

THE UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY

**CANADIAN CONVENTION CENTRES:
GROWTH, IMPACTS AND IMAGES**

by

Anne LeBlanc

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THE UNIVERSITY OF CALGARY
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ABSTRACT

Few attempts have been made to develop conceptual approaches to the study of convention centres as an urban phenomena. Research on the various issues of growth, impacts, and images, have been neglected by geographers. A study like this one may stimulate more attention and interest in the subject.

This thesis offers a broad approach to the topic, linking Canadian convention centre promotional literature to historic boosterism and contemporary city marketing. A survey traces the growth and distribution of 214 North American convention centres.

Public institutions are often expected to provide a community with a way to expand its economic base. Fourteen convention centres in Canada, built with funding from all levels of government, were examined to find out relationships between size plus cost of construction, operating expenses and delegate spending. Results of the analysis suggested that the convention centres should adopt a standard method of measuring delegate spending.

Convention centres play a key symbolic role for civic identity in the urban fabric. Content analysis of the 14 Canadian centres' promotional brochures revealed that 7 different city image themes could be identified. Of these, cultural attributes are the most strongly promoted, with services promoted the least.

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DEDICATION

To my dear brother Daniel McLellan

1942-1986

With Love

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CHAPTER ONE

THE STUDY OF CONVENTION CENTRES

1.1 Introduction

Geographers have paid little attention to the growth and impact of convention centres in their study of factors that account for growth of cities in North America. This study provides a background to the topic, and a case study of purpose-built convention centres in fourteen Canadian cities and their promotional literature. A broadly based approach to several aspects of convention centres was taken rather than a focus on a single issue. In part, this was because information on convention centres was not available.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

There are five objectives to the study.

(a) The growth and location details of North American purpose-built convention centres are traced as a background to the spread of government-owned centres across Canada.

(b) Second, the development and role of convention centres as an institution in the urban fabric and their role as urban amenity, is described.

(c) Third, the economic aspects associated with the cost of building convention centres in Canada, funding issues, and estimates of delegate spending will be summarized together with a discussion of the variations in size of the centres.

(d) Fourth, the interrelationships between historic boosterism and modern day city marketing of convention centres will be explained. Features in convention centre

marketing, and the link to themes in the historical boosterism literature, are utilized to show their role in city image studies.

(e) Fifth, the technique of content analyses was used to identify the distinguishing -in text and pictures-characteristics contained in each of the fourteen convention centre promotional brochures. This was to determine the extent which the brochures promoted specific image themes of the city. Promotion of culture, landscape, location, recreation, services, economy and people are common in the attractions portrayed in convention brochures. In addition the content analysis identified the way the convention centre brochures described the climate and seasons in each city.

1.3 Definition and Classification Problems

The study of convention centres is a complex one, not only because of problems with the terminology used to define what a convention centre is, but also because of classification methods which vary for size and type of facility. There are numerous definitions for 'conventions and convention centres' and they vary according to different study objectives (Lawson, 1981:1-2; Knack, 1982: 14; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986:52; Law, 1987:85-95; Abbey, 1987: 265-271; Hughes, 1988:235). The terms tend to be interchangeable depending upon the country they are being applied to. "Convention" is the most widely used in North America, Australia and Asia. "Congress" is often used in Europe, and "Conference" in the United Kingdom as generic terms for all meetings. While there is no general consensus on terminology Lawson (1981:1) indicated that all of the definitions denote:

A meeting held in hired premises, lasting a minimum of one day, having a fixed agenda or programme...and is an assembly of persons for some common object for the exchange of ideas, views, and information of common interest to the group.

Hughes (1988:235) recognized that an inventory showing the supply of convention centres was handicapped by definitional problems as well as failure to distinguish what constitutes the duration of a convention. His definition was similar to Lawson's, with the exception that Hughes maintained that fifteen or more people must be in attendance and the meeting must continue for two or more consecutive days. Another writer, Abbey (1987:265), interpreted the purpose of a convention centre as a place:

Where participants eat, sleep and meet under the same roof. To call itself a convention centre a property must consider meetings their priority business, do at least sixty per cent of total volume in meetings and offer a total environment dedicated to meetings.

Many of the definitions commonly utilized are derived from convention consultancy services (Association Management International, 1987) and trade magazines (AudArena Stadium Guide, 1988; Convention World, 1988). Those studies are not widely circulated and do not necessarily provide a satisfactory approach to the formation of a "convention" definition (Hughes, 1988:236). The problem is further compounded by the fact there are two types of convention centres in North America.

The first kind of convention centres are those which are publicly-owned by local city or provincial governments and designed expressly for the purpose of holding conventions, i.e. the Calgary Convention Centre or Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre.

The second type are the privately-owned hotels, resorts, and cruise ships with facilities for meetings, banquets, and exhibition rooms available for rent on their site. These meeting facilities are provided as an extra service that may make a profit for the owner, i.e. Banff Springs Resort Hotel, or the chain of Holiday Inn hotels.

Given the differences between and overlap among alternative definitions, this study focussed on government owned and financed convention centres in Canada that have two characteristics.

(a) They are "not-for-profit" purpose-built facilities that represent a city or urban area in the solicitation and servicing of all types of meetings (McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986:52).

(b) They contain facilities that are built to accommodate formal regularly held meetings usually sponsored by an association or society for the purposes of exchanging common interests, knowledge and the sharing of information with and between its members. Meetings must be held for a duration which requires overnight accommodation (Gartrell, 1988:19).

This study focussed on single-purpose convention centres and did not include facilities that were built as multi-purpose structures, i.e. arenas, coliseums, auditoriums, concert halls, sport complexes, civic centres, performing arts theatres, resorts or hotels.

1.4 Data Collection Procedures and Problems

Information on the location, ownership and construction year for all the convention centres was initiated in May 1989. All of the data requested for the economic impact section was for 1988 because it was the most recent year after the study began for which annual reports were available. In June 1989, a letter requesting data about the number and location of public-sector convention centres in the United States was sent to the president of the International Association of Auditorium Managers (IAAM) located in Chicago. No response was obtained despite a follow-up request. In the absence of data from the IAAM, six sources were used to obtain the numbers and year the convention centres opened in the United States.

1. Tradeshow and Convention Guide, 1988;
2. AudArena Stadium Guide, 1989;
3. Gavel, Annual International Directory for Meetings and Conventions, 1990;
4. Letters sent by the author in September, 1990 to U.S. convention centre directors.
5. Successful Meetings Magazine, issues for 1986 to 1989.
6. Convention World Magazine, 1988 (now published as Association Meetings Management).

Sources one to three are guides that identify international meeting and convention directories and facilities. Only centres listed as municipal, state, federally-owned, and purpose-built structures were counted for the U.S. data. The author was more successful in collecting data for the fourteen government-owned convention centres identified in Canada.

The data source for the maps and growth figures in Chapter Two are based on an extensive literature review, as well as from the response to letters sent to the directors of individual convention centres. Appendix One is a geographic list of 228 Canadian and United States cities where a total of 246 convention centres are located. Appendix Two contains a list of the 214 purpose-built North American centres for which information on the year of opening was known. Also listed in Appendix Two are another 32 convention centres in the United States for which information on the year they were built could not be found. Since those sources could not provide the requested information the author had to speculate on ownership status from the names of the convention centres. If a known hotel name was associated with the centre, i.e. Holiday Inn, that centre was omitted from the inventory because it seemed likely to be a facility owned by a private hotel. Convention centres with their city's name

represented in the title were considered to be a government-owned facility and were included in the inventory of convention centres.

Several other components of the data collected for the economic aspects also posed problems. The convention centres tend to lump all events together and call them conventions, regardless of whether they were meetings, seminars, tradeshow, banquets, reunions, exhibitions, or actual conventions. For this study, the number of mutually exclusive "conventions", not exhibitions or tradeshow, was requested from each centre. If this author had classified the total number of all events held in 1988 in each convention centre, the economic impacts would have been much greater because of the increase in the number of delegates attending functions, and the higher amount of direct spending occurring. The Edmonton Convention Centre, for example, listed 697 events in their annual report for 1988. Of those events 601 were private/corporate functions, 37 were entertainment events, 19 were trade and consumer shows, and only 40 functions were classed as conventions by the criteria used here.

The main source of data on Canadian convention centre information was derived from twenty-three letters sent to the directors of each venue, outlining the purpose of the research. Originally, nine items of information were requested from each contact:

1. Most recent promotional brochure(s);
2. Annual financial report;
3. Number of conventions held in 1988;
4. Number of delegates attending conventions in 1988;
5. Total revenues generated from conventions in 1988;
6. The year the facility opened;
7. Facility size;
8. Ownership status;

9. Colour slide or print of the facility.

Later on five additional pieces of information from each Canadian convention centre were requested to provide the data required for more detailed analysis in the chapter size and economic impacts, and the one on the urban fabric. These five information types were:

1. Organizational structure of the centre's operation;
2. Type of conventions held at the centre;
3. Multiplier used in economic impact statements;
4. Construction costs;
5. Other urban amenities linked to the facility.

Of the 23 Canadian centres contacted, fourteen fitted the three criteria utilized for the study. These criteria were: (1) publicly-owned and funded by provincial and/or municipal governments; (2) purpose-built facilities designed solely to hold conventions; and (3) open to accommodate conventions in 1988.

The Victoria Conference Centre met all the criteria except the third. It was not officially opened until January 1989, so no economic data was available for 1988. However, a decision was made to utilize the facility's promotional brochure for the content analysis of urban images in Chapter Six of this study.

Urban amenities linked to the convention centres and construction costs were important aspects of the urban fabric and economic components of the study. Therefore, follow-up letters requesting that information were sent in October, 1990 to the fourteen Canadian centres. All of the economic data requested from the Winnipeg Convention Centre was refused on the basis it was part of their marketing strategy and therefore was not for public information (letter from Director of Sales, Winnipeg Convention Centre, November 6, 1989). Estimated values were calculated from

Successful Meetings' Directory of Conventions, 1988/89, for the economic impact assessment of the Winnipeg Convention Centre. The centre did provide the promotional brochure requested for the section on the urban marketing of images.

Table 1.1. lists the fourteen Canadian convention centres selected for the analysis because they met the definitional criteria.

Nine additional public assembly facilities were contacted but excluded from the study because they did not meet the three definitional criteria. Four of them were linked to privately-owned hotel chains: Saskatchewan Trade and Convention Centre; Windsor/Cleary Convention Hall; Toronto International Centre of Commerce; and the Prince Edward Hotel and Convention Centre. Two were multi-purpose facilities: Ontario Place, and the Vernon Recreation and Convention Complex. One was a stadium (Parc Olympic). Another was an exhibition complex situated at a fairground (Saskatchewan Place), and one was not open in 1988 because it was undergoing renovation and expansion (Penticton Trade and Convention Centre). There were no wholly publicly-owned purpose-built convention centres located in Newfoundland, Yukon Territory, or the Northwest Territories.

1.5 Focus of the Study

Figure 1.1 shows the location and relative size of fourteen Canadian convention centres built over a twenty-one year period between the first, the Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre in 1968, and the last, the Victoria Conference Centre in 1989.

The 1988 Tradeshow and Convention Guide classifies these into three different sized groups of convention structures.

1. Primary: 100,001-300,000 square feet,
2. Secondary: 50,001-100,000 square feet,
3. Small: 10,000-50,000 square feet.

Table 1.1

Canadian Convention Centre Ownership Status and Year Opened

| <u>Provincially-Owned</u> | <u>Year Opened</u> |
|--|--------------------|
| 1.Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre Vancouver, British Columbia | 1987 |
| 2.Palais des Congres de Montreal Montreal, Quebec | 1983 |
| 3.Ottawa Congress Centre Ottawa, Ontario | 1983 |
| 4.Metro Toronto Convention Centre Toronto, Ontario | 1984 |
| 5.World Trade and Convention Centre Halifax, Nova Scotia | 1985 |
| <u>Municipally-Owned</u> | |
| 6.Victoria Conference Centre Victoria, B.C. | 1989 |
| 7.Edmonton Convention Centre Edmonton, Alberta | 1983 |
| 8.Calgary Convention Centre Calgary, Alberta | 1974 |
| 9.Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre Saskatoon, Saskatchewan | 1968 |
| 10.Winnipeg Convention Centre Winnipeg, Manitoba | 1975 |
| 11.Hamilton Convention Centre Hamilton, Ontario | 1981 |
| 12.Palais des Congres Hull Hull, Quebec | 1981 |
| 13.Centre Des Congres de Quebec Quebec City, Quebec | 1973 |
| 14.Saint John Trade and Convention Centre Saint John, New Brunswick | 1983 |

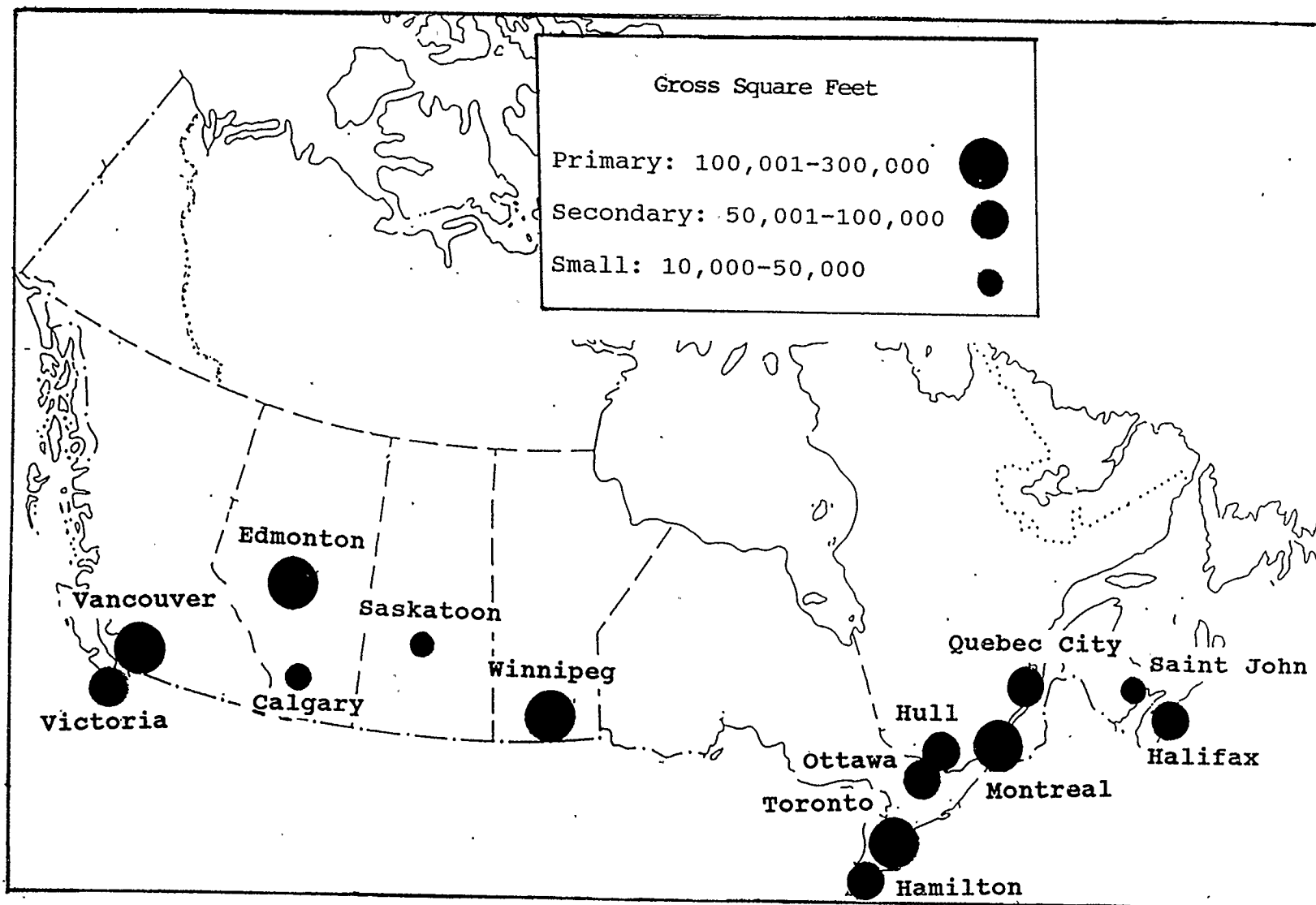


Figure 1.1 Map of Canadian Convention Centres
by Size of Facility

Table 1.2 classifies each centre into the three different types which the AudArena Stadium Guide (1989) uses for categorizing gross square footage. The rank order percentage of square footage for each of the 14 Canadian convention centres is based on a total of 1,388,267 square feet of purpose-built facilities.

Table 1.2

**Canadian Convention Centres: Industry Classification
Divisions for Size**

| Facility Size Classification | Square Feet in 1988 | Per Cent of Total | Banquet Capacity |
|---|------------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| PRIMARY: | | | |
| Metro Toronto | 200,000 | 14.4 | 7000 |
| Montreal | 190,000 | 13.7 | 5000 |
| Edmonton | 190,000 | 13.7 | 5000 |
| Vancouver | 139,017 | 10.0 | 2000 |
| Winnipeg | 105,000 | 7.6 | 5200 |
| SECONDARY: | | | |
| Halifax | 100,000 | 7.2 | 2000 |
| Ottawa | 97,000 | 7.0 | 3500 |
| Victoria | 70,000 | 5.0 | 1500 |
| Hull | 63,000 | 4.5 | 2200 |
| Quebec | 62,000 | 4.4 | 3600 |
| Hamilton | 60,000 | 4.3 | 1400 |
| SMALL: | | | |
| Calgary | 50,000 | 3.6 | 2000 |
| Saskatoon | 37,250 | 2.7 | 1800 |
| Saint John | 25,000 | 1.8 | 1500 |
| TOTAL | 1,388,267 | 100 | 43,700 |

Note: Facility size is the total square footage for exhibit and meeting rooms, main hall, and banquet areas.

Source: Summarized from Tradeshow and Convention Guide, 1988; AudArena Stadium Guide, 1989; and information received from each Canadian convention centre, 1989.

It is obvious that the Metro Toronto Convention Centre forms the largest part of the total, while the smallest proportion in the ranking is for the Saint John Trade and Convention Centre. It must be noted that the 3-fold division is not entirely satisfactory because the categories used are arbitrary. Hence, Calgary is closer to the Victoria-Hamilton range of 50 to 70,000 square feet size than it is to the Saint John classification, and Halifax-Ottawa are closer to Vancouver and Winnipeg.

Table 1.2 also describes the number of people each convention centre can accommodate for banquets. The three-fold size classification may give a false impression because it is not related to convention centre size. For example, banquet capacity for the Halifax and Quebec City centres are much bigger than expected, even though they both fall into the "secondary" category for size. Only the Metro Toronto Convention Centre ranked number one for both banquet capacity and size of the facility. Therefore, while the Hamilton Convention Centre provides the fewest number of banquet seats it is categorized as "secondary" for size, according to the AudArena Stadium Guide classification for banquet capacity (1989). None of the Canadian convention centre's banquet capacity reaches the "Large" category which is between 10,001 and 30,000 seats.

The previous discussion is background to Chapter Two which considers the growth and distribution of convention centres, starting with those built in the United States then the focus will shift to Canadian convention centres.

CHAPTER TWO

GROWTH AND DISTRIBUTION

2.1 Introduction

Chapter one set the scene for the growth and development of the relatively recent phenomenon of publicly financed convention centres. This component of the study traces the origins and growth of convention centres in North America using the United States as a context since it was the first country in the world to extensively adopt the modern concept of purpose-built meeting places (Law, 1987; Hughes, 1988). No attempt is made in this summary to trace the political decision making processes, and economic and social factors in each city, which may explain the site specific growth of this urban phenomenon. Instead, only the general growth trends are analyzed to provide background to the Canadian example.

2.2 Origin of Purpose Built Meeting Places

Convention centres are large meeting places normally located in cities. Their primary function is that of a meeting place for associations and organizations to gather, exchange, and share information. A number of urban historians and geographers (Wycherley, 1969; Hugo-Brunt, 1972; Vance, 1977), have shown that public assembly places were found in ancient cities for social entertainment, the assembly of church people, and as a forum for citizens' associations. Whyte (1988) pointed out that those public assembly places may be considered as a modern revival of the social evolution of 5th Century BC Greek Agoras, purposely built as multi-functional areas for assembly, markets, and religious participation.

The theme of a community-used collective space in towns was also found in Medieval times between 900 and 1400 AD when some northern and western European cities built specialized buildings known as "guildhalls". Those were designed for the governance of trades and the collective exchange of economic ideas. They were also assembly places for people involved in long distance trade and commerce activities during the day, and for social contact at night. Guildhalls tended to produce tight-knit bonds among their members, much like the bonds formed by 20th Century associations and organizations gathering for their annual conventions and tradeshow. Similarly, members of merchant guilds travelled long distances, albeit at a much slower pace, 'en masse' to their meeting places, just as modern day convention delegates do.

These examples show that the convention centre is not an entirely new concept, but simply a modern manifestation of the desire by certain groups to meet and exchange ideas in centrally located buildings. The gathering of trade, professional, fraternal and religious associations is no less significant today whether it takes place in a marketplace, a meeting house, or a convention facility.

2.3 Growth of Convention Centres

A useful background to the study of growth is provided by the diffusion literature. It revealed that there has been little attention paid to the application of those ideas in the origins and growth of convention centres. The origins, locational patterns, and phases of development can all be linked to the growth curve comments in the diffusion literature. Blaut's "alternative diffusion" theory (1987), building on previous diffusion studies by Brown (1968, 1969, 1981); Hagerstrand (1972); English and Mayfield (1972); Berry (1972); and Sheppard's review of Brown's work (1984), demonstrated the way in which the diffusion process can be applied to many urban

activities, especially those that provide specialized activities, such as convention centres.

For this study, convention centre growth is regarded as the innovation of a "built place", specifically designed for large specialized activities such as meetings by associations and organizations. The diffusion literature serves primarily as an organizing framework to summarize the development of convention centres in North America. Three ideas can be derived from the spatial diffusion literature to help explain the spread of convention centres within a given area through time. The first of these three aspects is the origin and propagator when the idea of convention centres was initiated. The second is the catalyst and build-up of growth. The third aspect considers the take-off, relevance of hierarchical filtering down and local imitation effects. The growth of most diffusion events is usually described as an S-shaped curve.

Three periods of convention centre development are normally identified in the convention centre literature. Although these have been rarely linked to concepts of diffusion, Table 2.1 helps to put the historical background of convention centre development into perspective. The table provides information on the origin and type of public assembly facility built in each growth period. Agricultural exposition centres located in fairgrounds were used earlier for large meetings that did not meet current criteria and were not quite a convention or a tradeshow. Originally those centres were places to display products, then their usefulness faded when the convention centre concept changed to one of a place to assemble people for the exchange of ideas. Hotels have always catered to groups of people, but when meetings for special groups became too big for one hotel to handle, large multi-purpose centres were introduced. The historical socio-economic factors which contributed to the pace of growth of convention centres are also noted in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1
Historical Background to North American Convention Centres

| Period | Type | Pace | Factors |
|------------|--|----------------|--|
| 1901-1945: | Origin/Propagator | Slow | |
| | 1. Agricultural exposition centres, fairground locations. | | -W.W.I, -Depression, -W.W.II, -Austerity |
| | 2. Private hotels and resorts. | | -Programs. |
| | 3. Exhibition centres. | | |
| 1946-1960: | Catalyst/Build-up | Major Increase | |
| | 1. Arena complexes, coliseums. | | -Post-war Government Intervention, -Expansionary Programs, |
| | 2. Multi-purpose public assembly facilities. | | -Public Works, -Growth of Associations, |
| | 3. Memorials to war veterans. | | -Growth in Demand. |
| 1961-1990: | Take-off/Imitation | Acceleration | |
| | 1. Large purpose-built publicly-owned centres concentrated in downtown areas. | | -Public Investment, -Urban Renewal, -Urban Amenity, -Technological Advances, |
| | 2. Renovation and modernization of older multi-purpose facilities into specialized convention centres. | | -Growth in Leisure/ Business Travel, -Growth in International Meetings, -Competitiveness, -Growth in Specialized Agencies/ Convention Bureaus. |

Source: Summarized from Jewell, 1978; Lawson, 1981; McGuinness, 1982; Graveline, 1984; Whyte, 1988; Gartrell, 1988; Guskind, 1988; Campbell, 1989; Dixon, 1989.

2.4 Extent of Growth

Figure 2.1 uses eighteen 5 year intervals between 1901-1990 to show the variation in the growth of 214 convention centres through time. The diffusion literature generalizations of the first 3 stages, namely origins, build-up, and take-off, can also be used to summarize the growth trends in Figure 2.1.

(a) Origin is the diffusion term used to describe what would develop into a new phenomenon of North American public-sector convention centres. The first convention centre constructed in the United States was the Columbus Iron Works Convention and Trade Centre built in Columbus, Georgia in 1901 (AudArena Stadium Guide, 1989:107). It originally was an agricultural exposition centre which was converted later into a purpose-built convention and trade centre. Not until 1909 was a similar type of centre constructed; the Milwaukee Exposition and Convention Centre in Wisconsin (AudArena Stadium Guide, 1989:336). The pace of growth in the first half of the century was slow during this period due to the Depression in the 1930s and World War Two in the 1940s.

(b) Build-up. It can be argued that the initial 'build-up' had started by 1946 and this phase lasted until at least 1960. The expansion of initial growth activity can be linked with the development of the first purpose-built, but privately-owned convention centre, built just north of New York City at Rockland, New York in 1954 by an American entrepreneur, Robert L. Swartz (Training, 1986:81-84). Figure 2.1 shows fluctuations in the growth of centres up to 1955, for example, from 5 in 1946 and only 3 in 1955. Then growth began to steadily increase, and another 8 centres were built between 1956-1960.

