

**Support for Major Sport Event Referendums:
A New Zealand bid for the Commonwealth Games**

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A thesis submitted to Auckland University of Technology in
fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)

2020

School of Sport and Recreation

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Abstract

In recent years, referendums have been used to inform decisions to bid on major sport events. Despite the belief that major sport event success is associated with host community support for the event, local residents are usually excluded from decisions, including whether to bid. Bidding decisions are often made by a small group of politicians, lack transparency and reflect global trends rather than local community wishes.

Decision-making related to major sport event bids is best understood in the context of the wider political climate and citizen engagement. Representative democracy is changing, insofar as citizens are increasingly demanding a greater role in decision-making. That role may take the form of a referendum, a process that enhances collective citizen decision-making and reduces political power. The extent to which citizens support and ultimately participate in a referendum is important for various community and government stakeholders.

Recognizing the value of referendums for estimating community engagement with a major sport event, this research explores the use of referendums to inform decisions to bid for major sport events. This research is underpinned by three studies. Study 1 investigates the determinants of resident support and participation in a major sport event referendum. Study 2 explores the determinants of resident support for hosting a major sport event. Study 3 attempts to understand stakeholder perspectives on using a referendum to inform a bid decision.

Whilst referendums have long been used as a means to engage citizens in political decision-making, little is known about support for such a process within a major sport event context. Therefore, this research drew upon theory and concepts from political science and psychology to explore support for such a process. This research provides evidence that constructs found to be connected to referendums and citizen engagement in decision-making

in these fields are also important within the context of major sport events. Taken collectively, the results of this research provide clear evidence of polarising opinions related to major sport event referendums. The majority of New Zealanders support and would likely participate in a referendum to bid for the Commonwealth Games, and yet those who might initiate the process are unanimously against it. The results have implications for prospective host cities, sport managers, policymakers, and ordinary citizens.

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CANDIDATE CONTRIBUTIONS TO CO-AUTHORED PAPERS

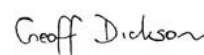
<p>Chapter 4</p> <p>Johnston, M., Naylor, M., Dickson, G., Hedlund, D., & Kellison, T. (under review). Determinants of support and participation in a major sport event referendum. <i>Sport Management Review</i>.</p>	<p>Johnston 80%</p> <p>Naylor 5%</p> <p>Dickson 5%</p> <p>Hedlund 5%</p> <p>Kellison 5%</p>
<p>Chapter 5</p> <p>Johnston, M., Naylor, M., & Dickson, G. (under review). Local resident support for hosting a major sport event: The role of perceived personal and community impacts, event status and sport involvement. <i>European Sport Management Quarterly</i>.</p>	<p>Johnston 80%</p> <p>Naylor 10%</p> <p>Dickson 10%</p>



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ATTESTATION OF AUTHORSHIP

“I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it contains no material previously published or written by another person (except where explicitly defined in the acknowledgements), nor material which to a substantial extent has been submitted for the award of any other degree or diploma of a university or other institution of higher learning”

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Melody Johnston', is centered on the page. The signature is written in a cursive, flowing style.

Melody Johnston

10th February 2020

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my primary supervisor, Dr. Michael Naylor. Your continuous support, motivation and belief in my abilities for both my PhD study and career in academia has been instrumental on this journey. Thank you for catching all my ‘Mel-isms’. Special thanks also goes to my secondary supervisor, Professor Geoff Dickson. Your big picture thinking and theorising have been a game-changer in this project. I always look forward to our meetings, and love the rapport we have built over the years. I could not have asked for a better supervisory team!

A very special thanks to my husband Chris for his unrelenting support, encouragement and patience. Thank you for seeing the value I placed on this journey, and all the sacrifices you made to help me achieve it. What a team! Here is to a lifetime of making each other’s dreams come a reality. Love you. Thank you to my kids, Blake and Harper, for being the most amazing balance needed. All that television watching while mummy studies has not seemed to be too detrimental to your development...

I would like to express my gratitude to my family, for their unconditional love and support. In particular, thank you to Mum, Jenny and Michelle. It would have been impossible to get to this point without your continual support through childcare. I appreciate the sacrifices you have made, and juggling done in order to look after the kids.

Finally, I would like to thank my study participants. In particular those that took the time to meet with me and be interviewed. Not only would this project not have been completed without you, but also, I thoroughly enjoyed speaking with you all.

ETHICAL APPROVAL

Ethical approval was granted for all three studies of this research project by Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC). Ethical approval was granted for Study 1 and Study 2 by AUTEC on 11th May 2017. The AUTEC reference for Study 1 and Study 2 to was:

- 17/127 Measuring support and the use of referenda for hosting a Commonwealth Games in New Zealand

Ethical approval was granted for Study 3 by AUTEC on 25th September 2017. The AUTEC reference for Study 3 was

- 17/331 Measuring support and the use of referenda for hosting a Commonwealth Games in New Zealand

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, referendums have increasingly been used to inform decisions to bid on major sport events, with the majority of results typically opposing of the bid. For example, the city of Sion (Switzerland) withdrew their bid for the 2026 Winter Olympics after 54% of residents voted against the bid in a referendum (Morgan, 2018). In the 2022 Winter Olympic bidding process, four potential host cities held referendums: Krakow, Poland; Oslo, Norway; St. Moritz, Switzerland; and Munich, Germany. In Krakow, St. Moritz and Munich, citizens indicated their lack of support for the bid through the referendum and the bids were removed as a result. Toward a similar end, while citizens living in Oslo voted to support the bid, politicians later overturned the vote and withdrew their bid (Zaccaradi, 2014). Whilst referendums have long been used as a means to engage citizens in political decision-making, little is known about support for such a process within a major sport event context.

This research explores the use of referendums to inform decisions to bid for major sport events. This research is underpinned by three studies. Study 1 investigates the determininants of resident support and participation in a major sport event referendum. Study 2 explores the determinants of resident support for hosting a major sport event. Study 3 attempts to understand stakeholder perspectives on using a referendum to inform a bid decision. This chapter outlines the rationale for the research, specifies the purpose of research, provides an overview of the thesis structure, and associated conference presentations, research awards and research publications.

1.1 Purpose of Research

The purpose of the research is to examine the use of referendums to inform decisions to bid on major sport events. Three studies were undertaken. The specific objectives of this project are to:

Study 1. Investigate the determinants of resident support and participation of referendums in the context of a major sport event.

Study 2. Investigate the determinants of resident support for hosting a major sport event.

Study 3. Investigate key decision-maker support for the use of referendums in the decision of whether to bid for a major sport event.

1.2 Overview of Key Concepts

1.2.1 Referendums

A referendum is a method of direct democracy by which people are asked to vote directly on an issue of policy (Badie, Berg-Schlosser & Morlino, 2011). A referendum differs from an election, which is where citizens vote to elect individuals who will make decisions on behalf of the people. Currently there is no legalisation in New Zealand that requires a referendum to be conducted to enable legislation changes or make particular political decisions. Under this model, referendums are only held on conscience or constitutional issues, initiated by Government, or under some circumstances can be initiated by citizens. Government initiated referendums can either be binding or non-binding (i.e. indicative only), and citizens-initiated referendums are exclusively non-binding (New Zealand Parliament, n.d.). For a citizens-initiated referendum to take place, a key requirement is that over 10% of eligible voter's nationwide support holding a referendum on the proposed question (New Zealand Parliament, n.d.).

1.2.2 Referendum Support and Participation

Referendum support is an important concept in this thesis and refers to a belief that the implementation of a voting process used to express citizens' opinions is appropriate (Anderson & Goodyear-Grant, 2010; Rose & Borz, 2013). Referendum support is closely associated with populism (Anderson & Goodyear-Grant, 2010). Populism is the premise “that ordinary citizens should come together to act politically in order to transcend artificial decisions created by greed, corruption, and elite dominance” (Anderson & Goodyear-Grant, 2010, p. 228). Finally, referendum participation refers to the act of casting a vote in the referendum.

1.2.3 Perceived Impacts

One important way to conceptualise event impacts is differentiating between ‘real’ or ‘perceived’ impacts. Real impacts are measured with objective and quantifiable data, whereas perceived impacts are personal, and therefore highly subjective (Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2003). Real impacts, such as tourist numbers, retail spending and changes to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) are often measured to determine the success of the event. However, for future events, perceived impacts are linked to community support, and subsequently influence policymakers (Bull & Lovell, 2007; Ohmann, Jones & Wilkes, 2006).

1.2.4 Civic Duty

Civic duty is “the belief that a citizen has a moral obligation to vote” (Blais & Galais, 2016, p. 61). From this perspective, dutiful citizens believe that participating in elections and referendums is the right thing to do and abstaining is wrong. Civic duty captures motivation rather than habitual behaviour (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015).

1.2.5 Political Cynicism

Political cynicism is a concept that has emerged from the satisfaction with democracy literature (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015; Southwell, 2008). Political cynicism is characterised not only by dissatisfaction and aversion to politics, but also a lack of political efficacy (Schuck &

de Vreese, 2015; Southwell, 2008). Despite the varied efforts to operationalize political cynicism, the absence of trust is at the core of political cynicism (de Vreese & Semetko, 2002; Schuck, Boomgaarden & de Vreese, 2013).

1.3 Rationale for the Research

Referendums are increasingly being used a way to gauge public support for major sport events, and subsequently make hosting decision. However, little is known on this political process. As such, the rationale for this research is multifaceted. The following three sub-sections provide an overview of the rationale for each of the three studies within this research project.

1.3.1 Study 1

Study 1 investigates the determininants of resident support and participation in a major sport event referendum. Exploring the extent to which citizens support and participate in referendums is important for at least three reasons. First, it contributes to a better understanding of local resident support for the use of referendums in the decision to bid for major sport events. Second, it fosters a better understanding of intentions to participate in a sport-event related referendum. Third, this research tests predictors of referendum support and participation derived from the political science discipline. Considered collectively, these insights enable key decision-makers to deliberate on alternative ways in which to major sport event bid decisions.

Despite the belief that major sport event success is associated with host community support for the event (Kim, Jun, Walker & Drane, 2015; Yong & Ap, 2008), local residents are usually excluded from bid decisions (Coates & Wicker, 2015). Rather, bidding decisions are often made by a small group of key stakeholders. However, the significant financial investment that is associated with hosting major sport events, and the increasingly contentious issue of whether local communities benefit (Kim & Petrick, 2005), has raised the

question of whether the decision to bid on major sport events should be on the public's political agenda (Coates & Wicker, 2015). This study will explore this question, and in doing so contribute to a better understanding, for both academics and industry stakeholders, of local resident support and intention to participate in major sport event referendums.

A small number of studies have explored referendums to inform the decision to fund stadia for professional sport teams and universities (Horn, Cantor & Fort, 2015; Kellison, Sam, Hong, Swart & Mondello, 2018; Mondello & Kellison, 2016). However, the vast majority of this research has been undertaken within the United States. Research on stadia referendums has focused on factors that influence voter decisions. Studies have shown that voters may rely on information from stakeholders when considering stadia construction decisions (Fort, 1997; Lupia, 1994). These stakeholders include politicians, the local media, stadium proponent groups, the local business community and professional sport team owners (Brown & Paul, 1999; Friedman & Mason, 2004, 2005). Stadia referendum studies have often collected data in conjunction with the referendum itself rather than to capture pre-referendum sentiments/attitudes explicitly (Coates & Wicker, 2015).

It is also important to differentiate between stadia and events as referendum contexts. Wicker and Coates (2018) have argued that major event decisions are larger in scope than stadia decisions but are shorter term in nature, as a new stadium is a fixture in the community for decades. A small number of studies have taken place within the context of a major sport event referendum. However, in the majority of these studies, data was collected post-referendum (Coates & Wicker, 2015, Konecke, Schubert & Pruess, 2016; Siepell et al., 2016). Most studies have also relied upon secondary data, such as content-analysed media coverage (Coates & Wicker, 2015; Konecke et al., 2016; Siepell et al., 2016). One exception is Wicker and Coates' (2018) research on Hamburg's referendum to bid (or not bid) for the 2024 Summer Olympics. Furthermore, no research has yet explored perceptions of

community members about the *type* of sport referendum and specifically whether it should be binding or not (i.e., the government must act on the result). Previous research has indicated that the binding or non-binding nature of a referendum influences referendum participation (Silagadze & Gherghina, 2018).

1.3.2 Study 2

Understanding the determinants of resident support for hosting a major sport event is important for at least two reasons. Firstly, it contributes to a better understanding on the effect of perceived impacts on support for hosting a major sport event in New Zealand. These insights are useful for both pro-event and anti-event stakeholders, as it provides key information that can assist in their influencing of community support, or opposition, in relation to bidding for an event. Secondly, no research has yet examined the effect that perceived impacts have on support for hosting an event before it has been bid on. Thirdly, perceived impacts are known to be contextually based (Fredline, 2005). As yet, no research has explored perceived impacts and support for major sport events within a New Zealand context, or in relation to the Commonwealth Games.

There is a clear understanding that how major sport event impacts are perceived to affect the local community relates to their support of the event. However, most research is performed post-event (Inoue & Havard, 2014; Yao & Schwarz, 2018), or in limited cases, in the lead up to the event taking place (Waite, 2003). To date, no research has yet examined the effect that perceived impacts have on support for hosting an event before it has been bid on. The effect of residents' perceived impacts on bid support hypothetically before a referendum allows for residents to provide an unbiased view before any external groups - including the media and local growth coalitions - exert influence.

The exploration of local residents perceived impacts from hosting sport events is well established within academic literature. Through this work, considerable light has been shed

on many of the potential impacts of major sport events. However, not all major sport events are created equal. Different major sport events manifest its impact differently. In addition, different communities perceive event impacts related to hosting in different ways. Subsequently, it has been argued that residents' perceived impacts from hosting major sport events is contextually based (Fredline, 2005; Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2006). To date, no research has explored the residents' perceived impacts of hosting the Commonwealth Games. Similarly, no research has explored residents perceived impacts of hosting major sport events within a New Zealand context. This research provides an understanding of both the perceived impacts of hosting the Commonwealth Games in general, and within a New Zealand context.

1.3.3 Study 3

Understanding key decision-maker support for the use of a referendum to decide whether to bid for a major sport event is important for at least two reasons. Firstly, it is ultimately a political decision by policymakers, and other key major event decision-makers, whether a referendum will take place in a major sport event decision. Therefore, it is critical to explore their views on such as process, as ultimately these stakeholders represent those with the power to dictate how major sport event bid decisions are made. Secondly, no research has yet explored key decision-makers' support for a major sport event referendum.

As a framework for research in this area, principles of democratic governance have rarely been used to study the organisation and performance of sport events. However, those scholars who have studied democratic governance principles in sport have noted that undemocratic practices, such as public participation and transparency, undermine organisational legitimacy and performance (Enjolras & Waldahl, 2010). Parent and Naraine (2016) argued that public participation is a central principle in democratic governance of major sport events.

In the majority of sport event related referendum studies, the focus has been on exploring resident's resistance towards an Olympic bid (Coates & Wicker, 2015, Konecke, Schubert & Pruess, 2016; Siepell et al., 2016). Similarly, within the political science field, the vast majority of referendum studies focus on public support for referendums (Donovan & Karp, 2006; Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). To date, nothing is known about how prospective decision makers related to a major sport event perceive referendums.

Considered collectively, the rationale for these three studies can be found in the increasing nature of referendums being used to make bid decisions and a lack of scholarly understanding on support for major sport event referendums, from both resident and key decision-maker perspectives, and the outcome of a potential referendum within a New Zealand context.

1.4 Research Context

The context of this research is a potential future Commonwealth Games bid from New Zealand. The Commonwealth Games is a quadrennial, international multi-sport event involving athletes from the Commonwealth of Nations. At the 2018 event, nearly 4500 athletes representing 71 nations competed in 19 sports. New Zealand has not hosted a Commonwealth Games since 1990. A bid in the near future is probable, in connection with one of New Zealand's largest cities (Strang, 2018). Auckland (1990) and Christchurch (1974) have hosted the event previously.

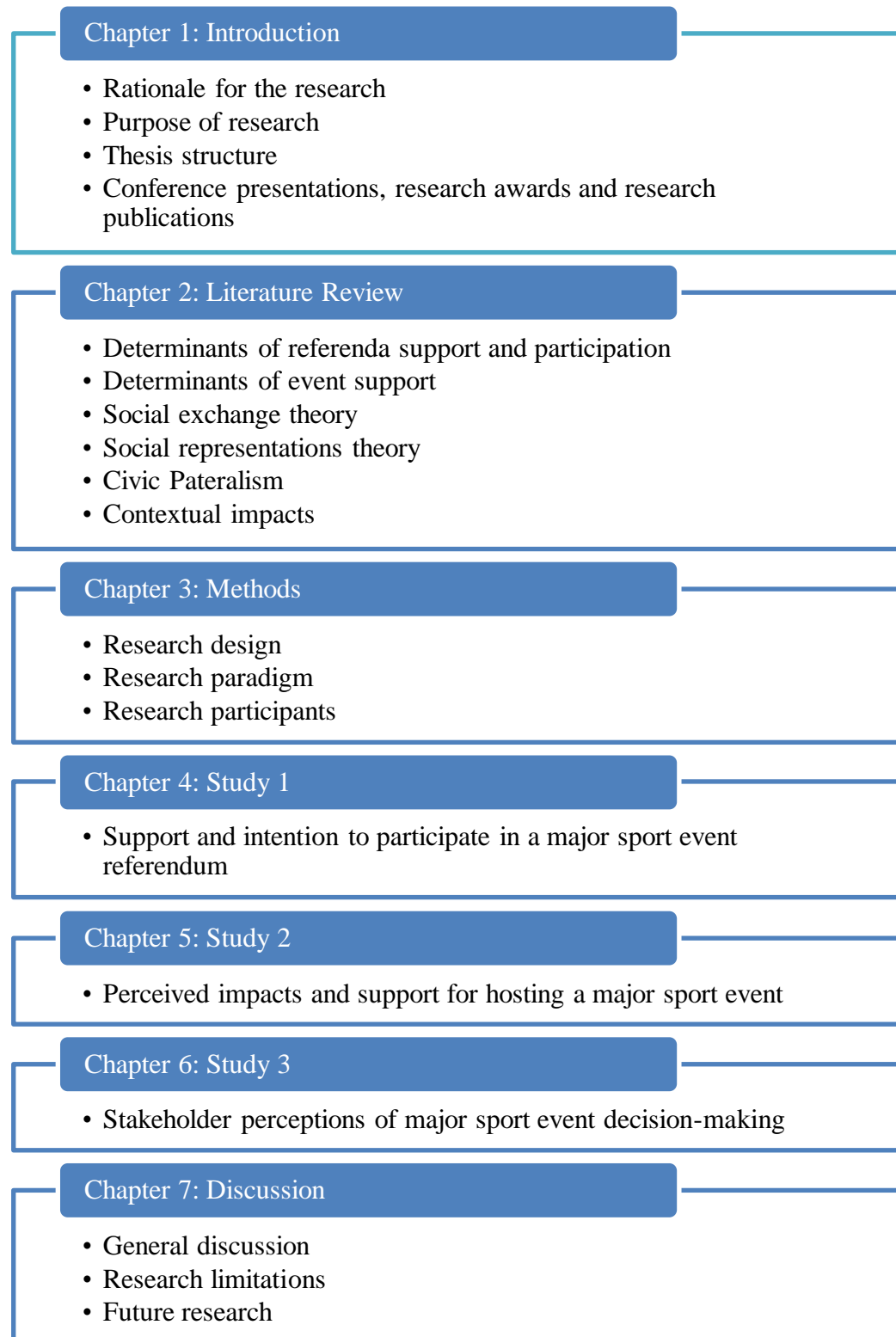
New Zealanders have an inherent affinity for the consultation process (Hayward, 2014). New Zealand has a long history of local referendums to inform high-level political decision making. For example, in the 1990s, referendums were implemented in conjunction with the adoption of electoral reforms as well as implementing a process for citizen-initiated referendums in 1993 (Donovan & Karp, 2006). More recently, in 2016, a referendum was held by the New Zealand Government to determine whether New Zealanders wanted a new

national flag (Osborne, Lees-Marshment & van der Linden, 2016). New Zealanders' support for referendums has been examined in a number of studies (Donovan & Karp, 2006; Karp & Aimer, 2002). The decision to bid for a major event has never been the subject of a referendum in New Zealand. Although community support for referendums in New Zealand is seemingly high, the transferability of this support to a major sport event remains unexplored.

1.5 Thesis Structure

This thesis consists of seven chapters (Figure 1.1). Chapter 1 provides the rationale for the research, purpose of the research project, thesis structure, and a list of the conference presentations, research awards, and journal publications. Chapter 2 is a literature review of research on determinants that effect referendum support and voter turnout, derived from political science research, Social Exchange Theory, Social Representations Theory, perceived event impacts, event status, and psychological involvement. Chapter 3 provides an overview of the research design for all three studies, research paradigm, and research participants. Chapters 4, 5 and 6 are each comprised of published or soon-to-be published journal articles. Chapter 4 is an exploration of the key determinants that effect resident support and participant of a referendum in the context of a major sport event. This chapter addresses the first research objective. Chapter 5 is an explorations of the determinants of resident support for the hosting of a major sport event. This chapter addresses the second research objective. Chapter 6 explores key decision-makers support for the use of referendums in the decision whether to bid for a major sport event. This chapter addresss the third research objective. Chapter 7 provides a general discussion of the three studies, a conclusion, as well as an acknowledgment of the thesis limitations and suggestions for future research.

Figure 1.1
Thesis schematic



1.6 Conference Presentations, Awards and Research Publications

Each of the three studies of this doctoral thesis have been presented at conferences (Table 1.1). The conference presentation associated with Study 1 received the Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand (SMAANZ) Student Research Award. Two of the studies have been submitted to respected journals. The manuscript associated with Study 1 is under “second review” at Sport Management Review. The manuscript associated with Study 2 has been submitted to the European Sport Management Quarterly and is currently under review.

Table 1.1
Publications

Conference	
Study 1	Johnston, M., Dickson, G., & Naylor, M. (2017, December). <i>The impact of civic duty and political cynicism on support for and intention to participate in a major sport event referendum</i> . Paper presented at 23rd Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand (SMAANZ) Conference, Gold Coast, Australia.
Study 2	Johnston, M., Naylor, M., & Dickson, G. (2018, December). <i>Perceived event impacts and support for a major sport event</i> . Paper presented at 24th Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand (SMAANZ) Conference, Adelaide, Australia.
Study 3	Johnston, M., Naylor, M., & Dickson, G. (2019, May). <i>Stakeholder perspectives of major event referenda</i> . Paper presented at 34th North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) Conference, New Orleans, Louisiana.
Journal	
Study 1	Johnston, M., Naylor, M., Dickson, G., Hedlund, D., & Kellison, T. (under review). Determinants of support and participation in a major sport event referendum. <i>Sport Management Review</i> .
Study 2	Johnston, M., Naylor, M., & Dickson, G. (under review). Perceived impacts and support for hosting a major sport event. <i>European Sport Management Quarterly</i> .
Study 3	Manuscript submission early 2020

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review covers material relevant to the objectives that shape this thesis; 1) Investigate the determinants of resident support and participation in referendums in the context of a major sport event, 2) Investigate the determinants of resident support for hosting a major sport event, and 3) Investigate key decision-maker support for the use of referendums in the decision of whether to bid for a major sport event. Included in this review are an overview of previous research on referendum support and participation determinants, determinants that effect resident event support, relevant contextual factors, political decision-making, and civic paternalism.

2.1 Referendums

Decision making related to major sport event bids is best understood in the context of the wider political climate and resident engagement. Representative democracy is changing, insofar as residents are increasingly demanding a greater role in decision making (Colombo, 2018; Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). That role may take the form of a referendum, a process which enhances collective resident decision-making and reduces political power.

A referendum is a mechanism of direct democracy in which people are asked to vote on an issue of policy (Badie, Berg-Schlosser & Morlino, 2011). A referendum differs from an election insofar as an issue is on the ballot rather than people. The history of referendums goes back to the 1700's in Switzerland, where votes were held related to all cantonal and national constitutions (Badie et al., 2011). Use of referendums as part of a democratic process has recently accelerated rapidly all over the world. As of 2008, just 20% of 'independent' countries had no provision for referendums at a national or regional level (International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance, 2008).

In New Zealand, referendums have been part of public policy-making for more than a century. The first national referendum in New Zealand was held in 1911, which addressed the prohibition of the sale of liquor (Atkinson, 2003). Referendums are not required for any legislative process, but have been held on conscience or constitutional issues, initiated by Government, or in some circumstances by residents. Government initiated referendums can either be binding or non-binding (i.e. indicative only), and citizens-initiated referendums are exclusively non-binding (New Zealand Parliament, n.d.). For a citizens-initiated referendum to take place, over 10% of eligible voters must support it (New Zealand Parliament, n.d.). Over the years, fewer referendums have been initiated in New Zealand than most other democratic countries (LeDuc, 2008). Over the past 70 years there have only been 10 government-initiated referendums in New Zealand, and five citizens-initiated referendums (Boston, 2019). However, the tide seems to be turning, with three national referendums set to take place in 2020; legalisation of recreational marijuana, euthanasia, and the mixed-member proportional (MMP) system of governance.

In the context of sport, referendums are also increasingly being used to inform major event decisions. For example, the city of Sion (Switzerland) withdrew their bid for the 2026 Winter Olympics after 54% of residents voted against the bid in a referendum (Morgan, 2018). In the 2022 Winter Olympic bidding process, four potential host cities held referenda: Krakow, Poland; Oslo, Norway; St. Moritz, Switzerland; and Munich, Germany. In Krakow, St. Moritz and Munich, residents indicated their lack of support for the bid through the referendums and the bids were removed as a result. Although residents in Oslo voted to support the bid, politicians later withdrew the bid anyways (Zaccaradi, 2014). Despite these recent examples and the belief that major sport event success is associated with host community support for the event (Kim, Jun, Walker & Drane, 2015; Yong & Ap, 2008), local residents are usually excluded from decisions, including whether to bid (Coates & Wicker,

2015). Bidding decisions are often made by a small group of politicians, lack transparency and reflect global trends rather than local community wishes (Gursoy, Nunkoo & Milito, 2017).

2.2 Referendum Support and Participation

The extent to which residents support and ultimately participate in referendums is important for various community and government stakeholders. Referendum support refers to a belief that the implementation of a voting process to express residents' view on a contentious issue is appropriate (Anderson & Goodyear-Grant, 2010; Rose & Borz, 2013). A feeling of support for the use of a referendum for this purpose is associated with populism (Anderson & Goodyear-Grant, 2010) which is defined as the premise "that ordinary citizens should come together to act politically in order to transcend artificial decisions created by greed, corruption, and elite dominance" (Anderson & Goodyear-Grant, 2010, p. 228).

Whilst there may be extensive resident support for a referendum, this does not necessarily equate to high voter engagement in that referendum. Although sometimes correlated (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015), it is important to isolate the unique determinants of referendum support as distinct from referendum participation. One may support use of a referendum in a major sport event context, but may have no intention to actually participate in it.

Determinants of both referendum support and referendum participation intention are established in the body of political science literature. The determinants that emerged there, are a useful starting point to build understanding of the dependent variables in a sport context. While it is clear from previous research some residents are more supportive of referendums than others (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015), this line of inquiry has yet to be explored in a sport context, where other variables may also play a determining role. Therefore, the theoretical frame of this study has been informed by related research in political science, but also relevant psychological constructs that are important in the context of sport events specifically.

Previous research on referendum support and participation has largely focused on demographic indicators, such as gender, age and education (Donovan, Tolbert & Smith, 2009). These are potentially important and ought to be explored in the context of a major sport event referendum. However, there is also increasing interest in psychological factors associated with referendum support and participation. Political Interest, Habitual Voting, Political Ideology, Political Efficacy, Satisfaction with Democracy, Civic Duty and Political Cynicism have been identified as potential determinants for referendum support and participation.

2.2.1 Political Interest

An individual's level of political interest has a strong influence on both the outcomes of interest in the current research - referendum support and participation (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). Political interest is defined as the degree to which politics arouses residents' curiosity (Stademann-Steffen & Sulzer, 2018). Referendums are embraced by those who are already politically interested and involved (Donovan & Karp, 2006). Those who are interested in one type of vote are generally also interested in another (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). In addition, people with higher political interest are more likely to vote regardless of the issues on the ballot (Biggers, 2014). Those who demonstrate high levels of political interest view referendums as another opportunity for political activation, and thus are more likely to support initiation.

The rise of direct democratic initiatives has corresponded with a rise in the political resources and skills of the electorate (Donovan & Karp, 2006). This suggests that residents are more politically interested, and as a consequence, desire greater participatory democracy. Residents who are politically interested are more likely to have the requisite political resources for navigating political issues, and thus are more likely capable of making their own political decisions and therefore embrace opportunities to express their choices (Donovan & Karp, 2006).

This increasing desire to participate in political practices is not evident amongst the entire electorate. For example, declining voting turnout rates and political disengagement have been

noted among young adults (Stadelmann-Steffen & Sulzer, 2018). Whilst declining electoral turnout rates of young adults have been observed, this is not necessarily linked to political disinterest. In fact, young people are indeed politically interested (Henn & Ford, 2012; Sloam, 2012), but rather prefer to use more ‘unconventional’ means to engage politically, such as activism, boycotts and signing petitions (Norris, 2002). Whether referendums are sufficiently ‘unconventional’ in the minds of young adults is not yet well understood.

Political interest has been argued to be a product of socialisation (Bowler & Donovan, 2013). Those who are socialised to have an interest in politics are more likely to see politics and voting in a more positive light, and thus are more likely to vote (Dostie-Goulet, 2009). In a study of referendum support in the European Union, it was found that those that were socialised to be interested in politics and to identify with a particular political party were more likely to favour referendum use (Rose & Borz, 2013). Further research into political interest and the decline in youth participation in voting found that through political discussion among parents, friends and teachers a younger voter’s political interest is more likely developed, and in turn so is the likelihood of participation in voting opportunities (Dostie-Goulet, 2009).

Stadelmann-Steffan and Sulzer (2018) examined whether political socialisation at the upper secondary school level (i.e. shortly before young people receive the right to vote), influenced individual political interest in Switzerland. Political education in Switzerland is not a separate school subject, but rather is considered multidisciplinary and integrated within various subjects across the curriculum. The results of this research indicated classroom-based political socialisation did not significantly affect political interest (Stadelmann-Steffan & Sulzer, 2018). The researchers argued that classroom-based political socialisation does not compensate for a lack of political resources at home, but rather, tends to affect mostly those students who are already politically socialised at home, through politically interested parents. These studies suggest that

individuals learn to be politically interested and subsequently engaged, through the acquisition of values and having opinions shaped those around them, particularly family and peers.

The political science research highlights the important role that political interest plays in referendum support and voter participation. In addition, evidence suggests that citizens are becoming increasingly politically interested (Donovan & Karp, 2006; Henn & Ford, 2012; Sloam, 2012). Consequently, it remains important, even more so, to explore the effect that political interest has on referendum support and voter participation in the context of a major sport event referendum.

2.2.2 Habitual Voting

Habitual voting behaviour is - as one would expect - another important predictor of voter participation. Habitual voters are more likely to vote no matter the issue (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). Measures of habitual voting behaviour identify not only those who are regular participants in elections and referendums, but also those that regularly abstain from voting. “The longer the individual consistently participates in elections, the stronger their voting habits. In turn, the longer one consistently abstains from voting, the stronger their non-participation habit” (Linek & Petrusek, 2016, p.80). Therefore, both long-term voting behaviour and long-term abstention are powerful habits (Linek & Petrusek, 2016).

