provide insight into how sport events may influence the public/government relationship post-event. Thus, from

this long-term post-event perspective, we are interested in how event experiences may predict political trust.

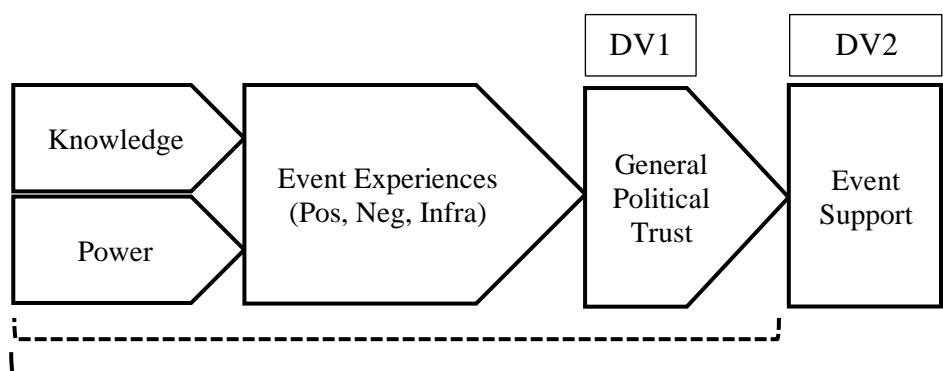
Finally, and in addition to the literature on event support explained above, Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012) investigated whether residents' support for tourism is influenced by their perceived benefits, costs, and trust in government actors. The authors found a direct positive relationship between perceived benefits and tourism support, but no relationship was found between perceived costs and support. In the context of the 2014 FIFA World Cup, Gursoy and colleagues (2017) found no direct effect of trust on event support and suggested that event impact perceptions mediate the relationship between trust and event support. Ouyang and colleagues (2017) also collected data in the context of the 2014 FIFA World Cup, but investigated the role of residents' trust, emotions, and event attachment in predicting event support. The scholars found that trust in the government directly influenced event support, and indirectly influenced event support through residents' event impact perceptions and emotions towards the event (Ouyang et al., 2017). Thus, event impact perceptions and experiences not only play an influential role in an individual's event support, but there are important relationships between impact perceptions, trust, and support as well.

In this study, we engage with knowledge, power, and trust through an agency theoretical approach to address how a sport event may influence the principal-agent relationship in a non-mega sport event context (Bodin & Taks, 2022b). Given the local embeddedness of non-mega sport events compared to their mega sport event counterparts (Taks, 2013), we suggest that the public/government relationship is central in this context and warrants investigation. We further take a long-term post-event approach to account for during event social impact experiences and long-term outcomes (i.e., infrastructure) to contribute to the literature in this time frame. We

posit that experiences with a sport event and its outcomes may influence residents' relationship with their government and affect their event support. Thus, we propose that knowledge, power, and event experiences predict variation in the first dependent variable, general political trust (DV1; see dotted line in Figure 4.1). Next, we propose that each of these constructs and trust predicts variation in event support, the second dependent variable (DV2; see solid line in Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1

Conceptual model outlining the determinants of general political trust (dependant variable 1 in model 1: DV1), and event support (dependant variable 2 in model 2: DV2)



Note. The dotted line indicates model 1, the solid line indicates model 2

Therefore, this study endeavours to answer the following two research questions:

RQ1: How do host community residents' knowledge and power of an event and event experiences (social impact and outcomes) affect general political trust (DV1) from a long-term post-event perspective?

RQ2: How do host community residents' knowledge and power of an event, event experiences (social impact and outcomes), and general political trust affect event support (DV2) from a long-term post-event perspective?

Method

Context

This study was conducted in the context of the 2011 Canada Winter Games, in Halifax, Nova Scotia, and the 2019 Canada Winter Games, in Red Deer, Alberta. The Canada Winter Games are the winter iteration of the Canada Games - a publicly funded, National youth multisport event. The Canada Winter Games and the summer iteration, the Canada Summer Games, are each held every four years, similar to the Olympic cycle. The Games are typically held in a mid-sized Canadian city and are funded by all three levels of the Canadian government – federal, provincial/territorial, and municipal. The 2011 Games involved 2,700 athletes competing in 22 sports, 5,000 volunteers, and had a budget of approximately \$37 million CAD. Approximately 65.9% of the total funding (\$24.4 million) was from public sources (i.e., national, provincial, and municipal governments). The Halifax population was around 390,095 at the time of hosting (2011 Canada Winter Games, 2012). The 2019 Games involved 3,600 athletes competing in 19 sports, 4,600 volunteers, and had a budget of approximately \$44.3 million CAD. Approximately 68.2% of total funding (\$30.2 million) was from public sources. The Red Deer population was approximately 101,002 at the time of hosting (2019 Canada Winter Games, 2020).

Questionnaire Design

This study is part of a larger exploratory mixed methods project, using a multiple case study methodology (Yin, 2014). Earlier phases of the project involved qualitative data collection from event providers (local government officials, City staff, host society staff) and host residents, as well as document analyses. The qualitative data collection phase informed context-appropriate questionnaire design to conduct this phase of the project, particularly the infrastructure items (see

Bodin & Taks, 2022a). Similar questionnaires were developed for each event. The questionnaires determined participants' political trust, knowledge, and power, their social impact experiences (positive and negative) of the event, their long-term event outcome experiences (infrastructure), and event support.

Knowledge (four items), *power* (three items), and *general political trust* (three items) were adapted from Nunkoo's (2015) work and measured on a five-point Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree; do not trust at all to trust completely). Residents' *social impact experiences* were measured with two constructs (positive – seven items, and negative – six items). Positive social impact experience items were adapted from Taks and colleagues (2020), and included items focused on community spirit and social cohesion. Negative social impact experiences focused on social problems and disruption in the city and were derived from Taks et al. (2020) and Chen et al. (2018). These constructs were measured on a seven-point Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree). *Post-event experiences* were measured through residents' perspectives on event outcomes (infrastructure). Infrastructure items (three) were derived from the qualitative phase of the larger study due to the importance of infrastructure goals and development in the Canada Games context and the salience of infrastructure in interviews and focus groups with participants (see Bodin & Taks, 2022a). The inclusion of this construct also allows for the investigation of long-term event outcome experiences. Infrastructure items were measured on a seven-point Likert scale to align with positive and negative social impact experiences. Finally, event support (four items) was derived from Gursoy et al.'s (2017) work and was measured on a five-point Likert scale. All items were worded to reflect self-referenced event experiences instead of generic perceptions of others (Taks et al., 2020). Five- and seven-

point Likert scales were maintained to remain consistent with previous uses of each scale (see Table 4.2 below).

Demographic questions, the level of sport and physical activity participation, and attitudinal involvement with the event provided additional context to control for potential spurious relationships in the models (Rocha, 2020). Demographic variables were participants' income, education, and sex. Sport and physical activity participation was measured in average hours per week during their busiest season. Attitudinal involvement with an event is known to affect social impact experiences (Taks & Rocha, 2022) and was measured using Shank and Beasley's (1998) 8-item scale. Participants were asked to indicate their feelings regarding sport (e.g., boring vs. exciting, worthless vs. valuable, etc.) on a 7-point differential scale. See Table 4.1 for an overview of the control variables.

Data Collection and Sample

Data were collected via online questionnaire on the Survey Monkey platform in March 2022. This timeline marked three years following the Red Deer (AB) event and 11 years following the Halifax (NS) event. The link to each questionnaire (one for Halifax, and one for Red Deer) was disseminated in each community via social media channels, emails to community groups, and through the researchers' network. Survey Monkey Audience panel data were also used to collect responses in each city. To participate in the survey, individuals had to be at least 18 years of age or older, live within the respective host area, and be aware that the event had taken place. All questions in the survey were mandatory, with one quality check question.

For Halifax, 187 individuals completed the survey; however, 30 responses were discarded due to an incorrect response to the quality check question. 157 usable responses remained. For Red Deer, 143 individuals completed the survey; however, 16 responses were

discarded due to an incorrect quality check response. 127 usable responses remained. Five additional responses from the total sample were removed due to unusable responses in the open-ended “other” category of the gender question. A total of 279 complete surveys were retained and included in the analysis. As presented in Table 4.1, 54.8% of the sample was from Halifax, Nova Scotia; 62% were female while 38% were male. The average age of the sample was slightly above 43 years old. Most respondents (41.9%) reported an annual household income of \$40,000-\$99,999 CAD. On average, respondents reported participating in 6.36 hours of sport or physical activity per week in their busiest season. Overall, participants reported an affinity towards the events, with an average score of 4.99 (on a seven-point scale) for attitudinal involvement.

Table 4.1

Sample characteristics (N=279)

Characteristic	
Gender	
Male (ref.)	38.0%
Female	62.0%
Age	
Mean	43.37
Standard Deviation	15.17
City	
Halifax, NS (ref.)	54.8%
Red Deer, AB	45.2%
Education	
No University degree (ref.)	51.3%
University degree	48.7%
Annual Household Income	
High - More than \$100,000 (ref.)	33.7%
Med - \$40,000-\$99,999	41.9%
Low - Less than \$39,999	24.4%
Sport and Physical Activity Hours per Week	

Mean	6.36
Standard Deviation	6.25
Attitudinal Involvement ⁽¹⁾	
Mean	4.99
Standard Deviation	1.68

Note. ⁽¹⁾ Shank and Beasley's (1998) 8-item scale; measured from 1 to 7

Data Analysis

First, confirmatory factor analysis, construct reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were computed using SPSS AMOS 26 to test the measurement model. Upon confirming an appropriate fit of the measurement model, item scores were averaged to form an aggregate measure of each construct. Because of the sample size, we conducted two hierarchical multiple regression analyses in the next steps to test the conceptual models (see Figure 4.1) using SPSS. Each construct was added to the model using the enter method so that the researcher could determine which variables to include in the model (Nayebi, 2020).

The first hierarchical multiple regression analysis is represented by the dotted line in Figure 4.1 and positioned general political trust as the dependent variable (part 1). First, the control variables were added in block 1. In block 2, the social impact and outcome experience constructs (positive, negative, infrastructure) were added to the model to determine if event experiences contributed to predicting political trust. Finally, power and knowledge were added to the model in block 3 to determine if these constructs added to the explained variation in political trust. The second hierarchical regression analysis is represented by the solid line in Figure 4.1 and investigated predictors of event support (part 2). As with part 1, control variables were added to block 1. Next, general political trust was added in block 2. Then, social impact and outcome experiences were added (block 3), followed by power and knowledge (block 4).

Results

Measurement Model Results and Descriptive Statistics

First, factor loadings were assessed for each item. All factor loadings were appropriate ($> .50$). All model-fit measures were within acceptable ranges (Hu & Bentler, 1998) indicating an acceptable fit of the measurement model: $\text{CMIN}/\text{df} = 2.373$ (911), $p < 0.001$, $\text{CFI} = 0.925$, $\text{TLI} = 0.916$, $\text{SRMR} = 0.069$, and $\text{RMSEA} = .070$.

Construct reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability. Cronbach's alpha for each construct in the study was over the suggested limit of $.70$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Composite reliabilities ranged from 0.82 to 0.96 , again above the minimum limit of $.70$ (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012; Hair et al., 2012), therefore, construct reliability was established.

Convergent validity of the items was determined using Average Variance Extracted (AVE; Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). The AVE for each construct was 0.52 to 0.86 , indicating convergent validity for all constructs (the recommended threshold for AVE is $.50$; Hair et al., 2012). Finally, discriminant validity was assessed using the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (Henseler et al., 2015). All ratios amongst constructs were below the threshold of $.90$ (Henseler et al., 2015) indicating discriminant validity.