(c) Take-off. The 'take-off' phase seems a suitable description for the proliferation of 171 purpose-built centres that occurred over the next twenty-nine years,

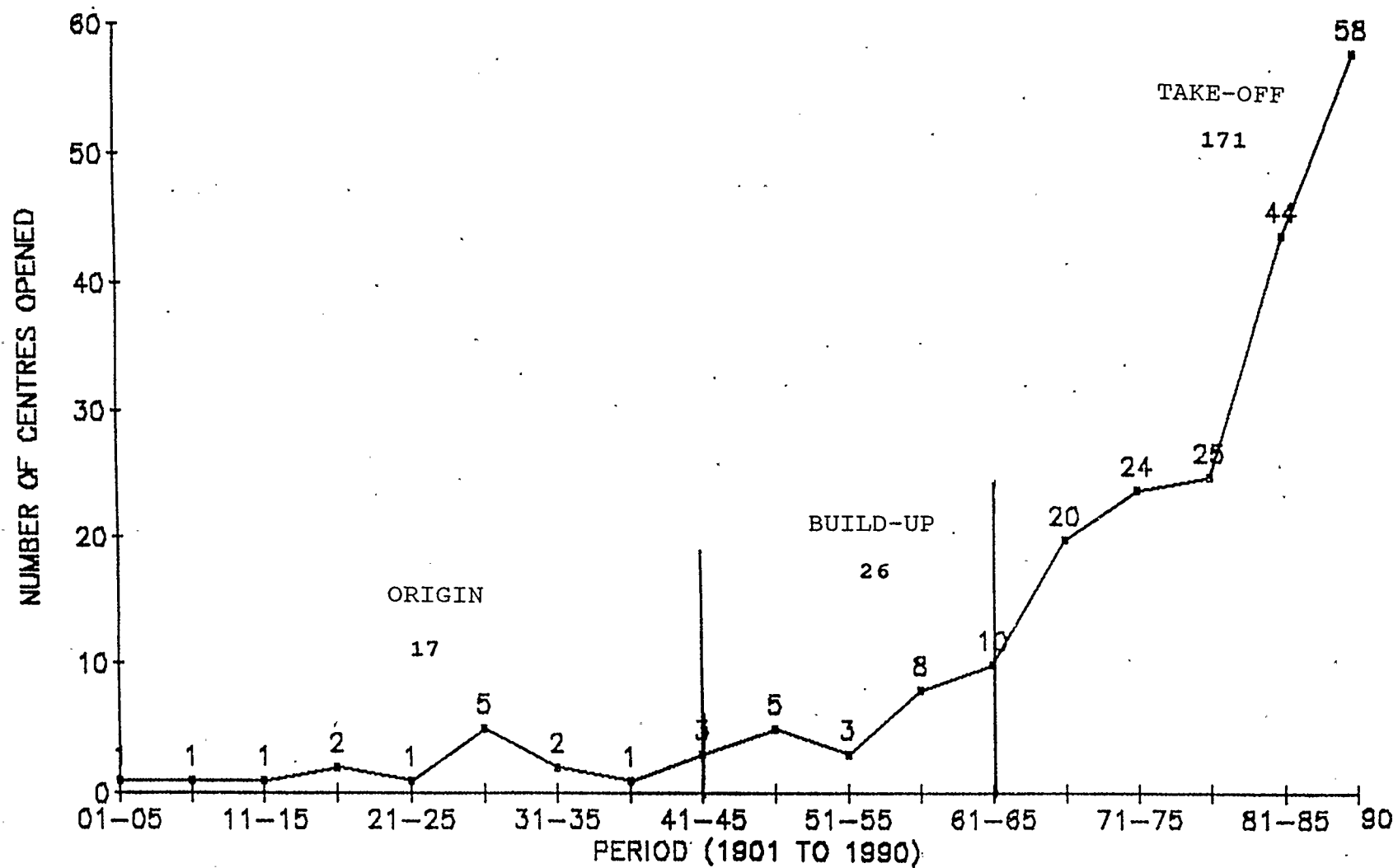


Figure 2.1 Three Stages of Growth for North American Convention Centres

between 1961-1990. But, in Canada convention centres were slow to appear. Not until 1968 did the first convention centre open in Saskatoon, Saskatchewan. It was another five years (1973) until the province of Quebec built its first convention centre in Quebec City. Two other centres were built in Alberta and Manitoba suggesting this period was really the 'take-off' for Canadian convention centres. Interestingly, no convention centres were built in Canada between 1976-1980, a period of economic recession in most of Canada.

An important reason for the Canadian 'take-off' in convention centres after 1981 stems from the federal government's program of financial assistance to help cities with construction costs (Breckenridge, 1984; Tritsch, 1989:7). During the period from 1981 to 1985 nine convention centres in five Canadian provinces were built. This represented the greatest number constructed in Canada for any 5 year period.

The governments of many cities built convention centres in recognition of special events and activities which happened to be taking place in that particular city. Seattle, for example, built its first convention centre in conjunction with the 1962 World's Fair held there (Henderson, 1982:17). In Vancouver, B.C. the Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre was constructed as part of the building going on for Expo 1986.

It has been noted that most diffusion theorists refer to five phases of growth in a typical S-shaped curve. Figure 2.1 illustrates that only the first three phases, origin, build-up, and take-off had been reached in North America by 1990. The other two features of saturation and decline had not yet been reached, as shown in the rapid growth of a total of 171 convention centres between 1961-1990.

At the end of the last year (1990) for which figures have been compiled, 214 convention centres had been built. All provinces in Canada had convention centres

except for Yukon, Northwest Territories, and Newfoundland where none had been constructed. In the U.S.A it was surprising to find out Hawaii, which is also noted as a favourable destination mainly because of its pleasant climate, did not have any public sector convention centres, although three were planned for 1991 (Association Meetings Management, 1988). Justification for Alaska's two convention centres may be that Alaska tends to attract a large proportion of exogenous visitors outside United States destinations who go there apparently for the "wilderness experience" and "Klondike" atmosphere. Six states in the United States still did not have purpose-built convention centres at the end of the third growth phase (West Virginia, Rhode Island, South Dakota, New Hampshire, Maine, and Delaware). Scarce economic resources, small geographic size of place, accessibility and situation factors, might explain why growth did not occur in those places.

It is difficult to know whether convention centre development had reached the fourth diffusion phase of market saturation by 1990. Many writers have noted (Guskind, 1988; Whyte, 1988; Graveline, 1984) that no saturation level was evident, at least not for the time-frame in which their studies were produced. Certainly the fifth phase, a decline in numbers as shown by the right tail of the S-curve, had not yet been reached, nor was there any indication of decline in the growth of convention centres identified in the five year intervals in Figure 2.1. At this time reliable predictions cannot be made about when those two phases will occur, if at all. It is very possible that we may be at the start of the fourth phase because the financial constraints faced by cities and governments could result in fewer publicly-funded centres being constructed. Hence more public-private partnerships may evolve to help pay for building costs of new centres.

2.5 Location and Distribution Patterns

Diffusion research by Brown (1968, 1969, 1981), Berry (1972), Sheppard (1984), and Blaut (1987), have described the processes of spatial change, a contagious effect and hierarchical filtering from large cities to medium and smaller cities. In particular, Blaut (1987:30) commented that "certain places are permanent loci of invention and thus are more advanced and more progressive than other places". It was beyond the purposes of this study to investigate those two effects.

What Figures 2.2 to 2.3 show is the changing distribution of the convention centres at two different time periods in North America. Figure 2.2 illustrates only 43 convention centres which were built in 42 different cities between 1901 and 1965 in cities in the United States. No convention centres were built in Canadian cities in that sixty-four year period. Figure 2.3 shows the geographic distribution patterns of 171 convention centres which were built in the 'take-off' phase over the twenty-four year period between 1966 and 1990. The map for Figure 2.4 shows the location of a total of 246 convention centres in North American cities which included the 214 centres listed in Appendix One. In total, Figure 2.4 illustrates that between 1901-1990 California, Texas, Florida, and to a lesser extent; New York, appear to have had the greatest number of convention centres built.

It should also be pointed out that a total of eighteen cities in the United States have two or more purpose-built convention centres located in their city. However, no Canadian city supports more than one publicly-financed convention centre. Because of the large number of cities mapped, an assessment of reasons why convention centre growth occurred in individual cities was generalized to those geographic areas displaying the greatest rate of growth.

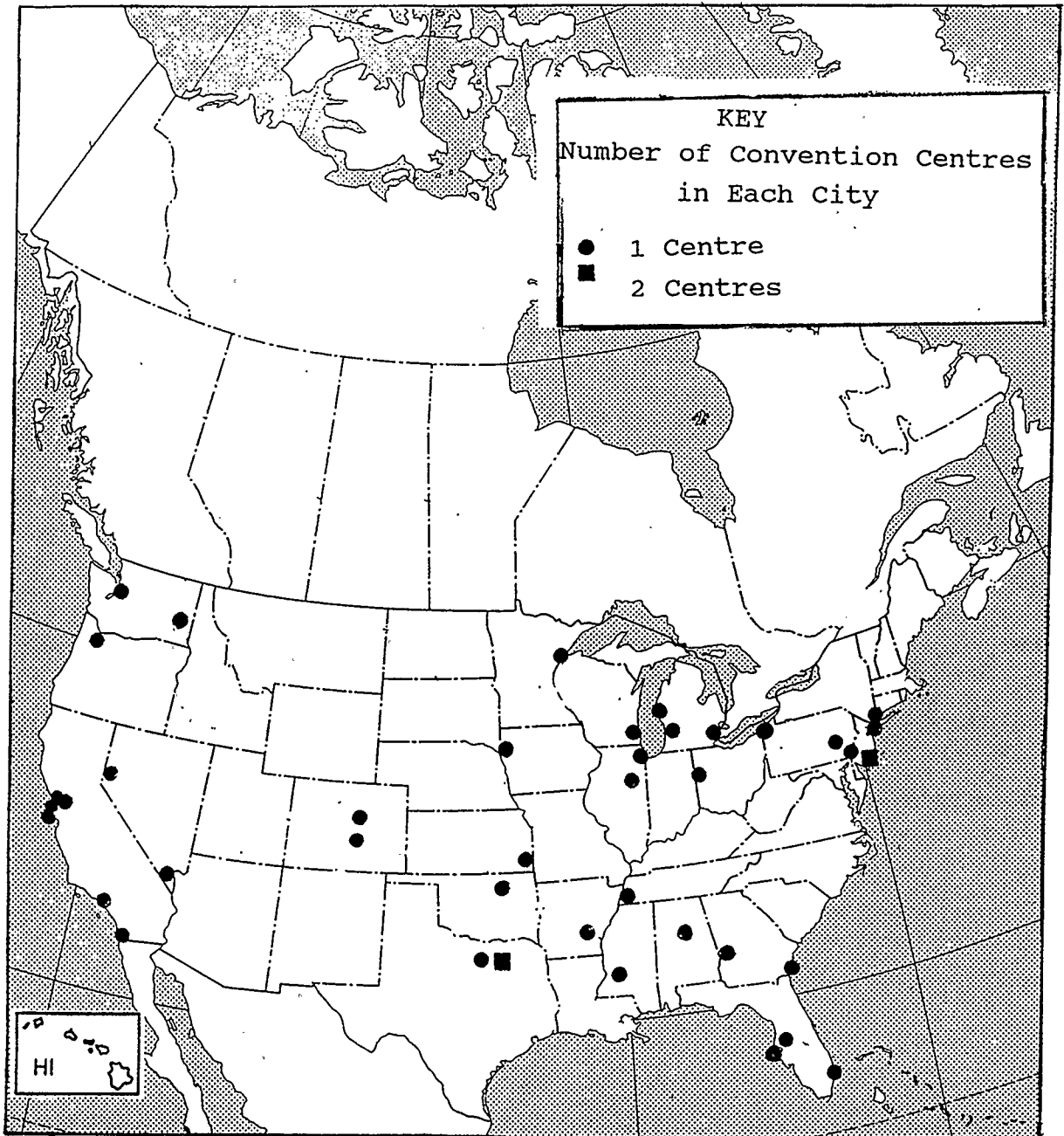


Figure 2.2 Location of North American Convention Centres
Built Between 1901-1965

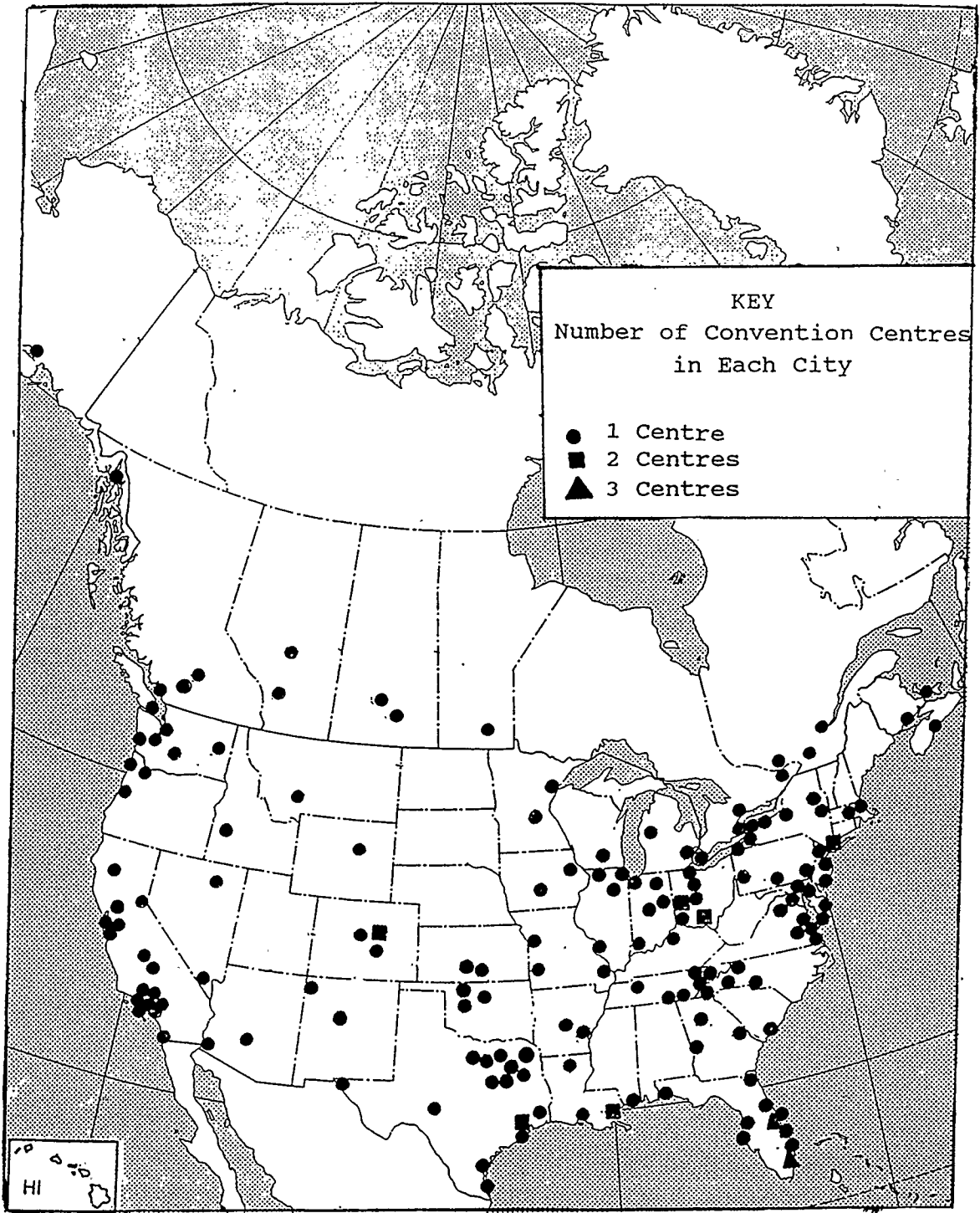


Figure 2.3 Location of North American Convention Centres
Built Between 1966-1990

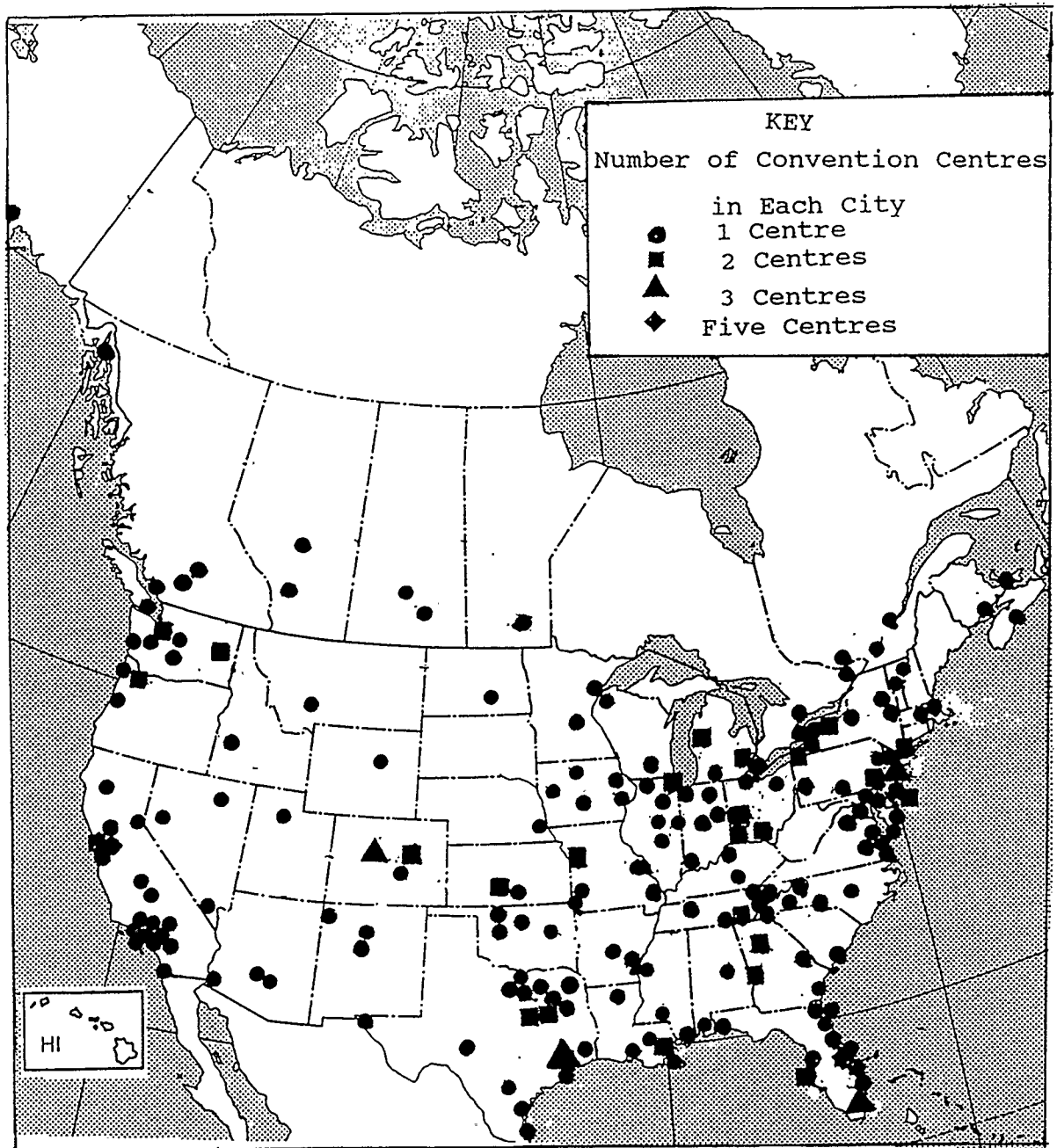


Figure 2.4 Location of 246 Convention Centres in North America

The location maps suggest that convention centres grew differentially due to several factors such as size of population, climate, amenities and financial resources. Cities that are popular tourist destinations are also likely to have a convention centre.

Figure 2.4 shows convention centres in the United States tend to be concentrated in four main geographic areas:

- (a) The Pacific Southwest Coast where twenty cities in California has twenty-one convention centres;
- (b) The Gulf of Mexico region has twenty centres located in sixteen cities in Texas;
- (c) Florida on the Southeast coast has nineteen centres located in twelve cities;
- (d) Five of the Northeastern Atlantic states also exhibit clustered distribution patterns. These are most evident in New York where there are eleven convention centres in nine cities, Pennsylvania with nine centres located in seven cities, New Jersey with eight centres in six cities, Maryland, where there are four convention centres located in as many cities, and Virginia who has five centres located in five cities.

Fewer convention centres seem to be situated in cities in the Northern and Central Interior. In North Dakota, Nebraska, Utah, and Wyoming, each state has just one city with a convention centre. Also, in the Northwestern region in the states of Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and Montana there is one city per state with one convention centre. A number of cities in the United States support more than one purpose-built convention centre. Orlando has five, Denver, Houston, and Miami each have three, while the cities of San Francisco, New York, Portland, and many others support two convention centres.

In Canada, no simple distribution pattern exists, although most of the biggest places have convention centres. Convention centres are situated in the three largest cities, Toronto, Montreal, and Vancouver; and in two medium-sized cities, Quebec City, and Ottawa. These five places have been named "destination cities" in the North American convention industry literature (Ai-by-Gam, 1989:41). This means they rate higher than other cities in Canada as a place to hold conventions. Also in Canada, four of the largest provinces with the highest proportion of population ((Rand McNalley, 1982:35X,36X), have more than one publicly-financed convention centre. British Columbia and Alberta each have two, and Ontario and Quebec each have three. Most of the cities over 100,000 population that do not have convention centres are places in the hinterland of larger cities, and are in remote areas (Sudbury, Thunderbay). There are also numerous cities in Canada in which private single-purpose convention centres, rather than publicly-funded centres were built. Charlottetown, Medicine Hat, Regina, St. John's, and Windsor, for example, have purpose-built convention centres but they are linked with privately-owned hotels.

2.6 City Function and Phases of Growth

Several writers (Cox, 1972; Jewell, 1978; Husbands, 1986; Law, 1987) have discussed various locational features which suggest convention centres may be found in cities with a specific economic function. Four of those features have been identified:

1. Sunshine cities with tourism amenities that provide pleasure and leisure attractions. These places appeal to associations for whom leisure is an important aspect of meetings (McCune, 1987:123-133. The first of a new idea for conventions was termed a "sanctuary convention centre", was built as a retreat in Monterey, California (McCune, 1987:126). Sunshine cities are usually destination places with a scenic, recreational, beach, spa and resort atmosphere, i.e. Anaheim, San Francisco, New

Orleans, Los Angeles, Orlando, Miami, Miami Beach, Las Vegas, Colorado Springs, Phoenix, Niagara Falls, Victoria, Vancouver and Halifax. The two centres built in the frontier of Alaska were probably justified to attract more tourism. What was North America's largest single level convention centre (1.3 million square feet) was built in the gambling centre of North America, Las Vegas (Graveline, 1984). The Scottsdale Conference Centre in Arizona, credited as being America's first public facility in a resort is also in the city function for tourism (Gavel, 1990:89).

2. Gateway cities are those which dominate in hub locations and are distribution centers, i.e. Seattle, Chicago, New York, Winnipeg. In 1988 the city of Seattle built a new centre with 1.4 million square feet of space.

3. Financial cores and headquarters of large institutions for science, technology, higher education, and seats of government, are also convention centre cities, namely New York, Hartford, Boston, Washington, Toronto, Ottawa/Hull, Montreal, Quebec City. Canada's largest financial city also has the country's largest convention centre, the 200,000 square foot Metro Toronto Convention Centre. Washington D.C.'s convention centre reflects its status as the country's seat of government.

4. Resource cities are also favoured, namely those cities where the economic base is connected to a particular resource industry or profession, i.e. Pittsburg, Houston, Gary, Cleveland, Calgary, Hamilton. Some resource-based cities such as Houston, Texas built convention facilities primarily for the use of Texan oil companies based there.

2.7 Summary and Conclusions

The development of purpose-built convention centres in North America can be related to three growth phases occurring between 1901-1990. However, other factors such as a city's image promotion, may provide a better explanation for the growth

curve of convention centres. They are the subject of more detailed analysis in the chapters that follow. What seems to be indisputable is that the take-off phase between 1961-1990 saw a considerable number of convention centres being built. The distribution pattern for convention centres was spread out to more cities in North America. In the future many large cities were planning to expand or renovate existing convention centres.

An issue for future studies is the need to evaluate whether growth in the number of centres could be attributed to growth in the number of associations and organizations who are the "buyers" of convention centre facilities. Those consumers seem to require an increasingly greater variety of facilities that are located in many different places. It appears new convention centres will have to offer specific amenities ranging from resort settings with an emphasis on structured recreational activities and facilities, to isolated retreats established for special business and financial meetings (Marshall, 1989; Mogel, 1989; *The Economist*, April 20, 1991:25).

CHAPTER THREE

URBAN FABRIC

3.1 Introduction

The appearance of purpose built convention centres in downtown areas in cities across North America over the last three decades signified the introduction of a new type of urban amenity. Public assembly facilities of this type were originally located at fairgrounds and in exhibition halls and arenas (Jewell, 1978; Graveline, 1984; Law, 1987). Not until the 1960s were large purpose-built centres constructed on downtown sites in cities. This chapter discusses convention centres as a new form of urban amenity, specifically: their impacts on the urban landscape (including issues in design and function); locations in cities; site selection criteria when it comes to choosing a convention venue; and differences between the selected convention centres in the type of conventions to which they catered in 1988.

3.2 Impact on the Urban Landscape

It was not until the 1950s that the convention centre concept was identified as a separate type of amenity. Graveline (1984:3), identified the rise of large conventions as being the main attribute in the shift in construction from earlier multi-purpose structures, to new single purpose-built facilities linked to large meetings. After Swartz's demonstration of the utility of convention centres in 1955 (1984:3) there was a rapid diffusion in the idea of development of massive new centres in most cities in North America.