Voting behaviour is learned and develops gradually (Bhatti, Hansen & Wass, 2016; Linek & Petrusek, 2016; Plutzer, 2002). The process begins at a ‘starting level’, which is the probability that residents will vote in the first election they are eligible for (Plutzer, 2002). Research has shown that a young adults first opportunities to vote are the most important on establishing voting habits. It is seen as particularly significant when a young person reaches the official voting age. Whilst it is rightly assumed that those who do not vote the first time they are eligible are more likely to be long-term abstainers (Bhatti, Hansen & Wass, 2012), participation in a first eligible voting opportunity does not necessarily lead to long-term voting behaviour either.

As in many first-time experiences, there is something special about the opportunity to vote for the first time. This notion is referred to as the ‘first-time boost’ (Konzelmann, Wagner & Rattinger, 2012), or the ‘first-time hype’ (Bhatti et al., 2012). This is based on the concept that the psychological reward, thrill or entertainment value of voting is particularly significant the first time an individual is eligible to vote (Bhatti et al., 2016). In addition, first-time voting may be a social act, as the newly enfranchised young voters expect to receive positive re-enforcement from family and friends (Plutzer, 2002). This may indicate the start of a long-term engagement in voting, but most will result in the habitual disengagement (Plutzer, 2002).

Whilst young adults may be more knowledgeable for their second opportunity to vote because of their gained experience, research has shown that turnout is considerably higher for first-time voters than for the second-time voters (Konzelmann, Wagner & Rattinger 2012). It is argued that second-time voters are likely to be less enthusiastic about voting because they are no longer exercising novel privilege (Bhatti et al., 2016). Consequently, some second-time voters may develop a habit of non-voting as they no longer experience the ‘first-time boost’. This has been characterised by ‘inertia’, which is the propensity for residents to settle into habits of voting or non-voting (Plutzer, 2002). Barriers such as voter registration requirements and relocation can lead to voter inertia.

Generational differences in habitual voting have been reported (Linek & Petrusek, 2016). Whilst the propensities to vote vary amongst those recently eligible for voting, most of the initial non-voters will make a transition from the inertial state of abstention and start participating (Gorecki, 2015). An increase in voter participation has been linked to those in their 40s and 50s, as they have less career-pressures, and more leisure times after their children have left the home (Bhatti et al., 2012). As residents reach middle age there are less barriers to engage in voting, and thus voting habits are established.

Habitual voting has typically been explored in the context of electoral turnout and research in a referendum context is minimal, let alone a sport-based referendum. The one study that has measured habitual voting, in the context of referendum support was conducted in Europe but found no significant relationship between the variables (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). It is important to better understand the relationship between habitual voting behaviour and one's support and intention to participate in a sport event referendum.

2.2.3 Political Ideology

An individual's political ideology is an important predictor of both referendum support and participation (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). Political ideology is defined as a shared model of beliefs that groups of individuals possess which provide both an interpretation of the society and a prescription of how that society should be structured (Denzau & North, 2000). Many political ideologies exist on a continuum featuring different views on the role of the government, the role of residents, and how decisions should be made. Studies have investigated the relationship between political ideology and referendum support, but there is, as yet, no clear consensus.

Donovan and Karp's (2006) research compared referendum support across New Zealand, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland. From that study, evidence emerged that people with left-leaning political ideologies were more likely than centrists or those with right-leaning orientations, to support the use of referendums in New Zealand, Norway and Sweden. However, in Switzerland those with right-leaning political ideologies were more likely to support referendum use. Similarly, Schuck and de Vreese's (2011) study investigating the factors that determine referendum support in the context of the 2005 European Union constitution referendum in the Netherlands, found that left-leaning political orientations were more likely to support the referendum. This result is also supported by their study on referendum support across 21 European countries, which found those with left-leaning political ideologies most supportive of referendums (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015).

In comparison, Smith, Tolbert and Keller's (2010) research on referendum support in the United States found that those who aligned with sitting political parties were more likely to support the use of referendums to influence political decision-making. However, they found that those with centrist political views were the most likely to support the use of referendums to influence political decision-making. They suggest that this is due to centrists' tendency to be peripheral voters that are 'long-term structural losers'—those who are not attached to either of the two major political parties, and therefore are less likely to be satisfied with representative government. Similar research examining the effects of political ideology on voter turnout in South Korea found that political ideology played a pivotal role in determining individual voter participation in government elections (Wang, Weng & Cha, 2017). They found that those who were supporters of the political party in office were more likely to turnout to voter, as opposed to those who supported a party that is currently out of office (Wang, Weng & Cha, 2017). Therefore, it could be argued the differing results of studies examining the effect of political ideology on referendum support could be largely based on which party is currently in office, and whether they are supporters or oppositions of that parties.

The effect that political ideology has on referendum support and participation seems to be context-dependent. Consequently, no firm conclusions on the relationship between these variables can yet be made. In spite of this, it is still argued that in order to understand voting perceptions and behaviours, one must explore the role that political ideology plays within this relationship (Facchini & Jaeck, 2019). It is therefore important and necessary to explore this relationship further, particular within the context of a major sport event referendum.

2.2.4 Political Efficacy

Referendum support and participation are also associated with political efficacy. Political efficacy was first defined by Campbell, Gurin and Miller (1954) as “the feeling that individual political action does have, or can have, and impact upon the political process” (p. 187). Campbell

et al.'s (1954) concept of political efficacy originated from analysing participation in the 1952 United States presidential election. Their argument was that people with a high socio-economic status would consider themselves more influential than a low socio-economic status, and that people who consider themselves influential are more likely to participate in the election (Campbell et al., 1954). Balch (1974) extended this thinking by identifying two related, but separate, sub-dimensions of political efficacy; internal political efficacy and external political efficacy. Internal political efficacy represents the individual's belief that means of influence are available to them, whereas external political efficacy is the belief that political authorities are responsive to influence attempts (Balch, 1974). This two-dimensional conceptualisation of political efficacy is now widely accepted (Arzheimer, 2008; Schuck & de Vreese, 2015; Southwell, 2008).

Feelings of powerlessness and meaningless decrease support and engagement in political practices (Valentino, Beckmann & Buhr, 2001). In Karp's (2012) study of political efficacy across 30 countries with a variety of party systems and both established and new democracies, political efficacy was linked to political participation and the belief that one's vote makes a difference. In addition, Bowler and Donovan (2013) found that in the context of the 2011 British electoral system referendum, those that had a high sense of political efficacy were more likely to perceive the referendum in a positive light and ultimately participate in it.

High levels of political efficacy have also been argued to counteract cynicism and distrust of political processes, such as referendums (Dermod, Hanmer-Lloyd, & Scullion, 2010; Nickerson, 2006). When political distrust and cynicism is combined with a sense of political efficacy, it can lead to support and involvement in political processes (Dermod, Hanmer-Lloyd, & Scullion, 2010; de Vreese, 2005; Pinkleton & Austin, 2002). Conversely, it could be argued that when political cynicism is combined with a low level of political efficacy, the result is disengagement with political processes.

Research in the context of New Zealand politics has highlighted a concern for political efficacy and lack of participation in voting (Banducci, Donovan & Karp, 1999; Karp & Banducci, 1999). For example, in Karp and Banducci's (1999) research increased turnout after the introduction of the mixed-member proportional (MMP) system in 1994 was attributed to greater feelings of political efficacy. It was believed that the new political system would be more responsive to the diversity of the electorate, and that those who voted for smaller parties would not be wasting their vote (Karp & Banducci, 1999). Furthermore, Osborne, Yogeeswaran and Sibley's (2015) research examined the role of political efficacy on voter turnout amongst Maoris – New Zealand's indigenous minority population. The findings of their research was in line with previous studies, in that the belief that one can change the political system was positively associated with support for the political mobilization of the Maori people (Osborne, Yogeeswaran & Sibley, 2015). Taken collectively, it is evident that political efficacy plays a key role in whether one supports or participates in public political processes, such as referendums. Therefore, it is important to explore the role that political efficacy may play in explaining support and likelihood to participate in a major sport event referendum.

2.2.5 Satisfaction with Democracy

One's satisfaction with democracy has been associated with both support for the utilisation of referendums, as well as likelihood to vote. In fact, when modelling democratic governance perceptions, the most common predictor is satisfaction with democracy (Hobolt, 2012). Democratic governance is not just about winning or losing at election time, it is also about how the political system deals with the winners and losers of democratic contests after the election is over (Anderson & Guillory, 1997). While some political systems compensate the minority, others allow the majority to implement policies unchallenged. The extent to which either group is satisfied with the workings of democratic governance varies systematically by type of democracy.

As a result of differently structured democratic institutions, the way residents feel about the way democracy works is affected by the kind of system they live in (Anderson & Guillory, 1997).

Traditionally, high voter participation has been viewed as an important indicator of the health of a democracy (Franklin, 1999). Public participation in democratic processes including referendums, are at the heart of contemporary democracy (Kostelka & Blais, 2018). Referendums are one of the principle means of changing the course of democratic policy. They represent one of the most tangible embodiments of democratic principles to which residents are exposed. Therefore, political scientists frequently use satisfaction with democracy to predict voter turnout. Numerous studies have indicated that residents who display higher levels of satisfaction with democracy are more likely to participate in political voting (Donovan & Karp, 2006; Ezrow & Xezonakis, 2014). The foundation of this relationship is that residents who are more satisfied with democracy tend to be more politically engaged, and thus they are more likely to turn out to vote (Franklin, 2002).

Comparatively, there is a wealth of studies that provide evidence that dissatisfaction with democracy also stimulates both support for direct democratic methods of decision-making such as referendums, and higher levels of voter turnout (Ezrow & Xenzonakis, 2014; Garcia-Espin, Ganuza & De Marco, 2017). Whilst there is a growing dissatisfaction toward politics in western democratic countries, residents still remain committed to democratic norms and principles (Dalton, 2008; Leininger, 2015). For dissatisfied residents, referendums are seen as a way of tackling resident dissatisfaction by providing more opportunities for them to voice their views, and disrupt the status quo. For example, Rose and Borz's (2013) research on support for European Union referendums found that dissatisfaction with the performance of government had a significant effect on demand for a referendum. The more dissatisfied residents are with their national government, the more likely they are to endorse referendums that enable them to challenge decisions previously approved by the policy makers they are dissatisfied with (Rose &

Borz, 2013). Similarly, Ezrow and Xezonakis' (2014) longitudinal analysis across 12 countries from 1976-2011 found that those who are dissatisfied with democracy are more likely to participate in voting, whereas those who are satisfied with democracy are less likely to participate.

Whilst dissatisfaction with democracy may be linked to referendum support, the utility of referendums by governments will likely increase support and satisfaction for the political system as well (Leininger, 2015). Frey and Stutzer (2000) suggest that referendums increase resident's satisfaction with democracy as sense of control over policy and representation result. It has been argued that both the opportunity to participate in a referendum, as well as the act of voting on policy decisions, lead to more positive views of the status of democracy (Bowler & Donovan, 2002). This has been round to be the case in Switzerland, where the regular use of referendums is linked to increased satisfaction with the way democracy works (Stadelmann-Steffen & Vatter, 2012).

Although there is conflicting evidence related to the role of satisfaction with democracy as an antecedent of referendum support and participation, it is clear the construct is important in building a full understanding of these outcomes. Therefore, this construct ought to be included in a study of sport-related referendum.

2.2.6 Civic Duty

Support for the utilization of referendums, and likelihood to turn out to vote, have both been associated with one's sense of civic duty. Civic duty is "the belief that a citizen has a moral obligation to vote" (Blais & Galais, 2016, p. 61). Essentially, dutiful residents believe that it is the right thing to participate in elections and referendums and that to abstain is wrong. Whilst a sense of civic duty is about an individual's sense of obligation, it is also about the desire to make a contribution to others, and ultimately society as a whole (Weinschenk & Dawes, 2018). As such, civic duty captures the motivation behind voting,

rather than serve as an explanation for habitual voting behaviour (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015).

It is well established in political science that a sense of civic duty is a powerful predictor in an explanatory model of voter turnout (Galais & Blais, 2014; Lewis-Beck, Jacoby, Norpoth & Weisberg, 2008). In fact, Blais (2000) noted that a sense of civic duty was the single most important predictor in one's decision to vote. Some people feel a strong obligation to vote, while others feel no obligation at all. Thus, those with a strong sense of civic duty are much more likely to vote than those without (Blais, 2000).

The concept of civic duty has its origins in cognitive mobilisation theory (Bowler & Donovan, 2013; Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). The theory of cognitive mobilization suggests that those with greater cognitive resources (for example, education and knowledge) have a higher level of political interest and are more likely to participate in democratic practices (Donovan & Karp, 2006). Because residents' political skills and knowledge are increasing, residents are now demanding more voice and are less willing to leave decisions to the political elite (Inglehart, 1990). People with greater interest and knowledge in politics and also have greater cognitive skills are more likely to support and participate in referendums because it is an opportunity for political expression (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015).

Cognitive mobilization theory also suggest that the political interest and knowledge associated with civic duty is part of a socialization process (Rose & Borz, 2013). It is argued that civic duty is determined at an individual level, and therefore a variation of civic duty between individuals is associated with social psychological perspectives of political behaviour (Bhatti, Hansen & Wass, 2012; Bowler & Donovan, 2013). Bowler and Donovan (2013) argue that individuals are socialised to politics differently, and this socialisation provides a baseline level of civic duty. For example, those who are socialised to have a greater sense of political efficacy and interest in politics are more likely to view politics and

voting in a positive light, and thus are more likely to attach a sense of duty to the act of voting (Bowler & Donovan, 2013).

The systematic underrepresentation of young adults in electoral politics has been attributed to a lack of a sense of civic duty. Research has provided evidence that this generational gap in electoral participation is the result of a shift in values among young adults who now perceive voting as a choice rather than a civic duty (Blais & Rubenson, 2013; Wattenberg, 2016). This was found among those under the age of 30 in the 2012 American National Election Study (Wattenberg, 2016). Of those young people, 59% viewed voting as a choice, compared to 30% who viewed it as a duty (Wattenberg, 2016). Intuitively, it makes sense that as a result of eroding beliefs that political participation is an obligation, voter turnout declines.

Whilst young adults are more likely to lack a sense of civic duty, this does not necessarily mean that individuals will not develop it later in life. Blais (2000) argues that people are more likely to perceive voting as a residents' duty as they grow older. As one grows older their sense of attachment to their community increases, which makes them more inclined to think about their duties toward the community (Blais, 2000). Whilst this seems sensible, there is currently no empirical support. Rather, previous research has indicated that one's sense of civic duty largely remains stable from young adulthood and through the course of their lifetime (Jennings & Stoker, 2005).

Although civic duty has been identified as a significant contributor to resident participation in voting, few studies have examined the role it plays in explaining support for referendums. However, those studies that have examined the effect of civic duty on referendum support have found a significant relationship. For example, Schuck and de Vreese's (2015) research on referendum support across 21 European countries, found civic duty was not only an important predictor of voter participation, but also an important factor

for explaining referendum support. No research has yet examined the role that civic duty plays in support for referendums, and voter participation, within the context of a major sport event.

2.2.7 Political Cynicism

Previous research has identified an association between political cynicism and referendum support as well as likelihood to participate. Political cynicism is a concept that has emerged alongside research on the aforementioned satisfaction with democracy construct (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015; Southwell, 2008). According to Miller (1974), political cynicism refers to the degree of negative affect towards the government and is a statement of belief that the government is not functioning and producing outputs consistent with individual expectations. Political cynicism is associated with a perceived gap between voters and their political representatives. Furthermore, political cynicism is characterised not only by dissatisfaction to politics, but also a lack of political efficacy (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015; Southwell, 2008).

Political scientists have argued that cynicism towards politics is increasing in westernised societies (Lubbers & Jaspers, 2010; Rijkhoff, 2018; Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). Some have argued that we live in an “age of cynicism” (Rijkhoff, 2018, p. 333). Others have argued that political cynicism is the most important problem facing the democratic world (Pharr & Putnam, 2000; Stolle & Hooghe, 2005). For example, in a longitudinal study of Dutch residents’ perceptions on European integration from 1990 to 2008, there was a significant increase in cynicism about politics (Lubbers & Jaspers, 2010).

Early research on political cynicism and voter engagement was underlined by the assumption that higher levels of political cynicism leads to increased alienation of residents from politics, decreased political learning and engagement, and subsequently lower levels of participation in the political process (Patterson, 2002; Valentino, Beckmann & Buhr, 2001). However, more recent research has indicated that political cynicism can actually stimulate voting

participation (de Vreese & Sementko, 2002; Southwell, 2008). In these circumstances, people that are frustrated and cynical about traditional party-based politics embrace a referendum as an unfiltered opportunity to voice a view on important issues. Southwell's (2008) research on voter behaviour in American elections found that political cynicism has both a positive and negative relationship with voter turnout. When political cynicism interacts with political efficacy, one is more likely to vote. However, when political cynicism exists without political efficacy, voters often don't turn up (Southwell, 2008). Therefore, it seems important to measure these constructs both in isolation as well as to explore potential interactive effects.

Whilst political cynicism has been widely researched in regard to voter participation in referendums, it is less established as an important predictor of referendum support. Through a comparison of referendum support across 21 countries in the European Union, Schuck and de Vreese (2015) analysed both civic duty and political cynicism alongside other predictors of referendum support. Whilst both civic duty and political cynicism are related to referendum support, the latter is the better predictor (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). Despite varying results on its influence on voter participation, and the lack of research on its role in referendum support, there is strong evidence that political cynicism is a significant predictor of referendum support and participation. Therefore, it is important to measure this construct in the context of understanding support for a major sport event referendum. This will generate new insights of value both in terms of the construct itself measured in another context and also how community members form a view about whether a referendum is appropriate in this context and whether they would participate in it.

2.3 Policymaker Perceptions of Referendums

Whilst residents may support the use of a referendum to decide whether to bid for a major sport event, ultimately it is a political decision by policymakers whether a referendum will be utilised. Previous research on major sport event referendums has largely focused on exploring the outcome of the referendum (Coates & Wicker, 2015, Konecke, Schubert & Pruess, 2016; Siepell

et al., 2016). Currently, nothing is known about how prospective decision makers perceive the use of a referendum in the decision to bid for a major sport event.

Democratic governance has rarely been used as a framework to study the organisation and success of sport events. However, those scholars who have studied democratic governance principles in a sport context have noted that undemocratic practices, such as a lack of public participation and transparency, undermine organisational legitimacy and performance (Enjolras & Waldahl, 2010; Parent & Naraine, 2016). Although research exploring political support for the utilisation of major sport event referendums is lacking, previous research on sport facility referendums provides a comparable platform in which to consider the wider phenomenon (Brown & Paul, 1999; Coates & Humphreys, 2006; Lenskyj, 2004).

2.3.1 Sport Facility Referendums

Research within the context of sport stadia referendums has mostly been undertaken in the United States. This research is largely focused on factors that influence voter decisions. Studies have shown that voters may rely on information from stakeholders when considering stadia construction decisions (Fort, 1997; Lupia, 1994). These stakeholders include politicians, the local media, stadium proponent groups, the local business community and professional sport team owners (Brown & Paul, 1999; Friedman & Mason, 2004, 2005). Stadia referendum studies have often collected data in conjunction with the referendum itself rather than to capture pre-referendum sentiments/attitudes explicitly (Coates & Wicker, 2015).

Although historically decisions on whether tax revenue is allocated to a stadium project have typically culminated in a vote by residents, it has been argued that most public stadiums in North America are built today without public consultation, and at times, against the will of the people (Scherer & Sam, 2008). Therefore, representative democracy fails in this situation. In these circumstances, it is argued that decisions are often focused heavily on

pro-business interests and favour capitalist elites (Scherer & Sam, 2008). A ‘no-vote subsidy’ occurs when elected officials and public servants allocate public funds towards the construction or renovation of a professional sport stadium without public consent (Kellison & Mondello, 2014). Of the 50 major professional sport facilities that received public funding in North America from 2005 to 2017, only eight were supported by a referendum result (Kellison et al., 2017). The remaining 42 stadia represented over \$8.3 billion of public expenditure through no-vote subsidies (Kellison et al., 2017).

Although it is important to consider this body of research in framing up the current study, significant differences exist between stadia and events as referendum contexts. Wicker and Coates (2018) have argued that major event decisions are larger in scope than stadia decisions but are shorter term in nature, as a new stadium is a fixture in the community for decades.

2.3.2 Civic Paternalism

The practice of ‘no-vote subsidies’ has been explained as a characteristic of the political ideology of *civic paternalism* (Kellison & Mondello, 2014). One of the central tensions of a representative democracy is that it can take the shape of a paternalistic state, in which autonomy is actually restricted. This can happen when an individual’s wishes are perceived by authorities as being contrary to that individual’s or the broader good. Paternalism is modelled on the traditional father-child relationship, in which the father holds absolute authority over his children (Jackman, 1994). His decisions, though sometimes unpopular, are often portrayed as being in the best interests of his family. However, despite the apparent benevolence in the father-child relationship, there is a range of opinion regarding whether paternalism should be considered good in other contexts (Pellengrini & Scandura, 2008). For example, some Western scholars have associated paternalism with authoritarianism, and therefore perceived it to be harmful (Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh, &

Cheng, 2011). Comparatively, some non-Western counterparts have often understood paternalism as in keeping with respect for authority and conformity (Chen et al., 2011).

Civic paternalism is not itself an action; rather, it is perhaps best understood as a value espoused by some policymakers, which manifests through decisions and priorities. Leaders of this ilk believe they possess greater knowledge of civic issues than their constituents and justify unpopular decisions by pointing to their belief that a given policy serves the best interests of the entire community; even if community members do not realise that is so (Kellison & Modello, 2014).

Given the increasing utilization of referendums in stadium and sport event related cases, it is largely assumed that it is a popular tool among decision-makers. However, as previous sport facility research has shown, key decision-makers may be disincentivised to promote public deliberation on issues such as the construction of sporting infrastructure for a team or event (Kellison, Newman & Bunds, 2017; Scherer & Sam, 2008). Whilst stadium related studies have examined policy maker's support for referendum use in decision-making, no academic research has yet investigated support for referendums by key decision-makers in a potential bid.

2.4 Support for Hosting Major Sport Events

In addition to understanding political support for major sport event referendums, it is also important to understand the predictors that influence the outcome of such a referendum. The success of hosting major sport events is attributed largely to the support of the local residents (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). As such, it is crucial to understand how their support to bid to host future major sport events is influenced by how they are impacted by them.

Local support can transform a major sport event into a very positive experience for a community (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). On the other hand, a lack of support can turn the decision making process and the subsequent event into a highly charged political affair.

Public discussions during the pre-bid process can lead to a better understanding of resident perceptions on the benefits and costs of hosting. This understanding can aid government officials and event managers to ascertain support levels for hosting major sport events, as well as managing residents perceptions of negative event-related impacts.

The support of local residents is a key indicator of the successful hosting of a major sport event. Support of local residents is critical given that they are often the prime funders of significant infrastructure improvements needed for an event; in addition to their role in being hospitable and welcoming of visitors (Al-Emadi et al., 2017; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). While local residents' support can transform a major sport event into an urban festival, lack of support can have devastating effects on the host community by turning it into a highly charged political and social exercise (Gursoy et al., 2017). Major event organisers, such as the International Olympic Committee and the Commonwealth Games Federation, are increasingly recognising the importance of this support (Coates & Wicker, 2015). This is reflected in the requirement in the bidding process to show levels of support for hosting the event.

Resident support for major sport events has been closely linked to event impact perceptions (Bull & Lovell, 2007). One important way to conceptualise event impacts is differentiating between 'real' or 'perceived' impacts. Real impacts can be measured with objective and quantifiable data, whereas perceived impacts are personal, and highly subjective (Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2003). Real impacts, such as tourist numbers, retail spending and changes to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) are often measured to determine the success of the event. However for future events, perceived impacts are linked to community support, and subsequently influence policymakers (Bull & Lovell, 2007; Ohmann, Jones & Wilkes, 2006).

The growth in major sport event tourism has led to a significant increase in research on the impacts of sporting events. Burns, Hatch and Mules (1986) research on the 1985 Adelaide Grand Prix is considered one of the first major studies of resident impact perceptions of a major sport event. The research found that despite perceived negative impacts such as noise pollution, loss of business and an increase in automobile accidents, 80% of residents were strongly in favour of hosting the event (Burns, Hatch & Mules, 1986). Since then, there has been a rich body of research examining local resident perceptions to major sport events. Research has focused on the perceived impacts in the period's prior, during and post events. In addition, current major sport event research can be categorised into two main categories; those which investigate resident's perceived impacts of major sport events (Kim, Gursoy & Lee, 2006; Kim & Petrick, 2005; Gursoy, Kim & Usyal, 2004), and those which investigate the relationship between resident's perceived impacts and their support of major sport events (Inoue & Harvard, 2014; Kim, Jun, Walker & Drane, 2015). Although there is a significant body of research about the perceived impacts of major sport events, there is no agreed framework for measuring these impacts. However, there is consensus that measuring perceived impacts is complex, and that a multi-dimensional approach must be taken. A balanced assessment of perceived event impacts must be taken and using a 'triple bottom-line' approach, integrating the economic, social and environmental dimensions in the appraisal has been suggested (Fredline, Jago & Deery, 2006).

2.4.1 Perceived Economic Impacts

Major sport events are seen as an effective way to boost the economy by generating revenue and jobs through the attraction of visitors. As spectators spend a considerable amount of money to attend major sport events, 'new money' is injected into the community. 'New money' comes from the out-of-town visitors who spend money in the local community both inside and outside of the event and host city (Kim et al., 2017). Major sport events

produce jobs and generate revenue for communities (Crompton, Lee & Shuster, 2001) as well as influence both related and linked industries (Kim et al., 2017). Taken together, these form the economic impact of major events, although how they are measured, perceived and communicated by various stakeholders is another matter.

Projections of economic impacts are widely publicised in conjunction with major sport events. Often controversial and or disputed (Hiller, 2006; Jakobsen, Solbery, Halvorsen & Jakobsen, 2013), local authorities tend to promote the economic benefits of hosting sport events because of the use of public funds. Initially, research on the community impact of hosting major sport events were undertaken post event, based on profit or loss basis related to organisational, competitor and visitor expenditure, as well as a country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Gratton, Shilbi & Coleman, 2006). However, since GDP involved all economic activities within a country, rather than a specific event or single city, it is difficult to measure the economic impact of sport events of the host city solely through the examination of GDP (Kim et al., 2017).

The relationship between perceived economic impacts and support for a major sport event is well established. In some studies, economic impact perceptions have been found to be most influential compared to perceived social and economic impacts (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002; Kim & Petrick, 2005, Kim, Jun, Walker & Drane, 2015; Prayag et al., 2013). Two explanations for this have been put forth. Firstly, economic benefits may be more widely communicated due to a belief that social impacts are less tangible and more difficult to measure (Kim & Petrick, 2005). Secondly, social and environmental impact perceptions tend to be more subjective and "vague in the human mind", and as a consequence, some research has shown that resident perceptions towards these impacts are relatively neutral (Qi, So, Cardenas, Hudson & Meng, 2016, p.3). In turn, this translates to less variability and a weak relationship with overall social and environmental perceptions.

An increase in event-associated visitors, and their subsequent spending, has a significantly positive economic impact on cities that host major sport event. However, for some host residents, this increased spending is not always perceived as positive. In a study of the perceived impacts of hosting a stage of the Tour de France in Ghent, it was found that the more residents perceived the event as generating economic and tourism growth within the area, the less likely they were to support hosting the event the following year (Balduck, Maes & Buelens, 2011). This finding differs from other research in which it was reported that the expected economic impact of hosting a major sport event was perceived as beneficial for residents and the host community (Getz, 2005; Gursoy, Kim, & Uysal, 2004). Balduck et al. (2011) argue that residents may unconsciously associate economic developments, such as hosting a major sport event, with disruptions such as increased traffic, pollution, noise and other inconveniences that an increase in tourists and event related infrastructure developments may cause. This argument implicates that the perception that the increase in tourists, and associated tourism spend, reduces the quality of life of residents.

Resident's perceptions of economic impact associated with hosting a major sport event change over time. The results of Kim, Gursoy and Lee's (2006) study on the 2002 FIFA World Cup in South Korea found that resident's perceptions of the economic impact of the event drastically changed after the event. Before the event, expectations were high about the economic benefits the event would generate. However, following the completion of the event, the perception was evident that the promoted economic benefits were perceived by residents to have been exaggerated (Kim et al., 2006). These results represent a common rhetoric in the lead up to the hosting of major sport events. Host governments and event organisers often glorify the potential economic benefits of hosting in order to gain support for the event from the local community. Subsequently, residents form their reference points based on those initial perceptions promoted by government and event organisers. When the

event does not achieve the expected economic growth, residents realise the outcomes were below their initial reference point, and therefore perceive the economic impact of the event negatively (Kim et al., 2006).

Although economic benefit is often positioned by policymakers as the most important metric to assess event feasibility, it really only captures part of the story. The exact measurement of the national or regional profit derived specifically from the event is difficult to ascertain. Furthermore, event associated profit is often exaggerated and does not take into account the perceived economic impact on residents and the host community. To fully understand the perceived impacts of hosting a major sport event on the local community, a balanced assessment must also include perceived environmental and social impacts

2.4.2 Perceived Social Impacts

Major sport events can provide positive perceived social impacts for a host community. Perceived benefits associated with hosting major sports include the strengthening of cultural values and building of community and national identity (Prayag et al., 2013). Furthermore, civic pride and enhanced community image (Kim et al., 2015), community inclusion and national unity (Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012) and cultural exchange of values and experiences between tourists and residents (Kim et al., 2003) have all been noted as positive perceived social impacts of sport events.

Hosting major sport events have also been considered a catalyst to support social initiatives run by the government. For example, the 2010 FIFA World Cup was an opportunity for South Africa to improve living conditions of the historically disadvantaged and to re-design apartheid cities (Pillay & Bass, 2008). Likewise, the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games was used as a mechanism to narrow the cultural divide between China and the rest of the world (Zhou & Ap, 2009) However, major sport events can also create negative social outcomes, which typically undermine community support for the event (Balduck et al.,

2011). Negative social impacts include community displacement, security issues, pedestrian and traffic congestion, and increased crime (Kim & Walker, 2012; Ohmann, Jones & Wilkes, 2006).

The manner in which social impacts of a major event are perceived is context-dependent. Fredline (2005) suggests that the perception of social impact depends on the historical, cultural, economic and environmental background of the host community. For example, in research on the perceived social impacts of hosting of the FIFA World Cup, differences emerged between Seoul (2002) and Munich (2006). For Seoul, Kim and Petrick (2005) found that image enhancement, the opportunity to boost international recognition, and community pride were the key benefits perceived by residents. Excessive spending in preparation for the event, and increased traffic congestion provided the greatest negative impacts of hosting the FIFA World Cup (Kim & Petrick, 2005). In comparison, Munich residents identified sense of community and improved relationships with people of different ethnic origin, improvement of local infrastructure such as extensions to the subway network and motorways as the benefits to their community (Ohmann, Jones & Wilkes, 2006). A perception of increased noise was the only significant negative social impact for Munich residents.

Whereas economic impacts once dominated bidding decisions for a major sport event, social impacts are now much more prominent. However, unlike economic impacts, social impacts can be difficult to measure objectively as many of them cannot be quantified, and they often have a different effect on different members of the community. For example, Waitt's (2003) research prior to the 2000 Olympics Games in Sydney indicated that young adults, families with young children, and migrants from non-english speaking backgrounds, perceived the social impacts associated with the Games more positively than those with differing demographic characteristics. Due to the differing perceptions of social impacts, it is

argued that local authorities are reluctant to assess the social impacts of event, and therefore pay too much attention to the economic impacts (Bull & Lovell, 2007, Yao & Schwarz, 2018)

2.4.3 Perceived Environment Impacts

It has emerged from previous studies of major sport event impact perceptions that residents do not regard environmental damage as a major concern (Mihalik & Simonetta, 1999; Ritchie & Aitken, 1984). However, there is increasing interest in event-related environmental issues associated with issues such as global warming, deforestation, loss of biodiversity and pollution (Collins, Jones & Munday, 2009; Jin, Zhang, Ma & Connoughton, 2011).

