



Turun yliopisto
University of Turku

MEASURING THE PERFORMANCE OF CORPORATE EVENTS

**An empirical study of measuring practices in Finnish
companies**

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Author:
Mari Michael 414358

Supervisor:
Ph.D. Rami Olkkonen

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Turku

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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and current trends in events industry

Event marketing industry is yet to achieve profound acknowledgement in Finland. Especially when compared to the rest of the Europe and the USA, where events are continuously increasing in importance as a promotion medium and constitute a multibillion-dollar business (Lee & Kim 2008; Hansen 2004). Considerable percentages of companies' marketing budgets are invested in delivering events, and trade shows represent the largest component of the advertising and promotional budgets of industrial firms (Gopalakrishna & Lilien 1995). For example, it has been reported that about 10 per cent of the marketing communications budget of US companies and more than 20 per cent of the budget of many European companies are invested in trade show participation (Sandler 1994, 46). An industry average for event marketing investments was discovered to be almost 25 per cent (Crowther 2011). In some UK business-to-business markets and industrial markets, exhibitions may take up to 40 per cent of the marketing budget (Smith & Taylor 2004, 504). The trend seems to be toward more meetings, higher attendance, and/or increased meetings and business events budgets (MPI Business Barometer 2009, 2).

It has been demonstrated that there exists a link between marketing initiatives and investor response (Srinivasan & Hanssens 2009). According to a recent survey at major US corporations, event marketing generates the greatest return on investment, followed by advertising, direct marketing, public relations, sales promotion, and internet advertising (Sneath, Finney & Close 2005, 374). Compared to traditional marketing communication tools, such as advertising, event marketing industry is growing rapidly (Gupta 2003; Sneath et al. 2005, 374).

There are several reasons for the substantial growth in event marketing investments, as events are one of the most important marketing communication channels for business-to-business corporations that tend to focus their marketing efforts on building and maintaining customer relationships. For seller companies, events provide enormous potential for face-to-face marketing and positioning their products and services to the selected target audience (Cavanaugh 1976). At events, companies are able to identify buying influences, provide product demonstration, generate qualified leads for salespeople, handle customer complaints, obtain information on competitors, and reinforce relationships (Lee & Kim 2008; Smith & Taylor 2004, 506–507). When it comes to promotional expenditures, events are relatively cost-effective, when the cost per contact at an event and the cost per sales call are compared (Gopalakrishna & Lilien 1995). It has been reported that the cost per visitor at a trade show is one third of the cost per

sales call (Herbig, O'Hara & Palumbo 1994). In addition to direct sales drivers, events also serve as a tool for enhancing corporate image, improving or maintaining corporate morale (Kerin & Cron 1987), building brand image on a long term, and humanizing corporations (Gupta 2003). Facilitating voluntary dialogue and interaction between highly targeted participants both internally and externally, events allow the exchange of feedback in order to develop brand strategies and thus contribute to adding value (Whelan & Wohlfeil 2006, 327).

For buyer companies, events offer valuable information on current trends and new products and services in the industry. Events allow companies to find solutions to known problems, decide on or finalize vendor selection, identify new methods, meet with technical experts, and assess technical directions. (Mee 1988, 50.) Events bring into existence another reality that enables a freer communication of marketing messages and the development of emotional connections. When attending an event, participants are typically more relaxed, uninhibited, and open to new ideas, which is an advantage when communicating with the delegates and establishing, maintaining, and enhancing relationships. (Crowther 2010.) Because the decision to attend an event is made by the participants, they are inclined to view the seller companies positively (Shoham 1999, 43).

Events serve as a versatile and strategic tool for organizations to reach their marketing and sales objectives, but their potential is rarely fully realized (Crowther 2011). Negative aspects concerning events have been reported, such as the doubling of costs for attending an event during the past decades and taking salespeople away from their territories. In addition, large shows may be chaotic, crowded, and confusing, and often they attract some attendees that do not represent the target group. Many individuals seem unconvinced about the role of events as a component in the overall marketing strategy, since their effectiveness has not yet been fully appreciated. This may be due to the lack of internal marketing of events as a function and the difficulty of identifying appropriate performance measurement tools. (Herbig et al. 1994.)

Only in recent years has the attention focused on studying event marketing in a systematic manner (Gupta 2003). Although much of the existing literature concerns event performance, there remains a lack of agreement on how it should be conceived or evaluated (Hansen 2004). The cost of meetings and events has experienced an enormous increase over the past several years, yet its justification remains unclear (Phillips, Breining & Phillips 2008, 1).

Recently, financial issues have been dominating the list of topics considered to be most influential on the meetings and business events industry. Low budget levels have been reported to be the most influential current trend, and uncertainty regarding the future of the economy has become the second most commonly expressed trend influencing the industry. (MPI Business Barometer 2009, 2.) There is a need for proper event

management, and for ensuring that event marketing investments generate a return, which can only be indicated with the help of appropriate measurement strategies and tools. Furthermore, as competition toughens, the economic climate becomes more uncertain, and budgeting issues are discussed, event return on investment needs to be communicated to the management in quantifiable terms.

1.2 Research objective and questions

On the basis of existing literature, Gupta (2003) has identified some research gaps concerning event marketing. First, there seems to be a lack of systematic knowledge and a proper conceptual framework on marketing events. A classification scheme, which makes a clear distinction between different marketing communication tools, is required in order to better understand the nature of marketing events. Second, there is a lack of measurement models for evaluating the effectiveness of event management in meeting the desired objectives. Measures for the assessment of the impact of events on the target group need to be developed. Moreover, there is an inadequate understanding of the relationship between designated objectives and achieved results concerning different types of events. Two broad areas for research should therefore be addressed: the development of a conceptual framework for event marketing which may be compared with traditional communication models, and event marketing metrics model covering the aspects of measuring the performance of event marketing in reaching the desired objectives.

Since there seems to be a growing interest, yet lack of adequate knowledge, on business-to-business events, this study approaches the above mentioned research gaps from the point of view of corporations. An attempt is made to form a better understanding of the nature and characteristics of corporate events. To address especially the challenges in measuring procedures, a corporate event performance measurement model is presented and tested empirically. The objective of the research is therefore to *identify and describe ways to measure the performance of corporate events*. In order to meet this objective, three major research questions are proposed:

1. Which factors influence the performance of corporate events?
2. What are the dimensions of corporate event performance?
3. How can the performance of corporate events be measured?

These questions serve as a guideline in building the framework for corporate events measurement model. The framework forms a basis for performing the empirical study, which is conducted as a survey questionnaire, attempting to capture the measurement procedures utilized in large organizations. Empirical findings are then evaluated against existing theory, focusing on the main research questions and finally, addressing the objective of the research.

By forming a more precise conceptual understanding of what corporate events and their main characteristics are, it is possible to distinguish them from other marketing communication tools and thus evaluate their purpose and usefulness as a communication medium for a given organization. Furthermore, the theoretical framework and empirical findings of the research on corporate event performance measures provide managerial implications for developing event marketing metrics in order to reach financial justifications for event investments.

1.3 Research outlines, terminology and structure

Event marketing may refer to either marketing of events, or marketing with events (Cornwell & Maignan 1998, 12). In this study, the definition is the latter, thus events are perceived as a marketing medium. Event marketing has experienced a constant growth in both business-to-consumer and business-to-business sectors. The two sectors share some characteristics, such as the emphasis on experience, yet they differ enormously in their overall objectives and content. Therefore, only business-to-business marketing events are considered in this research, although some theories are applicable in both sectors.

Even though the development of new communication technologies has allowed an increase in the number of online events and webinars in the past few years, this study focuses on examining events that are based on live interaction among participants at a specific location. The discussed corporate events may contain some elements of online communication technologies, such as webinar sessions, but the audience remains physically present at the event. This view is also consistent with theories emphasizing experience and personal interaction as the basis of events.

Sponsorship of different types of events is likely to form a significant part of a company's event marketing strategy, and is therefore included in the examination of performance. However, in the context of this study and according to the definition provided in the theoretical framework, self-staged corporate events and event sponsorship may be examined together, providing that both encompass personal promotional activities at the event location. Although some overlapping may exist between the two theoretical backgrounds, sponsorship is not directly analyzed in this research due to its impersonal nature. Nevertheless, theories concerning event sponsorship are utilized to the extent that they serve the event organizer in a similar manner.

Corporate event performance is evidently connected to the overall performance of the event organizer, and may be expressed using concepts such as corporate image or brand equity. Although there are various techniques for measuring them separately and

in a broad context, this study attempts to isolate the effects of event marketing activities on those performance indicators.

Due to the use of multiple terms for describing similar phenomena in the literature, a clarification on some of the concepts used in this research is required. The terms used for signifying corporate events include events, marketing events and planned events. Other concepts considered as synonyms encompass visitor, attendee, delegate and participant, all referring to the people attending a specific event.

2 THEORETICAL FRAME FOR MEASURING CORPORATE EVENT PERFORMANCE

This chapter provides a theoretical frame for the empirical part of the research. The chapter begins with discussion on corporate events, starting from key definitions and characteristics. Different ways of distinguishing event types are then presented, after which the role of corporate events in marketing communications is reflected upon. The next section focuses on marketing metrics in corporate events, starting with the debate on marketing measurability. Second, the significance of setting objectives in the measurement process as well as the determinants and dimensions of event performance are identified. Third, a distinction is made between qualitative and quantitative approaches in measuring event performance, and relevant tools for measurement are provided based on the existing literature. Finally, a synthesis model on corporate event performance measurement is presented in chapter 2.3, taking into account the relevant concepts addressed in the existing literature by applying them to corporate events.

2.1 Corporate events

2.1.1 Characteristics and definitions

Events, by definition, are temporal phenomena, as they have a beginning and an end. Unplanned events are spontaneous and unpredictable, whereas planned events are most often confined to a specific place and they have a detailed schedule or a programme planned and publicized in advance. Replicating an event is virtually impossible, as they only occur once. Planned events may be similar in form concerning their setting or programme, but the uniqueness of the participants' personal experience ensures that no two events are ever alike. (Getz 2007, 18–19, 28.) Event marketing has been defined as the 'practice of promoting the interests of an organization and its brands by associating the organization with a specific activity'. Often involving sponsorship, event marketing refers to the organization of an event, or the desire to be associated with another organization's event. (Close, Finney, Lacey & Sneath 2006, 421.)

Some confusion remains about the distinction between event marketing and sponsorship. The distinction is supported by the suggestion that marketing events are self-staged and may include the dissemination of detailed product or brand information, whereas sponsorship, involving the use of events staged by a third party independent of the company, is most often limited to the display of the company logo or slogan (Drengner, Gaus & Jahn 2008, 138–139). According to another view, event sponsorship

may be regarded as a component of or a separate function from event marketing, depending on the context in which the phenomena are defined. Sponsorship is connected to event marketing when the organizing party of an event sells sponsorship rights in exchange for a fee, and when those sponsorships are exploited in the sponsors' promotions. (Cornwell & Maignan 1998, 12.) In the context of this study, self-staged corporate events and event sponsorship are both included in the examination of performance, providing that both encompass personal promotional activities.

Experience is said to be the essence of events (Crowther 2011), and event marketing has been referred to as 'brand hyper-reality' (Whelan & Wohlfeil 2006) or 'live communication of the brand' (Getz 2007, 203). Experiences are currently becoming recognized for their ability to influence brand associations through live interaction, and experiential marketing is claimed to be transforming the traditional marketing communications environment (Smilansky 2009, 1–3). Kotler's (2008, 709) definition of events as occurrences designed to communicate particular messages to target audiences refers to a rather simplistic view of communication, and it has been critiqued for its failure to capture the full potential of events. According to a broader view, events evoke two-way communication (Smilansky 2009, 3–6), emphasizing the active involvement of the participants (Drengner et al. 2008, 138) and encompassing multiple tactical and strategic functions, such as brand communications, profile enhancement, relationship development, and customer consultation. Events can thus be seen as an integrated communication tool with experiential, interactive, targeted, and relational characteristics. (Crowther 2010.)

Crowther (2010) presents the notion of marketing space, referring to a distinct space provided by events within which companies are able to connect with their target market and stakeholders. In addition to its intangible, heterogeneous, inseparable and perishable attributes (Brown, Fisk & Bitner 1994), marketing space is portrayed as a temporary, changeable and adaptable reality where company representatives come together physically, in a planned manner, with existing and potential customers as well as other stakeholders (see Figure 1). Each occasion is indicated as a 'marketing event episode', a number of which organisations are likely to engage in over a given time period to fulfil different objectives. The framework accentuates the connection between the event and broader marketing objectives and activities, thus linking events with a more integrated and strategic perspective.

Figure 1 illustrates the concept of marketing space from both the company's and the attendee's points of view, suggesting some interrelated processes between the two. These processes comprise anticipation, experience and reflection for the attendee, and setting objectives, the design, delivery and evaluation of the event for the company. The company elements combined generate a unique marketing space that affects the attendee's experience, reflection and future behaviour. (Crowther 2010.)

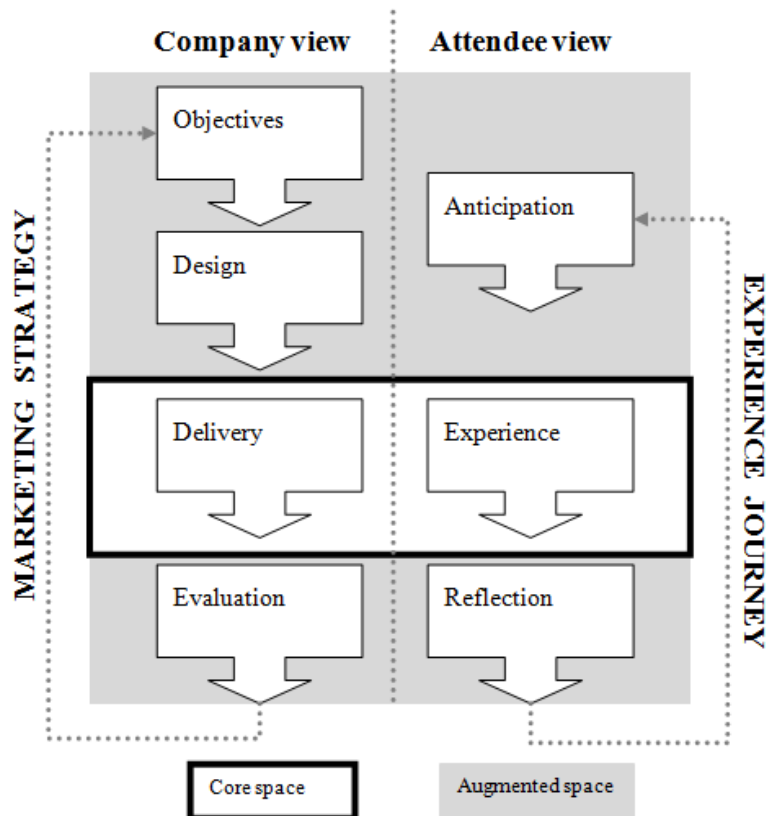


Figure 1 Marketing space framework (modified from Crowther 2010).

According to the framework, marketing space extends beyond the physical and time elements of the event. Thus, the anticipation and reflection processes represent augmented marketing space, and can be viewed as an integral prelude and a sequel to the core marketing space, providing several opportunities for impacting the attendee perceptions. Anticipation of the attendees depends on the stakeholder group that they represent to the host company as well as their perceived costs, which are higher in active participation in events than in passive forms of marketing communications. Especially in corporate events, there are tremendous opportunity costs for attending, which raises the attendees' expectations. The core marketing space, limited by time and space parameters, consists of the delivery of the event, including the choice of the most convenient event platform, as well as the attendee's experience of it. (Crowther 2010.)

Based on the characteristics and definitions presented above, in this research, corporate events are defined as pre-planned, communications-based occasions, which are either officially organized by a particular company or companies; or occasions, in which a particular company engages by having its staff members physically present, and by paying for its brand coverage, for example, in the form of a physical promotional space at the event location. Corporate events bring together company representatives with existing and potential customers as well as other stakeholders in a physical setting. As a conclusion, the core features of corporate events, illustrated in Figure 2, are identified as

experience, pre-planned programme, brand communication, live interaction, two-way communication, and physical space.

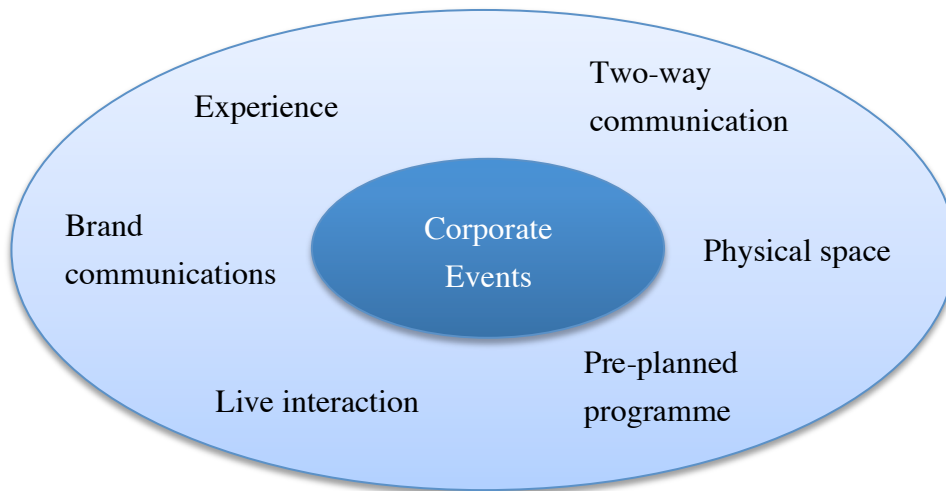


Figure 2 The core features of corporate events.

2.1.2 *Typologies*

Events are organized in order to achieve specific outcomes, such as those related to the economy, business, society and culture, and they may fulfil multiple functions, allowing several meanings attached to them. Function serves as a base for differentiating events, especially in public policy, business and professional event management. It is the core reason for organizing a certain type of event to arrive at an intended outcome. The most commonly used descriptions of event functions are provided in Table 1. (Getz 2007, 21–29.)

Table 1 Typology of event functions (modified from Getz 2007, 21–29).

Hallmark and iconic events	Institutionalized events that provide a competitive advantage with their significance, tradition, attractiveness, quality or publicity.
Premier or prestige events	Unrivalled, defined within specific categories, such as the World Cup.
Mega events	Worldwide publicity, size of significance yielding high levels of tourism and economic impact for the host.
Media events	Linked to television and the Internet, global audience reach.
Cause-related events	Money raising or promoting a cause, social marketing.
Corporate events	Produced by or for a corporation, such as product launches, meetings, grand openings and publicity stunts.
Publicity stunts	Designed to gain publicity by appealing to media.
Special events	Occur just once or infrequently outside the normal activities of the sponsoring or organizing body.
Spectator and interactive events	Comprise person–setting or person–person interactivity.
Participant events	Require the involvement of people.

In the functional typology presented above, corporate events are limited to the function of them being produced by or for a corporation. In this research however, corporate events are perceived as a broader concept, which may involve elements from multiple functions.

Another typology of planned events is based on form, which is defined as the combination of various programmatic elements of style that differentiate event types, and which is usually the starting point of planning events. Event forms comprise cultural celebrations, festivals, carnivals, heritage commemorations, parades and processions, religious events, political and state events, arts and entertainment, performing arts, literature, visual arts, fairs, sport events, recreational events, private events and events at the margin, such as flash mobs and guerilla gigs. (Getz 2007, 21–22, 30–42.) As this research focuses on corporate events, the relevant types of corporate events are presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Typology of corporate event forms (modified from Getz 2007, 38–42).

Business and trade events	Corporate objectives: promotion, marketing or direct engaging in commerce.
Meetings and conventions	Interaction and discussion objectives. Association, corporate, scientific and incentive meetings
Exhibitions	Sales and informing objectives. Consumer, industrial, scientific, engineering and health care. Seasonal rhythm.
Education and scientific events	Objectives in creating and exchanging knowledge. Specific themes, networking.

Planned events may be defined in terms of a scale continuum, from small, private events with no media attention to large, public events with substantial impacts and media coverage (Getz 2007, 28–29). Crowther (2010) also points to a continuum, consisting of various marketing event platforms; at one extreme are *direct events*, driven by the market function of an organization, such as product launches or sponsorship of events, whereas *indirect events*, such as charity events or conferences, are at the other extreme, having a less formalized marketing intent. According to the company's objectives in its overall marketing strategy, Crowther distinguishes ten different event platforms:

- Exhibitions
- Conferences
- Seminars (learning events)
- Corporate hospitality
- Product launches
- Sponsorship of other events (e.g. entertainment, culture, sport)
- Philanthropic events
- Roadshows
- Trade shows / fairs
- Award ceremonies

Based on audience participation and sponsor objectives, Gupta (2003) distinguishes direct events, where the objectives have a direct significance to delegates; and indirect events, where the delegates do not necessarily represent the primary target group. Events may thus be categorized into four types: *corporate events* (dealer meets, sales conferences, roadshows, factory visits, and training programmes), *public relations events* (product launches, press conferences and philanthropic events), *entertainment events* (concerts, theatre, dance, film premiers and sports), and *exhibitions*.

Shani and Sandler (1996) categorize events on different levels of a pyramid consisting of five levels: *global events*, *international events*, *national events*, *regional events* and *local events*. Global events are at the peak and local events at the base of the pyra-

It seems that no consensus exists in classifying different types of corporate events for at least three reasons. First, different meanings may be associated with similar terminology and themes concerning corporate events. Second, organizing corporate events is not limited to a specific format. There is a trend towards blurring the lines between different types of events, suggesting that an event may contain elements from several event forms (Getz 2007, 22). Third, multiple perspectives may be utilized in differentiating event types, including function, form, scale, marketing objectives, audience participation objectives, audience interest and reach, and control.

2.1.3 The role of events in marketing communications

The historical view of the role of events simply as an extension of a company's personal selling efforts has been replaced by a multifunctional approach (Kerin & Cron 1987, 88). The shift from one-dimensional marketing communications to interactive communication forms highlights the role of events as the most interactive tool for companies to evoke discussion with their target group. There is a trend towards the fragmentation of markets, calling for more targeted, customized and personalized communication, for which events provide a favourable environment. (Crowther 2010.) Furthermore, other communication roles besides persuasion are being emphasized, such as informing, answering, and listening (Duncan & Moriarty 1998), which are all applicable in corporate events. Events are connected to several paradigms emphasizing two-way communication and gaining support, such as relationship marketing, integrated marketing communications, service dominant logic, one-to-one marketing (Crowther 2011, 2010; Duncan & Moriarty 1998), and experiential marketing (Schmitt 1999).