Not surprisingly, many studies viewed convention centres as a new form of urban amenity which would stimulate economic growth and improve a city's image

(Lawson, 1981; Graveline, 1984; Ruben, 1986; Law, 1987; Boles and Elin, 1989). However, a number of other writers (Skolnik, 1984; Whyte, 1988; Guskind, 1988, Carey, 1988; Campbell, 1989; Dixon, 1989) criticized the movement toward construction of huge, sophisticated, and architecturally dramatic convention centres. Their studies identified some of the conflicts resulting from urban renewal and the trend to expand downtown amenities with convention centre development.

Skolnik's study (1984), was typical of the problem. He pointed out that the type of urban change linked with the development of convention centres was not always compatible with the ideas of local residents and often led to increased social problems. Planners and developers increasingly neglected social factors in their efforts to profit from the convention industry in inner city neighbourhoods. The dislocation of low income residents, high rents for small business space, traffic congestion, and lack of parking for people working downtown, were all identified by Skolnik as contributions to an increase in social problems.

Whyte (1988), and Campbell (1989), also discussed the conflict between publicly-funded, yet privately-used space that is inherent in the physical design and function of many convention centres. They evaluated some of the design elements and determined that the centres promoted isolated use and limited social interaction in cities, for residents. Whyte called them "great hulks of concrete, blank walls and megastructures with a sealed box format" (1988:223). Campbell termed the design and function of convention centres as "huge cubes of black narrowed glass set in vast blocks of concrete, walled containers not intended for human habitation" (1989:92). All these points seem to confirm Smith's (1977) more general view on the negative psychological value of symbolism in urban design. He pointed out that little harmony existed between buildings and people in modern cities (1977:91). The austere aesthetics

of modern architecture in many convention centres may have led to sensory deprivation and affected city residents' and visitors' behaviour.

3.3 Convention Centres as Urban Amenity

Many of the North American purpose-built convention centres (including the Canadian government-funded facilities in this study) were constructed as part of urban revitalization projects in downtown locations. Urban renewal was a response to what was perceived not only as a desire to renew the outworn fabric, but as way to replace large tracts of land for the redevelopment of hotels, offices, shops, and other services that would benefit the convention business (Lawson, 1981; Law, 1987; Mehrhoff, 1988; Carey, 1989). In Canada, large-scale downtown convention centre construction started in 1968 with the Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre. Another thirteen convention centres were constructed over the next twenty-one years culminating in the Victoria Conference Centre in 1989.

City governments intervened in the late 1960s as the redevelopment agency for public assembly buildings and introduced the concept of renewal with public funds for the private benefit of convention functions (Lawson, 1981:244). Convention centres, along with plazas, festival marketplaces, offices, city halls and hotels, were constructed as what Mehrhoff called "urban symbols which expressed personal egos, providing a focal point for civic identity" (1988:46). More importantly, civic governments viewed such development as the best way to improve the competitiveness of their city through the provision of convention facilities. In turn the centres would attract corporate and institutional interests and urban tourism to the area.

Whyte (1988) documented the problems with urban centres, noting that convention centres provided face-to-face contact for out-of-town people, and not city residents. He observed:

the future is not in the suburbs , but in the centre of the city. Like the Greek Agora each city must reassert its most ancient function as a place where people come together face to face (jacket overleaf, 1988).

Knox noted the social consequences of urban renewal, "dismantling of whole communities in order make room for ...conference centres" (1987:307).

Nevertheless, convention centres were viewed by city governments as a new urban amenity, supplementary to the construction of shopping centres, but ones which demanded public financing. Municipal governments regarded convention centres as being a substitute for declining economic activity in other sectors, and as an urban development tool to stimulate growth in downtown areas suffering from competition with suburban development.

Each of the convention centres in Canada was built as part of larger public and private amenity development. For example, the Calgary Convention Centre was physically linked during construction by the Plus 15 walkway, with private retail businesses. The Vancouver, Calgary, Hamilton, and Halifax centres individually form part of a vast public complex built in conjunction with adjacent museums, office towers, art centres, and concert halls. Private commercial development with private funding was seen as an important adjunct in the convention industry. It included hotels such as the Skyline Hotel (formerly the Westin) and Calgary Convention Centre which appear to be in the same building, restaurants, and shopping complexes. In this study, three convention centres, those in Halifax, Edmonton, and Montreal, did not have adjacent hotels physically linked with the centres in 1988-89, the years in which when the data was collected. Table 3.1, which follows, identifies the public and private amenities associated with each convention centre.

Table 3.1

**Public/Private Amenities in 1988-89 Linked With Canadian
Convention Centres**

| <u>Centre</u> | <u>Link to Other Amenities/Facilities</u> |
|--|--|
| Victoria Conference Centre: | -Empress Hotel |
| Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre: | -Cruise Ship Terminal -CN IMAX Theatre -Open-air Amphitheatre -Outdoor Plaza -Retail Complex -Pan Pacific Hotel |
| Edmonton Convention Centre: | -Canadian Aviation Hall of Fame -Connected to Canada Place and to Light Rail Transit -Restaurants |
| Calgary Convention Centre: | -Glenbow Museum -Centre for Performing Arts -Skyline Hotel -Plus 15 Connected to Retail Complex |
| Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre: | -Concert Auditorium -Performing Arts Theatre -Holiday Inn |
| Winnipeg Convention Centre: | -Performing Arts Theatre -Concourse Skywalks -Business Tower -Restaurants -Boutiques -Holiday Inn |
| Metro-Toronto Convention Centre: | -Theatre/Auditorium -CN Tower -Waterfront Revitalization -L'Hotel |
| Hamilton Convention Centre: | -Hamilton Place Theatre -Copps Coliseum -Art Gallery of Hamilton -Public Library |

Table 3.1 (cont)

| | |
|---|--|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Commonwealth Square -Farmers Market -Office Tower -Jackson Square Shopping Centre -Eaton Centre -Sheraton Hamilton Hotel -Royal Connaught Hotel -Holiday Inn |
| Ottawa Congress Centre: | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -National Art Gallery -National Arts Centre -Rideau Centre Shopping Centre -Westin Hotel |
| Palais des Congres, Hull: | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Montcalm Art Gallery -City Hall -Office Tower -Shopping Complex |
| Palais des Congres de Quebec: | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Place' Quebec -Movie Theatres -Commercial Complex -Hilton International Hotel -Auberge des Gouverneurs |
| Palais des Congres de Montreal: | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Place- d'Armes Metro Station -Ville Marie Expressway -Underground Shopping Complex |
| Saint John Trade and Convention Centre: | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -City Market -Harbourfront Revitalization -Skywalk to City Hall -Market Square Complex -Brunswick Square -Hilton International Hotel |
| Halifax World Trade and Convention Centre: | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Halifax Metro Centre -Office Tower -World Trade Centre -Retail Promenade. |

Source: Compiled by author from convention centre brochures, and from communication with administrators at the 14 centres, 1989-1990.

3.4 Location Patterns Within Cities

Over the last three decades convention centres have become significant features of the North American inner city. In the past the convention facility industry was dominated by free standing private sector hotels and resorts. The appearance of convention centres signified the introduction of a new element of highly visible nodes within the urban fabric which also affected location decisions of other land uses. Convention centres were originally built in the older part of the downtown core of many cities, because these were locations that formed the derelict old part of the CBD, and were sites for urban renewal. The most important issue for urban researchers appears to have been whether convention centres were an urban panacea worth the investment (Meetings and Incentive Travel, April, 1987:15). More recent research on location patterns of convention centres has focussed on explanations about preferences for urban areas, city function, linkages with urban amenities, urban renewal, and less frequently, potential links to historic boosterism and the need for growth and economic development.

Geographers have a special interest in the role of location in the siting of public amenities (Cox, 1972). An examination of the locational characteristics of the cities convention centres are located in, and an analysis of site features within the city, were carried out to see if large cities, as major providers of convention facilities, always build their publicly-owned centres on downtown sites instead of peripheral locations. The major justification for those downtown sites is because there are certain types of resources and amenities (hotels, retail services, attractions, entertainment, and transportation services) available there, which the 'buyers' of convention facilities demand in their choice of destination.

Undoubtedly, the tradition of location decisions and where new developments would occur in a given urban area were based on political and government influence, supported by ideas that the urban infrastructure needed redeveloping and revitalization. The concentration of urban publicly-owned facilities in the central business district over the last thirty years was explored by Mehrhoff (1988:51) who termed the trend 'hegemonic growth', a reflection of the early 1900s civic boosterism movement whose proponents blended reforms with the promotion of tourism, enlarged trade, and revitalization of the local economy.

Location is one of the most sensitive issues in building a convention facility because the centre is expected to contribute to the civic, economic, and social life of a city. Previous studies (Jewell, 1978; Lawson, 1981; Graveline, 1984; Law, 1985; Carey, 1988, Lowden, 1989), have identified the downtown location of some types of urban institutions as one where there is a factor of compatibility with other nearby urban amenities. Convention centres, for example, must provide access to surrounding uses such as hotels, retail services, entertainment facilities, restaurants, transportation routes, parking locations, and pedestrian flow.

Recently there have been a number of location studies which compare the importance of downtown convention centre sites with those on the periphery of a city (Delsohn, 1988:24-25; Harrison, 1988:5; MacDonald, 1988:2; Webendorfer, 1988:25-27; Whyte, 1988:313). A research and development specialist (Martin, September 26, 1990) at the Prime Osborne 111 Convention Centre in Jacksonville, Florida pointed out the disadvantages of a decision made to locate Jacksonville's publicly-owned facility in a restored railway terminal on the outskirts of the downtown, a site in the midst of a poverty pocket. He explained: "the foremost requirement necessary for the successful operation of a convention centre is quality hotel accommodation on-site, and

the outskirts do not have that requirement to contend in the competitive convention business" (1990:3).

It also seems likely that the location of a convention centre within the urban fabric has considerable implications for the centre's overall market share. Not surprisingly, one of the key ingredients identified by Martin (Sept. 26, 1990) was that convention centres cannot exist on their own. They depend on hotel rooms, restaurants, and stores, and downtown is where most of these resources are located. For example, convention guides suggest that normally there should be at least 800 hotel rooms available in convenient proximity to the convention site. Returning to the Florida example, Martin also demonstrated (1990:4) that because the Prime Osborne's isolated location did not have those functional basics necessary for a convention oriented hotel, fewer than expected conventions were attracted to the centre.

Hotel accommodation also has become a key issue in recent comments about the need for a new and larger convention centre in Calgary. The centre's sales director indicated that hotel accommodation was the number one factor to consider in the alternative sites being proposed. The present downtown site is adequately served by hotels, but other sites proposed in low income residential areas, i.e. Victoria Park, may not be able to link hotels with the centre as the present one does (Janet Bennett, September 12, 1991).

An earlier study by Law (1987:92) produced some evidence of the impact of convention centres which were concentrated on downtown sites. He pointed out that this type of institution continued the typical centralization of commercial, cultural, and leisure activities in the central business district. According to Law's criteria (1987:92), the location attributes required for centralizing convention activity were fourfold: modern facilities, accessibility, a large and varied range of accommodation preferably

close to the facilities, and an interesting and attractive environment including tourist attractions, shops, and entertainment.

The brochures obtained from the convention centres described the location of each of the fourteen convention centre structures in their city. All of the convention centres were examined (Table 3.2) to determine which convention centres had these features.

All of the Canadian convention centres were built in downtown locations. Table 3.2 shows three location features associated with them: distance from airport, on-site parking, and hotel rooms available near the convention centre. Downtown sites may have been developed in part due to accessibility and travel time to and from airports, and proximity to hotel accommodation. Indeed, except for the Edmonton Convention Centre, Palais des Congres de Montreal, and Halifax World Trade and Convention Centre, all were connected with private hotels. The provision of parking locations within walking distance of the convention facilities is another important feature with the varied numbers shown in Table 3.2 (Law, 1987; Boles and Elin, 1989).

In several cities, issues other than the distance factor to and from airports handicap support for an active convention industry. The consequences of weather conditions, and inadequate airline service in the number of flights and capacity, could be added to the list of key constraints. This is different from the problem of "where in the city to locate the centre", and is an issue about airline connections between cities. For example, the Edmonton Convention Centre's biggest reason for loss of conventions is reported to be inadequate air service to the city. There are not enough flights to absorb the extra convention traffic which a 2000 delegate group would require (Chalmers, 1990:D7).

Table 3.2

**Location Features Contained in Promotional Brochures for
1988**

| Downtown Convention Centres | Distance from Airport (Km) | On-Site Parking Within Centre | Hotel Rooms Available 15 Min. Walk |
|--|---------------------------------------|--|---|
| Victoria Conference Centre | 16 | 310 | 2,200 |
| Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre | 16 | 770 | 6,000 |
| Edmonton Convention Centre | 20 | 650 | 2,500 |
| Calgary Convention Centre | 16 | none | 2,600 |
| Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre | 8 | none | 1,750 |
| Winnipeg Convention Centre | 8 | 525 | 5,000 |
| Metro Toronto Convention Centre | 28.8 | 1200 | 10,000 |
| Hamilton Convention Centre | 16/56 | 800 | 5,500 |
| Ottawa Congress Centre | 14.4 | 1500 | 5,000 |
| Palais des Congres de Hull | 9.6 | 600 | 3,264 |
| Palais des Congres de Montreal | 11/64 | 400 | 8,800 |
| Palais des Congres de Quebec City | 12.8 | 1000 | 5,000 |
| Saint John Trade and Convention Centre | 24 | 700 | 915 |
| Halifax World Trade and Convention Centre | 16 | 700 | 2,600 |

Notes: Montreal has two airports, Dorval and Mirabel. Hamilton is also 56 Km. from Toronto International Airport. On-site parking is for indoor convention centre parking only. Most of the centres had ample outdoor parking spaces available nearby.

Source: Compiled from information in the Tradeshow and Convention Guide, 1988; AudArena Stadium Guide, 1989; Successful Meetings Magazine, issues for 1986-89, the convention centre brochures, and personal communication with convention centre personnel.

3.5 Decision Criteria in Selection of a Convention Centre

For convention centres, a key geographical question would be the decisions made by convention organizers about where to locate their next meeting. No study of this process seems to have been carried out regarding: At what places are conventions held? Where did associations go and what facilities did they use in previous years? How is the locational decision arrived at and by whom?

A convention site is chosen, in part, based upon the decision-makers' perceptions of the convention centre's and city's ability to satisfy the needs of the association and its members needs. The selection process is about the way information is received concerning a convention destination, its physical, social and commercial environment, and how perception of that information influences the destination decision. Mill and Morrison pointed out (1985:15-36) that a strong set of decision criteria will have been developed if the convention decision maker has visited many convention sites and knows which sites may, or may not, please association members.

Besides location, however, there are a wide range of other variables to consider in the site selection process. While getting to the destination is the number one factor in making a selection on where to hold a convention, other criteria are involved in the "persuasion" process carried out by convention centre sales people, and the association or corporate executives who ultimately make the final decision about site selection.

The work of Fortin, Ritchie and Arsenault (1976), Jewell (1978), Lawson (1981), Mill and Morrison (1985), McIntosh and Goeldner (1986), Ashworth and Goodall (1990), among others, have attempted to define and describe motivations for selecting travel and convention destinations. Those writers also discussed at length, various behavioural aspects; e.g. the perceptual biases and elements associated with business interests, political pressures, and location features. To fully understand the

extent of influence on association executives by convention marketing strategies, would require a thesis in its own right. After all, there are over 23,000 national associations in the United States alone (personal communication, Calgary Convention and Visitors Bureau, September 19, 1991), to whom conventions in Canada are marketed. One way to do this would be a sample survey of all national and international associations.

3.6 Site Selection Issues for Convention Organizers

The 'buyers' of convention facilities are very selective in demanding specific types of services which they require. While these issues provide the framework within which the decision takes place, the actual process of decision making is complicated and rarely studied in a geographical context. The decision made to hold a convention at a particular convention facility is based, in part, on the decision makers' evaluation of the quality and capacity of services offered at a convention centre, in combination with features the city offers, and advance negotiations between convention centre sales people and the client, which attract convention bookings. Table 3.3 summarizes the most common attributes considered in the evaluation of the choice of one convention centre over another. Seven came from Heymann (1986:204); the eighth item "Image of City and Region" was added because that attribute is the subject of discussion in Chapter Six.

Many of the techniques involved in the actual sales process are relatively standard among convention centres. What is presented here is a simplified description of the process involved by Canadian convention centres. These factors were taken from the literature and supported by personal communication with a former sales director from the Calgary Convention Centre (Debra Blanchfield, October 22, 1988, and May 25, 1989).

Table 3.3
Attributes Considered in Site Selection

-
- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Transportation: | -Air service, links to major cities (for non-local conventions) |
| | -Distance from airport |
| | -Transportation to convention centre |
| | -Charter buses, taxis, rental vehicles |
| | -On-site parking facilities. |
| 2. Accommodation: | -Number of hotel rooms available |
| | -Condition of rooms, cleanliness |
| | -Secure locks |
| | -Smoke detectors/sprinklers |
| | -Guest comfort, wake up calls, room service |
| | -Heating and air-conditioning service. |
| 3. Quality and Age of Convention Centre Property: | -If more than eight years old when was it last refurbished? |
| | -Are any meeting rooms, exhibit areas, restaurants, under renovation when the group is meeting? |
| 4. Maintenance of Property: | -Poor or well-maintained |
| | -Condition of furniture |
| | -Dirtiness, cleanliness |
| | -24 hour maintenance |
| | -Employees in uniform. |
| 5. Lay Out of Property: | -Good signage |
| | -Convenience to meeting area/s |
| | -Distance between meeting facilities and hotel rooms |
| | -Shops available |
| | -Security |
| | -Recreational facilities available. |
| 6. Food and Beverage Service: | -Restaurants/bars |
| | -Entertainment |
| | -Large group meals available |
| | -Can banquet menu be planned or must it be chosen from pre-determined menus? |
| 7. Registration Standards: | -Block booking or complimentary hotel rooms |
| | -Advance deposits/penalties for late arrival. |
| 8. Image of City and Region: | -Location, recreation, scenery, culture. |
-

Source: 1-7 from Heymann, September, 1986:204.

However, it does help explain the most important steps which convention sales people are involved in, when it comes to convincing association executives that a particular place is advantageous for holding their convention. Seven key issues have been isolated:

1. Up to five years of advance negotiation and the building of mutual trust between the convention centre and the customers before the sales process is completed.

2. "Seeing is believing". In addition to promotional brochures, an executive director of an association will often make several familiarization trips to inspect the convention facility and the city.

3. Annual convention for convention organizers where they work with sales staff, planners and consultants, in determining site selection.

4. Follow-up after a convention is over to get those associations back to the city.

5. Contractual penalties to cover cancellations. Such was the case in March, 1991 when a combination of business interests and political pressure forced by the U.S. and Canadian Shellfish Grower's Association resulted in cancellation of a 400 person convention at the Victoria Conference Centre. The city had dumped raw sewage in the ocean, an action in conflict with the Shellfish Grower's policy that shellfish should not be grown in water where there is sewage because it leads to food poisoning. A U.S. law also requires all ocean front cities to treat sewage before it is dumped into the sea. Consequently, the city lost about \$300,000 to the local economy and the convention was moved to Richmond, B.C. where sewage is sent to a treatment plant (Canadian Press, The Province, 1991).

6. Priority booking policies that the convention centres consider separately. They include:

- (a) the projected overall economic impact of the convention on the city, and the province;
- (b) total number of hotel rooms required;
- (c) projected revenue to facility in space rental revenue, and projected revenue from concessions and building services;
- (d) time of year;
- (e) the potential for repeat booking;
- (f) previous history and reputation of the client with respect to use of other similar facilities.

7. The issue of non-repeatability by associations who tend to follow a cycle where the same convention centre may not be booked again within a ten year period.

3.7 Differences in Types of Conventions

Gartrell (1988:109) wrote of the importance of understanding the convention marketplace and its sales potential to specific target audiences. He suggested that the identification of various types of social, fraternal, educational, medical, scientific, commercial and retail associations should be a priority for convention sales personnel. One goal in effectively marketing a city is to try and solicit and attract those organizations whose interests are similar to the locational function of a city. Five general categories of associations which conduct conventions were identified by Hughes (1988:162). They are:

1. International government organizations;
2. International non-government organizations;
3. Multi-national business organizations and corporations;
4. National, provincial, state, and local organizations and institutions;
5. National, provincial, state, and local business concerns.

Understandably, each of these types of organizations or institutions probably books meetings whose subject matter is directly related to their association's interests. If choice of a city in which to hold their convention is linked to their group's interests, city function might be an important determinant. For example, it would be highly unlikely that the Japanese car maker Toyota would hold its annual convention in Saskatoon where it has no affiliates, whereas the car maker Volvo would might hold a convention in Toronto where its nearby Guelph and Milton plants, manufacturers, and sales facilities are located (Ai-by-Gam, 1989:41).

Another classification can be based on the subject orientation of conventions held at the convention centres by each association. In an attempt to link city function to the activities and interests of the association, the differences in types of conventions held in Canadian convention centres, was investigated. A classification was derived from a review of the names of associations, organizations, companies and groups who held conventions in 1988 at 13 of the convention centres. Seven different categories of convention types were identified from the convention centre 1988/89 Annual Reports, and from a listing of conventions in the 1988 Directory of Conventions:

1. Technical, scientific associations;
2. Commercial, retail associations;
3. Medical, health associations;
4. Government, political associations;
5. Religious, fraternal associations;
6. Travel, tourism, associations;
7. Education, legal, associations.

These categories do not represent any order of priority, but reflect the organization or association name which booked the convention. Only the highest and

lowest type of convention held at each centre is listed in Table 3.4. The Victoria Conference Centre was included because, although it did not hold any conventions until 1989, the bookings were finalized in 1988.

Table 3.4

Differences in Types of Conventions in Each Centre in 1988

| <u>Convention Centre</u> | <u>High</u> | <u>Low</u> |
|--------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| Vict. Ott. | Technical/Scientific | |
| Vic. Edmt. | | Religious/Fraternal |
| Tor.St.Jhn. | | |
| Hal. | | |
| Van. Calg. | Commercial/Retail | |
| Sask. Tor. | | |
| Ham. St. Jhn. | | |
| Van. Winn. | | |
| Mont. | | Education/Legal |
| Edmon. Que. | Government/Political | |
| Hal. | | |
| Calg. Sask. | | Travel/Tourism |
| Ham. Ott. | | |
| Winn. | Religious/Fraternal | |
| Mon. | Medical/Health | |
| Que. | | Medical/Heath |

Note: Information for Palais des Congres de Hull was incomplete so it was not entered.

Source: Summarized from Annual Reports, 1988; Directory of Conventions, 1988/89.

3.7.1 Differences Between the Convention Centres

(a) Victoria Conference Centre. The newest of Canada's convention facilities was booked primarily for technical and scientific type conventions. As Victoria is better known as the capital city and provincial government seat one could question whether there is a link between association interests and city function.

(b) Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre. Geographic location near the United States border, and the potential for retail sales to Canadian customers, may help explain the trend toward commercial/retail conventions.

(c) Edmonton Convention Centre. This centre concentrates on conventions linked to government and political associations, possibly reflecting the city's function as the capital of Alberta, with access to political decision makers (Crockatt, 1990, D3). Table 3.4 shows that religious/fraternal groups were held the least. This may change as the city's diverse religious base is marketed to religious associations (Crockatt, 1990:D3).

(d) Calgary Convention Centre. Calgary's function can be viewed as business-oriented, associated with oil industry and cattle. Yet, the corporate market is not solicited by the convention centre due to the facility's comparative small size. The primary type of convention held at the centre was revealed in a mix of key United States and Canadian commercial and retail association interests.

(e) Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre. One would think since Saskatoon is an agriculturally based city, it would serve the interests of related scientific and technical interests. However, the major type of convention held there was commercial/retail.

(f) Winnipeg Convention Centre. It had the distinction of having the most religious oriented conventions. Possibly, this reflects the city's ethnic population with their traditional religious values.

(g) Metro Toronto Convention Centre and (h) Hamilton Convention Centre. Both the city of Toronto and city of Hamilton convention centres catered to conventions for Canadian and American commercial and retail associations. This helps to support Tritsch's premise that those cities compete for acclaim as international commercial and financial centres (Tritsch, 1986:35). Geographic location near the U.S. market may also be a positive feature for marketing the Metro-Toronto and Hamilton convention centres.

(i) Ottawa Congress Centre. Technical/scientific conventions were highest on the list for Ottawa. One would expect to find more government/political conventions in Canada's capital city. However, there are important national research facilities (and key decision makers) located in Ottawa.

(j) Palais des Congres de Montreal. The city of Montreal convention centre primarily held medical/health associations. The facility is cited as having world status in conventions for international medical conferences, and scientific associations and seems to be living up to its billing (Tritsch, 1986:20).

(k) Palais des Congres de Quebec City. Quebec City's function as the province's capital city was reflected in the high frequency of government/political conventions booked there.

(l) Saint John Trade and Convention Centre. Most of this centre's conventions were marketed to smaller sized national and local commercial/retail associations, because the facility's capacity is just 2000 people. The city's location seems to be a

negative feature for conventions because it is neither close enough nor isolated enough to interest many organizations.

(m) Halifax World Trade and Convention Centre. The city appears to be a favourite location for hosting international and national government and political conventions. Associations probably find the maritime culture and landscape, and the city's function as the capital city of Nova Scotia, positive features for holding that type of convention in Halifax.

3.8 Summary and Conclusions

The growth of publicly-owned convention centres is a distinctive example of a new form of urban amenity added to the downtown core of the urban landscape. This chapter provided a broad overview of several issues which researchers should be considering in future studies. The rapid proliferation of convention centres came from city government urban renewal policies dating from the 1960s. Within the urban fabric in Canada there can be little doubt that downtown sites, rather than peripheral ones, for the construction of convention centres.