The natural environment is a paradox within the major sport event context. A balance must be maintained between the significant construction required to host an event, and preservation of the natural environment (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002). Construction of major sport event facilities and refurbishment of transport systems degrades the physical and biological environment by causing air, water, soil and visual pollution (Cashman, 2002). Other negative environmental impacts identified in previous research are associated with pollution caused by traffic congestion during the construction of event facilities (Fredline, 2004) and during refurbishment of the transport infrastructure (Cashman, 2002).

Notwithstanding the negative impact that major sport events can have on the environment, it is important to understand the perceived effect of these impacts on the quality of life of residents and the community, and subsequent support of the event. In the context of the 2002 Winter Olympic Games in Salt Lake City, residents with stronger concerns for the environment were more likely to oppose the hosting of the event (Deccio & Baloglu, 2003). A similar result emerged for residents of London in the context of the 2012 Olympics (Konstantaki & Wickens, 2010). In that study, the authors found that older residents were

more concerned with potential environmental impacts than their younger counterparts, and this was linked to less support of the event.

In contrast, major sport events can also serve as a catalyst for bringing attention to elements of the physical landscape and local heritage that would otherwise been ignored. For example, as part of Sydney's plans for hosting the 2000 Olympic Games, a government owned brownsite, which was previously location to noxious chemical industries, an abattoir and a dump, was transformed into a 760 hectare Olympic site (Waitt, 2003). Government and event organisers believed this increased positive perceptions of the environmental impacts of hosting the event, by creating a public legacy of remediated land, housing, parkland and sporting facilities (Waitt, 2003). Furthermore, in an attempt to reduce potential negative perceptions of environmental event impacts, some event organisers have created initiatives to lessen the environmental impact of the event. For example, consistent with the event being positioned as the 'Green Olympics', the Beijing Olympic Games' event organising committee launched over 160 projects to help improve the environment. These included measures to reduce air pollution through decreasing the use of government-owned vehicles, closing down industrial production lines, deferring construction, banning the entrance of high emission cars and trucks into Beijing and allowing only 50% of private vehicles to operate within the city (Jin et al., 2011). Jin et al (2011) found that the majority of residents perceived positive environmental impacts from the event, which ultimately related to their support for hosting future events.

Although major events provide an opportunity for a community to demonstrate environmental sustainability, they can also create damage the natural environment. How governments and event organisers are perceived to manage these environmental impacts, can have an effect on event support. Therefore, it is important to understand how perceived environmental impacts affect resident support for hosting a future major sport event. Social

Exchange Theory is a well-established framework in which researchers attempt to understand residents perceived event impacts.

2.5 Social Exchange Theory

The underlying psychology of impact perceptions and subsequent support for major events is best understood in terms of Social Exchange Theory (e.g., Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Waitt, 2003). Social Exchange Theory is "...concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between the individuals and groups in an interaction situation" (Ap, 1992, p. 668). Social Exchange Theory provides a framework for understanding transactions where the actions of one party are dependent on the actions of another (Inoue & Harvard, 2014). The assumption is that the potential rewards and costs of an exchange determine whether a relationship is positive or negative. Essentially, humans are rational beings who seek rewards and avoid punishments (West & Turner, 2017). When rewards exceed costs, a party may evaluate the exchange as satisfactory and beneficiary. In contrast, when costs exceed rewards, a party may evaluate the exchange as negative and seek to terminate the relationship. In the context of this research, Social Exchange Theory suggests that residents evaluate the prospect of hosting major sport events based on the expectation of rewards and costs (Inoue & Harvard, 2014; Waitt, 2003). Baldock, Maes and Buelens (2011, p. 110) characterise this process of evaluation in terms of the question, "what's in it for me?"

Despite its popularity and wide acceptance in tourism and event impact research, Social Exchange Theory is criticised for its focus on fulfilling individual needs from an individualistic perspective, which may not be applicable to community behaviour (Li, Hsu & Lawton, 2015; Miller, 2005). Rather, an alternative argument is that residents' support of an event is not based on direct individualised experiences, but is socially derived and context driven (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). In addition to evaluating individual experiences, event impact assessments should also include perceptions of how impacts are shared within a

community, based on the concept of Social Representations Theory (Al-Emadi et al., 2017; Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2006).

Originating from Moscovici (1981), and introduced to tourism research by Pearce, Moscardo and Ross (1996), Social Representations Theory provides a framework for understanding how perceived impacts towards a major event are shared within a community. Social representations are defined as “systems of preconceptions, images and values which have their own cultural meaning and persist independently of individual experience” (Moscovici, 1982, p.122). Studies on major event impacts are yet to fully embrace Social Representations Theory. Fredline and Faulkner’s (2000) research on two Australian motor racing events drew on Social Representations Theory, in addition to Social Exchange Theory. Results support Social Representations Theory through the identification of five homogenous subgroups of the local community based on the perceived event impacts on their personal quality of life. Residents were divided into five subgroups; 1) ambivalent supporters, 2) haters, 3) realists, 4) lovers, and 5) concerned for a reason (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). More recent event impact studies have drawn on Social Representations Theory by assessing residents perceived impacts based on the impact to community quality of life, in addition to personal quality of life impacts. Fredline, Deery and Jago’s (2006) research on tourism event impacts across five different cities in Australia measured support for tourism events in three parts; firstly, whether the specific impact was evident, if so, how it affected their personal quality of life and then their community quality of life. Results from their research suggests that perceived impacts on the quality of life of the community matter more in relation to tourism event support than those impacts at a personal level (Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2006).

Al-Emadi et al.’s (2017) research on the 2022 Qatar Football World Cup was the first major sport event study to examine impacts on residents’ perception of community quality of life, in addition to personal quality of life. Their research found that residents perceived their

personal quality of life would be impacted the most, both positively and negatively, due to the social impacts associated with hosting. They perceived their personal quality of life would be positively impacted due to the development of the sporting culture in Qatar, and negatively by the increase in crime and disruption to their everyday lives (Al-Emadi et al., 2017). Similarly, Qatar residents perceived that social impacts related to hosting the event would have the greatest positive impact on the community personal quality of life. However, community quality of life was perceived will be negatively affected by the economic impacts, such as the increased cost in living. Although this study does not directly measure perceived event impacts on personal and community quality of life in relation to event support, it does highlight how perceived event impacts for the hosting of a future event differ based on whether it will impact residents at an individual level, or collectively as a community. As such, it is essential to use a combination of Social Exchange Theory and Social Representation Theory frameworks in order to provide a robust understanding of how perceived event impacts affect event support.

2.6 Contextual Factors

In the unique context of a major sport event, there are other likely determinants of event support. Whether an individual is psychologically connected to sport, or not, may play a role in how they perceive impacts associated with hosting a major sport event. How one views the status of the potential event; in this case the Commonwealth Games, may also have an impact on impact perceptions.

2.6.1 Psychological Involvement

Rothschild (1984) defines psychological involvement as a state of interest, motivation or arousal between an individual and an activity or product. Involvement is multi-dimensional, and extends beyond individual motives and participation, to the relevance or meaning of an activity within the context of an individual's overall outlook on life (Ridinger, Funk, Jordan &

Kaplanidou, 2012). This construct is often conceptualized with three dimensions: centrality, hedonic value and symbolic value (Beaton, Funk, Ridinger & Jordan, 2011; Inoue & Harvard, 2014; Ridinger et al., 2012). Centrality reflects how central sport is within a person's life. Hedonic value refers to the enjoyment that is derived from sport. Finally, symbolic value indicates the self-expression value, or level of symbolism, of a sport (Beaton et al., 2011).

In research exploring the impact of events on residents, the involvement construct has been used to best understand support for an event (Fredline, 2004; Inoue & Harvard, 2014). The premise is that those who are involved in sport are more likely to perceive the hosting of an event, and its associated impacts, more favorably. Fredline's (2004) research assessed resident perceptions of a major sport event hosted in two Australian cities: Melbourne, which hosts the Australian Formula One Grand Prix, and the Gold Coast, which hosts the Indy 300. Although there are a range of positive and negative perceived impacts associated with hosting the event in both communities, the findings show that those residents who are involved or identify with motorsport are more likely to disregard or tolerate the negative impacts because of the offsetting benefit they derive through being entertained (Fredline, 2004).

2.6.2 Event Status

Perceptions of an event's status may also affect perceived event impacts. Previous research has largely explored event status perceptions in relation to sponsorship (Barros, de Barros, Santos & Chadwick, 2007; Douka, Bakaloumi & Tsasousi, 2008; Hallmann & Breuer, 2010). It has been argued event status perception differs from a personal liking of an event, because individuals can still perceive net negative benefits of a high status event (Speed & Thompson, 2000). Speed and Thompson's (2000) research into events sponsorship within an Australian context, was the first to measure perceived event status in relation to consumers' response to sponsorship. Their research found that those who perceived the event to be of high status were more likely to be interested and favour the events sponsors. Since this introduction of this measurement, perceived event status has

been well established in sport sponsorship research to examine a spillover effect between the event and event sponsors. For example, Barros, de Barros, Santos and Chadwick's (2007) study on sponsorship recall at the 2004 European Football Championship in Portugal found that those who perceived the status of the event highly were more likely able to identify the sponsors of the event.

Whilst it is clear that event status perceptions influence consumers' response to sponsorship, event status may also influence the residents' perceptions of the impacts associated with hosting a sport event. Mao, Zhang, Connaughton, Holland and Spengler (2013, p. 31) discussed event impact in terms of "value of association" in that those who have a high regard for a particular event are more likely to respond favourably to that which is associated with the event. (Mao et al., 2013; Speed & Thompson, 2000). Other than this research, no other studies have explored perceived event status in relation to event support or in relation to a major sport event context. However, it is argued that in the current research context, it is possible those who view the Commonwealth Games as a significant and high-status event may perceive the benefits and costs associated with hosting the event differently than if the event was of lower status. Therefore, it is important to include this measurement as part of the understanding support for bidding for

This chapter has reviewed literature related to referendum support and participation, civic paternalism, support for major sport event hosting, perceived event impacts, Social Exchange Theory, psychology involvement and event status. Having critically assessed the current state of knowledge on this research topic, the next chapter outlines a description of the research design and methodology.

METHODS

This chapter provides an outline of the research paradigm, research design, and participants. The first section identifies the research paradigm taken for this project, and then reflective of this, the choice of research design is explained. Finally, the participants of interest for the research are identified and defined.

3.1 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm is “a set of propositions that explain how the world is perceived” (Edwards & Skinner, 2009, p.18). The paradigm or philosophy of how researchers view the world, and their beliefs, dictate how research should be done, and how results should be interpreted (Bryman, 1988). Within the social sciences, the idea that studies can be seen as adopting different research paradigms is well established (Blaikie & Priest, 2017). By viewing a project through multiple paradigms, the researcher can capitalise on the strengths of each approach, and offset their different weaknesses (Smith, 2010). As a result, a more comprehensive understanding of the topic is possible.

In this project, both positivist and interpretative approaches are utilised. The purpose of Study 1 (Figure 3.1) is to measure resident perceptions in relation to support for a referendum to decide whether to bid for the Commonwealth Games, as well as likelihood to participate in that referendum. The purpose of Study 2 (Figure 3.1) is to explore the relationship between the perceived impacts of hosting the Commonwealth Games on residents, and their support for the event. Furthermore, understanding how these impacts are perceived to affects resident’s personal quality of life, and their community as a whole. In

both these studies, an observational cross-sectional research design, with a quantitative focus, is utilised. This type of design aligns well with a positivist approach.

Researchers who carry out research within the positivist paradigm explore the world through the empirical testing of hypotheses with a focus on objectiveness, and an aim to make generalisations if desired (Rudd & Johnson, 2010). The positivist framework allows a researcher to be independent from the study, with their role limited to the collection and interpretation of data in a usually observable and quantifiable way (Dudovskiy, 2018). In Study 1 and Study 2, the data is observed through surveying a sample of Auckland and Christchurch residents to determine perceptions on referenda use in a major sport event bid decision.

Whilst the quantitative studies of this project are aligned with the positivist approach, an interpretive approach was taken for Study 3. Study 3 is an exploration of support for referenda use in bid decisions by key decision-makers of a future Commonwealth Games bid. According to the interpretivist perspective, the purpose of inquiry is to understand a particular phenomenon, not to generalise to a general population (Farzanfar, 2005). The interpretative framework enables the researcher to generate in-depth insights into the perspectives and beliefs of key decisions-makers in a Commonwealth Games bid in New Zealand, and to understand the world and its experiences from the voice of those who live within it (Poczwadowski, Barott, & Henschen, 2002). Interpretive research attempts to search and uncover meaning, values and explanations whilst also identifying, explaining and analysing any emerging concepts (Flick, 2009).

Interpretive researchers place a strong emphasis on understanding phenomena that research participants experience. Therefore, truthful reporting, first hand experiences, and quotations of actual conversations from insider perspectives are important (Merriam, 1998). Interpretivist researchers employ data-gathering methods that are sensitive to context, and

which enable rich and detailed narrative of social phenomena by encouraging participants to speak freely (Neuman, 2003). In this study, key decision-makers of a potential bid are given the opportunity to communicate their perceptions of using the decision to bid for a major sport event. The perceptions of each participant are individual and unique, as there are multiple realities and truths, even for the same phenomena (Flick, 2009).

Positivism and interpretivism are usually positioned at opposing ends on the paradigm continuum. Whilst a multi methods design can accommodate both paradigms, having an explicit paradigm in a multi-methods study is recommended (Creswell, 2003; Greene & Caracelli, 1997). As such, a pragmatic approach was adopted for this project. Pragmatism allows for the development of greater understanding of a phenomenon (i.e. referenda use in major sport event hosting decisions), and broadens the focus to the research questions instead of a specific method (Creswell, 2003). In fact, multi-methods research is frequently associated with the philosophical framework of pragmatism (Schrauf, 2016). A pragmatic approach allows researchers to evade the contentious issues of the existence of a single truth and reality (Feilzer, 2010). It allows for the philosophical acceptance that there are singular and multiple realities that are open to empirical enquiry, and thus orient oneself toward solving practical problems in the ‘real world’ (Feilzer, 2010).

Figure 3.1
Design of studies

Study 1	Study 2	Study 3
Referendum Support and Participation	Commonwealth Games Support	Key Decision-maker Perceptions
Quantitative	Quantitative	Qualitative
Online questionnaire	Online questionnaire	Semi-structured interviews
Influence of Civic Duty and Political Cynicism	Perceived Event Impacts	
Multiple Regression	Multiple Regression	Thematic Analysis

3.2 Research Design

A research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data (Bryman & Bell, 2011). It includes specific procedures for collecting, analysing, and reporting research (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019). From a pragmatic perspective, conducting multi-methods research presumes a commitment to a multilayered world of objective and subjective dimensions, and an epistemological commitment to employing whatever methods of data and analysis are appropriate for answering the research question at hand (Schrauf, 2016). Multi-method research is when different approaches or methods are used in parallel or sequence, but are not integrated until inferences are made (Anguera, Blanco-Villasenor, Losada, Sanchez-Algarra, & Onwuegbuzie, 2018). This differs from mixed methods research, in which integration is an essential part of the research (Anguera et al., 2018). A multi-method approach allows the researcher to treat both data sets as separate and robust on their own merit, as well as the provides the ability to determine an overall view on the wider topic. This approach is appropriate for this project as there are three distinct areas of focus, which are explored in distinct studies. In addition, this project employed a different sample from the final study, thus making it inappropriate to integrate analysis of the data completely.

A cross-sectional research design was utilised in Study 1 and Study 2 to capture the perceptions and beliefs of a sample related to referenda and the impacts of hosting major sport events. Cross-sectional research designs involve the collection of data, typically through surveys, at a single point in time, to collect a body of data in connection to multiple variables (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This form of research design is used extensively to examine and detect patterns of associations within a population (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Salkind, 2010).

Survey research is well established in the social sciences, especially sociology and politics. It is used for developing generalisations about populations by selecting a sample that represents a larger population and uses the results to generalize about that population as a

whole (Guthrie, 2010). Questionnaires were used to survey a sample of Auckland and Christchurch residents to examine perceptions associated with referendum support and participation (Study 1) and event support (Study 2).

Deductive reasoning was used in the questionnaire design. This approach allows for theories to guide the researcher into making observations that attempt to test the worth of theory in a particular context (Smith, 2010). The final stage of this approach is a revision of known theory based on whether the theory tested is confirmed or not (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Therefore, questionnaire items measuring the outcome variables are grounded in previous research (Fredline, Jago & Deery, 2003; Inoue & Harvard, 2014; Schuck & de Vreese, 2015; Speed & Thompson, 2000) and together allowed for a comprehensive exploration of the use of referenda within a major sport event context.

The questionnaire was implemented with the assistance of Reid Research, a market research company based in Auckland, New Zealand. The use of a professional market research company to recruit study participants was a purposeful effort to maximise the trustworthiness and validity of the data. In previous studies, market research companies have been utilised for their ability to provide quota sampling (Rissel & Ming Wen, 2011). Quota sampling allows the researcher to develop control characteristics, or quotas, of population elements, such as age, gender and education (Malhotra, Nunan, & Birks, 2017). By doing so, these quotas allow the researcher to generate a sample that is proportionally representation of the demographic characteristics of the population. Those studies that have utilised quota sampling methods, through the employment of a professional market research company, have typically been attempting to explore perceptions of societal issues that relate to the entire community in question, such as legislation (Pettigrew & Pescud, 2013; Rissel & Ming Wen, 2011). As this research project explores similar collective societal and legislation issues, it was deemed appropriate method to utilise.

Study 3 of this project can be characterized as exploratory research because it is an examination of a relatively unknown phenomenon (Salkind, 2010). In social sciences, exploratory research refers to broad ranging, intentional, systematic data collection designed to maximise discovery based on description and direct understanding of a phenomenon (Given, 2008). The emergent generalisations are varied, and often include descriptive facts, social processes, perceptions and beliefs, found in a group, process, activity or situation under study (Given, 2008). This study explores the perceptions and beliefs of those key decision-makers who may be involved in a potential referendum on bidding to host the Commonwealth Games. The approach of inductive reasoning was seen as appropriate in this study, due to the lack of previous research on this group in relation to major sport event referenda. Inductive research is not driven by testing previous theory, but is instead concerned with generating theories or ideas from research in the attempt to make a conclusion out of observations (Smith, 2010).

Semi-structured interviews were employed to generate the qualitative data for Study 3. Interviews of this format provide structure through the use of scripted questions designed to elicit focused answers, while also allowing for the ability to pursue comments of interest to gain greater insight (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). This form of interviewing is particularly suited to situations when examining uncharted territory where unanticipated information may arise (Adams, 2015). Semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer latitude to pursue further questioning in response to what are seen as significant responses (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

3.3 Research Participants

In the context of a research project, a population is referred to as a “large group to which a researcher wants to generalise the sample results” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p.224). The population of interest for Study 1 and Study 2 of the project were local residents

in potential host cities of a future Commonwealth Games in New Zealand. To obtain trustworthy and valid results, quota sampling was used. Quota sampling is non-probability sampling technique that is used extensively within market research (Malhotra, Nunan, & Birks, 2017). This form of sampling allows the researcher to develop control characteristics, or quotas, of population elements, such as age, gender and education (Malhotra, Nunan, & Birks, 2017). By doing so, these quotas allow the researcher to generate a sample that is proportionally representation of the demographic characteristics of the population.

For Study 1 and Study 2, respondents were recruited from Reid Research's database between 16th June 2017 and 27th June 2017. In addition to ensuring that quotas were met in regards to age, gender and education, those who were under 18 years old, and did not reside in either one of the hypothetical host cities (Auckland or Christchurch) were excluded from the study. Exclusion criteria were based on measuring responses to those who would be involved in a hypothetical Commonwealth Games referendum. This includes those who are of age that is eligible to vote in New Zealand (18 years old and older), and residing in one of the hypothetical host cities. Respondents were approximately evenly split between Christchurch (n=301) and Auckland (n=302) residents.

Purposive sampling was used in the recruitment of interview participants for Study 3. The interviewees were purposefully selected to represent views of key stakeholders that would be involved in a Commonwealth Games bid decision. Purposeful sampling allows the researcher to sample participants in a strategic way, so that those sampled are likely to have insights related to the research questions being posed (Bryman & Bell, 2011). It also ensures that the resulting sample is varied in relation to key characteristics (Bryman & Bell, 2011). To capture the breadth of perspectives on this issue, a variety of people from stakeholder organizations were approached. The researcher identified six groups from which to recruit study participants: 1) senior government officials, 2) city councilors in both cities, 3) senior

major sport event officials in both cities, 4) senior national sport organisation managers, 5) National Olympic Committee managers and 6) bid consultants for major events. Using the researchers own network and through facilitated introductions, potential interview participants were directly invited through email or phone. In a few instances, invitations were communicated through official channels.

3.4 Data Analysis

As a multi-method approach was utilised for this research project, numerous tools were used to analyse the data. The following is an overview of the analysis for each of the three studies.

3.4.1 Study 1

Descriptive statistics were utilised to provide basic information about the variables in the dataset. ANOVA was used to explore potential group differences on variables. To further analyse the data, multinomial logistic regression was used to examine the relationship between the independent variables on the two outcomes; referendum support and referendum participation.

3.4.2 Study 2

Similar data analysis tools that were employed in Study 1 were also utilised in Study 2. Initially, descriptive statistics were generated for each impact and the level of the impact (i.e., personal or community). Paired sample t-tests were then used to assess perception of impacts related to either personal or community context. Finally, stepwise logistic regression examined the relationships between the determinants and the outcome variable (i.e., bid support). The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) was used to assess model fit for each of the models.

3.4.3 Study 3

Thematic analysis was initially employed to organize the transcribed interview data from Study 3. Thematic analysis moves beyond counting explicit words or phrases, and allows a greater focus on identifying and describing both implicit and explicit ideas within the data (Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012). The approach allows the exploration of participants lived experiences, perspectives, behaviour and practices, the social practices that influence and shape phenomena, the norms and rules that govern particular practices, as well as the social construction of meaning and representation of social objects in particular contexts (Braun & Clarke, 2013). As such, thematic analysis provides an appropriate method to explore key decision-makers perceptions of referenda use within the major sport event bidding process. Thematic networks were developed which allow for links and meanings to be explored between themes in a structured manner (Attride-Stirling, 2001). NVivo was used to help find simple characteristics across the transcribed data set and then systematically code them. This process started with the researcher becoming familiar with, and reflecting on the data collected from the interviews. This was followed by an initial coding stage, in which relevant pieces of data were given descriptive codes. Codes are comprised of a descriptive word or phrase that is intended to describe a fragment of data, and are primarily text-based (Rogers & Goodrick, 2015). Next, clusters of codes were formed into a group. Each group incorporates a collection of codes that relate to the same issue, topic or feature in the data. From there, similarities, differences and networks between groups of codes were considered, themes derived and ultimately analysed (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Bryman & Bell, 2011).

STUDY 1

Support for referendum use and participation to bid for a major sport event

A corresponding manuscript for this chapter has been submitted to Sport Management Review.

4.1 Introduction

Reflecting the contentious issue of whether host communities benefit from major sport events (Kim & Petrick, 2005), referenda are increasingly used to inform bid decisions. For example, the city of Sion (Switzerland) withdrew their bid for the 2026 Winter Olympics after 54% of residents voted against the bid in a referendum (Morgan, 2018). In the 2022 Winter Olympic bidding process, four potential host cities held referenda: Krakow, Poland; Oslo, Norway; St. Moritz, Switzerland; and Munich, Germany. In Krakow, St. Moritz and Munich, citizens indicated their lack of support for the bid through the referenda and the bids were removed as a result. While citizens living in Oslo voted to support the bid, politicians later overturned the vote and withdrew their bid (Zaccaradi, 2014). Despite the belief that major sport event success is associated with host community support for the event (Kim, Jun, Walker & Drane, 2015; Yong & Ap, 2008), local residents are usually excluded from decisions, including whether to bid (Coates & Wicker, 2015). Bidding decisions are often made by a small group of politicians, lack transparency and reflect global trends rather than local community wishes (Gursoy, Nunkoo & Milito, 2017).

Decision making related to major sport event bids is best understood in the context of the wider political climate and citizen engagement. Representative democracy is changing, insofar as citizens are increasingly demanding a greater role in decision making (Colombo, 2018; Schuck &

de Vreese, 2015). That role may take the form of a referendum, a process which enhances collective citizen decision-making and reduces political power. Referenda may be initiated by citizens or the government and be either binding or non-binding (i.e., indicative only). The extent to which citizens support and ultimately participate in referenda is important for various community and government stakeholders. Referenda support refers to a belief that the implementation of a voting process used to express citizens' opinions is appropriate (Anderson & Goodyear-Grant, 2010; Rose & Borz, 2013) and is closely associated with populism (Anderson & Goodyear-Grant, 2010). Populism is defined as the premise "that ordinary citizens should come together to act politically in order to transcend artificial decisions created by greed, corruption, and elite dominance" (Anderson & Goodyear-Grant, 2010, p. 228). Referendum participation refers to the act of casting a vote in the referendum.

Previous research has indicated that two constructs are linked to referenda support and participation. Civic duty is the belief that a citizen has a moral obligation to vote, and abstaining is wrong (Blais & Galais). The second construct, political cynicism, has often been combined with feelings of powerless and meaningless, however, there is a more recent argument that suggests political cynicism does not necessarily lead to disengagement but rather engages individuals in voting participation as a form of critical citizenship (Southwell, 2008). Despite their clear relevance to referenda support and participation, civic duty and political cynicism have not been explored with a major sport event referendum context.

Previous research on sport-related referenda primarily focuses on the use of public funds to build sport stadia in North America (Brown & Paul, 1999; Coates & Humphreys, 2006; Lenskyj, 2004). Studies have often used data collected in conjunction with the referendum itself rather than to capture related sentiments/attitudes explicitly (Coates & Wicker, 2015). No academic research has yet investigated support for referenda use in the decision to host a major sport event, nor has research explored residents' intention to participate in such a major sport event referendum.

Furthermore, doing so hypothetically before a referendum allows for residents to provide an unbiased view before any external groups - including the media and local interest groups - exerted influence. Recognizing the value in enhancing host community engagement with major sport events, the purpose of this study is to investigate the determinants of referenda support and participation in the context of a major sport event.

The context of this research is a potential future Commonwealth Games bid from New Zealand. This study provides at least three important contributions. First, it offers a better understanding of local resident support for the use of referenda in the decision to bid for major sport events. Second, it provides a better understanding of intention to participate in referenda on bidding for major sport events. Third, this research tests predictors of referenda support and participation derived from the political science discipline, the utility of which has not been examined within a major sport event context.

4.2 Methods

Quantitative methods were used in conjunction with this study to describe the phenomena, but also understand what causes it (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This approach also allows the researcher to make inferences about the population from the data (Bryman & Bell, 2011). As this overarching aim of this study is to understand a population's perceptions of a major sport event referendum, a quantitative approach featuring a questionnaire is appropriate.

4.3 Procedure

A questionnaire was utilised to obtain data in June 2017. Reid Research, a market research company, was enlisted to distribute the questionnaires. A total of 603 New Zealanders completed the questionnaire with items querying psychological determinants of support for a Commonwealth Games referendum and their intention to participate. The sample comprised both Auckland residents ($n = 302$) and Christchurch residents ($n = 301$).

The sample size is comparable to similar event impacts studies (Balduck, Mae & Buelens, 2011; Bull & Lovell, 2007; Cegielski & Mules, 2002; Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2006) and resembles New Zealand population parameters in terms of age and gender. Respondents were excluded if less than 18 years old based on the current voting age in New Zealand and eligibility to vote in a hypothetical event bidding referendum. If a respondent reported an age less than 18 or not residing in either Auckland or Christchurch, the questionnaire closed.

4.3.1 Instrumentation

First, respondents were asked on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly against, 7=strongly in favour) to what extent they were in favour of holding a referendum to decide whether their city should bid for the Commonwealth Games. Respondents were also asked whether they believed this referendum should be binding or non-binding. Next, respondents were asked on a 7-point Likert scale (1=very unlikely, 7=very likely) how likely they were to participate in such a referendum.

Sixteen items were used to measure the psychological constructs related to politics (i.e., political cynicism, civic duty, political interest, habitual voting, political ideology, political efficacy, satisfaction with democracy) (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). Five items were used to measure context related constructs, including involvement (Inoue & Harvard, 2014) and event status (Speed & Thompson, 2000). All items (see Table 1.1) were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree). The underlying structure of the instrument was analysed using exploratory factor analysis. Multinomial logistic regression was used to analyse the two regression models.

Table 4.1
Referendum Support and Participation Questionnaire Items

Political Cynicism	Almost all politicians will sell out their ideals or break their promises if it will increase their power
	Most politicians are in politics for what they can get out of it personally
	Most politicians are truthful with the voters
	Most politicians are dedicated and we should be grateful to them for the work they do
Civic Duty	It's every citizen's duty to vote in an election
	I would be seriously neglecting my duty as a citizen if I didn't vote
	I feel a sense of satisfaction when I vote
	I would feel very guilty if I didn't vote in an election
Political Interest	How interested are you in political issues?
Habitual Voting	Of all elections in which you were eligible to vote, how many times have you actually voted?
Political Ideology	Indicate your political orientation
Political Efficacy	People like me don't have any say about what the government does
	I don't think the government cares much what people like me think
	Having referendums make the government pay attention to what people think
Satisfaction with Democracy	Regardless of who is in government, on the whole, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the way democracy works?
	How satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the way democracy works in Auckland/Christchurch?
Involvement	I really enjoy following sport
	Sport is a central role in my life
	Being a sport fan says a lot about who I am
Event Status	The Commonwealth Games is a significant sport event
	The Commonwealth Games will be important to where I live

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Demographic profile of the sample

The largest age group in the sample were those 25 to 34 years old, and they represented 19.6% of overall respondents. The remainder of the percentages based on age group are displayed in Table 4.2. The gender of the sample was fairly evenly split (49.1% male, 50.9% female). In terms of education, 43.9% reported having completed a university education, while smaller percentages reported other educational achievement (Table 4.3).

The largest age group in the Auckland sample were 25 to 34 years old (19.9%), while in Christchurch it was those 45 to 54 years old (19.6%). Gender balance in the two subgroups was very similar to the overall samples. The majority of the Auckland sample reported

having completed a university education (52.6%). This sub-group was also largest in the Christchurch sample but smaller comparatively (35.2%).

Table 4.2
Age of Sample

Age	n	Overall %	Auckland %	Christchurch %
18-24	38	6.3	6.0	6.6
25-34	118	19.6	19.9	19.3
35-44	108	17.9	18.9	16.9
45-54	113	18.7	17.9	19.6
55-64	103	17.1	17.9	16.3
65-69	39	6.5	5.6	7.3
70+	84	13.9	13.9	14.0

Table 4.3
Completed Education of Sample

Education	n	Overall %	Auckland %	Christchurch %
Primary School	2	.3	0	.7
Secondary School	173	28.7	23.8	33.6
Technical	135	22.4	18.2	26.6
University	265	43.9	52.6	35.2
Other	28	4.6	5.3	4.0

4.5 Descriptive Statistics

4.5.1 Referendum Support

Respondents indicated that they were supportive (1- strongly against, 7- strongly in favour) of holding a referendum to decide whether to host the Commonwealth Games in their region ($M = 4.46$, $SD = 1.902$). In order to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference on support for a referendum based on location, an independent t-test was performed. Results showed that support for a Commonwealth Games referendum is slightly higher in Christchurch ($M = 4.61$, $SD = 1.879$) than Auckland ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.917$), but, the difference was not statistically significant, $t(601) = -1.855$, $p = .064$.

Referendum support is slightly higher for males ($M = 4.58$, $SD = 1.949$) than females ($M = 4.36$, $SD = 1.853$), but the difference was also not statistically significant, $t(601) = -1.438$, $p = 0.151$.