Factor loadings, alpha scores, composite reliability, and AVE for each construct are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Reliability and convergent validity

Constructs and Items	Factor Loadings	α	CR	AVE
Power ⁽¹⁾		0.87	0.87	0.70

I had/have the opportunity to participate in sport event planning and development	0.850			
I had/have personal influence in sport event planning and development	0.886			
I have discussed sport event planning and development with others in my community	0.768			
Knowledge ⁽¹⁾		0.85	0.85	0.58
I know about sport event development in my community	0.836			
I know the possible impacts of sport events on my community	0.694			
I understand the role of local government regarding sport events	0.716			
I have knowledge about local government's sport event policies in general	0.794			
Positive Social Impact Experiences ⁽²⁾		0.95	0.95	0.74
I created new friendships/relationships in the community because of the Games	0.772			
The Games strengthened my relationships/friendships in the community	0.897			
I felt a strong connection to others because of the Games	0.915			
My feelings of trust in the community are enhanced because of the Games	0.828			
The Games increased my community spirit and pride	0.900			
The Games made me feel good about myself and my community	0.864			
The Games brought me closer to others in my community through celebration	0.842			
Negative Social Impact Experiences ⁽²⁾		0.86	0.86	0.52
The Games damaged my community's natural environment	0.779			
The Games disturbed my daily life in terms of peace and tranquility	0.790			
The Games made traffic congestion in my community worse	0.634			
The Games were an unnecessary use of taxpayer dollars	0.739			
The Games increased crime in the city	0.720			

The Games raised conflicts in allocation of social resources	0.637			
Infrastructure ⁽²⁾		0.81	0.82	0.60
The Games made my community more beautiful	0.874			
I have the opportunity to use the facilities that were built/updated for the Games	0.642			
The Games improved infrastructure in my community	0.791			
General Political Trust ⁽¹⁾		0.84	0.86	0.67
Indicate your general level of trust in your local municipality	0.865			
Indicate your general level of trust in the regional municipality	0.906			
Indicate your general level of trust in the provincial government	0.662			
Event Support ⁽¹⁾		0.96	0.96	0.86
I am glad that we hosted the Games	0.949			
I supported the Games	0.928			
The idea of hosting the Games gave me pride	0.897			
I would support the city hosting a similar event in the future	0.937			

Note. ⁽¹⁾ measured on a 5-point Likert scale; ⁽²⁾ measured on a 7-point Likert scale

The correlation matrix in Table 4.3 indicates a high correlation between positive social impact experiences and infrastructure. As discussed above, maintaining two distinct constructs is supported based on the qualitative data collected in an earlier phase of the study, and that infrastructure was often discussed by participants regardless of their affinity for, or involvement in the event, and therefore warranted its own measure in this phase of the study (Bodin & Taks, 2022a). Scholars have also suggested that maintaining more specific measures of event impacts has value in determining event support (Johnston et al., 2021; Oshimi et al., 2021).

Table 4.3

Correlation Matrix

Construct	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Power	--						
2. Knowledge	.690**	--					

3. Positive Experiences	.519**	.571**	--			
4. Negative Experiences	.006	-.172**	-.350**	--		
5. Infrastructure	.429**	.514**	.751**	-.466**	--	
6. General Political Trust	.074	.279**	.354**	-.270**	.368*	--
7. Event Support	.301**	.396**	.776**	-.590**	.724*	.402**

Note. ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Part 1: Predicting General Political Trust

The first hierarchical multiple regression analysis investigated whether event experiences, power, and knowledge added to variation in general political trust. All assumptions for linear regression analyses were met; however, one case was identified as an outlier outside ± 3 standard deviations (Pituch & Stevens, 2016) and was removed before proceeding with the analysis.

Results for this regression analysis are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

Part 1 – Predictors of General Political Trust (Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results; N=278)

Variables	Block 1		+ Block 2		+ Block 3	
	B	SE B	B	SE B	B	SE B
(Constant)	1.952	.190	2.005	.339	1.682	.353
Attitudinal Involvement	.211***	.030	.116*	.047	.097*	.047
SPA Hours	-.007	.008	-.009	.008	-.003	.009
Income – Low	-.001	.142	.072	.143	.069	.141
Income – Med	.135	.116	.171	.116	.153	.114
Univ. Degree	.302**	.108	.270*	.109	.286**	.108
Female	-.207*	.102	-.194	.102	-.173	.101
Red Deer	.495***	.101	.531***	.101	.514***	.100
Positive Experiences			.029	.057	.043	.059
Negative Experiences			-.065	.047	-.043	.047
Infrastructure			.096	.055	.089	.054
Power					-.184**	.064
Knowledge					.237**	.080
F	15.56***		12.19***		11.45***	

R ²	.287	.313	.341
R ² Δ	.287***	.026*	.028**

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

DV: General Political Trust

Block 1 accounted for 28.7% of variance in general political trust ($p < .001$). Attitudinal involvement, university degree, and Red Deer remained significant throughout the model.

Adding the event experience variables (positive, negative, and infrastructure) in block 2 accounted for significant variation in general political trust ($F(10, 267) = 12.19, p < .001$). The R² change from block 1 to block 2 was .026 ($p < .05$), reflecting a small, yet significant increase in explained variation ($F(3, 267) = 3.37, p < .05$). While the total model was significant, neither positive, negative, nor infrastructure experiences emerged as significant predictors of general political trust.

Adding power and knowledge in block 3 accounted for a significant variation in general political trust ($F(12, 265) = 11.45, p < .001$), explaining 34.1% of the variance. The R² change from block 2 to block 3 was .028 ($p < .01$), reflecting a significant increase in explained variation in general political trust ($F(2, 265) = 5.62, p < .01$).

Part 2: Predicting Event Support

The second hierarchical multiple regression analysis investigated whether general political trust, event experiences, knowledge, and power accounted for variation in event support. All assumptions for linear regression analyses were met; however, one case was identified as an outlier (Pituch & Stevens, 2016) and was removed before proceeding with the analysis. Results for this analysis are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Part 2 – Predictors of Event Support (Hierarchical Multiple Regression Results; $N=278$)

Variable	Block 1		+ Block 2		+ Block 3		+ Block 4	
	B	SE B	B	SE B	B	SE B	B	SE B
(Constant)	1.318	.142	1.074	.164	1.571	.204	1.737	.209
Attitudinal Involvement	.529***	.022	.502***	.024	.244***	.027	.249***	.027
SPA Hours	.003	.006	.004	.006	-.003	.005	-.002	.005
Income – Low	-.066	.105	-.066	.104	.081	.081	.066	.080
Income – Med	-.065	.086	-.079	.085	.004	.066	.005	.065
Univ. Degree	-.028	.080	-.064	.080	-.142*	.062	-.142*	.062
Female	.010	.076	.036	.076	.059	.059	.044	.058
Red Deer	-.082	.075	-.141	.077	.016	.060	.009	.059
General Political Trust			.125**	.044	.044	.034	.056	.034
Positive Experiences					.175***	.032	.192***	.034
Negative Experiences					-.178***	.027	-.175***	.027
Infrastructure					.168***	.032	.179***	.031
Power Knowledge							.021	.037
							-.126**	.046
F	84.86***		77.24***		114.31***		99.87***	
R ²	.687		.697		.825		.831	
R ² Δ	.687***		.009**		.129***		.006*	

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

DV: Event Support

The control variables entered in block 1 accounted for 68.7% of variance in event support ($F(7, 270) = 84.86, p < .001$). Of note is the significance of attitudinal involvement across all blocks. Adding general political trust in block 2 accounted for significant variation in event support ($F(8, 269) = 77.24, p < .001$). The R^2 change from block 1 to block 2 was .009, reflecting a small, yet significant increase in explained variation ($F(1, 269) = 8.17, p < .01$).

Adding the event experience variables (positive experiences, negative experiences, and infrastructure) in block 3 accounted for a significant variation in event support ($F(11, 268) =$

114.31, $p < .001$), explaining 82.5% of the variance. The R^2 change was .129 ($p < .001$), reflecting a significant increase in explained variation in event support ($F(3, 266) = 65.35, p < .001$).

Adding knowledge and power in block 4 accounted for a significant variation in event support ($F(13, 264) = 99.87, p < .001$), explaining 83.1% of the variation. The R^2 change was .006 ($p < .05$) and reflected a small yet significant increase in explained variation in event support ($F(2, 264) = 4.40, p < .05$).

Discussion and Implications

The purpose of this study was to understand how residents' experiences with a sport event may influence their relationship with the government, and their event support long after the event is hosted. By taking a long-term post-event perspective we could include residents' experiences: (1) during the event (i.e., social impact experiences), as well as (2) post-event (i.e., infrastructure experiences). To do so, we collected data from residents in the context of two previously hosted non-mega sport events: the 2011 and the 2019 Canada Winter Games and tested two conceptual models. The first model investigated factors that predict general political trust, and the second investigated factors that predict event support. Our findings only partially supported these conceptual models, as described in more detail below.

Part 1: Predicting General Political Trust

Event experiences were not found to predict general political trust. This finding contradicts existing findings in tourism development research regarding residents' costs/benefit perceptions and trust in government (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012) found that indeed, residents' perceptions of tourism development costs and benefits influenced their political trust. Our results may differ from those of other scholars for a few contextual reasons. First, given the long-term outcomes that are

purported to occur from hosting sport events, the relationship between residents and those in part responsible for bringing an event to a city remains salient in this timeframe as well. Nonetheless, our findings may be a product of the timing of data collection 3- and 11-years post event. For instance, the recency bias, explains that individuals have a tendency to draw on their most recent experiences when making decisions (Phillips-Wren et al., 2019). In the time that passed between the event and data collection, residents have had other experiences or interactions with their local government which may have rendered event experiences insignificant in predicting general political trust. Thus, there is no evidence that these types of event experiences have a long-term impact on the relationship between residents and local governments.

Second, the lack of effect of event experiences on trust in this study may suggest that there are differences in how residents evaluate perceptions of tourism development (a relatively abstract, and more sustained concept over time) and residents' actual evaluations of a tangible, one-off event and their experiences with said event. Existing research suggests that indeed residents' perceptions of social impacts, and the importance of various types of impacts may change from pre- to post-event (see Rocha, 2020), and that there are significant differences when comparing results from self-referenced and other-referenced survey items (Taks et al., 2020). This existing research may help explain why there is no effect of event experiences on trust from a long-term post-event perspective compared to findings from studies completed using perceptions, a less-defined context, or a short-term perspective.

When power and knowledge were added to the prediction of political trust over and above the previously added constructs, the finding indicates a positive direct effect of knowledge and a negative direct effect of power on political trust. This suggests that residents who felt they had more influence in the event process (i.e., power) were less likely to trust their government,

while those who felt they were more knowledgeable about the event process were more likely to trust their government. The results from this study regarding knowledge and event support are like findings in other studies investigating this relationship in the context of tourism. For example, Nunkoo (2015) found that knowledge and trust had a positive relationship in the context of tourism development. This result supports the notion that lower information asymmetry between a principal and their agent leads to a stronger, more trusting principal-agent relationship (Bodin & Taks, 2022b). Further, this finding supports the notion that transparency in decision making and public/government relationship (i.e., ensuring residents are informed) is imperative to fostering trust in residents (Nunkoo et al., 2018).

The role of power; however, remains a contested topic in trust-related literature. For Nunkoo (2015) and colleagues (2018; 2012), power was found to have a positive relationship with trust, while Nunkoo and Smith (2013) found no significant relationship between power and trust. Scholars outside of the sport and tourism spaces have suggested that the relationship between power and trust is heavily context-dependent (Öberg & Svensson, 2010). In our study, the negative relationship between power and trust may suggest that more involved and engaged residents (i.e., more power) were less likely to trust their local government. Further work, and perhaps qualitative or mixed methods investigations is needed to better understand the role of power in public/government relationships, trust between parties, and public engagement processes, particularly in the context of publicly funded sport events.

