

A Framework for Assessing Direct Economic Impacts of Tourist Events: Distinguishing Origins, Destinations, and Causes of Expenditures

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This article outlines a standardized method for assessing direct economic expenditures and impacts associated with tourist events. The method addresses critical and often overlooked methodological issues that distinguish analysis of impacts from tourism in general and analysis of impacts from tourist events. These issues involve a common failure to account for sources, origins, destinations, and causes of expenditures. The corresponding errors in impact estimation will carry through into subsequent input-output or multiplier models and are of particular significance when one considers impacts of tourism events in regions dominated by other tourist sites or attractions, such as heavily visited coastal communities. Implications of the framework for impact estimation are illustrated using examples drawn from recent Rhode Island tourist events, including the 1997 Newport Folk Festival.

Regional planners and policy makers often rely on the results of economic impact analysis to assess economic consequences of major tourist events (Wagner 1997; Murphy and Carmichael 1991; McHone and Rungeling 2000). Economic impacts are estimated from the expenditures made by spectators, players, and sponsors either directly or indirectly associated with the event (Murphy and Carmichael 1991). Revenues associated with the event are translated into economic impact measures by assigning them to one of several categories and aggregating in several different combinations. Input-output analysis may then be applied to assess secondary, indirect, or induced impacts of the initial tourist expenditures (Miller and Blair 1985).

While economic impact studies of tourism and tourist events are common, the validity of economic impact results depends on a variety of methodological issues (McHone and Rungeling 2000; Yuan and Yuan 1996; Briassoulis 1991; Steinback 1999; Wagner 1997). Many of these issues concern the details of the input-output methods applied to translate increases in net direct expenditures into final changes in direct and indirect impact (Briassoulis 1991). However, other methodological issues, less discussed in the literature, focus on the fundamental methods through which changes in net direct tourist expenditures are estimated. Without appropriate measures of the direct tourist expenditures related to tourist events, even the most detailed, theoretically appropriate input-output model will provide misleading results.

This article focuses on critical and often overlooked methodological issues that distinguish analysis of impacts

from *tourism in general* and analysis of impacts from *tourist events*. Recent work by McHone and Rungeling (2000) discusses some of these issues as they apply to cultural events in major tourist destinations. However, McHone and Rungeling (2000) fail to provide a standardized model through which these issues may be addressed from a broader perspective or applied to a wide range of tourist events. These issues are not relevant solely to cultural events in major tourist destinations; they are relevant to a wide range of tourist events and potential event locations. Specifically, this article outlines a standardized method for assessing economic impacts associated with tourist events. This method focuses on appropriate estimation of changes in *net direct expenditures* related to tourist events—translation of these net direct expenditure estimates to more complete measures of direct and indirect economic impact (e.g., using input-output models) is covered in great detail elsewhere (Archer and Fletcher 1990; Briassoulis 1991; Fletcher 1989). That is, this study focuses on estimation of the first round of net expenditures related to a specific event; data are then used as primary inputs into an input-output, multiplier, or similar general equilibrium model (Liu and Var 1983; Fletcher 1989).

SOURCES, DESTINATIONS, AND CAUSES OF EXPENDITURES

Unlike tourism in general, accurate assessment of event impacts requires a framework that can account for (1) the source of the expenditure, (2) the geographic starting point of the expenditure, (3) the destination or end point of the expenditure, and (4) the reason for the expenditure. Unless the economic impact model accounts for each of these distinctions, the resulting impact estimates may at least partially confuse the true *net economic impact* of the event (the actual net increase in regional expenditures directly related to the

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event) with *gross economic impact* (total expenditures of all event visitors and participants)—a common mistake made when assessing the economic impact of events.