Building and maintaining relationships have established their role as a key marketing function for corporations. Relationships are claimed to be the core value for organizations (Phillips 2006), and several studies suggest that building relationships with clients may improve sales performance (Boles, Brashear, Bellenger & Barksdale 2000, 141). Commitment to relationships is determined by the level of trust (Morgan & Hunt 1994, 24), and gaining client trust requires face-to-face encounters, which allow considerable interaction between buyer and seller to occur (O'Hara 1993, 68), and which corporate events evidently enable.

In connection with relationship marketing, service dominant logic is based on a continuous series of social and economic processes, emphasizing the active role of the customer and two-way communication (Vargo & Lusch 2004). Events may thus be considered as a part of the service delivery process, integrating them into the relationship that an organization has with its clients and other stakeholders (Crowther 2010). In the context of industrial buying process, trade shows have a significant influence in the interest,

awareness, and need recognition stages, and later during the vendor evaluation and selection stages of the buying process (Moriarty & Spekman 1984; Shoham 1999, 42). Gopalakrishna and Lilien (1995) support the view by suggesting that trade shows are a mix between direct selling and advertising, playing a cost-effective role in the marketing communications mix, while helping customers and prospects move through their buying process.

Integrated marketing communications (IMC), referring to the use of multiple communication disciplines for optimizing message impact, is being implemented by a growing number of companies worldwide (Kitchen, Kim & Schultz 2008). Events may be perceived as an effective component of IMC strategy, rather than a separate communication tool (Gupta 2003). Events provide an opportunity to integrate the company's other marketing communication activities, such as advertising, public relations, and direct marketing (Crowther 2010; Sneath, Finney & Close 2005, 374, 379.)

Experiential marketing is a result of the increasing dominance of information technology, innovative forms of branding, and the ubiquity of communication and entertainment. It is based on a holistic view of customer experience, emotions, and diverse methods of application. (Schmitt 1999, 53–54, 57–60.) Experiential marketing has major implications for the events industry, since it focuses on creating a unique and emotional experience by engaging, involving, entertaining and educating the visitors, while exposing them to the company brand (Shone & Parry 2004, 217–218).

2.2 Marketing metrics in corporate events

2.2.1 *The debate on marketing measurability*

It has been suggested that marketing is not a function but an attitude of mind, which undoubtedly causes challenges in the measurement of such activities. To justify this study, it is assumed that marketing, in fact, is a function that serves a business purpose. (McDonald 2010.) Some individuals consider any ROI measurement as inappropriate for the events industry, whereas others declare it to be the answer to all accountability concerns. The truth probably lies somewhere in between the two extremes. (Phillips et al. 2008, 8.)

Historically, marketing investments have been considered as a major cost rather than a value driver for companies. Furthermore, the causal relationship between expenditure and concrete results has been regarded as too challenging to track, thus leaving the marketing accountability dimension unappreciated. Marketers have traditionally focused their attention on intermediate measures, such as awareness and attitudes, rather than on

business measures. The accountability of promotional expenditures can be measured quantitatively, but the true challenges of measurement lie in the indirect impacts of marketing activities on sales, which are affected by many other variables as well. (McDonald & Mouncey 2009, 56, 61.)

However, the growing demands of customers and greater competition place marketing investments under deeper scrutiny than before. Marketing is seen as a cross-functional responsibility of the entire organization, and intangible measures of value added, such as customer loyalty, customer satisfaction, and brand equity have been paid more attention in achieving financial results. (McDonald & Mouncey 2009, 56–60.) Event marketing is regarded as a powerful tool in generating awareness for the brand and corporate image (Gupta 2003).

Interestingly, Cavanaugh (1976) presented in his study almost four decades ago, that management demands and deserves precise measurements for determining the return on event investment, yet no general measurement procedures have yet been agreed upon. However, greater accountability demands for all corporate expenditures have raised interest in developing objective criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of events. Real success lies in the organization's ability to leverage the event on a wider scale, rather than focus on measuring the performance of one event. (Gupta 2003.) If an event does not meet, or rather exceed, the expectations of the delegates, the company brand as well as the achievement of other marketing objectives may be compromised. This illustrates the high risk and opportunity of corporate events (Crowther 2010), as well as the importance of measurement procedures. There is an increasing pressure of delivering quantifiable returns on marketing expenditures and a need for reliable, valid, and relevant metrics that can be linked to financial performance (Stewart 2009, 637).

The importance of using financial measures in marketing is unquestionable for several reasons: (1) finance is the language of the company, (2) companies report and are evaluated based on financial measures, (3) financial metrics allow comparison of various activities, (4) financial metrics provide accountability, (5) as a common language, financial metrics promote organizational learning and cross-functional, and (6) financial metrics may be used in optimizing the marketing mix. (Powell 2002, 6.)

2.2.2 Objectives as the starting point

It is generally accepted that setting clear objectives is required in organizing an event, since the evaluation process is based on measuring event performance against the preset objectives (Smith & Taylor 2004, 515). Cavanaugh (1976) discovered early on, that the success of any trade show depends on careful planning and setting objectives in order to best match the message and the target audience. Quantifying objectives is reported to

have a major effect on event performance (Kerin & Cron 1987). However, many companies neglect specifying their objectives, much less attempt to quantify them (Gopalakrishna & Lilien 1995). Identifying relevant and appropriate goals and translating them into specific and measurable event objectives, produces a demonstration of the event's contribution to the overall marketing strategy and return on investment. Measuring the performance of events therefore lies in the alignment of event objectives with marketing strategy. (Crowther 2010.)

When setting event objectives, Cavanaugh (1976) suggests taking into account the following factors:

- Purpose for attending and message
- Prime prospects or target audience
- Advantages to regional, national, or local exhibiting
- Efficiency/effectiveness balance
- Competition's approach
- Budget and projecting cost ratio per sales lead obtained

The purposes for exhibiting vary across companies and may include the introduction of new products, a training tool for sales personnel, promoting the corporate identity, securing orders or conducting market research. The message and target audience are determined according to the objective, and audits of past events may be analyzed to determine reasons for organizing future events. Location affects attendance figures, since the majority of attendees often comprise regional corporations. The efficiency/effectiveness balance describes the potential value of attending an exhibit. It is calculated by dividing the total costs of attending by the selected target audience, and it may be compared to the current cost of a sales call. The approach of competition to exhibiting should also be considered, and the marketing communications budget analyzed when setting objectives. (Cavanaugh 1976.)

All companies set their own objectives, but general objectives usually include generating awareness and interest, reaching target markets, building relationships, enhancing corporate image and reputation, as well as increasing sales (Michael 2010; Stevens 2005; Hansen 2004; Gupta 2003; Bellizzi & Lipps 1984, 50). According to Shone and Parry (2004, 266–267), the objectives of corporate hospitality comprise the development of new business, product awareness, corporate image awareness, internal relations, and supplier relations. A survey conducted in the US reported that 83 per cent of marketers claim lead generation to be their primary goal when organizing events, other major objectives including improving customer engagement and brand building (Hosford 2011, 3). Despite some variation across the concepts described in the literature, the different terms used are similar in meaning. For example, generating product awareness may be perceived to have the same meaning as brand building.

Pope (1998) classifies event objectives into four categories based on sponsorship practices:

- *Corporate objectives*: public awareness and perception, corporate image, community involvement, financial relations, client entertainment, government relations, employee relations, competitive position.
- *Marketing objectives*: business relations, reaching target markets, brand positioning, increasing sales.
- *Media objectives*: generate visibility and publicity, enhance ad campaigns, target specificity.
- *Personal objectives*: management interest.

The literature suggests that objectives have two dimensions, which may be evaluated with appropriate measures. The two dimensions have been referred to with varying terminology. Crowther (2010) points to short-term goals, such as sales or satisfaction, and long-term goals, such as relationship development. In addition, selling and non-selling dimensions have been applied in the literature (Bonoma 1983; Kerin & Cron 1987; Shipley, Egan & Wong 1993; Pitta, Weisgal & Lynagh 2006, 161). However, the general objective of every company is to generate sales in order to exist in the marketplace, which leads to the assumption that enhancing corporate image will eventually lead to an increase in sales. Therefore, to be specific, referring to directly and indirectly sales-related objectives might be more appropriate. Shipley et al. (1993, 62) propose using the terms quantitative and qualitative objectives, which, for consistency and clarity related reasons, are also applied in this research.

2.2.3 *Determinants and dimensions of event performance*

Several influences on event performance have been recognized in previous research. Gopalakrishna and Williams (1992) classify the factors affecting event performance under two domains: those factors that are within the control of the firm, such as the budget and personnel performance; and factors over which the firm has little or no control, such as economic conditions, industry characteristics, technological changes and environmental factors.

Kerin and Cron (1987, 89) divide factors affecting performance in three categories: industry influences, company influences, and trade show strategy influences, each of which encompasses several variables. Industry influences include the number of competitors and stage in the industry life cycle. Company influences comprise annual sales, number and concentration of customers, and technical complexity of the company's products. Trade show strategies consist of the number of trade shows attended and emphasis on different types of trade shows.

Shoham (1999, 49–51) presents a model, in which trade show performance is affected by four sets of influences, each encompassing a list of variables: environmental influences, company influences, trade show selection strategy, and executional influences (see Figure 3). Environmental variables relevant to this study comprise the number of competitors, historical data of number and quality of visitors, and industry life cycle. The relevant company influences consist of annual sales, the number and concentration of customers, technical complexity of products, annual trade show budget, and trade show experience. Trade show selection refers to the number of trade shows and emphasis on different show types, whereas executional influences apply to one specific trade show, such as the show budget and number of staff members.

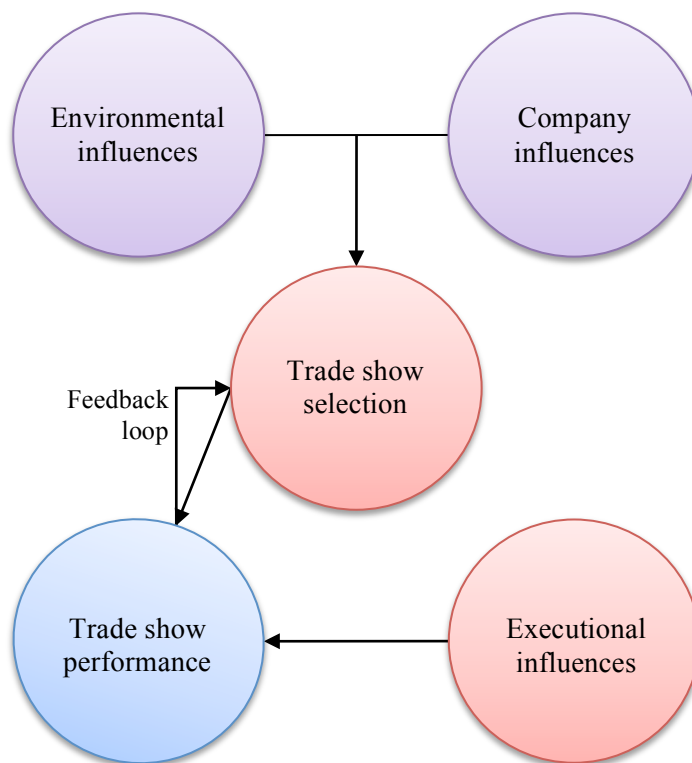


Figure 3 A general model of trade show performance (modified from Shoham 1999, 51).

Environmental influences and company influences are both related to trade show strategies, which, together with executional influences, directly affect trade show performance. Additional factors assumed to influence performance have been recognized in the literature, including company resources (Li 2008), which may be added to the variables in company influences. Expectations of the exhibitors (Tafesse, Korneliussen & Skallerud 2010), event programme quality, and the timing of the event (Michael 2010) may be seen as a part of the executional influences dimension.

Figure 4 provides a summary of the determinants of corporate event performance, which is based on the concepts introduced in this chapter. According to the existing literature, the performance of corporate events is perceived to be determined by four sets of factors: *environmental influences*, *company influences*, *executional influences* and *event selection strategy*. The two former, environmental and company influences, only affect event performance indirectly, as they include factors outside individual events, such as economic conditions and the company's experience in organizing events. The combination of these two sets of factors first influences the company's event selection strategy, which refers to the number of events and emphasis on different event types. The strategy for selecting which events to target therefore has a direct affect on event performance. The fourth determinant of event performance consists of the executional influence factors, which are related to how an individual event is executed by the company, incorporating, for example, the programme and marketing process of the event.

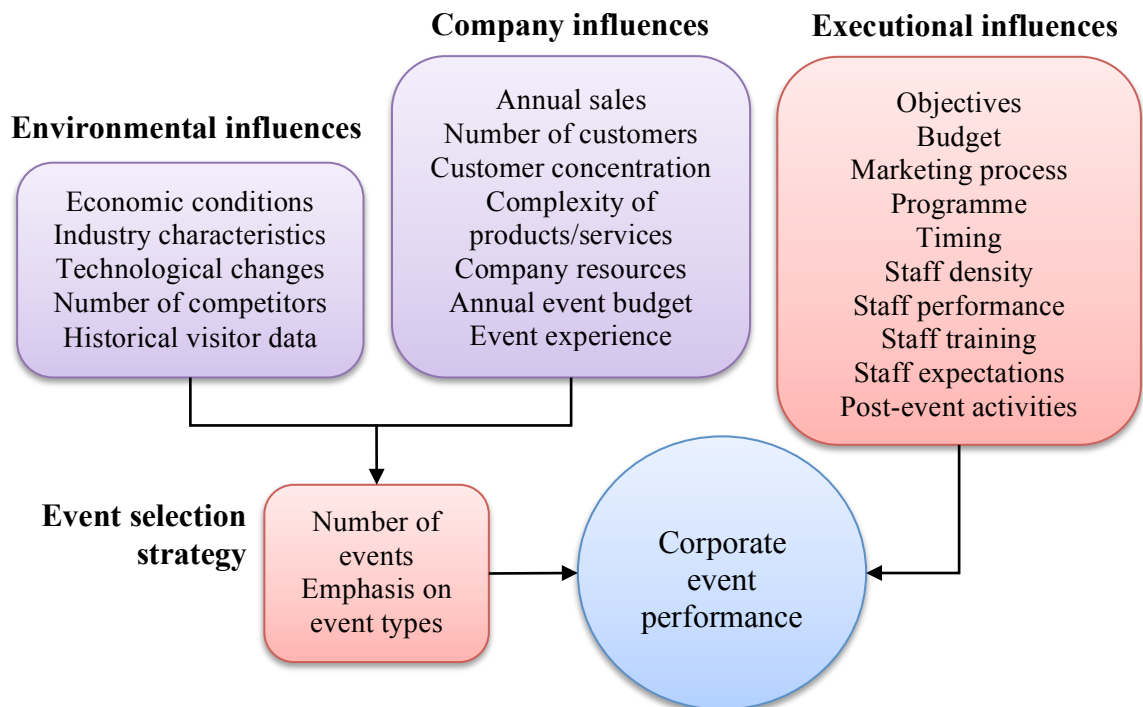


Figure 4 Factors influencing corporate event performance.

The literature suggests that event performance should be conceived multidimensional. In Shoham's (1999) model, the performance of a trade show is composed of four dimensions: sales, intelligence, suppliers' contacts and psychological objectives. It is suggested that 'before and after' measures of performance should be used to capture the success of a trade show. For example, intelligence refers to information gathering, which may be evaluated by measuring the company's knowledge about its competitors before and after the show. Psychological objectives are related to the company's image

enhancement, which should be evaluated for each relevant population, for example, suppliers and customers. Shoham (1999, 53) also addresses the importance given to each dimension, which may differ and thus affect the overall perceived performance of the trade show. For example, a company might be successful in gathering information about competitors, but unless that is considered an important objective, it may still conclude having failed. On the other hand, the company may consider itself to be successful even if it has not met its sales objectives, but has identified one good product idea instead.

Hansen (2004) presents a trade show performance model consisting of five dimensions: sales-related, information-gathering, image-building, relationship-building, and motivation activities. Sales-related activities concern, for example, on-site and post-show sales, as well as the introduction of new products. Information gathering refers to all activities related to the collection of information about competitors, customers, industry trends, and new products. The image-building dimension is based on activities related to enhancing corporate image and reputation. Relationship-building incorporates all activities related to maintaining and developing relationships with existing customers, and establishing relationships with new ones. Motivation activities are related to maintaining and strengthening the motivation of employees and customers, and are emphasized in international trade shows. As this research concerns only national corporate events, the motivational dimension is excluded from the framework. It is also noted that these dimensions refer to the different aspects of event performance, rather than measurement approaches, which were concluded to consist of quantitative and qualitative measures.

Modified from the model suggested by Hansen (2004), Lee and Kim (2008) present a model with four dimensions of trade show performance, which include image-building, sales-related, information gathering and relationship improvement. Figure 5 illustrates, how each dimension is affected by determinants on three different stages: pre-show, at-show and post-show activities. Pre-show activities consist of quantifying objectives, pre-show promotion and staff training; at-show activities include booth size, booth location, at-show promotion and booth staff density; and post-show activities comprise follow-up and performance measurement.

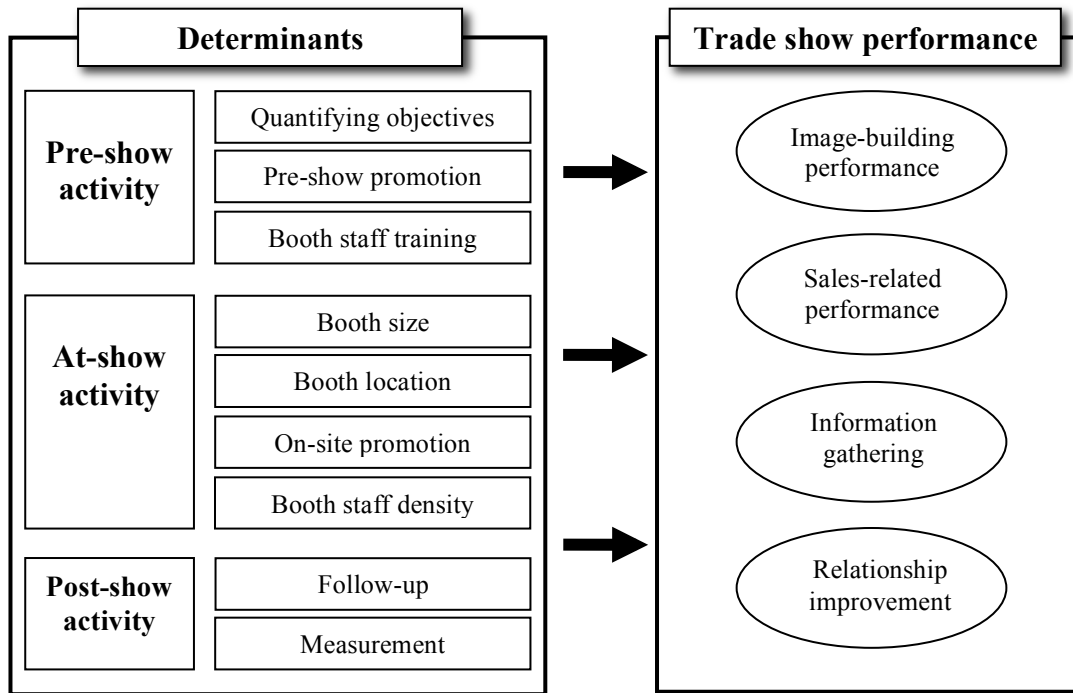


Figure 5 A conceptual model of determinants and outcomes of trade show performance (Lee & Kim 2008).

The effect of a determinant on trade show performance depends on which stage the trade show activity takes place. Exhibitors communicate and interact with attendees that have different motivations for the event. (Lee & Kim 2008.) The agenda of business decision makers is generally based on pre-event information (Stevens 2005), suggesting that the effect of pre-show activities is more extensive compared to at-show activities that only target those who already decided to attend. Post-show activities, concentrating on follow-ups such as thank you e-mails and providing additional information, strengthen the impact of pre-show and at-show activities in all performance dimensions. (Lee & Kim 2008.)

A similar model supporting the dimensionality of event performance is presented by Tafesse and Korneliussen (2011), and it consists of four dimensions: competitive-intelligence, market-scanning, image-building, and relational-sales dimensions. The dimensions and their corresponding performance items are illustrated in Table 4. Each performance item represents a specific aspect of the corresponding dimension.

Table 4 The dimensionality of event performance (modified from Tafesse & Korneliussen 2011, 44–47).

Dimension	Performance items
Competitive-intelligence	Collect information about competitors' products Exchange information with competitors Evaluate displayed products by competitors Benchmark competitive position
Market-scanning	Gather information on new product ideas Explore market opportunities in new regions/segments Introduce new products Explore export opportunities
Image-building	Get publicity in the media Meet key decision makers Demonstrate company capability to customers
Relational-sales	Generate sales Develop and maintain relationships with customers

The competitive-intelligence dimension refers to a systematic analysis of competition for decision-making. Market-scanning is applied for generating tactical and strategic information for adjusting short-term and long-term objectives of the company. The image-building dimension with its performance items focuses on creating and maintaining a positive image of the company, whereas the relational-sales dimension stresses the connection between relationship management and generating sales. (Tafesse & Korneliussen 2011, 44–47.)

With regards to the measurement process of event performance, two approaches exist in the literature. Hansen (1999, 3) suggests separating outcome-based and behavior-based control systems, Crowther (2010, 233) refers to measuring hard and soft factors, Phillips et al. (2008, 210) address tangible and intangible results, whereas several other researchers distinguish qualitative and quantitative dimensions in event performance evaluation (Cavanaugh 1976; Shone & Parry 2004, 220; Tafesse et al. 2010, 314). The importance of the nature and source of the information used for performance measurement has also been emphasized. The nature of the information may be either objective or subjective, and the source of the information reflects the management's view as well as the attendees' view of the performance, which may differ greatly and should both be taken account. (Gopalakrishna & Lilien 1995.) The majority of existing literature refers to quantitative, or objective, and qualitative, or subjective, approaches in measuring event performance. Therefore, in order to maintain consistency and a clear distinction between the two, the terms qualitative and quantitative are also applied in this research.