In this study, it is possible that those residents who felt as though they had the opportunity to influence sport event planning and implementation, also felt as though their suggestions were disregarded by those in decision making positions, thereby negatively influencing their trust. This explanation aligns with issues that scholars have pointed to in sport

event planning, where meeting long-term objectives and achieving community-focused outcomes is often secondary to staging the event (Kelly et al., 2019) or to the desires of elite event supporters (Müller, 2017). This would indicate that providing residents with engagement opportunities is an important first step in ensuring community members are heard, yet this is not enough to strengthen the principal-agent relationship or limit agent opportunism, and that there must be meaningful implementation of resident feedback and suggestions as well (Misener & Mason, 2006). To do so, principal and agent interests would likely need to align, therefore lowering conflict, and remain aligned throughout the event process and beyond the end of the Games. In this way, our findings further support existing research regarding sport events that calls for more sustainable outcomes for communities (Taks, 2013).

In the case that interests between actors do not align, conflicts increase. Consequently, the principal would then need to be able to monitor or hold their agent accountable. The extent to which this is possible in the sport event context remains to be seen and could be the focus of future research. Further, the sport event context may differ enough from tourism to explain the different results in the relationship between power and trust. For instance, many people consider themselves “experts” when it comes to sport (e.g., Mullin et al., 2014), which is not necessarily the case for tourism. Hence, participants may have felt that they knew best or were more qualified to make sport-related decisions than the government, negatively influencing their trust.

Part 2: Predicting Event Support

Table 4.5 presents the effects of trust, event experiences, and power and knowledge on event support. The control variable attitudinal involvement remained significant throughout the model. This could be explained by the relationship between attitudinal involvement and social impact experiences found in other studies (e.g., Taks & Rocha, 2022). Entering general political

trust adds to the prediction of event support over and above the control variables. However, we see that the effect of general political trust on event support drops off when event experiences are added to the model. This finding indicates that the effect of trust on event support is fully mediated by an individual's event experiences, which aligns with Gursoy et al.'s (2017) study on trust in mega-event planning institutions. Here, the authors explained that while trust remained a factor in determining event support, there was no direct significant relationship between trust and event support (Gursoy et al., 2017). Our findings support those of studies focused specifically on event impact perceptions and support (e.g., Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Johnston et al., 2021; Rocha, 2020). Moreover, event experiences, both during and long-term post-event, remain strongly connected with event support.

While our findings in the study at hand support results of other studies, it is important to note that Gursoy et al.'s (2017) study was conducted in the context of the 2014 FIFA World Cup and data were collected pre-event, while our study is in the context of non-mega sport events and data were collected in the long-term following the Canada Games. Further, our study includes items worded as event experiences, as opposed to the often-used perception-based language. Event support, therefore, seems to be most influenced by residents' impact experiences during and after the event regardless of the timepoint at which data are collected, or the type of event in question. This has important connections to existing event outcome and leveraging literature, and further supports the need for strategic long-term pursuit of positive community-focused event outcomes. Given our study investigated positive, negative, and infrastructure impact experiences separately, our findings also point to the importance of tangible post-event outcome experiences (i.e., infrastructure) of which community members may take advantage regardless of their

affinity towards or involvement with the event. Rocha (2020) noted similar significance of tangible legacies in predicting residents' support during and two years post-event.

When adding knowledge and power to the model, knowledge negatively predicted event support, while power was not a significant predictor of event support. This suggests that the more residents felt they knew about the event context, the less they supported the event (and vice versa). Further, the results suggest that all three event experiences remain significant predictors of event support indicating that the effect of event experiences on event support is partially mediated by knowledge in a negative manner. This finding further corroborates existing literature (e.g., Gursoy et al., 2017; Rocha, 2020; Weimar & Rocha, 2017) regarding the importance event experiences and perceptions in an individual's evaluation of an event and their future support, as explained above.

The influence of power and knowledge on event support have not previously been tested to our knowledge, and thus offers new insight. While Nunkoo and Ramkissoon (2012) included power and support in the same model, they did not directly test the relationship between these concepts. The negative relationship between knowledge and event support found here could be explained by the possibility that residents who have more knowledge of an event context may have a better understanding of the less desirable aspects of events, or may better understand some of the challenges in, and demands of, hosting. This could in turn influence their negative impact experiences and therefore their event support, a finding which has been established elsewhere (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). In contrast, those who feel they are less knowledgeable about the event may be more likely to ascribe to media-driven commentary regarding event benefits, which has been found to present positive aspects of hosting to garner resident support (see Anderson & Taks, 2018; Sant & Mason, 2015). This explanation was not tested here due to

space limitations; however, it could be tested in the future by investigating whether knowledge and power predict event experiences. Certainly, given the specific relationship between knowledge, power, and event support has not been tested to date, more research is needed to better understand how knowledge and power may influence event support in other contexts or at other times. Advancing such work could help to add to our understanding of various public engagement and informational strategies, and their role in sport event hosting.

Theoretical and Practical Implications

This research has added to the literature by investigating a new event context (non-mega sport events) from a long-term perspective and using self-referenced event experiences instead of perceptions. Thus, we contribute to understanding the roles that sport events play in the long-term relationship between host residents and their local government. Further, while other work (see Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012) has included power and knowledge in the same model predicting support in the context of tourism, our study is the first to directly test whether power and knowledge help to predict event support. This additional relationship provides insight into how public engagement and decision making may foster support in government initiatives such as sport events.

Practically, our results demonstrate that all three event experience constructs (positive, negative, and infrastructure) remain important for predicting event support, even in this long-term view (three- and 11-years post-event). This finding supports the notion that, in the context of publicly funded sport events, local governments and event managers need to continue working towards both enhancing positive event experiences for residents during the event through creating a celebratory atmosphere (e.g., Chalip, 2006), as well as developing sustainable event outcomes (i.e., infrastructure legacies) for community members (Chalip, 2014; Taks, 2013). Our

findings demonstrate that residents' role in event-related decision making and influence in the event process predict general political trust. These findings reinforce the importance of informing and engaging citizens in public decision making across sectors and initiatives if politicians want to foster a stronger, more trusting relationship with their residents.

Limitations and Future Research

Future work building upon this research could take a longitudinal approach, which has not yet been done to investigate how the relationship between constructs may evolve over time and throughout the event process. Additional work could further investigate the relationship of power and knowledge on event support. Our findings suggest that citizen awareness and understanding of an event (i.e., their knowledge of the event context) plays a role in their support. More work is needed to better understand the nature and extent of citizen engagement initiatives and how these may ensure resident needs are met, thereby facilitating event support.

The project at hand was limited primarily by sample size. We set out to collect at least 250 responses from each city; however, quickly realized that this would not be possible. Challenges in recruitment may have resulted from the inability to travel to the cities of interest due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the time that had passed since the events, or the cities' size. Future methodological work could investigate recruitment challenges in smaller urban and rural centres to help support non-mega sport event research.

Conclusion

The relationship between host residents and their local government is central in publicly funded sport events as resident support aids in hosting a successful event (Helsen et al., 2022). Thus, we sought to investigate the relationship between knowledge, power, trust, event experiences, and event support from a long-term, post-event perspective. We proposed that

residents' knowledge about the event process and event-related power, as well as event experiences would have a lasting effect on general political trust. Second, we proposed that each of these constructs and political trust would predict variation in event support.

Overall, our findings only partially supported the proposed conceptual models. Event experiences did not influence general political trust as predicted, while event-related power and knowledge of the event process did significantly predict trust. When considering the prediction of event support, findings were somewhat consistent with existing literature (Gursoy et al., 2017; Ouyang et al., 2017). For instance, trust did contribute to the prediction of event support; however, our results suggest that event experiences fully mediate this effect. The results regarding the influence of knowledge and power on event support are novel and warrant future investigation. Findings from this study indicate that public initiatives like sport events, and residents' engagement with those events can influence the relationship between the public and the government. Results highlight the importance of ensuring resident needs are considered, and met, in hosting.

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Chapter V

Discussion and Conclusion

The purpose of this dissertation was to investigate the long-term outcomes of publicly funded, non-mega sport events, and to examine the role of trust, knowledge, and power in the public/government relationship and event support in relation to these outcomes. To achieve this purpose, I progressed through three phases of research. In phase 1, I outlined the proposed theoretical approach for the project. In phase 2, I investigated event objectives and long-term event outcomes from the perspective of event providers and host city residents. Finally, in phase 3, I investigated how residents' event experiences may have influenced their feelings towards their local government and their event support. The present chapter concludes the dissertation by reflecting on how the results presented in Chapters III and IV of this dissertation (phases 2 and 3, respectively) relate to the theoretical approach presented in Chapter II, thus fulfilling the overall purpose of the dissertation.

This chapter continues below with summary of each of the dissertation papers (Chapters II through IV), including their purpose, methods, and key takeaways. Next, an integrated discussion will be presented to outline the connections between each paper, discuss the dissertation, and provide linkages to existing literature. This section presents an extended framework of principal-agent relationships in the context of publicly funded sport events and discusses the relevance of infrastructure outcomes. Finally, theoretical and practical implications, (de)limitations, and future research suggestions are offered.

Summary of Findings

Thus far, this dissertation has outlined the importance of the public/government relationship in the context of publicly funded sport events and has provided a theoretical

framework through which to investigate this relationship. Then, in Chapter III and IV, aspects of the theoretical framework were applied. First, by investigating the alignment of event objectives and outcomes from the perspective of each actor, and secondly by operationalizing residents' experiences with their respective sport event and determining whether their experiences influenced their event support and their trust in local government.

I presented the first of three dissertation papers, *Unpacking the Public/Government Relationship in the Context of Sport Events: An Agency Theory Approach*, in Chapter II. The purpose of this paper was to offer a conceptual approach to explore the host resident/local government relationship in the sport event context. This paper outlines the theoretical framework upon which the dissertation is based. Chapter II explains how agency theory, where host city residents (the public) are considered the principal and the government is considered the agent, can be applied to the publicly funded sport event context. I drew on existing agency theoretical literature in sport (e.g., Foreman et al., 2020; Geeraert & Drieskens, 2015; Mason et al., 2006) and in broader fields, such as sociology (e.g., Shapiro, 2005) to build a conceptual approach including knowledge, power, and trust, as central components in this relationship. This first phase of the dissertation advances the use of agency theory in sport event research and provides steps for applying the theory empirically, which has seldom been done to date. I then, in part, used these suggestions in the development of the second and third dissertation papers (see Chapters III and IV).

In Chapter III, I presented the second dissertation paper, titled "*We... We Had Fun, We Did Have Fun.*": *Long-Term Sport Event Outcomes and Community Tensions*. The purpose of this paper was to examine alignment between event provider and host city resident perspectives on event objectives and outcomes. This phase of research answered three main research

questions: (1) What were the event objectives?; (2) What are the long-term outcomes of the events?; and (3) How do perspectives correspond between groups? To answer these questions, I drew on qualitative data from relevant documents, semi-structured interviews with event providers, and focus groups with host residents.

The results from this paper demonstrated that there were inter- (between) and intra- (within) group differences in participants thoughts and feelings regarding their respective events. For example, event providers typically referred to a broader array of event objectives and benefits but attributed these to a smaller group of people (i.e., the sport community). Meanwhile, host residents saw event impacts occurring for a wider group of people; however, most often referred to tangible outcomes (e.g., infrastructure development). Within group differences were also observed. For instance, in the group of event providers we noticed differences between the local government's city staff and the host society staff. The local government's city staff was more concerned about the impact of the event on the community as a whole and thus demonstrated more skepticism towards the long-term impact of their events compared to host society staff.