An important issue in this chapter was that Canadian convention centres were part of a scheme formulated by civic governments to develop convention centres linked with public-private amenities, and to stimulate economic growth and improve a city's image. An important geographical question about why convention centres are located in downtown cores of cities, was addressed in an examination of certain types of locational criteria. Limited attention by geographers has been paid in the literature to the site selection process, and reasons different associations and organizations choose city A or city B. The discussion has identified some of the key issues to be considered. Finally, the differences between the type of conventions held in each city were

summarized. The issue of why one convention site is chosen over another is a more complex issue that deserves its own thesis beyond the scope of this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

VARIATIONS BETWEEN CONVENTION CENTRES: SIZES AND ECONOMIC IMPACTS

4.1 Introduction

A major goal of convention centre marketing is to obtain conventions to economically enhance the city in which facilities are located. "The bottom line" is for visitors to spend lots of money in the city where the convention is held. The economic importance of the convention industry in cities has been documented from different descriptions by (Jewell, 1978; Holcombe and Beauregard, 1981; Graveline, 1984; Rees and Lambert, 1985; Mill and Morrison, 1985; Gallagher, 1985; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986). Geographers have also analyzed the economic role of specialized activities linked with the convention, recreation and tourism industry (Oosterhaven and Van Der Knijff, 1987; Berg and Sjöholt, 1988; Van Weesup, 1988; Mitchell, 1988; Hughes, 1988). If we accept Jewell's view (1978:32) that convention centres attract outside dollars, generate local spending, attract additional public and private investment, and instill a sense of community image or pride, then their primary purpose should provide a positive economic impact on the city they are located in.

This chapter summarizes economic information collected from thirteen of the 14 publicly-owned convention centres in Canada for 1988. The Victoria Conference Centre was not included in the analysis because it did not open for conventions until January, 1989. Estimates were calculated for the Winnipeg Convention Centre from the Directory of Conventions (1988/89) because the economic information requested

from the Director was refused. In this chapter three variations in the sizes and economic impacts are reviewed and discussed:

- (a) issues surrounding the expenditure of public money to build and operate the centres;
- (b) variations in size and cost that centres face in terms of construction;
- (c) estimates of direct spending by convention delegates.

4.2 Involvement of Government in Financing Construction

The majority of public-sector convention centres constructed since 1968 in Canada were built, owned, operated and financed in part, with public money involving all three levels of federal, provincial, or municipal governments. The economic advantages anticipated from publicly-financed centres, was commonly used by provincial and municipal government-owned centres to justify their cost. Issues involved in North American convention centre construction and operation costs have been summarized in many articles by Jewell (1978); Persky (1980); Lawson (1981); McGuinness (1982); Graveline (1984); Breckenridge (1984); Skolnik (1984); Dunn (1984); Cashman (1988); Star (1988), and Cattaneo and Jang (1988).

Two alternative attitudes exist in terms of arguments for and against the involvement of government in convention centre development with tax payer dollars.

(a) Opponents Criticisms:

1. One criticism is that the facilities primarily benefit private sector hotel, restaurant and entertainment businesses (Persky, 1980; Graveline, 1984; Gallagher, 1985; Hughes, 1988).

2. It has been shown that initial construction cost estimates often escalate by the time construction starts. For example, the original 1979 cost estimate of \$35 million for the Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre (Persky, 1980), quadrupled to nearly

\$145 million when it was finally built in 1987. In Edmonton, the construction costs for the convention centre almost tripled from an estimated \$32 million when work began in 1979 (Cashman, 1988) to \$82 million by the time it was operating in 1983.

3. McGuiness (1982:13), observed that proponents of publicly-owned convention centres fail to recognize that construction costs of facilities will not return sufficient direct revenues to recover costs when construction estimates are too low.

4. Others believe the centres drain tax dollars because they never bring in sufficient revenues from facility rentals or delegates to recover expenditures for operating costs (Dunn, 1984:B3; Cattaneo and Jang, 1988:F6; Star, 1988).

5. Downtown businesses face tax increases to subsidize convention centre costs, and the city governments who own the centres and finance their operating expenses, face a disproportionate share of costs (Dunn, 1984:B3; Cattaneo and Jang, 1988:F6; Star, 1988).

6. Neither the city or business sector receive any tax revenues or tax benefits from conventions. Instead, revenues go to provincial and federal governments (Dunn, 1984:B3; Cattaneo and Jang, 1988: F6; Star, 1988).

(b) Support for Government Intervention:

Four opposing viewpoints have been presented by proponents of government financed convention centres (Jewell, 1978; Graveline, 1984; Cashman, 1988).

1. Convention centres bring in new money to the local economy even though the centres may not have made a profit from their convention bookings.

2. The new money creates a multiplier effect through "inducement to further spending in the local economy." This argument is the strongest justification used by proponents for convention centre construction.

3. Convention centres are touted as "activity catalysts" for additional public and private investment linked with the expansion of amenities in the tourism and hospitality industry.

4. The role of convention centres has substantially helped in the redevelopment of city centres.

4.3 Variations in Size of Convention Centres

Regression analysis was used to determine if there are any systematic relationships between size and other variables. The independent variable used was the size of each convention centre. The three dependent variables were construction costs, operating expenses, and total number of convention delegates. The Pearson Product-Moment Correlations are noted below:

| | Size | Cost | Delegates | Expenses |
|------|--------|-------|-----------|----------|
| Size | 1.0000 | .7949 | .6540 | .3280 |

Scatterplots were produced in the linear regression analysis to graphically show if the variables were related (Figures 4.1 to 4.3), and to identify the outliers/exceptions.

4.3.1 Size and Cost of Construction

The convention centres in this study collectively contribute almost 1.4 million square feet of space to the Canadian convention industry. The cost category (in millions of dollars) is related to four different factors: building costs which include land purchase for the facility site, on-site parking facilities, labour costs, including union or non-union rates and weather constraints, standard of architectural design, structural components and services. Unit cost per square foot was calculated to describe

variations existing among the centres. The construction costs for centres in Table 4.1 does not represent any financial investment for adjacent private and public amenities. Size is the total gross floor area in the facility, and it represents the scale of operation for the centre's lobby space, meeting rooms, main convention hall, exhibit area, banquet room, auditorium, lecture theatre, and ballroom. Construction costs for the Hamilton Convention Centre built in 1981, could not be quoted precisely, but was approximated as \$14 million dollars by the centre's Operations Manager (telephone enquiry by the author, December 22, 1990, and letter from the convention centre):

The Convention Centre was built in conjunction with the Office Tower occupied mainly by Government of Ontario departments...because of this, a substantial proportion of the cost was contributed by the Provincial Government and I have been unable to find out the exact figures (excerpt of letter from the Assistant Administrator, Hamilton Convention Centre, Dec. 17, 1990).

Of course, there are a number of factors contributing to costs that vary with city population size, standards of architectural design, special services installed, the age of the facility which also reflects the rate of inflation, and level of investment required.

Despite the number of variations described above, Figure 4.1 shows that cost of construction tends to increase linearly with increases in size, except for Vancouver, Edmonton, and Toronto, who appear to be more expensive when size and cost are compared. The overall correlation is 0.795, although it must be stressed that two places, Vancouver and Toronto are much bigger than the others, producing an 'outlier' effect. The most costly convention centre was Vancouver's 139,017 square foot centre which cost almost twice as much as the Metro-Toronto Centre, which is the largest in size.

Table 4.1
Rank Order by Cost of Construction in Year Built

| Facility Location | Year Opened | Cost (\$mill) | Size Sq. Ft. | \$Cost Per Sq.Ft. |
|----------------------|----------------|------------------|------------------|----------------------|
| Quebec City | 1973 | \$4.8 | 62,000 | \$ 77. |
| Saint John | 1983 | 5.8 | 25,000 | 232. |
| Saskatoon | 1968 | 6.9 | 37,250 | 185. |
| Hull | 1981 | 8.6 | 63,000 | 136. |
| Calgary | 1974 | 8.8 | 50,000 | 176. |
| Hamilton | 1981 | 14.0 | 60,000 | 233. |
| Victoria | 1989 | 22.0 | 70,000 | 314. |
| Winnipeg | 1975 | 24.0 | 105,000 | 229. |
| Halifax | 1985 | 24.0 | 100,000 | 240. |
| Ottawa | 1983 | 40.0 | 97,900 | 409. |
| Toronto | 1984 | 77.0 | 200,000 | 385. |
| Montreal | 1983 | 81.5 | 190,000 | 428. |
| Edmonton | 1983 | 82.0 | 190,000 | 431. |
| Vancouver | 1987 | 144.8 | 139,017 | 1042. |
| Total: | | \$535.4 | 1,389,167 | |

Note: Dollar values are the historical costs, not converted to 1990 values.

Source: Compiled from communication with convention centre or city hall personnel in each city, Sept-Dec.1990.

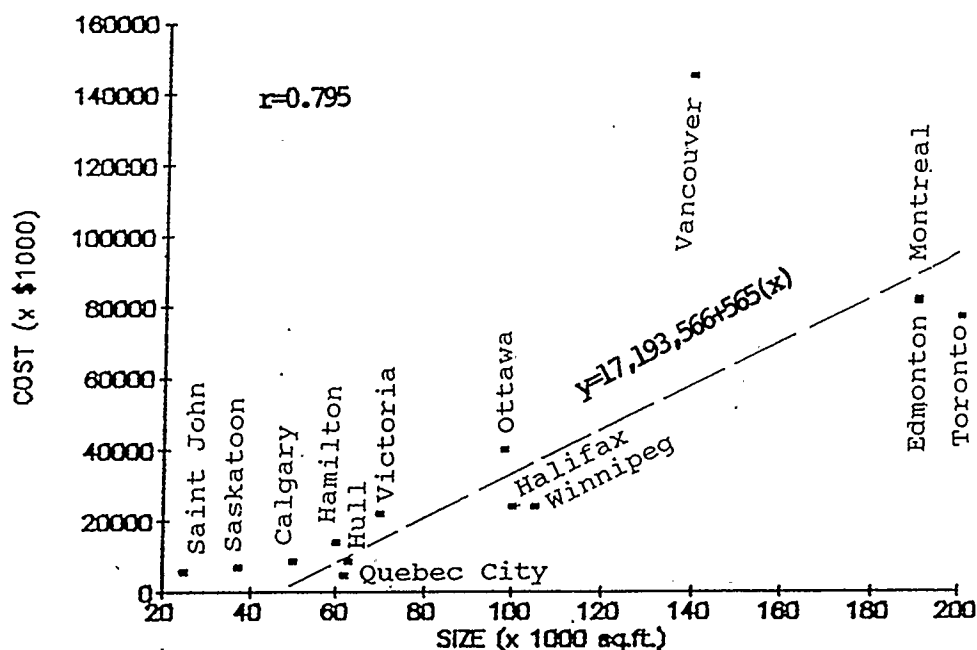


Figure 4.1 Graph of Function of Facility Size and Cost

Cost variations for Vancouver and Edmonton convention centres in the graph (Figure 4.1) are higher than the general trend would suggest. This is probably best attributed to their architectural design. Symbolism of place was an important issue which was dealt with in the section on design elements in Chapter Three (Whyte, 1988; Campbell, 1989), in the Urban Fabric chapter. Vancouver's marine symbolism is very evident in the Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre which was designed and built as a three-level cruise ship sunk in the harbour, with five sails protruding from its top floor. Similarly, the Edmonton Convention Centre exhibited costly design features because it was built "stacked" down the banks of the North Saskatchewan River.

Despite these examples, the majority of convention centres consist of what Whyte described as the "sealed box format" (1988:223). The Metro-Toronto Convention Centre was built like many others in Canada as a standard box-shaped structure. Since the other ten centres tend to cluster close to the regression line it suggests they are relatively homogeneous in facility size and construction costs.

A better explanation for the variation in construction costs might also lie in the city's ability to get funding from federal and provincial levels of government. Between 1981-1985 the federal government in Canada had a Trade and Convention Centre program which provided grants totalling \$69 million dollars to assist in construction of convention and trade centres (Breckenridge, 1984:B1,B14; Tritsch, 1989). Provision of these grants was part of the federal government's goal to achieve an approximate regional balance of centres across the country. Eight publicly-owned convention centres were constructed during that period and assisted with federal money for such projects in Edmonton, Toronto, Hamilton, Ottawa, Hull, Montreal, Halifax, and Saint John. The six other centres in Victoria, Vancouver, Calgary, Saskatoon, Winnipeg, and Quebec

City, did not receive any federal subsidy because they were constructed before or after the qualifying period.

Despite the program, and before decisions were made on the number of new centres to build, the government failed to carry out cost-benefit analyses which took into account wider issues such as future operational costs, socio-economic benefits to the area as a whole, and the extent to which facility size and location would meet long-term convention industry growth (Breckenridge, 1984). The consequences of those problems are explored in greater depth in the section on operational agreements.

Varying amounts of other federal, provincial and municipal assistance were given for convention centre construction besides the Trade and Convention Centre Program grants. For example, the Calgary Convention Centre received \$3.1 million from the federal government, \$1.9 million from the province, and \$1.3 million from the city through a 'Partnership Urban Renewal Program'. The rest of the \$8.8 million to build the centre was provided by \$2.5 million from the city's community reserves (communication with Calgary Convention and Visitors Bureau, Aug. 26/92). On the other hand, the Edmonton Convention Centre was paid for entirely by the municipal government.

Figures received from centres in Toronto, Halifax, and Vancouver, indicate that their provincial governments were providing a greater proportion of funding for the construction of convention centres than were municipal and federal governments. In Vancouver, the convention centre was funded 99.3 per cent from provincial coffers, while Halifax received 83 per cent of its centre's cost from the province, and Toronto had 49 per cent provincial funding. Unfortunately, since the other convention centres could not provide any of the cost sharing data a complete survey was not possible. Centres located in Winnipeg, Montreal, Saskatoon, Ottawa, Hamilton and Montreal

would not produce a complete breakdown of their government cost-sharing data because of changes in staff and the records search involved.

4.3.2 Size and Operating Expenses

To gain a clearer picture of the way in which publicly-owned convention centres are funded to help pay for their operational expenses, it is necessary to elaborate on some of the financial arrangements they have developed. Typically, publicly-financed centres operate at a deficit for many years due to operating costs, large debt payments particularly for renovations, and in some cases low convention sales. The likelihood they will ever reach a break-even point or profit level is small (Jewell, 1978; McGuiness, 1982; Graveline, 1984; Gallagher, 1985; Mill and Morrison, 1985; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986; Hughes, 1988).

Funding to pay for the costs of operating each centre in Canada is arranged through cost-sharing agreements with up to three levels of government, and the convention centre. The variety of these arrangements are noted below.

1. Federal/provincial/municipal governments: centres in Hull and Toronto.
2. Provincial/federal governments: the Vancouver Convention Centre.
3. Municipal/provincial governments: centres in Victoria, Halifax, Saskatoon, Winnipeg, Ottawa.
4. Municipal/federal governments: Montreal's centre.
5. Municipal government: convention centres in Calgary, Quebec City, Saint John, Edmonton, and Hamilton.

Municipal tax payers do not directly contribute toward the operating costs of city-owned convention centres through property taxes, although indirectly they do when

they pay their provincial and federal income taxes. Part of that money may be returned to the centres in the form of grants to cover operational costs.

For example, the Calgary Convention Centre operating budget is submitted, approved, and funded by the city of Calgary like any other city department (letter from Director of Sales, Calgary Convention Centre, Sept.20, 1990). The facility's main source of revenue in 1988 was 75 per cent (\$1.6 million) in revenue from the rental of convention facilities, and 15 per cent from food services through a contractual catering agreement with the Skyline Hotel (Cattaneo and Jang, 1990:F6). To help recover some of the cost, a separate business tax levy of one per cent (1/11 of the city's business taxes), was designated for the Calgary Convention Centre in 1972 when it was being constructed, and for continuing operations. Over that 16 year period (1972-1988) the city collected \$58.9 million dollars in business taxes from which the convention centre requested the amount of \$18.7 million dollars (Calgary Convention Centre Statistical Report, Dec. 1988; Simaluk, 1988:F6) for operational costs. The remaining \$40.2 million dollars went into the city's general accounts.

An important question about operating expenses is whether there are systematic variations in these values. Table 4.2 is a summary of 1988 operating expenses incurred at eleven Canadian convention centres who reported figures. Collectively, convention centre operating expenses totalled slightly more than \$29 million dollars. Hardly surprising, the largest centre Metro Toronto also had the highest operating expenses (\$5,619,576). The second oldest and well established medium-sized centre, (Palais des Congres de Quebec) had the lowest operating expenses (\$511,400). One would assume that operating expenses would increase with size of the facility. Regression analysis (Figure 4.2) was carried out to see if there was a link between size plus operating expenses.

Table 4.2
Convention Centre Operating Expenses in 1988

| Facility | \$ Expenses (constant 1988 dollars) |
|--|--|
| Vancouver Trade/Convention Centre | \$1,316,507 |
| Edmonton Convention Centre | \$2,057,748 |
| Calgary Convention Centre | \$3,980,725 |
| Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre | \$2,253,908 |
| Winnipeg Convention Centre | \$4,438,970 |
| Metro Toronto Convention Centre | \$5,619,576 |
| Hamilton Convention Centre | \$3,170,283 |
| Ottawa Congress Centre | \$4,615,500 |
| Palais des Congres de Hull | \$1,136,635 |
| Palais des Congres de Montreal | \$ n/a |
| Palais des Congres de Quebec | \$ 511,400 |
| Saint John Trade/Convention Centre | \$2,163,619 |
| Halifax World Trade/Convention Centre | \$ n/a |
| Total: | \$29,033,502 |

Source: From figures contained in 1988 Annual Financial Statements and communication with personnel at the individual convention centres.

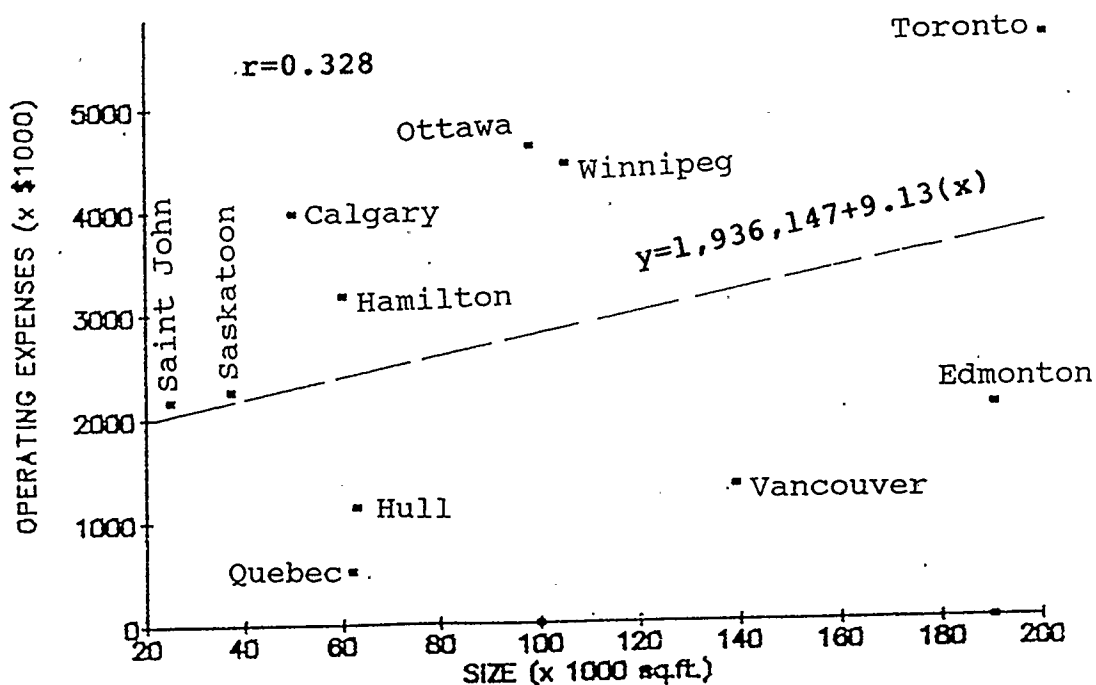


Figure 4.2 Graph of Function of Facility Size
and Operating Expenses

The scatter graph in Figure 4.2 displays a weak linear relationship (0.328 for Pearson Product-Moment Correlation) between operating expenses and size of the facility. There is no simple trend, and the figure shows that there are major differences in the relationship between size plus individual convention centre expense figures. This may be a product of a variety of different convention centre management structures (see Appendix Four), but in a thesis of this scope it is impossible to look at such detail. There are some important differences in the way in which some convention centres are financially organized that may account for variations in the relationship between size and operating costs. For example, both the Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre (B.C. Pavilion Corporation), and Halifax World Trade and Convention Centre (Trade Centre Ltd.), are part of provincially organized crown corporations that include other agencies such as cruise ship terminals, office towers, and arenas. The Halifax World Trade and Convention Centre did not provide figures for their 1988 operating expenses. In addition, the Vancouver centre's annual financial statement for 1988 did not separate operating expenses for the convention facilities from the rest of the agencies that are part of the corporation.

Another exception was the Winnipeg Convention Centre. Although it is seventh largest in size, the facility had the second highest (\$4.4 million) operating expenses after Toronto (the largest centre), perhaps a reflection of costly renovations in 1988. High costs may also be associated with management and marketing plan problems (Thampi, 1989:1,3). While the Metro Toronto Convention Centre had the highest operating expenses, it was also successful in recovering costs from renting the most convention space than the other Canadian centres (Association Management, 1987:2).

4.3.3 Size and Number of Delegates

It was expected that size of a convention facility would effect the number of delegates and the number of conventions which the centre can accommodate. When one examines the number of conventions held at each centre and compares them to the size of the facility (Table 4.1 earlier), it seems that the number of conventions held in a centre is not as important a factor to consider as is the total number of delegates attending them. For example, the two smallest facilities located in Saskatoon and Saint John, also accommodated the fewest number of delegates at conventions in 1988. Table 4.3 summarizes convention activity at each facility.

Regression analysis was utilized (Figure 4.3) to find out if there was a correlation between size of the convention centre and number of delegates. The assumption was that the bigger the convention facility the more delegates there would be attending conventions. The scatterplot shows a correlation of 0.65 indicating the relationship is not very strong. In fact, Table 4.3 demonstrated that the number of delegates attending conventions in specific convention centres varies with size in two ways.

Although the regression line in Figure 4.3 shows the general tendency, the diagram illustrates two trends. The majority reflects a linear trend starting with Saint John, continuing to Edmonton and Montreal. A higher than expected linear trend also exists for Winnipeg, Vancouver, and Toronto. Vancouver and Toronto are both large facilities and had a greater number of delegates attending conventions than others in the survey.

Table 4.3
Summary of Canadian Convention Activity in 1988

| Facility Location | Total Number of Conventions | Total Number of Delegates |
|-------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| Toronto | 52 | 300,000 |
| Vancouver | 64 | 242,000 |
| Winnipeg* | 50 | 138,000 |
| Edmonton | 40 | 81,122 |
| Montreal | 51 | 51,348 |
| Calgary | 63 | 34,500 |
| Quebec City | 26 | 33,600 |
| Ottawa | 43 | 32,022 |
| Halifax | 49 | 25,859 |
| Hamilton | 22 | 20,000 |
| Hull | 26 | 17,570 |
| Saint John | 35 | 10,500 |
| Saskatoon | <u>14</u> | <u>10,480</u> |
| Total: | 535 | 859,001 |

*Note: Estimates for the Winnipeg Convention Centre were calculated based on information contained in the Directory of Conventions, 1988-89. The manager of the convention centre was asked to confirm the estimates but did not respond to the request.

Source: Computed from data in letters from each convention centre, Sept.-Dec. 1989-90; Annual Financial Reports, 1988-89; and estimates produced by the author.

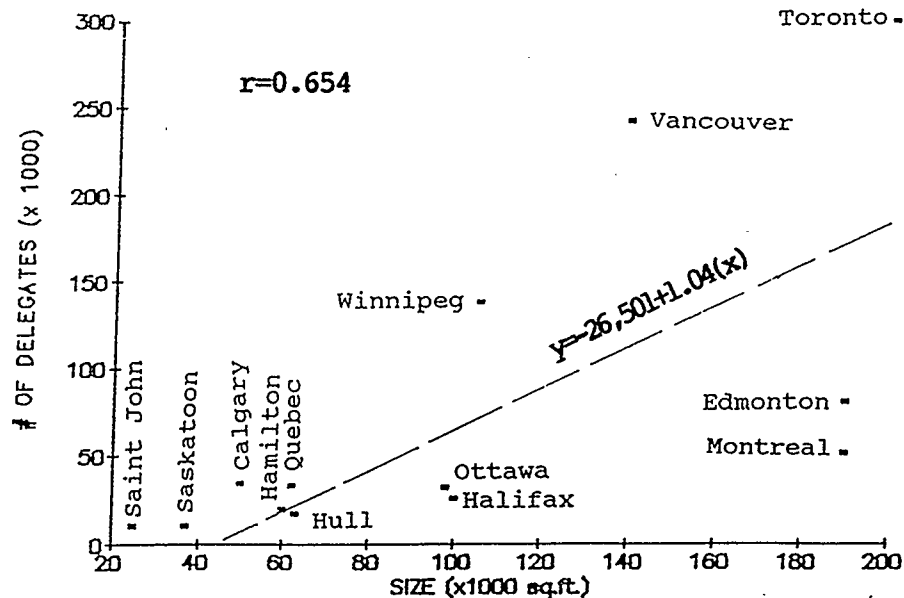


Figure 4.3 Graph of Function of Facility Size
and Number of Delegates

Moreover, a problem is presented with reconciling size and the total number of delegates which can be accommodated in the facility at conventions. Vancouver's centre can accommodate up to 10,000 delegates at one time, while Toronto's centre books only large conventions with delegates numbering in the 10 to 18 thousands for each convention. For example, in 1988 at the Toronto Metro Centre, the American Bar Association had a convention for 18,000 delegates, the International Reading Association had one with 15,000 delegates attending, and the International Chemical Association hosted 15,000 delegates (Annual Financial Report, 1988).

Also, agreements with other convention centres and convention facilities in hotels can affect the number of conventions. The Palais des Congres de Montreal, has an agreement with privately-owned hotel convention facilities in that city and will not book conventions with under 1200 delegates. In the Calgary Convention Centre just one convention accommodating up to a maximum of 2000 delegates can be held at a time (Convention Centre Information Package, 1988).