In addition to the two approaches, the literature suggests that event performance evaluation requires a review of the preset objectives in order to determine whether the objectives were met, and to provide reassurance to stakeholders about the event's effectiveness (Shone & Parry 2004, 221). It is also suggested that performance evaluation should address both the process and the outcomes of an event (Crowther 2010, 233).

2.2.4 *Qualitative approach to measuring event performance*

As with objectives, quantitative and qualitative dimensions are distinguished in the measuring of corporate events performance. In this study, qualitative measures are perceived as tools for subjective evaluation and evoking discussion, rather than providing specific measurement data.

Shone and Parry's (2004, 220) description of qualitative information comprises visitor perceptions, questionnaires, recorded chats or interviews, personnel feedback, management notes and commentary, social impact analysis, and social benefits balance sheet. Cavanaugh's (1976) representation of qualitative information includes several points of discussion, such as attendees' reaction to the event; average time spent in the company's booth by a target audience member; analysis of sales personnel effort and teamwork; analysis of the quality of the message; and functional and aesthetic attributes of the event structure. This type of information may be collected by surveying a sample of the target audience, attendees and sales personnel. Feedback data of the content and non-content of the event may be collected in advance in terms of pre-assessments, during an event if it occurs over multiple days, and/or immediately after the event (Phillips et al. 2008, 91–92). Companies have been reported to obtain feedback data both orally and in written (Michael 2010).

An example of internal analysis of the event organizer is the Relative Value Assessment (RVA) model, suggesting that the potential effectiveness of an event marketing opportunity may be evaluated with five different criteria: *positioning and image*, *audience reach/appeal*, *marketing/sales objectives*, *marketing/sales strategies*, and *tactical effectiveness*. Each criterion consists of various elements, and they all have a required and desired dimension. The criteria are rated on a ten-point scale, and based on the ratings, an RVA comparison grid may be constructed to compare the performance of several events. (Schreiber & Lenson 1994, 90–95.)

There seems to be broad variation among the examples of measures implied by literature. However, when evaluating an event using qualitative measures, it is suggested that both visitors' and the event organizer's perceptions should be considered, which are based on external and internal sources of information (Gopalakrishna & Williams 1992; Shone & Parry 2004, 220). When applying this distinction to the aforementioned exam-

ples, two dimensions may be extracted: *audience feedback*, referring to external sources of information, and the event organizer's *internal analysis*, which is based on internal sources of information. These dimensions are illustrated in Table 5, together with corresponding measurement tools.

Table 5 Qualitative measures for corporate event performance.

Performance indicator	Measures
Audience feedback	Oral feedback Written questionnaire Content related feedback Non-content related feedback
Internal analysis	Quality of the message Sales personnel performance Functional/aesthetic attributes of the event Management notes and commentary Positioning and image Audience reach/appeal Marketing/sales objectives Marketing/sales strategies Tactical/executional effectiveness

The benefits of qualitative, or subjective, evaluation include the diversity of measures, allowing the evaluation of several performance activities. Nevertheless, the drawbacks of the approach are evident: the subjective nature of evaluation may undermine the reliability of the data; the data may be misinterpreted if appropriate respondents are not carefully selected; and the expectations of exhibitors are ignored. (Tafesse et al. 2010, 317–318.)

2.2.5 *Quantitative approach to measuring event performance*

Quantitative tools for measuring event performance aim at producing numeric data that can be easily calculated, compared, and preferably, communicated in terms of monetary value. Quantitative methods evidently increase the reliability of performance measurement (Tafesse et al. 2010, 318).

It has been noted that one of the most frequently addressed measures in event performance is related to the quantity and quality of the event attendees. The former refers to the total size of the audience, and the latter to the percentage of visitors with decision authority at the event. (Lin 2010, 3922.) Therefore, an audit for verifying the projected target audience may be conducted as a part of event performance measurement

(Cavanaugh 1976). New prospects among the audience may be identified by calculating the number of new prospects gathered and the number of new accounts added to the company's database (Stevens 2005). For measuring corporate hospitality, Collett (2008, 293) proposes calculating the number of invitees and refusals, as well as cancellation and no-show ratio, which refer to the percentages of registered delegates who cancelled and those who did not cancel nor showed up at the event.

The role of calculating sales leads in determining event performance is widely emphasized in the literature (Cavanaugh 1976; Stevens 2005; Herbig et al. 1994). A sales lead may originate from existing as well as new customers, and it represents a potential sale that indicates a follow-up meeting between the buyer and the seller (Gopalakrishna & Lilien 1995). Sales leads may also be divided into categories according to various criteria in order to evaluate the lead quality mix (Stevens 2005). Lead efficiency is defined as the actual number of leads generated divided by potential leads available at the event, referring to the number of visitors who had definite buying plans in the near future, usually six to twelve months (Gopalakrishna & Williams 1992). The actual sales generated from leads may be determined immediately, if selling occurred at the event, or months after the event (Herbig et al. 1994), should the buying process in a specific industry be longer.

Bellizzi and Lipps (1984) distinguish three categories of trade show measures: audience quality indicators (potential audience, net buying influence, total buying plans, and audience interest factor), audience activity indicators (average time spent at exhibit, traffic density), and exhibit effectiveness indicators (cost per visitor reached, cost per lead generated, memorability, and sales generated). In order to evaluate trade show effectiveness, the characteristics and activities of both the audience and the exhibitors should be measured.

Gopalakrishna and Lilien (1995) present a three-stage model for the measurement of trade show success, which is based on dividing the attendees into two groups: those potentially interested in the company products/services, and those not interested. The model utilizes efficiency indicators, and it consists of attraction efficiency, contact efficiency, and conversion efficiency (see Table 6).

Table 6 A three-stage model for the measurement of trade show success (modified from Gopalakrishna & Lilien 1995).

Stage 1	Attraction efficiency = $\frac{\text{number of attendees from target audience who visited the firm's booth}}{\text{size of target audience}}$
Stage 2	Contact efficiency = $\frac{\text{number of attendees from target audience who visited the firm's booth and were contacted}}{\text{number of attendees from target audience who visited the firm's booth}}$
Stage 3	Conversion efficiency = $\frac{\text{"effective" number of leads}}{\text{number of attendees from target audience who visited the firm's booth and were contacted}}$

The first stage, attraction efficiency, measures how effectively the company's booth is able to attract the target audience, and it may be enhanced by different attention-getting techniques, such as pre-show promotion. The second stage, contact efficiency, represents the performance of the booth personnel, and it may be strengthened by staffing and personnel training. The third stage, conversion efficiency, reflects the salespeople's ability to turn a contact into a sales lead. Factors affecting the conversion as well as the quality of the sales leads are, for example, the company's reputation, the quality of the company products relative to competition, and the attendee's future buying intentions. (Gopalakrishna & Lilien, 1995, 26–28.)

Calculating the costs of an event is a significant part of measuring performance and return on investment. In addition to comparing the budget to the actual costs of an event (Stevens 2005), specific types of cost calculations have been suggested, including: *cost per contact* (actual total costs divided by the total number of target audience contacted) (Cavanaugh 1976), *cost per visitor* (total trade costs divided by the number of visitors), and *cost per lead generated* (total trade costs divided by the number of leads) (Herbig et al. 1994).

Change in awareness of the company brand, products or services, is also an indicator of event performance, and it may be measured by a survey of the attendees before and after the event. Another measure of awareness is press coverage (Smith & Taylor, 2004, 518), which can be determined by calculating and analyzing the number of press mentions of the event or the company. (Stevens, 2005.) With the growing presence of technological development, new applications, and internet marketing, utilizing web analytics is becoming a popular tool for the marketing department (Bugarski 2009). Monitoring online traffic on the event or company website may therefore also be considered as a measure of awareness.

Phillips et al. (2008) introduce a process model for calculating the return on investment (ROI) of meetings and events, which is based on the notion that many factors affect the ROI of events, but none of them particularly define it. Therefore, all of the aspects of events should be included in the ROI measurement process in order to arrive at an explicit and definitive value. The process is divided into six-levels: one level for *inputs and indicators*, and five levels of evaluation results, which consist of *reaction and perceived value*, *learning*, *application and implementation*, *impact and consequences*, arriving finally at *return on investment*. (Phillips et al. 2008, 9, 12.) The different levels are illustrated in Figure 6.

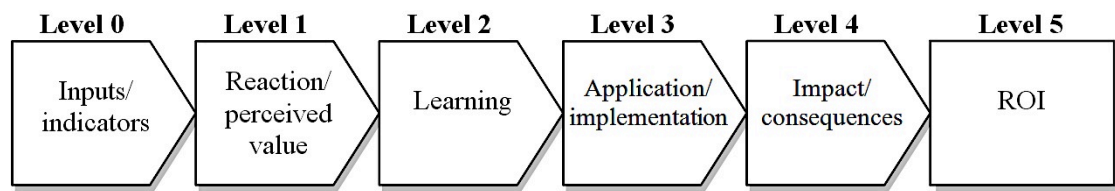


Figure 6 Six-level framework of event ROI measurement process (modified from Phillips et al. 2008, 13).

At level 0, event inputs are measured, such as the number of events, attendees and costs. Level 1 concerns measuring the reaction to and satisfaction with the event experience, ambiance, content, and value, which is usually executed with a generic post-event questionnaire. At level 2, the focus is on measuring what the participants learned during the event using different assessment tools, such as checklists and self-assessments. In addition, the number of new contacts is calculated and the strengthening of the existing ones evaluated. Level 3 is for determining whether the obtained information was applied by the participants by the use of various follow-up methods. Level 4 measures the actual results achieved by the participants as they apply the event materials and contacts, including sales, costs, quality, and customer satisfaction. Level 5 is the ultimate level of evaluation, where the monetary benefits of the event are compared with the event's costs. (Phillips et al. 2008, 12–14, 28.)

In order to arrive at an explicit calculation of ROI, a number of phases are addressed. The process begins with setting clear objectives for each level of assessment, after which evaluation plans are developed, together with the collection of baseline data. At this point, level 0 inputs and indicators are measured. The following phase comprises data collection during and after the event, and an evaluation of levels 1–4, which were cited as reaction, learning, application and business impacts. The next phase is based on data analysis, where the effects of the meeting are isolated and converted into monetary value, from which the total costs of the event are deducted, and the final return on investment calculated. Intangible measures and benefits are also identified, followed by

the reporting phase, where conclusions are reached and communicated to target groups. (Phillips et al. 2008, 30.) The ROI calculation itself is based on dividing the net event benefits by the event costs:

$$\text{ROI (\%)} = \frac{\text{Net event benefits}}{\text{Event costs}} \times 100$$

For arriving at the ROI calculation, the results obtained on levels 1–4 have to be converted into monetary value. However, they could also be utilized as separate evaluation tools, which would imply that they are, in fact, qualitative measures. Therefore, it is suggested that these measures are added separately to the qualitative measures section. Based on the measures introduced in this chapter, a summary of the main indicators for corporate event performance and their corresponding measurement tools are presented in Table 7.

Table 7 Quantitative measures for corporate event performance.

Performance indicator	Measures
Audience audit	Quantity of visitors/invitees/refusals Quality of visitors Cancellation ratio No-show ratio
Awareness	Pre- and post event survey Press article quantity and analysis Web analytics
Efficiency	Attraction efficiency Contact efficiency Conversion efficiency
Sales	Quantity of sales leads Quality and mix of sales leads Sales generated from leads
Costs	Total inputs and costs Cost per visitor Cost per contact Cost per sales lead
ROI	Net event benefits / Event costs

According to Collett (2008, 293), the performance of corporate hospitality may be measured on micro and macro levels. Micro level entails measuring individual company outcomes, whereas macro level allows the measurement of inputs, outputs and out-

comes from the entire hospitality programme. Moreover, the measures should be based on critical key performance indicators for each company, rather than on data that are easily accessed. However, pragmatic measurement decisions require that costs remain at a level where they do not outweigh the value of the hospitality outcome data. It has been suggested that translating event objectives into measurable terms in advance simplifies the measurement process. In addition, the results gained from measuring event performance should be compared on a yearly basis. (Stevens 2005.) Based on these propositions, it is concluded that performance measures may be applied not only to individual events but also, and preferably, to measuring the performance of the company's entire event portfolio in the long run.

2.3 Corporate event performance measurement model – a synthesis

Based on the theories and concepts introduced in this chapter, which are drawn from the existing literature concerning measuring event performance, a model comprising the elements relevant to this study may now be constructed. For simplicity, the model is divided into sections according to the corresponding chapters, in which the concepts are presented in detail. These sections comprise *the objectives, determinants, dimensions and measures* of corporate event performance (see Figure 7).

On top of the model are the factors that are perceived to influence corporate event performance, which are elaborated in chapter 2.2.3. These factors are divided into three main groups: *environmental influences, company influences* and *executional influences*, and one sub-group, *event selection strategy*. Environmental influences are related to factors outside the company, and they have an indirect effect on event performance, encompassing influences, such as technological changes in the industry and the company's competitors. They are factors over which the company has less control. Company influences are connected to the company's operations, which also have an indirect impact on event performance but are to some extent controlled by the company. They comprise factors such as the number of customers, complexity of the company's products/services as well as the annual budget allocated to organizing events. Environmental and company influences together affect the event selection strategy, which refers to decisions about the number and types of events that the company participates in. The strategy has a direct influence on event performance, as do executional influences, which comprise different elements regarding the organization of an individual event, including the performance of staff members at the event as well as post-event activities.

Environmental influences

- Economic conditions
- Industry characteristics
- Technological changes
- Number of competitors
- Historical visitor data

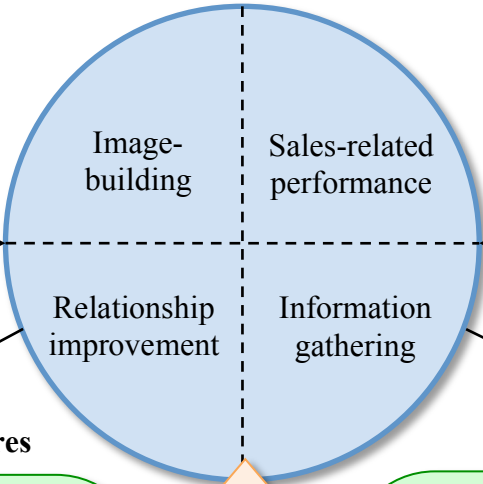
- Annual sales
- Number of customers
- Customer concentration
- Complexity of products/services
- Company resources
- Annual event budget
- Event experience

- Objectives
- Budget
- Marketing process
- Programme
- Timing
- Staff density
- Staff performance
- Staff training
- Staff expectations
- Post-event activities

Event selection strategy

- Number of events
- Emphasis on event types

Corporate event performance



Qualitative measures

Quantitative measures

- Audience feedback
- Oral feedback
 - Written questionnaire
 - Content related feedback
 - Non-content related feedback
-
- Internal analysis
- Quality of the message
 - Sales personnel performance
 - Functional/aesthetic attributes
 - Management notes and commentary
 - Positioning and image
 - Audience reach/appeal
 - Marketing/sales objectives
 - Marketing/sales strategies
 - Tactical/executorial effectiveness

- Audience audit
- Quantity of visitors/invitees/refusals
 - Quality of visitors
 - Cancellation ratio
 - No-show ratio
-
- Awareness
- Pre- and post-event survey
 - Press article quantity and analysis
 - Web analytics
-
- Efficiency
- Attraction efficiency
 - Contact efficiency
 - Conversion efficiency
-
- Sales
- Quantity of sales leads
 - Quality and mix of sales leads
 - Sales generated from leads
-
- Costs
- Total inputs and costs
 - Cost per visitor
 - Cost per contact
 - Cost per sales lead
-
- ROI
- Net event benefits / Event costs

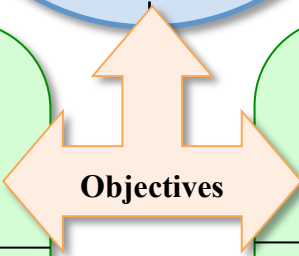


Figure 7 Corporate events performance measurement model.

According to previous research, corporate event performance should be conceived as multidimensional, and is thus divided into four distinct dimensions presented in chapter 2.2.3. These dimensions include *image-building*, *sales-related performance*, *information gathering* and *relationship improvement*. Image-building performance is related to how well the event succeeds in strengthening corporate image and reputation. Sales-related performance mainly concerns measurable sales numbers but also the introduction of new products, for example. Information gathering refers to the collection of information about competitors, customers, industry trends, and new products at the event, and finally, relationship-building incorporates maintaining and developing relationships with existing customers, as well as establishing relationships with new ones.

Based on existing theories on measuring event performance, two approaches are distinguished and illustrated in Figure 7: *qualitative measures* and *quantitative measures*, which are explained in detail in chapters 2.2.4 and 2.2.5. The former, qualitative approach is based on evaluating event performance subjectively, taking into account the audience point of view as well as that of the event organizer. Information on audience views is obtained by gathering feedback either orally or with a written questionnaire. It has also been suggested that feedback related to the event content as well as non-content should be addressed. The event organizer may evaluate performance and evoke discussion through internal analysis, addressing several aspects of the execution of the event, such as the quality of the message and marketing/sales strategies.

Quantitative measures aim at producing explicit and objective data, which may to a great extent be converted into monetary value. Six categories of quantitative measures were found in the existing literature, yet they are not suggested to exclude the possibility of the existence of several other categories. The categories comprise *audience audit*, *awareness*, *efficiency*, *sales*, *costs*, and finally, *return on investment*. Each category encompasses measures associated with and most often used to determine the value of the corresponding aspect of performance. In order to reach explicit and realistic monetary values, it is imperative that all costs and sales related to the execution of an event are taken into consideration and are extracted from the general operations of the company, which requires thorough follow-up procedures.

Finally, the importance of the company's *objectives* in measuring corporate event performance is illustrated by their influence on each performance dimension as well as on both of the measurement approaches. It is widely accepted in the literature that event performance measurement is based on evaluating the preset objectives against the results obtained. Since all companies set their individual objectives, only examples of general objectives may be presented, including image building, increasing sales and strengthening relationships with clients. Previous research suggests that companies have both qualitative and quantitative objectives, which is compatible with the two measurement approaches. In order to simplify the performance measurement process, the event

objectives should therefore be converted into measurable terms using qualitative and quantitative approaches. In addition, event performance measures are applicable not only in evaluating individual events but also in measuring the company's long-term performance of its entire event portfolio.

3 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

This chapter examines the methodology of the research by presenting the nature and advantages of quantitative approach and the sampling method used. The chapter also provides an explanation of and rationale for the data collection method, after which the methods of data analysis are discussed. Finally, reliability and validity issues of the methods in relation to the research are addressed.

3.1 Quantitative research

Quantitative research employs measurement procedures and statistical analysis, which require quantifying data. The emphasis in quantitative methods is on facts and/or reasons for social events, as well as on logical and critical approach. Testing and verification, controlled measurement and objective view of data form a significant part of quantitative research. Other characteristics of quantitative research include testing hypotheses, focusing on results, particularistic and analytical approach, and preferably, generalization to population. (Ghuri & Grønhaug 2010, 104–105.) Given that the purpose of this study is to examine the ways in which corporate event performance may be measured, and specifically, how the issue is currently addressed in organizations, an extensive gathering and analysis of data was required. Therefore, in order to draw conclusions from facts and maintain an analytical view, a quantitative approach was adopted to conduct this study.

Measurement in quantitative research allows a clear distinction between the finer differences among people in terms of the characteristics in question, which are generally not easy to detect. Measurement provides a consistent device for making such distinctions, assuming that it holds an adequate level of reliability. In addition, measurement is useful in forming the basis for precise estimates of the degree of relationships between concepts, which are of typical interest in conducting research. Providing a measure for a specific concept requires indicators that represent that concept. Measures are thus direct quantities, whereas indicators are viewed as indirect measures of a concept. Using a multiple-indicator measure of a concept is reported to decrease incorrect classification of individuals, provide access to a wider range of aspects of the concept and allow making finer distinctions. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 154–157.) The measurement aspect is considered highly relevant in connection to this study, since the study attempts to draw clear distinctions and estimations of the relationships between concepts.

As the focus of this study is on identifying and describing ways of measuring corporate event performance, the research is considered descriptive. Descriptive research, also referred to as statistical research, aims at describing data and characteristics about

the population or phenomenon being studied, and answers questions such as who, what, where, when and how. The data description is factual, accurate and systematic, yet any causal relationships between variables are not detectable in descriptive research. (Sachdeva 2009, 15.) Therefore, this study addresses corporate event performance measurement issues merely from a descriptive point of view, excluding profound speculations on the causality of variable relationships.

In its objective nature, quantitative research is related to a traditional positivist world view, suggesting that knowledge aims at describing the phenomena that we experience. For a positivist, science represents a mechanical tool for observing and measurement in order to grasp the truth to the extent that the world may be understood, predicted and controlled. Inductive reasoning begins with specific observations, moving to generalization and theory development. By contrast, in deductive reasoning, a theory may be formulated and tested empirically, which can lead to the theory being revised. Despite the seemingly separate natures of inductive and deductive reasoning, most business research involves both processes during the project. (Sachdeva 2009, 24–25.) Consequently, this research is not claimed to rely merely on one of the reasoning processes, but it employs both inductive and deductive reasoning.

In a more modern view of science referred to as post-positivism, the reality is perceived as twofold, acknowledging the existence of an independent world of our thinking, which may be examined by science. However, all measurement is considered prone to error, and therefore the importance of triangulation across multiple measures and observations is emphasized. Moreover, although empiricism and positivism require the separation between the observer and those being observed, it is unachievable because of the normative nature of observing, selecting and naming phenomena that always reflect the social and ethical norms of the individual and society. (Sachdeva 2009, 25, 28.)