The results from this phase of the dissertation demonstrated a need for public consultation regarding the long-term use of venues and facilities that are built and renovated for Games. This finding suggested that residents' feelings about and their desire to be involved in event related decisions may change over the course of different event modes (i.e., planning, implementation, wrap-up, and beyond). The conclusions developed in this second phase of the dissertation provided contextual information and data upon which to build data collection instruments for phase 3 and contributed to sport event management literature. Specifically, results centred host resident perspectives in an event process, explained variations in resident

perspectives in different event modes, and highlighted that diverging interests and tensions within a community can exist even if most individuals evaluate an event as positive.

Finally, I presented the final phase of the dissertation in Chapter IV, in a paper titled *Predicting Political Trust and Event Support in the Context of Publicly Funded Sport Events*. This phase of the dissertation addressed two research questions: (1) How do host community residents' knowledge and power of an event and event experiences (social impact and outcomes) affect general political trust from a long-term post-event perspective?; and (2) How do host community residents' knowledge and power of an event, event experiences (social impact and outcomes) and general political trust affect event support from a long-term post-event perspective? To answer these research questions, I used context-specific surveys collected in each host city and used multiple hierarchical regression analyses to determine factors that predict political trust and event support. The findings indicated that event experiences (positive, negative, and infrastructure) did not predict general political trust, but that knowledge and power did. These results differed from previous studies in other contexts (e.g., tourism, see Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012). Meanwhile, experiences, knowledge, power, and trust did predict event support. Results regarding this relationship corroborated those in other studies that found a positive, significant relationship between event experiences and event support (e.g., Gursoy et al., 2017).

These findings suggest that while individuals' event experiences may not influence their relationship with their local government (i.e., trust), their perceived involvement in event decision making does. This provides valuable insight and contributes to event management literature by highlighting the importance of resident involvement not only for gaining resident support but also for fostering positive relationships between the public and government through

event hosting processes. These results also contribute to the non-mega sport event and long-term outcome literature by demonstrating that event experiences continue to directly influence event support, even three- and 11-years post event.

Building a Trusting Network of Principals and Agents

Chapter II outlined a proposed theoretical approach based on the use of agency theory in publicly funded sport events, where the public is considered the principal, and the government is considered the agent, a conceptualization seen in agency theory literature in other domains as well (Kiser, 1999). This paper outlined tenets of agency from a sociological perspective and explained that elsewhere scholars have pointed to the possibility that actors could be principals and agents in different situations within a context (Kiser, 1999; Shapiro, 2005). Agency theory has predominantly stemmed from, and gained traction in, economic literature (Jensen & Meckling, 1976), which has focused primarily on dyadic relationships within corporate settings (Foreman et al., 2020; Mason, 1997). While the main actors of interest in this study are the public and the government and thus focused primarily on that dyadic relationship as a point of departure, findings in Chapter III corroborated suggestions of agency theory scholars in the sociology domain, specifically how actors can be principals and/or agents depending on the situation (Shapiro, 2005). For instance, local government staff demonstrated a responsibility towards residents, while acknowledging challenges in relying on the host society to bring the event to life, suggesting the local government acted as both agent (towards resident) and principal (in relation to the host society).

Thus, Figure 5.1 demonstrates a network of principal-agent relationships in a publicly funded sport event context. This network explains how the local government, the organizing committee (host society), the public, and the event rights holder may interact as both principal

and agent in relation to the other actors. First, and as evidenced in this study, the local government entrusts the event organizing committee to plan and host the event, while the government also has a responsibility to the public which exists prior to and endures long after the event. Thus, trust is developed or eroded over time and exists both independently from, and in the context of, the event. This is distinct from more short-lived relationships between other actors, as outlined below. The solid black arrows depicted in Figure 5.1 demonstrate the enduring nature of the principal-agent relationship between the two actors.

Also included in the network of agents and principals presented in Figure 5.1 is the event rights holder (e.g., the Canada Games Council). Solberg (2018) suggested that when local governments contribute financially to hosting, the event rights holder acts as agent, given taxpayer dollars may be used to meet event rights holder hosting requirements instead of community needs. From this perspective, the government (the principal) is trusting that the event rights holder (the agent) will act in the community's best interest. However, from a different perspective, the event rights holder could also be considered the principal, where they are trusting the local government to support and, in part, govern the event according to their standards. Here, we can see that the event rights holder and the local government could be seen as either principal or agent depending on the perspective one takes in investigating the relationship. This relationship is depicted in Figure 5.1 by a double-ended arrow between "local government" and "event rights holder" to show that either of these actors could be the principal or agent in relation to the other. The event rights holder also has a principal-agent relationship with the organizing committee. Geeraert (2017) has suggested that in this dyadic relationship, the organizing committee acts as the agent, as its primary role is executing the event on behalf of the event rights holder (their principal). In this relationship, the organizing committee always acts as

the agent, as the organization exists solely for the purposes of hosting the event and meeting event rights holder requirements. Given the different combinations of principal-agent relationships suggested in sport event literature, such as those presented here and in Solberg (2018) and Geeraert's (2017) work, a principal-agent network approach is supported. This network could be expanded further in the future to include other actors, such as event sponsors, sport organizations, and other levels of government. The principal-agent relationships between the local government, organizing committee, and event rights holder in Figure 5.1 are each depicted using thin dotted, gray lines to demonstrate that these relationships exist only in the context of the event. This is unlike the enduring relationship between the local government and the public, and suggests that components such as trust, knowledge, and power may be developed differently and only in the event context given their shorter lifecycles.

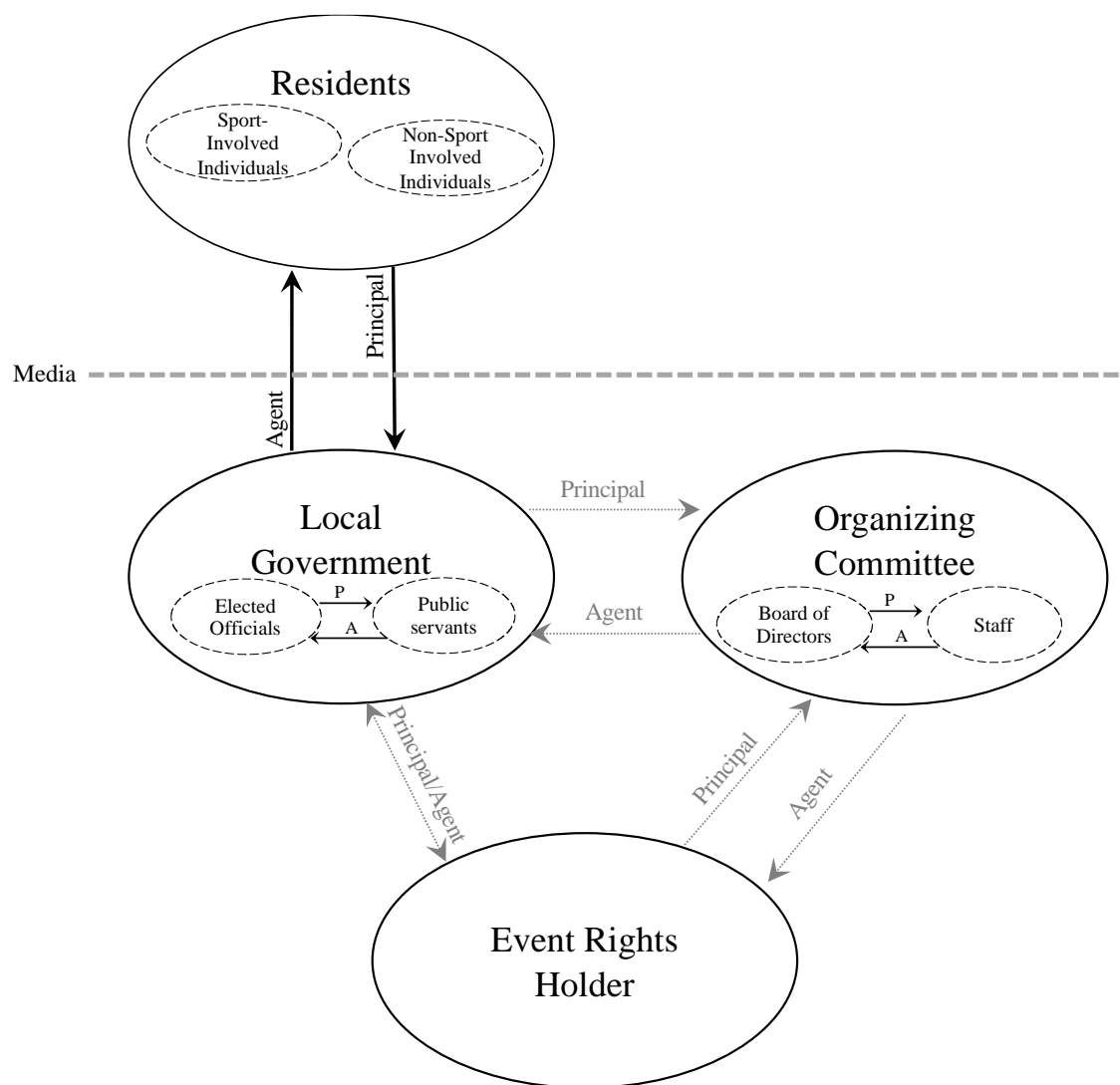
Meanwhile, within each group there are likely principal-agent relationships at play as well, further depicted in Figure 5.1 by the dotted circles such as those encircling "Elected Officials" and "Public Servants". Expanding off the nuanced within group differences identified in Chapter III, the structure of most event organizing committees (e.g., board of directors and staff), and drawing from agency theory work in other disciplines (see Banfield, 1975; Kiser, 1999; Shapiro, 2005; Weingast, 1984), the network of agency relationships becomes more complex. In broader agency theory research, elected officials entrust public servants to complete their work and ensure strategic priorities are met (Kiser, 1999). For instance, Weingast (1984) suggested that elected officials act as principal in relation to public servants, as public servants are those ultimately responsible for implementing policy and providing services to the public. Similarly, within the organizing committee, the board of directors hires senior staff (who in turn hire additional staff members) to ensure the event is planned and hosted successfully. Thus,

principal-agent relationships between elected officials and public servants, and board members and host society staff exist in this model as well. A similar relationship, albeit outside of the sport event context, was described by Foreman and colleagues (2020) where National Football League coaches (employees) were positioned as agents in relation to the principal - league owners (the employers).

The local government is often represented on the organizing committee board of directors, adding to the complexity of the actor network presented here. These individuals represent the local government's interests on the board of directors; however, may not have the ability to fully ensure all needs of the local government or residents are met depending on how the board is structured and decisions are made. Dynamics within actor groups such as that presented here could be of interest in future research when investigating monitoring in agency theory, and the extent to which actors may act opportunistically.

Figure 5.1

A network of principal-agent relationships in the context of publicly funded non-mega sport events.



Note. Solid black arrows: enduring nature of the principal-agent relationship between the two actors; thin dotted, gray lines: temporary relationships in the context of the event only.

The relationships between actors, and their roles of principal or agent may also change over time or in different contexts, as suggested theoretically in Chapter II and partially supported empirically in Chapter III. For instance, inter-group principal-agent relationships remain as such

throughout the event process or regardless of timing, while the roles of the local government as principal and agent may each take precedence over the other at different stages of event bidding, planning, and hosting. For instance, and as described in Chapter I, the government always acts as agent in relation to the public (principal), as evidenced in the government's role offering continued services to the public outside of event hosting (see Carey et al., 2017). However, the government seems, at times during an event process, to be challenged with balancing their role as agent, acting on behalf of the public (principal), while also monitoring or working within their role as principal towards the organizing committee (agent). This could be a theoretical explanation for why community-focused event outcomes may not come to fruition over the course of the event, where resources and time are dedicated to the demands of hosting as opposed to ensuring sustainable, long-term outcomes (Kelly et al., 2019). Then, when the event leaves town and the government is yet again acting primarily as agent towards the public, long-term event-related outcomes may become their responsibility and front of mind, though at this stage the lead-up and strategic planning for outcomes post-event may have not occurred, which has been suggested as a key element of successful event leveraging (Chalip et al., 2017). When considering the element of time in an event bidding and planning process, different actors and different principal-agent relationships may become more central to the network than others depending on timing.