4.4 Estimating Direct Spending

Any convention centre has two income effects on a city, direct income from delegate spending, and the indirect multiplier effect as money circulates and is spent (Samuelson and Scott, 1975:197; Jewell, 1978:31; Alkjaer and Eriksen, 1967; Jewell, 1978; Lawson, 1981; Archer, 1977, 1982; Abbey, 1987; Oosterhaven and Van Der Knijff, 1987; Hughes, 1988). This section is concerned with the first effect: direct income. Direct income occurs when there is a convention held in the city and a delegate makes a direct expenditure which is received as income by hotels, restaurants, store-owners, entertainment and recreation facilities, and taxi operators.

Numbers generated for direct spending by the convention centres were bedevilled by a variety of figures for measuring economic impacts. Hughes (1988)

provided a useful statement of how direct income is calculated from an evaluation of studies that measured the economic impact of conventions in the United Kingdom:

Convention days are calculated by adding together the number of days over which each convention took place and averaging them to result in delegate days. The number of delegate days are multiplied by the number of delegates at each convention. Add together all the delegate days for each convention and multiply that figure by money spent on accommodation, food services and registration to give convention revenue (1988:238).

These techniques are difficult to quantify because there is a tendency to base them on overly-optimistic assumptions and speculation (Jewell, 1978; McGuiness, 1978; Lawson, 1981; Mill and Morrison, 1985; Hughes, 1988). Obviously conventions generate the spending of money by delegates, but as Mill and Morrison (1985:225) pointed out, determining the precise amount generated by delegate spending is complex because so many different sectors of the local economy are involved. There are two ways of calculating delegate spending.

1. Survey. Work out by actual survey in each city, the total amount of money spent by each delegate per day by tracking down spending in each city, and average the numbers for all delegates as a daily expenditure figure.

2. Estimates. Use estimated values from previous studies to calculate the standard values for the cities.

Problems with the way economic benefits are measured by convention centres were identified because they are of significant importance in any real evaluation of economic impacts. At the outset, it must be made very clear that there is no generally accepted method which the Canadian convention centres utilize for measuring the amount of money generated by conventions. Even though Graveline (1984), argued that there could be major economic impacts on a city's economic welfare because convention centres provide a catalyst for the infusion of dollars into the local economy,

he did not explain how those impacts were measured to support his view. McGuinness (1982), Gallagher (1985), and Hughes (1988), have all demonstrated that economic benefits derived from convention centre development fail to come close to projections made. Those three writers emphasized that the types of expenditures utilized in making projections were difficult to measure, and projections were lower than expected.

It was discovered that there were differences in the estimates from the figures provided by convention centres about the values for direct spending. No convention centre seems to have carried out its own survey of daily delegate spending, or at least were not willing to report their surveys to the author. Hence, it did not seem sensible to carry out the next stage of the multiplier estimate. Figures for estimates of the average daily expenditure in the local economy were based on the number of delegates and the number of "delegate days", and average spending per day. Delegate days is a convention industry measure of the number of days in a given statistical period for each delegate attending a convention (Hughes, 1988:238).

Given the range in values, a standardized formula was adopted by the author using the 1988 International Association of Visitors and Conventions Bureau to calculate estimates of direct delegate spending for each convention centre. The \$183.63 per day per delegate expenditure is in Canadian, not U.S. dollars. This formula was felt to be better than others because in Canada per diem spending for hotel rooms, food, and transportation tends to be higher than in the United States, and the American convention industry normally uses lower figures for delegate expenditures (confirmed by communication with Director of Sales and Marketing, Victoria Conference Centre, Dec. 2, 1991). Total direct spending figures derived from the IAVCB formula were then compared to the figures produced by the convention centres to see the extent of differences in the estimates.

4.4.1 Comparison Between Estimates of Direct Spending

The different estimates of direct spending reported by the convention centres and estimates made by this author are presented in Table 4.4. Figure 4.4 was designed to determine if there were systematic relationships between the author's estimates of direct spending using IAVCB figures, and actual estimates from the convention centres. Table 4.4 shows that estimates produced by this author for the average delegate spending (column 2), the author's IAVCB estimates (column 4), and those generated by the convention centres (column 3) are noticeably different with the author's being much larger. A high correlation of 0.98 exists in the diagram (Figure 4.4) subject to the constraints of producing correlations when there are two big outliers, namely Metro Toronto Convention Centre and Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre. The diagonal line in Figure 4.4 illustrates a situation in which there is an equivalence between the two estimates. Some of the smaller centres, plus the Halifax and Montreal centres are similar, while Toronto and Vancouver are not. The majority of convention centres, especially Toronto, Vancouver, and Edmonton showed higher delegate spending for the IAVCB estimates of direct spending. The regression analysis resulted in a strong trend line (subject to the problem of outliers) which demonstrates that the convention centres seem to underestimate direct spending, compared to the author's estimates. These values do not include the Winnipeg Convention Centre because they did not provide an estimate of direct spending.

Collectively the standard measurement approach accounted for almost double the estimates for the amount of direct spending. The total went from nearly \$354 million to almost \$641 million, although \$147 million was from just two convention centres, Vancouver and Toronto. It is not known if the IAVCB estimates reflect true

spending patterns. To find out if the estimates are justified a survey is needed to check estimates of spending. If convention centres wanted to really justify the local benefits from convention centre delegate spending one would think they would find it important to carry out a survey.

Substantial individual differences were noted for some centres (in Toronto and Vancouver) when direct spending estimates from the convention centres are compared to figures produced by the author. Those exceptions can be explained in part, by examining an important contributing factor, that of marketing efforts and the convention centre's success in attracting conventions. Knack (1982), commented that a convention centre could only be effective as an economic development tool when there was a convention market for that city.

It may be that convention centres located in the larger cosmopolitan cities are more lucrative than the smaller facilities in smaller cities when it comes to attracting conventions. Those four larger centres tended to have larger groups of delegates attending conventions, plus they seemed to produce more direct spending (Toronto, Vancouver, Winnipeg, Montreal). Whether or not this was because of their ability to attract more delegates due to greater variety in attractions has not been substantiated. One could speculate that the greater number of conventions held in the Vancouver and Calgary centres (64 and 63 respectively) was a result of better marketing, publicity, and promotion efforts, which attracted people who produced a higher level of direct spending. But no such evaluations have been made. Still, local convention centre estimates of direct spending produced by the Metro Toronto Convention Centre are noticeably higher (\$101 million) than for the Calgary centre (\$17 million). However, the Toronto centre accommodated more delegates than did Calgary so estimates are bound to be higher.

Table 4.4
1988 Estimates of Convention Centre Delegate Direct Spending

| City | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---------------|------------------|---------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| | Reported | Convention Centre | | IAVCB |
| | \$ Daily Expend. | Average \$ Delegate | Estimates \$Mill | Estimates \$Mill. |
| Toronto* | \$1,117 | \$337 | \$101.0 | \$192.8 |
| Edmonton | 189 | 244 | 19.8 | 52.1 |
| Montreal | 189 | 682 | 35.0 | 33.0 |
| Halifax | 186.52 | 804 | 20.8 | 16.7 |
| Hull | 145 | 427 | 7.5 | 11.3 |
| Quebec City | 145 | 595 | 20.0 | 21.6 |
| Calgary | 140.20 | 493 | 17.0 | 22.1 |
| Saskatoon | 130 | 334 | 3.5 | 6.7 |
| Saint John | 135 | 543 | 5.7 | 6.7 |
| Ottawa | n/a | 421 | 13.5 | 20.6 |
| Hamilton | n/a | 500 | 10.0 | 12.9 |
| Vancouver | n/a | 242 | 100.0 | 155.5 |
| Winnipeg* | n/a | n/a | n/a | 88.7 |
| Total: | | | \$353.8 | \$640.7 |

Note:* The figure for Metro Toronto Convention Centre is theirs for average delegate expenditure, adjusted by the to include inflation. It appears overly optimistic even if considering higher costs in that city.

*Estimates for the Winnipeg Convention Centre were calculated based on information contained in the Directory of Conventions, 1988/89.

1. Reported by the convention centre to the author. Daily expenditure is expressed on a per delegate basis and is the total estimated dollars each delegate spent daily for accommodation, restaurant food, transportation and entertainment. If the daily expenditure reported by the convention centres is multiplied by the annual number of delegates the resulting number does not correspond to the total direct spending estimates they reported in column 3.

2. Average delegate spending calculated from the direct yearly spending estimates reported by the convention centres (column 3), divided by the total number of delegates attending conventions at each centre in 1988.

3. Reported by the convention centres. Figures are for total direct spending in 1988. Delegate spending is a direct function of delegate numbers.

4. Figures rounded using IAVCB formula estimates of direct spending: \$183.63 per day per delegate expenditure X number of delegates X 3.5 delegate days= direct spending. Estimates in Canadian dollars.

Source: Computed from data in letters from each convention centre, Sept. Dec. 1989-90; Annual Financial Reports, 1988/89, and from the IAVCB formula.

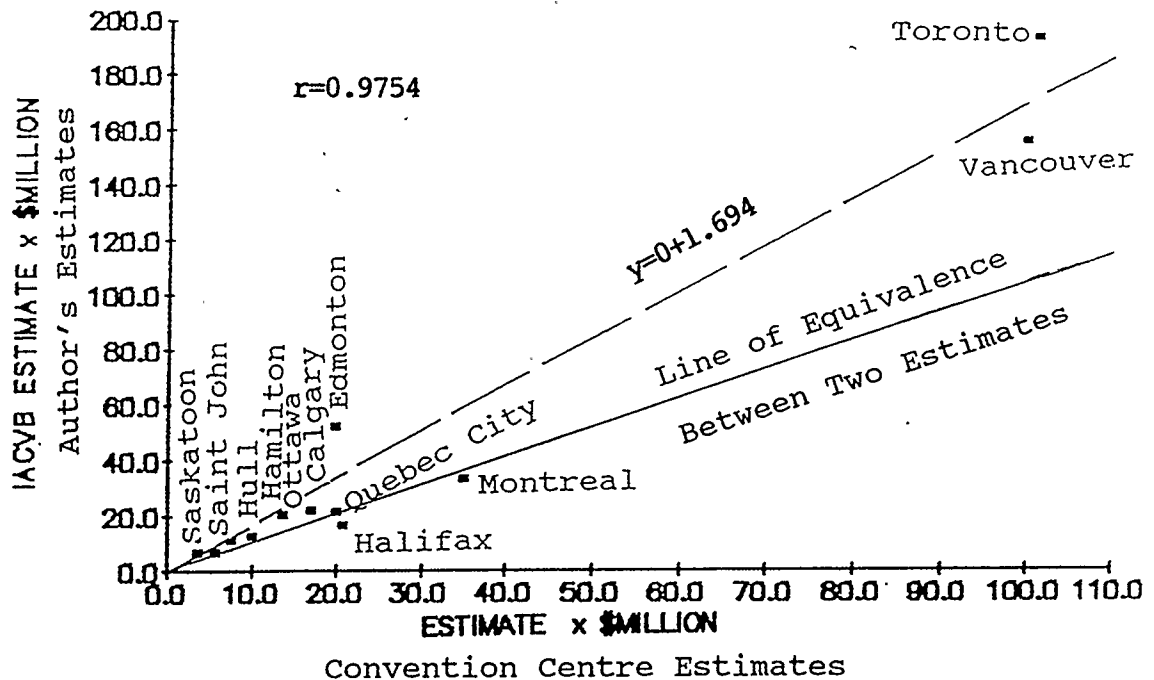


Figure 4.4 Graph of Function of Convention Centre Direct Spending Estimates and Author's IACVB Estimates

The generalized approach to spending patterns used above can be criticized because not all delegate incomes were the same. An association of medical doctors, compared to an association of retail merchants, for example, may result in some groups of delegates with higher incomes than others. A problem can be encountered with reconciling the number of endogenous or home-region delegates and exogenous out-of-town delegates attending a convention in a particular city. It is of vital importance to convention centres that non-local visitors provide the major portion of revenue because resident delegates may visit the centre only once or twice a year (Hughes, 1988:238; Jewell, 1978: 31,71). For correct estimates of economic impacts on Canadian convention centres, the origin of all visitors to a convention would have to be documented.

According to McGuinness (1978:14) and Lawson (1981:32), who cited International Association of Convention and Visitor Bureaus statistics in their American and British studies, home-region delegates spend 29 per cent less on the average than do out-of-town delegates. Smaller cities with smaller convention facilities were shown to rely on local, regional, provincial and state delegates, while big city facilities were likely to attract major conventions with more out-of-town delegate attendance. Exogenous convention delegates were also cited as being from higher socio-economic status with higher disposable incomes than home-region delegates. If convention centres could demonstrate that conventions were patronized almost exclusively by individuals who produce more income and reside beyond the local area, measurement of economic impacts might be more reliable. Estimated expenditures should take these variations into account.

4.5 Summary and Conclusions

The objective of this chapter was to provide a more comprehensive picture of the extent of costs and direct economic impacts produced by publicly-owned Canadian convention centres. There was a strong correlation between the size of centres and their construction costs over a twenty-one year building period. Higher variations existed for Vancouver, Edmonton, and Toronto centres, due primarily to design features. Since 1968, when the first centre was built in Saskatoon, to 1989 when the last centre located in Victoria, B.C. was built, the rate of building costs rapidly increased by more than thirty times. At the same time centres became larger, increasing in size by 12.5 per cent. Obviously, the smallest centres are located in smaller cities because funding criteria often depend on population size. For example, the Saint John Trade and Convention Centre was eight times smaller than the largest Metro Toronto

Convention Centre. Another factor to consider was each city's ability to garner a share of federal and provincial financing especially between 1981-1985.

Local income benefits (Hughes, 1988:163) are often overestimated in the discussion by proponents of convention centres. Despite the variations between convention centres and their relative economic significance to the city they were located in, estimates of direct spending produced by the Canadian convention centres, plus those made by the author represented substantial differences. Greater direct spending estimates produced by this author show that perhaps some centres may be underestimating direct spending impacts.

It should be stressed however, that one needs to compare convention centre investment to other sectors of the economy before valid justifications about their cost can be solely determined on the basis of positive economic impacts. This issue was recognized by McGuinness (1982:15) and Lawson (1981:241), who suggested that much wider issues need to be considered when the overall benefit to the city was evaluated. For instance, the convention industry estimates of economic impacts may be high in absolute terms, but if they were compared to the economic impacts of hotels, restaurants, and retail businesses as a whole, they would probably be much less.

This author emphasized the point that convention centres need to establish and adhere to a standard measurement approach for estimating income for direct. Then the existing variations and inconsistencies in the way economic impacts are interpreted might be alleviated. Given the desire by civic leaders to achieve status as perpetrators of local economic benefits, one would think it would be to the advantage of all the convention centres across Canada to use the IACVB formula. Once these direct spending surveys have been carried out then the multiplier effects can be calculated.

CHAPTER FIVE

BOOSTERISM AND CITY MARKETING

5.1 Introduction

An important role of convention centres is to boost the attractiveness of the city as a site for possible conventions. In this sense the convention centre publicity not only advertises the city's attractive benefits, but also boosts its attributes. Hence, convention centre promotional literature can be seen as a modern equivalent of 'old' or historical boosterism used by cities in the west to boost their advantages (Knight, 1973; Artibise, 1977, 1981, 1982a, 1982b; Meredith, 1985; Mehrhoff, 1988). In this chapter boosterism and convention centre publicity efforts are related to contemporary urban marketing (Buursink, 1987; Ashworth and Voogd, 1988; Ashworth and Goodall, 1990).

The study of historical boosterism now constitutes a substantial literature. These studies describe the late 19th and early twentieth century promotion campaigns initiated by individuals and groups in efforts to stimulate urban economic and population growth (Gilpin, 1981:259-288; Voisey, 1981:147-176). In a study of the locational analysis of western Canadian towns in British Columbia, Oliver Knight (1973) introduced the term 'boosterism' to describe "the exaggerated proclamation of the worth of a particular place over all others" (cited in Meredith, 1985:44), and "the exploitation of perceived opportunities", (quoted in Artibise, 1981:60). Artibise, a major contributor to the Canadian literature on boosterism (1977, 1981, 1982), invoked the concept to describe its distinguishing characteristics. He focussed mainly on the ethos of boosterism in western Canadian urban development.

The most common descriptive studies identify features advertised in brochures and pamphlets to promote the advantages of one particular place over another. The plethora of 'manufactured' images gleaned from immigration advertisements promoted outside Canada, have been documented by several writers. For instance, Meredith's (1985) study of the Upper Columbia Valley of British Columbia, noted that the images portrayed were:

Elaborate, graphic, and overly enthusiastic, if not deliberately deceitful pamphlets, prepared for distribution in Britain, espousing the elegant easy life. Gentlemen from Britain arrived expecting to move into finished estates. Instead they found crude bunk-houses.

What is evident in the boosterism literature, especially regarding the role of printed propaganda as a promotional tool, are discrepancies between the projected image and realities of life in a specific place. The pamphlets and brochures produced during that period, 1870-1920, offered optimistic and exaggerated views, and presented images that were mostly invented rather than based on actual amenities established at the time. At best the images presented were metropolitan visions, neither typical or unique in urban places. The reality of life in turn-of-the century Canadian cities with their bleak shacks, set-in a filthy environment, high levels of poverty livestock wandering the streets, is well documented by historians (Collins, 1977; Thomas, 1981; Gilpin, 1981; Foran, 1981; Klassen, 1981).

There are numerous interpretations about why boosterism achieved such significance in some urban places but not in others. However, five different themes have been identified in the literature on urban boosterism.

1. The role of media advertising and propaganda techniques in the promotion of place.

2. The role of institutions such as local government agencies, business and real estate development in the growth of towns.
3. The politics of boosterism reflected in lobbying for development.
4. The personal attributes of individuals involved in boosterism activities.
5. The psychology of boosterism and its consequences on residents of urban places.

The first two of these themes are relevant to this study. Convention centres are a government supported urban institution (theme 2) which utilizes advertising in the promotion of place (theme 1).

In a rather different approach to the study of boosterism, Mehrhoff, an urban sociologist, (1988:46-68) produced an interpretation of the interrelationship between modern day boosterism and the marketing of urban images. He demonstrated the validity of using a frontier past and its urban symbols to reveal the extension of boosterism into the present. Mehrhoff's study is important because he shifted the emphasis in research from an analysis of the image itself, and focussed on what the image revealed. Convention centres are an excellent example of the symbolic form which Mehrhoff analyzed. According to him, the development of urban images by late 19th century boosters involved transforming and reconstructing the characteristics of the city. To accommodate this reshaping process, which was called the "urban ethos of progress" (Brownell, 1975), boosters incorporated skylines, landmarks, historical monuments and panoramas's into their city's plan, resulting in a blend of civic boosterism with civic identity.

The erection of modern day convention centres could also be used as a symbol of the "urban ethos of progress" to reflect and market the city in which they are located. Indeed, if Mehrhoff's ideas are applied to the development of convention

centres they could be recognized as one form of boosterism. For example, he commented that:

Special efforts were directed toward civic adornment to create a highly favourable impression upon visitors and travellers passing through the city (1988:56)...the assumption then, and which continues, is that a more attractive city would promote tourism, enlarge trade, and generally revitalize the local economy. International expositions [*conventions*] provided popular vehicles with which to advertise civic progress both at home and abroad (1988:51).

For the American cities which he studied, Mehrhoff considered modern day civic boosterism as a conceptual framework underlying attempts by civic and commercial leaders to construct urban form into an orderly image and an ideal city (1988:46). He portrayed this new type of booster as one who:

Viewed the city from the new vantage point of the skyscraper and began to perceive the downtown district as an effective centre for downtown leaders and citizens to propose city planning and citywide forms of management. Typically these leaders claimed to be acting on behalf of the entire city, even though their specific interests and civic loyalty often differed dramatically from those of labour and urban ethnic groups. They are just as addicted to the defense of American enterprise and the formula of boosterism and reform, as their 19th century counterparts were (1988:49-50).

'The social construction of reality' is a term invoked by sociologists Berger and Luckmann (1966). Their work on images can be extended to the contemporary form of promotion carried out by the media and in corporate advertising. Physical structures such as shopping malls, monuments, plazas, parks, and convention centres, are all marketed to attract visitors and to satisfy the demand for an improved urban appearance. They also exist today as a highly visible reminder of the symbols of order and progress which boosters promoted.

Despite the fact many studies on boosterism contain few statistical analyses to confirm their interpretation, they provide generalizations and background about urban marketing at the turn of the century. The boosterism literature not only represents a dimension of urban history, it also has value in providing historical depth and comparison in the trend towards city marketing which has emerged in the last ten years. Urban geographers, in particular, have become interested in the marketing of images, a new dimension of urban policy at the local government level, which is similar in approach to the old boards of trade found in most cities in the late 1800s.

5.2 City Marketing Concepts and Policy

The 1980s produced a revival of interest by public planning agencies in alternative economic development solutions to diversify local economies, and to ameliorate urban problems. The idea of a marketing approach to selling places led to the establishment of city marketing policies by some civic government agencies. Widespread use of the term "city marketing" is a relatively recent concept developed in the Netherlands by urban planners, but derived from North American marketing concepts. It was first introduced by Buursink (1987), Ashworth and Voogd (1988), and Ashworth and Goodall (1990), to describe a city-specific promotional activity in which the amenities and attractions of a place are advertised and sold by local authorities, much like a commercial consumer product. Those products are, in general, the opportunities and resources that a city has for economic growth. Their marketing involves transforming the image of their "products" into identifiable commodities.

Ashworth and Voogd (1988:67) expanded the theoretical origins of marketing science and the traditional practices and beliefs of private commercial enterprise, from one that the product (the city) more or less sells itself, to a new paradigm of marketing planning. These writers described city marketing as being all of a city's promotional

activities designed to attract exogeneous investment through the sale of a package of urban functions (1988:65,72). This concept was based on the assumption that for any saleable product there a relationship existed between the amount of promotion carried out and the number of customers available.

Several other writers in the urban planning field have examined the idea that if a city were going to be developed as a tourism destination, it could be marketed and promoted by public agencies like any other product (Buursink, 1987; Ashworth and Goodall, 1990). These authors also attempted to integrate a tourism marketing philosophy with traditional image theories by showing the relationship among three related elements.

1. The tourist as a consumer.
2. The product as a place.
3. Promotion as the image.

One of the most significant aspects of this new philosophy was the concept that intangible image products or ideas, were marketable as a commodity. Ashworth and Voogd (1988:72), discussed the importance of positive images being marketed without a related physical product. They described those types of positive urban features as the promotion of mental 'place' images by local authorities and planning agencies to attract potential external investors, who were invited to make use of those image resources (1988:77).

5.3 Convention Centres and City Marketing

Every city in North America has its Chamber of Commerce, tourist and convention bureau, economic development department, or equivalent organization of business and civic interests. Local governments have a long tradition of involvement in

the financial and promotional aspects of local economic development. Over the last twenty years greater initiatives and policy actions have been established through government intervention in the provision of facilities and attractions which are linked with urban tourism. One of the primary functions of municipal governments is to advertise their city in an attempt to create a 'better' economic future based on present conditions and future expectations.

Most cities recognize that the convention industry is closely connected with the economic benefits of urban tourism. If the sale of convention centre facilities is applied to the notion of city marketing, the centres become part of the inventory of opportunities offered by the city. The convention centre can be considered as a direct part of the system involved in the shaping and projection of suitable urban images, perhaps along with the removal of images that are negative, to a potential market. Therefore convention centres become another supply-side component in the assemblage of marketable products within a city (Buursink, 1987; Ashworth and Voogd, 1988:70; Ashworth and Goodall, 1990:7,63,125).

To sell places effectively for tourism or for conventions, city agencies must establish a link between place and product marketing and the choice process of potential customers. Buursink, Ashworth, and Voogd pointed out four factors that were necessary in the city marketing publicity to accommodate the identification process:

1. The city as a marketable product;
2. Promotion and identification of a target group;
3. Image building; and
4. Projection of favourable images to a potential market.

An obvious spatial feature of convention centres in Canada is that they tend to be located in most of the biggest cities (Vancouver, Toronto, Montreal). In general, the

people who attend conventions want to go to places where there are both city-specific and nearby exogenous attractions. Convention centres that have an event and attraction oriented marketing strategy focus on their location as the most advantageous place to hold a convention because it has these two types of spatial attractions, in and out of the city. For example, the Calgary (Alberta) Convention Centre not only promotes traditional special events held within the city such as the Calgary Stampede, but also promotes tourist attractions located in the regional area around the city. The Rocky Mountains and skiing at Banff are the most frequently touted image builder in the convention centre's marketing literature. Ranching and agricultural associations may also be attracted to conventions in Calgary because of the city's image as a major cattle centre and its western town theme (Calgary Convention Centre Brochure, 1988).

Ashworth and Goodall's book on marketing urban tourism places (1990:27, 42) also explored how convention centre consumers (the delegates going to conventions) obtain their perceptions from sources other than just the images projected by destination area agencies. The authors analyzed advertising literature that focussed on the relationship between the sale of consumer products and buying behaviour. From their analyses they described four "opportunity sets", or factors, which were involved in providing an understanding of that relationship. These factors are:

1. how consumers reach their final purchase decisions;
2. how choices are made;
3. which attributes are important in the mental images of place that form the "pull" images; and
4. the type of facilities and activities available.

All of these factors in the "opportunity sets" become key issues which Ashworth and Goodall termed "product, package, and place", in a city's marketing strategy (1990:44).

5.4 Summary and Conclusions

The literature review summarized the major themes in boosterism and city marketing as a background for the case study of images in convention centre promotional literature. One significant aspect of boosterism was a focus on the role of various advertising campaigns carried out in the late 1800s and early 1900s to promote the image of a place. Boosterism was extended to the contemporary period to show that the concept could be applied today. Promotion of the image of cities is carried out at present through the efforts of boosters who develop what this author calls "ego structures" (LeBlanc, 1989). Today, convention centres are one example of an 'ego structure' built to reflect the ideas of grandeur held by civic leaders. This process, called the 'social construction of reality' by Berger and Luckmann (1966) is simply a modern manifestation of boosterism reflected in the desire to construct even more extravagant urban symbols.