Quantitative research has been critiqued for its general strategy, epistemological and ontological foundations, as well as specific methods and research designs, mainly by the supporters of qualitative research. Quantitative research is claimed to treat the social world in the same manner as the natural order, suggesting that the principles of the scientific method can and should be applied to all phenomena being examined. Therefore it is claimed to ignore the fact that people have the capacity for self-reflection, unlike the objects of the natural sciences. It has also been argued that quantitative research holds an artificial sense of precision and accuracy, because the connection between the measures and concepts used by social scientists is merely assumed rather than real. Furthermore, it is presumed that the questions on a questionnaire are interpreted similarly by the sample respondents, which usually is not the case, and that fixed-choice answers simply ignore problems related to meaning. In its reliance on instruments and procedures, quantitative research is said to obstruct the connection between research and everyday life. As all respondents are different, we cannot be sure of their awareness and

concern of the concepts introduced, or how well their answers relate to their actual behavior. Finally, quantitative research has been critiqued for creating a static view of social life through the analysis of relationships between variables that is separate from the subjective individuals that make up the world. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 167–168.)

On the other hand, connections between epistemology, ontology and research methods may be perceived as mere tendencies rather than definitive connections. In quantitative research, perfect associations between variables are rarely found, since the practice of business research lacks absolute determinism. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 614.) Therefore, despite the criticism towards quantitative research, it is considered as the most appropriate starting point for addressing the issues related to measuring the performance of corporate events.

3.2 Sampling method

As surveying the entire population is neither possible nor cost-effective, a sampling method is used to select and study units from the population of interest in order to attempt to generalize the results back to the population. A distinction is made between theoretical population and accessible population. (Sachdeva 2009, 141). In this research, the theoretical population encompassed all organizations operating in Finland that are somewhat active in the event marketing sector. As a comprehensive listing of these organizations was not available, the sampling focused on the accessible population, which consisted of the major organizations operating in the Finnish market that were known to have event marketing initiatives.

Whereas probability sampling relies on a systematic process, where each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected to the sample, non-probability sampling covers a wide range of strategies, which are not conducted according to the principles of probability sampling. Non-probability sampling therefore places considerable limitations to the generalization of the results. One of non-probability methods, convenience sampling, refers to utilizing a sample that is easily available to the researcher. Although the method is not ideal for generating definitive findings, it may be of value in creating links with existing research and evoking further research. In the field of business and management, convenience sampling plays a relatively prominent role because of its cost-effective nature. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 190–191.) For this research, convenience sampling was selected as the most appropriate method, given time constraints and direct access to an extensive registry provided by the leading event marketing company in Finland. The registry was found to include major organizations operating in the Finnish market, indicating a relatively accurate representation of the entire

population. In addition, the register was refined and further expanded to include top 500 corporations in the Finnish market according to their turnover.

The listing of the members of the accessible population from which the sample is drawn is referred to as the sampling frame (Sachdeva 2009, 141). In this case, the sampling frame comprised people that are in charge of the decision making in organizing or participating in corporate events in their organization, e.g. marketing directors or marketing managers. The sample for this study was drawn from the combined register of the current and potential clients of the event marketing company, as well as the top 500 companies in Finland. The size of the sample encompassed a total of 1070 names.

It should be noted that sampling bias, a distortion in the representativeness of the sample, arises when there are members of the population that do not share equal chances of being selected in the sample. Sources of bias include using non-probability sampling method, inadequate sampling frame, and non-response among the sample. Non-response implies that those who agree to participate in the study may differ in various ways from those who decide not to participate. Sampling error refers to the differences between the population and the sample, and it may exist despite the use of probability sampling. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 176–177.) Sampling bias is worth addressing in relation to this research, as the use of convenience sampling may have distorted the representativeness of the sample and thus affected the attempt to generalize findings to the population.

Decisions about sample size are not straightforward, as they represent a compromise between the constraints of time and cost as well as the need for precision. A great importance is placed on the absolute sample size rather than the relative one, and increasing the size of the sample evidently increases its likely precision and decreases sampling error. A desired level of precision is not a realistic factor in making decisions about sample size but it may be addressed on a general level. Time and cost considerations are of relevance in a sense that as the sample size increases to a certain extent, precision gains become less noticeable and thus less cost-effective. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 187–188.)

Although the use of surveys as a research method is widely supported, it has been recognized that most sample surveys suffer from the problem of non-response. Therefore it is worth questioning whether the sample obtained is significant enough to represent the population examined. Another consideration on sample size is related to the homogeneity and heterogeneity of the population. A heterogeneous sample implies a great variation among the population, whereas a relatively homogeneous sample, such as member of a company or of an occupation, entails less variation. Therefore, the greater the heterogeneity of a population, the larger sample size is required. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 188–189.) The characteristics among the population of this research were similar, the focus being on large organizations that engage in event marketing activities.

The population consisted of people titled e.g. event marketing managers, marketing managers/directors, communication directors and sales directors, who have responsibilities in event marketing in their organization. It was presumed that they share similar working tasks, indicating a relatively homogeneous population, for which the sample size was considered adequate. Non-response issues and prevention were addressed by questionnaire design, simplicity and relatively small number of questions. In addition, the covering letter included a request to send forward the questionnaire to the right person, should the survey not concern the person it was originally appointed to.

3.3 Data collection method

Questionnaires represent highly structured methods of data collection, and conducting them is relatively rapid and cost-effective. In order to arrive at reliable estimates of how scores may be distributed among the population, a large representative sample is required and obtained only by the use of structured methods. (Wilson & Sapsford 2006, 102, 112.) Surveys and questionnaires are reported to be among the most popular and effective tools in business studies for gathering opinions, attitudes and descriptions, as well as for identifying causal relationships. The major types of questionnaires are claimed to be descriptive and/or analytical. Descriptive surveys focus on indentifying the phenomena whose frequency (Wilson & Sapsford 2006, 106) and variance can preferably be measured, and on whether the sample is representative enough for generalizing the results. Analytic surveys aim at testing a theory in the field, and specifying the independent, dependent and extraneous variables by statistical techniques. (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2010, 118–119.)

Survey research using the internet has become increasingly popular for its cost and time effectiveness, easy access, convenience, possibility to obtain a large sample size, evidence of higher response rates than in postal surveys, and automatic transfer of responses to an analysis program (Wilson & Sapsford 2006, 130, 132). In comparison with structured interviewing, self-completion questionnaires involve no interviewer effects that may bias responses. They also allow completion at a convenient time and speed for the respondents. Web surveys, operated by inviting prospective respondents to complete the questionnaire online, have several advantages over paper-based and e-mail surveys, where the questionnaire is sent to the respondents. The appearance and design of online questionnaires may be modified in various ways, enabling more convenience for the respondents. The data may also be downloaded directly from the system without coding, reducing the likelihood of errors in the data processing stage. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 232–233, 661–663.)

Given the advantages of questionnaires and the objectives of the study, a structured questionnaire conducted as a web survey was selected as the most appropriate data collection method for this research (see Appendix). Table 8 presents the structure of the questionnaire, which was based on the research objective divided into three major research questions and addressed by the theoretical framework. The synthesis on corporate event performance presented in chapter 2.3 formed the basis for constructing the questions. The questionnaire was divided into sections according to the synthesis model presented in chapter 2.3, and it comprised the examination of the factors influencing corporate event performance, the dimensions of performance, and finally, the two approaches in measuring event performance, introduced in chapters 2.2.2–2.2.5. It should be noted, that some of the questions address general information on the respondent organization, and are therefore not included in the table.

Table 8 The operationalization of the questionnaire.

Research objective	Research questions	Theoretical frame	Questionnaire
Identify and describe ways to measure the performance of corporate events	Which factors influence the performance of corporate events?	Environmental influences	Questions 11–16
		Company influences	
		Event selection strategy	
		Executorial influences	
	What are the dimensions of corporate event performance?	Image-building	Question 17
		Sales-related	
		Information-gathering	
		Relationship-improvement	
	How can the performance of corporate events be measured?	Qualitative approach	Questions 18–22
		Quantitative approach	

Most of the questions were constructed according to Likert-type scale, which continues to be one of the most commonly used scale applications, and which, for its simplicity, was chosen as the method for responding. Despite the fact that no consensus on the optimal number of scale items exists, a limited, workable range has been suggested, encompassing a multidimensional perspective offered by odd-numbered scales. In other

words, a relatively narrow scale combined with the possibility of arriving at a neutral answer in the middle of the scale, is claimed to result in a better estimate of where an individual is located in terms of opinion or attitude. In addition, the scale should be balanced, so that both extremes represent reversals of each other. Scale balance is also highly dependent upon the discourses of the language, as well as grammar and context. (Maxim 1999, 224–226.) In this research, a five-scale application with high focus on balance, language discourses, grammar and context was utilized.

A significant consideration is whether the questions should be presented in an open or closed format. Open questions allow respondents the possibility to answer in their own terms, perhaps providing replies that the researcher had not contemplated. In addition, open questions do not suggest certain kinds of answers to respondents, and they are useful in exploring areas of which the researcher has limited knowledge. However, open questions are time-consuming because they require coding, content analysis as well as longer responses, and are therefore suggested to have limited utility in self-completion questionnaires. Closed questions provide efficient and easy processing of fixed answers, enhance the comparability of answers and variable relationship analysis, may clarify the meaning of a question for respondents, and they are easy to complete. Nevertheless, closed questions restrict the spontaneity in responding, they may involve challenges in making forced-choice answers mutually exclusive or exhaustive, and variation among respondents' interpretation of the fixed choices may occur. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 248–252.)

For this research, closed-question format with the possibility for open responses was applied to most of the questions. Hence the respondents could express their opinions more freely, and new variables and areas of focus could be discovered. In order to gather more profound information on the subject and to allow more spontaneity, respondents were given a chance to leave open comments about the subject of the study at the end of the questionnaire.

As with any other data collection method, disadvantages of the self-completion questionnaire have also been reported. Major drawbacks of the method include the absence of assistance if questions are unclear to the respondent, no opportunity for elaborating answers, not knowing whether the right person has completed the questionnaire, the inability to collect additional data, limitations to the amount of questions, risk of missing data, and lower response rates. The risk of bias exists if there are differences between participants and refusals, and it is likely to affect the findings related to the sample. In addition, with the ever increasing popularity of e-mail marketing, invitations to participate in surveys sent by e-mail may be viewed as spam, and concerns about fraud and hackers may lead to confidentiality issues among the research participants. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 233–234, 651.)

In order to minimize the effect of these disadvantages on the findings, an emphasis was put on the clarity and relative extensiveness of the questions and directions. The risk of missing data was prevented by making all the questions mandatory, and the possibility of bias was addressed by examining whether the differences between participants and refusals was significant. Several e-mail invitations were sent to the respondents, which enhanced the reach of the questionnaire. Data collection error, which may exist due to the lack of proper wording in the questionnaire or flaws in the administration of the research instrument (Bryman & Bell 2011, 196), was prevented by using appropriate terms in the language of the questionnaire and testing the functions of the instrument on a continuous basis.

It is critical to mention some of the factors that may influence respondents and their reactions, as well as their answers. The sponsorship of a particular organization may lead to suspicion among the respondents and discourage them from answering the questions correctly. Appealing to the respondents by emphasizing the importance of the study or by offering a reward may also affect the respondents' reaction. The format, appearance, layout and length of the questionnaire have evident effects on responses. The tone of the covering letter and the convenience of responding are also claimed to influence respondents. (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2010, 118–119.)

In the context of this study, it was taken into consideration that the above-mentioned factors may have had an impact on the respondents and their answers. Since the survey was sponsored by the leading event marketing company in Finland, it may have caused some discouragement and suspicion among the potential clients of the company to whom the survey was sent. To evoke interest in the respondents, emphasis on the importance of the study was placed in the covering letter of the questionnaire. In addition, a reward in the form of a gift voucher to be handed out to two randomly drawn respondents was offered in order to prevent non-response. To enhance the convenience of responding, special attention was paid to the appearance, layout and length of the questionnaire.

It should be noted that as the measurement score of the questionnaire may reflect the true score, it may also reflect other factors as well, such as stable characteristics, which imply the differences in response sets, meaning that some respondents tend to use the extreme response scales, whereas others may focus their answers in the middle. Other factors influencing responses include transient personal factors, for example the mood of the respondent; situational factors, such as time pressure; and mechanical factors, referring to accidental marks or incorrectly coded responses. (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2010, 78–79.) It is acknowledged that these types of factors cannot be entirely controlled when utilizing self-completion questionnaire as a data collection method.

3.4 Data analysis

The theoretical framework of this study was based on assumptions gathered from existing literature on event marketing performance evaluation and measurement. In addition to the framework, the research questions served as a guiding principle throughout the data analysis. The analysis of the data was based on data mining, which is defined as the practice of processing large amounts of data and distinguishing pieces of relevant information. The process is facilitated by computer-based methodology through which more complex analysis may be performed. (Sachdeva 2009, 127.)

The data gathered through the questionnaire was analyzed by calculating the average score for each question. In addition, the frequency and standard deviation of answers were also calculated. The relatively small sample size allowed investigating all responses more precisely. Average scores were compared between categories of various independent variables, such as company size in terms of turnover and measuring practices in terms of industry. However, no distinct correlations or differences of statistical significance were found. This may be due to the relatively small sample size, and therefore these findings were not considered as feasible for analysis in the context of this study.

The unit of analysis in research points to the case to which the variables under study and the research problem refer, and about which data is collected and analyzed (Collis & Hussey 2003, 121). In this research, the units of analysis consisted of individuals in charge of the decision-making in event marketing activities in their organization, e.g. marketing managers or marketing directors.

Data processing error may arise from incorrect management of data, in particular, errors in the coding of answers (Bryman & Bell 2011, 196). The probability of errors occurring in coding was decreased by the relatively small sample size, which allowed a thorough investigation of the data. In addition, the data was gathered by and retrieved directly from an online-based software system, which relies on automated computer-aided calculations. Nevertheless, the possibility of data processing error is present in any quantitative research.

3.5 Reliability and validity

As the importance of reliability and validity is widely accepted in the social sciences, these concepts are examined and evaluated in connection to this study. Although the terms may seem synonymous, they employ very different meanings in relation to the evaluation of the measures of concepts (Bryman & Bell 2011, 156). Reliability and validity may be evaluated separately, yet they are in close relation to each other. Validity

presumes reliability, which means that if a measure is not reliable, it cannot be valid. (Sachdeva 2009, 70.)

The validity of research addresses whether operational indicators are linked to a theoretical concept. In other words, validity indicates whether a variable measures what it is supposed to measure. In order to capture the broad meaning of the concept, several categories have been developed for the examination of validity. (Maxim 1999, 208.)

Construct validity is necessary for interpreting research findings (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2010, 81), and it indicates how accurately the operationalization of the study reflects its underlying theoretical construct (Sachdeva 2009, 64). In other words, construct validity refers to the correlation between two or more separate notions of the same construct, and it is based on theoretical predictions on the direction of the relationships between different instruments. Construct validity is claimed to be established through a long process of testing, and it is primarily related to measures for which no apparent real-world counterpart exists, such as intelligence. (Maxim 1999, 209.) In construct validity assessments, the researcher is encouraged to deduce hypotheses from a theory relevant to the concept, which may then be tested (Bryman & Bell 2011, 160). Testing theory-based hypotheses in the form of a questionnaire served as the construct validity evaluation in this research. Various types of construct validity are addressed in the literature, and the concept may be divided into translation validity and criterion-related validity (Sachdeva 2009, 64).

Translation validity indicates how well the construct is translated into its equivalent operationalization, and it consists of face validity and content validity (Sachdeva 2009, 65). *Face validity* is a simple evaluation of whether the measure seems reasonable for what it is used for (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2010, 81). Face validity therefore relies on the subjective judgment of the researcher. Another subjective evaluation concept is *content validity*, where the operationalization against the relevant content domain for the construct is checked (Sachdeva 2009, 65). Content validity reflects the researcher's subjective judgment about whether an indicator references that which it is supposed to reference, denoting whether a given item includes the appropriate theoretical domain. Furthermore, content validity concerns the issue of whether or not the pool of questions covers the entire domain of the concept that one attempts to measure. (Maxim 1999, 208.) Both face validity and content validity were evaluated by the researcher's subjective judgement, and the constructs used were based on careful selection of those in existing literature.

In *criterion-related validity*, the performance of the operationalization is checked against some criterion. Also referred to as instrumental validity, it is based on a comparison with another measure proven to be valid in order to demonstrate the accuracy of the given measure. Criterion-related validity may be assessed with several concepts, such as predictive, concurrent, discriminant and convergent validity. (Sachdeva 2009, 64–66.)

Predictive validity is used to assess how correctly the operationalization predicts what it theoretically should predict. *Concurrent validity* assesses the ability of the operationalization to make a distinction between groups that it should theoretically be able to distinguish. *Discriminant validity* examines the degree to which dissimilarities exist between the operationalization and other operationalizations with which similarities should not theoretically exist. (Sachdeva 2009, 65–66.) Discriminant validity relies on the notion that two or more separate measures of the same concept ought to be highly intercorrelated, and that correlation ought to be higher than the correlations among the traits. That is to say, the constructs should not be more similar than are the techniques used to measure them. Measurement methods are required to be independent and thus uncorrelated of the traits. (Maxim 1999, 210.) Finally, *convergent validity* implies to what extent multiple measures or methods for measuring the same construct produce similar results (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2010, 81). Criterion-related validity and its applications in this research were addressed by questionnaire design, ensuring that the operationalization included multiple methods for measuring the same construct.

Other forms of validity include internal and external validity. *Internal validity* is the extent to which two or more variables are concluded to have a causal relationship between them. Statistical significance is required for proving a causal relationship, and it is indicated by statistical conclusion validity, which relates to the minimum sample size. (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2010, 83.) The dimensionality of the data may also be explored by conducting a factor analysis, which indicates the number of distinct dimensions in the data. Another tool for examining internal validity is *Cronbach's alpha*, which is based on the intercorrelation between the pairs of items in a scale. (Wilson & Sapsford 2006, 111.) As this research was based on descriptive presentation of the results and because of the relatively small sample size at hand, causal relationships of variables were not addressed to the extent that statistical conclusion validity could be achieved. However, this does not exclude the possibility of the existence of causal relationships.

External validity points to the extent to which the research findings can be generalized to particular situations and people as well as the entire population (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2010, 84). Evidence for a generalization is provided by two major approaches: sampling model, which requires a sample representative of the population, and proximal similarity model, which seeks to generalize through finding relative similarities with different generalizability contexts (Sachdeva 2009, 68).

Validity evaluation may be considered as a cumulative process, starting from questions concerning conclusion validity and internal validity, then addressing construct validity, and finally, arriving at external validity issues. *Conclusion validity* concerns the degree to which conclusions reached about the relationships in the data are reasonable, in other words, whether a relationship may be concluded to exist or not. It is enhanced by using a larger sample size and increasing the significance level or effect size.

After concluding the existence of a relationship, internal validity is addressed in order to assess whether that relationship is causal, with the emphasis on whether the observed outcome can be attributed to the cause in question and not to other possible causes. Internal validity only concerns the specific study and cannot be generalized, whereas construct validity involves generalizing from the measures to the underlying theoretical concept, attempting to prove that a measure truly captures what the theory suggests. (Sachdeva 2009, 58–64.)

In this research, the sampling model used was based on convenience sampling, which, together with a relatively small sample size, does not fully support an attempt to generalize conclusions to the entire population. However, the evaluation of external validity related to generalization to particular situations was applied in this research. Therefore, it may be concluded that the results obtained from this study can be generalized to similar situations, organizations and events. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that validity as a concept represents the ideal, and is therefore achievable only in terms of preferring more valid measures to less valid ones (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2010, 78–79).

Reliability refers to the stability of the measure, indicating whether the measure produces similar results with repeated measurement and testing (Ghauri & Grønhaug 2010, 79). Split-half reliability, comparing two halves of the test on a single administration, or Cronbach's alpha, provide an indication of reliability, yet they lack the strength of test-retest methods because they do not assure the stability of the traits over time (Wilson & Sapsford 2006, 112). Reliability may also be defined as the ratio of the true level of measure to the entire measure, indicating the proportion of 'truth' in the measure used and the entire measure. However, reliability can only be calculated by estimating the true score component as the covariance between two observations of the same measure. (Sachdeva 2009, 70.)

Three different meanings are attached to the term reliability: stability, internal reliability and inter-observer consistency. Stability may be evaluated by test-retest method, which involves administering a test or measure at one time, and then repeating it to the same sample at another time. This is not always unproblematic, since the first test may influence how the respondents reply to the second one, and long time spans between the tests carry the risk of changes taking place in the economy or in respondents' circumstances. Internal reliability, applying to multiple indicator measures, may be tested with split-half method, where the indicators are divided into two halves to see whether the scores correlate with each other and therefore relate to the same thing. (Bryman & Bell 2011, 157–159.) The reliability of this research could not be confirmed using the test-retest method both because of time-constraints and the problematics of using the method. However, the reliability was addressed by applying multiple indicator measures to the questionnaire in order to produce correlating scores.

4 EMPIRICAL FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

Although measuring the performance of events is considered to be based on comparing the preset objectives against results obtained, no comprehensive framework for connecting the event objectives with corresponding measures has been provided in the literature. In this chapter, the findings and analysis of the questionnaire results are presented. First the characteristics, such as the business activities, industry, size and event marketing initiatives of the sample companies, are described. The findings are presented and analyzed following the questionnaire structure and its underlying theoretical concepts, starting from the determinants and dimensions of corporate event performance, objective setting, and finally the measurement procedures and tools used in the respondent companies. In addition, findings of the open-ended questions regarding event performance measurement included in the questionnaire are presented and analyzed.

4.1 Description of sample

The questionnaire was filled out by 65 respondents, all of whom are directly involved in event marketing decision-making in their organization. As Figure 8 indicates, over a half of the respondents are responsible for both event purchase decisions and event execution, whereas the other half is divided into those responsible for purchase decisions and those in charge of event execution.

What is your role in event marketing activities?



Figure 8 The role of respondents in event marketing (n=65).

The respondents were asked to describe their company's activities by choosing an appropriate level between two extremes. Figure 9 presents the deviation of these activities and provides an overview of the respondent companies' business. Over 50 % of the

respondents reported having numerous customers rather than just one or few. Customer concentration, indicating the distribution of sales in the customer portfolio of the companies, was placed into neither extremes by the respondents on average. However, over a third implied that most of their company's sales are generated by numerous customers rather than just one or few.