As described in Chapters I and II above, agency theory is typically characterized by two assumptions. The first, information asymmetry, is the assumption that the agent has more information about the nature of the relationship than the principal. In Chapter II I suggested that increased knowledge indicated lower information asymmetry and therefore may indicate a more trusting, stronger principal-agent relationship. Chapter IV tested this proposition empirically.

Results in Chapter IV demonstrated that knowledge had a positive significant relationship with trust. Similarly, Nunkoo and colleagues (2015) found that residents' perceptions of transparency in event hosting positively predicted their trust in government. However, questions remain regarding how information is shared between actors, and thus how trust may be fostered in this context. One avenue of information sharing, and therefore possibly fostering trust, is how local government and event organizing committees rely on the media to disseminate messaging about event bidding and hosting. The horizontal gray dotted line in Figure 5.1 represents how the media acts as a mediator between residents and event providers (local government, organizing committee, and event rights holder). In their work, Anderson and Taks (2018) explain that media messaging is used by government actors and event supporters to gain public support for hosting. Similarly, Sant and Mason (2015) explained how media messaging about event legacies from the 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games were shaped in such a way to gain public support. Thus, the media plays a role in disseminating event-related information to the public and, therefore, has a role in either building or eroding public trust within a community depending on the messages shared and whether messaging reflects what residents experience in their community. Since ensuring residents are informed of event-related processes, decisions, and potential outcomes may foster trust in local government, attention should also be paid to what messages are being promoted and by whom, to ensure that residents are appropriately informed and not only fed pro-event rhetoric for the sake of gaining event support.

The second assumption of agency theory is conflicting interests, where it is assumed that the two actors in a principal-agent relationship will have different needs and goals. As suggested in Chapter II, conflicting interests may erode trust in a principal-agent relationship. Conflict did exist in the two event contexts studied here. Specifically, both cities had identified a need for a

50-metre competition pool leading up to the Games. However, when decisions were made for which venues to build and upgrade, neither city received a 50-metre pool. Scholars elsewhere have observed that event providers, at least in the mega sport event context, may over promise outcomes that do not ultimately occur from hosting (e.g., Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Rocha, 2020). Conflicts like this could erode trust in local government when residents are expecting a specific outcome from hosting and that outcome does not come to fruition. In this study in particular, how trust was established and/or broken between actors and the residents' relationship with the government were not discussed with participants in phase 2, nor directly measured in phase 3. Future work could draw on qualitative data such as media discourse analyses alongside discussions with residents to investigate further how trust is built in principal-agent relationships, and what conditions could lead to residents evaluating their governments in a favourable manner.

Considering the principal-agent network outlined above, these findings could extend to other relationships within an event context as well. The salience of transparency, informing other actors in a relationship about the context itself, and providing decision making or engagement opportunities to other actors, as found in Chapter IV, provides important insight into the principal-agent relationships outlined in the network above. For instance, ensuring appropriate representation of the local government and event rights holder on the organizing committee board of directors can foster collaboration and communication, thus supporting trust. If, indeed, sport events are to be conceptualized as a network of principal-agent relationships as described above, ensuring trusting relationships throughout the network will be key to successful event hosting for sustainable event outcomes. Using the findings from Chapter IV, building trusting agency relationships can begin by ensuring clear communication and transparency, and by agents ensuring their principals are informed of the context. The media could be a tool through which to

disseminate such messaging to residents, however, must be used in a way that limits relying on misplaced promises to simply garner public support if such promises cannot come to fruition.

Infrastructure as a Sustainable Long-Term Event Outcome

Existing research regarding sport event outcomes and support has pointed to the importance of event perceptions and experiences in predicting future support (Gursoy et al., 2017; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Rocha, 2020). Further, in other contexts (e.g., tourism), perceptions of benefits have been found to influence support (Nunkoo, 2015; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). The findings presented in both Chapters III and IV demonstrate that social outcomes remain important in the long-term following an event; however, this dissertation points to infrastructure outcomes, as they may have the opportunity to reach more people outside of those who interact with the event. In Chapter III, infrastructure was a main topic of conversation amongst the host resident participants, likely given how it is tangible and remains front and centre years following Games. In Chapter IV, infrastructure was a significant factor in predicting event support, demonstrating it remained important to residents from a long-term post-event perspective.

In mega sport event contexts, infrastructure development is often seen as a burden to the host region/city. While sociopolitical discourse surrounding mega events may draw on infrastructure development as a positive outcome (Sant & Mason, 2015), a number of scholars have outlined how such development in fact may not serve the needs of the community and is ultimately too costly and unsustainable (e.g., Müller, 2015; Smith, 2012; Taks, 2013). The results in the two empirical phases of this dissertation; however, suggest that in the context of the Canada Games, and perhaps other smaller scale sport events, the infrastructure developments

sought through hosting may in part be better aligned with the needs of the community and existing municipality objectives.

Chapter III findings demonstrated that there are differences in how non-sport or non-event involved individuals evaluate tangible and intangible outcomes 3- and 11-years following their respective event. Notably, while less tangible outcomes such as building networks and community pride were important in Chapter III to event-involved individuals, these were not as enduring from the perspective of other residents. However, tangible outcomes remained important to residents, regardless of their involvement with the event itself. Thus, tangible, and specifically infrastructure outcomes, seem of particular importance to most residents from a long-term perspective.

The demonstrated importance of infrastructure in the event contexts studied here, and the way that the new infrastructure developments for each city in question have remained in use and positive aspects of the community in the years following the games raises interesting points regarding leveraging versus legacy. From the results presented here, it seems as though the Canada Games allow for community-focused development, as opposed to event-led development (Smith, 2012). This may create a better environment for infrastructure-related leveraging. While cities may not only seek the Canada Games to help contribute to building a facility that the community needs, but it also seems that when a facility is built for the Games, it is at least in part aligned with the city's broader goals and plans. It is important to note, however, that this does not necessarily mean that all residents feel as though the facility development is warranted or an ideal use of resources.

These findings point to how municipalities and event providers of non-mega sport events may have an easier time leveraging events for tangible outcomes such as infrastructure, than for

intangible outcomes such as social impact experiences. This is suggested by the finding in Chapter III that non-sport involved individuals did not speak as readily to intangible outcomes of the events, while most participants were able to point to tangible outcomes of their respective event. This suggests that similar to mega sport events (e.g., Gibson et al., 2014; Rocha, 2020; Taks & Rocha, 2022), the pursuit of intangible outcomes for long-term impact of non-mega sport events remains elusive, at least for the general public. However, in other event contexts, such as Olympic and Paralympic Games, infrastructure development is costly and seldom sustainable for the host community. Thus, when considering how to best serve the host community, the types of outcomes that event providers should focus on depend on the type of event and the resource capacity of the host city.

The relative success of infrastructure development in the context of the Canada Games compared to what has been observed in various mega sport event contexts provides some preliminary empirical support for Agha and Taks' (2015) event resource demand/city resource supply framework. The results regarding infrastructure are one example of how both cities seemed well-equipped to host their respective Canada Games. Although from some perspectives the Games diverted resources from other aspects of the community, neither in Red Deer nor Halifax's case did the Games seem to over-extend the host municipality or region. While a detailed empirical analysis of resources within the host city would be required to truly test Agha and Taks' (2015) theoretical position, findings in this dissertation do begin to demonstrate its validity. The Canada Games do seem to be designed in a way that limits unnecessary and overspending, and in a way that is at least in part aligned with city goals.

Contribution to Theory

In its use of agency theory in the context of publicly funded sport events, this dissertation has advanced how sport event researchers may conceptualize residents and the local government in the future. This approach provides a clear way to centre host residents within an event context and move beyond attempting to gain resident support solely to host a successful event. This project has demonstrated that agency theory is applicable and useful in the sport event space and has extended other scholars' ideas for how to conceptualize event actors as principals and agents (Geeraert, 2017; Geeraert & Drieskens, 2015; Mason et al., 2006; Solberg, 2018). Further, investigating trust, knowledge, and power as factors in the enduring relationship between the public and government as I have done in this dissertation is a novel contribution to sport event research.

Further, applying agency theory in this way could have broader implications outside of sport (event) management research. This project has extended the use of agency theory further into the public administration space, which has suggested principal-agent relationships between elected officials and constituents (Kiser, 1999), and elected officials and public servants (Kiser, 1999; Worsham et al., 1997) in the past. The use of agency theory here has demonstrated how the local government may interact with other service providers or third-party organizations, such as event organizing committees, while still maintaining their role as agent towards the public. Although published in sport-specific and event-specific journals, the use of agency theory in this way adds to political science and sociological research that has suggested and advocated for the advancement of agency theory outside of its traditional economic roots (Shapiro, 2005).

Finally, operationalizing concepts of knowledge, power, and trust from an agency theoretical perspective has helped to advance the empirical application of the theory, which has

been lacking elsewhere (Waterman & Meier, 1998). Chapter IV advanced the empirical application of agency theory by investigating how event experiences, knowledge, and power influence political trust and event support. First, I found that event experiences did not significantly predict political trust, which opposes existing research in tourism development (see Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2012; Nunkoo & Smith, 2013). I also found that residents' knowledge in the event context positively predicts political trust, while power negatively influences trust. In the case of knowledge, this aligns with existing work (Nunkoo, 2015), while this result with regard to power was inconsistent with other research (Nunkoo, 2015; Nunkoo et al., 2018). These conclusions thus offer valuable insight into how the public/government relationship, and other principal-agent relationships, may be evaluated in the future.

Contribution to Literature

This dissertation predominantly contributes to, and advances, sport event research and event management research more broadly. First, through this project I endeavoured to address knowledge and evidence gaps in (1) the long-term outcomes of sport events, and (2) non-mega sport events, which have been addressed theoretically in past research (Taks, 2013, 2016) . Previous research has called for such investigation, however, there is limited empirical work investigating the long-term impacts of sport events beyond two years post-event (for exceptions see Aizawa et al., 2018; Chalip et al., 2017), or the impacts of non-mega sport events in this way. In addressing these gaps and investigating non-mega sport events from a long-term perspective, this project has uncovered methodological considerations that may not exist in other contexts. Such methodological considerations are pertinent to discuss here given the calls for future research in these areas from other scholars in the sport event management space.

Methodological Considerations

First, conducting long-term event outcome research could, in some instances, result in less rich data, or fewer opportunities for data collection. For instance, recruitment for the Halifax portion of this study (11 years post event) was particularly challenging. For the event provider interviews, the average length of interview was shorter than that of Red Deer (three years post event), and it was difficult tracking down potential participants in Halifax due to role changes, changes to contact information, and general interest in participating. This is likely due to the 10-year timeframe post-event that event provider interviews took place.

Second, when recruiting survey and focus group participants, finding individuals who were aware of the Halifax Games occurring in 2011 was challenging, limiting the potential pool of participants. To that end, those who did participate were likely either involved in sport in some manner, or otherwise heavily involved in their communities. While these are valued perspectives, the chances of recruiting non-sport involved individuals seemed low given the long-term post-event timeframe. Similar challenges existed in recruiting resident participants for Red Deer, though not to the same extent as in the Halifax context.