Descriptively, other than the 70+ age group, younger people were more likely to support a Commonwealth Games referendum (Table 4.4). To further explore the effect on age on referendum support, ANOVA was performed. First, the assumption of normality must be tested, which explores if the dependent variable should be normally distributed across each group. There were indications that the variable was not normally distributed for each age group, based on a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 4.5) and inspection of histograms, but it has been argued that ANOVA is robust to non-normal data (Maxwell & Delaney, 2004). As assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met, $F(6, 596) = 1.052$, $p = .391$. There was a statistically significant difference on support for a Commonwealth Games referendum between the age groups, $F(6, 596) = 4.206$, $p < .001$. When there are an uneven number of cases in each group of the independent variable, a modified Tukey-Kramer post hoc test is appropriate (Hayter, 1984). This indicated the 55-64 year old age group were more supportive than all younger groups and support generally increased based on age. There also was a significant difference between on support between the 18-24 age group and the 65-59 age group, with the younger group more supportive (Table 4.6)

Table 4.4
Referendum Support based on Age

Age	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
18-24	38	5.24	1.635
25-34	118	4.70	1.808
35-44	108	4.62	1.771
45-54	113	4.58	1.908
55-64	103	3.81	1.049
65-69	39	3.95	1.891
70+	84	4.48	1.904

Table 4.5
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality; Referendum Support and Age

Age	Statistic	n	p
18-24	.179	38	.003
24-34	.179	118	<.001
35-44	.159	108	<.001
45-54	.135	113	<.001
55-64	.118	103	.001
65-69	.177	39	.003
70+	.144	84	<.001

Table 4.6
Age Group Mean Differences on Referendum Support

	18-24	24-24	25-44	45-54	55-64	65-69	70+
18-24							
24-34	.533						
35-44	.616	.083					
45-54	.662	.128	.045				
55-64	1.431*	.898*	.815*	.769*			
65-69	1.288*	.755	.672	.627	-.143		
70+	.761	.227	.144	.099	-.670	-.527	

* Mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Descriptively, the most supportive group of a Commonwealth Games referendum were those with just a primary school education ($M = 5.50$, $SD = 2.121$) (Table 4.7). The least supportive group of a Commonwealth Games referendum were those with a university

education ($M = 4.22$, $SD = 1.988$). The differences in referendum support based on education were further explored through ANOVA. When testing for data normality, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 4.8) and inspection of histograms indicated that support for a Commonwealth Games referendum was not normally distributed for each education group, but as for age, moved forward with ANOVA anyway. As indicated by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, due to a small sample primary school educated respondents ($n = 2$), the analysis indicated an error for this sample. Therefore, this group was withdrawn from ANOVA. Levene's test indicated that the assumption of variances was not met, $F(4, 598) = 2.717$, $p = .029$. When homogeneity of variances is violated, a Welch ANOVA can be used (Kulinskaya, Dollinger & Bjorkestol, 2011). In this case there were no statistically significant differences on referendum support between age groups $F(4, 598) = 1.744$, $p = .236$.

Table 4.7
Referendum Support based on Education

Education	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
Primary School	2	5.50	2.121
Secondary School	173	4.58	1.859
Technical	135	4.76	1.851
University	265	4.22	1.988
Other	28	4.61	1.286

Table 4.8
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality; Referendum Support and Education

Completed Education	Statistic	n	p
Primary School	.260	2	-
Secondary School	.170	173	<.001
Technical	.184	135	<.001
University	.128	265	<.001
Other	.211	28	.002

4.5.2 Referendum Participation

Respondents were asked to rate how likely they were to participate in a referendum to decide whether to host the Commonwealth Games in their city on a 7 point scale (1- very unlikely, 7- very likely). Generally, the intention to participate was strong ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.716$). Results of an independent t-test show that intention to participate in a hypothetical referendum is slightly higher in Christchurch ($M = 5.65$, $SD = 1.651$), than Auckland ($M = 5.45$, $SD = 1.775$), but the difference was not statistically significant, $t(601) = -1.486$, $p = .138$. Likelihood to participate in a referendum is slightly higher for males ($M = 5.64$, $SD = 1.703$) than females ($M = 5.46$, $SD = 1.727$), but the difference was also not statistically significant, $t(601) = 1.384$, $p = .200$.

Descriptively, those respondents who were between 45 to 64 years were less likely to participate in a referendum than their younger and older counterparts (Table 4.9). The 65 to 69 age group were the most likely to participate in a referendum ($M = 5.82$, $SD = 1.620$). An ANOVA was performed to further explore referendum participation based on age. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 4.10) and inspection of histograms, indicated that the referendum participation variable was not normally distributed for each age group. However, ANOVA is considered robust to non-normal data (Maxwell & Delaney, 2004). Levene's test for equality of variables showed the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met, $F(6, 596) = .628$, $p = .708$. Based on the ANOVA results, there was no statistically significant difference in likelihood to participate in a Commonwealth Games referendum between the age groups, $F(6, 596) = .382$, $p = .891$.

Table 4.9
Referendum Participation based on Age

Age	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
18-24	38	5.74	1.671
25-34	118	5.53	1.678
35-44	108	5.57	1.590
45-54	113	5.45	1.894
55-64	103	5.45	1.731
65-69	39	5.82	1.620
70+	84	5.61	1.756

Table 4.10
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality; Referendum Participation and Age

Age	Statistic	n	p
18-24	.273	38	<.001
24-34	.234	118	<.001
35-44	.223	108	<.001
45-54	.227	113	<.001
55-64	.223	103	<.001
65-69	.280	39	<.001
70+	.250	84	<.001

Descriptively, those who were educated in a tertiary institute were the most likely group to participate in a referendum ($M = 5.67$, $SD = 1.621$), and those whose highest education was secondary school were the least likely to participate ($M = 5.44$, $SD = 1.847$) (Table 4.11). The differences in referendum participation based on education were further explored through ANOVA. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 4.12) and inspection of histograms indicated that likelihood to the referendum participation variable was not normally distributed. However, non-normal data is acceptable in ANOVA analyses (Maxwell & Delaney, 2004). As assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met, $F(4, 598) = .862$, $p = .487$. There was no statistically

significant difference in likelihood to participate in a Commonwealth Games referendum based on level of education, $F(4, 598) = .659, p = .621$.

Table 4.11
Referendum Participation based on Education

Education	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
Primary School	2	5.50	2.121
Secondary School	173	5.44	1.847
Technical	135	5.67	1.621
University	265	5.60	1.694
Other	28	5.21	1.548

Table 4.12
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality; Referendum Participation and Education

Completed Education	Statistic	n	p
Primary School	.260	2	-
Secondary School	.229	173	<.001
Technical	.247	135	<.001
University	.241	265	<.001
Other	.161	28	.060

4.6 Independent Variables

Descriptive statistics were generated for each of the 21 independent variables (Table 13). Respondents reported high levels of civic duty, and moderate levels of political cynicism; particularly in relation to the strong belief that politicians will sell out their ideals or break promises if it will increase their power ($M = 5.39, SD = 1.366$). The majority of respondents were either National party supporters (36.5%) or Labour party supporters (25.5%), with a small minority of respondents stating they would not vote in an upcoming election (3.6%) (Table 4.14). Differences between Auckland and Christchurch residents are minimal for each independent variable, and t-tests indicate that differences are not statistically significant (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13
Descriptive Statistics of Continuous Independent Variables

Variable	Overall Mean (SD)	Auckland Mean (SD)	Christchurch Mean (SD)	T-Test
Political Cynicism – Promises	5.39 (1.366)	5.45 (1.359)	5.36 (1.375)	$t(601) = .584, p = .927$
Political Cynicism - Personally	4.60 (1.568)	4.63 (1.525)	4.56 (1.611)	$t(601) = .582, p = .474$
Political Cynicism – Truthful*	4.63 (1.439)	4.64 (1.380)	4.61 (1.498)	$t(601) = .237, p = .137$
Political Cynicism - Dedicated*	4.03 (1.464)	3.99 (1.428)	4.06 (1.501)	$t(601) = -.585, p = .239$
Civic Duty – Citizen Duty	6.05 (1.378)	6.09 (1.412)	6.02 (1.344)	$t(601) = .589, p = .679$
Civic Duty – Neglected Duty	5.85 (1.557)	5.90 (1.587)	5.80 (1.527)	$t(601) = .736, p = .538$
Civic Duty - Satisfaction	5.58 (1.469)	5.63 (1.497)	5.52 (1.441)	$t(601) = .899, p = .603$
Civic Duty - Guilt	5.18 (1.814)	5.23 (1.759)	5.13 (1.869)	$t(601) = .669, p = .141$
Political Interest	5.00 (1.504)	5.10 (1.423)	4.90 (1.577)	$t(601) = 1.681, p = .241$
Habitual Voting	5.63 (1.713)	5.70 (1.629)	5.56 (1.793)	$t(601) = 1.007, p = .158$
Political Efficacy – No Say*	3.84 (1.670)	3.89 (1.704)	3.80 (1.638)	$t(601) = -.613, p = .609$
Political Efficacy – No Care*	3.54 (1.617)	3.60 (1.655)	3.48 (1.578)	$t(601) = -.893, p = .276$
Political Efficacy - Attention	3.89 (1.505)	3.88 (1.483)	3.90 (1.529)	$t(601) = -.132, p = .878$
Satisfaction with Democracy - General	4.46 (1.528)	4.47 (1.522)	4.45 (1.537)	$t(601) = .121, p = .605$
Satisfaction with Democracy - NZ	4.52 (1.540)	4.58 (1.572)	4.46 (1.509)	$t(601) = .964, p = .604$
Event Status - Significant	5.83 (1.356)	5.76 (1.382)	5.91 (1.328)	$t(601) = -1.317, p = .279$
Event Status - Important	5.30 (1.590)	5.23 (1.577)	5.38 (1.603)	$t(601) = -1.160, p = .664$
Involvement – Pleasure	5.05 (1.695)	5.09 (1.680)	5.01 (1.712)	$t(601) = .551, p = .596$
Involvement - Centrality	4.37 (1.897)	4.45 (1.895)	4.29 (1.895)	$t(601) = 1.065, p = .917$
Involvement – Symbolic Value	4.04 (1.827)	4.11 (1.858)	3.97 (1.795)	$t(601) = .935, p = .317$

*Reverse coded

Table 4.14
Political Party Support

Political Party	Overall n	Overall Percent	Auckland Percent	Christchurch Percent
National	220	36.5	37.1	35.9
Labour	154	25.5	26.2	24.9
Green	87	14.4	14.2	14.6
NZ First	68	11.3	11.3	11.3
Other Party	52	8.6	8.3	9.0
Wouldn't Vote	22	3.6	3.0	4.3

4.7 Exploratory Factor Analysis

The underlying structure of items measuring four of the multivariate independent constructs (i.e., civic duty, political cynicism, political efficacy and involvement) were assessed using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with an oblique, direct oblimin rotation. The structure of the four constructs was largely supported with the exception of EFF3, which did not load with the other efficacy items (see Table 4.15). Unlike EFF1 and EFF2, EFF3 was not reverse coded perhaps contributing to that psychometric issue. Having assessed the wording of the two remaining items, it was determined that the nature of political efficacy was adequately captured by EFF1 and EFF2. Remaining items for each of the four constructs were subsequently used to create composite variables.

Table 14.15

Factor Loadings for Political Cynicism, Civic Duty, Political Efficacy and Involvement

Items	Pattern Matrix			
	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3	Component 4
CYN4	-0.910			
CYN3	-0.796			
CYN2	-0.742			
CYN1	-0.729			
EFF3	0.587			
CD2		0.913		
CD1		0.869		
CD3		0.836		
CD4		0.809		
INV2			0.961	
INV3			0.936	
INV1			0.914	
EFF1				0.957
EFF2				0.750

4.8 General Assumptions

Prior to multivariate testing, general assumptions, including linearity, normality, multicollinearity and homoscedasticity were checked for the outcome variable. An inspection of scatterplots indicated a linear relationship and homoscedasticity between the independent variables and the outcome variable of referendum support (Figure 4.1), and likelihood to participate in a referendum (Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.1

Test of Linearity – Scatterplot (Referendum Support)

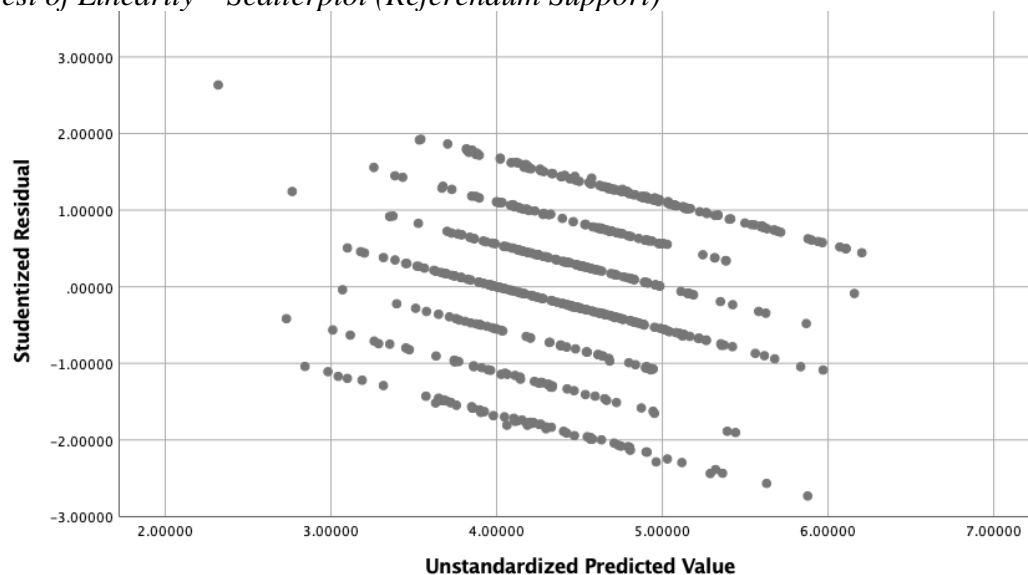
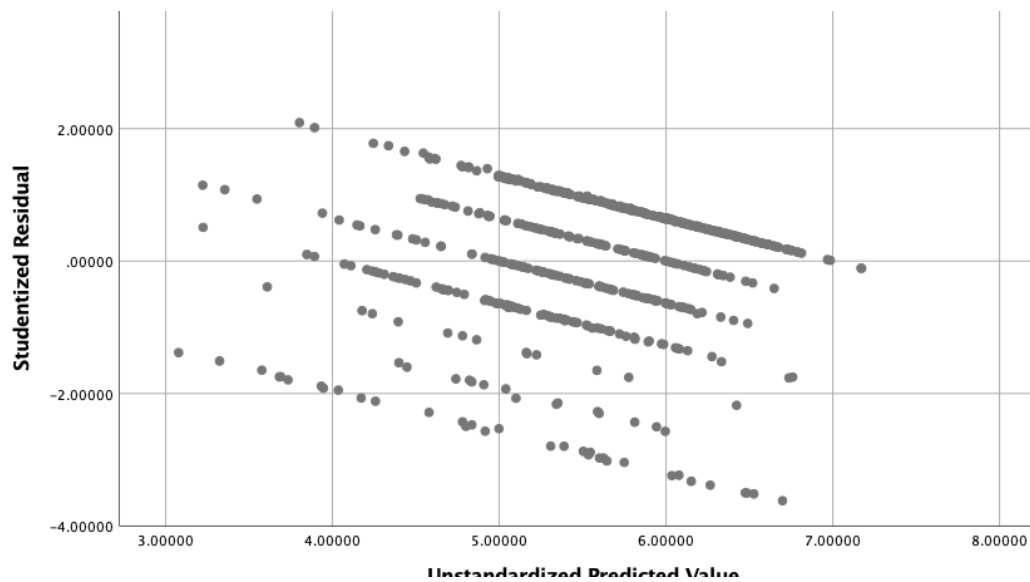


Figure 4.2
Test for Linearity – Scatterplot (Referendum Participation)



Assessing normality is best carried out through an inspection of a histogram and Q-Q plot to determine whether the standardised residuals are normally distributed (Field, 2018). In a histogram one needs to assess whether the curve of best fit appears normal or appears skewed. Typically, a histogram with a normal curve indicates normal distribution of standardised residuals. A Q-Q plot shows the normality of the studentized residuals. If studentized residuals are normally distributed, the points will align along the diagonal line.

Inspection of the histogram (Figure 4.3) and Q-Q plot (Figure 4.4) indicated that responses for all independent variables on the referendum support variable were not normally distributed. The histogram shows that standardised residuals appear to be unevenly distributed, indicating non-normality. The Q-Q plot shows that the studentized residual points do not align along the diagonal line, also indicating non-normality. Non-normality is also evident in the histogram (Figure 4.5) and Q-Q plot (Figure 4.6) for all independent variables on the referendum participation variable.

Figure 4.3
Test of Normality – Histogram (Referendum Support)

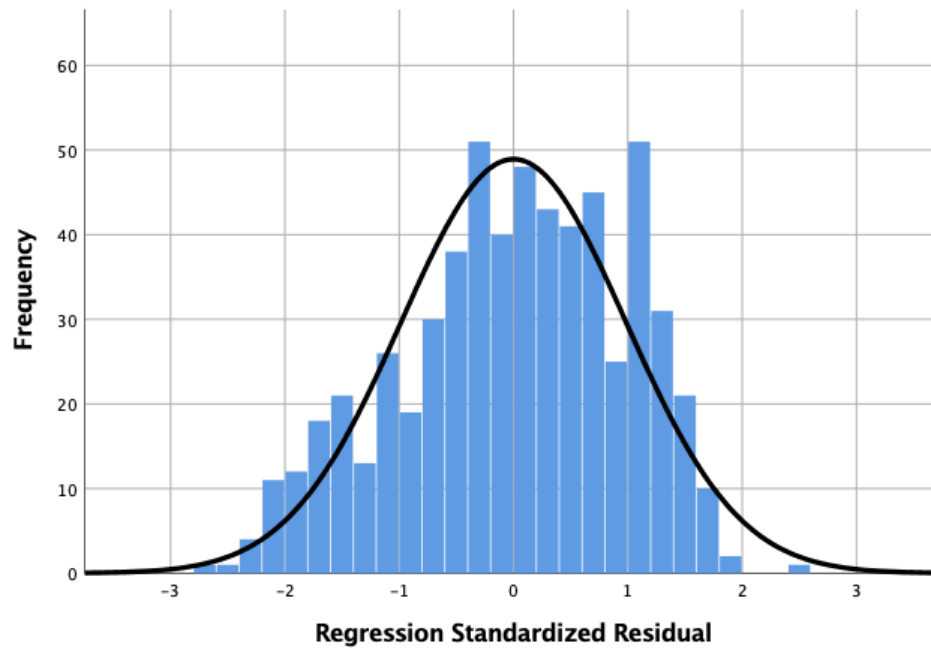


Figure 4.4
Test of Normality – Q-Q Plot (Referendum Support)

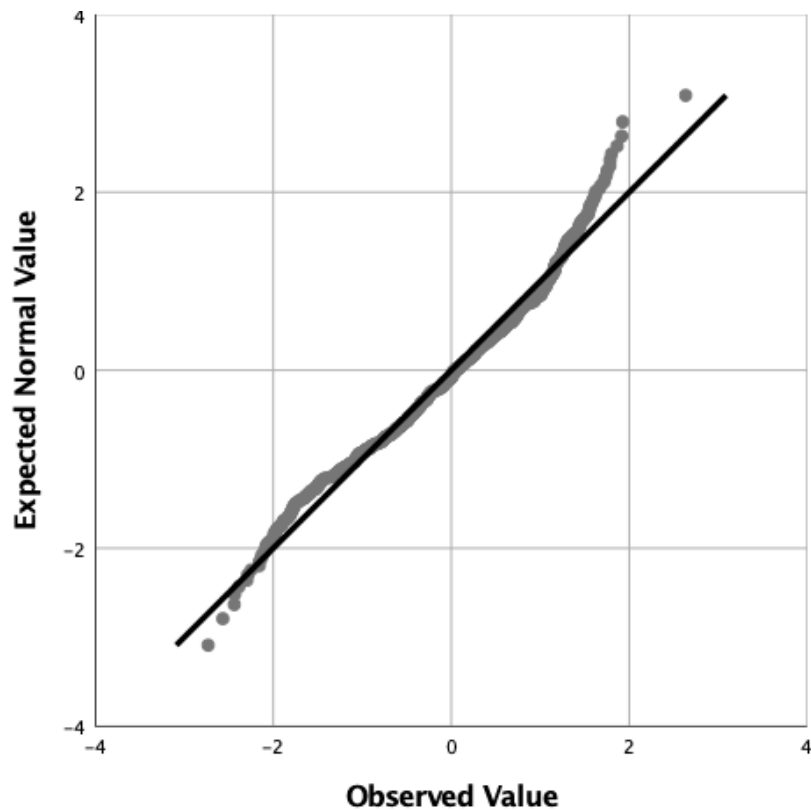


Figure 4.5

Test of Normality – Histogram (Referendum Participation)

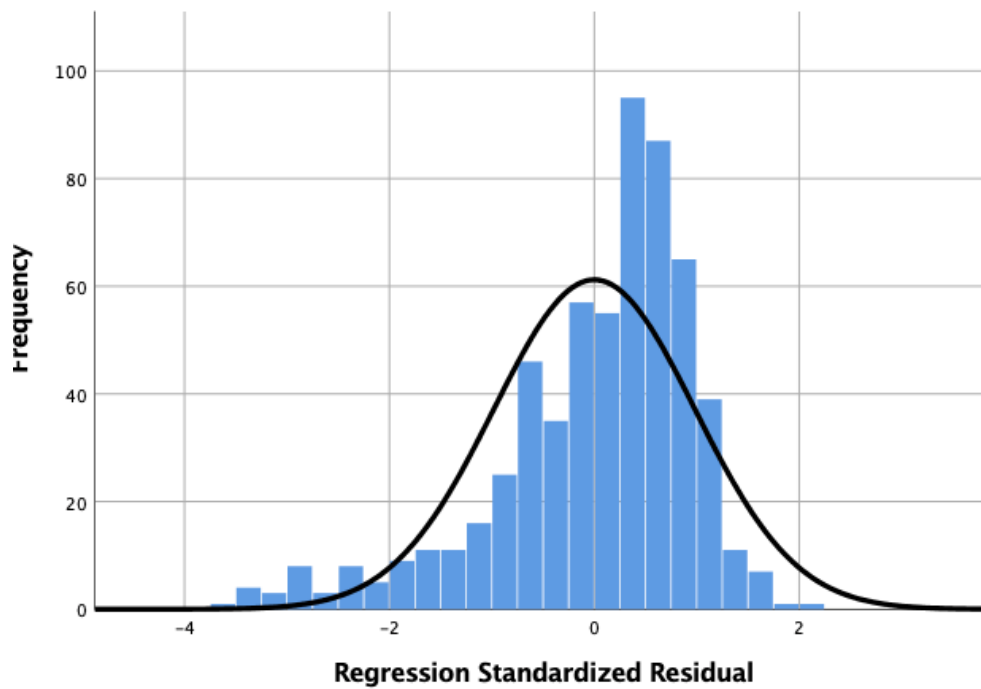
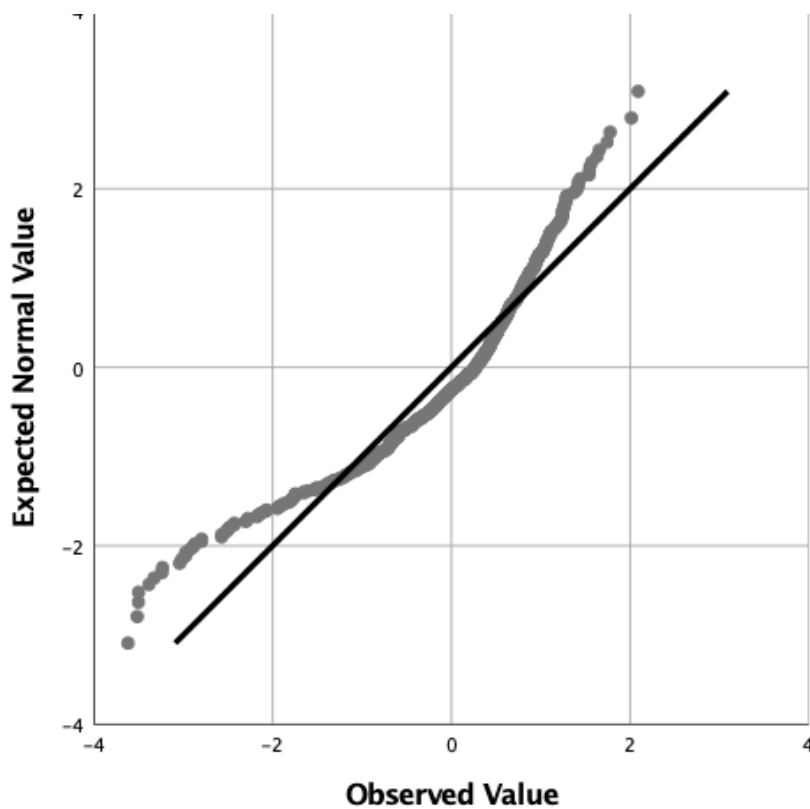


Figure 4.6

Test of Normality – Q-Q Plots (Referendum Participation)



When the assumption of normality has not been met, Spearman's correlation can be used to determine whether independent variables are multicollinear, as it does not require normal data (Rebekic, Loncaric, Petrovic, & Maric, 2015). Data that the correlation coefficient displayed a weak effect size (i.e. .39 and under) (Cohen, 1988) could be included together within a multiple regression model (Table 4.16).

Table 4.16
Spearman's Rank-Order Correlation of Independent Variables

	Political Cynicism	Civic Duty	Political Interest	Habitual Voting	Political Efficacy	Satisfaction with Democracy	Event Status	Involvement
Political Cynicism								
Civic Duty	-.069							
Political Interest	-.064	.446						
Habitual Voting	-.067	.506	.398					
Political Efficacy	.242	-.056	-.115	-.060				
Satisfaction with Democracy	-.373	.255	.169	.141	-.212			
Event Status	-.050	.184	.059	.019	-.098	.188		
Involvement	-.125	.158	.136	.146	.046	.191	.328	

4.9 Ordinal Logistic Regression

Ordinal logistic regression was employed to assess relationships between the independent variables and the two outcomes; referendum support and referendum participation. One of the foundational assumptions underlying ordinal logistic regression is that of proportional odds (Field, 2009). This means that it assumed that each independent variable has an identical effect at each cumulative split of the dependent variable (Field, 2009). Proportional odds for each of the models were assessed using a full likelihood ratio

test, comparing the fitted model to a model with varying location parameters. Full likelihood ratio tests indicated there was a violation of the proportional odds assumption for both the referendum support model, $X^2(35) = 52.576$, $p = .029$, and participation intention model, $X^2(35) = 63.537$, $p = .002$. When the proportional odds assumption is rejected in ordinal logistic regression, a multinomial logistic regression is recommended (Hosmer, Lemeshow & Sturdivant, 2013).

4.10 Multinomial Logistic Regression

Whilst proportional odds are not a requirement of multinomial logistic regression, there must be no multicollinearity or a linear relationship between continuous independent variables and the outcome variable (Field, 2009). As the independent variables are treated as ordinal, testing for linearity is not required (Field, 2009). Multicollinearity was previously tested for as part of the general assumptions (Table 4.16), which indicated a moderate correlation between the independent variables civic duty and political interest. Therefore, this relationship was taken into account when assessing the results of the regression.

Multinomial regression allows for exploration of relationships at each level of the two outcomes (i.e., from strong opposition to strongly in favour and from very unlikely to very likely to participate). The highest level for each outcome (i.e., strongly in favour and very likely to participate) were used as the reference category from which other levels are compared. So, results are presented initially in those terms, but more straightforward interpretations (i.e., framed positively) are included subsequently in the discussion.

The multinomial regression model assessing referenda support included four significant independent variables (political cynicism, civic duty, event status and involvement), $X^2(42) = 106.280$, $p = <.001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .116$ (see Table 4.17). As support for a Commonwealth Games referendum decreases so too does one's political cynicism ($p = .001$). A decrease in support for a referendum also emerges as one's sense of

civic duty decreases ($p = .030$) but the result is not as pronounced as it was for political cynicism. The two contextual variables included in the current study were also significant for the referendum outcome. As one's support for the referendum decreases so too does one's perception of the status of the event ($p = .031$). Likewise, one's support for the referendum decreases as one's involvement in sport ($p < .001$), although this does not manifest at the highest level of opposition for the referendum. There was no relationship between political ideology and referendum support, $F(3, 525) = .492, p = .688$.

The regression model assessing likelihood to participate had five significant variables (political cynicism, civic duty, political interest, event status, and involvement), $X^2(42) = 145.713, p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .225$ (see Table 4.18). As one's likelihood to participate in a Commonwealth Games referendum decreases so too does level of political cynicism ($p = .016$) although it's noteworthy that this is a relatively moderate effect and doesn't extend to being *very* unlikely to participate. The relationship between political interest and intention to participate in the referendum is significant and should be interpreted similarly. The interpretation of the relationship between civic duty and intention to participate in a referendum is more straightforward. As intention to participate decreases so too does one's sense of civic duty. Each of the two sport context variables had significant relationships with intention to participate in the referendum. Higher levels of event status perceptions and involvement are related to stronger intention to participate. As was the case for referendum support, no significant differences emerged across groups in relation to political ideology on referendum participation $F(3, 525) = 1.187, p = .314$.

Table 4.17

Multinomial Logistic Regression Measuring Referendum Support

	strongly against (1)		mod. against (2)		slightly against (3)		neutral (4)		slightly in favour (5)		mod. in favour (6)		strongly in favour (7)		P value
	B	OR	B	OR	B	OR	B	OR	B	OR	B	OR	B	OR	
Political Cynicism	-.111	.778	-.637*	.523*	-.272	.650	-.319*	.691*	-.389*	.667*	-.285*	.703*	1.000	1.000	.001
Civic Duty	-.399*	.728*	-.554*	.578*	-.375*	.754*	-.409*	.679*	-.275	.763	-.309*	.756*	1.000	1.000	.030
Political Interest	.037	1.039	.087	1.090	-.031	.975	-.069	.934	-.095	.909	.042	1.044	1.000	1.000	.777
Habitual Voting	.288	1.317	.293	1.338	.129	1.113	.055	1.053	.120	1.127	.122	1.123	1.000	1.000	.183
Political Efficacy	-.139	.828	-.132	.868	-.132	.822	-.032	.953	.049	1.043	-.036	.945	1.000	1.000	.858
Satisfaction with Democracy	.325	1.385	.034	1.035	.371	1.450	.100	1.105	.023	1.024	.134	1.144	1.000	1.000	.058
Event Status	-.462*	.654*	-.278	.759	-.335*	.751*	-.162	.857	-.237*	.787*	-.142	.879	1.000	1.000	.031
Involvement	-.171	.879	-.510*	.610*	-.370*	.714*	-.299*	.753*	-.150	.866	-.242*	.800*	1.000	1.000	<.001

*Statistically significant at <.05 level

Table 4.18
Multinomial Logistic Regression Measuring Referendum Participation

	very unlikely (1)		mod. unlikely (2)		slightly unlikely (3)		neutral (4)		slightly likely (5)		mod likely (6)		very likely (7)		P value
	B	OR	B	OR	B	OR	B	OR	B	OR	B	OR	B	OR	
Political Cynicism	-.230	.948	-.451	.713	-.912*	.371*	-.294*	.820*	-.229*	.827*	-.197	.835	1.000	1.000	.016
Civic Duty	-.479*	.575*	-.495*	.582*	-.388	.728	-.314*	.703*	-.203	.803	-.190	.820	1.000	1.000	.004
Political Interest	.009	1.021	-.275	.758	-.607*	.558*	-.229*	.796*	-.208*	.812*	-.183*	.832*	1.000	1.000	.025
Habitual Voting	-.147	.879	.165	1.185	-.189	.810	-.105	.908	-.137	.875	.079	1.084	1.000	1.000	.187
Political Efficacy	.124	1.178	.319	1.404	.267	1.207	.298	1.382	.210	1.246	.246	.1287	1.000	1.000	.366
Satisfaction with Democracy	-.318	.728	-.225	.799	.272	1.313	-.193	.825	-.081	.922	-.035	.965	1.000	1.000	.206
Event Status	-.214	.778	-.617*	.529*	-.291	.759	-.276*	.744*	-.291*	.743*	-.172	.840	1.000	1.000	.003
Involvement	-.202	.800	.035	1.015	-.364*	.692*	-.224*	.788*	-.093	.905	-.180*	.832*	1.000	1.000	.032

*Statistically significant at <.05 level

4.11 ANOVA

As political ideology is a categorical independent variable, it could not be included in either the ordinal logistic regression or multinomial logistic regression models. Therefore, the relationship between one's political ideology and referendum support and participation was explored separately through ANOVA. The first assumption of ANOVA is that the independent variables are normally distributed. According to the Q-Q Plots of both ANOVA analyses, the independent variables were normally distributed for both the referendum support model (Figures 4.7 to 4.10) and referendum participation model (Figures 4.11 to 4.14). As assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met for both the referendum support model, $F(3, 525) = 3.299, p = .200$, and the referendum participation model, $F(3, 525) = .885, p = .465$. Based on the ANOVA results, there was no statistically significant difference on support for a Commonwealth Games referendum based on political ideology, $F(3, 525) = 1.187, p = .312$. Similarly, there was also no statistically significant difference on likelihood to participate in a referendum based on political ideology, $F(3, 525) = .492, p = .688$.