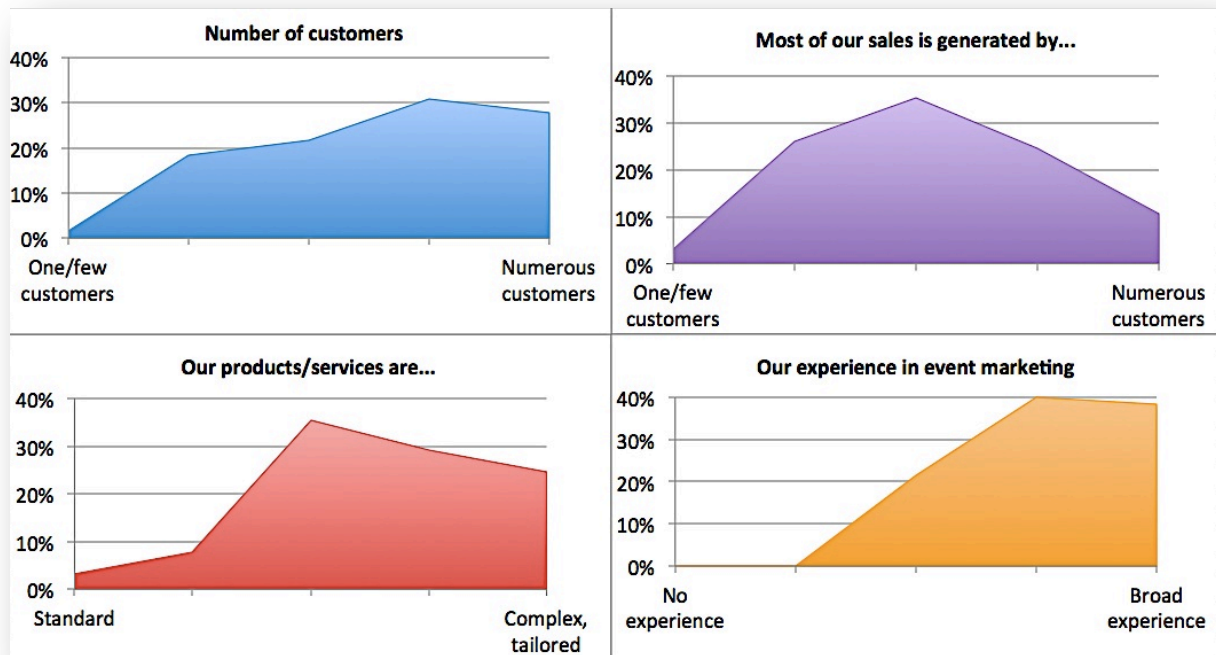


Figure 9 Overview of respondent companies' business activities (n=65).

The lower left quadrant of Figure 9 presents the average complexity of products/services offered by the companies. Majority of the respondents reported that their company's offering is based on complex, tailored solutions instead of standard products. In addition, the question about event marketing experience among the respondents produced most replies related to broad experience, which is presented in the lower right quadrant.

The respondents were asked to place their organization into a category based on an official industry classification. As Figure 10 implies, most of the respondent companies operate in manufacturing, information and communication, financial and insurance activities as well as other service activities.

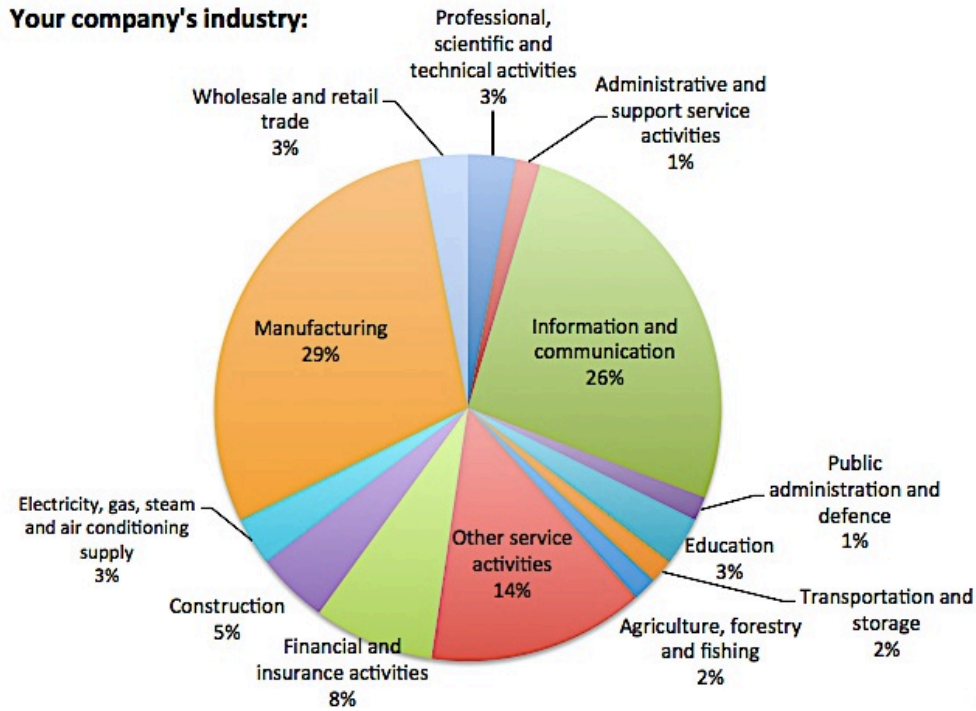


Figure 10 Industry classification among respondent companies (n=65).

In terms of turnover and number of employees presented in Figure 11 and Figure 12, the respondent companies seem to be relatively large. A quarter of the companies reported to have had a turnover of over 1000 million euros and over 5000 employees in 2011. In addition, almost a quarter of the companies had a turnover between 101 and 250 million euros. Approximately a third of the companies had 100–500 employees in 2011.

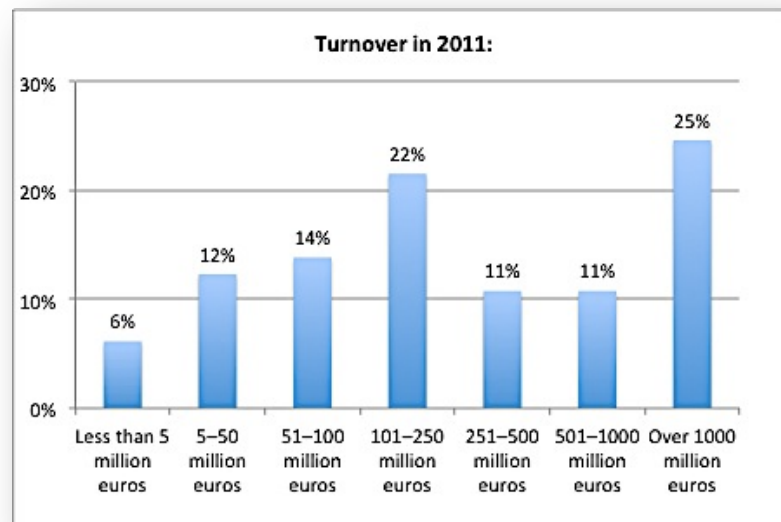


Figure 11 Turnover of respondent companies in 2011 (n=65).

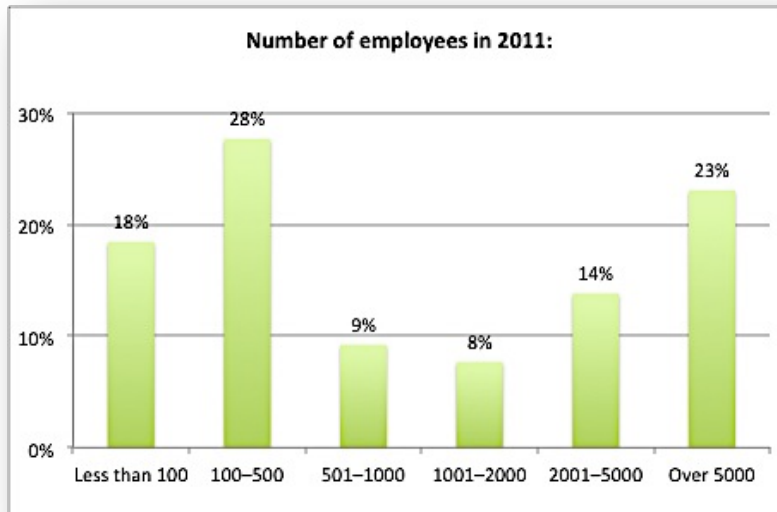


Figure 12 Number of employees in respondent companies in 2011 (n=65).

On the other hand, the numbers in Figure 11 and Figure 12 communicate a relatively high deviation among the respondent companies in terms of turnover and number of employees. It is therefore not possible to conclude that the sample is completely homogeneous. Nevertheless, the majority of the companies reported having broad experience in event marketing activities, which relates to the interests of this research.

Figure 13 indicates the average frequency of organizing different types of events in the respondent companies. The highest frequency was given to meetings and conventions, implying that those type of events are held very often or on a regular basis. Educational events and seminars are also included in the companies' event portfolio most often. Conferences and congresses are organized least often according to the respondents. The relatively large difference in frequencies may be due to the size of different event types. Smaller scale events, such as meetings and conventions, can be organized more often, whereas events that require more investments and resources, such as international conferences, are less frequent.

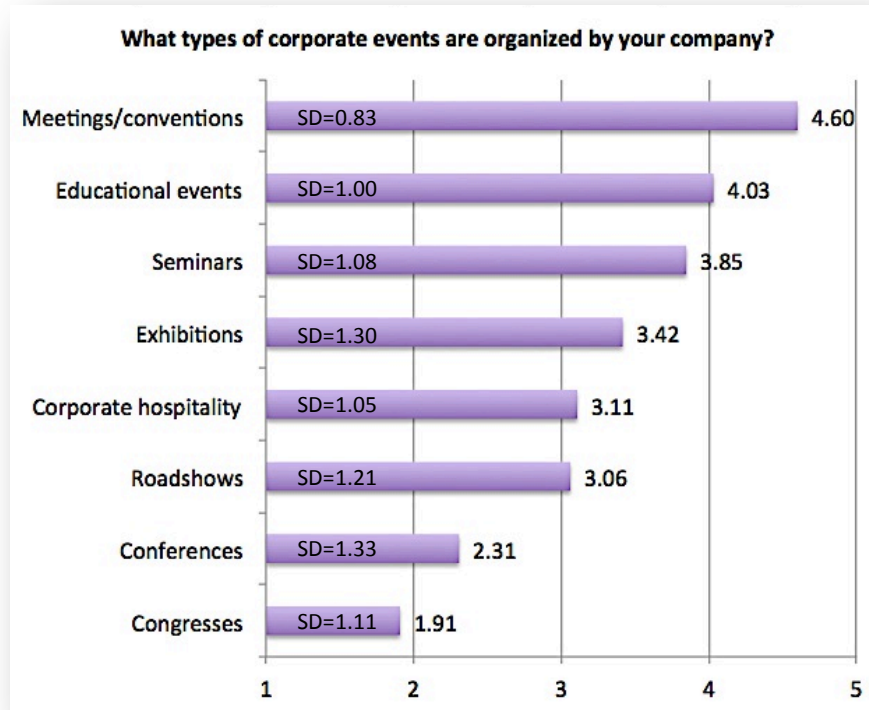


Figure 13 Types of corporate events organized by the companies (average score, 1=Never, 5=Very often/on a regular basis, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

In addition, the respondents reported organizing other types of events, such as industry marketing events, customer events, kick-off events for staff, networking events, product launches, general meetings, sports events and partner events. Almost all respondents concluded that their company organized tens, some of them even hundreds of events in the year 2011.

It should be noted that the different event types referred to in the questionnaire are not exclusive, and may share some similar characteristics. It is therefore not possible to provide a comprehensive description of the companies' event portfolio. Also the reported numbers of events in 2011 were not precise and varied on a relatively wide scale, which may indicate a lack of common understanding of what types of events count as marketing events. In relation to this, the usage of wording should also be studied, as different expressions may be used for different types of events depending on the company culture, industry and geographical coverage.

Figure 14 presents the respondents' evaluation of their company's event marketing investments in relation to the company's total marketing budget in 2011. Almost 40 % of the respondents reported that their event marketing initiatives were in between 26 %

and 50 % in 2011. These figures represent mere evaluations, and since the categories are relatively wide in scale, the exact percentages will remain unknown.

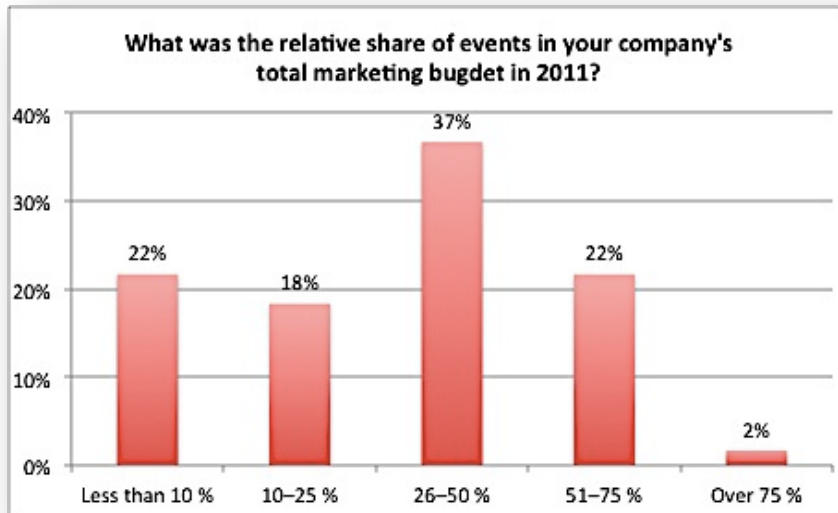


Figure 14 The relative share of events in total marketing budget in 2011 (n=65).

It should be noted that almost a quarter of the respondents reported a share of less than 10 % of their company's total marketing budget. This would imply that event investments are for some reason kept at minimum. It may be due to several factors, such as previous budget cuts, economical conditions, or the lack of concrete proof of event marketing return on investment, which would suggest an insufficient set of measurement tools. However, these kind of conclusions remain unattainable with the relatively small sample size in this research. Further analysis on event investments in relation to different industries, company size, or economical and budget related changes in time might reveal the underlying reasons for making small investments.

When inquired about future investment intentions, the majority of 57 % of the respondents implied that there would be no change in the relative proportion of their company's event marketing investments within the total marketing budget compared to year 2011 (see Figure 15).

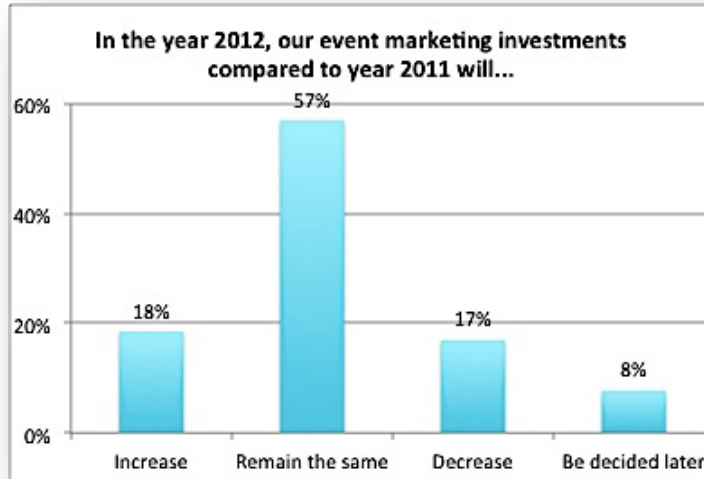


Figure 15 Future changes in event marketing investments compared to 2011 (n=65).

It should be noted that the timing of the questionnaire may have affected the responses, as there may be differences in fiscal year periods and financial decision making processes among the companies.

4.2 Determinants and dimensions of corporate event performance

4.2.1 Event selection strategy

According to theoretical background, corporate event performance is directly influenced by executional factors and event selection strategy. Event selection strategy, referring to decisions about the number and types of events to participate in, is determined by indirect influences related to the environment and the company itself. (Shoham 1999.)

Figure 16 indicates that of the environmental influences, the majority of the respondents perceived the quality of visitors in previous events to be directly linked to their company's event selection strategy. Naturally companies take into account the profile of the visitors in their past events in order to decide whether to organize similar events in the future. The more representative of the target group the visitors are, the more likely a similar event will be held also in the future. In addition, industry characteristics were perceived to have a strong influence on decision-making within the companies. If the industry is under constant development and change, it is likely to provoke internal discussion on organizing events related to corresponding subjects.

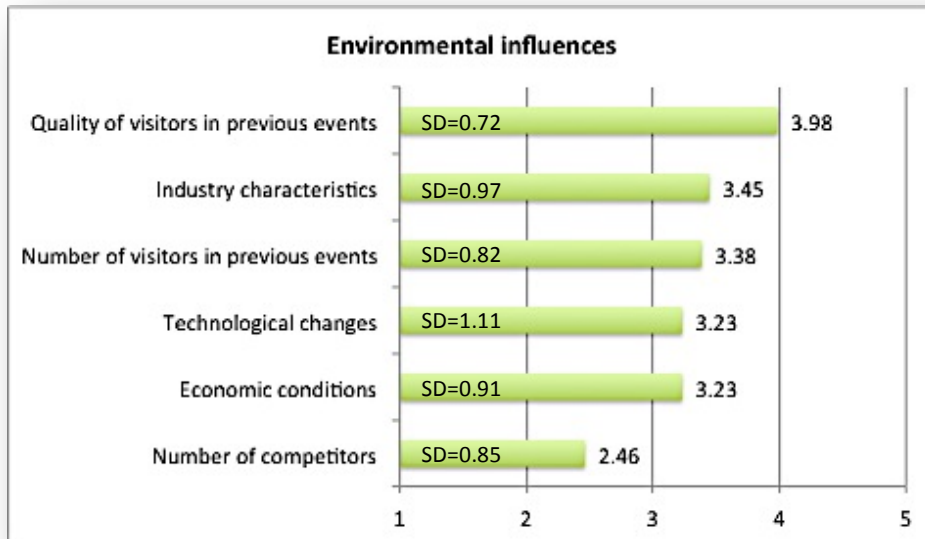


Figure 16 Environmental influences on event selection strategy (average score, 1=No influence, 5=Very high influence, $n=65$, SD=standard deviation).

On the other hand, the number of competitors seems to have less influence on the companies' event selection strategy. The factor may have been perceived not as relevant as the others or not directly addressed when making event marketing decisions. However, according to the average score of 2.46, the number of competitors does influence the companies' event selection strategy at least to a certain extent, even though this particular empirical evidence does not fully support the theoretical framework (e.g. Shoham 1999).

It should also be questioned whether the quality of visitors in previous events is a factor over which the company has less control. Evidently the organizing company has a set of marketing tools with which to attract the right target group to its events. Further research is required in order to differentiate the factors that have less and more influence on corporate event performance.

The respondents were given an opportunity to suggest other environmental influences on their company's event selection strategy. For global, international companies, decisions made on a higher corporate level were perceived to have an effect on the strategy of the company operating in the Finnish market. In addition, a request to organize an event related to a specific topic may be initiated by a third party, such as the government, which was perceived to have an influence on event selection strategy. There may also be an upcoming large scale event that drives the need to organize a customer meeting or an event. Overall market conditions, changes in business operations, service development and various researches were also regarded as environmental influences on event selection strategy according to the respondents.

In addition, some of the respondents questioned whether physical events are even relevant in the contemporary business world. As business activities become more mobile, flexible and international, the demands of developing the means of communication increase. Technological advancements have initiated the phenomenon of virtual and online events, which seem to be adopted in the US to a greater extent than in Europe. According to a number of studies (Hansen 2004; Lee & Kim 2008; MPI Business Barometer 2009), physical events still hold a significant status in the marketing portfolio because it is impossible to replace personal interaction with virtual technology. It is therefore likely that events will maintain their position or even increase their popularity as a marketing channel.

Factors over which the company is perceived to have more control are referred to as company influences (Shoham 1999). As presented in Figure 17, all given options received an average rating of over 3.0, indicating that they have at minimum some influence on event selection strategy according to the respondents. The highest average score was appointed to annual event budget and experience in organizing events. The lowest average score, yet relatively high, was addressed to the number of customers.

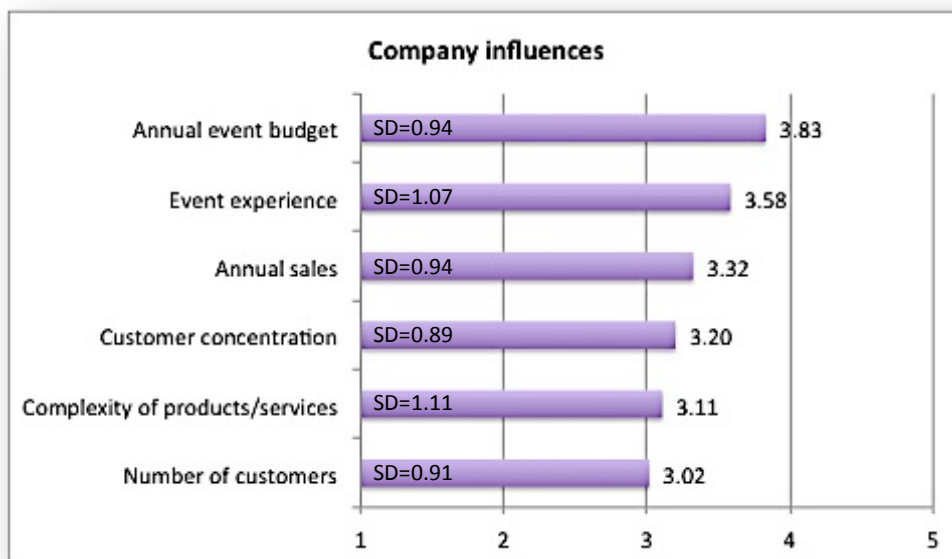


Figure 17 Company influences on event selection strategy (average score, 1=No influence, 5=Very high influence, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

Evidently the annual event budget was perceived to have a major influence on event selection strategy because events, as well as other marketing activities and projects, require substantial investments in order to generate desired results. The increasing importance of budget optimization, especially in an uncertain economical environment,

strengthens the need to both obtain and measure concrete end results of corporate events. Experience in organizing events scored high presumably because if the company has extensive experience in organizing events, it is likely that the decision-making process will become more efficient. Previous experience may therefore be used as reference when selecting which events to attend in the future. The effect of the number of customers may have scored below the other factors because it is not regarded as an equally critical factor when making decisions. Depending on the organization, it is likely that events are held despite the number of customers.