Another, though less likely, explanation for recruitment challenges in this study could be the size of the cities; both cities Halifax (439, 819 inhabitants) and Red Deer (104, 392 inhabitants) are considered medium-sized cities in Canada (Government of Canada, 2009). While challenging, these methodological considerations offer useful insight into non-mega sport event research. Given the lower resource demands of non-mega sport events, smaller cities have more opportunity to host (Agha & Taks, 2015). Consequently, non-mega sport event research will have smaller populations to draw from. This was particularly evident in this study when recruiting participants for focus groups and survey data collection. Recruitment took

significantly longer than anticipated and required various modes of recruitment to meet minimum numbers. For example, focus group participant recruitment was initially planned for two months, however, ended up taking four months. Given the challenge recruiting focus groups participants, I employed additional recruitment strategies that were not initially planned (i.e., reaching out to community groups). Similar challenges arose when recruiting survey participants. Paid panel data (Survey Monkey Audience responses) did not meet anticipated recruitment numbers given the small pool of participants available in conjunction with the relatively niche research topic and screening question. The survey was pushed out to Survey Monkey Audience panel members twice before I chose to stop recruitment for timing purposes.

Had this project not been constrained to the timeframe of a doctoral degree, or if funding had been available for additional data collection, in-person recruitment, or other tactics, these challenges could have been mitigated. Non-mega sport event research elsewhere has not necessarily been plagued with small sample sizes. For example, Taks and colleagues (2016) were able to collect over 600 responses (321 usable responses) to a survey in the context of two non-mega sport events, held in Windsor, Ontario with a population of around 233,000. Nonetheless, my dissertation project provides valuable insight into some of the methodological challenges that may exist when conducting both long-term and non-mega sport event research.

Contribution to Practice

Outcomes from this study provide important practical implications for local government (politicians and public servants) and event managers. The relationship between residents' engagement in, and knowledge of, public activities, in this case a sport event, can ultimately impact their feelings of trust towards their local government, which could influence their voting intentions in future elections and therefore politicians' likelihood of becoming re-elected.

Although not measured specifically in this study, elsewhere scholars have pointed to a connection between political trust and voting behaviour (Grönlund & Setälä, 2007; Wang, 2016). Thus, government officials and staff have an incentive to include residents in decision making, or at least informing them of public processes whenever possible, including event hosting. Further, results from this study have demonstrated the importance of working towards positive event experiences and have solidified the importance of community infrastructure development for long-term event support.

Finally, the findings here, particularly those in Chapter III, have clearly outlined the tensions that may exist in communities between resident groups, specifically those involved in sport and those involved in other activities in the community (e.g., arts). While sport events have the opportunity to help communities work towards non-sport outcomes, for example by developing multi-purpose spaces in a community, these findings support the need for multi-sector event portfolios (see Clark & Misener, 2015; Ziakas & Costa, 2011), and for ensuring residents with various interests are involved in community decision making. Therefore, the project has implications outside of the sport (event) space as well and could inform future research in sport but other public projects and initiatives as well, such as arts and culture festivals, concerts, and more.

Delimitations and Limitations

Both delimitations (boundaries set by the researcher) and limitations (constraints and shortcomings of the study) are worth describing here (Simon, 2010).

Delimitations

Delimitations of the project include that data were collected at one timepoint instead of longitudinally. Longitudinal data collection was not possible given the timing of the project and

the COVID-19 pandemic halting event hosting. Thus, a suggestion for future research involves pre, during, and post-event data collection, and is discussed further below.

Further, study participants were recruited if they lived in the areas of interest and were aware of their respective event. Ideally for quantitative data collection, I would have used additional recruitment criteria to focus on individuals who lived in the host city during *and* since the event in question. However, given recruiting challenges during the focus group phase of data collection, it was not feasible to further limit eligibility criteria.

The project was also delimited by my language requirements. Although the cities of study in this project are both predominantly English speaking, the Canada Games requires a quota of francophone volunteers and board members given its national significance. I was only able to collect data in English, which could have limited the reach of participant recruitment.

Finally, this project was delimited by the research context itself. As described in the research context section in Chapter I, the Canada Games were at least in part, a government-driven initiative to improve national unity and sport and athlete development in Canada. As such, the Games continue to be embedded in each level of government. Thus, the Canada Games may be unlike other event contexts. The results of this dissertation project are therefore not meant to be generalizable, but rather can be learnt from and built off to apply to other publicly funded event contexts.

Limitations

Limitations of this study primarily involved the small sample size, which resulted from challenges in recruiting participants. An additional limitation regarding recruitment and participant demographics is that the study included a limited number of non-sport involved individuals. At the outset of the project, I planned to conduct more focus groups, each consisting

of at least five to eight participants. However, this was not possible within the confines of the study's timeline and the lack of travel available due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Similar challenges arose when recruiting participants for the quantitative phase of the study. I had initially sought at least 250 respondents from each city; however, this was ultimately unrealistic. These limitations could, at least in part, be explained by methodological challenges that exist in conducting long-term, non-mega sport event research, as well as city size as discussed above.

Future Research Directions

Future research building off this dissertation could take many different forms and avenues. Therefore, extending from the aforementioned discussion, implications, and limitations, I suggest three avenues of future research focused on advancing long-term and non-mega sport event research, further exploring the use of agency theory in the sport event context, and informing public engagement for sustainable sport event outcomes.

Advancing Long-Term and Non-Mega Sport Event Research

Although Red Deer and Halifax are medium-sized Canadian cities, their population paired with the long-term timeframe of this study likely caused recruitment and therefore sample size challenges. These methodological considerations are of particular importance given the calls for increased sport event research in smaller sport event contexts (e.g., Kerwin et al., 2015; Taks, 2013, 2016), which may be held in smaller city centres, and calls for more long-term event outcome research. Therefore, future research can advance understanding of long-term and non-mega sport events by employing longitudinal research methods and can address recruitment challenges in smaller areas by engaging in community-based work.

Long-term post-event data collection like that done in the study at hand certainly provides valuable insight into how outcomes may remain following a sport event; however, to learn more about how resident perspectives and resident relationships with event providers change over time, a longitudinal approach is necessary. Thus, future research should engage in a longitudinal research approach to collect data before, during, and more than two years post-event to continue building knowledge regarding how events impact the communities within which they are hosted. Longitudinal research could help to mitigate recruitment challenges and recall bias as well if participants are recruited pre-event and the researcher maintains contact over time. While drop-out of longitudinal studies is unavoidable, taking this approach would at the least ensure that individuals participating in the project more than two years following an event were residents during the event itself. Based on my experience conducting research two- and ten-years post-event for my doctoral research, I suggest that perhaps the ideal timeframe from which to conduct long-term post-event research may be five- or seven-years post-event. This timeframe would allow researchers to maintain a long-term perspective while potentially mitigating recruitment challenges that I experienced with the 10-year timeframe in particular.

Community-based, or participatory, research approaches (e.g., Frisby et al., 2005; Rich & Misener, 2017) can be applied in the future to further explore the impacts and outcomes of non-mega sport events, the lived experiences of residents, and could help to mitigate recruitment challenges in smaller urban, and rural settings. Community-based research approaches do involve more relationship building in the community of interest; however, could offer an insider perspective into a sport event context and could provide the researcher with more access to possible participants.

Addressing Gaps in Agency Theory Use: Opportunism and Monitoring

While the study at hand advanced the use of agency theory in sport event research, two features of agency theory and the principal-agent relationship should be explored further in future research. These features are agent opportunism and monitoring. As described earlier in this dissertation, opportunism is when the agent takes advantage of their role and knowledge of the relationship's context and acts in their own interest instead of that of their principal (Kiser, 1999; Mitnick, 1973; Shapiro, 2005). Each of the papers included in this dissertation mention and discuss opportunism; however, did not fully measure the extent to which the agents in the sport event contexts engaged in opportunism, if at all.

Findings here, paired with theoretical work regarding non-mega sport events suggest that opportunism in a non-mega sport event context may be less likely than in the mega sport event context. Future research could investigate opportunism in more detail in sport event contexts to address this gap and further inform how resident needs are, or are not met, in hosting events. One way to investigate opportunism in future work would be to engage in an ethnographic or autoethnographic project (e.g., Hoerber & Kerwin, 2013; Lachance & Parent, 2020) investigating decision making in the host city government and/or event organizing committee, depending on the principal-agent relationship of interest. An ethnographic approach would allow for the researcher to be embedded within the research context and experience decision making processes firsthand instead of interpreting event-related decisions second hand (Sparkes, 2015). In doing so, the researcher would be able to uncover moments when event providers are tasked with deciding, for example, how to allocate resources to certain projects, how the government will help fund event-related projects, and the discussions that surround the allocation of often scarce community resources.

The second factor of agency theory that could be investigated in future research is monitoring. Monitoring is typically associated with economic roots of agency theory and refers to how the principal monitors the actions of their agent (Mason et al., 2006). Monitoring has a role to play in the political sphere, where the public/government relationship is investigated through an agency theoretical lens. In this context, the principal (the public) can monitor their agent (the government) through their voting behaviours in either general elections or referenda and could attempt to influence event related decision making through participating in public engagement opportunities or organizing grassroots movements. Research to date has not yet investigated how the public monitors their government when it comes to sport event related decisions, at least from an agency theoretical perspective.

Results in Chapters III and IV demonstrated that indeed event experiences and involvement do influence individuals' trust in their local government and their support of events. However, the question remains whether this impacts their voting decisions or other community-related behaviours. Thus, researchers could conduct studies in the future to determine whether there is a connection between the relationships presented here and voting intentions in post-event elections. Work like Kellison and Mills' (2020) study on voter intentions following a no-vote stadium subsidy could act as a framework upon which future studies investigating how event experiences influence resident's political behaviours could be modeled. Researchers could also complete media discourse analyses (e.g., Anderson & Taks, 2018; Sant & Mason, 2015) alongside election result analyses to investigate whether politicians involved in event bidding or hosting are re-elected post-event, and whether the media narratives surrounding those events and actors align with such outcomes. Pursuing such work would interrogate the role of media discourse as proposed in Figure 5.1. In doing so, sociopolitical discourse surrounding events, and

the ways that residents hold their elected officials accountable in relation to a sport event can be better understood.

Investigating Public Engagement Strategies for Sustainable Sport Event Outcomes

The results of this dissertation have further corroborated the need for residents to be informed and given engagement opportunities in sport event hosting (Misener & Mason, 2006). From these findings, I have suggested that event providers work on including residents in event-related decisions in their communities. However, this project has not investigated how this could happen in practice. Thus, future research should investigate first, how municipalities may currently be engaging their residents in public decision making, and second, what tactics may be best suited for sport event related consultation (Mayers et al., 2021). As previously discussed, referenda are one way that residents may be engaged in decision making, particularly in the mega sport event context (Maennig, 2017; Streicher et al., 2019). However, scholars have pointed to a number of issues related to referenda, such as how low voter turnout can influence the outcome (Streicher et al., 2019). Further, referenda are not typically employed in the context of non-mega sport events. Thus, future work should consult broader public engagement literature outside of sport to determine best practices for use in relation to publicly funded sport events of various types.

Other work has called for improved citizen engagement as well (Misener & Mason, 2010, 2006), while some scholars have demonstrated the need to inform residents (Taks et al., 2016). For instance, some research in the non-mega sport event space has demonstrated the importance of informing citizens about events that are occurring in their community to maximize the potential for positive outcomes (Taks et al., 2016). Despite these findings and suggestions in this project and elsewhere, few sport-related studies to date have examined how public

engagement is occurring in municipalities and whether existing practices are effective. Future research and collaboration between researchers and sport event providers (government, event managers) could address this gap and further support practical evaluation of how residents are informed of, and engaged in, public decision-making processes and event outcomes.