Figure 4.7

Q-Q Plot; Referendum Support and National Party Supporters

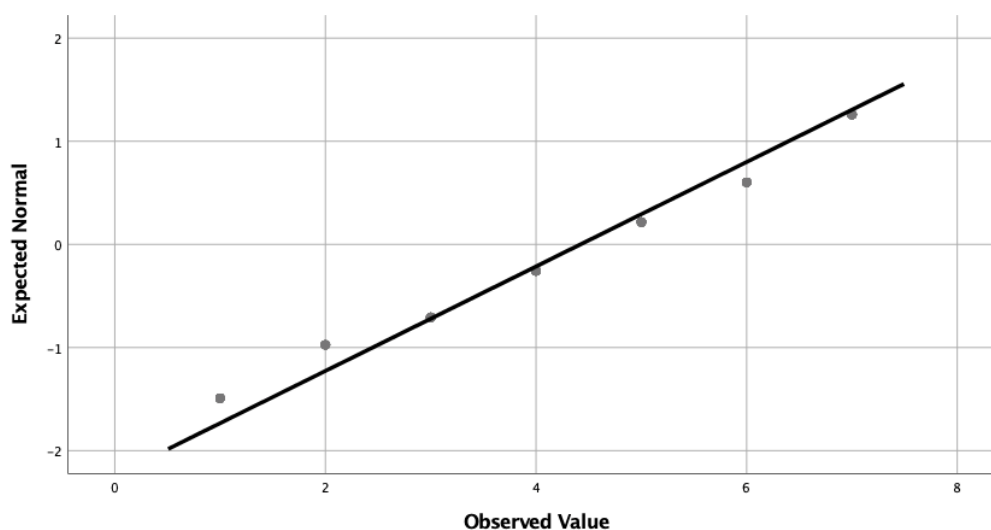


Figure 4.8
Q-Q Plot; Referendum Support and Labour Party Supporters

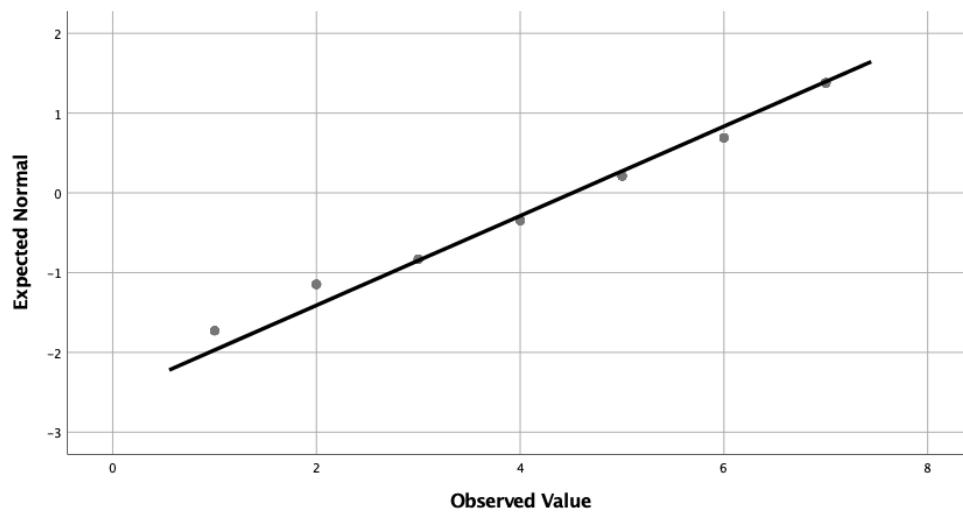


Figure 4.9.
Q-Q Plot; Referendum Support and Green Party Supporters

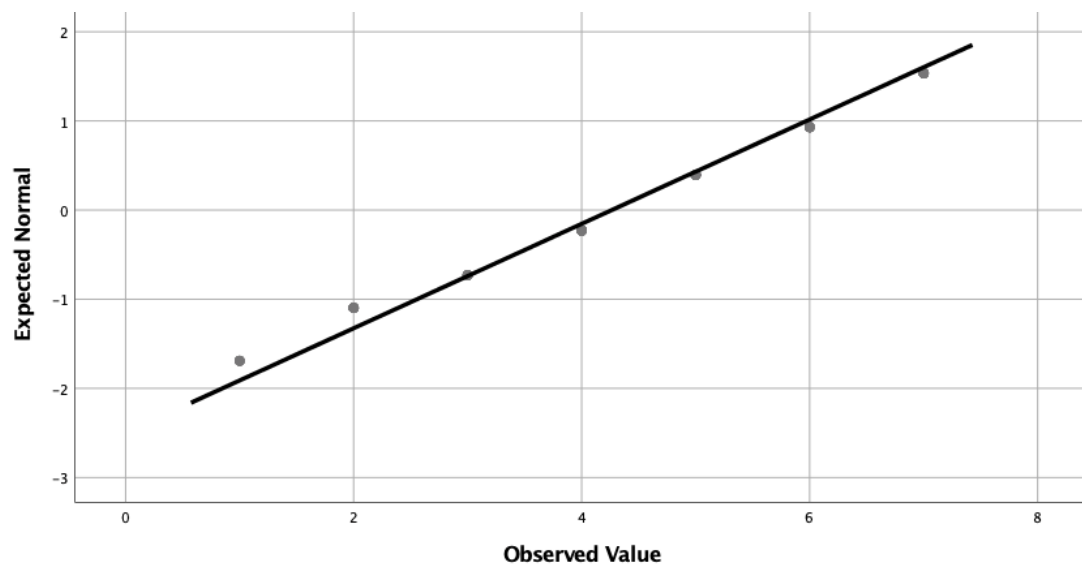


Figure 4.10
Q-Q Plot; Referendum Support and Other Party Supporters

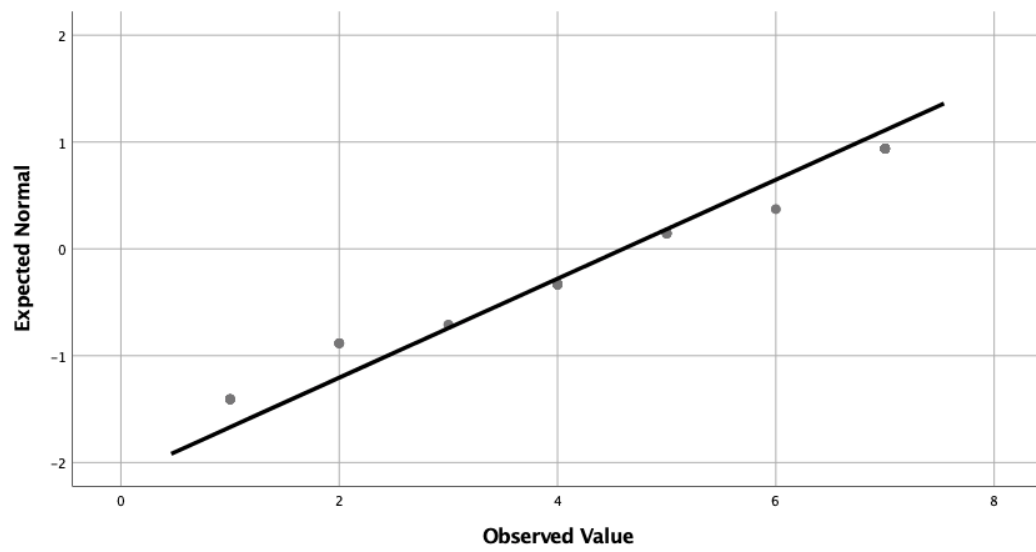


Figure 4.11
Q-Q Plot; Referendum Participation and National Party Supporters

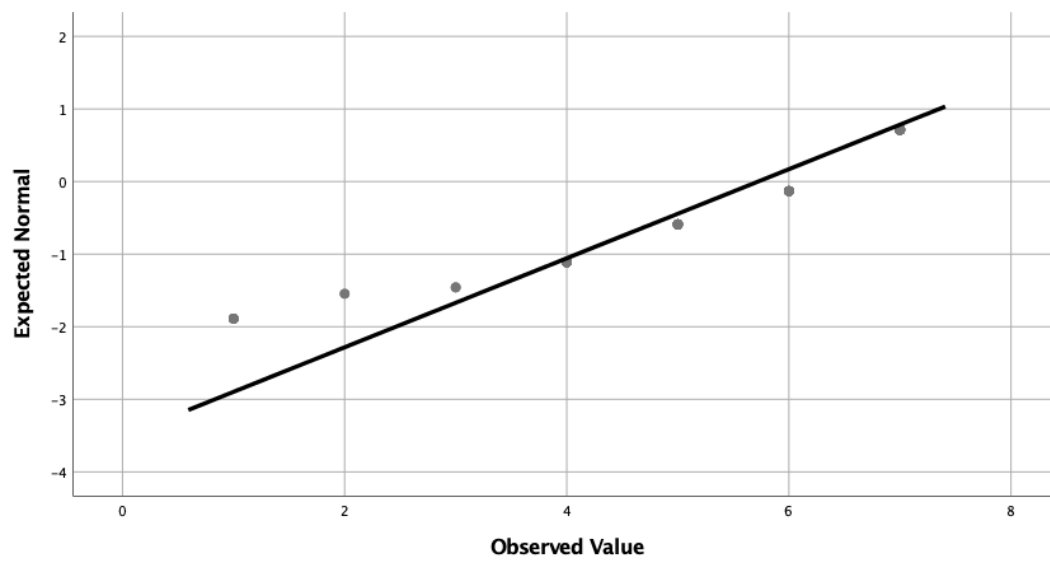


Figure 4.12

Q-Q Plot; Referendum Participation and Labour Party Supporters

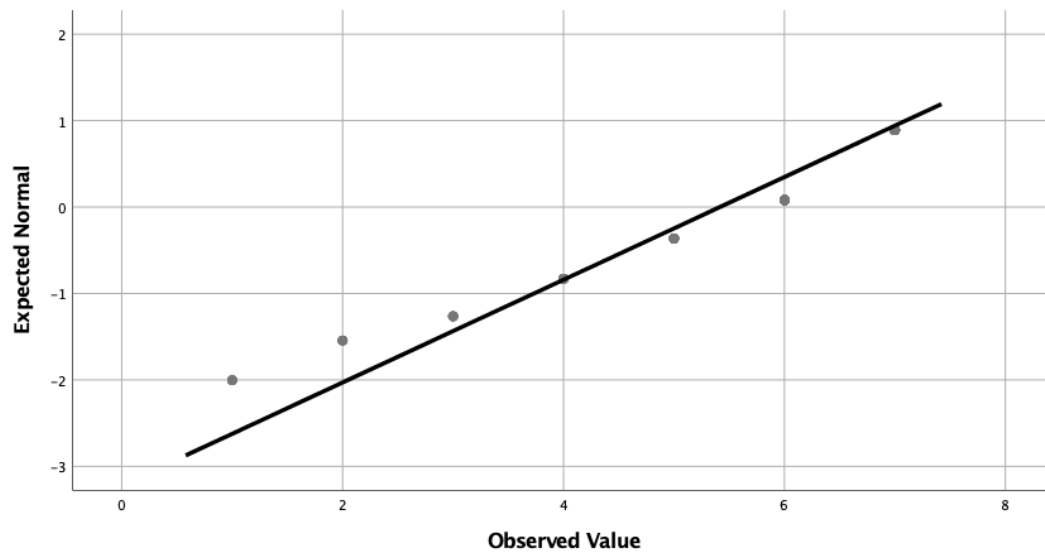


Figure 4.13

Q-Q Plot; Referendum Participation and Green Party Supporters

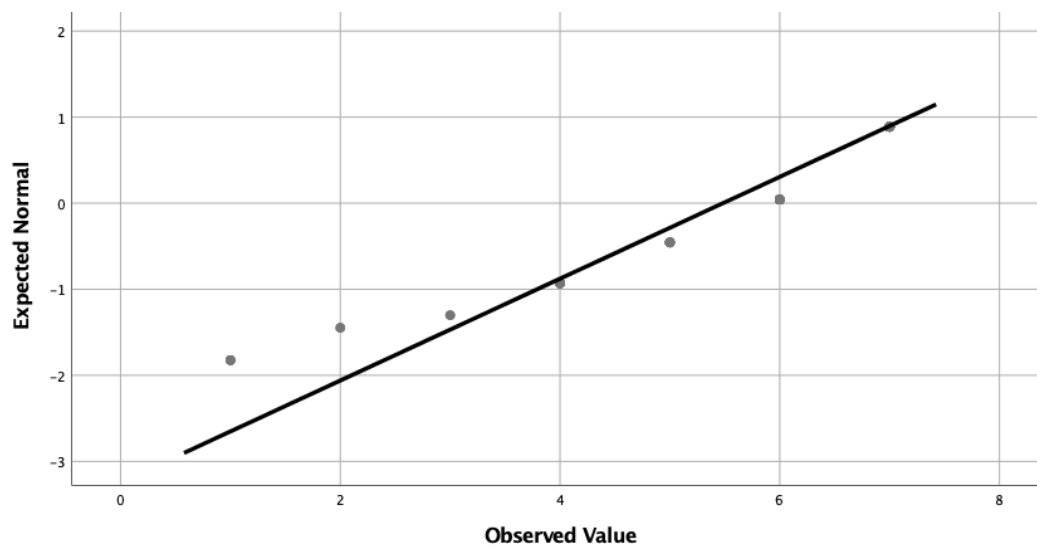
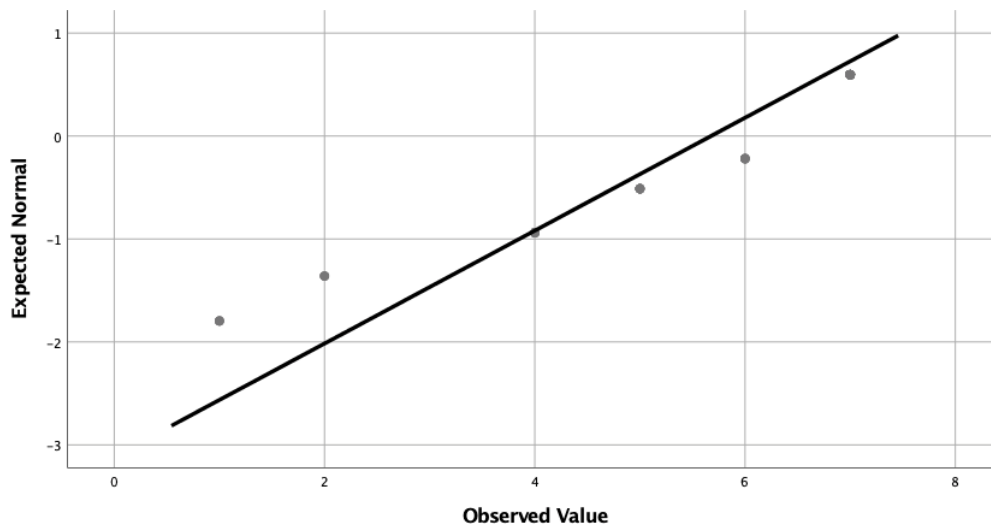


Figure 4.14.

Q-Q Plot; Referendum Participation and Other Party Supporters



4.12 Type of Referendum

In addition to examining predictors for referendum support and likelihood to participate in a referendum, respondents were asked whether a referendum to decide whether to bid for the Commonwealth Games should be binding or non-binding. The majority of respondents believed that the Commonwealth Games referendum should be binding (57.7%), as opposed to non-binding (42.3%).

Results of an independent t-test indicate that support is greater for those who favour a binding referendum ($M = 4.93$, $SD = 1.802$) over a non-binding referendum ($M = 3.83$, $SD = 1.853$), and that difference is statistically significant, $t(538.5) = 7.309$, $p > .001$. Similarly, those more likely to participate in a referendum favour a binding referendum ($M = 4.91$, $SD = 1.502$) as opposed to a non-binding referendum ($M = 5.06$, $SD = 1.867$) and this difference is statistically significant, $t(474.1) = 5.955$, $p < .001$.

Those who supported a binding referendum reported a higher sense of civic duty ($M = 5.96$, $SD = 1.232$) compared to those who supported a non-binding referendum ($M = 5.65$, $SD = 1.373$), and the difference is statistically significant, $t(510.719) = 2.825$, p

=.005. Those who supported a binding referendum reported a slightly greater level of political cynicism ($M = 4.73$, $SD = 1.189$) compared to those who supported a non-binding referendum ($M = 4.57$, $SD, 1.156$), however, the difference was not statistically significant, $t(555.899) = 1.707$, $p = .088$.

4.13 Discussion

Referenda are increasingly being used as a means to determine local resident support for hosting major sport events. Therefore, knowing the level of local resident support and the factors which impact this support is important to a variety of event stakeholders. In the context of a possible Commonwealth Games in either Christchurch or Auckland, data was collected related to referendum support, intention to participate and preference for a binding or non-binding referendum. The regression model explaining a resident's likelihood to participate was stronger than the model predicting a resident's support for a referendum taking place.

Relationships between five of the focal variables and at least one of the outcomes were significant providing evidence in support of nine hypotheses. Several other hypotheses were not supported in this study. Specifically, no evidence emerged linking habitual voting, political efficacy, satisfaction with democracy or political ideology with either referendum support or participation. That these predictors aren't significant in the context of this major event referendum scenario does not suggest they aren't important at all. In fact, they should be included in future studies related to major events. It isn't unusual for some variables that have an otherwise solid theoretical basis to end up statistically insignificant in terms of referendums (Schuck & de Vries, 2015). As evidence emerged in this study that the political interest, political cynicism, civic duty, event status and involvement were significant, they are further discussed next.

4.13.1 Political Cynicism

The results of previous research are equivocal as to whether political cynicism positively or negatively impacts referenda support and participation. Some research has shown that feelings of powerlessness and meaningless alienate people from politics, and as a consequence, decrease their likelihood to support or participate in political practices (Valentino et al., 2001). Conversely, several studies have indicated that rather than leading to disengagement in politics, for an efficacious individual, political cynicism can have a mobilizing effect (de Vreese & Semenko, 2002; Southwell, 2008). In the current study, it was found that political cynicism positively impacts both referendum support and participation, although it's noteworthy that these relationships did not exist at the extremes (i.e., strong opposition to a referendum or being *very unlikely* to participate. This suggests that a major sport event referenda may provide an opportunity for 'critical citizens' to curtail the influence of politicians (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015; Southwell, 2008) although not to an extreme extent. Stated differently, those dissatisfied with politics in New Zealand may view a Commonwealth Games referendum as an opportunity to politically express themselves.

4.13.2 Civic Duty

In this study it was found that referendum support and intention to participate are stronger among residents with high levels of civic duty which is consistent with previous research (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). The stability of this predictor of attitudes toward and behaviour in conjunction with political processes is noteworthy and held firm in this context. That civic duty has emerged as significantly related to both outcomes in this study of a prospective major sport event referendum is evidence of its importance. Further, it can be argued that the cognitive resources linked to a sense of civic duty may be particularly engaged in regards to a major sport event which

most will know something about and have a view. This finding suggests that those who have a sense of civic duty could potentially be purposefully mobilised to participate in a major sport event referendum.

4.13.3 Political Interest

In this study, evidence emerged supporting the notion that political interest is positively related to the likelihood of participating in a major sport event referendum but not to one's support for such a referendum. This finding is in line with the assumption that citizens who are more politically interested tend to be more politically engaged, and thus, they are more likely to turn out to vote (Donovan & Karp, 2006). Political interest tends to be robust no matter what's on the ballot (Biggers, 2014) and this seems to have carried through to the major event referendum context. Although one might expect referendum support from those who are dissatisfied by the political process (i.e., politically cynical), in this study, we found those who are politically interested and have a strong sense of civic duty are more likely to turn up and participate in a major sport event referendum.

4.13.4 Event Status

Perceptions of event status were included in the current research because of previous evidence suggesting its importance (Fredline, 2004; Inoue & Harvard, 2014). Indeed, the findings support inclusion of this construct in attempting to understand support for and intention to participate in a major sport event referendum. Respondents who believe the Commonwealth Games are a significant event reported greater support for a referendum on whether to bid to host the event, and are more likely to participate in this referendum. Referenda are only utilised for issues of significance, and therefore, for one to support the use of a referendum and see value in participating in that referendum, they must first perceived the issue to be of significant importance. Thus,

the perception that an event is significant relates to this notion of importance. The cost and potential impact to residents associated with New Zealand hosting the Commonwealth Games would be substantial, and therefore, respondents that view this event as high-status are more likely to view the use and participation of a referendum in a positive light.

4.13.5 Involvement

For both outcomes in this study, a significant relationship emerged with the involvement construct. As an indicator capturing one's connection to sport, it was expected that it would be related to one's support for a sport-related referendum and one's intention to participate in that referendum. It would stand to reason that one who is highly connected to sport would be more favourable to their community hosting a major event but no evidence yet exists about whether those who are more involved would be more supportive of it or report greater intention to participate. It was found that those who are more highly involved with sport report more support for and intention to participate in a major sport event referendum. The results here extend Fredline's (2004) conclusion that those who are highly involved tend to disregard or tolerate negative event impacts. In fact, it may be possible to mobilise those who are highly involved in sport to participate in a referendum which could help bring an event to a community.

4.13.6 Binding, Non-Binding Results

In previous research, the type of referendum has not been examined in relation to support or participation in referenda. Findings here indicate that New Zealanders have strong support for a Commonwealth Games referendum and are likely to participate in that referendum if it is binding. Therefore, those who believe that the results of the referendum must be acted upon, rather than simply provide politicians

and key decision makers with only an indication, are more likely to support and participate in a major sport event referendum.

This finding aligns with the notion of political efficacy whereby one believes in the legitimacy of political processes. Those who believe their vote will make a difference (i.e., political efficacy) through a binding referendum are more likely to support the use of a referendum.

4.14 Future Research and Limitations

It is important to acknowledge several limitations with this study. First, although respondents were of legal voting age, it is unclear whether they could be reliably expected to vote in an election or referendum, nor is it known if respondents were enrolled to vote. Of course, given the fact more than three-fourths of respondents reported they would be likely to vote if a referendum was held, it might also be the case that the sample was mostly homogenous and trending toward likely voters. In future research, one approach to address this issue is to include individuals who are not enrolled to vote (but are eligible to enrol) in the survey sample. These individuals have chosen not to exercise their democratic rights and could further our understanding of the factors that contribute to certain attitudes toward civic duty and political cynicism. Another response to this issue is to direct inquiry toward those individuals who are enrolled to vote but do not participate in elections. Soliciting feedback via focus groups, for example, could provide new insights that enhance what we know about public perception of both the form and outcome of a Commonwealth Games bid.

Similarly, this study utilized a measure of voting intentions rather than actual voter behaviour. In the absence of real voter data, the predictive validity of the voting intentions measures was not assessed in this study. Previous attempts to identify voter likelihood have been plagued by a lack of predictive validity (Traugott & Tucker,

1984). However, more recent research has shown that two items—vote intent and previous vote behaviour—has shown both generalizability and validity over four elections and three decades (Murray, Riley & Scime, 2009). While the central purpose of this study was not to identify likely voters, this strategy may be employed in future research to forecast a referendum outcome with greater confidence.

The extent to which context—that is, the unique facets of Auckland, Christchurch, and the Commonwealth Games—influenced the tested relationships in this study has not been determined. Therefore, this line of research should be extended to investigate hypothetical sport referendums in cities elsewhere and in the context of other major sporting events. An alternate context may well produce a more robust model explaining more variance in referendum support and participation than was found here.

Based on these limitations, we offer several other directions for future research. First, because the focus of this study was on New Zealanders' support for and intention to participate in a major event referendum, other unexplored factors may explain the likelihood of a referendum passing. These factors could include the timing of the vote in a general election cycle, the number of other issues appearing on the ballot, and the public cost of the proposed project (Mondello & Anderson, 2004). Particularly for individuals or groups aiming to affect the outcome of a referendum vote, more research is necessary to get a full view of the factors that contribute to a voter's support of or opposition to an event bid.

A second area of study might focus not on citizens' attitudes toward the use of referenda, but rather those of policymakers. Given the apparently increasing utilization of the referendum in stadium- and event-related cases, it is largely assumed that it is a popular tool among decision-makers. However, as previous research has shown,

elected officials may be disincentivized to promote public deliberation on an issue such as the construction of sporting infrastructure for a club or event (Kellison, Newman & Bunds, 2017; Scherer & Sam, 2008). Therefore, researchers should consider the effect, if any, the popularity of the referendum among ordinary citizens affects policymakers' willingness to employ it.

Another important angle for future research as it relates to major event decision making and referenda has to do with whether the event would take place in a single or multiple host cities. Multi-sport events like the Olympics and Commonwealth Games generally take place in a single city whereas sport-specific events like the Cricket World Cup tend to take place across a number of cities within a single country. This contrast has been explored in previous research (Bakhsh, Potwarka, Nunkoo & Sunnassee, 2017), although that study took the traditional form of focusing on event support as the outcome variable of interest. It is important to explore if key decision-makers' perception of community engagement in major event bids differs based on this.

4.15 Conclusion

Growing public scepticism toward mega sporting events like the Olympic and Paralympic Games and FIFA Men's and Women's World Cup has led to changes to the way in which some governing bodies organize their bidding processes. For example, in 2019, the International Olympic Committee announced it would consider allowing joint bids, in which the Games could be held in multiple cities, regions, or countries (Zaccardi, 2019). The results of this study indicate that reforms may also occur more locally in the cities and regions expressing interest in hosting an event like the Commonwealth Games. In the absence of a referendum, it is unclear whether the public at large would support or oppose a proposal to host a major sporting event.

Practically, a lack of support could present problems down the road, including a lack of ticket sales or widespread public protests. Beyond these economic consequences, policy decisions that are suspected (or prove) to be incongruent with the public may ultimately prompt serious questions about the efficacy of the democratic system itself.

STUDY 2

Local resident support for hosting a major sport event

A corresponding manuscript for this chapter has been submitted to *European Sport Management Quarterly*.

5.1 Introduction

Resident support is critical for the successful hosting of major sport events (Al-Emadi et al. 2017; Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). Supportive residents can transform a major sport event into a very positive experience for a community. However, a lack of support can have harmful effects on the host community by turning it into a highly charged political and social event. Despite being such a crucial component for hosting a successful major event, local residents are usually not consulted before bid submissions. Instead, bidding decisions are often made by a small group of government officials, without any transparency, and more often in the interest of global politics rather than local communities (Gursoy, Milito & Nunkoo, 2017). However, widespread public discussion in the pre-bid process can lead to a better understanding of local resident perceptions on the benefits and costs of hosting. This understanding can aid government officials and event managers to ascertain the level of support for hosting major sport events, as well as manage the perceived costs to local residents due to hosting.

Local resident support of a major sport event has been closely attributed, in part, to host residents' judgements of event impacts (Bull & Lovell, 2007). Event impacts can be real or perceived. 'Real' impacts can be measured with objective and quantifiable data, whereas 'perceived' impacts are personal, and highly subjective.

Real impacts, such as tourist numbers, retail spending and changes to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) are often measured to determine the success of the event. However, perceived impacts may be more likely to affect community support, and subsequently influence policymakers in their planning and promotion of future events (Bull & Lovell, 2007; Ohmann, Jones & Wilkes, 2006).

Although there is significant research on the perceived impacts of major sport events, there is no agreed framework for measuring these impacts. However, there is consensus that measuring perceived impacts is complex, and that a multi-dimensional approach is most appropriate. A balanced assessment of perceived event impacts reflecting a 'triple bottom-line' approach is often undertaken integrating social, economic and environmental elements (Fredline, Jago & Deery, 2003).

It is important to note that all residents do not support the hosting of major sport events in their community. Social Exchange Theory has been widely utilised to understand how major sport event impact perceptions differ, (e.g., Gursoy & Kenall, 2006; Waite, 2003). Ap (1992) describes Social Exchange Theory as "...a general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange resources between the individuals and groups in an interaction situation" (p. 668). Social Exchange Theory provides a framework for understanding transactions where the actions of one party are dependent on the actions of another (Inoue & Harvard, 2014). Social exchange models are based on the assumption that the potential rewards and costs of an exchange determine whether a relationship is positive or negative. Social Exchange Theory assumes that humans are rational beings who seek rewards and avoid punishments (West & Turner, 2013). When rewards exceed costs, a party may evaluate the exchange as satisfactory and beneficiary. In contrast, when costs exceed rewards, a party may evaluate the exchange as negative and look to terminate the relationship.

Social Exchange Theory suggests that local residents evaluate the prospect of hosting major sport events based on the expectation of rewards and costs (Inoue & Harvard, 2014; Waite, 2003). Balduck et al. (2011) characterise this issue for residents in terms of a question: “what’s in it for me?” (p. 110).

Despite its popularity and wide acceptance in tourism and event impact research, Social Exchange Theory has drawn criticism in that it focuses on fulfilling individual needs from an individualistic perspective, which may not be applicable to community behaviour (Li, Hsu & Lawton, 2015; Miller, 2005). Rather, it is argued that local residents’ support of an event is not based on direct individualised experiences, but socially derived and context driven (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). Some researchers propose an extended version of Social Exchange Theory, to include perceptions of how perceived impacts are shared within a community, in addition to individual experiences (Al-Emadi et al., 2017; Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2006). The purpose of this study is therefore to investigate the perceived impacts of hosting a major sport event from both an individual and community perspective. The context of this research is a potential future Commonwealth Games bid from New Zealand. This study provides at least three important contributions: (a) a better understanding of how perceived impacts relate to support for hosting a major sport event,

5.2 Methods

Quantitative methods were used in conjunction with this study. Quantitative research is not only focussed on describing phenomena, but rather gain understanding of what causes it (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This approach also allows the researcher to make judgements and infer from the data what the population might think (Bryman & Bell, 2011). As this overarching question of this study is to understand support for the use of a major sport event referendum, and thus make judgements based on the

population's perceptions on such a political process, taking a quantitative approach through the employment of a cross-sectional designed questionnaire is appropriate.

5.3 Procedure

A questionnaire was utilised to obtain data in June 2017. Reid Research, a market research company, was enlisted to distribute the questionnaires. A total of 603 New Zealanders completed a questionnaire with items querying perceived impacts relating to hosting a Commonwealth Games. The sample comprised both Auckland residents (n=302) and Christchurch residents (n=301). The sample size is comparable to similar event impacts studies (Baldock, Mae & Buelens, 2011; Bull & Lovell, 2007; Cegielski & Mules, 2002; Fredline, Deery & Jago, 2006).