Events or businesses may draw a great deal of money from visitors (gross economic impact) yet still have no local tourism impact (net economic impact). If event visitors would have spent the same quantity of money in a community with or without a given tourist event, the flow from nonlocal sources to local destinations would remain unchanged. For example, an event could draw the same amount of money from the local community (in terms of expenditures of local residents on “imported” event merchandise or services) that it directs back to the community (in terms of nonresident spending at local businesses). Such a tourist event could generate substantial gross expenditures, yet have zero net economic impact on a region. To distinguish gross from net economic expenditures, it is necessary to identify the sources, origins, and destinations of expenditures, as well as the reason that specific expenditures occurred.

The first examination of an event should focus on expenditure sources. While traditional event impact studies (e.g., McHone and Rungeling 2000) focus on expenditures of event visitors, there are a variety of other expenditure sources to consider. As illustrated by Table 1, spectators are only one potential source of expenditures; other sources include participants, volunteers, and the media. Participants or players (for sporting events) can be associated with large expenditures. Indeed, in events such as yacht races, participants often spend more than all other groups. Volunteers and contributors are another source of monetary and nonmonetary impact. These contributions are especially important to the state economy when the volunteers come from out of the region. The media, referees, and other VIPs frequently have considerable impacts not included in spectator spending. Moreover, the host and major sponsor may spend amounts beyond revenues from spectators. For example, recent studies of the ESPN Extreme Games and NBC Gravity Games found that sponsor expenditures contributed the largest shares of all impacts (Tyrrell 1996, 2000). Finally, exhibitors and vendors may contribute significant expenditures. These groups, especially the former, often do not receive visitor expenditures but spend heavily in the local economy.

The advantage of limiting an analysis to visitor expenditures is the simple avoidance of double counting. Accordingly, when analyzing the transactions of all the above groups (cf. Table 1), it is critical to track the path of each expenditure source to ensure that double counting does not occur. For example, a vendor who receives expenditures from spectators may spend part of it on the vendor fee that the organizing committee receives. Part may end up in local wages and rent on a state-owned facility, and some is typically retained as an event profit that is returned to their out-of-state headquarters. Each type of transaction indicated in the figure must be tracked to its final destination in or out of state to ensure that each is counted only once.

Another key requirement for valid estimation of expenditure flow changes is an accurate assessment of the specific reason for any given expenditure made by event visitors. That is, one must distinguish those tourists who visit a region as a direct result of the event from those who just “stop by” but do not visit the region as a direct result of the event. To

TABLE 1
POTENTIAL SOURCES OF EVENT
IMPACTS AND TYPES OF TRANSACTIONS

1. Spectators	Admission fees
	Expenditures
2. Players/competitors	Entry fees
	Expenditures associated with participation (equipment, repairs, docking, gear, etc.)
	Expenditures—other (food, lodging, etc.)
3. Volunteers and contributors	Value of “in-kind” contributions
	Value of volunteer labor
	Other contributions not included above
4. The media, umpires, and other attendees	Expenditures
	Value of “in-kind” contributions
	Value of volunteer labor
	Other contributions not included above
5. The host and major sponsor	Receipts
	Spectators
	Participants
	Sponsorships
	Advertisers
	Concession fees
	Other
	Expenditures
	Wages: portion of regular employee salaries as well as labor for event
	Goods and services
6. Exhibitors/vendors	Receipts
	Sales at event
	Sales as a result of event
	Expenditures

the degree that the event itself is the cause for an expenditure or flow, the event may be assumed to generate the impact. However, if the flow would have occurred regardless of the event, then it is appropriate to assume that the tourist site generates the flow rather than the event (McHone and Rungeling 2000). A tourist site is considered to generate a flow of expenditures on its own if it is attractive for some reason other than the event of interest. This attractiveness may be related to natural amenities or business or personal interests of the residents or visitors.

An appropriate analysis of expenditures must also account for the source and ultimate destination of event-related expenditures. This is particularly critical when local residents spend money at temporary event-related vendors who may remove those funds from the region once the event is complete. Finally, the analysis must account for the potential behavior of resident attendees if the event would have occurred elsewhere or not at all. Failure to account for any of these distinctions can lead analysts to at least partially obscure the difference between the economic impact of *tourism* and that of a specific *tourist event*—impacts that may differ by a significant margin.