Conclusion

The purpose of this dissertation was to investigate the long-term outcomes of publicly funded, non-mega sport events, and to examine the role of trust, knowledge, and power in the public/government relationship and event support in relation to these outcomes. To achieve this purpose, I presented three manuscripts. The first outlined a theoretical approach to understanding the public/government relationship using agency theory. The second manuscript drew on qualitative data to understand how perspectives on event objectives and outcomes corresponded between two main groups: host residents and event providers. Finally, the third manuscript presented quantitative results which demonstrated that residents' knowledge of, and power in, an event context predicted their trust in local government, and that event experiences predicted resident event support.

The findings from this dissertation suggest that a sociological perspective of agency theory is useful to better understand how event hosting impacts the city within which it is hosted. Specifically, three main takeaways summarize the overall study. First, event actors can serve as both principals and agents within the publicly funded sport event context. This provides useful insight into the network of relationships within event hosting and could help explain why resident needs may not always be at the forefront of decision making. Second, resident knowledge of event-related decision making and programs are integral in fostering trust between the public/government. This finding has important implications for resident engagement in the

event hosting process; however, it may indicate how trust can be built in other principal-agent relationships as well. Finally, the salience of event experiences (positive, negative, and infrastructure) seems to be maintained even from a long-term post-event perspective. However, differences are apparent between event involved and non-involved residents. Notably, both intangible (positive and negative event experiences) and tangible (infrastructure) event outcomes remain relevant for event-involved residents; but tangible (infrastructure) event outcomes from non-mega sport events are relevant for many residents regardless of their event involvement. Thus, ensuring sustainable and community-focused infrastructure development, which is a priority of the Canada Games, should remain the focus of future non-mega sport event hosting.

This dissertation has contributed to the (sport) event management literature by beginning to fill empirical gaps in long-term and non-mega sport event research. Further, theoretically, this project has advanced the use of agency theory in the sport event space and has thus provided a renewed perspective on the dynamics between host city residents and their government in this context. Given residents' role as taxpayer, the responsibility of the local government to work on behalf of their residents, and the promises that are often entangled in sport event hosting, this project has provided a strong base upon which to continue investigating the public/government relationship in the context of publicly funded sport events moving forward.

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Appendix A

Table of Documents Collected

City	Author/Organization	Document Title	Publication or Access Date
Halifax	Canada Games Council	Halifax Overview on CGC site	2011
	Government of Canada	Governments celebrate completion of the Canada Games Centre	2011
	Bid Society	2011 Canada Winter Games Bid book	2006
	Host Society	Final Corporate Report, Halifax 2011 Canada Games	2011-2012
	Host Society	Halifax Winter Games Business Plan	NA
	Host Society	Halifax 2011 Legacy Plan Document	NA
	Host Society	Vision Presentation	NA
	Host Society	Second Quarter Update, 2010	2010
	Host Society	94 Days to Game Time, presentation to HRM November 2010	2010
	Host Society	First Quarter Update, 2009	2009
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	2011 Canada Winter Games Bid Report October 2006	2006
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	2011 Canada Winter Games Appointment of City staff to Host Society	2007
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	2011 Canada Winter Games Bid Report January 2007	2007
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	2011 Canada Winter Games Bid Phase II	2005
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	2011 CWG Bid Proposal January 25 2005	2005
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	2011 CWG Bid Phase 3 May 2005	2005
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	2011 CWG Bid Report November 2006	2006
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	2011 CWG Budget December 2006	2006
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	2011 CWG Budget January 2007	2007
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	Contribution to CG Legacy Fund	2010
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	2011 CWG Multi-Part Agreement	2008
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	Funding Request - CWG	2009
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Council Documents)	Outdoor Refrigerated Ice Skating Rinks	2009
	Halifax Regional Municipality (Games)	Council Approves Budget for 2011 Canada Winter Games	2006

Halifax Regional Municipality (Games)	Local councillors delighted with today's funding announcement for mainland common centre	2008
Halifax Regional Municipality (Games)	2011 Canada Games: Games Generate Largest Economic Impact for Canada Games	2011
Halifax Regional Municipality (Games)	Canada Games Centre Announces Board of Directors	2011
Halifax Regional Municipality (Games)	Mural by local artists to capture 2011 Games legacy	2011
Halifax Regional Municipality (General)	Special Events Task Force Guide to planning events	2020
Halifax Regional Municipality (General)	Administrative Order for SETF	2014
CBC	Halifax council approves permanent skating oval	2011
CTV News Atlantic	Support4Sport program keeps Canada Games legacy alive	2013
Dal News	Building a Legacy	2011
Canada Games Centre	Canada Games Centre Annual Report	2011-2012
Canada Games Centre	Canada Games Centre Annual Report	2012-13
Canada Games Centre	Canada Games Centre Annual Report	2013-14
Canada Games Centre	Canada Games Centre Annual Report	2014-15
Canada Games Centre	Canada Games Centre Annual Report	2015-16
Canada Games Centre	Canada Games Centre Annual Report	2016-17
Canada Games Centre	Canada Games Centre Annual Report	2017-18
Canada Games Centre	Canada Games Centre Annual Report	2018-19
Canada Games Centre	Canada Games Centre Annual Report	2019-20
Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance	2011 Canada Winter Games Economic Impact Assessment	2011
Canada Games Centre	About the Canada Games Centre	Accessed Jan. 20, 2021
Government of Nova Scotia	Halifax named host of 2011 Canada Winter Games	2007
Government of Nova Scotia	Governments support Halifax Mainland Common Centre for Canada Games	2008
Government of Nova Scotia	Halifax 2011 Canada Games Host Society Announces Chair and Board of Directors	2008
Government of Nova Scotia	Province increases investment for athletes for 2011 Canada Games	2008
Government of Nova Scotia	Flashing back to 1969 for 40th Anniversary of Games	2009
Government of Nova Scotia	Venues announced for Games	2009
Government of Nova Scotia	Changes to School Calendar Support Canada Winter Games	2009
Government of Nova Scotia	Games will wrap up in true Nova Scotia style	2011

	Government of Nova Scotia	Governments celebrate completion of Canada Games Centre	2011
	Government of Nova Scotia	Premier congratulates Team Nova Scotia on great performance	2011
	Government of Nova Scotia	Major Events Hosting/Support Policy	2005
Red Deer	Canada Games Council	2019 Canada Winter Games Host Community Update	2016
	Canada Games Council	Delivering a Life-shaping Games Experience	2019
	Canada Games Council	2019 CWG Legacy Fund Society Announce Financial Legacy and Launch Application Process	2021
	Bid Society	2019 Canada Winter Games Bid Book	NA
	Host Society	2019 Canada Winter Games Business Plan	NA
	Host Society	2019 Canada Winter Games Final Report	2019
	Host Society	2019 Canada winter Games Legacy Plan	NA
	Host Society	2019 Legacy Video	2019
	City of red Deer (Council Documents)	Meeting Agenda, CWG Budget p. 24-27	2014
	City of red Deer (Council Documents)	Meeting Agenda, CWG Bid p. 80-96	2014
	City of red Deer (Council Documents)	Meeting Agenda, CWG Budget Adjustment	2014
	City of red Deer (Council Documents)	Meeting Agenda, CWG Operating Expenditure Bylaw	2015
	City of red Deer (Council Documents)	Meeting Agenda, CWG Request for Parade Float Budget	2016
	City of red Deer (Council Documents)	Meeting Agenda, 2016 Financial Report	2017
	City of Red Deer (Games)	2019 Canada Winter Games final Report	2019
	City of Red Deer (Games)	Celebration Plaza Presentation by Host Society	2017
	City of Red Deer (Games)	Council Event Goals - Themed	NA
	City of Red Deer (Games)	Integrated Planning Report: CWG host Society and City of RD	NA
	City of Red Deer (General)	2019 Citizen Satisfaction Survey - Results	2019
	City of Red Deer (General)	Meeting Agenda, Bid Committee for city projects	2019
	City of Red Deer (General)	2014 Annual Report	2014
	City of Red Deer (General)	Community Amenities Consultation Report	2014
	City of Red Deer (General)	2015 Annual Report	2015
	City of Red Deer (General)	2016 Annual Report	2016
	City of Red Deer (General)	2017 annual Report	2017
	City of Red Deer (General)	2019 Annual Financial Report	2019

City of Red Deer (General)	Major Events Strategy	2021
Red Deer News Now	2019 Canada Winter Games leave long-lasting impact, organizers say	2019
Lacombe Online	Community still riding the wave of Canada Winter Games	2019
Global News	Organizers confident Canada Winter Games legacy will live on in Alberta	2019
Lacombe Online	The legacy of the Canada Winter Games lives on in Central Alberta	2020
Red Deer Advocate	Winter Games legacy celebrated one year later	2020
Global News	Red Deer Excited as Canada Winter Games begin	2019
Red Deer News Now	Applications open for 2019 CWG Legacy Fund	2021
NewsWire	The City of Red Deer Named Host of the 2019 Canada Winter Games	2014
Red Deer College	2019 Canada Winter Games at Red Deer College	2020
Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance	Red Deer 2019 Economic Impact Analysis	2019
Red Deer College	Effectiveness of the 2019 Canada Winter Games: An External Review	2019
Alberta Sport Connection, Government of Alberta	Alberta Sport Connection Business Plan 2017-2020	2017
Alberta Sport Connection	Alberta Sport Connection 2018-2019 Annual Report	2019
Government of Alberta	Active Alberta Policy (2011-2021)	2011
Government of Alberta	Going the Distance: The Alberta Sport Plan	2014
Alberta Sport Connection, Government of Alberta	2019-2029 Alberta Sport Action Plan	2019
Government of Alberta (Alberta Culture and Tourism)	Community Initiatives Program, Major Cultural and Sport Events	2016

Appendix B

Semi-Structured Interview Guide

[EVENT] refers to either the 2011 or 2019 Canada Winter Games

Part 1

1. Can you please begin by explaining your role with the [EVENT]/municipality/etc.?
2. What, in your own words, were the objectives of the [EVENT]?
 - In general?
 - Specifically related to outcomes for the host community? (Community-focused event objectives)
3. How were these community-focused event objectives determined?
4. Did you have a role in obtaining these community-focused event objectives?
 - a. If so, how did you work towards these objectives?
 - i. What strategies were employed to meet objectives?
 - b. Can you explain initiatives or projects that related to these objectives?
5. How were other stakeholders in the region involved in the conceptualization and planning of community-focused event objectives?
6. How were other stakeholders involved in meeting these objectives?

Part 2

1. How do you feel about the event now that it has passed?
2. How did your role in relation to the event evolve over time?
3. What is the status of the community-focused event objectives following the event?
 - a. What do you think the event outcomes are now?
4. What is the status of the projects and initiatives that are related to these objectives?

5. In your opinion, to what extent were initial event objectives met?
 - a. Can you elaborate on why/why not?

Appendix C

Focus Group Guide

[EVENT] refers to either the 2011 or 2019 Canada Winter Games

Part 1

1. Can you each tell me about yourself?
 - a. How were/are you involved in sport in your community?
2. What do you remember about the [EVENT]?
 - a. How, if at all, were you involved in the [EVENT]?
 - b. Did you feel as though you had the opportunity to be involved?
 - i. In what ways?
3. What was your experience with the [EVENT]?
4. How do you feel the Games impacted your community?
 - a. Positively? Negatively?
5. What, in your opinion, were the outcomes of the Games?

Part 2

In a previous phase of this project, the researcher determined a number of objectives the local government and the Canada Winter Games were working towards in the host community. These include (researcher reads out the objectives as determined in earlier phase). These are also listed on the sheet in front of you.

1. To what extent were you aware of these objectives?
2. To what extent do you feel these were met?
 - a. How do these align with what you feel your community needs or needed?

Wrap-Up

Do you have any additional thoughts or comments regarding the [EVENT]?

Do you have any questions for myself regarding the project?