Boosterism was eventually curtailed as a promotional technique probably as a result of its link with immigration and settlement, and the inaccurate and misleading information about things that simply did not exist. Despite those factors, boosterism clearly played a major role in the history of North American urban development. Boosterism was common, it stimulated urban growth, fostered a civic identity, and helped to create an urban industrial society. The promotion of urban images is not commonly termed boosterism today. However, many aspects still continue in a new form, that of city marketing.

One of the most important aspects of city marketing is work being carried out in the creation and publication of city image studies. The way in which Canadian convention centres can be turned into an identifiable commodity plays an integral role in developing city images. An analysis of the way in which convention centres portray the image of their city through advertising campaigns is the subject of the next chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

PORTRAYING THE IMAGES OF THE CITY

6.1 Background to the Analysis

6.1.2 Introduction

The primary task for convention centre sales people is to sell the centre and the city as a meeting site. Therefore, the ideas behind historic boosterism, the projection of images, and the concept of city marketing, can all be incorporated into the construction of advertising brochures and a convention centre marketing strategy. However, there is always the problem of false or overzealous promotions of images. This led Gartrell (1988:216) to point out that image advertising should be carried out by projecting the "most positive, honest and accurate image possible". It seems that few brochure image makers stress a large variety of features. Instead, there is often an attempt to direct attention to one or more features, or details of an induced image, providing a focal point from which to develop the "individuality" of a city (Dyer, 1988; Gartrell, 1988).

Most cities have an identifiable image in the minds of people in the rest of the world. But geographical interest in this topic is still regarded as being in its infancy especially in the formulation of techniques to study images. Although urban, social, and historical geographers had a longstanding interest in the 'meanings' people attached to places (Strauss, 1961; McGreevy, 1987:48), modern geographical interest in the mental images of cities stems mainly from Lynch's 1960 study, *Images of the City*. This architect and planner was the first to attempt to define and measure images. Lynch's contribution was to spatially identify and measure individual elements of the

image, parts that had previously been expressed only as verbal description. He then linked the elements to features in the city that give a high probability of evoking a strong image. Following Lynch there were numerous studies that attempted to develop analytical techniques to measure spatial, economic, and social behaviour as a product of an individuals' perception of the environment (Davies, 1970; Relph, 1970; Downs and Stea, 1972; Rugg, 1972; Gould, 1973; Saarinen, 1973, 1979; Tuan, 1975). This early research resulted in a variety of approaches to try to validate and capture urban images.

In the 1970s and 1980s geographers began to adopt quantitative techniques from the field of psychological testing (Dearden, 1985; Jakle, 1985; McGreevy, 1987; Squire, 1988). There was a flurry of activity, debate, and the extensive application of statistics to the measurement of people's cognition of space by sociologists, psychologists, and geographers. Geographers leaned toward methodologies such as sketch maps, scaled preference structures, and repertory grids to investigate a multitude of behavioural features such as images, perceptions, and attitudes. Even though those studies were mainly reflected in various other disciplines, they provided a pool of information for geographers about the way different people in different places structured their image of the city. However, notes of caution have been raised. Knox, writing about the study of images in an urban social geography context (1987:150), pointed out that geographers had difficulty identifying the ways in which they could utilize the information, or how the studies might contribute to the development of practical solutions to urban social problems.

More importantly, the rapid growth in the number of perception studies raised many more important theoretical questions about people's perceptions and how accurate they are as images. Lloyd (1982), Golledge and Rushton (1984), Cadwallader (1985, 1988), Couclelis (1986), Aitken and Bjorklund (1988), are among those who

criticized attempts to explain behaviour in terms of the individual's perception of images.

Image research, especially for tourism studies, was used by many geographers in the 1980s (Smith, 1983; Jakle, 1985; Mill and Morrison, 1985; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986; Dilley, 1986; Hester, 1987; Law, 1987; McGreevy, 1987; Marsh, 1987; Relph, 1987; O'Brien, 1988; Squire, 1988; Hughes, 1988; Allen, 1989; Ashworth and Goodall, 1990). The interplay between images of a place and what they represented in the environment became the focus for research. This involved a variety of different survey instruments which provided the tourism industry with techniques try to match mental images with different places. By learning what images tourists have when they think of a specific place, tourism agencies would be able to develop visual and verbal images drawn from the place's inventory of resources to try and to turn a city's image into an identifiable and marketable commodity. Husbands (1986:244) defined those resources as the social, cultural, and recreational opportunities and attractions which exist for participating in various activities.

Convention centre city image advertising is linked primarily with the 4 "Ps" of city marketing summarized by Buursink (1987), Ashworth and Voogd (1988), Ashworth and Goodall (1990), in their discussions of city marketing, place, product, promotion, and producer:

1. The city can be regarded as the place;
2. The facility size, cost, and location is the product;
3. The marketing strategy is the promotion;
4. Conventions are the producer.

When convention delegates are added to the list, they become a fifth dimension of city marketing, the people who are the consumers.

A complex process is involved in the creation and portrayal of images. One of the key features in this marketing process, and the focus of this chapter, is the convention centre promotional brochure. In attempting to lure conventions to the convention centres, cities produce brochures both to elicit further inquiries and to generate potential sales. Another factor that could be considered is the active role of visitor and convention bureaus and personnel in convention centre promotion.

Although their primary function is to "sell cities" for conventions and tourism by creating and promoting an awareness of the entire city as a destination, visitor and convention bureaus do not directly sell specific convention centres for the purpose of holding meetings. They operate independently, but work closely with convention centres in developing a unified marketing image for the city. A bureau's main task is the development of city images that will "position" its city in the marketplace, portraying it as a viable destination for meetings and visitors. A thorough description of a convention bureau's role is discussed in Gartrell's *Destination Marketing for Convention and Visitors Bureaus* (1988). Promotion of convention centres and the selling of *in-situ* conventions is up to the individual centres (interview with Debra Blanchfield, former Sales Director Calgary Convention Centre, October 22, 1988; May 25, 1989). That issue is beyond the scope of this study. Instead, the goal of this chapter is to interpret the kind of city images that are transmitted to others by the convention centre literature.

6.2 Marketing Cities by Advertising

This section of the study provides background for an interpretation of one aspect of city-specific publicity campaigns carried out by the convention industry. The analyses specifically identified:

1. the various themes found in the brochures;
2. the usefulness of connotation for distinguishing city features in the brochure literature.

Both items provide the type of "message" which can be used in convention centre marketing literature to try and attract people to the centres' facilities in the city. Content analysis was utilized to measure the character of the city as presented in this form, and to note the extent to which the brochures emphasized particular aspects of that city. Ultimately of course, the goal of each brochure is to help "sell" particular cities as a convention site, which in turn is expected to produce economic benefits and enhance the local economy (Chapter Four, section 4.1).

There is a substantial literature on advertising and its use as a form of communication in the portrayal of images. Comprehensive analyses concerning the power of words and illustrations in advertising include studies in linguistics and semiotics, psychology and sociology (Barthes, 1964, 1967, 1977; Jefkins, 1976; Eco, 1976; Burli-Storz, 1980; Jeweler, 1981, 1985; Vestergaard and Schroder, 1985; Cohen and Johar, 1986). These writers provided strong support for the idea that image advertising constructs an imaginary world which produces a desired identity attachment to specific commodities (Relph, 1987; City of Calgary Corporate Resources Department, 1989; Cooney, 1989; Marshall, 1989; Martin, 1989). Vestergaard and Schroder, who addressed the credibility of advertising (1985), examined socio-linguistic characteristics of the language of advertising to find out if images were factual statements about reality. They showed that the ideology of advertising is powerful because it presents a particular version of reality which is tailored to fit the presumed attitudes and values of the targeted audience.

Other studies on advertising (Cohen and Johar, 1986:50), pointed out that strategies associated with formulation of a city's image were "eco-reflective," a type of advertising which commonly builds an aura around the product and translates each selling point into a customer benefit. "Themes" are then sold based on a match between creative appeal and functional appeal to elicit imagery. Husbands, (1986: 242) identified a city's attractions, scenery, events, and facilities, as an inventory of themes which could be communicated through this kind of advertising strategy.

In addition to printed information, brochures communicate many unwritten messages that generate a particular response. Gartrell (1988:178) noted that specific messages about amenities in the city should "tell" the reader that there is more to the city than meets the eye, although tangible benefits should also be clearly stated so prospects will know immediately what they will receive as a result of their investment.

In another study of advertising language describing visual display and other features of layout, Burli-Storz (1980:55) discussed the role of pictures in advertising. She explained that the picture answers the viewer's situational, social, or psychological problems with glossy promises. Not surprisingly, convention centre brochures are usually designed as an attempt to project a lively colourful image of a place. The tacit implication of the advertised product however, may not always accurately portray the reality of a specific city.

One of the difficulties involved in measuring the effectiveness of advertising in general is that cause and effect are never clear cut. Advertising agencies employ psychologists and sociologists who use readership surveys, to determine which values and images are most likely to appeal to the audience of a given publication. Even though convention centres may spend millions of dollars each year on advertising, there is no conclusive evidence to suggest that a positive linkage exists between the number

of conventions sold and the impact of advertising. In addition, there is limited data in the convention industry literature documenting the effects of brochure advertising on convention site selection. Existing studies also fail to provide answers about the kinds of images portrayed in convention centre promotional advertising, and whether images actually do influence locational choice. Determining whether people responsible for convention site selection are actually attracted by what the brochures describe, and then visit the cities for the opportunities promoted, is an important research topic but it is beyond the scope of this thesis. For the sake of completeness in this section it is worth noting Gartrell's (1988:225) identification of three methods to deal with this problem:

1. Market testing to determine what the awareness or acceptance of a convention centre is before and after a specific publicity effort;
2. Comparison of sales efforts in test markets where publicity was part of the marketing mix to markets where there was no publicity;
3. Conversion studies to determine the success of a publicity campaign and its impact on a city by measuring the quantity of responses received to reflect who came and spent money.

6.3 Part One: Content Analysis of Brochures

6.3.1 Methodolgy

This study seeks to identify the images portrayed by different cities through an analysis of convention centre brochures. A content analysis of promotional material published by the convention centres was utilized to identify the themes that stood out in the text and pictures of each brochure. As far as can be determined from a review of the literature, content analysis has not yet been carried out by researchers interested in the study of images promoted by convention centres, although similar studies have been

produced in the field of tourism, travel, and recreation. The results reported here deal with themes portrayed in pictures and text in the brochures, put there for the purpose of stimulating interest in holding a convention in a specific centre and city.

Content analysis can be applied to a variety of problems and is often used by geographers investigating various aspects of images and themes in tourism and recreation studies (Marsh, 1985; Dilley, 1986), and in research on the images of place (Lehr, 1983; Warntz and Forsyth, 1987). As its name implies, it is a research technique used by social scientists to identify, codify, describe and analyze objectively, systematically, and quantitatively, the components of written, verbal, and graphic communications (Theodorson and Theodorson, 1969:73-76; Holsti, 1969; Carney, 1972; Babbie, 1973:108-109). The method is also useful in making evaluative descriptions or explanatory assertions about the documents being studied (Babbie, 1973:108).

By systematically breaking down the content of the communication (the brochures in this case) into separate descriptive units of individual facts and ideas, and classifying the analytical components of the material being studied, the researcher can identify specific or general themes (Theodorson and Theodorson, 1969:75). Babbie commented that:

Content analysis has the advantage of providing a systematic examination of materials that are more typically evaluated on an impressionistic basis. Through systematic content analysis, the researcher guards against the issue of inadvertent biases that might be built into the examination or introduced by the researcher. By adhering to a pre-established sampling and scoring system, the researcher would lessen the influence of personal preconception built into the examination (1973:35).

Several studies utilizing content analysis have been produced in parallel fields such as tourism geography over the last ten years. Most of the research has been

constructed around a frequency count analysis of words, lines of text, and categories of themes contained in text and illustrations. These are then classified and their values are analyzed using (relatively) simple percentage measurements. With this method researchers can classify and specify every statement and illustration contained in the material being analyzed to identify the major themes in the images produced. It also measures the extent to which themes found in other promotional literature are absent in the material.

Dilley (1986) studied the role of international tourist brochures in forming images of a particular area Canadian tourists may intend to visit. He used content analysis to demonstrate two types of image themes contained in twenty-one brochures:

1. "Real" images based on actual attributes that existed in particular tourist locations;
2. "Invented" images that appeared to be fabricated to appeal to the perception of a potential interested tourist.

In an evaluation of historic postcards issued from Glacier National Park, B.C. between 1903-1925, Marsh (1985), used content analysis in an attempt to find out whether the pictures were an important influence on the perceptions and preferences of visitors to the park. In another study, Warntz and Forsyth (1987:346) carried out a content analysis of Canadian place-names mentioned in an American word frequency book that were expected to contain clues about printed references to places Canadian.

6.4 The Function of Prestige Words in Image Promotion

Another objective of the analysis was to show the role of both "connotation and denotation" in the type of language that produces "symbols" of cities. To gain a clearer understanding about the way in which the meanings of words in the language of image

promotion are interpreted, the concepts of denotation and connotation must be clarified. Denotation and connotation are two of the most important elements studied in semiotics--the general theory of signs and symbols used in a language (Dyer, 1988:127).

The difference between the denotation and connotation function of words has a long tradition in the study of language in general, and specifically in the promotion of images in advertising (Barthes, 1964, 1977; Jefkins, 1976; McMaster, 1978; Vestergaard and Schroder, 1985; Dyer, 1988). All words have either denotation or connotation. Denotation is easily recognized, and is the specific identification of a word, such as the name of a place or object, explicit in what is actually said (McMaster, 1978:61). On the other hand, connotation describes the associated meanings which lie beyond the denoted word, and is implicit in that it conveys expectations and suggestions. Dyer addressed the names given to a product which frequently recall additional associations in the mind of the reader or viewer. For example:

A rose on the denotative level means a flower, on the connotative level...it can connote love, beauty and passion (Dyer, 1988:128).

Moreover, different connotations of the same word are possible because of the different contexts in which they are used. An important essay on semiotics and publicity images by Barthes (1977) drew attention to the level of meaning of an advertising image when it came to promoting prestige. He pointed out that brand names and labels communicate denotatively, but it is the connotative associations which help sell the image of the product.

In the field of advertising there is almost no denotative communication. But, the use of connotative words associated with images is based on denotation and is very

important in the promotion of prestige appeal. Vestergaard and Schroder (1985:44) gave the example of the use of "get" rather than "buy" in advertising to distinguish the difference between denotation and connotation. "Get", the denotation, is the most frequent word for 'acquisition of product' because "buy" has some unpleasant connotations such as money and the parting with it, which "get" avoids.

'Prestige' words and phrases are often used in the brochures to endow a particular city with identity. These type of words produce a way for the reader to visualize connotations of the "unique, famous, best, superb, and world renowned features," that are offered there. Symbols of prestige are portrayed in Canadian cities in both denotative (explicit), and connotative (hidden meaning) terms. Jeweler (1985:58) and Allen (1989:9), also pointed out that prestige phrases contained in advertising are often vague superlatives and cliches which do not really communicate anything. Yet, connotative words like "biggest", "finest", "ultimate" and "unique", are commonly utilized in advertising to reflect great fame and prestigious reputation. Apparently, the most important function of connotation with prestige words is to encourage the reader to accept an image without examining real facts as evidence. Allen and others (Vestergaard and Schroder, 1985:preface) also described how the language and properties of words employed in advertising and in particular, tourist brochures, can influence people's thoughts and actions about places to visit. Allen noted that social scientists interested in the marketing techniques of tourism agencies should be analyzing particular words with prestige appeal and using them in the industry to sell a city image. According to him, those kind of words rather than informing, "motivate the reader to associate with something unique and distinctive that can be experienced in one city, but not in another" (1989:9).

The convention centre brochures examined in this study appeared to be promoting their cities by building upon favourable images through focussing less on the denotative aspects and connotating more of the positive attributes. Prestige words and phrases tended to emphasize intangible benefits rather than tangible benefits, evidently to justify visiting that destination. Presumably, most convention travellers will want to associate themselves with a city that portrays itself as "prestigious and unique" because those attributes can also be viewed as a reflection of the individual's personal characteristics.

The individual brochures repeatedly used several words and phrases that reflected historic boosterism in that the material boasted of that city's distinctiveness. All the brochures described their amenities and attractions in terms of "world-class, world-famous, world-renowned, first-class, number-one, and top-notch." Sometimes a combination of prestige features were produced in the brochures. Often the words or phrases described exaggerated and idealized features in an attempt to reinforce a positive image of that city. For example, the Saint John Trade and Convention Centre brochure mentions the words "unique, grand, and historic," for its recreational facilities and harbour. At the same time, it fails to use any positive historic descriptions that inform the reader that the place is also Canada's oldest incorporated city.

Mill and Morrison's textbook on selecting a travel destination (1985:28) went even further in explaining the relevance of prestige words in marketing tourism.

The task for marketers is to show that their destination is unique and different from all others...to differentiate from one another even when there can be generalizations made about a whole group.

To place this quotation in the context of North America's convention industry, Canadian convention destinations (from the point of view of an American), may be

generally perceived as being located in cities that are crime free, underpopulated, and limited in amenities. The task for Canadian convention marketers is to change the level of foreign visitors' awareness of the country from a potentially negative one, to one that is positive. One way to accomplish this would be to concentrate on promoting 'prestigious' city attributes. A distinctive identity could be given to that particular place to contrast with the typical geographical image of Canada as a "symbol of difficult terrain, abundant wilderness, remoteness, and emptiness" (Konrad, 1986:178).

In turn, the use of prestige words may motivate and create in the foreign reader's mind an idea that a particular Canadian city has something special to offer that was not known before. For instance, the brochure for Vancouver states that it is the "the only location in the world with a killer whale show which is located in the largest public aquarium in the world." The message being portrayed is that an individual seeing those 'unique' features also becomes a 'unique' person for doing so.

Various associations attached to denotative or factual descriptions are words that present a straightforward accurate description of something. For example, the Ottawa Congress Centre brochure states "Ottawa is the capital city of Canada," while the Calgary Convention Centre brochure points out the city is "near the Rocky Mountains." Primarily these phrases give information about something that is both accurate and objective. However, even a denotative word as precise as the name of a city can have different meaning for different people depending on prior knowledge or experience associated with a place.

Conversely, connotative words and phrases are used to contribute to a mood or impression. In semiotic terms, such words are signifiers or vague concepts which appeal to the reader's attitude about something and can create in their mind, a potential experience. The convention centre brochures frequently use words such as: "ideal-

sized, fantastic, great, beautiful, outstanding, and spectacular." Presumably these appeal to the reader's qualitative sense about that city. As emotive descriptions, these words are more than a collection of sensory impressions, they induce a mood and create an expected experience. The words expressed have acquired meaning through connotative association. The problem is they become hackneyed when every city uses them, and they lose meaning.

The use of photographs in the brochures to convey prestige is another aspect of denotation and connotation. Barthes (1964:43), suggested "if we ask what the picture means we have moved from the level of denotation...the information that can be read out of a picture without recourse to cultural conventions... to the level of connotation." Thomas Wolfe (1975), also explored the denotative and connotative significance of the visual expression of words in his book, *The Painted Word* (1975:6). He examined motives for gazing at works of art in art galleries, contemplating the experience of waiting for "IT" to come into focus. Wolfe regarded "IT" as the visual reward which must be there--the "AHA" phenomenon.

Not seeing is believing, but believing is seeing. For modern art has become completely literary. The painting and other works exist only to illustrate the text.

A useful parallel can be made from Wolfe's quotation. That is, his "IT" could be the prestige words utilized in convention centre brochures. They provide the visual rewards a convention visitor might expect to experience when coming to one of the cities portrayed in the brochures.

6.5 Identifying the Key Image Themes

Table 6.1 lists the brochure titles for each convention centre and city in this study as well as the year in which the brochure was published, and the number of pages.

Table 6.1
List of Canadian Publicly-Owned Convention Centre
Promotional Brochures Current in 1988

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1. **Where the Warm Welcome is Just the Beginning:** Victoria Conference Centre: 1988, 22 pp. Victoria, B.C.
 2. **Vancouver, Perfect in Every Sense:** Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre: no date, 12 pp. Vancouver, B.C.
 3. **Meeting Performance:** Edmonton Convention Centre: no date, 24 pp. Edmonton, Alta.
 4. **Calgary's Convention Centre:** Calgary Convention Centre: 1988, 8 pp. Calgary, Alta.
 5. **The City, the Place, the Service:** Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre: no date, 10 pp. Saskatoon, Sask.
 6. **Meet You in Winnipeg Canada:** Winnipeg Convention Centre: 1986, 20 pp. Winnipeg, Man.
 7. **Number One in Canada:** Metro-Toronto Convention Centre: 1988, 8 pp. Toronto, Ont.
 8. **Are You Planning to Hold Your Next Convention in the Middle of Nowhere, or at the Centre of it All?:** Hamilton Convention Centre: 1988, 8 pp. Hamilton, Ont.
 9. **Canada's Convenient Capital:** Ottawa Congress Centre: no date, 14 pp. Ottawa, Ont.
 10. **A Convention Centre in Canada's Capital Region:** Palais des Congres Hull: no date, 6 pp. Hull, Que.
 11. **Quebec City Convention Centre:** Palais des Congres de Quebec: 1988, 12 pp. Quebec City, Que.
 12. **Montreal Convention Centre:** Palais des Congres de Montreal: 1987, 16 pp. Montreal, Que.
 13. **The Finer Points of Successful Meetings:** Saint John Trade and Convention Centre: 1987, 4 pp. Saint John, N.B.
 14. **Halifax Offers You the World:** World Trade and Convention Centre: no date, 8 pp. Halifax, N.S.

Source: Titles are displayed on the cover of each of the 14 convention centre brochures used in this study.

"Brochure" is a generic term used to describe any type of literature (pamphlets, booklets), containing information which is published for promotional purposes. Even though analysis of the composition and design of individual pictures and text, and their layout in the brochures, is beyond the scope of this study, the amount of space given to them is a consideration. The brochures are similar in size in that they are all 8.5 by 11 inches, but they are not standard in the number of pages. That difference (ranging from the four page Saint John Trade and Convention Centre brochure, to the twenty-four page Edmonton Convention Centre brochure, affected the number of lines and number of pictures contained in each.

Nine of the fourteen brochures were produced by the convention centres between 1986 and 1988, while no date of publication was noted on five brochures for: Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre, Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre, Ottawa Congress Centre, Palais des Congres de Hull, and Halifax World Trade and Convention Centre. It is not known how often convention centres update or change their brochure information. Obviously, if new facilities and attractions are introduced into the city they would probably be included in the brochure.

With the exception of the Saint John Trade and Convention Centre literature produced in black and white, the other 13 brochures are colour. In addition, seven of the brochures are designed in a magazine format (those for Ottawa, Edmonton, Vancouver, Montreal, Saskatoon, Winnipeg, Quebec City), and the remaining seven are presented as folders (Halifax, Calgary, Toronto, Victoria, Hull, Saint John, Hamilton).

The picture category included an interpretation of city image themes contained in photographs and illustrations. Diagrams of the convention centre building design plans were not allocated to a category because they had nothing to do with 'city'

features. The impact of a picture clearly depends on many things not investigated in the analysis such as an examination of the composition, size, and design of individual pictures and their layout in the brochure. Graphic items are easy to express and to merchandise. For example, a diagram in the Saint John Trade and Convention Centre brochure showed a table of average temperatures for the area, indicating that climate features were being promoted in that city. In addition, the Palais des Congres de Quebec had that city's colourful coat of arms depicted on one page.

Other graphics, namely maps in the picture content, were most noticeably of airline transportation routes and their relative location. Apparently, the intent is to give a favourable image of accessibility from North American and other major world cities. Each brochure also contained a city map with symbols indicating points of interest and where the convention centre was located. Also counted as pictures were sketches that were expected to have high, but brief, impact. A good example is the drawing of the sun with sunglasses and an ice cream cone depicted in the Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre brochure, conveying a message about that city's distinction as the sunniest in Canada.

There were no paid advertisements for hotels, airlines or restaurants featured in any of the brochures. However, the Saint John Trade and Convention Centre brochure information infers it is advertising the Hilton Hotel International who manages the centre. The entire brochure is associated with the Hilton Hotel and includes a restaurant menu and a list of other Hilton Hotels in North America. There were also many obvious differences in detail for the Saint John Trade and Convention Centre unlike the other brochures. First, it contained only two pictures both which reflected the location category. Second, the design of the brochure was far from outstanding as its information was presented in a black and white folder with no colour photographs. One

picture is a map of the downtown area, but the dominant focal point on the map features the Hilton International Hotel. It is the most unimaginative of all the brochures, avoiding any type of visual imagery which would detract from the Hilton Hotel.

There were two objectives in the content analysis carried out on the brochures:

1. What were the primary city image themes contained in each convention centre brochure's language and pictures? This should identify the themes the city and convention centre were trying to project.
2. Were there uniform patterns in the type of image theme being promoted for all the brochures?

This study will identify the principal and minor city images promoted by each convention centre and identify the absence of specific types of content. Analysis of the connotative themes or "meanings" were important to the study, while the denotative or "real world" images were of minor consideration. In the end, the convention centres were producing messages about their individual cities which are related to the four Ps of city marketing discussed earlier.

Presumably, each convention centre's mission is to develop an appropriate city image which can be 'sold' to potential customers as a viable destination for meetings and conventions. Therefore, the individual convention centre brochures are expected to play a significant role in influencing and forming city images. The brochures are usually sent to prospective clients up to five years before a final decision is made about site selection. By contrast, similar brochures produced by tourism bureaus are normally only seen upon arrival in the city being visited so the convention centre material may have a more lasting impact.

Initially, all content analyses have to establish a set of suitable parameters around which the content can be analyzed. Decisions also had to be made about what kind of images were worth analyzing. The significant themes which reflected a city's resources were extracted by four separate stages of analysis.