The sample resembled New Zealand population parameters in terms of age and gender. Respondents were excluded if less than 18 years old based on the current voting age in New Zealand and eligibility to vote in a hypothetical event bidding referendum. If a respondent reported an age less than 18 or not residing in either Auckland or Christchurch, the questionnaire closed.

5.3.1 Instrumentation

Forty-eight items were included in the questionnaire to assess support for hosting a major sport event in their city. First, respondents were asked on a 7-point Likert scale (1-strongly against, 7-strongly in favour), to what extent they were in favour of their city hosting a future Commonwealth Games. Next, participants responded to items on a three-part, 14 item scale measuring specific event impacts derived from Fredline, Jago and Deery (2006).

Respondents were first asked if they agreed with each of 14 statements about potential event impacts (Table 5.1). If they agreed, they were then asked to what

extent this would affect their personal quality of life (on a scale from negatively (-3) to positively (3)) and to what extent this could affect the community as a whole on the same scale. If respondents disagreed with the initial statement, they were not asked the further two impact questions.

For all social science research, it is important to take into account any contextual factors that may have an impact on the outcome. Two factors that were seen as likely to be related to an individual's perception of event impacts from hosting the Commonwealth Games was their level of involvement in sport, and how important they perceived the event to be (Table 5.2). Psychological involvement in sport was measured using three items derived from Inoue and Harvard (2014). Respondents were asked to indicate agreement with three statements on a 7-point Likert scale (1-strongly disagree, 7-strongly agree): 1) I really enjoy following sport, 2) Sport has a central role in my life, and 3) Being a sport fan says a lot about who I am.

Based on Speed and Thompson's (2000) scale, event status was measured by two items. Respondents were asked on a 7-point Likert scale, the extent to which they agreed or disagreed (1-strongly disagree, 7- strongly agree) that 1) The Commonwealth Games is a significant sport event, and 2) The Commonwealth Games is important to where I live.

Table 5.1
Perceived Event Impacts Items

1	Interesting Things to Do	If Auckland/Christchurch hosts the Commonwealth Games, there will be more interesting things to do in the region (e.g. attractions to visit)	1a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			1b	How will this affect the community as a whole?
2	Opportunity Cost	Too much public money will be spent on developing facilities for the Commonwealth Games that would better be spent on other public activities	2a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			2b	How will this affect the community as a whole?
3	Economic Benefits	Hosting the Commonwealth Games will be good for the economy because the money that tourists spend when they come to the event will help to stimulate the economy, stimulate employment opportunities, and will be good for local businesses	3a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			3b	How will this affect the community as a whole?
4	Disruption	Hosting the Commonwealth Games will disrupt the lives of local residents and create inconvenience. Problems like traffic congestion, parking difficulties and excessive noise will be worse due to an increase in tourists	4a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			4b	How will this affect the community as a whole?
5	Facility Maintenance	Hosting the Commonwealth Games will promote the development and better maintenance of public facilities such as roads, sporting facilities, and public transport	5a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			5b	How will this affect the community as a whole?
6	Delinquent Behaviour	Hosting the Commonwealth Games will be associated with some people behaving inappropriately, perhaps in a rowdy and delinquent way, or engaging in excessive drinking or drug use or other criminal behaviour	6a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			6b	How will this affect the community as a whole?
7	Pride	Hosting the Commonwealth Games will make local residents feel more proud of their town and make them feel good about themselves and their community	7a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			7b	How will this affect the community as a whole?
8	Environment	Hosting the Commonwealth Games will have a negative impact on the environment through excessive litter and/or	8a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			8b	How will this affect the community as a whole?

		pollution and or/damage to natural areas.		
9	Showcase	Hosting the Commonwealth Games will showcase our region in a positive light. This will help to promote a better opinion of our region and encourage future tourism and/or business investment	9a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			9b	How will this affect the community as a whole?
10	Prices	Hosting the Commonwealth Games will lead to increases in the prices of some things such as some goods and services and/or property values and/or rental costs	10a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			10b	How will this affect the community as a whole?
11	Justice	The distribution of the costs and benefits associated with hosting the Commonwealth Games will be distributed unfairly across the community	11a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			11b	How will this affect the community as a whole?
12	Deny Access	An increase in tourists associated with hosting the Commonwealth Games will deny local residents access to public facilities, that is roads, parks, sporting facilities, public transport and/or other facilities will be less available to local residents due to overcrowding	12a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			12b	How will this affect the community as a whole?
13	New Infrastructure	There will be better shopping, dining, and/or recreational opportunities because of hosting the Commonwealth Games	13a	How will this affect your personal quality of life?
			13b	How will this affect the community as a whole?

Table 5.2
Contextual Items

Involvement	I really enjoy following sport
	Sport is a central role in my life
	Being a sport fan says a lot about who I am
Event Status	The Commonwealth Games is a significant sport event
	The Commonwealth Games will be important to where I live

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Demographic profile of the sample

The largest age group in the sample were those 25 to 34 years old, and they represented 19.6% of overall respondents. The remainder of the percentages based on age group are displayed in Table 5.3. The gender of the sample was fairly evenly split (49.1% male, 50.9% female). In terms of education, 43.9% reported having completed a university education, while smaller percentages reported other educational achievement (Table 5.4).

The largest age group in the Auckland sample were 25 to 34 years old (19.9%), while in Christchurch it was those 45 to 54 years old (19.6%). Gender balance in the two subgroups was very similar to the overall samples. The majority of the Auckland sample reported having completed a university education (52.6%). This sub-group was also largest in the Christchurch sample but smaller comparatively (35.2%).

Table 5.3
Age of Sample

Age	n	Overall %	Auckland %	Christchurch %
18-24	38	6.3	6.0	6.6
25-34	118	19.6	19.9	19.3
35-44	108	17.9	18.9	16.9
45-54	113	18.7	17.9	19.6
55-64	103	17.1	17.9	16.3
65-69	39	6.5	5.6	7.3
70+	84	13.9	13.9	14.0

Table 5.4
Completed Education of Sample

Education	n	Overall %	Auckland %	Christchurch %
Primary School	2	.3	0	.7
Secondary School	173	28.7	23.8	33.6
Technical	135	22.4	18.2	26.6
University	265	43.9	52.6	35.2
Other	28	4.6	5.3	4.0

5.5 Descriptive Statistics of Variables

5.5.1. Event Support

Respondents indicated that they were supportive (1- very unlikely, 7- very likely) of their city hosting the Commonwealth Games ($M = 5.31$, $SD = 1.692$). In order to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference on support for hosting the Commonwealth Games based on location, an independent t-test was performed. Results of an independent t-test showed that support for hosting the Commonwealth Games is slightly higher in Auckland ($M = 5.35$, $SD = 1.6610$) than Christchurch ($M = 5.27$, $SD = 1.723$), but the difference was not statistically significant, $t(601) = .618$, $p = .537$. Event support is slightly higher for females ($M = 5.36$, $SD = 1.610$) than males ($M = 5.25$, $SD = 1.774$), but the difference was also not statistically significant, $t(601) = -.785$, $p = .433$.

Descriptively, younger people were more likely to support hosting the Commonwealth Games than their older counterparts (Table 5.5) and this was explored further through ANOVA. To further explore the effect on age on referendum support, ANOVA was performed. First, the assumption of normality must be tested, which explores if the dependent variable should be normally distributed across each group. There were indications that the variable was not normally distributed for each age

group, based on a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 5.6) and inspection of histograms, but it has been argued that ANOVA is robust to non-normal data (Maxwell & Delaney, 2004). As assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances, the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, $F(6, 596) = 2.904, p = .008$. When homogeneity of variances is violated, a modified version ANOVA, Welch ANOVA can be used to determine statistically significant differences between groups (Moder, 2010). Based on Welch ANOVA results there was no statistically significant difference in support for hosting the Commonwealth Games between age groups, $F(6, 202.649) = 1.731, p = .115$.

Table 5.5
Commonwealth Games Support based on Age

Age	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
18-24	38	5.76	1.384
25-34	118	5.39	1.754
35-44	108	5.55	1.469
45-54	113	5.27	1.794
55-64	103	5.07	1.926
65-69	39	5.13	1.576
70+	84	5.11	1.560

Table 5.6
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality; Commonwealth Games Support and Age

Age	Statistic	n	p
18-24	.278	38	<.001
24-34	.219	118	<.001
35-44	.205	108	<.001
45-54	.250	113	<.001
55-64	.191	103	<.001
65-69	.165	39	.009
70+	.205	84	<.001

Descriptively, the most supportive group of hosting the Commonwealth Games were those with an education from a technical institute ($M = 5.54$, $SD = 1.578$) (Table 5.7) and this was explored further through ANOVA. It was determined that the support variable was not normally distributed for education group, based on a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 5.8) However, as indicated prior, ANOVA is robust to non-normality (Maxwell & Delaney, 2004). Just two respondents reported a primary school education, so this group was withdrawn from analysis. Evidence was uncovered in support of the homogeneity of variance assumption, $F(3, 597) = 2.257$, $p = .081$. Ultimately, there were no statistically significant differences on support for hosting the Commonwealth Games based on level of education, $F(3, 597) = 1.276$, $p = .282$.

Table 5.7
Commonwealth Games Support based on Completed Education

Completed Education	n	Mean	Std. Deviation
Primary School	2	4.00	.000
Secondary School	173	5.23	1.651
Technical	135	5.54	1.578
University	265	5.23	1.789
Other	28	5.50	1.503

Table 5.8
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality; Commonwealth Games Support and Completed Education

Completed Education	Statistic	n	p
Primary School	-	2	-
Secondary School	.200	173	<.001
Technical	.222	135	<.001
University	.206	265	<.001
Other	.237	28	<.001

5.5.2 Independent Variables

Descriptive statistics indicated agreement that positive impacts associated with hosting would occur, particularly in relation to economic benefits (89.9%) and the belief that hosting would showcase their region in a positive light (90.0%) (Table 5.9). However, in relation to environmental impacts, the majority of respondents (67.5%) indicated that there would be no negative environmental impacts associated with hosting. The majority of respondents indicated that hosting the Commonwealth Games would not change the character of their region (37.1%). However, upon further reflection, the item wording did not include a positive or negative connotation so the item was removed from further analysis.

Table 5.9
Descriptive Statistics of Event Impacts

Variable	Overall n	Overall Percent	Auckland Percent	Christchurch Percent
<i>Positive Impacts</i>				
Showcase	543	90.0%	90.4%	89.7%
Economic Benefits	542	89.9%	89.7%	90.0%
Pride	509	84.4%	84.1%	84.7%
Facility Maintenance	487	80.8%	78.5%	83.1%
Interesting Things to Do	480	79.6%	77.8%	81.4%
New Infrastructure	301	66.5%	60.3%	72.8%
Character	224	37.1%	35.1%	39.2%
<i>Negative Impacts</i>				
Prices	394	65.3%	69.5%	61.1%
Disruption	380	63.0%	65.6%	60.5%
Opportunity Cost	315	52.2%	51.7%	52.8%
Justice	291	48.3%	51.0%	45.5%
Deny Access	256	42.5%	46.7%	38.2%
Delinquent Behaviour	252	42.0%	43.4%	40.5%
Environment	196	32.5%	35.8%	29.2%

Table 5.10
Descriptive Statistics of Continuous Independent Variables.

Variable	Overall Mean (Std. Deviation)	Auckland Mean (Std. Deviation)	Christchurch Mean (Std. Deviation)
Event Status - Significant	5.83 (1.356)	5.76 (1.382)	5.91 (1.328)
Event Status - Important	5.30 (1.590)	5.23 (1.577)	5.38 (1.603)
Involvement – Pleasure	5.05 (1.695)	5.09 (1.680)	5.01 (1.712)
Involvement - Centrality	4.37 (1.897)	4.45 (1.895)	4.29 (1.895)
Involvement – Symbolic Value	4.04 (1.827)	4.11 (1.858)	3.97 (1.795)

5.6 Ordinal Logistic Regression

Ordinal logistic regression was employed to assess the relationship between the perceived impacts and event support. The first step in building a multiple regression model is evaluating each variable individually in order to understand the unique contribution that each variable makes to the outcome variable (Meyers, Gamst & Guarino, 2017) (Table 5.11).

To determine multicollinearity amongst the independent variables, Pearson's product-moment correlation was used (Table 5.12). Pearson's correlation coefficient is a statistical measure of the strength of relationship between paired data (Cohen, 1988). The correlation coefficient represents the effect size, and is generally referred to as weak (.00 - .39), moderate (.40 - .59) or strong (.60 – 1.0) (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, paired data that correlation coefficient displayed a weak effect size (i.e. .39 and under) could be included together within a multiple regression model.

Table 5.11
Ordinal Logistic Regression – Event Support

Independent Variable	B	Std. Error	p	95% Wald Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
<i>Positive Impacts</i>					
Economic Benefits	2.634	.265	<.001	2.115	3.154
Pride	2.613	.228	<.001	2.166	3.059
Showcase	2.247	.258	<.001	1.742	2.752
Facility Maintenance	1.800	.195	<.001	1.417	2.183
New Infrastructure	1.536	.163	<.001	1.217	1.856
Interesting Things to Do	1.290	.185	<.001	.928	1.651
<i>Negative Impacts</i>					
Prices	-.637	.155	<.001	-.941	-.332
Delinquent Behaviour	-1.062	.157	<.001	-1.370	-.754
Disruption	-1.062	.157	<.001	-1.370	-.754
Deny Access	-1.127	.152	<.001	-1.425	-.829
Environment	-1.127	.159	<.001	-1.439	-.815
Justice	-1.318	.153	<.001	-1.618	-1.017
Opportunity Cost	-1.992	.165	<.001	-2.315	-1.669
<i>Contextual Variables</i>					
Involvement	.208	.040	<.001	.130	.286
Event Status - Significant	.642	.044	<.001	.556	.728
Event Status – Important	.727	.032	<.001	.665	.789

Rather than placing all the variables in the model at once, the forward method dictates that independent variables are entered into model one variable at a time (Meyers et al., 2017). The variable that adds the greatest statistically significant predictive power with outcome variable is added first. This process of adding variables to the model is repeated for each remaining viable predictor variable, with those with the lowest predictor value added last. Throughout this process the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) was used to measure the model fit for each of the potential multiple regression models. Each of the potential models was evaluated for model fit through

the calculating the AIC using the output results of regression models. The final models were selected based on the lowest AIC value, and variables ability to be included together in a regression model based on multicollinearity.

The ordinal logistic regression model with the best fit for event support included six significant independent variables (economic benefit, infrastructure, interesting things to do, opportunity cost, justice, access denied) (see Table 5.13). The deviance goodness-of-fit test indicated that the model was a good fit, $X^2(270) = 223.672, p = .982$. Those that perceived event-related economic benefits were 1.60 times (95% CI, 2.855 to 8.461) more likely to support a bid (than those who perceived no economic benefits, $X^2(1) = 33.009, p = <.001$). Participants who perceived that the event would lead to new and better infrastructure were 0.68 times (95% CI, 1.391 to 2.806) more likely to support hosting of the Games than those who perceived that hosting would not lead to better infrastructure, $X^2(1) = 14.469, p = <.001$. Those who perceived an increase in interesting things were 0.51 times (95% CI, 1.121 to 2.499) more likely to support hosting of the Games than those who perceived there would not, $X^2(1) = 6.408, p = .011$.

Table 5.12
Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation of Independent Variables

	Interesting things to do	Economic	Facility Maintenance	Pride	Showcase	Infrastructure	Opportunity Cost	Disruption	Delinquent Behaviour	Environment	Prices	Justice	Access Denied	Event Status - Significant	Event Status - Important	Involvement
Interesting things to do																
Economic	.253															
Facility Maintenance	.369	.436														
Pride	.316	.508	.486													
Showcase	.313	.532	.484	.499												
Infrastructure	.373	.298	.465	.451	.351											
Opportunity Cost	-.196	-.299	-.290	-.329	-.296	-.341										
Disruption	-.149	-.132	-.139	-.187	-.163	-.158	.334									
Delinquent Behaviour	-.028	-.071	-.114	-.144	-.144	-.087	.160	.310								
Environment	-.193	-.249	-.272	-.287	-.278	-.198	.330	.341	.422							
Prices	-.075	-.117	-.143	-.140	-.091	-.074	.190	.287	.259	.282						

Justice	-.145	-.248	-.228	-.207	-.200	-.229	.359	.238	.215	.336	.292					
Access Denied	-.165	-.201	-.202	-.260	-.241	-.201	.338	.436	.296	.450	.287	.359				
Event Status	-.217	-.349	-.229	-.352	-.290	-.253	.320	.203	.062	.200	.102	.247	.202			
Involvement	-.170	-.130	-.158	-.174	-.173	-.188	.145	.197	.098	.170	.097	.198	.155	.255	.230	

Conversely, those who perceived that too much money would be spent on hosting the event and that it would better to be used elsewhere were 1.31 times (95% CI, .190 to .381) less likely to support the hosting the Commonwealth Games than those who did not perceive an opportunity cost, $X^2(1) = 54.498$, $p = <.001$. Those who perceived that there would be an unfair distribution of costs and benefits associated with hosting were .50 times (95% .439 to .846) less likely to support hosting the Commonwealth Games than those who did not perceive this would be an impact of hosting, $X^2(1) = 8.747$, $p = .003$. Those who perceived that they would be denied access to public facilities were .36 times (95% .503 to .965) less likely to support hosting the Commonwealth Games than those who did not perceive this, $X^2(1) = 4.729$, $p = .030$.

Table 5.13
Ordinal Logistic Regression – Commonwealth Games Support

Predictor	B	SE	Wald's X ²	p	odds ratio	95% Wald Confidence Interval Lower Upper
Economic Benefit	1.592	.2771	33.009	<.001	4.915	2.855 8.461
Infrastructure	.681	.1790	14.469	<.001	1.975	1.391 2.806
Interesting things to do	.505	.1994	6.408	.011	1.657	1.121 2.449
Opportunity Cost	-1.312	.1777	54.498	<.001	.269	.190 .381
Justice	-.496	.1675	8.747	.003	.609	.439 .846
Access Denied	-.361	.1660	4.729	.030	.697	.503 .965

5.7 Personal and Community Quality of Life

Paired sample t-tests were performed for each of the event impacts to determine whether perceptions of the nature of the event impact (personal vs. community) differed (Table 5.14). For all positive impacts, a difference emerged between personal

and community quality of life . These differences ranged from medium to large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The greatest effect size is between the personal and community quality of life in relation to the perception that there will be an economic benefit associated with hosting the Commonwealth Games. Respondents perceived that the economic benefits associated with hosting the Commonwealth Games would affect the communities quality of life ($M = 5.82$, $SD = .974$) significantly greater than their personal quality of life ($M = 4.81$, $SD = 1.091$), $t(602) = -24.115$, $p < .001$.

In relation to the negative impacts, the greatest effect size between personal and community quality of life was in association with the perception that there would be an increase in delinquent behaviour due to hosting the Commonwealth Games. Respondents perceived that an increase in delinquent behaviour would impact their personal quality of life ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 3.06$) greater than the community quality of life ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.305$), $t(602) = 9.377$, $p < .001$. A small to medium effect size was evident between the remaining negative perceived impacts effect between personal and community quality of life.

Table 5.14

Difference between perceived event impacts effect on personal and community quality of life

Impact	n	Quality of Life	M	SD	Mean difference	SD	t	p	Cohen's D
Positive Impacts									
Economic Benefits	542	Personal	4.81	1.091	-1.024	.989	-24.115	<.001	-1.035
		Community	5.83	.974					
Showcase	543	Personal	4.95	1.094	-.834	.973	-19.980	<.001	-.857
		Community	5.79	.979					
Interesting Things to Do	480	Personal	5.18	1.187	-.752	1.049	-15.440	<.001	-.717
		Community	5.93	1.079					
Pride	509	Personal	5.19	1.126	-.688	.836	-18.549	<.001	-.823
		Community	5.88	.953					
Facility Maintenance	487	Personal	5.30	1.155	-.591	.893	-14.612	<.001	-.662
		Community	5.89	1.078					
New Infrastructure	401	Personal	5.34	1.079	-.476	.784	-12.162	<.001	-.607
		Community	5.81	.999					
Negative Impacts									
Delinquent Behaviour	254	Personal	3.57	1.096	.512	.870	9.377	<.001	.589
		Community	3.06	1.305					
Environment	196	Personal	3.35	1.096	.500	.931	7.519	<.001	.537
		Community	2.85	1.284					
Justice	291	Personal	3.50	1.055	.471	1.015	7.916	<.001	.464
		Community	3.03	1.313					
Deny Access	256	Personal	3.24	1.085	.344	.907	6.064	<.001	.380
		Community	2.89	1.308					
Opportunity Cost	315	Personal	3.83	1.132	.264	1.237	3.786	<.001	.213
		Community	3.57	1.518					
Disruption	380	Personal	3.38	1.169	.179	1.004	3.475	.001	.178
		Community	3.21	1.339					

Prices	394	Personal	3.55	1.239	.157	1.094	2.855	.005	.144
		Community	3.39	1.503					

5.8 Discussion

In this study, residents of New Zealand were queried about their perceptions of impacts related to a potential Commonwealth Games. Overall, residents were supportive of bidding for the event which may be best explained by the sport-central culture of New Zealand and/or widespread beliefs about positive impacts that may arise. Several significant impacts emerged - both positive and negative. Residents reported distinct differences on whether impacts were perceived to be more pronounced on a personal or broader community level. What follows is a discussion of each of these results and a wider contextualisation within related sport management research.

5.8.1 Event Support

Residents in Christchurch and Auckland support bidding to host a future Commonwealth Games. In line with previous research in other contexts, the results of this New Zealand based study indicated strong community support for hosting a future Commonwealth Games. There is now a substantial body of research suggesting that residents are generally supportive of major events but research drilling down further on what drives this support is still sparse.

Most major sport event research has focused on residents' perceived impacts of major sport events in isolation (Kim, Gursoy & Lee, 2006; Kim & Petrick, 2005; Gursoy, Kim & Uysal, 2004). However, the results of the current research are consistent with those studies that have investigated the relationship between residents' perceived impacts and their support of major sport events are in line with the results shown in this study (Gursoy et al., 2017; Inoue & Harvard, 2014). Residents perceived that the impacts associated with hosting a major sport event will be predominately positive, and as a consequence are supportive of hosting the event in their region.

5.8.2 Perceived Impacts

In this study, three positive impact perceptions emerged that are significantly related to residents' support to bid for the event: economic impacts, infrastructure and interesting things to do. Three negative impact perceptions were also linked to one's support for the Games: opportunity cost, justice and access denied. Considering the overall event support, Social Representations Theory suggests that residents perceive the pros of hosting a major event as outweighing the cons. This is consistent with the findings of other research in which it has been noted that due to the one-off, short term nature of major sport events residents are willing to overlook negative impacts. (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Gursoy et al., 2017).

5.8.2.1 Economic impacts. Although there is a lack of consensus about whether major events actually deliver economic benefit (Hiller, 2006; Jakobsen, Solberg, Halvorsen & Jakobsen, 2013), residents of potential host cities in New Zealand believe they do and this perception is linked to support to bid for the event. Perceived economic benefits had the strongest influence on a future bid for the Commonwealth Games – a result consistent with previous research (Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo & Alders, 2013). It is argued that when residents' expectations of economic benefits are managed, and they are informed of the potential long-term benefits related to hosting, they are more likely to have greater support for hosting a major sport event (Ritchie, Shipway & Cleeve, 2009).

5.8.2.2 Infrastructure. An increase in entertainment and recreational infrastructure is a well-known benefit of hosting major sport events (Andereck, Valentine, Vogt & Knopf, 2007; Gursoy, Jurowski & Uysal, 2002). This infrastructure may take the form of shopping, cultural or other social opportunities which have been linked to a positive perception of hosting an event (Deery, Jago & Fredline, 2012). The

current findings align and the implication is clear to event organisers. In order to foster community support for a prospective major sport event, it would be wise to highlight the development of infrastructure to residents.

5.8.2.3 Interesting things to do. The perception among residents that as a result of hosting there would be an increase in interesting things to do (attractions to visit for e.g.), had a significant effect on support for a bid to host the Commonwealth Games. Previous research has highlighted the intuitive notion that residents that use new facilities and enjoy new attractions are more likely to support the event (Deery, Fredline & Jago, 2012; Woosnam, Norman & Ying, 2009). Further support for this relationship emerged here.

5.8.2.4 Opportunity cost. The significant expenditure of public funds related to major sport event hosting can be controversial. Although the perception that hosting the Commonwealth Games would result in economic benefits was pervasive in the current sample, those who perceived that public funds in support of the event would be better spent elsewhere was linked to less bid support. Opportunity costs linked to major sport events have been highlighted in previous research (Fredline, Jago & Deery, 2006; Rocha, Barbanti, & Chelladurai, 2017), but it is noteworthy that this was the most significant negative impact in the current study.

It has been suggested that opportunity costs of hosting major sport events is particularly high in developing countries and less so in developed countries (Matheson & Badde, 2004). Developing countries that host a major sport event often have sub-standard social and living conditions (Rocha et al., 2017). Therefore, opportunity costs are more evident and likely to be discussed. Despite being a developed country, consideration of opportunity costs is common and part of the New Zealand culture. There is collective concern for those of lower socio-economic status and residents may

be espousing this local culture through their perception of event-related opportunity costs.

5.8.2.5 Justice. Residents who perceived that the distribution of the costs and benefits associated with hosting the Commonwealth Games would be distributed unfairly across the community, were less likely to support a bid to host the Commonwealth Games in their region. It is evident in previous research that different groups within a host community can have contrasting engagement with an event, and thus are impacted variously (Deery, Jago & Fredline, 2012). For example, those who had greater exposure and interaction with event related tourists are more likely to be impacted positively (Frauman & Banks, 2011). Conversely, the hosting of major sport events are also known to negatively impact certain groups. For example, low socio-economic groups are often displaced in order to develop event related infrastructure (Bull & Lovell, 2007). This unequal distribution of costs and benefits associated with hosting the Commonwealth Games is recognised by residents in this research, and this inequality negatively impacts their support for the event.

5.8.2.6 Access denied. Those who perceived that hosting the Commonwealth Games would result in disrupted access to public facilities were less likely to support a bid to host the event. A large increase in tourists often associated with the hosting of a major sport event. Previous research has found that when this short-term increase in population is accompanied by poor planning and management, there is often a negative impact to residents daily routines and habits, such as access to roads, parks, sporting facilities and public transport (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf & Vogt, 2005). This denial of access can lead to negative perceptions and support for the event (Deery, Jago & Fredline, 2012).

5.8.3 Personal and Community Quality of Life

A clear distinction emerged on how perceived event impacts affect personal and community quality of life. Each of the positive impacts was perceived to have greatest effect at community level, whereas each of the negative impacts was perceived to be more linked to personal quality of life. This result differs from both Fredline, Deery and Jago's (2006) and Al-Emadi et al.'s (2017) studies which found that perceptions of sport event impacts were more aligned with community quality of life as compared to personal quality of life – regardless of whether positive or negative.

The results of this study therefore lend support to the theoretical framework that was advanced and guided it. Strong positivity in relation to event impacts on community and negativity in relation to event impacts personally suggests that both Social Exchange Theory and Social Representations Theory are needed to fully understand the way in which residents perceive impacts of major sport events.

The negativity bias is well established in the field of psychology and is useful in helping to interpret the results of this study. This bias reflects the human tendency to pay more attention or give more weight to a negative experience over a neutral or positive one (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001). Even if negative experiences are inconsequential, humans tend to focus on them.

People generally process negative information more thoroughly, and therefore it more prominently influence impressions than positive information (Baumeister et al., 2001). This greater information processing may be reflected in paying more attention to negative experiences or perceptive, elaborating them more thoroughly, and constructing more extensive cognitive representations of them. In the case of a prospective Commonwealth Games, this may take the form of thinking more about traffic congestion than the pride of one's community hosting a major event. In very

practical terms, that may take the form of a community member commuting through traffic and thinking about how much worse it would be during a major event.

In addition to considering the results of this research in terms of a tendency to focus on the negative, there is also a breadth of cognition issue that is relevant. High motivation and pragmatic concerns cause people to process relevant information more thoroughly (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). It has been argued that people are “cognitive misers” (Baumeister et al., 2001, p. 340). They cannot afford to process all information to an equally full extent, so they must prioritize their cognitive resources and focus on what is important. If negative impacts are perceived to be generally more important than positive perceptions as they relate to personal quality of life, then information pertaining to negative impacts would receive more thorough processing than information about positive impacts, and as a consequence, more weight is given to them.

The extent to which information is processed is related to experiences that are recalled through memory. As negative experiences require greater information processing, this can also lead to stronger memory of negative material (Robinson-Riegler & Winton, 1996). Respondents may have had previous experiences (or become aware of the experiences of others) in which major sport events compromised personal quality of life. Due to the greater weight and information processing that previously has been perceived by these negative impacts, they are more easily able to recall these, than the positive ones. Therefore, when pondering the potential hosting of another major sport event, residents recall this negativity and it affects what they report.

The ‘not in my backyard’ model of community event support (Ahlfeldt & Maennig, 2012; Coates & Wicker, 2015; Delamere, Wankel & Hick, 2001) captures the perception that major sport events benefit wider communities but not at a local

level. Whilst the majority of major sport event studies indicate that those who live closer to the event are more likely to perceive impacts to the community more positively (Coates & Wicker, 2015; Waite, 2003), there are a number of studies that have reported the opposite. For example, Ahlfeldt and Maennig's (2012) study on a referendum for the construction of the Allianz-Arena in Munich found perceived negative impacts related to those living in close proximity to proposed stadium locations. In the referendum, residents were questioned about a number of proposed sites for the new facility. Results indicated that the proportion of 'yes' votes was smaller in areas closer to proposed stadium locations, in comparison to the rest of the city. They argue that these patterns are indicative of costs related to living in close proximity to the stadium, such as construction and increased traffic, that would outweigh the benefits (Ahlfeldt & Maennig, 2012).

Based on this concept, whilst respondents perceive that the community as a whole will be positively impacted if their city was to host the Commonwealth Games, due to the negative perceived impacts to their personal quality of life, they would prefer not to host it in their 'backyard'.

For those associated with major events and decisions about whether to host it's important to understand the human tendency to focus on negatives and try to overcome these through comprehensive communication strategies.

5.9 Limitations and Future Research

It is important to acknowledge the limitations for this study. The extent to which context – that is, the unique facets of New Zealand, and the Commonwealth Games – influences this research has not been determined. However, there is some evidence to suggest that the findings of this research are linked to the context (Fredline, 2005; Schuck & de Vreese, 2015) and therefore not more widely

generalisable. Therefore, overarching conclusions on support for major sport event support, and Commonwealth Games hosting, should be made guardedly.

Several directions for future research have emerged over the course of this wider research project. The focus of this research is on a Commonwealth Games taking place in a single city. Whilst multi-sport events like the Olympics and Commonwealth Games generally take place in a single city, multi-city bidding/hosting models have emerged recently. For example, South-east Queensland is currently putting together a multi-city bid for the Olympic Games in 2032, which will include cities such as Brisbane, Gold Coast and the Sunshine Coast (Caldwell, 2019). Furthermore, media based discussion on New Zealand's future hosting of the Commonwealth Games has often been discussed within a multi-city based concept (McMillan, 2017). Multi-city event hosting has been explored in previous (Bakhsh, Potwarka, Nunkoo & Sunnassee, 2017), although that study took the traditional form of focussing on event support. It is important to explore support for a multi-city bid, and whether perceived impacts, and overall support for an event differs if the event was hosted across multiple cities, as opposed to the traditional one city model. In addition, whether support for hosting a major sport event differs based on proximity to the proposed event venue is an aspect of event support that has been addressed in previous research (e.g. Waitt, 2000), but would be beneficial to address within the New Zealand context. This could be explored in relation to both host city residents, and non host city residents.