Appendix D

Table of Community Groups Contacted for Recruitment Purposes

	Group	Response
Halifax		
Businesses/Business Associations	Coffee Matters	None
	DalPlex	Yes
	Grounded Coffee Bar	None
	Halifax Forum	Yes
	Narrow Espresso	None
	North End Business Association	None
	Seven Bays Bouldering	None
	Spring Garden Area Business Association	Yes
	The Daily Grind Café and Bar	None
	Charity/Volunteer Groups	Kin Club of Halifax
Rotary club of Halifax		None
Take Action Society		None
Community Association/Neighborhood Groups	Friends of Halifax Common	Yes
	Park to Park Halifax	None
Community Centres/Public Spaces	Halifax Public Libraries	Yes
	Halifax YMCA	None
	Beaver Bank Kinsac Senior Association	None
Community Gardens	Birdland Community Garden	Other
	BLT Community Garden Project	Other
	Dartmouth Commons Community Gardens and Park Avenue Community Oven	None
	Devonshire Garden	None
	Gaston Road Community Garden Association	None
	Goodness Grows! Findlay Community Garden	Yes
	ISANS Community Garden	None
	Lake Echo Community Garden	Other
	Landrace Community Garden	No
	Le Jardin Community Garden	Other
	North End Community Garden	Yes
	Peninsula Urban Gardens Society	None
	Prospect Road Community Gardens	Other
Rope Works Community Garden	None	

Cultural/Heritage Groups	Canadian Lebanon Society of Halifax	None
	Cultural Federations of Nova Scotia	Yes
	Italian Canadian Cultural Association Of Nova Scotia	None
	Royal Nova Scotia Historical Society	Yes
	The Scots	None
	The Waegwoltic Club	No
Halifax Community Developers*	Halifax West to Hubbards	None
	Cole Harbour to Eastern Shore	None
	Halifax Peninsula	None
	Dartmouth and Eastern Passage	No
	Fall River, Sackville, Bedford, Musquodoboit	None
	Youth specific community development and engagement	None
Hobbies/Activities	Armdale Yacht Club	Yes
	CFB Halifax Curling Club	None
	Halifax Curling club	None
	Halifax Dance	None
	Halifax Toastmasters	Yes
	House of Eights Dance Studio	None
	Royal Nova Scotia Yacht Squadron	None
Religious Groups	First Congregational Church of Halifax	No
	Full Gospel Church Halifax	No
	Halifax Christian Church	No
	Shambhala Halifax	No
	The Atlantic Jewish Council	None
	The Grove Neighborhood Church	Yes
	Ummah Mosque and Community Centre	None
Trail Associations	Atlantic View Trail Association	None
	BLT Rails to Trails	Other
	Friends of First Lake Society	None
	Halifax Northwest Trails Association	None
	Halifax urban Greenway	None
	Musquodoboit Trailways Association	None
	Sackville Lakes Park and Trails Association	None
Sackville Rivers Association	None	
Other	Ecology Action Centre	No
	Halifax Noise	None

Red Deer

Businesses/Business Associations	City Roast Coffee	None
	Dose Coffee	Other
	Red Deer Leads Executive Association	None
	Downtown Red Deer business Association	No
Charity/Volunteer Groups	Kiwanis Club of Red Deer	None
	100 Women Who Care Red Deer	None
	Red Deer and District Community Foundation	None
	Red Deer Kinsmen Club	None
	Red Deer Lions Club	Yes
	Rotary Club of Red Deer	None
Community Association/Neighborhood Group	Bower Place Community Association	Yes
	Clearview Meadows Community Association	None
	Clearview Ridge Neighborhood Association	None
	Eastview Estates Community Association	Yes
	Grandview Gardens Community Association	None
	Michener Hill Community Association	Yes
	Morrisroe West Community Association	None
	Mountview/Sunnybrook Community Association	Yes
	Oriole Park Community Association	Yes
	Parkvale Community Association	Yes
	Red Deer construction Association	None
	Riverside Meadows Community Association	None
	Rosedale Community Association	Yes
	Waskasoo Community Association	None
	West Park Community Association	None
Woodlea Community Association	None	
Community Centres/Public Spaces	Golden Circle Senior Resource Centre	Other
	Northside community Centre (YMCA)	None
	Red Deer Arts Council	Yes
	Red Deer Public library	Yes
Cultural and Heritage Groups	German Canadian Club of Red Deer	Yes
	Red Deer Cultural Heritage Society	Yes
Hobbies/Activities	Kitowin Toastmasters Club	None
	Red Deer BMX	None
	Red Deer Bridge Club	None
	Red Deer Garden Club	None

	Red Deer Golf and Country Club	Yes
	Red Deer Pickle Ball	None
	Red Deer Square Dance Club	None
	Red Deer Tennis club	None
Religious Groups	HomeChurch Red Deer	None
	Sunnybrook United Church	None
Other	Student's Association of Red Deer College	None
	Red Deer Queer Community Association	Yes

**Note:* Halifax has individuals, called “community developers” assigned to various areas and portfolios within the city

Appendix E

Host Community Resident Questionnaire - Halifax

Landing Page:

LETTER OF INFORMATION AND CONSENT

Please confirm you have read and agree with the above letter of information and consent form

_____ 1. Yes

_____ 2. No

If yes → Proceed directly to Sample Selection Questions

If no → Exit Survey/Go directly to **End of questionnaire – Thank you for participating!**

Sample Selection Questions:

Q.i Are you aware that the 2011 Canada Winter Games were held in Halifax, Nova Scotia?

_____ 1. Yes

_____ 2. No

If no → Exit Survey/Go directly to **End of questionnaire – Thank you for participating!**

Q.ii What is your age (in years):

- drop down menu

If < 18 → Exit Survey/Go directly to **End of questionnaire – Thank you for participating!**

Section 1: Sport and Event Involvement

Q1.a How many hours per week on average do you spend on sport and physical activity in your busiest season?

- Drop down menu (less than 1, all the way to 100)

Q1.b How important is it to YOU that Halifax hosted the 2011 Canada Winter Games?

→ Not important 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very important

Q1.c Rate your personal feelings about the *2011 Canada Winter Games* on each of the following dimensions. Mark your ratings by dragging the cursor closest to the way you feel. For example, if you felt like the Games were very exciting, drag the cursor to number 7 on the first dimension. If you think the Games were also uninteresting, drag the cursor to number 1 on the second dimension.

1-Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Exciting
2-Uninteresting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
3-Worthless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Valuable
4-Unappealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Appealing
5-Useless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Useful
6-Not needed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Needed
7-Irrelevant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Relevant
8-Unimportant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Important

Section 2: Trust, Power, and Knowledge

Q2.a Indicate your general level of trust:

DO NOT TRUST AT ALL			TRUST COMPLETELY		
1	2	3	4	5	

1. Trust in your local municipality
2. Trust in the regional municipality of Halifax
3. Trust in the government of Nova Scotia
4. Trust in local government elected officials to make the right decisions regarding sport events
5. Trust in local government to do what is right regarding sport events
6. Trust in local government to look after the interest of the community in sport event development
7. Trust in an organizing committee to make the right decisions in the development of a sport event
8. Trust in an organizing committee to do what is right in the development of a sport event without me having to constantly check on them
9. Trust in an organizing committee to look after the interests of the community in the development of a sport event

Q2.b Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements:

STRONGLY DISAGREE	STRONGLY AGREE
-------------------	----------------

1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---

1. I had/have the opportunity to participate in sport event planning and development
2. I had/have personal influence in sport event planning and development
3. I have discussed sport event planning and development with others in my community
4. I know about sport event development in my community
5. I know the possible impacts of sport events on my community
6. I understand the role of local government regarding sport events
7. I have knowledge about local government's sport event policies in general

Section 3: SPECIFIC QUESTIONS re: EVENT OUTCOMES AND EXPERIENCES

Q3. Rate your level of agreement with each of the following statements regarding the 2011 Canada Winter Games held in Halifax, NS (hereafter referred to as "the Games"):

STRONGLY DISAGREE					STRONGLY AGREE		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

1. I created new friendships/relationships in the community because of the Games
2. The Games made my community more beautiful
3. The Games were an unnecessary use of taxpayer dollars
4. The Games strengthened my relationships/friendships in the community
5. I felt a strong connection to others because of the Games
6. The Games increased my community spirit and pride
7. The Games made me feel good about myself and my community
8. My feelings of trust in the community are enhanced because of the Games
9. The Games damaged my community's natural environment
10. The Games brought me closer to others in my community through celebration
11. The Games increased crime in the city
12. The Games raised conflicts in allocation of social resources
13. The Games disturbed my daily life in terms of peace and tranquility
14. The Games made traffic congestion in my community worse
15. I have the opportunity to use the facilities that were built/updated for the Games
16. The Games improved infrastructure in my community

Section 4: Event Support

Q4. Rate your level of agreement with each statement

STRONGLY DISAGREE				STRONGLY AGREE	
1	2	3	4	5	

1. I am glad that we hosted the 2011 Canada Winter Games
2. I supported the City of Halifax hosting the 2011 Canada Winter Games

3. The idea of hosting the 2011 Canada Winter Games gave me pride
4. I would support the Halifax Regional Municipality hosting a similar event in the future

Section 5: Demographic Information

Q5.a For the purposes of this study, how would you like to be identified?

- Female
- Male
- Transgender
- Non-binary
- Two-spirit
- Genderqueer
- Other

Q5.b How would you describe your civil status?

- Single (e.g., unmarried, divorced, widowed, etc.), no children (or children older than 18 years)
- Single (e.g., unmarried, divorced, widowed, etc.), with children (younger than 18 years)
- With partner (e.g., married, common law, etc.), no children (or children older than 18 years)
- With partner (e.g., married, common law, etc.), with children (younger than 18 years)
- Other (please specify)

Q5.c How would you consider your ethnic background?

I identify my ethnicity as (check all that apply)

- Non-Indigenous
- Métis
- First Nations
- Inuit
- Arab
- Black
- Chinese
- Filipino
- Japanese
- Korean
- Latin American
- Middle Eastern
- South Asian
- Southeast Asian
- White
- Other

Q5.d What is your highest level of education earned?

- Some school, no degree
- High school graduate
- Some post-secondary, no degree
- College diploma
- Bachelor's degree
- Master's degree
- Professional degree (J.D., M.D., etc.)
- Doctorate degree

Q5.e What is your current primary employment status?

- Full-time
- Part-time
- Self-employed
- Unemployed
- Student
- Retired

Q5.f What is your total annual household income before tax?

- Less than \$20,000
- \$20,000-\$39,999
- \$40,000-\$59,999
- \$60,000-\$79,999
- \$80,000-\$99,999
- \$100,000-\$119,999
- \$120,000-\$139,999
- \$140,000-\$159,999
- \$160,000-\$179,999
- \$180,000-\$199,999
- More than \$200,000

Q5.g Please provide the first three digits of your postal code (e.g., A2A):

Section 6: Wrap-Up

Q6.a Please enter a unique, anonymous identifier in the following format; Birthdate (YYYYMMDD) + initials

ex. 19921228KB

Q6.b Please enter your contact information if you are willing to be contacted by the researchers to share more information about your experience with the 2011 Canada Winter Games.

Name: _____

Email address: _____

_____ Please do not contact me

Note. Your contact information and your questionnaire responses will not be associated to one another to ensure anonymity in questionnaire answers.

If no → Go directly to Q6.c

Q6.c Please enter your contact information if you would you like to be entered into a draw to win a prize.

Name: _____

Email address: _____

_____ I do not want to enter into the draw

Note. Your contact information and your questionnaire responses will not be associated to one another to ensure anonymity in questionnaire answers.

If no → Go directly to end of questionnaire

End of questionnaire – Thank you for participating!