1. The first stage of the analysis involved a total count of lines and pictures. This enumerated a total of 5,035 lines of text, and 334 pictures contained in the fourteen brochures.

2. Nearly three-quarters of all the text, and one-third of all the pictures were "lost in the count" because they had no relationship to the description of the city. Specifically, this was 3,666 lines of text representing just over one-fourth of the written content, and 107 pictures which formed over two-thirds of the illustrations that were not counted in the subsequent analysis. The material excluded was devoted to physical design features at the facility such as floor plans, lists of audio-visual services, contractual policies, and lists of rental fees. Typical of the set of brochures, is the Quebec City Convention Centre (Palais des Congres de Quebec) brochure. It is twelve pages with 211 lines of text and nineteen pictures. Yet, only 68 lines of text and fifteen pictures focussed on city image themes. The remaining 143 lines of text and four pictures described features in the convention centre facility, not the city image. Of course those features could have been analyzed as well, however, it was beyond the objectives of this thesis.

3. The material linked to the description of the city was identified and summarized accounting for 1,369 (27%), of the total 5,035 lines of text. The same procedure was carried out for 227 (68%) of all the 334 pictures.

4. The last task involved identifying the key themes found in the city image material and classifying them (by number of lines of text and number of pictures)

according to the types of information they conveyed about the city. Following standard content analysis methods, the lines of text and pictures were sub-divided into seven different themes identified by previous researchers in the field.

Gadbois, (1975), Britton, (1979) Dilley, (1986), and Husbands, (1986), have produced tourism studies indicating there are several basic site and location features which are appropriate to use here. Dilley (1986) generalized these ideas and identified five themes in his study of tourism brochures: culture, location, recreation, landscape, and people. A review of the brochure information showed these categories were useful groupings on which to draw from in the analysis. Individual features found in the brochures that are summaries of the seven types are shown in Table 6.2.

6.5.1 Differentiating Between the Themes

However, there were some subjective decisions made for the allocation of themes. The vast majority of text and pictures were relatively easily assigned to one of the seven categories. All seven themes were used in the analysis of lines of text, but only five were in the picture analysis. This was because a variety of themes such as landscape, scenery, recreation and people, could be all be depicted in one picture. The two excluded were "economy" and "people". There are several reasons why those categories were omitted in the analysis of pictures.

(a) Economy The main reason for excluding 'economy' from the picture analysis was because only strong associations with each city were picked out and this category was small. Second, in the category "economy", lines of text describing an economic activity could be easily assigned, but it was doubtful that economic activities depicted in pictures, could be. It is not easy to interpret "economy" as an image theme except, for example, where industrial (Hamilton), and port cities (Vancouver, Halifax),

Table 6.2
City Image Themes in Convention Centre Brochures

| Category in Text and Pictures | Activities Categorized in the group | Lines of Text (%) | Number of Pictures (%) |
|----------------------------------|--|-------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1.Culture: | Visual and performing arts, festivals, ethnicity, parades, heritage, historic areas, symphony, museums, galleries, opera, ballet, theatre, fairs, local events, pageantry, ceremony, concerts. | 357 (26) | 59 (26) |
| 2.Location: | Maps of accessibility to city, distance, geographic location compared to other world cities, air, water, ground travel connections, travel schedules, travel time, urban transportation system; roads, buses, trains, rapid transit, vehicle rental. | 264 (19) | 36 (16) |
| 3.Recreation: | Summer, winter, indoor-outdoor participant/spectator sports; skiing, skating, snowshoeing, hiking, fishing, horseriding, fitness gyms, cycling, football, baseball, hockey, golf, swimming, stadiums, arenas, mountaineering, pleasure boat, cruise ship tours, rodeos, horseracing, horseriding, car racing, racquet sports. | 224 (16) | 40 (18) |
| 4.Landscape: | Nature and scenery; mountain, prairie, coastal, ports, harbours, rivers, lakes, beaches, parklands, flora and fauna, climate, seasons, urban skyline, architecture. | 210 (15) | 59 (26) |
| 5.Services: | Retail shops; boutiques, dining, cuisine, street cafes, pubs, local market squares, shopping malls, department stores, cinemas, nightclubs, accommodations. | 187 (14) | 33 (15) |
| 6.Economy: | Urban economic base; trade, commerce, financial, business, industry, govern- ment, academic, technology, tourism, population size. | 87 (6) | 0 |
| 7.People: | References to attitude, friendliness, positive, openness, smiling, welcoming, energetic, ethnicity. | 40 (3) | 0 |
| Total in Themes: | | 1,369 | 227 |
| Total in Brochures: | | 5,035 | 334 |

Source: Data computed by the author from information contained in .
convention centre brochures for the 14 cities.

were described by manufacturing plants and ships at dock. Pictures of office towers in an urban landscape did not express sufficient information to link them with the economic theme. Because of that difficulty, they were not considered a category in analysis of the pictures but were included in the 'text' analysis which explicitly referred to specific economic activities occurring in the city. Instead, those types of pictures were placed in the category for landscape.

(b) People. When people were portrayed in pictures decisions on the allocation to the individual category had to be made. According to the observations of Dilley (1986), and Britton (1979), when people are shown in illustrations they usually appear as stereotyped "stage props," put there as a weaker association with a more dominant image theme such as 'culture'. For example, the smiling waiters balancing a tray of food in a close-up picture in the Winnipeg Convention Centre brochure implied the essential message of service. Or, consider a picture of people dressed in ethnic costumes. Presumably, the strongest theme would be one of an association with a cultural image probably reflecting people's customs, while the people themselves would represent a weak link. Similarly, pictures showing the RCMP, who thematically are one of Canada's strongest and most easily recognized national symbols, were assigned to the category "culture" because the pictures represented the more dominant message of pageantry and ceremony.

If the picture showed people participating in an activity, i.e. sunbathers on a beach, or a golfer set against a scenic background of mountains, the dominant image theme counted was in the 'recreation' category. However, if no people had appeared in the picture of the beach or golf course, then the primary image theme would have been counted in the 'landscape' category.

6.6 Part Two: Results of the Content Analysis

6.6.1 Summary of City Image Themes

(a) General Findings: Table 6.3 summarizes the percentage of image themes in two categories contained in the fourteen convention centre brochures for lines of text and numbers of pictures.

Table 6.3

**Summary of Portrayal of City Themes
Differences Between Text and Pictures (Per Cent)**

| <u>Theme</u> | <u>Lines of Text</u> | <u>No. of Pictures</u> | <u>Difference</u> |
|--------------|----------------------|------------------------|-------------------|
| Culture | 26.0% | 26.0% | 0 |
| Services | 14.0 | 15.0 | +1 |
| Landscape | 15.0 | 26.0 | +11 |
| Recreation | 16.0 | 18.0 | +2 |
| Location | 19.0 | 16.0 | -3 |
| Economy | 6.0 | not used | -6 |
| People | 3.0 | not used | -3 |
| Total: | 100% | 100% | |

Note: Percentages are rounded off.

Source: Based on frequency count of seven themes contained in convention centre brochures for 14 cities.

Allowing for the loss of two theme categories for the pictures, there are almost identical proportions between the themes contained in the 'lines of text' and 'pictures'. Five out of seven themes were similar within 3 percentage points. 'Landscape' was the

exception for it accounted for 11 per cent more mentions in the 'picture' classification. However, that difference was made up for by the 'Location', 'Economy' and 'People' theme in lines of text. Altogether, slightly over one-quarter (26 per cent) of both the 1,369 lines of text and 227 pictures, described 'Culture' as the primary city image theme being promoted. This confirms Ashworth and Goodall's point about marketing tourism places (1990:140), and Dilley's (1986) study of tourist brochures. They both found that selling the past through "cultural" images, is one of the most common strategies used to translate heritage resources into a marketable product.

(b) Similarities and Differences Between the Cities and Themes: Table 6.4 and Table 6.5 show the actual values for the image themes in lines of text and pictures contained in the convention centre brochures.

TABLE 6.4
CITY THEMES : IN TEXT

Number (and Per Cent Values)

| City | Cult. | Locat. | Rec. | Landsc. | Serv. | Econ. | Peop. | Total |
|---------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--------|--------|------------|
| Vic. | 31(23) | 16(12) | 26(20) | 23(17) | 18(14) | 18(14) | 0 | 132(100%) |
| Vanc. | 24(16) | 46(31) | 22(15) | 22(15) | 23(15) | 9(6) | 3(2) | 149(100%) |
| Edmn. | 52(27) | 30(15) | 28(14) | 59(30) | 13(8) | 8(4) | 4(2) | 194(100%) |
| Calg. | 20(19) | 7(7) | 50(48) | 15(15) | 5(5) | 6(6) | 0 | 103(100%) |
| Sask. | 8(27) | 6(20) | 9(30) | 9(30) | 3(10) | 1(3) | 0 | 30(100%) |
| Winn. | 21(20) | 17(16) | 33(31) | 8(7) | 20(19) | 0 | 8(7) | 107(100%) |
| Tor. | 26(28) | 18(19) | 6(6) | 14(15) | 16(17) | 11(12) | 3(3) | 94(100%) |
| Ham. | 17(35) | 20(41) | 4(8) | 4(8) | 4(8) | 0 | 0 | 49(100%) |
| Ott. | 58(38) | 20(13) | 13(8) | 13(8) | 32(21) | 9(6) | 8(5) | 153(100%) |
| Hull | 9(26) | 5(15) | 6(18) | 8(23) | 3(9) | 0 | 3(9) | 34(100%) |
| Que. | 30(44) | 9(13) | 6(9) | 15(22) | 6(9) | 0 | 2(3) | 68(100%) |
| Mon. | 23(21) | 35(32) | 7(6) | 4(4) | 23(21) | 13(12) | 5(4) | 110(100%) |
| S.J. | 11(23) | 8(17) | 11(23) | 7(15) | 11(23) | 0 | 0 | 48(100%) |
| Hal. | 27(27) | 27(28) | 3(3) | 15(15) | 10(10) | 12(12) | 4(4) | 98(100%) |
| Total: | 357(26%) | 264(19%) | 224(16%) | 210(15%) | 187(14%) | 87(6%) | 40(3%) | 1369(100%) |

Source: Computed from convention centre brochures for 14 centres

TABLE 6.5
CITY THEMES : IN PICTURES

Number (and Per Cent Values)

| City | Landsc. | Cult. | Rec. | Locat. | Serv. | Total |
|---------------|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-----------|
| Vic. | 5(25) | 5(25) | 5(25) | 3(15) | 2(10) | 20(100%) |
| Vanc. | 6(42) | 5(19) | 5(19) | 3(8) | 3(11) | 26(100%) |
| Edmn. | 3(27) | 4(36) | 0 | 2(18) | 2(18) | 11(100%) |
| Calg. | 2(18) | 1(9) | 6(54) | 2(18) | 0 | 11(100%) |
| Sask. | 3(17) | 4(22) | 3(17) | 4(22) | 4(22) | 18(100%) |
| Winn. | 5(11) | 17(38) | 12(27) | 4(9) | 7(16) | 45(100%) |
| Tor. | 4(24) | 6(35) | 2(12) | 2(12) | 3(18) | 17(100%) |
| Ham. | 1(17) | 0 | 1(17) | 3(50) | 1(17) | 6(100%) |
| Ott. | 9(53) | 3(18) | 3(18) | 1(6) | 1(6) | 17(100%) |
| Hull | 2(40) | 0 | 1(20) | 2(40) | 0 | 5(100%) |
| Que. | 3(20) | 9(60) | 0 | 2(13) | 1(7) | 15(100%) |
| Mon. | 7(30) | 3(13) | 2(9) | 5(22) | 6(26) | 23(100%) |
| S.J. | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2(100) | 0 | 2(100%) |
| Hal. | 4(36) | 2(18) | 0 | 2(18) | 3(27) | 11(100%) |
| Total: | 59(26) | 59(26) | 40(18) | 36(16) | 33(15) | 227(100%) |

Source: Computed from convention centre brochures for 14 cities

Overall, Table 6.4 shows that there is a relatively high degree of similarity when the percentages for each city and the themes in lines of text are compared. In total there are 7 themes in lines of text for 14 places (98 cells). Values in these cells can be averaged for all 7 themes. The majority are within 5 per cent of the average for the group. However, there were numerous minor variations ranging from 6 to 10 per cent differences between the individual city and averages for the group for the seven themes. Twelve centres, (12/98) or 11 per cent of the city values represented more than a 10 per cent difference in the themes. The most extreme differences in themes were shown for 'culture' (Quebec City, +18%); 'location' (Hamilton, +22%); and 'recreation' (Calgary, +32%). These indicate the places and themes that are emphasized the most.

From the values calculated in Table 6.4 and Table 6.5, the most dominant image theme portrayed in all the brochures appears to be 'recreation' in 48 per cent of lines of text and in 54 per cent of the pictures for Calgary. The next nearest city is Winnipeg with 31 percent of the brochures lines of text and 27 per cent of pictures consisting of the 'recreation' theme.

The brochure for the Winnipeg Convention Centre also stood out as having the highest proportion of the five image themes portrayed in 45 pictures. It contained 19 per cent of the total 227 brochure illustrations. When the percentage values for pictures in Table 6.5 were compared for each city and the 5 themes (70 cells), half the centres reflected more than a .15% difference. Many minor variations existed between 6 and 10 per cent for most cities. Extremes for pictures are for 'landscape' (Ottawa +27%); 'culture' for Quebec City (+34%); 'recreation' (Calgary, +16%); and 'location' for Saint John (+84%). Eight of the cities depicted the 'services' category in up to 15 per cent of the cases.

An important issue was whether the individual brochures emphasize some of the themes more than others. Several of the convention centre brochures seem to be inconsistent in portraying one dominant theme in both lines and pictures. Goss (1988), emphasized that a city markets its image to a diverse and complex number of individuals with various interests and it is difficult for a city to be all things to all people. As a consequence, there was rather more variation among image themes in the brochures suggesting that some of the convention centres were not sure whether they wanted to promote culture, landscape, location, recreation, services, or economic features.

O'Brien's study of British tourist brochures (1988:35), made a strong case against agencies presenting a variety of opportunities for tourists to explore. O'Brien

argued that the brochures deliberately avoided the presentation of a variety of details because the consumer may not have thought of them, or would be distracted from the easily identifiable images that tourism agencies want to promote.

(c) Individual City Themes:

1. Culture

(a) Four out of 14 brochures had a minor proportion (within 10 per cent) of the 'culture' category (Winnipeg, Vancouver, Calgary, Hamilton). This category was a major theme which was found in 26 per cent of the text in the 14 brochures. Quebec City had the highest proportion of image themes in the culture category, represented in 44 per cent of the brochure's lines and in 60 per cent of its pictures. Popular images of that city tend to be related to exciting cultural encounters visitors can have because it is "the heart of Canada's French language, ethnicity and history".

Quebec City's history was heavily promoted in references in lines of text and in pictures about the city's interesting language, culture and lifestyle, assuring potential visitors that the city would be exactly as they imagined it. Fifteen pictures portrayed significant features of that city's culture including its old and new architecture, statues of heroes, and the portrayal of festivals in the old part of the city. More than any of the others, possibly because of a European influence which stresses culture, the brochure is selling its city's past as a resource.

(b) Toronto's Metro Convention Centre brochure reflected 'culture' as that city's largest single image category in lines of text (28%) and in seventeen pictures (35%). Its history was reflected in the "best of old and very latest of new worlds", with the third largest live theatre market anywhere (author's emphasis), and one of the largest Chinese exhibitions, outside China, in the world.

(c) Quite a different image than Toronto's was gleaned from the interpretation of 'culture' portrayed in 38 per cent of the lines and 18 per cent of pictures in Ottawa's brochure. References to the arts, the historic flavour of the nation's capital, its monuments, architecture, festivals, ceremonies, changing of the guard in front of the Parliament buildings, and pageantry formed the largest proportion of the Ottawa brochure.

(d) Seventeen pictures in the Winnipeg Convention Centre brochure (38%) were strongly associated with cultural characteristics. Many of the pictures illustrated the multi-cultural mosaic of the city's population. Other aspects of culture were expressed in twenty per cent of the lines proclaiming its "world-renowned Folklorama", and "the oldest theatre troupe in Canada." One of the city's common images, the Winnipeg Ballet, was emphasized in 20 per cent of lines of text and 32 per cent pictures. The city's culture was illustrated in pictures of a variety of ethnic celebrations, festivals, concerts, the symphony, opera, and art galleries.

(e) Another city, well ahead of most of the others in the promotion of culture in pictures (36%), and to a lesser extent in lines of text (27%), was Edmonton. This brochure chose to focus on the city's festivals, establishing a trademark for itself as the "festival city of Canada". In lines, the brochure played up an artistic theme, with "more professional theatre companies per capita than any other city in Canada". It noted "North America's largest Fringe Theatre Festival", and pointed out that Klondike Days, Heritage Days, Winter Carnival, and Folk Festival were held each year in Edmonton.

(f) The brochure for Hull's convention centre contained cultural images in 26 per cent of its lines, but in none of the pictures. The city's cultural duality was noted in lines commenting on the "crossroads of two main Canadian cultures, French and

English", "by simply crossing one of five bridges you can take in the best of two cultures," and "charming theatres reminiscent of the old continent."

(g) A cultural component was Victoria's primary image theme in thirty-one lines (23%) of text. But in pictures, the Victoria Conference Centre brochure contained an equal proportion (25%) for culture, landscape, and recreation. The city's culture was noted in its historical public buildings, and 'fine' homes, and "bit of old England". Lines of text enhanced the perceived English character and British traditions of Victoria. As one of western Canada's oldest cities, its theatres, art galleries, and restored heritage buildings were featured.

(h) It would seem from the pictures in the Calgary Convention Centre brochure that the city lacks a great deal of cultural activities. Just one picture of its opera company, and twenty lines (19%) were devoted to mentioning live theatre, an opera company, symphony orchestra, and "dozens of art galleries".

2. Location

The location theme included factors such as site accessibility, transportation routes and distance, and was portrayed primarily in maps for the fourteen brochures. It formed 19 per cent of the total lines of text, and 16 per cent of all the pictures. Six convention centre brochures (Halifax, Quebec, Ottawa, Montreal, Calgary, Victoria) made relatively few references to location. O'Brien's study of the imagery contained in British sightseeing brochures (1988:40) discussed the importance of maps in brochures. He suggested they are put there to incorporate a sense of something beyond the city that is worthwhile being visited.

(a) The city with a major emphasis upon the location theme was Hamilton. Perhaps it was trying to avoid the 'steel city' image. The brochure title is appropriate to the location theme: "Are You Planning to Hold Your Next Convention in the Middle of

Nowhere, or at the Centre of it All?" Hamilton devoted 41 per cent of lines of text, and 50 per cent of pictures to transportation connections, distance, and accessibility. A full front page picture focussed on Hamilton's accessibility "located at the centre of it all for convenience". A map in the brochure showed Hamilton's position relative to Detroit, Buffalo, Toronto, Ottawa and Montreal.

Many lines of text ((41%) in the Hamilton brochure assured the reader that the easy accessibility to the city was a major benefit. However, most of the location features conveyed were not within in the city, but were a "short drive away", creating the impression that the city is simply a base for visitors so they can explore what is outside the city in Niagara Falls or Toronto. Hamilton is located close to Toronto and the brochure seemed to place more importance on its main convention competitor.

(b) The Palais des Congres de Hull devoted 40 per cent of its pictures to location, but only 15 per cent of its lines to the same theme. However, the proportion of pictures covering city image themes may be misleading because there were just two of five diagrams depicting location. One was a map of North America with the city prominently featured, and one was a city map.

(c) The Palais des Congres de Montreal and the Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre capitalized on location as their main image theme in 32 per cent and 31 per cent of lines of text. Both of these cities emphasized how easy it is to get there from elsewhere. Vancouver was "the centre of the world", the "Pacific Gateway", a "Convenient hub for all of North America", and "equi-distant from major cities of Europe and Asia, with "18 international airlines [to] connect the city world-wide". Montreal put more emphasis on its transportation infrastructure, the "world famous Metro system", than did Vancouver.

(d) The Halifax brochure stressed the city's location as being excellent in 28 per cent of the lines. In pictures, 18 per cent of the city's locational features were depicted. Yet, a map showing "a world of accessibility to major North American cities" omitted the Canadian cities of Victoria, Saskatoon, Quebec City, and Saint John, where convention centres are also located. Perhaps it was intentional that the convention centre did not consider those five places accessible!

The results of the analysis for lines of text and pictures in other cities show their brochures did not emphasize location to any extent. Location did not seem to be an important theme for Calgary. Only 7 per cent in lines of text and 18 per cent of pictures were location related. These low figures confirm the notion that the city is not as accessible as are other Canadian cities. What the Calgary brochure mentioned most of all for location was outside the city, specifically accessibility to the Rocky Mountains, Banff, and numerous ski resorts in the area.

3. Recreation

Recreational attributes were the third most mentioned image theme in (16%) lines of text, and in (18%) of pictures for all 14 brochures.

(a) The Calgary brochure portrayed 'recreation' as its dominant theme with 48 per cent of its lines and 54 per cent of its pictures devoted to participant and spectator recreation in either winter or summer activities. In particular, the Calgary brochure attempted to "sell" the city based on special recreational and sports events. Its status as the host city to the 1988 Winter Olympics was heavily promoted including associations with "the world's largest indoor speedskating rink". The brochure also assures the reader that Calgary is the place to be for "winter sports enthusiasts".

(b) Recreation was a primary theme in lines of text (31%) and a secondary theme in pictures (27%) in Winnipeg's brochure. It featured spectator sports; the

National Hockey League, Canadian Football League, and horseracing at Assinaboia Downs. This brochure included just about every type of outdoor participant sport from tennis and golf to fishing, swimming, skiing and canoeing on the Red River.

(c) In Saskatoon, recreation was also the theme most often portrayed. Thirty per cent of the Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre brochure lines, and 17 per cent of the pictures promoted "some of Canada's top ranked, best loved golf courses."

(d) The Halifax convention centre brochure had the smallest number (3%) in lines of text and with no pictures recognizing recreation as an important image theme for that city. Presumably, that city felt that its landscape, culture and locational attributes could provide better image authenticity, possibly attracting more convention visitors.

4. Landscape

Landscape themes in lines of text (15%), and in pictures (26%), ranked fourth as an image promoted in all the cities. This category includes nature, scenery, flora, fauna, and climate (see Table 6.2).

(a) Ottawa's brochure had the most city landscape scenes of all the brochures in 17 of its pictures (53%). Photographs portrayed an assemblage of abundant flowers, especially tulips, which the city uses in its annual festival to celebrate the arrival of spring, and in its attractive park system. Just 8 per cent of the Ottawa Congress Centre city description was about landscape in lines of text.

(b) Vancouver's brochure was second for landscape images in eleven (42%) pictures, and in twenty-two (15%), of its lines of text. The brochure emphasized the city's lush flowers and greenery, parks and birds, its warm Pacific climate, and the harbour.

(c) Edmonton, Alberta's capital city, portrayed the highest proportion of the landscape category in lines of text (30%) but only had 27 per cent of its pictures offering images of the landscape. This brochure touted Edmonton as having the "largest natural city park in the country, 744 hectares of trails and lush picnic grounds," and the "only city where you can picnic as late as eleven o'clock at night in the summer."

(d) The Halifax Trade and Convention Centre placed more emphasis on portraying its city's maritime landscape in pictures (36%) than it did in lines of text (15%). To make that brochure portray a 'Haligonian' image, it showed a panoramic city skyline in a full page view on both front and back covers, against a background of the harbour and famous sailing vessel, the Bluenose.

(e) Calgary was promoted as having "some of the most magnificent natural scenery in the world." A large proportion of the 15 per cent of lines of text and 18 per cent of pictures describing landscape for Calgary showed one view of the "magnificent Canadian Rockies." Another was a city scene with lots of blue sky, greenery, the Calgary Tower, and downtown office towers.

(f) In Saskatoon, an equal proportion of attention (17%) was given to the city's landscape as well as its location.

(g) The convention centre brochure for Montreal mentioned that city's landscape features the least often (4%) in lines of text, but promoted it rather more in seven (30%) of the 23 pictures.

5. Services (stores, accommodation, nightclubs), contributed to the fifth most frequently mentioned image theme in lines of text (15%), and in (14%) of the brochure pictures for the fourteen brochures. On an individual city basis though, the 'service' theme was hardly represented in either text or pictures.

(a) Halifax promoted services primarily through pictures (27%) of that city's businesses in the historic area.

(b) Saint John gave equal attention to services, culture, and recreation in its lines of text (23%). The city was especially distinguished for its services at the historic market square complex in the harbour area.

(c) Saskatoon, Winnipeg, Toronto, Ottawa, Montreal, Vancouver and Victoria all promoted 'services' to a similar extent, ranging from 10 to 21 per cent.

(d) For Edmonton, there was scarcely any mention (8% of the lines, and 18 per cent of the pictures) of city services except for the West Edmonton Mall, "the largest shopping and entertainment complex in the world".

(e) Calgary's convention centre brochure also placed its services in a subordinate position. The brochure had a very small number of the services category in lines of text (5%) and completely eliminated any pictorial communication of retail stores, hotels, restaurants, or nightclubs.

6. Economy A city's major economic resources, reflected in references to industry, trade, finances, government, educational and academic institutions, and technology, ranked sixth in the list of image categories. In fact, nine of the brochures only briefly mentioned their city's economic base in lines of text, as follows:

(a) Victoria as the capital city of B.C. and a provincial government centre (14%);

(b) Vancouver as a port city (6%);

(c) Edmonton as the provincial capital and centre of oil distribution (4%);

(d) Calgary as an oil city (6%);

(e) Saskatoon as the agricultural hub of the prairies (3%);

(f) Ottawa (6%), is portrayed as the diplomatic core of the country because it is the nation's capital and is the federal government's administrative centre.

(g) Montreal, once a dominant financial centre of Canada until the 1980s when many Anglo-phone businesses moved out, promotes its economy in 13 lines of text (12%). The brochure describes the large number of "intellectual research facilities and community of specialists." Its economic base is presented as a "commercial and industrial metropolis." Another economic image was illustrated with the variety of "medical, industrial, electronic and aeronautic sectors, among the world's most dynamic." As well, it was pointed out that "most principal associations have headquarters in Montreal."