5.10 Conclusion

Overall, residents are supportive of bidding to host the Commonwealth Games in New Zealand. Based on Social Representations Theory, it can be inferred that residents view the pros of hosting a major event of this type as outweighing the cons.

This may be best explained by the sport-central culture of New Zealand and/or the widespread beliefs about positive impacts that may arise.

Several significant impacts emerged - both positive and negative. Those that perceived that there would be a positive economic impact associated with hosting, development of infrastructure and an increase in interesting things to do, were more likely to support to bid for the event. Comparatively, the perception that there would be an opportunity cost associated with hosting, that the costs and benefits would be unfairly distributed and there would be a disrupted access to public facilities, was significantly related to decreased support to bid for the event.

In addition, residents reported distinct differences on whether impacts were perceived to be more pronounced on a personal or broader community level. Each of the positive impacts was perceived to have greatest effect at community level, whereas each of the negative impacts was perceived to be more linked to personal quality of life.

This results of this study provide further insights on community member perceptions of major sport events. The findings that residents were generally supportive of hosting a major event and that negativity was mostly at individual level suggest that attempts by international sporting bodies and local officials to highlight hosting benefits at community level may be well received.

STUDY 3

Stakeholder perspectives of major sport event decisions

6.1 Introduction

Despite the belief that winning the rights to host a major sport event is associated with host community support for that event (Kim, Jun, Walker & Drane, 2015; Yong & Ap, 2008), local residents are usually excluded from the decision to bid (Coates & Wicker, 2015). Instead, it is more likely that bid decisions are made by a small group of key stakeholders. However, the significant financial investment that is associated with hosting major sport events, and the increasingly contentious issue of whether local communities benefit (Kim & Petrick, 2005), has raised the question of whether the decision to bid on major sport events should be on the public's political agenda (Coates & Wicker, 2015). The purpose of this research is to better understand stakeholder perspectives of a referendum to help inform a major sport event bid.

Democratic governance has rarely been used as a lens to study the organisation and performance of sport events. However, scholars who have done so note that undemocratic practices such as lack of public participation and transparency, undermine organisational legitimacy and performance (Enjolras & Waldahl, 2010). Parent and Naraine (2016) argued that public participation is a central principle in democratic governance of major sport events. The term 'democracy' is derived from the Greek words *demos*; referring to the people, and *kratos*; referring to political power, and means quite literally that the people hold political power (Mezey, 2008). There are two types of democracy; representative and direct. In a representative democracy, citizens elect officials to create and vote on laws, and make decisions on their behalf (Mezey, 2008). Direct democracy exists when citizens are

provided with the opportunity to participate in the legislative and decision making process (Kellison & Mondello, 2014). Most western countries including New Zealand are governed under a form of representative democracy. However, representative democracy is under pressure, insofar as citizens are increasingly demanding a greater role in decision making (Colombo, 2018; Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). That role may take the form of a referendum.

Referendums are increasingly being used to inform major sport event bid decisions. For example, the city of Sion (Switzerland) withdrew their bid for the 2026 Winter Olympics after 54% of residents voted against the bid in a referendum (Morgan, 2018). In the 2022 Winter Olympic bidding process, four potential host cities held referendums: Krakow, Poland; Oslo, Norway; St. Moritz, Switzerland; and Munich, Germany. In Krakow, St. Moritz and Munich, citizens indicated their lack of support for the bid through a referendum and the bids were removed as a result. Although citizens living in Oslo voted to support the bid, politicians later withdrew their bid (Zaccaradi, 2014). Whilst referendum use is increasingly common as a means to make major sport event decisions, there is a lack of research exploring sport-event referendums.

The majority of sport-event referendum studies have explored resident's resistance towards an Olympic bid (Coates & Wicker, 2015, Konecke, Schubert & Pruess, 2016; Siepell et al., 2016). Data is often collected in conjunction with the referendum itself rather than to capture related sentiments and attitudes explicitly (Coates & Wicker, 2015). Qualitative approaches to research on this phenomenon are rare, and very little is known about how prospective decision makers related to a major sport event perceive the use of a referendum.

A few studies have explored support for referendum use in the decision to fund the construction of stadia for professional sport teams and universities (Horn, Cantor & Fort, 2015; Kellison, Sam, Hong, Swart & Mondello, 2018; Mondello & Kellison,

2016). This research has mostly been undertaken in the United States. Historically, decisions on whether tax revenue is allocated to a stadium project have typically culminated in a vote by citizens (Kellison & Mondello, 2014). However, Scherer and Sam (2008) argue that most public stadiums in North America were built without public consultation, and at times, against the will of the people. Therefore, representative democracy fails in this situation. In these circumstances, it is argued that decisions are often focused heavily on pro-business interests and favour capitalist elites (Scherer & Sam, 2008).

A *no-vote subsidy* occurs when elected officials and public servants allocate public funds towards the construction or renovation of a professional sport stadium without public consent (Kellison & Mondello, 2014). Of the 50 major professional sport facilities that received public funding in North America from 2005 to 2017, only eight were supported by a referendum (Kellison et al., 2017). The remaining 42 stadia received approximately \$8.3 billion of public expenditure through no-vote subsidies (Kellison et al., 2017).

Civic paternalism is a political ideology that characterises the practise of no-vote subsidies in stadium financing decisions. One of the central tensions of a representative democracy is that to some extent, civic paternalism can be perceived as undemocratic. This tends to eventuate when the preferences of community members are perceived by authorities as being contrary to the wider good of that community. Paternalism is modelled on the traditional father-child relationship, in which the father holds absolute authority over his children (Jackman, 1994). His decisions, though sometimes unpopular, are always in the best interests of his family. However, despite apparent benevolence in the father-child relationship, there is not consensus on the merits of paternalism (Pellengrini & Scandura, 2008). For example, some Western

scholars have associated paternalism with authoritarianism (Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh, & Cheng, 2011). Comparatively, some non-Western counterparts view paternalism as respect for authority and conformity (Chen et al., 2011).

Civic paternalism is not itself an action. Rather, it is a belief possessed by some policy-makers that is expressed through their actions. Leaders espousing civic paternalism believe they possess greater knowledge of civic issues than their constituents and justify unpopular decisions by pointing to their belief that a given policy serves the best interests of the entire community; even if community members do not realise that is so (Kellison & Modello, 2014).

It is important to differentiate between stadia and events as sport-based referendum contexts. Wicker and Coates (2018) argued that major event decisions are larger in scope than stadia decisions but are shorter term in nature, as a new stadium is a fixture in the community for decades. Despite the increasing utilization of referendums in stadium and sport-event related cases, key decision-makers may be disincentivised to promote public deliberation on issues such as the construction of sporting infrastructure for a team or event (Kellison, Newman & Bunds, 2017; Scherer & Sam, 2008). Whilst stadium-referendum studies have examined policy maker's support for referendum use in decision-making, no research has yet investigated referendum support by key decision-makers in a potential bid. The purpose of this research is to attempt to understand stakeholder perspectives of using a referendum to inform a major sport event bid. The research questions are; 1) What level of support is there from key decision-makers for the use of a referendum in the decision to bid for a major sport event? and 2) What is the rationale for this level of support?

6.2 Methods

6.2.1 Context

The context of this research is a potential future Commonwealth Games bid from within New Zealand. The Commonwealth Games is a quadrennial, international multi-sport event involving athletes from the Commonwealth of Nations. At the 2018 event, nearly 4500 athletes representing 71 nations competed in 19 sports. New Zealand has not hosted a Commonwealth Games since 1990. A bid in the near future from one of New Zealand's largest cities is probable (Strang, 2018). Auckland and Christchurch are considered likely candidates due to their status as two of New Zealand's largest cities and previous Commonwealth Games hosts.

6.2.2 Participants

The interviewees were purposefully selected to represent views of key stakeholders that are involved in Commonwealth Games bidding and hosting decisions. Purposeful sampling allows the researcher to sample participants in a strategic way, so that those sampled are likely to have insights related to the research questions being posed (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Purposeful sampling also ensures that the sample is varied on key characteristics (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In this study it was important to obtain at least two interviewees from the various groups that would be involved in a potential Commonwealth Games bid. The researcher identified six groups from which to recruit study participants: 1) senior government officials, 2) city councillors in both cities, 3) senior major sport event officials in both cities, 4) executives at national sport organisation, 5) executives from the National Olympic Committee and 6) bid consultants for major events. Bid consultants were included in the study as they are often contracted by Government agencies during the bid decision-making phase to investigate the feasibility of hosting. They then create a report from their findings, including recommendations on whether to bid or not. Using the researchers own network and through facilitated introductions, potential interview

participants were directly invited through email or phone. In a few instances, invitations were communicated through official channels.

6.2.3 Procedure

Semi-structured interviews were employed to generate the qualitative data for this study. This type of interview provides structure through the use of scripted questions designed to elicit focused answers, while also allowing for the ability to pursue comments of interest to gain greater insight (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009). Semi-structured interviewing is particularly suited to examining uncharted territory (Adams, 2015). Interviewers have the opportunity to identify and pursue unanticipated directions that the conversation flows. .

A total of 17 participants were willing to participate when invited. Interviews were conducted in person where possible. However, some interviews were conducted by telephone. Prior to each interview, an information sheet (Appendix B) was emailed to the participants. In some cases, participants requested an indication of questions that would be asked. In these cases, an indicative question sheet (Appendix C) was emailed to them. Respondents were asked to answer a number of items querying determinants of support for a Commonwealth Games referendum and their intention to participate. Interviews took place between April 2018 and April 2019. The duration of each interview was 30 minutes to one hour, and each was recorded on a smart phone. A summary of the interviewees is listed in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1
Summary of Profiles of Key Stakeholders Interviewed

Interviewee	Stakeholder Group
SGO1	Senior Government Official
SGO2	
SGO3	
CC1	City Councillor
CC2	
CC3	
CC4	
ME1	City Major Events Official
ME2	
NSO1	National Sport Organisation Executives
NSO2	
NOC1	National Olympic Committee Executives
NOC2	
NOC3	
BC1	Bid Consultant
BC2	
BC3	

6.2.4 Data Analysis

Thematic analysis was initially employed to organize the transcribed interview data. Thematic analysis moves beyond counting explicit words or phrases, and allows a greater focus on identifying and describing both implicit and explicit ideas within the data (Guest, MacQueen & Namey, 2012). The approach allows the exploration of participants' lived experiences, perspectives, behaviour and practices, the social practices that influence and shape phenomena, the norms and rules that govern particular practices, as well as the social construction of meaning and representation of social objects in particular contexts (Clarke & Braun, 2013). As such, thematic analysis provides an appropriate method in which to explore perceptions of referendum use in the decision to host major sport events. Thematic networks were developed, which allow for links and meanings to be explored between themes in a structured manner (Attride-Stirling, 2001). The procedure consisted of finding simple

characteristics across the transcribed data set and systematically coding using with NVivo.

To start, the researcher became familiar with, and reflected on the data collected from the interviews. This process was followed by an initial coding stage, in which relevant pieces of data were given descriptive codes. Codes are comprised of a descriptive word or phrase that is intended to describe a fragment of data, and are primarily text-based (Rogers & Goodrick, 2015). Next, clusters of codes were formed into a group. Each group incorporates a collection of codes that relate to the same issue, topic or feature in the data. From there, similarities, differences and networks between groups of codes were considered, themes derived and ultimately analysed (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Bryman & Bell, 2011).

6.3 Results

The purpose of this research was to investigate; 1) What level of support is there from key decision-makers for the use of a referendum in the decision to bid for a major sport event, and 2) What is the rationale for this level of support.

Based on semi-structured interviews with 17 key decision-makers, five significant themes emerged: 1) referendum resistance, 2) civic paternalism, 3) information, 4) past referendum experience, and 5) lack of time.

6.3.1 Theme 1: Referendum Resistance

All interviewees indicated a general resistance to the use of a referendum in the decision to host a major sport event in New Zealand, such as the Commonwealth Games. Several interviewees suggested that referendums are a barrier to bidding for events. One interviewee stated, *“We wouldn’t do vox-pops or a referendum, or anything like that because you’d just never get anything done. You’d be asking people all the time. So we wouldn’t do that”* [ME2]. Another interviewee explained, *“Going*

out and polling the public in advance of a bid means we would bid for next to nothing” [NSO1]. Furthermore, the same interviewee described what a referendum requirement would have meant for the 2011 Rugby World Cup bid, *“Looking at the beginning of the process for the Rugby World Cup, if we’d had to run a referendum to determine whether we bid, we probably wouldn’t have bid, because it was hard enough convincing NZ Rugby that a bid was worthwhile. After 2003 when we lost the hosting rights, the public would have been ‘well we’re never going to win it, why would we want to embarrass ourselves a second time’. So I would be pretty certain if we had to go to a referendum, NZ Rugby were so indifferent to that it would have been a barrier too far, and we wouldn’t have bid”* [NSO1].

Some interviewees perceived that the cost associated with holding a referendum was not a reasonable way to make a bid decision. The referendum process is too expensive to justify its use. One interviewee stated, *“I do not believe that the expense and time of a referendum would be justified for a decision such as this”* [SGO1]. Similarly, another interviewee proposed, *“There needs to be a cost-benefit analysis as to whether a referendum is the answer. There’s got to be a better way to do it than a costly referendum”* [BC2]. Furthermore, one interviewee indicated that the cost of a referendum would put too much pressure on an already constrained budget, *“Rather than winning the bid, you’re putting financial and other resources into convincing people to bid, and often the bid resources are really constrained already”* [NSO1].

Interviewee participants also argued that a referendum is too ‘blunt’ for a decision to be made on such a dynamic and complex issue. One interviewee stated, *“A referendum, as we have seen internationally in some cases, can actually be a very blunt tool”* [NOC3]. Several interviewees argued that the typical binary ‘yes or no’

nature of a question posed in a referendum is not overly helpful to those making the decision on whether to proceed with a bid. One interview stated, *“The problem I have with public opinion is that it’s a bit like asking the question, do you want to pay more taxes? There’s a whole lot of layers to that question”* [NOC3]. Another interviewee explains the dynamic and complex nature of putting in a bid for a major event and why a binary question does not capture this, *“It’s really hard to get a simple question when you have a dynamic thing going. You could ask should we bid for the Commonwealth Games, but that has to depend of resourcing from central government, resourcing from local government, resourcing from the Commonwealth Games Association, international advertising, and there’s the question of whose going to build the facilities, and all of these things are quite up in the air before you make the decision”* [SGO1]. Some of the interviewees discussed the need for additional questions than just the yes-no options. One interviewee argued, *“You just can’t get hundreds of people to go ‘no’ to something. You need the reasons why they are saying no”* [CC2]. Similarly, another interviewee stated, *“I certainly would like to see a number of questions and options posed. It’s all very well...would you? Yes or no? If yes, why? Would you support a number of subsequent questions, and if not, do you support a number of following questions. A black and white referendum would not be of any value at all”* [CC1].

Some interviewees were resistant to the use of a referendum due to perception that the result would be negatively skewed due to the type of people they believed would turn up to vote. One interviewee noted, *“Referendums pull out of the woodwork all the people who think ‘no I don’t want that’. Or, it’s one end or the other, ‘yes I definitely want that’ or ‘no, it’s a terrible idea’. You don’t pull your middle group”* [NOC2]. Another interviewee argued that a particular age of citizen was also more

likely to vote, and that could come with particular bias in results, *“The nature of a referendum will mean that older people are more likely to take part, and they are more likely to be worried about the expenditure of money”* [NSO1]. The same interviewee goes on to explain, *“When it’s at the scale that requires significant investment that you are more than likely to get a result that is skewed to the negative, and then what do you do? Or what do you do if people are indifferent? Because a lot of people are going to say ‘I don’t care, if they want to they can’.* [NSO1].

6.3.2 Theme 2: Civic Paternalism

A theme that was evident throughout the majority of the interviews was that it was the responsibility of the Government to make decisions on behalf of its constituents, and therefore putting a major sport event decision out for citizen feedback is not advisable. One senior government official stated, *“It is a core responsibility of government to make spending decisions like this”* [SGO1]. Similarly, another interviewee noted, *“A lot of stuff happens without referendums. A lot of stuff of major proportions. We elect a government, and they do something”* [NOC1]. One of the participants argued that it is the role of the government to understand both the feasibility and public support for hosting a major sport event, *“The politicians that make the decision understand that. That’s their job to understand it. The civil servants are recommending them to make that decision are understanding that. To actually try and put your arms around all of that and get every person that would be voting in a referendum to understand that is almost impossible”* [ME2].

Several of the interviewees argued that it is the role of the government and key decision makers to make controversial decisions that are unpopular. One interviewee stated, *“Government has to make unpopular decisions, and they have to have a wider view. Almost everything they do a certain portion of the country won’t like.”* [BC1].

Past examples were discussed of major sport events that had been bid for without public support, but eventually resulted in a successful and popular event. One interviewee argues, *“History would show that after the event has been run, the vast majority of people, even if they opposed the bid, said ‘yes, that was a really good thing’* [NSO1]. Several interviewees recalled the change of public sentiment towards New Zealand hosting the 2011 Rugby World Cup. For example, one interviewee recalled, *“If you had done a referendum in the lead up to the Rugby World Cup, you probably wouldn’t have hosted it because the public opinion, certainly in Auckland anyway; everyone was so down on the Rugby World Cup, even six months out. Now if you ask people about it, everybody, even people that hate rugby, believe that the Rugby World Cup was really good for New Zealand”* [SGO3].

At the time of the interviews taking place, the decision on whether New Zealand should host the 2021 America’s Cup was topical in the media and amongst practitioners across the sport industry. Some interviewees discussed that the general negative public opinion on hosting the event was due to the public’s inability to see the wider picture, and their opinion would likely change during the event. For example, one interviewee states, *“The America’s Cup bid was certainly not supported by the country. But it’s not like a big part of it. It’s like a lot of political decisions you are making at a much wider context than what is popular now. The America’s Cup is probably a classic, where people are against it, except for the six weeks that it’s actually happening”* [SGO2]. Similarly, another interviewee highlighted the difficulty for public to see wider picture of hosting a major sport event, *“The America’s Cup, for New Zealand and for Auckland, isn’t an event. It’s a transformational piece of work that is cross cutting. So it has an economic end, it has an infrastructure end, it has all sorts of things, and right at the middle of that, at the point end, is obviously an event*

that will attract people in, and so on...It's just one of those things that has the opportunity for us to use that, and for the government, local government, to use that as a vehicle for social change, for infrastructure change. That's not an event anymore. It's actually a construct, and I think that's why a referendum is not a good idea, because people have to understand all those issues, and the relative costs and benefits about whether it's worth doing" [ME2].

6.3.3 Theme 3: Provision and Understandability of Related Information

A third key theme that emerged from the interviews was the issue of providing the public with enough information to make an informed decision in a referendum. One interviewee captures this issue by stating, *"It's a matter of how much information are they going to have. Public opinion is only as relevant as the information that people receive to make that opinion. So there's a question of what sort of information is then provided before you go and test that opinion" [NOC3].* Some respondents discussed that due to the confidential nature of some of the information needed to make a bid decision, the public will not have enough information to make an informed decision. For example one interviewee states, *"The only way people are going to be able to make the decision is if people have all the information, and in some cases we aren't necessarily able to share that information. Some of its confidential with the Commonwealth Games. Especially around costs. They would be able to be given approximates around the costs, but the details around that would be quite confidential" [ME1].* Furthermore, one bid consultant stated, *"Public consultation around a bid hasn't been done in bids I've been involved in, and in fact couldn't have been done due to conditions related to non-disclosure" [BC2].* The same interviewee continues on to explain, *"If it's a major event and you are getting Government funding, you are generally having to secure that Government funding prior to putting in that bid, or you*

make a bid conditional on Government funding, which doesn't present as a positive bid. So the reality is that you've often gone quite a way down the track, and often the conditions of the bid are that the details can't be made public. So it is generally done on a confidential basis" [BC2].

The inability of the public to understand the information needed to make an informed decision was seen by some interviewees as a barrier for the use of a referendum. One interviewee stated, *"Everything comes back to the information that they are given. Everyone sees the sport element of it, they don't seem to see the political or the conferences and meeting that are wrapped around it. That could be communicated, but again, do people really understand it"* [ME1]. A senior government official reflects on what may happen if the public were given information that they could understand, *"If the public did understand the opportunity, and were given the information so they would understand, then a referendum does help you to choose between what is still a massive amount of expenditure. It's your money, do you want us to spend it on this or not? If they 'really' know what they are spending their money on, it's a good question. But, can 'really' get people to understand what they are spending their money on in a one pager for a referendum, and trust that people will read it?"* [SGO1].

Several interviewees pointed to the importance of how information would need to be 'pitched' to the public if there was to be a referendum. A National Olympic Committee manager stated, *"I guess the only risk is that you don't have enough opportunity or forums to sell the benefits, and so it's the risk of getting a 'no'. If a referendum was deemed to be a requirement, which wouldn't necessarily be my preference, but if it was a requirement, I think the risk would be that you wouldn't get the chance to tell a story"* [NOC1]. Comparably, a bid consultant, in relation to

communication around the cost of hosting, stated, *“Often those numbers can be very scary for people. You’d have to approach it very carefully. It’s certainly the messaging around that and how you can sell the Government spending that type of money”* [BC1].

6.3.4 Theme 4: Perceptions of Past Referendums

Negative perceptions of past referendum experiences was a key theme that was evident in the interviews. These perceptions seemed to be linked to the interviewee’s view of a referendum as a tool to make a major sport event decision. Several interviewees recalled their perceptions of the most recent referendum in New Zealand, regarding whether to change the national flag. Some perceived the cost of the referendum to take place negatively. One interviewee stated, *“As we all found out with the flag referendum, it wasn’t cheap”* [ME1]. Similarly, another interviewee stated, *“What worries me most about a referendum is the cost of it. When you look at the amount that went into the bloody referendum, for example, I think that’s just poorly spent money”* [BC2]. Another interviewee referred to their negative perception of the flag referendum process, *“We obviously went through a referendum for the flag which didn’t pass because you’ve got so many different options it could have been. I think that was an interesting process”* [BC2].

Several interviewees also referred to Britain’s recent Brexit referendum in regards to why they did not support the use of a referendum in a major sport event decision. One interviewee stated, *“I don’t want to appear as I’m elevated about a robust democratic process, but a referendum, as we have seen internationally in some cases, the most recent of course is Brexit, it can actually be very blunt tools”* [NOC2]. Another interviewee reflects on the lack of ability to provide voters with sensitive information, *“A referendum would require sensitive information, and we’ve seen*

again, it will be cited forever, the mis-information around Brexit resulted in chaos. You've got to be upfront with the public, this is exactly what it's going to cost, this is what we think the benefits will be, and we are asking for your support. So really good information is required" [CC2]. Furthermore, another interviewee referred to the inability of voters to understand the information, which they perceived was why a referendum is not favourable, *"You only have to look at the UK with the Brexit referendum. If you actually asked people in Britain to explain why they voted the way they voted, most of them can't explain it, and that's the danger you open yourself up to with a referendum. People vote with their heart because their head isn't capable of understanding. Very few people, even those immersed in it, don't fully understand it, because it's very complex"* [ME2].

6.3.5 Theme 5: Lack of Time

The final theme that was evident throughout several of the interviews was the lack of time in the bidding process to hold a referendum. As one interviewee stated, *"A referendum would certainly slow it down a long way"* [SGO2]. Several interviewees recalled their experience with past bids, and the small time frame typically required to compile a bid. One interviewee considered the difficulty if a referendum was required, *"One of the challenges would be thinking of the time frames. The time and energy you would need to get all these things in place in a relatively quick time"* [NOC1]. When considering the lack of time in the bid process to hold a referendum, one interviewee recalled the tight time frame of a previous bid, *"With the Rugby World Cup, because the timeline was really tight, we commissioned with Government a full feasibility study, but we couldn't wait for the outcome of that. We had to push go on preparing the bid. But we got the feasibility study and the Government only committed to support the bid about a month before it had to be submitted"* [NSO1].

6.4 Discussion

The purpose of this research is to attempt to understand stakeholder perspectives on using a referendum to inform a major sport event bid. The research attempted to answer two research questions; 1) What level of support is there from key decision-makers for the use of a referendum in the decision to bid for a major sport event, and 2) What is the rationale for this level of support. Data was collected through the purposeful selection of interviewees that represent the views of key stakeholders that are involved in Commonwealth Games bidding and hosting decisions. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 17 key decision-makers of a major sport event bid decisions. Data was analysed through the employment of thematic analysis techniques. The findings of this research will be discussed within this section.

6.4.1 Referendum Support

The first finding from this research addressed the level of support for referendum use by key decision-makers. There was a unanimous resistance towards referendum used in the decision to bid for the Commonwealth Games. Given the increasing utilization of referendums in stadium and sport event related cases, it is largely assumed that it is a popular tool among decision-makers (Kellison et al., 2017; Wicker & Coates, 2018). However, the findings of this research do not support this assumption. A prospective referendum related to a Commonwealth Games bid was largely characterized as a ‘barrier too far’ in the bid process. Some interviewees believed that if a referendum was required as part of the Commonwealth Games bid process, then it would be unlikely that a bid would be submitted. In a climate in which event proponents often need to lobby the benefits of hosting to both the national sport organization and the Government, having to get these two major stakeholders on board, in addition to the public, is seen as too much of a challenge.

6.4.2 Rationale for Referendum Resistance

The general lack of support for the use of a referendum in a major sport event bid decision was rationalized for a number of reasons. A referendum was seen as too ‘blunt’ of a method to be used in the decision whether to bid for a Commonwealth Games. It was argued that the typical ‘yes or no’ nature of referendum question does not capture the dynamics and complexity of a major sport event decision, and as such, is not overly helpful. This criticism of referendums is not novel. Critics have previously condemned referendums as oversimplifying a complex situation (Balasco & Carrion, 2019). Rather, several interviewees identified the need to understand the reasons why one would answer ‘yes’ or ‘no’. A preference to expand on the focal referendum question with further related queries came through from the interviewees. Generating additional information as to *why* one voted in the way that they did on a referendum, is seen as more valuable.

The wider theme of referendum resistance that emerged from the interview data was also attributed to the perception that results from a referendum would likely be negatively skewed, due to the type of people they believed would turn up to vote. The issue of whether a referendum is a true representation of public opinion has emerged in conjunction with previous studies of referendums. Previous research has found that citizens with low income, less education, the young, and ethnic minorities, are less likely to vote in elections and referendums (Armingeon & Schadel, 2015; Hajnal & Trounstine, 2005; Leighley & Nagler, 2013). Based on this, the interviewee’s perceptions that referendum results do not truly represent the population could be argued as founded.

Whilst it is arguable that referendum results do not embody a true representation of a populations demographics, those interviewed in the current study

were more concerned with the type of people that would turn up to vote. There was a general consensus that only those who strongly were against, or strongly for bidding, would vote in a referendum. This perception is consistent with previous research on voter turnout in which it was found that citizens with extreme, often negative opinions, are more likely to vote than indifferent individuals (Streicher, Schmidt & Schreyer, 2019). Based on this rationale, putting a bid decision out onto the public political agenda through a referendum would unlikely provide a true representation of community sentiment.

Another dimension of referendum resistance highlighted by interviewees was the high cost of implementation, and that it was not a justifiable use of public funds. Rather, holding a referendum would put too much pressure on an already limited budget. The costs associated with holding a referendum have been covered in the popular press (Little, 2016) and scholarly literature (Setälä, 1999). Research within the sport facility context has associated referendums as expensive decision-making tools (Paul & Brown, 2006). However, the cost is not only associated with referendum process, but also aligned media campaigns. Whilst proponents of sport facility construction routinely spend significantly on advertising prior to a referendum, there is little evidence that media campaigns affect the final vote (Paul & Brown, 2006). Some scholars recommend the use of alternative direct democratic approaches, such as public meetings and forums, as they are relatively low cost in organizations in comparison to referendums (Lowndes, Pratchett & Stoker, 2006). Whilst it is clear that there is resistance towards the use of a referendum the decision on whether to bid for the Commonwealth Games, the use of other forms of public consultation may provide a useful and cost effective alternative.

Another finding from this research was that the resistance expressed by stakeholder decision makers toward a potential Commonwealth Games referendum reflected that of a civic paternalistic ideology. Civic paternalism is based on a belief in a trustee form of representation, and implies that by electing individuals to offices, voters are entrusting them to make often difficult, and sometimes unpopular, decisions that will benefit the community as a whole (Kellison et al., 2014). The majority of interviewees believed that it was the responsibility of Government to make decisions on behalf of the citizens. There was a shared belief amongst those interviewed that citizens do not necessarily know what is best for them, and thus, it was the role of politicians to make important decisions on their behalf. Some interviewees described prior situations in which major sport event decisions were made without community support. In spite of this lack of support, each event that was described was ultimately successful. To the interviewees, this provided justification for bid decisions that may have seemed counter to popular opinion. Their view was that ultimately bidding for the event will prove to be a successful decision, and the community will eventually recognize that they are better off for having hosted. This belief exemplifies civic paternalism.

A key tenant that embodies paternalism is the belief that decisions may contradict what is popular in the best interests of the collective (Jackman, 1994). Leaders that embrace civic paternalism believe they possess greater knowledge than their constituents regarding important issues, and thus justify unpopular decisions by pointing to their belief that a given policy serves the best interests of the entire community; even if community members do not realise that is so (Kellison & Modello, 2014). This phenomenon characterised the perceptions that were articulated by the majority of those who were interviewed.

Furthermore, another finding from this research was the inability for key decision-makers to provide the necessary information, and for the public to understand it, in order to make an informed decision in a referendum. The confidential nature of the information, as well as the presence of non-disclosure conditions mean that the public are not given access to information required to make an informed decision. This is very important because previous research has shown that information delivered during referendum campaigns can have substantial effects on voting decisions (Morisi, 2018). As was noted in recent research related to the Brexit referendum, when voters are not supplied with sufficient information, the legitimacy of the referendum result is questioned (Welfens, 2016). It could be argued that in order to hold a legitimate referendum, sufficient information (including any that is sensitive) should be communicated to voters.

In addition to the supply of information, the public's ability to understand complex information related to a Commonwealth Games bid was highlighted as a crucial barrier for the use of a referendum. Previous research has examined the understandability of information in relation to voting. The perception of public ignorance is seen as a barrier to referendum success (McAllister, 2001). Some argue that voters who vote uninformed are more likely to make inept choices that are contrary to their own interests (Arnold, 2012). However, the public making uninformed political decisions based on their inability to understand complex information is not as straightforward as it may seem.

The *Theory of Rational Ignorance* is useful to help understand some voting behaviour. Within this ideology, a lack of understanding of information is considered a natural consequence of the wider process of consuming political information (Downs, 1957). Ignorance about an issue is said to be 'rational' when the cost of educating

oneself about the issue, in order to make an informed decision, can outweigh the perceived benefit that one would expect to gain from that decision (Congleton, 2001). As a result, voters rely on “information short-cuts” to more efficiently obtain relevant knowledge, such as seeking cues for more knowledgeable elites (Arnold, 2012, p. 797). Based on rational ignorance ideology, it could be argued that rather than an inability to understand complex information, it is a perception that fully educating oneself to make an informed decision is not worth it. Whilst rationally ignorant decisions may be seen as a natural consequence of the political process, whether they provide a robust and legitimate public decision on an issue is arguable. Political decisions made by a public who are rationally ignorant, and thus uninformed, may lead to decisions that do not represent the desire of the collective. Based on this concept, key decision-makers of a potential Commonwealth Games bid believe that the general public is rationally ignorant, and as such, will likely be uninformed on the knowledge required to vote in a manner that truly represents the communities collective sentiments.