If an analysis properly accounts for sources, destinations, and reasons for expenditures, the result may be tourism

events with a negative local economic impact. Consider a carnival that moves into a tourism community and serves residents and tourists who have been attracted to the area for other reasons. The carnival owners and workers may spend some of their revenues on local supplies and labor, but the flows of money outside the local community will likely be significant as the carnival moves on. Thus, the carnival draws expenditure flows away from local destinations and redirects them elsewhere. Alternately, an event can have a positive tourism impact even though no visitors from outside the region attend. If the resident spectators would have traveled outside the region to attend this or a similar event, the local event prevents a loss of local money—the flow that begins and ends locally is kept intact.

Although intuitively straightforward, these simple distinctions are often overlooked in studies assessing tourist event impacts—particularly those studies conducted by event coordinators or sponsors unfamiliar with economic impact analysis. While McHone and Rungeling (2000) describe some of these issues, we do not agree that they are “a special set of problems” only encountered because of the unique nature of a one-time “megacultural event” and its location in one of the world’s top tourism destinations. These issues apply to most types of events in a wide range of destinations. However, despite the frequency with which such issues arise, the literature does not provide a standardized, formal framework with which they may be incorporated into event-related impact analysis.

ECONOMIC IMPACT FRAMEWORK

The description of the economic impact framework is kept concise to maintain a focus on primary aspects of interest. Although designed for assessment of tourist events in coastal Rhode Island communities (e.g., Tyrrell 1988; Tyrrell and Sullivan 1992; Tyrrell and Toepper 1991a, 1991b), it may be easily adapted for use in other regions. The purpose of this framework is to provide a standardized means through which practitioners may avoid common and fundamental mistakes in assessing net economic impacts from tourist events. As these mistakes occur prior to the application of a formal input-output method, they are not addressed by the extensive literature concerning such analysis (e.g., Fletcher 1989). We emphasize that this framework is *not* designed to calculate all direct and indirect impacts associated with an event. Rather, it is meant solely to standardize the calculation of the critical initial round of regional event-related expenditures—calculations often ignored (or implicitly assumed trivial) by the literature addressing tourism impact analysis. However, common errors in assessing these expenditures suggest that such calculations are not trivial and that they can have important impacts on the validity and accuracy of initial expenditure estimates.

The framework for evaluating economic impact may be represented by a three-dimensional table of economic flows. The first two dimensions indicate the source and destination of direct economic impacts of the tourism event. These dimensions are illustrated as impact categories in Table 2. Four major categories have been used: categories (1) and (2)

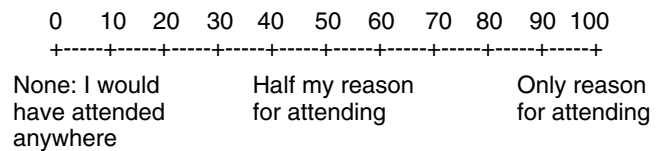
are expenditures made by nonresidents (visitors to the study region), while categories (3) and (4) are expenditures made by residents. Categories (1) and (3) are expenditures made in the study region, while categories (2) and (4) are made out of the study region. If several geographic levels of study area are included, additional categories are formed. These basic four categories are used for sorting out the impacts of expenditures by all economic entities, including spectators, performers, government agencies, and corporate sponsors. A parallel assessment of nonmonetary sponsor contributions and value of volunteer time may also be conducted.

The third dimension of the table indicates the reason for the impact. Subcategories (a) and (b) under each of the major four categories specify whether the purchase or contribution is made because of the location of the activity (site) or the activities associated with the event. For example, subcategories of (1) (expenditures made in the region by a tourist) correspond to expenditures that would (a) or would not (b) be made in the region if the event did not take place. If, for example, a tourist spent \$15 on a local restaurant meal before an event and 97% of his reason for being in the state was the event, then \$14.55 can be put into category (3b), and \$.45 would be put into category (3a). Recall that category (3a) represents local residential expenditures depending on the site (not the event) and is a measure of general support for local community activities, regardless of a particular event. If the tourist had been in the region purely for nonevent reasons, all \$15 would be put into category (3a).