In the open response section, the respondents suggested additional company influences on event selection strategy. These were activeness of the staff and ideas generated within the company, planning with partners, annual need for visibility to customers, events that have been established as a tradition, profile/positioning of the company, internal organizational changes, staff resources, new service launches, new target groups, results from previous events and the timing of previously organized event. In addition, the need for the organization to communicate its expertise was mentioned as an influential factor.

The additional factors mentioned were numerous, which may indicate that the theoretical listing did not cover all practical examples. On the other hand, there may be some overlapping among the factors mentioned depending on the point of view, context and meanings attached to the concepts. Event selection strategy seems to be influenced by a wide range of factors that are interlinked. Since all organizations are different, also their decision-making processes differ from one another, which makes it difficult to present a comprehensive listing of the influences on event selection strategy.

4.2.2 *Executorial factors*

According to theory, executorial factors have a direct influence on corporate event performance (Shoham 1999). This approach was supported by the respondents to a great extent. As Figure 18 indicates, almost all given options on executorial influences scored high among the respondents. The top three scores were given to event programme, marketing and invitation process and event objectives. It should be noted however, that differences between the highest scores were very small, implying that the corresponding factors were considered almost equally important in contributing to event performance.

The content of the event evidently plays a major role in corporate event performance, and it is supported by an efficient marketing and invitation process (Michael 2010). A connection to previous research is reinforced by the fact that event objectives were perceived to be very influential to event performance. This supports the view, according to which corporate event performance is measured by how well the preset objectives are

met (Cavanaugh 1976; Smith & Taylor 2004; Crowther 2010). In addition, staff performance at the event and post-event activities scored relatively high. It seems that according to the respondents, event performance is related to activities before, during and after the event. The factor with lowest score was staff density. It may have been perceived as less of importance as it does not directly involve active engagement of the staff but is merely a descriptive indicator of the number of staff at the event location.

Event budget was not perceived as influential compared to the beforementioned factors. On the other hand, budget was regarded more important in relation to decision making about event selection strategy. The difference may be due to the fact that the respondents believed that the budget has an indirect influence on event performance, whereas factors requiring the active participation of staff, were considered more directly influential.

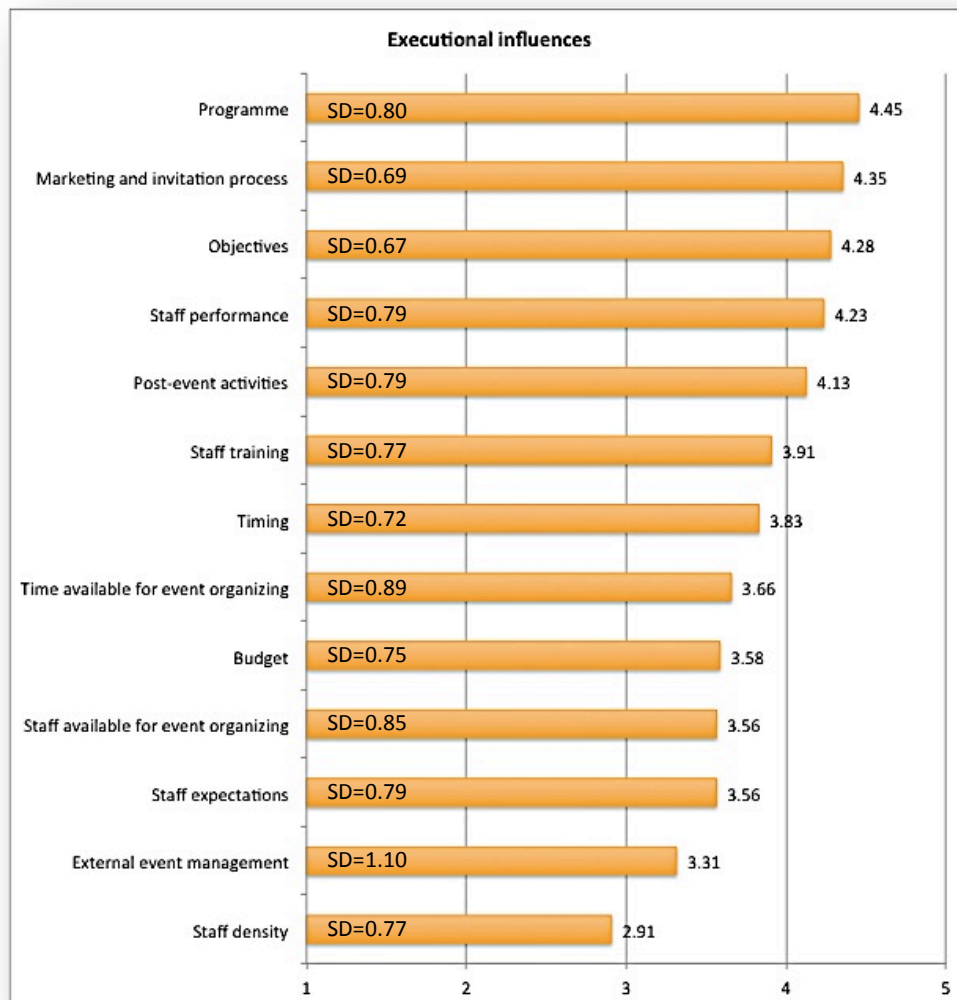


Figure 18 Executorial influences on corporate event performance (average score, 1=No influence, 5=Very high influence, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

In comparison to the other given options, hiring an external event management company had the second lowest score of 3.31. The distribution of answers in Figure 19 reveals that according to 33 % of the respondents, an external event management company did have at least some influence on event performance. Less than 25 % of the respondents thought that an event management company has very low or no influence.

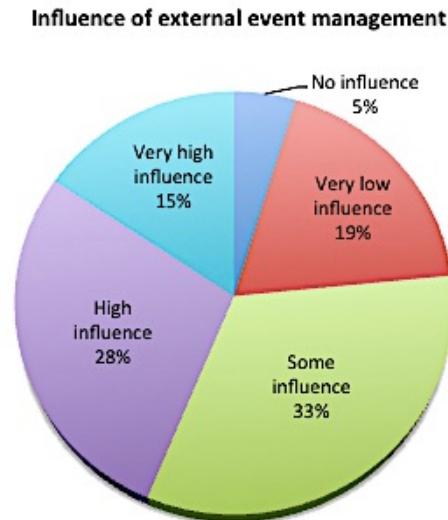


Figure 19 Influence of external event management on event performance (n=65).

It should be noted however that not all companies hire an external event management company to organize their events. Since the respondents were not directly asked whether they use an external service provider, the real effect of the factor is not easy to interpret.

In order to differentiate the influence level of the factors, the respondents were asked to choose three most important of the given options and to set them in order according to their importance. The results were similar to the previous question but the ranking order came out slightly different. The most important factor perceived to influence corporate event performance was event objectives. The second most important factor was event programme, and the third most important was marketing and invitation process. In this case, the respondents may have thought that event programme does have the most influence on performance, yet the most important factor should be the preset event objectives. Either way, the differences between the scores were very small, which implies that no one factor rised above the others as the most important or most influential.

In addition to the given options, the respondents reported other executional factors that they perceived to have a strong influence on event performance. Project plan and project management were considered as important factors, since corporate events are types of projects that require efficient project tools. Furthermore, the importance of objectives was extended to include other objectives besides the ones related to a single

event. General business objectives and the event organizer's objectives were considered important. Here the event organizer refers to the organization acting as the main organizer of the event, whereas other organizations are perceived as attendees or partners. Partners may refer to both long term business relationships or a single partnership built around a specific event.

Another important factor mentioned by the respondents was how the customer relationship has been handled in the past and how well the customer interests are recognized. A question of whether the event should meet marketing objectives versus sales objectives was also raised. This implies that some of the respondents perceived sales and marketing objectives to be separate from one another. In relation to a single event, some factors related to practical arrangements were mentioned, such as the speakers, location and venue, the latter referring to esthetical factors of the event.

4.3 Objective setting

According to previous research, measuring the performance of corporate events is based on comparing the preset objectives to the results obtained (Cavanaugh 1976; Smith & Taylor 2004; Crowther 2010). Objectives therefore play an important role in performance measurement and evaluation. As anticipated, most of the respondents reported to always set objectives for their events (see Figure 20). In addition, nearly 80 % of the respondents implied that setting clear objectives for their events is very important.

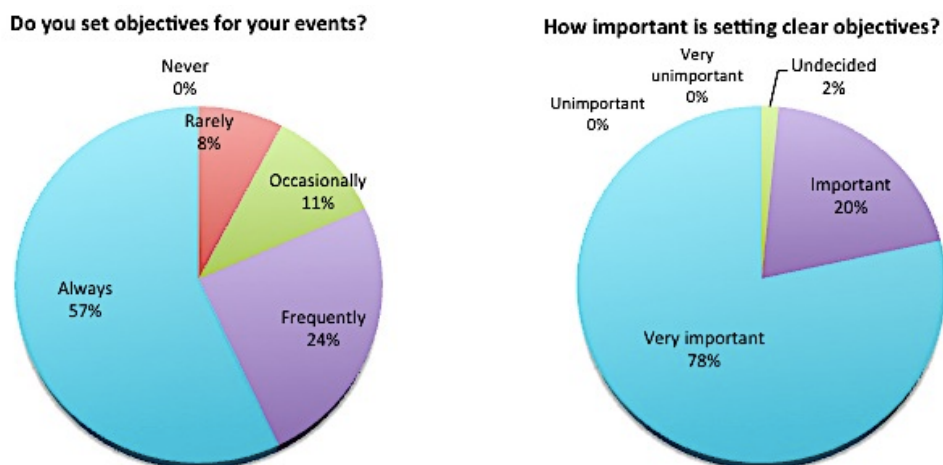


Figure 20 Objective setting frequency and importance (n=65).

Event objectives are usually divided into qualitative and quantitative objectives (Shipley et al. 1993). When inquired about setting different qualitative objectives, all given options scored high among the respondents. As indicated in Figure 21, on avera-

ge, the most frequently set objectives were related to building and/or maintaining customer relationships. The second and third highest scores were given to reaching the target group and visitor satisfaction. In comparison with the other items, the lowest score was given to generating product awareness and interest, although on average the item scored relatively high.

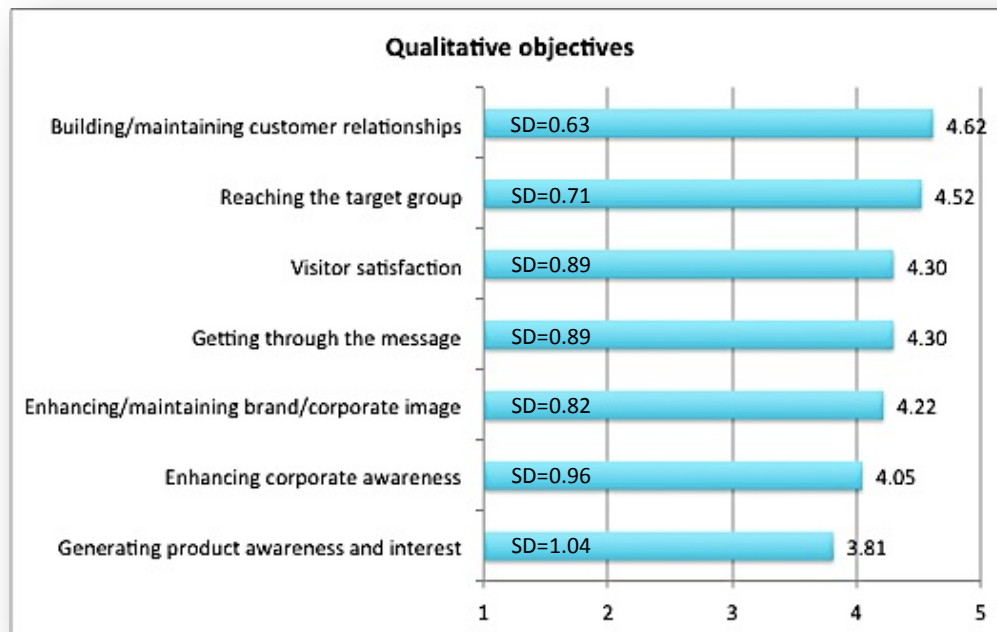


Figure 21 Qualitative objective setting in corporate events (average score, 1=Never, 5=Always, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

It seems that the main objectives of the organizations are more related to the needs of customers than underlining products and/or corporate image, which are more connected to the company itself. The respondents also specified additional event objective items, which were related to visitor feedback, satisfaction and experience, further implying a strong customer focus in their objective setting.

An overall view of quantitative objectives in the respondent organizations reveals that on average, the organizations set quantitative objectives less frequently. Figure 22 presents that the highest average score is related to the quality of visitors. The companies' goal is therefore to attract visitors that represent their target group. The second and third highest average score was appointed to the number of sales leads and visitors, and the lowest score was related to sales increase objectives. In addition, the respondents reported setting other quantitative objectives, such as media coverage and the average score of visitor feedback. Of these, media coverage is assumed to be related only to

major, publicly significant events, implying that it may not be possible to apply the factor to customer gatherings and meetings of smaller scale.

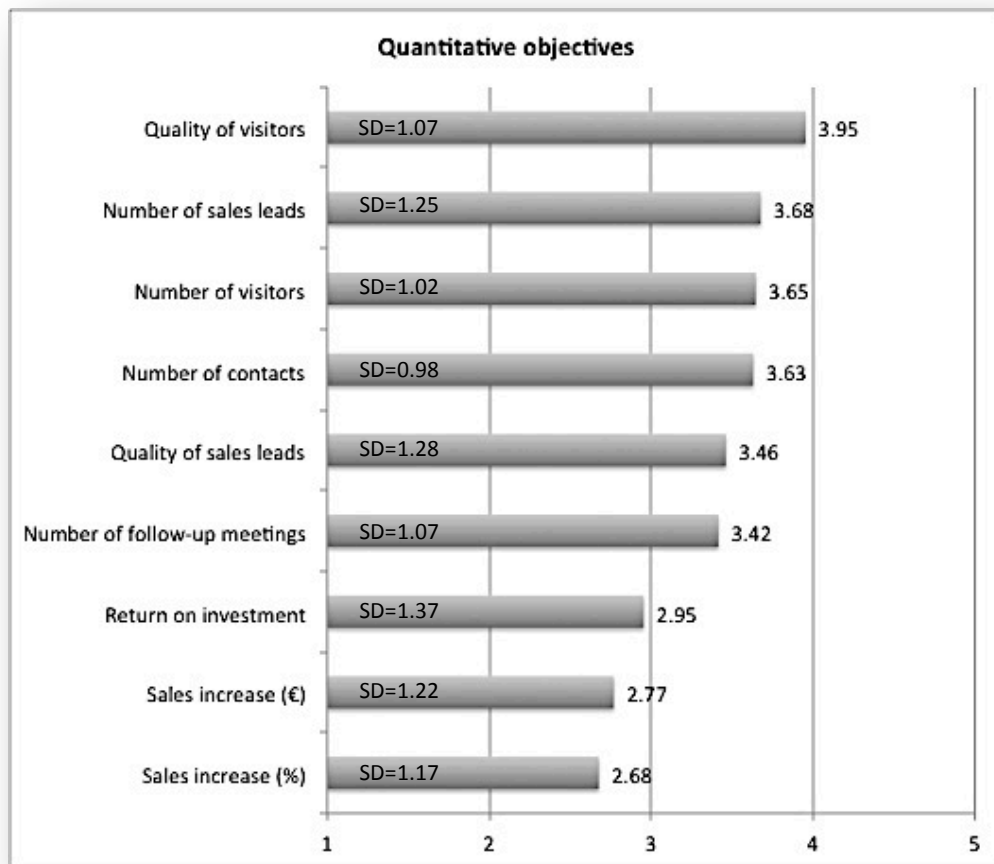


Figure 22 Quantitative objective setting in corporate events (average score, 1=Never, 5=Always, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

As is the case with qualitative event objectives, also quantitative objectives seem to be directly related to event visitors rather than to monetary results, such as the return on investment. On the other hand, the factors seem to be interrelated to a certain extent. Should an event meet the objectives in terms of the number of target group representatives, the likelihood of increase in sales and return on investment is evidently enhanced.

4.4 Measuring the performance of corporate events

According to existing literature, corporate event performance may be divided into four dimensions: relationship improvement, image-building, sales-related performance and information gathering (Lee & Kim 2008). As Figure 23 indicates, among the given di-

mensions, the respondents seemed to pay most attention to relationship improvement when evaluating their event performance. In comparison, the lowest score on average was appointed to information gathering.

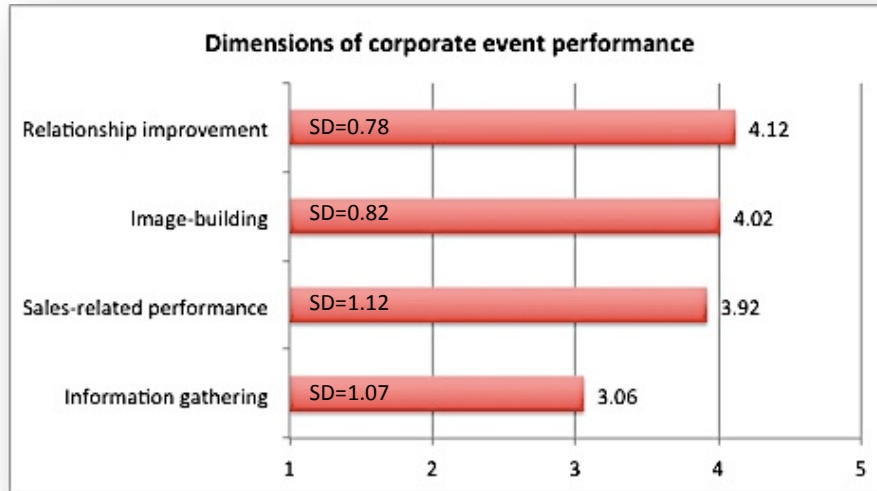


Figure 23 Evaluating the dimensions of corporate events (average score, 1=Never, 5=Always, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

In addition, the respondents reported having other dimensions for evaluation: standing out from competition, visibility, experience, visitor feedback and satisfaction, reaching the target group and sales leads. The responses seemed to be relatively specific, even though the different dimensions should theoretically have a wider coverage, consisting of individual factors. It may therefore be questioned whether the items should have been defined in more detail and the meaning of concepts clarified. On the other hand, it may be that the respondents did not perceive that the given dimensions covered the entire concept of performance, thus resulting in suggestions of additional dimensions.

The respondents were asked if they measure the performance of their marketing events and how frequently. In addition, a question of the perceived importance of event performance measurement was raised. The results are presented in Figure 24, which illustrates that the majority of the companies measure event performance frequently or always, and almost all of the respondents considered performance measurement to be important or very important.

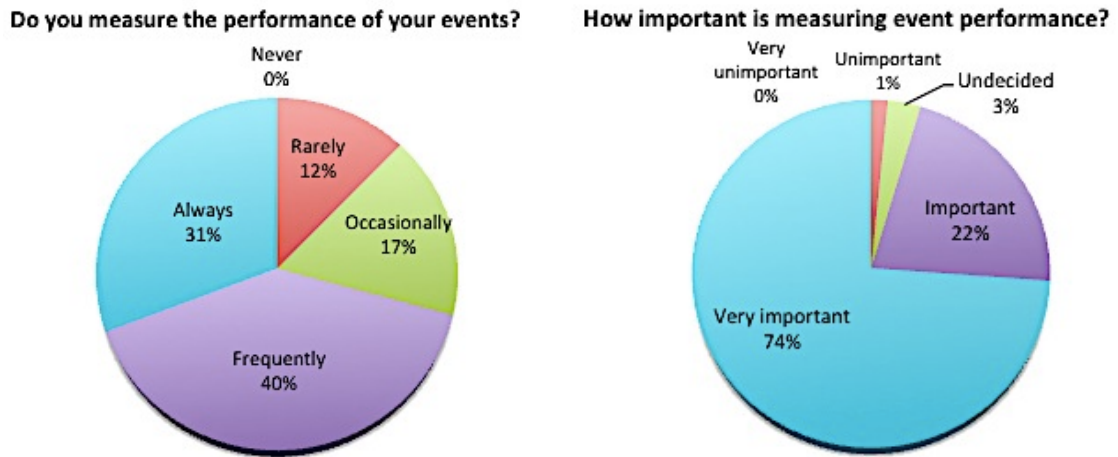


Figure 24 Event performance measurement frequency and importance (n=65).

Although measuring event performance was expectedly considered as highly important among the respondents, not nearly all companies seemed to commit to measurement procedures in all of their marketing events. This finding supports the theoretical background in a sense that, despite the high importance of measurement, there may be a lack of appropriate tools or sufficient amount of knowledge in order to turn measurement into a routine procedure for all events organized by the company (Herbig et al. 1994; Hansen 2004).

4.4.1 Qualitative measures

As the theoretical frame suggests, the performance of corporate events may be measured using qualitative and quantitative measures (Cavanaugh 1976; Tafesse et al. 2010, 314). Qualitative measurement is further divided into *audience feedback* and *internal analysis* (Gopalakrishna & Williams 1992; Shone & Parry 2004, 220). According to the respondents, and as presented in Figure 25, the organizations are active in collecting feedback related to different areas of their marketing events. Most often the companies collect feedback related to the content of their events. Of the given alternatives based on theory, the lowest average score was given to the frequency of collecting oral feedback. Nevertheless, the relatively small differences in average scores suggest that the item is an important measure of performance for the respondent companies.