Another finding of this research is the importance placed on how event bidding information is ‘pitched’ to the public. How key decision-makers would ‘sell the benefits’ and ‘tell the story’ were common concerns of how the information was communicated to voters. The ‘pitching’ of information has been explored in prior research within the New Zealand sport context. Scherer and Sam (2008) examined five public meetings in which citizens deliberated on the use of public funds for the \$143 million renovation of Carisbrook, a rugby stadium in Dunedin, New Zealand. A number of coercive tactics and campaigning were observed in the meetings, and it was argued that those with vested interest in the stadium were using their positions to alter the structure of a supposedly democratic process to garner more favour for the stadium

(Scherer & Sam, 2008). This research demonstrates that other forms of direct democratic practices, public meetings and consultation forums, are often significantly impacted by political agendas. The interviewees in the current research indicated that a Commonwealth Games referendum would likely feature similar coercive tactics and campaigning.

The importance of how politicians make available information related to contentious decisions is well established in the literature. Campaign arguments can have a significant impact on voter choice in referendums (de Vreese & Semetko, 2004; Schuck & de Vreese, 2009). How an issue is 'pitched' can influence voter decisions, not only by persuading voters, but also by reducing the uncertainties related to information supplied for voters to make this decision (Alvarez & Brehm, 2002). This plays a crucial role in referendum campaigns as voters are asked to understand complex issues in order to make a decision. Interviewees in the current research noted that how sport event-related information is 'pitched' to voters can influence how they understand and perceive the information provided.

The perceived time-consuming nature of the referendum process was another important finding of this research. Some of the interviewees noted that previous major sport event bid decisions in New Zealand were made on short time frames, and a referendum would not have been possible. This perception is in line with previous research criticising referendums as time consuming and likely to slow down political decision-making (Papadopoulos, 2001). Some scholars argue that referendums are detrimental to political processes, as an ever-quicken pace of life demands swift changes (Freitag & Vatter, 2006). This sentiment was also espoused in the current research context of the major sport event bid process. Interviewees relayed the dynamic and quick nature of bids are compiled, approved and submitted. In the current

climate, the interviewees suggested, it is arguable that a referendum will indeed slow the process down, which will likely jeopardize submitting a bid in time. If a referendum were to be used in an NZ Commonwealth Games bid decision the Government would need to commit to bid earlier, or at least commit to an ‘expression of interest’. This would also allow time to complete the necessary feasibility study, and disseminate related information for citizens to make an informed decision.

The final finding that emerged in this research was that perceptions of past referendums shaped the views of key stakeholders on a prospective Commonwealth Games referendum. It was evident that an aversion to a potential major sport event referendum was linked to negative perceptions of prior referendums – even those not carried out in the context of sport. Two referendums which the interviewees had negative perceptions were Brexit and the attempt by a previous government to change New Zealand’s flag. Prominent perceptions were that those two referendums were not robust political processes due to mis-information and misunderstanding, and that they were not worth the cost. Consequently, most of the interviewees reported negative sentiments about a potential Commonwealth Games bid-related referendum.

Cognitive biases that impact judgements and decision making are well established in both social and political psychology research (Blanco, Gomez-Fortes, & Matute, 2018; Wolton, 2019). Cognitive biases represent a pattern of deviation in judgements, in which the inferences individuals make about other people and situations can be illogical (Ramos, 2017). An anchoring bias occurs when an individual relies too heavily, or ‘anchors’, on one piece of information when making decisions (Kahneman, 2011). Affected individuals are often anchored by their first perception or first piece of information which they have obtained (Ramos, 2017). Once an anchor is set, other

judgements are made by adjusting away from that anchor, which can limit one's ability to accurately interpret new and potentially relevant information.

It appears that anchoring bias may be relevant in the context of stakeholders' perceptions about a potential major sport event referendum. Judgements about the focus of this study seemed to be inextricably anchored on perceptions of other, highly controversial referendums. These referendum perceptions provide the interviewees with an 'anchor' in which views on future referendum evaluations are based on. Subsequently, potential future referendums are viewed in the same light as previous referendum experiences, which have predominantly not been positive.

6.5 Practical Implications

While it is evident civic paternalism characterises key decision-makers perceptions on referendums, this belief is at odds with the increasing demand by citizens to have a greater role in political decision making (Colombo, 2018; Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). New Zealand does not necessarily need to completely adopt a direct democratic political system, as seen in Switzerland. However, increasing use of direct democratic practices such as referendums will increase the role the public play in political decisions, and moderate actions derived from the civic paternalistic beliefs of the elite minority.

Although a referendum may not be a preferable means by key decision-makers in New Zealand to gauge public opinion for future major event bids, there are other forms of direct democratic participation. For example, public meetings and forums may provide key decision-makers with a perspective of public opinion in lieu of a referendum. It is argued that such democratic mechanisms can deliver a more inclusive and nuanced process, when compared to referendums (Balasco & Carrion, 2019). However, these forms of public participation processes do not come without their own

challenges. Public meetings and consultation forums are often significantly impacted by political agendas. If key decision-makers to a potential Commonwealth Games bid wish to embrace public participation in an alternative form, such as public consultation meetings, they must ensure that these forums are without campaigning and political coercion.

Previous research has shown that providing citizens with a good level of information, and in a manner in which is easily understandable and interpreted is a key component for a robust and successful voting process (Kildea & Smith, 2016). However, interviewees indicated the difficulties of being able to provide the necessary information to the public in order for them to make an informed decision. Information is often confidential, and key decision-makers are bound by non-disclosure agreements. Therefore, if key decision-makers in a potential Commonwealth Games bid wish to utilize public participation in a bid decision, they must first consider ways in which they can provide robust information in an easily understandable and interpreted format.

6.6 Future Research

It is clear that key decision-makers play an important role in how decisions are made on whether to bid for major sport events. Whether through the use of referendum or other public participation processes, it is important to understand support, or lack of, in gauging public opinion through various means.

Whilst the notion of paternalism is not a new concept in political science, the ideology of civic paternalism is fairly novel. Having been first conceptualised within a sport facility context (Kellison, Newman, & Bunds, 2017; Kellison & Mondello, 2014), this study provides a related, but novel context in which to build on this theory.

Further research on the ideology of civic paternalism, and its effects on the decision-making process, in both the sport and wider context is important.

Previous studies have examined the relationship between the level of information that the public have and support for a major sport event, with varying results (Muller, 2012, Scheu & Preuss, 2018). However, no research as yet addressed whether the level of information residents have access to affects their support to bid for a major sport event. Research on this would provide greater clarity as to whether perceptions of public ignorance by key decision-makers are founded. Furthermore, what the level and format of information is sufficient to provide a public with the ability to be informed voters in a major sport event bid.

6.7 Conclusion

A strong resistance towards the use of a referendum to decide whether to bid to host a major sport event was evident among all key decision-makers in a potential bid who were interviewed in this study. Given the increasing utilization of in stadium and sport event related cases, it is largely assumed that it is a popular tool among decision-makers (Kellison et al., 2017; Wicker & Coates, 2018). However, the results of this research challenge this assumption.

The majority of interviewees displayed a disposition best understood in terms of a civic paternalistic ideology, and were strong proponents of representative democratic practices. However, politicians and key decision-makers with civic paternalistic beliefs are becoming increasingly controversial. Representative democracy is changing, insofar as citizens are increasingly demanding a greater role in decision making (Colombo, 2018; Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). This has been evidenced by increasingly number of referendums used by cities to decide whether to host the Olympic Games (Wicker & Coates, 2018). Whilst key decision-makers to a

future Commonwealth Games bid may believe that they understand what is best for the collective, the calls to enhance citizen decision-making may be getting more difficult to ignore.

In addition to the aforementioned and prominent civic paternalism relating to decision-making, resistance to a Commonwealth Games referendum was also linked to related barriers. The unwillingness of key decision-makers to provide confidential information to the public, and their belief that this information is too complex for the general public to understand, was seen as an important barrier to the use of a referendum in a Commonwealth Games bid decision. Lack of time within the bid process in which to implement a referendum was also identified as a barrier to referendum use. Finally, negative perceptions of past referendums, were inextricably linked to perceptions of a potential Commonwealth Games referendum.

DISCUSSION

This research explored the use of referendums to inform bid decisions for major sport events. Whilst referendums have long been used as a means to engage citizens in political decision-making, little is known about support for such a process within a major sport event context. Therefore, this research drew upon theory and concepts from political science and psychology to explore support for such a process. This research provides evidence that constructs found to be connected to referendums and citizen engagement in decision-making in these fields are also important within the context of major sport events. The following sections discuss the complexity of the issue, the non-institutionalisation of referendums, and the polarising opinions evident in this research. There is also a section outlining how this research allows us to predict the nature of bid decision-making, and informing how stakeholders ought to act. Finally, limitations of this study will be acknowledged, as well as identifying areas of future research.

7.1 Complexity of Issue

Referendums are nothing if not a complex. Not only is there complexity related with the way that referendums are perceived by community members, but also by those who make major sport event bid decisions. Consequently, it is not clear if referendums are considered a valid democratic process. Whilst New Zealand is a proud democratic country (Daly, 2019), democracy means many different things to many different people. There were two clear perspectives on democracy evident in this research. Some view public participation in political decision-making as a central principle in democratic governance. Comparatively, others think that it is the role of government,

as citizen elected officials, to make decisions on behalf of their people. These principal beliefs seem to guide one's perspectives on the use of referendums. In addition to one's views on democracy, it is evident that there are numerous factors that affect one's perspective on referendum use in a major sport event bid decision.

Organisations and individuals are often called to make decisions in complicated and complex environments. These decisions often include interactions with multiple other parties. Both of which would be evident within a major sport event referendum context in New Zealand. *Game Theory* is a mathematical field developed to understand and advise individuals and organisations on how to make strategic decisions (Gillman & Housman, 2019). Essentially, game theory embodies a way in which one can look at the world, giving the decision-maker a collection of tools to make a decision. The foundation of game theory is that decisions are interdependent, and not made by a single actor (Burkey, 2003). Consequently, 'pay off' is a key principle within game theory (Gillman & Housman, 2019). When one analyses strategic situations (i.e. games), it is important to understand the motivations of the players involved. What are the potential outcomes, or 'pay off' for each individual, or organisation, affected by the decision? Game theory recognises that decision-making is not focused on one decision-maker getting what they want, but rather, about maximising their 'score' in comparison to others parties in the 'game' (Gillman & Housman, 2019). Whilst the use of a referendum in a major sport event decision may seemingly look like a simple 'yes' or 'no' decision, it is contextualised within a complex environment. This environment represents a multitude of stakeholders with differing motivations, each looking to obtain varying 'pay offs'.

7.2 Non-Institutionalisation of Referendums

Referendums are becoming increasingly normalised in the constitutional practices of many countries (Tierney, 2013). Internationally, their use has grown in the last three to four decades (Ovortrup, 2014). In Switzerland, on average, citizens have the opportunity to vote on nine referendum topics per year (Ovortrup, 2014). It appears as if this institutionalisation of referendums is now pervasive in the context of major sport events. For example, European countries are increasingly using referendums to aid decisions on whether to host the Olympic Games (Wicker & Coates, 2018). In addition, to some extent, the use of referendums in sport facility development decisions is an institutional practise within the United States (Kellison, Newman & Bunds, 2017).

Currently, there is no legislation in New Zealand that requires a referendum to be conducted in the context of important decisions that are likely to be contentious. At present, referendums are only held at the behest of Government. Therefore, it is not surprising that the utilisation of referendums on sport related issues is not an institutionalised feature in New Zealand. Over the past 70 years there have only been 10 government-initiated referendums in New Zealand (Boston, 2019). However, it emerged in this research, that New Zealanders might desire greater transparency and engagement in political decisions. With three referendums lined up for 2020, the Government seems to be aware of this shift and is responding positively. Voters will be asked to make a decision on recreational marijuana use, euthanasia and the mixed-member proportional (MMP) system of governance. Whether the Government's willingness to engage the public extends to major sport event bid decisions is yet to be seen. Evidence from this research suggests that this is likely not the case.

7.3 Polarising Opinions

Taken collectively, the results of this research provide clear evidence of polarising opinions related to major sport event referendums. The majority of New Zealanders support and would likely participate in a referendum to bid for the Commonwealth Games, and yet those who might initiate the process are unanimously against it. This may be representative of misaligned values between decision makers and community members.

Referendum support and participation was largely driven by citizens who were politically cynical. Referendums provide an alternative method in which citizens can have their say on political matters, within a political climate they distrust and feel disenfranchised by (Schuck & de Vreese, 2015). Evidence suggests that this sense of political cynicism is not unjustified. Key decision-makers predominantly believed that the average citizen was incapable of making an informed decision on the seemingly complex issue of whether to bid for a Commonwealth Games. There was a general belief that citizens are not capable of understanding all relevant information or to fully appreciate the benefits of hosting a major event. Therefore, it was their role as an elected official, or key major event decision-maker, to make decisions on behalf of the citizens, on this seemingly complex issue.

Whilst one may argue that whether to bid for the Commonwealth Games is indeed a complex issue, it is somewhat less complex than other issues citizens are asked to vote on. For example, a sport event referendum is arguably less complex than legalising euthanasia or recreational marijuana use, and one could argue, significantly less complex than Brexit. Entrusting citizens to make informed decisions on issues such as these pales in comparison to entrusting them to make decisions on lower-consequence, less complex issues such as bidding for a major sport event.

7.4 Support Insights in the Context of Two Bidding Scenarios

As this research is very practical in nature it is worth considering how these insights can both help predict how a bidding scenario would play out, as well as how stakeholders ought to act within those scenarios. One scenario is that a referendum is called for in relation to a Commonwealth Games bid, and the other is that a bid goes ahead without a referendum.

7.4.1 Scenario One: Commonwealth Games Referendum

In light of New Zealand's current political climate in which referendums are in favour, as well as the public's desire to participate in political decision-making, it is interesting to consider what may occur if a referendum on whether to bid for the Commonwealth Games was to eventuate. Although there is a current increase in the use of referendums to make political decisions in New Zealand, there is some evidence in this research that this support for referendums does not encompass major sport event decisions. Therefore, if a Commonwealth Games referendum were to be initiated, a number of crucial changes would have to take place for this to occur. For example, the Commonwealth Games Federation may change the hosting regulations to include a requirement for a referendum to take place in order to identify public support for hosting. Alternatively, the collective voice of the New Zealand public calling for a referendum was strong and influential enough to force Government to concede to a referendum.

The role of a voter within a referendum process is to make an objective decision on the issue at hand, based on their values and beliefs (Leimgruber, 2011). As has become apparent through the current findings, this is not straightforward. When an issue is brought onto the public's political agenda, a range of groups emerges. These groups may have an influence on the political process. In previous research on major

sport event bidding, three groups of individuals often emerge in this pre-event process; the enthusiastic supporter, the fatal obstructer, and the neutral bystander (Chu, 2017).

7.4.1.1 Enthusiastic Supporters. As evidenced in this research, there is support from community members to host a future Commonwealth Games in New Zealand. However, within this group of community members, levels of support differ. As evident in relation to other public issues, the majority of those who are supportive are largely discrete in their support (Chu, 2017). However, there is likely a small group of very passionate community members who are advocates for bringing events to New Zealand.

Although community members who are strong event advocates can play a significant role in influencing support for events (Xue & Mason, 2017), it is actions of event supporters in prominent positions, such as Government or local council, which can be particularly influential in deliberations, and leading individuals to settle on different, or more extreme, positions than they may have held otherwise (Sunstein, 2003). As this group of prominent event supporters have the greatest ability to influence public sentiment towards bidding for the Commonwealth Games, it is crucial that community advocate groups procure such stakeholders to their cause.

If a Commonwealth Games referendum were to take place in New Zealand, the role of prominent event supporters is to try to persuade citizens to vote yes on an issue by ‘pitching’ the benefit associated with voting yes (Scherer & Sam, 2008). Within this research, key decision-makers identified that if a referendum was to take place, there would be need to campaign and ‘pitch’ the benefits of hosting, as well as downplay the costs associated. In order to effectively do so, they must first understand what benefits to highlight, and what issues to mitigate.

It is evident that citizens perceive that there will be positive impacts to the wider community due to hosting the Commonwealth Games. However, there is a lack of recognition that these event-based benefits will impact them personally. Communicating how an increase in economic growth, infrastructure and recreational activities will impact one's personal quality of life will likely increase the value that residents associate to hosting the event. When one perceives benefits greater than the costs of hosting a major sport event, they are more likely to support the event (Inoue & Harvard, 2014).

Whilst environment and sustainability are a popular issues to address when new projects and events are proposed, this research shows that this not of particular concern for citizens in relation to hosting the Commonwealth Games. As such, there may not be a need to allocate resources to mitigate an environmental event concerns. Rather, focus should be on addressing concerns regarding the opportunity cost related to fund allocation to the event, and mitigating personal inconveniences associated with hosting, such as parking, noise and restricted access.

7.4.1.2 Fatal Obstructers. While community groups may have limited power in influencing support for a Commonwealth Games bid, the same is not said for community groups that strongly oppose a bid. Whilst traditional stakeholder models identify those groups who have a direct responsibility or claim to an organisation (Freeman, 1984), or in this case – ballot issue – more recent research has broadened the scope of stakeholder theory to include those who represent groups that apply pressure or opposition (Fassin, 2009). Labelled as ‘stakewatchers’, this group act as watchdogs, looking after a stake with care, attention and scrutiny (Fassin, 2009). Within stakeholder models, this may represent unions guarding the stake of employees, consumer associations defending the stake of consumers, investor associations

protecting the shareholders, or activists watching the stake of the community (Fassin, 2009). If a Commonwealth Games bid was to be put to a referendum in New Zealand, these community ‘stakewatchers’ may play a significant role in influencing opposition towards a bid.

As negative outcomes associated with hosting major sport events have become better known, protests have occurred in host cities (Hiller & Wanner, 2017; Kennelly, 2016). As the opening date for major sport events near, protests organised by local community groups are increasingly common (Garcia, 2016). Whilst these protests may attract attention and thwart the progression of event hosting plans (Schinke, McGannon & Smith, 2015), they are largely held well after hosting decisions have been made, and thus have little impact. However, when community groups mobilise early in the bidding process, their collective opposition to the hosting of the event can have a substantial impact on whether the event goes ahead in their region, or not. For example, Boston’s bid for the 2024 Olympic Games was derailed by a grassroots community movement; ‘No Boston Olympics’ (Ozanian, 2018). Organised by a group of young Boston residents, the campaign opposing the Olympic bid involved hosting public meetings, aligning with influential groups such as academics, with the main focus on countering implausible promises and misinformation communicated by the event supporters (Sims, 2017). As a result of these actions, and the increasing scepticism and opposition by the public, the Boston mayor, along with the United States Olympic Committee were forced to withdraw the cities bid (Sims, 2017). In New Zealand, a community campaign supported by influential people and groups, focused on disputing benefit claims, could ultimately ‘fatally obstruct’ support for a Commonwealth Games bid.

7.4.1.3 Neutral Bystanders. When a political issue enters the public domain for citizens to make a decision on, the majority of attention is given to those groups who either strongly oppose, or support, the issue on the ballot. However, there is one seemingly less vocal group that still possesses a significant influence on the decision-making process. Neutral bystanders, or those who are ambivalent on the issue, represent a large portion of the voting population (Chu, 2017; Fassin, 2009; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). Although this group may largely ‘sit on the sideline’ (Chu, 2017) in discussions on the hosting of the Commonwealth Games in New Zealand, they may be the most influential due to the potential to be influenced by those more vocal groups.

It is important for voters who are ‘neutral bystanders’ to be aware of campaigning and coercion associated with major sport event bidding. Passionate people will try to persuade voters on the merits of a yes or no vote. These special-interest groups are trying to persuade citizens based on their own deeply rooted values and beliefs. It is the voter’s job to cut through the clutter and attempt to make their own objective decision, rooted in their own values and beliefs, informed by evidence. Voters must be wary of those who try to generalise and simplify complex questions by benchmarking it to other events. Case studies are inevitably contextually based (Fredline, 2005). For example, the Rugby World Cup is not the Commonwealth Games, and the Gold Coast is not Auckland. The only real numbers that matter are related to the event on the ballot.

It is well established that the media play a great role in influencing perceptions in regards to major sport events (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). It is argued that the media are increasingly becoming biased and opinionated (Wolton, 2019). In addition, it is common for the media to present issues in the context of a conflict between various groups, which enables observers to identify with a particular group’s

perspective (Gamson, Crouteau, Hoynes and Sasson, 1992). Similarly, whether they choice to report, or not report, on particular issues, also influences public opinion (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). Voters must be aware of these biases, and seek to critically analyse information provided.

7.4.2 Scenario Two: ‘No-Vote’ Commonwealth Games Bid

Although community support for a referendum seems to exist, as currently stands, it is unlikely that such a political process will occur as part of a decision on whether to bid for the Commonwealth Games. If New Zealand were to bid for the Commonwealth Games, regardless of whether the issue goes to a referendum or not, people will still have their say.

As evident in recent major sport event bids, such as Auckland’s hosting of the 2021 America’s Cup, a New Zealand Commonwealth Games bid would likely have a significant amount of media coverage. Citizens now have greater access to content related to current and contentious issues online, and are therefore much better informed than ever before (Bergstrom & Jervelycke Belfrage, 2018; Yoo & Gil de Zuniga, 2014). Citizens are aware of the scepticism regarding the benefits of hosting major sport events, and the large financial toll it has on host regions (Panagiotopoulou, 2014). They have seen the ‘white elephants’ from the legacy of past major sport events (Mangan, 2008).

The increasing centrality of social media in citizen’s media consumption, and the roles these sites play in communicating with others, will likely play a significant role in how New Zealander’s form and voice their opinions on a Commonwealth Games bid. It is argued that social media provides an opportunity for those who are politically cynical to engage in politics, and express their opinions on current issues outside of the conditions of traditional political engagement (Keating & Melis, 2017).

We know from this research that those who are cynical about politics desire alternative ways in which to have their say on issues, such as bidding to host the Commonwealth Games. If these residents are not given the opportunity to have their say through a referendum, social media provides an opportunity in which to express their opinions. Subsequently, despite the desire of New Zealand's key decision-makers to make major sport event bid decisions without their constituents input, it will unlikely silence them.

7.5 Limitations

It is important to acknowledge several limitations for this study. The extent to which context – that is, the unique facets New Zealand, and the Commonwealth Games – influences this research has not been determined. However, there is some evidence to suggest that the findings of this research are linked to the context (Fredline, 2005; Schuck & de Vreese, 2015) and not more widely generalisable. Therefore, overarching conclusions on support for major sport event referendums, and Commonwealth Games hosting, should be made guardedly.

For the purpose of this research, a narrow view of which of the voting population would be included in a referendum was taken. Whether a referendum would include only citizen of the hosting city, or whether it would be a national decision, was not included in the study design. Previous major sport event referendums that have taken place have included only those who are citizens of the potential host city. However, due to New Zealand being of smaller scale, and the significant financial investment by the national government that will be required to host, a referendum could likely be on a national scale.

7.6 Future Research

Several directions for future research have emerged over the course of this wider research project. The focus of this research is on a Commonwealth Games taking

place in a single city. Whilst multi-sport events like the Olympics and Commonwealth Games generally take place in a single city, multi-city bidding/hosting models have emerged recently. For example, South-east Queensland is currently putting together a multi-city bid for the Olympic Games in 2032, which will include cities such as Brisbane, Gold Coast and the Sunshine Coast (Caldwell, 2019). Furthermore, media based discussion on New Zealand's future hosting of the Commonwealth Games has often been discussed within a multi-city based concept (McMillan, 2017). Multi-city event hosting has been explored in previous (Bakhsh, Potwarka, Nunkoo & Sunnassee, 2017), although that study took the traditional form of focussing on event support. It is important to explore support for the use of referenda in a multi-city bid, and whether support for an event differs if the event was hosted across multiple cities, as opposed to the traditional one city model.

Within the context of New Zealand, referendums are increasingly being used to decide on legislation and societal issues. Whilst referendums on sport matters have not yet been utilised in New Zealand, another sport related issue that may be relevant to decision through a referendum is the potential build of a multi-billion dollar waterfront stadium in Auckland. Feasibility studies and stadium designs have been proposed, however, no decision has yet been made on its construction (Niall, 2018). Support and intention to participate in a referendum on sport facility development within Auckland would provide further understanding of support for sport referendums in New Zealand, as well as provide a contextual comparison to the largely North American based facility referendum research.

Future research can also extend this study by exploring the role that media may play in a sport event referendum. It is well established in political science studies the influential role that media play throughout the referendum process (Dekavalla, 2018;

Schuck & de Vreese, 2011). It is argued that media is becoming increasingly more bias and self-interested (Wolton, 2019). Subsequently, their role in influencing public decision-making is likely greater now than previously. Greater understanding of the role that media would play in a sport event referendum would likely benefit both event proponents and opposers.

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Appendices

Appendix A – Ethics Approval



AUTECH Secretariat
Auckland University of Technology
D-88, WU406 Level 4 WU Building City Campus
T: +64 9 921 9999 ext. 8316
E: ethics@aut.ac.nz
www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics

11 May 2017

Geoff Dickson
Faculty of Health and Environmental Sciences

Dear Geoff

Ethics Application: **17/127 Measuring support and the use of referenda for hosting a Commonwealth Games in New Zealand**

I wish to formally advise you that a subcommittee of the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTECH) has **approved** your ethics application.

This approval is for three years, expiring 11 May 2020.

Standard Conditions of Approval

1. A progress report is due annually on the anniversary of the approval date, using form EA2, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>.
2. A final report is due at the expiration of the approval period, or, upon completion of project, using form EA3, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by AUTECH prior to being implemented. Amendments can be requested using the EA2 form: <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>.
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events must be reported to AUTECH Secretariat as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the AUTECH Secretariat as a matter of priority.

Please quote the application number and title on all future correspondence related to this project.

AUTECH grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval for access for your research from another institution or organisation then you are responsible for obtaining it. If the research is undertaken outside New Zealand, you need to meet all locality legal and ethical obligations and requirements.

For any enquiries please contact ethics@aut.ac.nz

Yours sincerely,



Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: mel@mjsportfitness.co.nz; Michael Naylor

AUTEC Secretariat

Auckland University of Technology
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AUT

25 September 2017

Geoff Dickson
Faculty of Health and Environmental Sciences

Dear Geoff

Ethics Application: 17/331 Measuring support and the use of referenda for hosting a Commonwealth Games in New Zealand

I wish to advise you that a subcommittee of the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee (AUTEC) has **approved** your ethics application.

This approval is for three years, expiring 25 September 2020.

Standard Conditions of Approval

1. A progress report is due annually on the anniversary of the approval date, using form EA2, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>.
2. A final report is due at the expiration of the approval period, or, upon completion of project, using form EA3, which is available online through <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>.
3. Any amendments to the project must be approved by AUTEC prior to being implemented. Amendments can be requested using the EA2 form: <http://www.aut.ac.nz/researchethics>.
4. Any serious or unexpected adverse events must be reported to AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.
5. Any unforeseen events that might affect continued ethical acceptability of the project should also be reported to the AUTEC Secretariat as a matter of priority.

Non-Standard Conditions of Approval

1. Include advice in the Information Sheet of whether transcripts are being offered for confirmation;
2. Include a consent statement which makes it clear that interviewees understand that limited confidentiality provisions available in this research

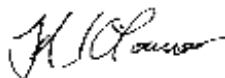
Non-standard conditions must be completed before commencing your study. Non-standard conditions do not need to be submitted to or reviewed by AUTEC before commencing your study.

Please quote the application number and title on all future correspondence related to this project.

AUTEC grants ethical approval only. If you require management approval for access for your research from another institution or organisation then you are responsible for obtaining it. You are reminded that it is your responsibility to ensure that the spelling and grammar of documents being provided to participants or external organisations is of a high standard.

For any enquiries please contact ethics@aut.ac.nz


Yours sincerely,



Kate O'Connor
Executive Manager
Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee

Cc: mel@mjsportfitness.co.nz; Michael Naylor

Appendix B – Participant Information Sheet



Participant Information Sheet

Date Information Sheet Produced:
11/04/2017

Project Title
Measuring support and the use of referenda for hosting a Commonwealth Games in New Zealand.

An Invitation
Kia ora, my name is Mel Johnston, and I am studying for a PhD at AUT University. I invite you to participate in this research project. I am interested in what New Zealanders think about the future hosting of a Commonwealth Games, and how we make the decision on whether or not to host.

What is the purpose of this research?
The purpose of this research is to better understand New Zealander's support for hosting of a future Commonwealth Games, and what factors might impact on that support (or lack of). In addition, I am interested in understanding New Zealander's support for the use of a referendum to decide whether to host the Commonwealth Games. The findings of this research will be used for the purpose of a PhD qualification, as well as academic publications and presentations.

How was I identified and why am I being invited to participate in this research?
You were identified because you are a member of the market research company Reid Research database. Reid Research has your contact details, including email addresses. You are invited because you live in a potential Commonwealth Games host city (Auckland or Christchurch), and are over 18 years old, which is the qualifying age to participate in a referendum in New Zealand. What will happen in this research?

What will happen in this research?
You will be asked to indicate your preference or extent of agreement with a number of statements.

What are the discomforts and risks?
There is a very low chance participants will experience any discomfort or embarrassment.

How will these discomforts and risks be alleviated?
The discomforts and risks associated with this study are negligible. If you do not want to answer any question(s), you have the right to decline answering any question or you may choose to withdraw from the survey any time prior to completing the survey.

What are the benefits?
The results of this study will guide future conversations with policy makers (i.e. the government, tourism boards) about New Zealanders support for hosting a future Commonwealth Games, and the use of a referendum to help with decision. As a member of Reid Research, you will also go into the surveys prize draw.

How will my privacy be protected?
The questionnaire is both anonymous (i.e. I do not know who you are) and confidential (i.e. I will not share the raw data with anybody outside the immediate research team). All data from these questions will be stored in a secured location at AUT. These files will be destroyed six years from now.

What are the costs of participating in this research?
Participation in this research is free.

What opportunity do I have to consider this invitation?
From the 15/05/2017 – 5/06/2017

How do I agree to participate in this research?

By clicking 'agree' you will be giving consent to participate in this research.

Will I receive feedback on the results of this research?

You will be able to access my thesis at this website: <https://aut.researchgateway.ac.nz>

What do I do if I have concerns about this research?

Any concerns regarding the nature of this project should be notified in the first instance to the Project Supervisor, geoff.dickson@aut.ac.nz +64 9 921 9999 ext 7851

Concerns regarding the conduct of the research should be notified to the Executive Secretary of AUTC, Kate O'Connor, ethics@aut.ac.nz, +64 9 921 9999 ext 6038.

Approved by the Auckland University of Technology Ethics Committee on 11th May 2017, AUTC Reference number 17/127/

Appendix C – Indicative Interview Questions

Interview Intro

The purpose of this research is to understand support for hosting major sport events in NZ. In particular, focusing on a potential future Commonwealth Games bid. I'm specifically interested in how decisions are made on whether to bid to host a future Commonwealth Games, and whether using a referendum should be part of this conversation.

Indicative Interview Questions

1. What is the role of your organisation in the New Zealand event's industry?
2. What is the role of major sport events in New Zealand?
3. How is public opinion, especially the opinion of local residents, factored into the decision to bid or not bid for an event?
4. Auckland and Christchurch have both been touted as possible sites for a future Commonwealth Games. Do you think the decision to bid for the event should be underpinned by a referendum?
5. What are the implications of a Commonwealth Games referendum?
6. What are the risks associated with a Commonwealth Games referendum?
7. What do you believe are the positive and negative impacts on local residents/communities from hosting the Commonwealth Games in Auckland/ Christchurch?
8. If the local residents of Auckland/Christchurch were asked to identify the likely NEGATIVE impacts of hosting the Commonwealth Games, what do you think they would say?
9. If the local residents of Auckland/Christchurch were asked to identify the likely POSITIVE impacts of hosting the Commonwealth Games, what do you think they would say?