Note that separating category (3a) and (3b) expenditures requires identifying not only the primary reason for an expenditure but also a more specific percentage of the reason. To estimate this percentage for nonresidents, one may use a question of the following form:

For residents, one may ask the probability that they would

What percentage of your decision for attending the event was its location in Newport? (Please circle a point on the line below.)



have traveled to nearby out-of-state locations if the event had been held there. In this way, it is possible to estimate relative importance of the event to all visitors rather than grouping some as “primary purpose” and others as “secondary purpose.” We could, in fact, make such distinctions by using a 50% cutoff for primary-purpose visitors. However, the above question format provides additional information regarding the full distribution of rationales for event attendance.

Category (2) reflects expenditures that could potentially benefit the region if the same goods and services could be obtained locally. However, given the current availability of local services, these expenditures are made outside of the region. Out-of-region printing and equipment rentals, for example, might be replaced by local services. However, other items such as out-of-region promotion and advertising cannot be expected to be obtained locally. Given that these expenditures originate outside of the region and remain

TABLE 2
FRAMEWORK FOR EVALUATING TOURISM EVENTS

Origin of Expenditures/ Contributions	Location of Purchases	Expenditures Depend on		
		Site	Activities	Either
Out of region	In region	(1a)	(1b)	(1)
	Out of region	(2a)	(2b)	(2)
In region	In region	(3a)	(3b)	(3)
	Out of region	(4a)	(4b)	(4)
Total	In region	(1a) + (3a)	(1b) + (3b)	(1) + (3)
	Out of region	(2a) + (4a)	(2b) + (4b)	(2) + (4)
Gross sales		(1a) + (3a) + (2a) + (4a)	(1b) + (3b) + (2b) + (4b)	(1) + (3) + (2) + (4)
Net direct sales impact (DSI)				(1b) + (3b) - (4a)
Total value added (VA)				DSI • Value- Added Multiplier
Total sales impact (TSI)				DSI • Sales Multiplier

outside of the region, they are not included in the net (local) direct sales impact associated with the event.

Category (4) represents expenditures by local residents that are subsequently taken out of the regional economy. Category (4a) (site-dependent, out-of-region expenditures by residents that occur at the event) is assumed to represent a negative direct impact on the regional economy associated with event activities. A simple example may help illustrate the intuition underlying this assumption. Assume that a local resident eats brunch at local establishments each and every Sunday, providing revenues to local firms. However, assume that a major local event is held on a particular Sunday and that as a result, the individual chooses to purchase brunch from event vendors—money that subsequently leaves the region. The expenditure is site related because it would have occurred regardless of the event. However, as a direct result of the event, an expenditure that would typically be directed to local firms is now directed to firms located out of the region. Accordingly, (4a) represents sales revenues *lost* to the local region as a direct result of an event.

Category (4b) represents event-related expenditures by residents that subsequently leave the region. These are expenditures by local residents that would not have occurred, were it not for the event. For example, a local individual may choose to purchase a souvenir from event vendors solely as a result of the event. Although (4b) does represent a flow of expenditure from the region to outside destinations, it does not represent a loss of sales to local establishments. Recall that (4b) expenditures depend on the event itself—without the event, these expenditures would not exist (and would therefore not be received by local establishments). Accordingly, (4b) expenditures represent neither a loss nor a gain to the regional economy.

As discussed above for expenditure category (3), distinctions between expenditures in subcategories (a) and (b) may be made using survey questions carefully designed to assess the relative importance (in percentage terms) of the event in terms of (1) attendees' decisions to visit the region and (2) attendees' decisions to spend money on particular types of goods and services in the region (Tyrrell and Sullivan 1992). Although such estimates are subjective, they are generally more appropriate than the standard assumption that 100% of

attendees' expenditures are made as a direct result of the event and of finer detail than the alternate distinction between primary- and secondary-purpose visitors. Moreover, like any set of survey questions, these may be improved through careful development and pretests (Johnston et al. 1995; Schkade and Payne 1994).