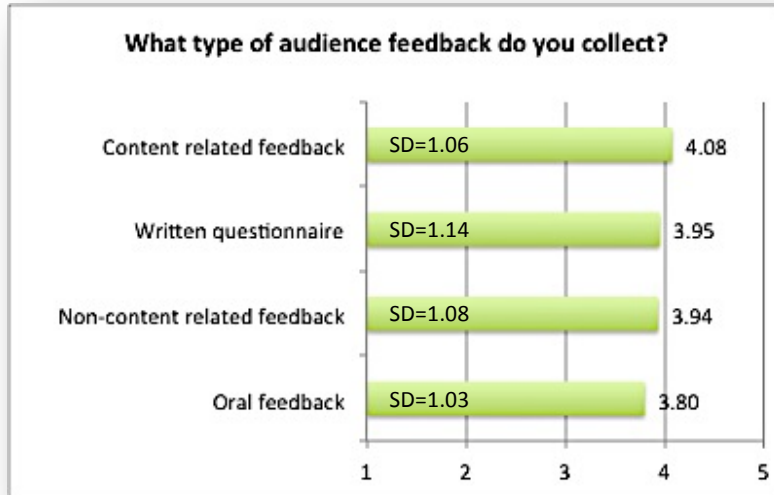


Figure 25 Types of audience feedback collected (average score, 1=Never, 5=Always, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

When the respondents were asked which factors are addressed in their internal analysis, the highest average score was given to tactical/executional effectiveness, audience reach/appeal and quality of the message. The corresponding average scores are presented in Figure 26. In comparison, the lowest average score was appointed to positioning and image.

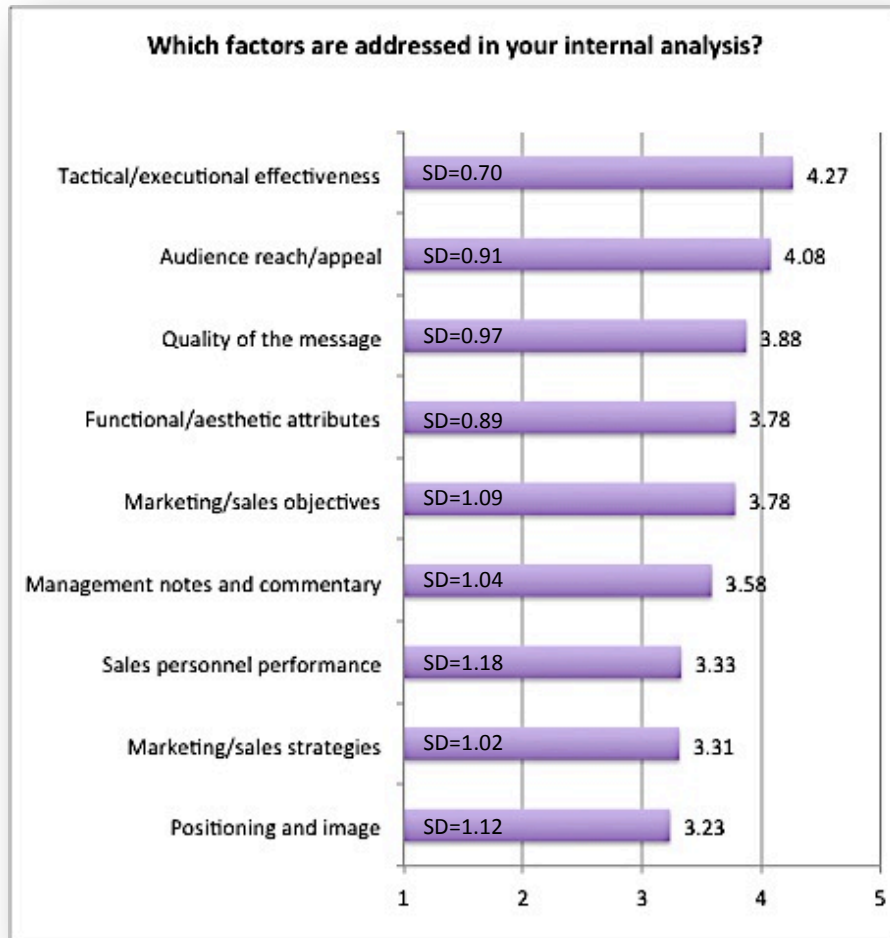


Figure 26 Factors addressed in internal analysis (average score, 1=Never, 5=Always, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

Naturally, the post-event internal analysis is directly linked to the event itself, which seems to be the reason why executional factors and audience appeal are the focus of discussion. It seems that factors related to the company on a more general level, such as positioning and image, are evaluated less in relation to single marketing events.

4.4.2 *Quantitative measures*

The most accurate results in measuring corporate event performance are obtained by using quantitative measures. They can be divided into different categories related to *audience* (e.g. Lin 2010, 3922), *awareness* (e.g. Smith & Taylor, 2004, 518; Bugarski 2009), *efficiency* (Gopalakrishna & Lilien 1995), *sales* (e.g. Cavanaugh 1976; Stevens 2005) and *costs* (e.g. Herbig et al. 1994). In addition, the *return on event investment*

may be measured separately (Phillips et al. 2008). As presented in Figure 27, of the audience audit measures, the highest average score was given to the quantity and quality of visitors and the quantity of invitees. In comparison, the quantity of refusals obtained the lowest average score.

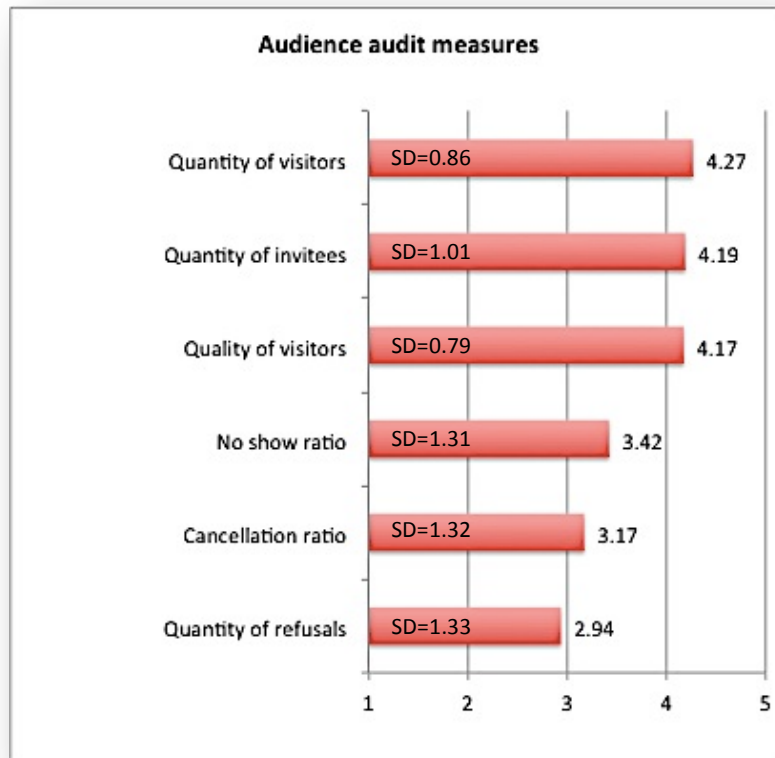


Figure 27 Audience audit measures (average score, 1=Never, 5=Always, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

It seems that in their measurement activities, the respondent companies focus on visitors that have attended the event at least through registration process. The relatively lower average score of refusal measures may be due to the fact that it was not perceived equally important to focus on people that were not present at the event. On the other hand, it could be useful to pay more attention to analyzing the numbers related to all non-attendees, especially the reasons why the event invitation was refused. Further analysis could prove to be valuable in planning future marketing events. (Stevens 2005.)

As Figure 28 implies, awareness related measures are used less often than other measurement tools. Of the given alternatives, the highest average score was given to web analytics, which is related to monitoring the visitor quantities and behavior on the event and/or company website. The lowest score was given to pre- and post-event survey, implying that it is the least frequently used method of measurement.

Awareness related measures are used less often in the respondent companies, which may be due to the fact that awareness was not considered as important a factor in relation to corporate events than other factors that were perceived as more concrete. Perhaps awareness is measured on a more general level in the companies instead of in connection to marketing events. On the other hand, it may be that using appropriate measures requires additional resources, in which the companies are unable to currently invest. In addition, measures related to media articles require that the event is publicly noted, which is not the objective of all corporate events. Since there are multiple possible reasons for the relatively low average scores for awareness related measures, further research on different event types and awareness related objectives is recommendable.

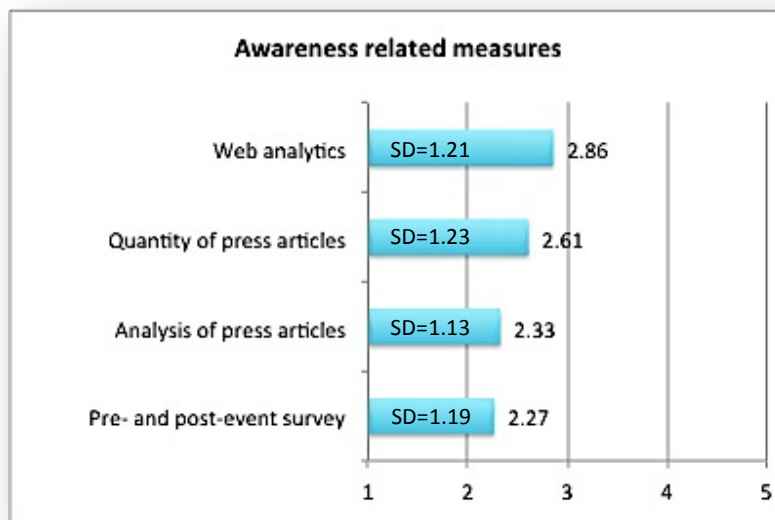


Figure 28 Awareness related measures (average score, 1=Never, 5=Always, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

Nevertheless, it should be noted that when inquired about the preset objectives, the respondents reported setting awareness related objectives very often. This implies that raising awareness is, in fact, one of the main reasons for organizing events (e.g. Gupta 2003), yet measuring it may be more challenging due to the lack of practical tools or resources (e.g. Hansen 2004).

Efficiency related measures are focused on the company's ability to produce concrete results in its marketing events (Gopalakrishna & Lilien 1995). As indicated in Figure 29, these numbers are monitored in the respondent companies relatively more frequently than the awareness related measures. The difference may be due to the fact that calculating efficiency is less complicated than calculating awareness. Of the given alternatives, the highest average score was given to conversion efficiency, which reflects the

salespeople's ability to turn a contact into a sales lead. The lowest average score was given to attraction efficiency, which indicates how effectively the company's booth is able to attract the target audience at the event. The deviation implies that the companies are rather sales oriented in their performance measurement activities. The companies therefore tend to emphasize the efficiency in generating actual sales leads, rather than the efficiency in merely attracting visitors to the company's booth. All efficiency related measures provide a highly concrete illustration of the company's performance at the event, which is why monitoring and comparing all of the abovementioned measures is useful depending on the companies' needs.

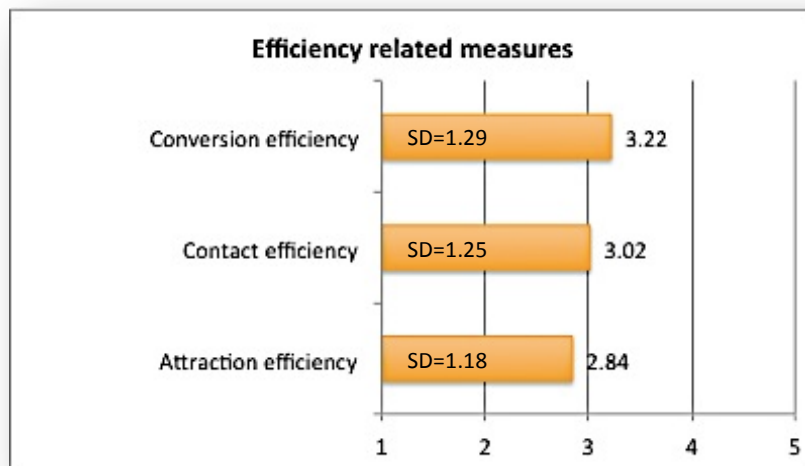


Figure 29 Efficiency related measures (average score, 1=Never, 5=Always, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

Regarding sales related measures presented in Figure 30, the highest average score was appointed to the quantity of sales leads. The companies seem to pay relatively less attention to dividing sales leads into categories based on their importance. The least frequently used measures in connection to corporate events were related to sales increase by percentage and by monetary value. Calculating the number of sales leads seems to be a popular method, yet the responses do not indicate how the process continues after the leads have been collected. It would therefore be useful to study how sales activities continue in the company after the event, so that the effect of the event on sales figures could be more accurately monitored.

Based on the responses, sales increase is less often evaluated in connection to corporate events. This is presumably due to the fact that it is problematic to distinguish the influence of a single event on sales figures. In B2B markets, sales processes are long term, and they often involve several meetings, marketing events and other forms of con-

tacting. In addition, purchase decisions are affected by several other factors, such as previous experiences, company visibility and image, availability of information and the needs of the purchasing company, which are not directly related to marketing events. It could be assumed that sales increase in connection to an event could be indicated by calculating purchase decisions made at the event. However, this is problematic because the sales process may have lasted a long time before the actual event, and a contract signed at the event cannot solely be accredited to organizing the event. It seems that sales related measures cannot be applied only in connection to marketing events, but the measurement process should be extended to include the entire sales cycle.

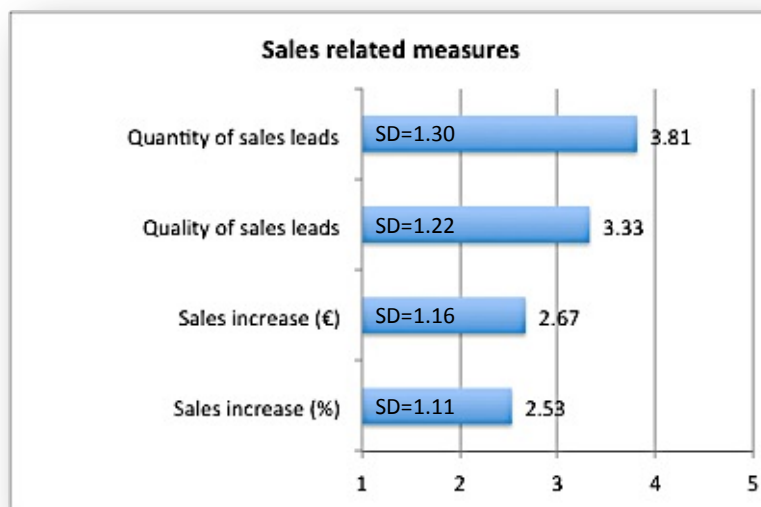


Figure 30 Sales related measures (average score, 1=Never, 5=Always, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

Calculating costs of a single event is considerably more straightforward than sales measurement. As implied in Figure 31, according to the respondents, almost all organizations measure the total inputs and costs of each event. In addition, other specific cost measures were suggested by previous research, including cost per contact (Cavanaugh 1976), cost per visitor and cost per sales lead (Herbig et al. 1994). These concepts refer to the unit costs of the event, and they are calculated by dividing total costs with each corresponding figure. Among the respondent companies, cost per contact was measured relatively most frequently, whereas the least often was measured the cost per sales lead. Regarding the general sales focus of the companies at their events, which was addressed earlier in this chapter, it is somewhat surprising that the cost per sales lead was measured less frequently than the cost per contact or visitor. On the other hand, the difference may be due to the fact that distinguishing actual sales leads from all

visitors is challenging, and therefore the companies rely on more simple methods, such as calculating the cost per visitor.

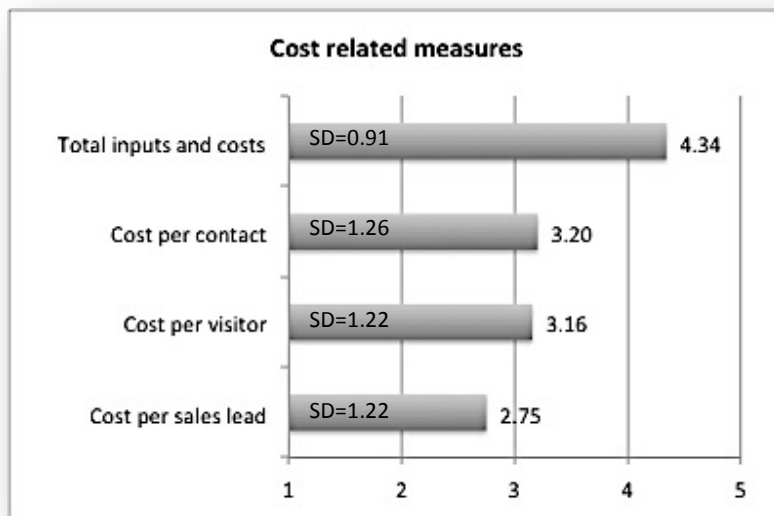


Figure 31 Cost related measures (average score, 1=Never, 5=Always, n=65, SD=standard deviation).

Finally, the respondents were inquired whether they measure the return on investment in connection to marketing events. On a scale from 1 to 5, the average score was 2.72, implying a relatively low measurement frequency among the companies. As illustrated in Figure 32, the deviation of the responses was relatively high: almost a third reported using the measure occasionally, whereas almost a quarter implied never using the measure. The high deviation is assumably influenced by differences in resources and needs, as well as challenges faced with using the measure consistently. Distinguishing the return on event investment from other returns requires the development of special procedures, which is problematic. The measurement process should include determining the monetary value of different event related factors in order to simplify the comparison (Phillips et al. 2008).

ROI (net event benefits/event costs)

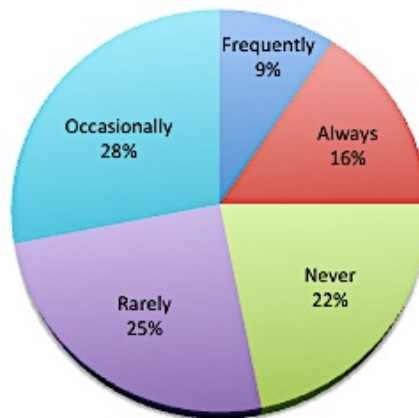


Figure 32 Frequency of using return on investment as a performance measure (n=65).

In relation to performance measurement, it is critical to study the trend in figures over time (Stevens 2005; Phillips et al. 2008). Therefore, the respondents were asked whether they compare the numbers between several events and changes in time. On a scale from 1 to 5, the average score was 3.08, which does not imply a radical distribution to either extreme. As presented in Figure 33, over a half of the respondents reported doing comparison at least occasionally. However, about a third implied doing comparison only rarely or never.

Do you compare figures of different events in time?

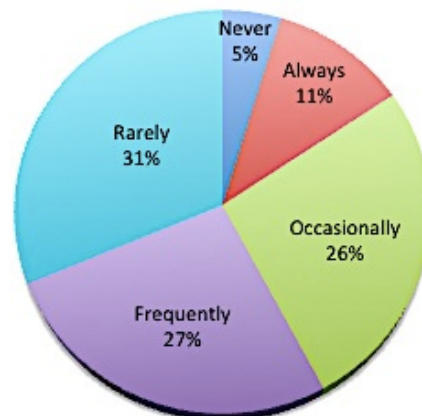


Figure 33 Frequency of comparing the results and figures between different events in time (n=65).

The underlying reason for doing comparison less frequently may be related to the lack of consistent measurement procedures (Hosford 2011) that could be used in connection to several events in time. This argument may have been further strengthened by

asking the respondents whether a comparison between the figures of events in time is perceived as important.

4.4.3 Open-ended questions

In order to generate a more profound and explanatory perspective on event performance measurement, the questionnaire provided an opportunity for the respondents to express their views in the form of open-ended questions. The questionnaire raised interest among the respondents, many of whom considered the topic as an important focus point for research and development. Several points of view and challenges related to event performance measurement were addressed, and they may be divided into different categories based on their approach.

First, the respondents pointed out issues related to the organization in which performance measures are used. It was suggested that in B2B markets, where customers are major corporations, using measures should be different than in B2C markets or smaller size companies. In addition, it was pointed out that it may not be possible to apply the same measures utilized in corporations to non-profit organizations. Evidently measures, such as sales leads and return on investment, represent a more result-oriented approach to evaluating performance. These types of measures may not be useful for non-profit organizations. According to some of the respondents, differences between business activities and products, as well as various sales and marketing strategies should also be taken into account when utilizing performance measures.

Second, the characteristics of corporate events themselves were perceived to cause challenges in performance measurement. Applying quantitative measures was considered difficult because customer events are to a wide extent about maintaining existing customer relationships. Evidently this raises the question whether the outcomes of corporate events can truly be measured in terms of relationship building. Furthermore, it was suggested that same measures are difficult to apply to both large mass events and smaller events, such as meetings. This approach implies that the measures should be adjusted according to the size of the event in question.

Third, some of the measures themselves were questioned by the respondents. It was commented that in B2B markets, due to long term sales cycles, it is very challenging to distinguish the effect of a single event contact and sale on the end result. It was also pointed out that every contact has its cost, and that a sale is not generated by a single contact. Another remark was that when it concerns an expensive process investment, following up on a single sales lead is not practical. These arguments are likely to be related to large corporations with several customers, which require more advanced and wide scale processes to monitoring event performance. In connection to the measure-

ment process, some of the respondents suggested that not everything is measurable nor can everything be converted into costs or money.

Fourth, it was pointed out that there is a lack of systematics in performance evaluation. Systematical approach should therefore be developed, as the criteria for benchmarking seem to be inadequate. Systematical way of operating as well as a common commitment to achieving preset objectives were perceived essential. This point of view addresses the way measures and processes are executed in the company, suggesting that event performance is to a large extent dependent on the commitment and performance of the company employees.

Fifth, it was remarked that the biggest downfall in event marketing is that event management companies build their measurement tools for the marketing organizations, which are their clients, and not according to the actual benefits, usually additional sales. This point of view suggests that there is a discrepancy between the interests of the marketing organization and the external service provider.

Finally, some respondents pointed out that many evaluation and monitoring processes are only becoming established or are completely lacking, resulting in mere assumptions and evaluation when analysing the results. This may have severe consequences especially during an economical downturn, when marketing budgets are often cut due to insufficient information. There seems to be a clear need for developing measurement processes, especially in an uncertain economical climate. According to a recent survey, the deployment of marketing automation in support of events is insufficient, although marketers view various forms of marketing automation as having great potential for realizing event return on investment (Hosford 2011).

The findings presented above are evidently in line with a number of recent surveys, suggesting a general dissatisfaction with and lack of consistency, standard systems, processes, and measures for evaluating financial returns on marketing activities across divisions. Measurement is perceived difficult and time-consuming, demanding resources, thought and tracking. Return on marketing investment also seems to have various definitions, even inside the same organization, further diminishing an efficient approach to measurement. There have also been indications of a very strong desire for third-party solutions, providing guidelines, processes and practical models, and solving problems of measurement and data analysis for marketers. (Stewart 2009, 637.)

4.5 Conclusions

There are many ways to categorize corporate events, and multiple typologies exist in the literature (e.g. Shani & Sandler 1996; Getz 2007; Crowther 2010). The evidence suggests that in connection to event categorization, the usage of wording should be studied

further, as different expressions may be used for different types of events depending on the company culture, industry and geographical coverage.

The sample used in this study was relatively diverse in terms of industry and business activities. It would therefore be useful to study one or more industries in more detail in order to discover any correspondance between the characteristics of the company and the way event performance is measured. In addition, further analysis on event investments in relation to different industries or company size might reveal the underlying reasons for making relatively small or large investments.

The first research question, "which factors influence the performance of corporate events?", may be answered based on the findings. As suggested by the theoretical frame, corporate event performance is directly influenced by executional factors and event selection strategy. Event selection strategy has a direct influence on event performance, and it is affected by both environmental and company related factors (Shoham 1999). According to the empirical findings, environmental and company related factors had some overlapping, suggesting further investigation in order to determine, over which factors a given company has more control. Furthermore, several additional influencing factors were reported, implying that the content of the theoretical framework needs to be updated.

Executional elements with the strongest influence on corporate event performance were the programme, marketing and invitation process as well as objectives of the event. The importance of objective setting presented in the theoretical framework (Cavanaugh 1976; Smith & Taylor 2004; Crowther 2010) was thus further enhanced. In addition, factors that require direct activation and engagement of the staff seem to play an important role in event performance.

Regarding objective setting, the companies were highly active. Objectives in general were set in connection to almost every event, and they seemed to play a critical role in event marketing. Both qualitative and quantitative objectives (Shipley et al. 1993) were most often related to event visitors and guests, rather than direct monetary results. Qualitative objectives were set relatively more often than quantitative objectives, perhaps because they allow more freedom in describing the desired outcomes, or because a more systematic approach still needs to be further developed (Stewart 2009).

The second research question was: "What are the dimensions of corporate event performance?" According to the literature review, the dimensions include image-building, sales-related, information gathering and relationship improvement (Lee & Kim 2008). Of the given dimensions of corporate event performance, the most frequently addressed by the respondents was relationship improvement, although image-building and sales-related performance were also perceived important. However, there seems to remain a lack of consensus about which items truly capture all the dimensions related to performance. Several additional dimensions were suggested by the respondents, which may be

due to the meanings and language constructs attached to the concepts that were provided. Also further research on how different measurement tools are related to different dimensions of corporate event performance is recommendable.

Finally, the third research question was: "How can the performance of corporate events be measured?" According to existing literature, corporate event performance is always evaluated against preset objectives, implying that performance is measured by checking whether the objectives were met or preferably exceeded (Cavanaugh 1976; Smith & Taylor 2004; Crowther 2010). In addition, the measures may be divided into qualitative and quantitative measures (e.g. Tafesse et al. 2010, 314). Qualitative measures refer to tools for both internal and external, subjective performance evaluation (Gopalakrishna & Williams 1992; Shone & Parry 2004, 220), whereas quantitative measures are used in order to produce numerical data that can be converted into monetary value (Phillips et al. 2008).

In empirical investigation, the companies seemed to place great importance in measurement procedures, yet the frequency of using the measures was not in line with the importance statement. Regarding qualitative measures, the companies were active in gathering audience feedback and focusing more on executional elements rather than general company performance indicators in their internal analysis.

Of quantitative measures, the most frequently used measures seemed to be related to the visitors who were present at the event. Less emphasis was placed on non-attendees. Total event costs were also calculated very often among the companies, yet unit costs were given less attention. The number and quality of sales leads remained as a popular performance measure, whereas awareness related measures were used less in connection to events. The companies seemed to measure more frequently the items which are directly related to each of their events, such as efficiency in collecting sales leads, rather than items related to the company on a more general level. The categories of quantitative measures should be studied further, as there seems to be numerous ways to capture performance. In addition, the practical use of measurement data should be addressed, such as the procedure of calculating the monetary value of performance indicators.

The open-ended responses revealed that in measuring performance, differences between organizations should be taken into account, including the size and business activities, in which the organization engages. Also the characteristics of corporate events themselves should be accounted for, as not all measures can be used in all types of events. In addition, not all measures were fully supported by the companies, as it was argued that not everything can be translated into monetary value. Event marketing measurement seems to be lacking systematics and appropriate tools, resulting in mere evaluations of event performance. Measurement procedures should therefore be developed, especially for the needs of budget issues caused by an uncertain economical climate.

Measuring corporate event performance is a long-term process, starting from setting event objectives and extending to post-event evaluation. Because of the long sales cycles especially in B2B markets, the measurement procedures should also be extended to include the entire sales process in order to determine and monitor event performance more accurately. More interdependence between planning, allocation and measurement has also been suggested. By setting rolling, long-term forecasts up to several years, that are then continually refined quarter-to-quarter, companies may effectively follow their long-term strategy of growth or value while optimizing their short-term performance and managing their risk. Fact-based analysis should thus replace mere wishful thinking as the driver of marketing investment. (Munoz 2005, 83.)

In addition, managing the process of planning, allocating, and measuring marketing investments should be more dynamic. This requires new or expanded competencies outside the traditional area of marketing communications and more collaboration with peer functions, including operations, finance and strategic planning. By cross-functional cooperation, the company's ability to optimize its marketing investments may be enhanced significantly. (Munoz 2005, 83.)

The empirical findings seem to be to a great extent in line with the existing literature, suggesting that there remains a lack of understanding corporate event performance evaluation, and challenges arise in determining appropriate measurement procedures for it. Setting clear objectives for events is a significant aspect of the evaluation process, since the outcomes of events are usually evaluated against the preset objectives (e.g. Stevens 2005). The respondent companies utilize many of the individual techniques that were recognized in theory, such as calculating the number of sales leads and delegates (e.g. Cavanaugh 1976; Lin 2010, 3922). However, some of the measurement tools may require further investments and resources, thus restricting their application especially in smaller companies. In addition, there seems to be a lack of knowledge of the most appropriate methods in different contexts, which take into account the characteristics of the organizing party as well as the size and nature of the event. The lack of in-house expertise enhances the need for third-party service-providers in solving problems of corporate event measurement (Stewart 2009, 637).

Further research on the evaluation techniques used and reasons for using them would draw a more accurate picture of the situation of companies operating in the Finnish market. Events seem to hold a strong position in encouraging personal contact, and they remain as an important marketing and sales medium also in the future (e.g. MPI Business Barometer 2009, 2). It is therefore essential to investigate further the impacts of these types of marketing efforts.

4.6 Limitations of research

This research has its limitations related to attempts to generalize the results of the questionnaire to the entire population, yet allowing the generalization to similar conditions and organizations. All assumptions derived from the responses are based on theoretical approach and therefore may not be completely applicable to the real world. In addition, the sample for this study was gathered by using convenience sampling, which may entail the risk of bias and lack of further generalizability.

The scope of the research entailed companies operating in the Finnish market, yet many of them multinational businesses. Therefore the possibility to investigate further the event marketing sector in Europe was excluded. Furthermore, the effect of multinational context to event marketing initiatives in a single market was uncovered.

Another limitation worth addressing is the fact the the questionnaire was executed in collaboration with an event marketing company. The respondents represented either the customers or prospects of the company, which may have influenced both the response rate and the answers. The relatively low response rate may have been due to assumptions that the covering email sent together with the questionnaire entailed marketing messages, or that the information gathered through the survey would result in further marketing initiatives from the event marketing company. In addition, several companies invest in systems for preventing any external emails from getting through the filters, which may have affected the final number of responses.

In relation to questionnaire structure and wording, it should be noted that language played a major role in analyzing the results and developing conclusions. Due to the characteristics and mother tongue of the respondents, the survey was conducted in Finnish. On the contrary, all the material in the literature review, formulation of theoretical framework as well as the research reporting were in English. Therefore, multiple translations were required first to construct the questionnaire and then to process all responses to the open-ended questions. Since the perceptions of the respondents are highly related to language constructions, the translation of questions and answers may have had some influence on the results and conclusions, and some nuances may have been lost in translation. This type of limitation may have been prevented by using a larger sample size.

5 SUMMARY

Corporate events as an effective part of marketing communications strategy seem to be underestimated in Finnish companies. In the rest of the Europe and the USA, investments in events are increasing, and their share of the marketing budget is significant. The substantial growth of the industry may be explained by the numerous advantages and opportunities that events provide for attendees, such as face-to-face marketing, enhancing corporate image, building relationships, increasing sales, and gathering information. In order to maximize the benefits for attending an event, specific measurement strategies are required. However, due to increasing competition and economic uncertainty, companies have only recently become more aware of the measuring procedures necessary for generating return on event investment, and there seems to remain a lack of understanding of how event performance should be perceived or evaluated.

This research has attempted to describe the perceptions of and strategies for evaluating corporate event performance in the Finnish events industry. First, corporate events were discussed in terms of definitions and characteristics, typologies, and their role in marketing communications. Second, different theories on evaluating corporate event performance were presented and analyzed in order to prepare the empirical part of the research. The empirical data was collected in the form of a structured online questionnaire sent to companies operating in the Finnish market. The questionnaire consisted of different sections structured according to the theoretical framework, including determinants of corporate event performance, objective setting, as well as qualitative and quantitative measures. The collected data was analyzed by measuring the frequencies, means and standard deviations for each section of the questionnaire. In addition, to obtain a more accurate qualitative approach on the subject, the respondents were given the opportunity to express their points of view in the form of open-ended questions.

The total number of respondents was 65, all of whom were directly involved in the organization of their company's marketing events, in the role of decision-making and/or execution. The majority of the companies operate within manufacturing, information and communication and other service activities. It should be noted that with a sample size relatively small, generalization of the results to the entire population cannot be fully obtained. Nevertheless, the findings of the study provide an overview of the activities and challenges in corporate event measurement among the respondent companies, and they may be considered as guidelines for further research, as well as generalized to similar situations, organizations and types of events.

The empirical findings are to a great extent in line with the existing literature, suggesting that there remains a lack of understanding corporate event performance evaluation, and challenges arise in determining appropriate measurement procedures for it. Setting clear objectives for events is a significant aspect of the evaluation process, since

the outcomes of events are usually evaluated against the preset objectives. The respondent companies utilize many of the individual techniques that were recognized in theory, such as calculating the number of sales leads and delegates. However, some of the measurement tools may require further investments and resources, thus restricting their application especially in smaller companies. In addition, there seems to be a lack of knowledge of the most appropriate methods in different contexts, which take into account the characteristics of the organizing party as well as the size and nature of the event. The lack of in-house expertise enhances the need for third-party service-providers in solving problems of corporate event measurement.

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APPENDIX

Survey Questionnaire

100% valmiina

Asiakastapahtumien onnistuneisuuden mittaaminen

Hyvä markkinoinnin ammattilainen,

Kiitos mielenkiinnostasi tutkimusta kohtaan. Tutkimuksen tarkoituksena on selvittää, millaisia keinoja Suomen markkinoilla toimivissa yrityksissä käytetään asiakastapahtumien onnistuneisuuden arviointiin ja mittaamiseen. Kysely on jaettu eri osa-alueisiin, joissa käsitellään asiakastapahtumien onnistumiseen vaikuttavia tekijöitä, tavoitteiden asettamista sekä onnistuneisuuden mittareita.

Vastaamalla kyselyyn saatte konkreettisia esimerkkejä erilaisista tapahtumamarkkinoinnissa käytettävistä mittareista ja halutessanne myös yhteenvedon tutkimustuloksista. Lisäksi arvomme kaikkien vastaajien kesken 2 kpl ravintolalahjakortteja. Kyselyyn vastaaminen kestää noin 10 minuuttia.

Kaikki vastaukset käsitellään ehdottoman luottamuksellisesti, ja tulokset julkaistaan tilastollisten tunnuslukujen ja jakaumien muodossa, jolloin yksittäistä vastaajaa ei voi tunnistaa tutkimusraportista. Pyydämme vastaamaan kyselyyn mahdollisimman pian, kuitenkin 23.2.2012 mennessä.

1. Yhteystiedot: *

Yritys / Organisaatio *	<input type="text"/>
Etunimi *	<input type="text"/>
Sukunimi *	<input type="text"/>
Titteli *	<input type="text"/>
Matkapuhelin *	<input type="text"/>
Sähköposti *	<input type="text"/>

2. Missä roolissa vastaat tapahtumista yrityksessänne? *

3. Yrityksenne toimiala: *

4. Yrityksenne liikevaihto vuonna 2011: *

5. Yrityksenne henkilöstön koko vuonna 2011: *

6. Mitä asiakastapahtumia yrityksenne järjestää? *

Tähän kuuluvat kaikki sellaiset asiakkaille tai potentiaalisille asiakkaille järjestettävät tapahtumat, joissa yrityksenne on virallisena järjestäjänä ja joissa on paikalla yrityksenne henkilökuntaa, sekä tapahtumat, joihin yrityksenne osallistuu maksamalla brändinsä näkyvyydestä ja/tai fyysisestä ständialueesta, esimerkiksi messut.

	Ei ollenkaan	Hyvin harvoin	Melko harvoin	Melko usein	Hyvin usein/säännöllisesti
Seminaarit *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kongressit *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Konferenssit *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Roadshowt *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Messut *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kokoukset *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Koulutustilaisuudet *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Viihteelliset tilaisuudet *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muu tapahtumatyyppi 1: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muu tapahtumatyyppi 2: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

7. Asiakastapahtumienne lukumäärä vuonna 2011:

8. Arvioi, mikä oli asiakastapahtumien suhteellinen osuus yrityksenne kokonaismarkkinointibudjetista vuonna 2011.

9. Vuonna 2012 rahallinen panostuksenne asiakastapahtumiin verrattuna vuoteen 2011... *

10. Arvioi yrityksenne toiminnan painotusta seuraavilla osa-alueilla: *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Yksi/muutama asiakas *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Paljon asiakkaita
Myyntimme keskittyy yhteen/muutamaan asiakkaaseen *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Myyntimme jakautuu tasaisesti koko asiakaskuntaan
Tuotamme standardituotteita/-palveluja *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Tuotamme monimutkaisia, räätälöityjä tuotteita/palveluja
Ei lainkaan kokemusta tapahtumien järjestämisestä *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Laaja kokemus tapahtumien järjestämisestä

11. Miten seuraavat tekijät vaikuttavat mielestäsi päätöksiin yrityksenne asiakastapahtumien lukumäärästä ja eri tapahtumatyyppien painotuksesta? *

	Ei lainkaan vaikutusta	Hyvin vähän vaikutusta	Jonkin verran vaikutusta	Melko suuri vaikutus	Erittäin suuri/ratkaiseva vaikutus
Ympäristötekijät:					
Yleinen taloustilanne *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Toimialalla tapahtuvat merkittävät muutokset *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Teknologian kehitys *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Yrityksemme kilpailijoiden lukumäärä *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kävijöiden lukumäärä edellisissä tapahtumissamme *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kävijöiden laatu edellisissä tapahtumissamme (tavoitellun kohderyhmän edustajien osuus kävijöistä) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Yritykseen liittyvät tekijät:					
Yrityksemme vuotuinen myynti *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Asiakkaidemme lukumäärä *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Asiakaskuntamme keskittyneisyys (myynnin jakautuminen asiakaskunnassa) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tuotteidemme/palvelujemme monimutkaisuus *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vuotuinen tapahtumabudjettimme *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kokemuksemme tapahtumien järjestämisestä *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muut tekijät, kerro vapaasti:					
Muu tekijä 1: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muu tekijä 2: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

13. Asetatteko asiakastapahtumillenne tavoitteita? *

- Ei koskaan
 Harvoin/joskus
 Melko usein
 Useimmiten
 Aina

14. Kuinka tärkeänä pidätte selkeiden tavoitteiden asettamista asiakastapahtumillenne? *

- Täysin merkityksetöntä
 Melko merkityksetöntä
 Vaikea sanoa
 Melko tärkeää
 Erittäin tärkeää

15. Millaisia laadullisia tavoitteita asetatte asiakastapahtumillenne? *

(1=e-i koskaan, 2=harvoin/joskus, 3=melko usein, 4=useimmiten, 5=aina)

	1	2	3	4	5
Tuotetuntemuksen kasvattaminen *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Yrityksen tunnettuuden kasvattaminen *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Oikean kohderyhmän tavoittaminen *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Viestin perille meneminen *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Imagon/brändin/maineen kehittäminen/ylläpito *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Asiakassuhteiden luominen/ylläpito *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kävijöiden tyytyväisyys tapahtumaan *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muu laadullinen tavoite 1: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muu laadullinen tavoite 2: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

16. Millaisia määrällisiä tavoitteita asetatte asiakastapahtumillenne? *

(1=e-i koskaan, 2=harvoin/joskus, 3=melko usein, 4=useimmiten, 5=aina)

	1	2	3	4	5
Uusien kontaktien lukumäärä *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Myyntiliidien lukumäärä *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Myyntiliidien laatu (potentiaalisten ostajien osuus liideistä) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Jatkotapaamisten lukumäärä *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Myynnin kasvu (euromääräinen) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Myynnin kasvu (prosentuaalinen) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kävijöiden lukumäärä *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kävijöiden laatu (tavoitellun kohderyhmän edustajien osuus kävijöistä) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
ROI (investoinnin tuotto) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muu määrällinen tavoite 1: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muu määrällinen tavoite 2: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

17. Tapahtumien onnistumista voidaan tarkastella erikseen eri osa-alueilla. Mitä seuraavista osa-alueista arvioitte asiakastapahtumienne onnistumisen kannalta? *

(1=ei koskaan, 2=harvoin/joskus, 3=melko usein, 4=useimmiten, 5=aina)

	1	2	3	4	5
Onnistuminen yrityksen imagon kehittämisessä/ylläpitämisessä *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Onnistuminen myynnillisissä tavoitteissa *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Onnistuminen tiedon tuottamisessa/keräämisessä (esim. kilpailijoista, toimialasta) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Onnistuminen suhteiden luomisessa ja ylläpidossa *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muu osa-alue 1: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muu osa-alue 2: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

18. Mittaatteko asiakastapahtumienne onnistuneisuutta? *

Ei koskaan Harvoin/joskus Melko usein Useimmiten Aina

19. Kuinka tärkeänä pidätte asiakastapahtumienne onnistuneisuuden mittaamista? *

Täysin merkityksetöntä Melko merkityksetöntä Vaikea sanoa Melko tärkeää Erittäin tärkeää

20. Millaisia laadullisia mittareita käytätte asiakastapahtumienne onnistuneisuuden mittaamiseen? *

(1=ei koskaan, 2=harvoin/joskus, 3=melko usein, 4=useimmiten, 5=aina)

1 2 3 4 5

Kävijäpalaute:

Suullinen palaute *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kirjallinen palaute *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tapahtuman sisältöön liittyvä palaute *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tapahtuman käytännönjärjestelyihin/tunnelmaan liittyvä palaute *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Sisäinen arviointi:

Tapahtuman viesti *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Myyntihenkilöstön työskentely *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tapahtuman käytännölliset ja esteettiset ominaisuudet *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Johdon kommentit *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Positointi ja imago *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Yleisön tavoittaminen/tapahtuman vetovoima *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Markkinointi-/myyntitavoitteet *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Markkinointi-/myyntistrategia *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tapahtuman toteutus *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Muut laadulliset mittarit:

Laadullinen mittari 1: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Laadullinen mittari 2: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

21. Millaisia määrällisiä mittareita käytätte asiakastapahtumienne onnistuneisuuden mittaamiseen? *

(1=ei koskaan, 2=harvoin/joskus, 3=melko usein, 4=useimmiten, 5=aina)

	1	2	3	4	5
Kävijöihin liittyvät mittarit:					
Kävijöiden lkm *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kävijöiden laatu (kohderyhmän edustajien osuus kaikista kävijöistä) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tapahtumaan ilmoittautuneiden lkm *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kutsusta kieltäytyneiden lkm *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Peruneiden lkm *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
No-show (ilmoittautuneet, jotka eivät peruneet eivätkä saapuneet paikalle) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Tunnettuuteen liittyvät mittarit:

Kysely yrityksen/brändin tunnettuudesta ennen ja jälkeen tapahtuman *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Media-mainintojen lkm *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Media-mainintojen analysointi *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Web-analytiikka (kävijäseuranta) tapahtuman/yrityksen internetsivuilla *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tehokkuuteen liittyvät mittarit (%):					
Niiden kohderyhmän edustajien lkm, jotka vierailivat yrityksen ständillä / Kaikkien kohderyhmän edustajien lkm *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kontaktoitujen kohderyhmän edustajien lkm / Niiden kohderyhmän edustajien lkm, jotka vierailivat yrityksen ständillä *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Todellisten myyntiliidien lkm / Kontaktoitujen kohderyhmän edustajien lkm *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Myyntiin liittyvät mittarit:					
Myyntiliidien lkm *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Myyntiliidien laatu (liidien jakaminen eri kategorioihin) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Myynnin kasvu (euromääräinen) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Myynnin kasvu (prosentuaalinen) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kustannuksiin liittyvät mittarit:					
Tapahtuman kokonaiskustannukset *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kontaktihinta (kokonaiskustannukset / kontaktien lkm) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kävijähinta (kokonaiskustannukset / kävijöiden lkm) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Liidihinta (kokonaiskustannukset / liidien lkm) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Investoinnin tuotto:					
ROI (tapahtuman nettohyödyt / kokonaiskustannukset) *	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Muut määrälliset mittarit:					
Määrällinen mittari 1: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Määrällinen mittari 2: <input type="text"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

22. Vertaateko useiden tapahtumien vastaavia lukuja keskenään pidemmällä aikavälillä? *

Ei koskaan Harvoin/joskus Melko usein Useimmiten Aina

23. Tähän voit halutessasi vapaasti kirjoittaa näkemyksistäsi tapahtumamarkkinoinnin mittaamiseen ja/tai tutkimukseen liittyen:

24. Oletko kiinnostunut tutkimuksen tuloksista?

Kyllä kiitos, haluan yhteenvedon tutkimuksen tuloksista sähköpostiosoitteeseen:

LÄHETÄ VASTAUKSET -->