The four categories and two subcategories effectively separate event support from location support and local support from visitor support. From these categories, one may calculate various measures of initial direct expenditure and impact associated with a tourist event. For example, the sum of categories (1b) and (3b) is the "positive direct economic impact" on the study region. This sum represents positive spending that occurs as a direct result of the event (by both local residents and tourists) and is received by local (within the region) individuals or firms. If the event was held out of state, the amount in (3b) would be lost (representing event-related expenditures by residents who would have traveled out of the region to attend). "Net direct sales impact" is equal to positive direct economic impact minus (4a); the rationale behind the exclusion of (4a) from net direct impact is described above.

Given the above estimate of net direct sales impact, two well-known options are available to assess total (direct plus indirect) impacts of the event—the sum of sales (or value-added) impacts after all rounds of respending (Miller and Blair 1985; Fletcher 1989). First, one may use the framework as the first step in an input-output analysis tailored to the specific region and event, with separation of expenditures by industry category (Fletcher 1989). Second, one may estimate this impact as the product of a sales- or value-added multiplier derived from prior input-output analysis and the estimate of total net direct sales (Tyrrell 1999).

For the applications presented below, a standard multiplier is used to estimate local value added, a sum representing payments for the services of local capital (interest), land (rent), labor (salaries and wages), and investments (profits). Similar to an income multiplier, the value-added multiplier effectively eliminates the cost of purchased goods and services from the definition of value and translates directly into the buying power (increased income) of the local residents and businesses. For most analyses of tourist events in Rhode

Island, it is assumed that 70% of direct sales end up in local income. This percentage was estimated in a tourism industry analysis for a typical event in Block Island, Rhode Island (Tyrrell and Sullivan 1992; Tyrrell 1999). Unlike other aspects of this framework, appropriate refinement of this number for different types of events would require a survey of affected businesses in the region under consideration.

Errors associated with failure to account for sources, destinations, and causes may also be calculated from the cell entries of the accounting framework. For example, if an impact analysis fails to distinguish the cause of the impacts, all cells labeled (a) will be included in (b). The pure *error of cause* in the net direct sales estimate, assuming no other errors, will be $(1a) + (3a) - (4b)$. If an impact analysis fails instead to distinguish the destination of the impacts, all cells labeled (2) will be included in (1), and all cells labeled (4) will be included in (3). The pure *destination error* in the net direct sales in this case will be $(2b) + (4)$, assuming that no attempt is made to subtract expenditures made out of state. Finally, if an impact analysis fails to distinguish the origin of impacts, all cells labeled (3) will be included in (1), and all cells labeled (4) will be included in (2). The pure *origin error* in the net direct sales estimate will be an upward bias of $(4a)$ in the estimate of net direct impact. If all errors are committed, the error of using gross sales rather than net direct sales will be $(1a) + (2) + (3a) + (4) + (4a)$. This is not the sum of the pure errors because of their interrelationship in the net direct sales calculation. Although the illustrated framework allows one to “quantify” the size of these various errors given reasonable assumptions, it is rare to commit only one type of error in the estimation of expenditures. Moreover, the exact size of these errors will depend on the full range of assumptions made by the researcher. Accordingly, actual errors may differ from those illustrated above, depending on the combined set of errors committed and the assumptions underlying the analysis.

Although the above framework provides an intuitive guide to properly categorize expenditures within a regional event-related economic impact analysis, entries in the framework (cf. Table 2) are not always simple calculations. The details of the analysis require comprehensive assessment of all expenditure sources and destinations, including the value of nonmonetary contributions; this often requires extensive data collection and analysis. In general practice, expenditure sources include spectator expenditures off- and on-site, participant expenditures off- and on-site, vendors off- and on-site, organizer receipts (excluding receipts for spectators, participants, and vendors), and volunteers and other nonmonetary contributors. The origin of visitors, participants, and sponsors determines the origin of flows. The home base of vendors who serve at the event and the portion of supplies and labor that is purchased locally determine destinations. The location of expenditures of the event committee or festival management frequently determines the greatest share of destinations.

To simplify the application of the framework presented above, spreadsheet tools may be used to assign portions of expenditures from each source to each of the eight basic cells (1a to 4b) based on responses to standardized survey questions (Tyrrell and Sullivan 1992; Tyrrell and Nally 1998). Although such tools may simplify the analysis, spreadsheets must be carefully designed to avoid double counting

expenditures when summarizing totals (net of transfers) in the eight cells.

APPLICATION OF THE ECONOMIC IMPACT FRAMEWORK: THE 1997 NEWPORT FOLK FESTIVAL

The following section summarizes the application of the event analysis framework to the 1997 Newport Folk Festival, held from August 8–10 in Fort Adams State Park in Newport, Rhode Island. The Folk Festival sold or otherwise distributed 16,768 tickets, drawing an audience of 11,416. In addition to paid audience members, approximately 400 boaters viewed the event from offshore (from Newport Harbor). Sixty-eight percent of the audience was drawn from southern New England states (Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island). However, visitors also traveled from California, Texas, and overseas from Europe to attend the festival (Tyrrell and Nally 1998).

The net direct sales impact on the region resulting from the Folk Festival was substantial—but it was not equal to the sum of all expenditures made by those visitors and participants associated with the festival, as might be assumed in a naïve impact analysis. Table 3 illustrates the application of the expenditure framework, with data drawn from separate surveys of visitors (including those in the media), participants (performers and others), sponsors, organizers, and vendors of the 1997 Newport Folk Festival (Tyrrell and Nally 1998). The analysis was conducted to estimate economic impact for the city of Newport. However, impacts on the state of Rhode Island and out of state were also calculated. The total (gross) sales associated with the festival were \$2,031,000. Net direct sales were \$954,000 in Newport and \$229,000 elsewhere in the state of Rhode Island. These net expenditures represent the portions of expenditures by non-residents that could be attributed to this event, plus expenditures by residents who would have traveled out of state for this event, minus expenditures made out of state to produce the festival (Tyrrell and Nally 1998).

Multiplying the estimate of net direct sales impact by a previously estimated value-added multiplier (0.70) results in a value-added impact estimate of \$668,000. The total sales (direct plus indirect) impact is computed as the product of a derived “sales multiplier” and net direct sales and represents the sum of sales impacts after all rounds of respending. The sales multiplier is estimated to be 1.36 in the current study, based on a prior input-output analysis of the Rhode Island tourist industry. The resulting total sales impact estimate for the city of Newport is \$1,298,000. Further details regarding the calculation and implications of the value-added and sales multipliers are provided by Tyrrell (1999).

The incorrect use of gross sales (\$2,031,000) as a measure of net economic impact would overestimate true net direct sales impact on Newport (\$954,000) by \$1,077,000—an error greater than 100% of the properly estimated net economic impact. The *error of cause* would have been \$34,000, the *destination error* would have been \$1,005,000, and the *origin error* would have been \$3,000. Again, note that these do not sum to the total overestimate of net impact, given mathematical relationships between each type of error. The relative magnitude of these errors varies across types of

TABLE 3
DIRECT (INITIAL) ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF THE 1997
FOLK FESTIVAL (IN THOUSANDS OF U.S. DOLLARS)

Origin of Expenditures/ Contributions	Location of Purchases	Expenditures Depend on		
		Site	Activities	Either
Out of region	In Newport	45	900	945
	Elsewhere Rhode Island	10	223	232
	Out of Rhode Island	8	760	767
In region	In Newport	8	55	64
	Elsewhere Rhode Island	1	7	8
	Out of Rhode Island	2	12	14
Total	In Newport	53	955	1,008
	Elsewhere Rhode Island	11	230	241
	Out of Rhode Island	10	772	782
Gross sales		74	1,957	2,031
Net direct sales impact	Newport			954
	Total elsewhere			229
	Total			1,183
Total value added	Newport			668
	Total elsewhere			160
	Total			828
Total sales impact	Newport			1,298
	Total elsewhere			311
	Total			1,609

events. In this case, the substantial destination error reflects the fact that much of the sales revenue was removed from the region subsequent to the event.

IMPLICATIONS: GROSS VERSUS NET IMPACTS FOR RHODE ISLAND EVENTS

This section briefly illustrates the implications of appropriate versus inappropriate assignment of expenditures within an economic impact analysis of a tourist event. The implications of improperly interpreting gross economic impact as a measure of net economic impact may differ significantly depending on the characteristics of the specific event. To illustrate a potential range of possibilities for errors involved, Table 4 summarizes the results of a series of 18 tourism event studies conducted between 1985 and 1997 in Rhode Island. The list represents a wide variety of events. Some are activity oriented, such as the yacht races that are almost devoid of spectators, in which the yacht owners generate impacts. Jazz and folk festivals, on the other hand, are heavily spectator oriented. Boat shows seem to generate great impacts, but much of it is in the form of boat sales, not the traditional tourism impacts, and is lower in value added to the state economy. The net direct sales impact is always lower than the gross impact (which in this list includes nonmonetary contributions and volunteer efforts). One extreme example is the Newport-Bermuda Race in which most of the impact was felt out of Rhode Island. Other events, such as the chowder cook-off, were considerably smaller but captured almost all potential impacts. However, in all cases, measurements of the gross sales from these

events fail to accurately represent the true initial net effects on the state's economy.

CONCLUSION

Valid assessment of economic impacts from tourist events cannot rely on general assumptions applied to tourism in general—it requires a framework that accounts for distinctions between purely site-related and event-related expenditures. However, assessments of tourism event impact often omit or otherwise overlook critical distinctions between tourism impact and event impact, at least partially confusing gross economic impacts with net economic impacts. This common confusion may result in substantial overestimation of the true economic implications of tourism events. Mistakes made in estimation of the initial round of event-related expenditures will carry through into subsequent applications of input-output or multiplier analysis.

Distinctions that are most often overlooked include those related to (1) the possible sources of impacts (attendees, participants, volunteers, etc.), (2) the geographic starting point of particular expenditures, (3) the destination or end point of expenditures, and (4) the reason for expenditures. This article presents a simple, standardized framework for assessing event impacts through which practitioners may assign expenditures to appropriate categories prior to aggregation into final impact estimates. Although this framework does not eliminate the substantial work required to obtain final data (including design, testing, and implementation of on-site surveys) and in some cases track expenditures from their source to ultimate destination, it does provide a standardized model

TABLE 4
DIRECT (INITIAL) ECONOMIC IMPACTS
OF RHODE ISLAND TOURISM EVENTS
(IN THOUSANDS OF U.S. DOLLARS)

Tourism Events	Gross Impact	Net Direct Sales Impact on Rhode Island
1985 Admiral's Cup Trials	549	433
1985 Swarovski Maxiboat Regatta	630	341
1986 Block Island Race Week	839	667
1987 Charlestown Seafood Festival	127	81
1989 Chowder Cook-Off _{NYC}	177	149
1989 Newport International Sailboat Show	9,315	2,928
1989 Newport International Powerboat Show	4,178	1,523
1989 Taste of Rhode Island	311	205
1989 Providence Festival of Historic Homes	342	149
1990 Volvo/International Hall of Fame Tennis Tournament	1,799	1,166
1990 Volvo Newport Regatta	770	513
1992 Newport-Bermuda Race	6,472	1,150
1993 World Scholar-Athlete Games (predicted)	10,387	8,543
1994 Newport Jazz Festival	2,010	1,303
1995 Chowder Cook-Off	365	314
1995 Newport International Boat Show	21,338	8,054
1995 Taste of Rhode Island	789	546
1997 Newport Folk Festival	2,031	1,183

through which these data may be interpreted to obtain appropriate measures of net direct expenditures related to tourist events.

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