(h) The Toronto convention centre brochure for Ontario's capital city identified more 'prestigious' phrases (12%) than was found in other brochures to convince the reader that it is the most impressive financial city in Canada. Toronto's brochure stated it was 'world famous' in most economic features and "appears to have sprouted from a forest (from the air), Fortune magazine called us the world's newest great city, and Newsweek called an urban miracle, it is a comingling [emphasis added! The word is not in Webster's dictionary] of shining technologies, Toronto is more than a city, it's a state of mind." The brochure also pointed out that Toronto held the distinction of being the 'number one' tourist destination in Canada.

(i) Halifax, the capital city of Nova Scotia and biggest city in the Atlantic provinces, provides an economic image based on its almost obsolete, but still charming, marine theme with fishing, port and harbour facilities (12%).

The remaining five convention centre brochures representing the cities of Winnipeg, Hamilton, Hull, Quebec City and Saint John, provided no evidence of any economic theme. It might have been expected that Winnipeg, the capital city of

Manitoba, would focus on the fact it is a major distribution centre for Canada's agricultural products, but it did not mention that factor.

7. People. The 'people' category was relatively downplayed since it was only the seventh image theme in lines of text for all the brochures (3%) except for Hull (9%). Presumably, the brochure authors believed that the mention of people did not create any real or specific image for individual places.

The Palais des Congres de Hull mentions its local people the most in lines of text with statements referring to their people "share their joie de vivre" with visitors. In Winnipeg (7%) state "our people are the friendliest," and the Manitoba license plate says "the friendly province." No reference was made of the inhabitants of Victoria, Calgary, Saskatoon, Hamilton, or Saint John in their brochures. Brochures for Vancouver and Edmonton scarcely make any mention (2%) of local people except to say that as a city "Vancouver prides itself on its open, friendly attitude," while Edmonton is "a city of 10,000 volunteers."

Toronto refers to people in only 3 per cent of its lines as "friendly faces, amiable natured, familiar feelings." Ottawa attempted to evoke an image of "friendly, energetic, local people with vitality who always make you feel at home," in 5 per cent of the lines of text. Montreal and Halifax devoted just 4 per cent of the written portion of their brochures to people. Halifax mentioned the "100,000 friendly welcomes," and Montreal, the "truly cosmopolitan bienvenues." Quebec City's 3 per cent proportion of lines devoted to people assured the reader that their city's inhabitants are "people who speak French and welcome you with heartfelt smiles." It would seem that the brochure authors believed the communication of a friendly people is a trait that must be stressed, although in a minor way in all these cases.

6.7 Portraying Seasonal Themes

Within the recreation, landscape and services categories the theme of seasonality cuts across the initial image theme. Climate elements are the subject of repeated comment in most convention centre brochures. References to climate are important because potential visitors need to know, for example, what activities are possible under certain climatic conditions.

The objective of this part of the chapter was to isolate the images of climate communicated under the themes of 'recreation', 'landscape' and services. Information contained in individual words, phrases, and pictures is useful for describing the climatic factors actually addressed in the brochures. Moreover, the convention centre brochure information is useful for describing the relationship between the "perception" of Canadian climate held by outsiders and the climatic features which are actually mentioned. A commonly held image of Canada, which appears to be produced mostly in the minds of Americans, is one of unrelenting and universal frigidity. Yet, Phillip's data (1990:2) showed that Canada holds none of the world's worst weather records for cold temperatures, snow, rain, and other extremes. Even so, that is hardly encouraging considering temperatures can reach -30 degrees celsius in numerous places during the winter. Understandably, the creation of a pleasant climate image seems to be most important in an effort to dispel such myths.

Several studies have reviewed the relationship between climate and tourism (Dilley, 1986; Mieczkowski, 1985), climate and conventions (Gartrell, 1988; Tritsch, 1986, 1989), and image-reality relationships (Marsh, 1985; Mill and Morrison, 1985; O'Brien, 1988). Studies of this kind are useful not only because they provide information on what type of climate is portrayed but also for their importance in the

promotion of certain places to visit. One must remember, however, that different people may have different attitudes about and reactions to climate.

Dilley's (1986:62) analysis of 21 international tourist brochures confirmed the common sense note that "pleasant" climate themes are mainly projected because it is unlikely people would want to go to a place where activities are going to be hindered by inclement weather conditions. The 14 Canadian convention centre brochures examined in this study also tended to focus on images which would satisfy the pursuit of sun, sand, and beaches. Of course, defining "pleasant" and "unpleasant" climate is difficult because personal reactions to weather differ according to health, age, occupation and acclimatization (Phillips, 1990:26).

Mieczkowski's study on the climatic preferences of tourists in general (1985:220-233), discussed the problem of bias in information that tourism agencies report, thereby distorting the real climate situation. He proposed a single world tourism climate index integrating all the climatic elements relevant to travel and tourism, namely: precipitation, temperature, sunshine, wind and fog. Mieczkowski also argued that outdoor winter activities should be addressed more by the tourism industry. Presumably, if convention goers were realistically informed about a place's climate, the inclination toward certain destinations at specific times of the year might be greater. Thus, the climate index proposed by Mieczkowski would serve as useful information for convention delegates who are unfamiliar with the climatic conditions normally encountered in various places at different times of the year.

Conventions tend to be a seasonal activity in Canada and the decision to book a convention in a particular city may be influenced by winter climate considerations (MacDonald, 1988:D5). While climate is only one variable motivating the selection of

a specific destination such as Canada, decision makers probably have an interest in selecting a season of the year when the climate is likely to be reasonable.

In a survey of attitudes of 1,513 Americans conducted by Mill and Morrison, (1985:15-36) the respondents considered climate to be one of the most important attributes when planning a foreign trip. The authors recommended that marketing campaigns should stress the times of year when climatic factors are favourable and emphasize the amount of sunshine, or lack of rain during certain months. They suggested impressions of poor climate areas could be corrected with statistics of sunshine and rainfall, particularly for convention seasons. Another proposal put forth by these authors was to change negative attitudes about climate by changing the negative product so activities could occur indoors, irrespective of the weather (1985:34).

Mill and Morrison's ideas appear to have been adopted in a study in Nova Scotia where the negative image of fog is being marketed as a tourist attraction, and an asset to the province. Sullivan, (1990:A1) and a Canadian Press article in *The Province* (1990:24), described a survey of American families which showed that "fog appeal" fitted into travel trends toward escapism:

1. Fog was a quality travellers looked for in their search for the difference between the life they live and the life they want to see;
2. Fog lends a calming effect and intimacy that appeal to older affluent Americans who want to "get away from it all."
3. All visitors were not interested in active things like sports, but preferred more passive activities like sightseeing.

Although no figures have been cited on the number of conventions held in the summer it appears that convention activity in Canada tends to be conducted mainly in

the three months which are viewed as warm and "pleasant", that is May, June, and October. Less activity seems to occur in the months perceived as "unpleasant", November, December, and January (MacDonald, 1988:2-5). In addition, international meetings tend to coincide with peak vacation periods in June when convention delegates combine holidays with work (Lawson, 1981:31). In Calgary, for example, convention months cover most of the year with two month-long breaks between December 15 and January 15, and another from August 15 to September 15 (Ford, 1991:A4). In Edmonton, attracting conventions during December and January is reported to be almost impossible due to the city's frigid weather (Cashman, 1988).

Since the Canadian convention industry primarily focusses its marketing strategy on attracting people from the United States (Tritsch, 1986:2), the promotion of a positive climate image is of vital importance. Tritsch's work on the Canadian convention industry (1986, 1989), implied that the location of Canadian cities near the border provided a climate similar to cities in the U.S.

No discussion of Canada would be complete without mentioning the weather--primarily to dispel myths. All of Canada's major meeting destinations are clustered along the U.S. border. Each province's weather, therefore, resembles that of either Detroit, Niagara Falls, or Seattle. And Vancouver, thanks to the warming water of the Japanese Current, has what some believe to be the best climate of all, temperate marine. The city's temperature rarely drops below the freezing point or above 90 degrees. One can ski and golf year round in the same place.

Tritsch suggested that winter never happens in cities on the Canadian side of the border! Indeed, there are distinctive differences between the climate one might experience in American and in Canadian cities, especially if comparing southern cities in Florida or California. Yet, according to Tritsch, 1986) when it comes to

conventions, one city's climate imitates another no matter where it is experienced in the U.S. or Canada.

Despite evidence of measurable contrasts in temperatures, precipitation and sunshine across the country (Environment Canada, 1982; Phillips, 1990), individual convention centre marketing promotes their Canadian cities as if summer never ceases. Much like the misleading climate imagery reported in O'Brien's study of British tourism publicity (1988:33-40), the convention centres exaggerated isolated climatic elements in their brochures. "Work-enhancing and cheerful" warm temperatures and sunshine were depicted, while 'negative' elements such as rain, snow, fog, and cold weather, was avoided. Thus, a title for the summary of Canadian climate depicted in the brochures: "*Cities of Perpetual Summer in Canada*" suggested by Davies (personal communication, 1990) seemed most appropriate.

6.7.1 Cities of Perpetual Summer in Canada?

An interpretation of climate and seasonal elements contained in the convention centre brochures addressed the issue of their importance in the individual cities. First, a total of 143 (10%) words and phrases were enumerated from the 1,369 lines of text which form the seven themes. Eighty pictures (35%) depicted climate and seasonal elements.

Seasonal themes were classified under two categories established for lines of text and pictures:

1. Summer Scenes: outdoor retail services, scenery, outdoor and indoor recreation, cultural and leisure activities;
2. Winter Scenes: indoor 'comfort' services, scenery, outdoor and indoor recreation.

The particular elements of the phrases and pictures linked to 4 general climatic and seasonal themes were classified from the information. They are summarized in Table 6.6. Following the seasonal themes is a list in Table 6.7, which describes the elaborate connotations used for describing climate and the seasons.

Table 6.6
Summary of Seasonal Themes

1. Recreational Activities

(a) **Summer:** Sailing, yachting, canoeing, riverboat cruises, sunbathing, swimming, fishing, golf, tennis, football, baseball, picnics, camping, hiking, zoos, cycling, horseriding, rodeos, horse racing, car racing.

(b) **Winter:** Skating, snowmobiling, snowshoeing, skiing, hockey.

2. Scenery, Nature and Landscape:

(a) **Summer:** Green grass, gardens, parklands, beaches, flora and fauna, harbours, fountains, seascapes, mountains, sunsets, lakes, rivers, blue sky, fresh air.

(b) **Winter:** Backdrop of snow covered mountains, frozen lakes and rivers.

3. Outdoor Cultural and Leisure Activities:

(a) **Summer:** Festivals, carnivals, pageantry, "theatre under the stars", ethnic celebrations, fairs, exhibitions, fairs, open air concerts.

4. Outdoor Retail Services:

(a) **Summer:** Street cafes, street markets, streetscenes, courtyards, terraces, street vendors, summer clothing, ice cream and cool drinks.

(b) **Winter:** "Comfort" services: Tour buses to ski facilities, subways, underground shopping malls.

Note: Cultural and leisure activities were identified for summer only because a proportion of pictures in the brochures were of indoor views of activities i.e. opera, theatre, ballet, which could occur during any season.

Source: Compiled from information contained in 14 Canadian convention centre brochures.

Table 6.7
City Seasons Reflected in Words and Phrases in Text

| City | Connotative Terminology |
|------------------|--|
| Victoria | <p>Influence of the sea, warm Pacific air. Temperate in all seasons. Warm. Year round mild climate. Golf every day of the year. Close proximity to ski resorts.</p> |
| Vancouver | <p>Blue Pacific, warming influence of Japanese current. Gentle Pacific climate. Mountains with seasonal activities. Sunny Gulf Islands. Golf year round. Ski year round. City's temperate climate. Flowers bloom year round. Air is clean and refreshing.</p> |
| Edmonton | <p>Air is tonic, refreshing, crisp. Turquoise lakes for recreation. Bluest sky. Cool and quiet. Crisp new day. Clear midnight sun. Sun shines 16 hours a day. Sunny city. Enjoy outdoor amenities till end of fall. Enjoy winter and summer pursuits. In summer enjoy a picnic till 11 pm. Snowflake festival. Animates the magic of winter.</p> |
| Calgary | <p>High wide and sunny sky. Summer mountain splendour. Real breath of fresh air. Refreshing! Sunshine. Downtown ideal for year round outdoor events. Summer opens up a world of outdoor pleasure. Colours of seasons brings diverse adventures. White magic in city. Winter sports enthusiasts. Snow. When snow flies. Dazzling winter wonderland.</p> |

Table 6.7 (cont)

| | |
|--------------------|---|
| | Glory and powder. Skiing when snow flies. |
| Saskatoon | Sunniest big city 2450 hours of sunshine a year. Sunshine and lollipops. |
| Winnipeg | Endless expanse of sky for recreation. Fresh air galore. Most spectacular sunsets in North America. Miles of white sandy beaches. Abundance of ski trails. Superior summer opportunities. |
| Toronto | Numerous summer sports, recreation. Gardens, paths, flowing streams. |
| Hamilton | Wide choice of summer sports. Centre of all seasons. |
| Ottawa | Open air markets galore. Celebrates the arrival of each season. A different city for each season. Festivals of spring, summer, fall, winter. Recreationists dream. Use paths year round. Scenery and seasons renowned for beauty. Skiing only a ways away. |
| Hull | Surrounded by parks. Summer recreation opportunities for all. |
| Quebec City | In green and blue. Lively terraces saturated with sunshine. Refreshing water of lakes and rivers. Summer uniquely Quebec City. In red and yellow. Colours in parks, woods, streets. Watching wild geese leave in October. Sounds of hunters shattering silent dawn. Fall uniquely Quebec City. In white, a white city. Surrounded by snowpacked mountains. Skiers paradise. Cold depths of February carnivals. Blades of skaters. Entire city romping in snow. Winter uniquely Quebec City. Tanned skiers. Maple syrup poured on snow. |

Table 6.7 (cont)

White streaks in sky, wild geese returning.
Spring uniquely Quebec City.

| | |
|-------------------|--|
| Montreal | Continental climate. Sidewalk terraces. Picnics on Mount Royal. Oasis of greenery. Underground city, never have to go outdoors. |
| Saint John | Ocean Bay. Maritime climate. Wide range of temperatures. Fresh sea air. Beaches, boating, fishing, golf, tennis. Ice skating, skiing. Climate at a glance. |
| Halifax | Stroll and explore streets year round. Outdoor farmers market. Walk barefoot along sandy beaches. Invigorating fresh salt air. Picnic on lush greenery. |

Source: Phrases summarized from the 14 convention centre brochures for each city.

6.7.2 Summary of Climate Elements for Cities in Canada

The objective of the review of climate elements and seasonal themes was to find out how important the 'weather' in Canadian cities is in the brochure information. Not surprisingly, there was an emphasis on the use of positive terminology. Negative words such as 'snow, ice, and cold', were avoided except in the promotion of skiing, snowmobiling, snowshoeing, and skating. In those cases, it appeared the brochure's designers viewed the negative connotations about climate as a way to turn something negative into something positive. Actually, the review found that climate is a relatively minor issue in the brochures.

A more accurate portrayal of climate in Canadian cities was produced from excerpts in a recent book on climate (Phillips, 1990) for Environment Canada. Table 6.8 presents a summary description of the positive and negative climate elements for

the fourteen Canadian convention cities. The cities are grouped according to their common climate elements.

Table 6.8
Positive and Negative Climate Elements

| City | "Positive" | "Negative" |
|-------------|-------------------------------|---|
| Victoria | mild winters, little snow | rain, fog. |
| Vancouver | warm temperatures. | |
| Edmonton | sunny, dry air, least foggy | cold winters, |
| Calgary | Chinook relief, cool summers. | blizzards, hail |
| Saskatoon | dry, sunshine, low precip. | blizzards |
| Winnipeg | hot summer days. | cold winters. |
| Hamilton | warm sunny summers | high humidity |
| Toronto | short winters | fog, stormy |
| Ottawa | 4 distinct seasons. | lots of snow. |
| Hull | | |
| Montreal | warm summers, cool winters | snow, blizzards |
| Quebec City | few hailstorms. | freezing rain, long winters. |
| Saint John | mild winters, cool summers | rain, fog, snow |
| Halifax | sunny in winter, little wind. | humidity freezing rain. blizzards |

Source: Produced from information in *The Climates of Canada*, Environment Canada, Phillips, 1990.

The accuracy of the brochure information can be substantiated from Environment Canada climate documents. Table 6.9 shows selected Environment Canada data based on current thirty-year normals for 1951-1980, for the cities in this study. Data was compiled by the author for three climate elements: temperatures for the months of June and January, annual precipitation for snowfall and rainfall, and annual hours of bright sunshine.

Table 6.9
Selected 30-Year Mean Climate Elements, Canadian Cities

| City | Temperature | | Precipitation | | Rain/Snow | | Sunshine Hours |
|-----------|-------------|-----------|---------------|---------------|-----------|--------|-------------------|
| | June/Jan. | (celsius) | Rain/Snow | (millimetres) | Rain/Snow | (Days) | |
| Victoria | 21.7 | 6.0 | 822.6 | 49.9 | 150 | 13 | 2100 |
| Vancouver | 19.2 | 5.2 | 1055.4 | 60.4 | 156 | 15 | 1920 |
| Edmonton | 23.0 | -10.9 | 345.6 | 137.9 | 74 | 61 | 2264 |
| Calgary | 19.9 | -6.0 | 300.0 | 152.5 | 58 | 62 | 2314 |
| Saskatoon | 22.3 | -14.1 | 260.4 | 113.1 | 57 | 59 | 2450 |
| Winnipeg | 23.1 | -14.3 | 411.0 | 125.4 | 72 | 57 | 2321 |
| Toronto | 23.9 | -2.5 | 637.2 | 131.2 | 99 | 47 | 2045 |
| Hamilton | 23.7 | -2.6 | 680.8 | 143.1 | 97 | 42 | 2045 |
| Ott./Hull | 23.7 | -6.4 | 662.9 | 227.3 | 62 | 107 | 2008 |
| Que.City | 22.3 | -7.5 | 836.4 | 343.4 | 115 | 73 | 1852 |
| Montreal | 22.6 | -5.7 | 722.9 | 235.1 | 114 | 62 | 2054 |
| St.John | 22.8 | -2.1 | 1152.0 | 224.1 | 124 | 59 | 1865 |
| Halifax | 20.3 | -1.6 | 1223.8 | 271.0 | 125 | 64 | 1885 |

Source: Compiled by author from *Canadian Climate Normals 1951-1980*, Environment Canada 1982. Vol. 2:Temperature; Vol.3:Precipitation; Vol.7:Bright Sunshine.

Even though July is the warmest month in Canada (Environment Canada, 1982), temperatures for June were selected because that is the month representing peak convention activity. July tends to be a low period for conventions due to holiday season. January temperature values were selected because they represent the coldest month of the year across the country, when it is expected there would be fewer conventions held.

Few comments about any of what is perceived as the "negative" aspects of climate in Canada were found in the brochures. This factor suggests that accurate descriptions of climate elements and activities associated with Canadian winters were not considered 'good' city promotional material. Most notable was the absence of the common "negative" images generally associated with winter temperatures and

precipitation in the form of snow and rain. After conducting a comparison of the seasonal words and phrases and pictures in each brochure with Environment Canada data it was evident and not really surprising, that winter is not promoted to the same extent as is summer.

An examination of seasonal themes contained in the brochures identified that two important climate elements were not accurately addressed, namely temperature and precipitation. In fact, most cities chose not to mention them at all. Not surprisingly, sunshine was promoted in all the cities, even though Environment Canada data showed the extent of bright sunshine, sunshine days, and rainfall and snowfall norms varied across Canada. Thus, Vancouver, Halifax, Saint John, and Quebec City were not as "pleasant" because all receive high levels of precipitation. Sunshine is most always a positive factor when it comes to making a decision to travel to specific destinations: "The primary and most significant weather element associated with increased pleasantness is increased sunshine" (Mieczkowski, 1985:231).

These general findings strongly suggest that the marketers of conventions feel that negative climate elements might discourage selection of a particular Canadian city as a site for a convention. Since winter images were limited in all the brochures, the message being conveyed was that Canadian cities were seldom cold, had little snow other than the amount required for skiing, were always warm and sunny, and never encountered rain, fog, storms, or blizzards.

Gartrell's discussion regarding convention bureau goals for developing a marketing plan (1988:79) pointed out that sales and marketing programs must take into account geographic location in designing the kind of image that fits the location, even though a consummate climate may not actually exist to the degree that it is promoted.

More winter images could be emphasized in convention centre promotional brochures. "Winter" might appeal to people who have never experienced snow and cold temperatures. Those kinds of opportunities could provide them with conversation topics to relate to friends back home for years to come. A topic for further study might be to survey associations to find out if they actually are attracted to specific cities because of the influence of 'good' weather.

6.8 Summary and Conclusions

The prime vehicle for creating an image of the city is the information contained in brochures. Essentially, their single purpose is intended to attract a convention to a city. Goodall and Bergsma, writing about marketing destinations (Chapter 10, in Ashworth and Goodall, 1990:179), termed convention centres as "specialist products" (1990:174) and suggested that "specialist" brochures act as a substitute for the product. They proposed that the brochure's purpose is not to simply inform but to persuade potential consumers to purchase a particular place based on its 'place products'.

There is some evidence that individual destinations are competing against each other for "unique" city image theme status. The city marketing literature also provided several ideas about how images of a place are presented in tourism marketing brochures. For example, Gould and White (in Ashworth and Goodall, 1990:50) commented that brochures focus on comparative advantage and are intended to persuade "consumers" to buy a particular product rather than that of a rival operation.

The content analysis provided a general insight into the types of city image information contained in 14 convention centre brochures. Yet, no matter how detailed or comprehensive a content analyses may be it is limited in two ways. First, the analyses does not really "get at" the symbolic meaning of a specific set of appearances.

Second, it is not able to explain why certain themes exist while others do not. To provide a truer explanation the researcher would have to investigate the process of construction of the brochures and find out decisions the compilers made for the inclusion or exclusion of information. Content analysis deals with the 'surface reality' or with cognition rather than affective/emotional issues linked to an individual's view. The use of connotation is a good example where appeal can influence 'meanings' about other features with which the reader may not be familiar.

The images represented in the convention centre brochures are an amalgam of the city's resources, its attractions, site and location features, service and retail facilities, landscape scenes, recreational amenities, and cultural attributes. All these resources are also opportunities, useful as guides to knowledge about a particular city. Obviously, it cannot be "proven" whether the brochures really affect decisions about coming to a particular city for a convention. However, the city image themes contained in the convention centre brochures provide one way of determining how a city sees itself, as well as the type of information that it uses to attract people to the city.

Most of the image themes were related to those characteristics of each city which were viewed (not by the cities, but by the convention centre marketing personnel) as being 'unique' or "different". For example, Toronto is portrayed as "number one in Canada," and calls itself "master of the system". Overall, the information contained in the brochures does not "lie", or provide gross exaggerations of historical boosterism, yet it often inflates claims about specific city features.

This chapter could not address all aspects of marketing a city's image. More detailed analysis comparing the proportion of lines and pictures in each city's general tourist bureau brochures to those contained in convention centre brochures could be

carried out. That procedure may show variations and uniformities which exist in the presentation of city images by different city agencies. A thorough inventory of what actually is present in the fourteen cities (their attractions, facilities, services, climate elements, and accessibility factors) could be contrasted with the characteristics and elements promoted in the individual brochures. Then, the "accuracy" of the city image themes in each city's convention centre brochure could be confirmed.

A strong case can be made about how effectively the convention brochures market their city's image. Presumably, the brochure marketers should be concerned about making clear decisions for the type of image they wish to promote. It appears that they felt the more image elements put into their brochures, the better marketing position that convention centre would be in. Unfortunately, the more elements put into the advertising, the more it may confuse the reader. Potentially, a less effective city image marketing strategy could be produced because an unclear image of the place is created.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Findings of the Study

This study focussed on several related issues inherent in the characteristics of the 14 publicly-funded Canadian convention centres. Several trends in North American convention centre growth and distribution was identified in Chapter Two. There was evidence suggesting that three distinctive growth phases of convention centres occurred in North America. No consistent pattern was established until after 1951 when a boom occurred in numbers between 1966-1990 when 171 of the 214 convention centres (which dates of construction could be found for) were built in the U.S.A and Canada.

Chapter Three highlighted the role and impact of convention centres on the urban landscape. Mehrhoff's ideas (1988), were discussed regarding convention centre 'hegemonic growth' as urban symbols reflecting personal egos. A review of the type of conventions held in each centre suggested that urban marketing strategies and locational decisions were probably more responsible for the kind of convention held in a particular city than were the particular interests of the association booking the convention.

Convention centres are expected to positively enhance the economic base of the cities in which they are located. Even though most centres operate at a deficit (Winnipeg had the highest), and there is considerable debate over the use of public money to operate the centres, the revenues brought in by delegate spending are perceived as being of great benefit to a community. When estimates of convention delegate spending were totalled, thirteen of the Canadian centres reported \$354 million

dollars of direct delegate spending. However, doubt must be cast upon the reported figures of direct spending for no generally accepted standard method of measurement has ever been established in the Canadian convention industry. This study adopted the IAVCB figure of \$183.63 (per day, per delegate) and concluded that many centres may have underestimated direct spending. It was suggested that convention centres should consider carrying out surveys on the direct spending of delegates at conventions to more precisely measure the direct spending. Once this is done better estimates of subsequent multiplier effects can be made.

A major contribution of this study lies in the analysis of publicity material linked to historic boosterism and modern day city marketing. Those concepts were utilized to describe the way in which convention centre promotional material is linked to the role of media advertising and propaganda techniques in the promotion of place. Convention centres are excellent examples of a product that is marketable by the city. Information contained about each city in the fourteen convention centre brochures provided an updated version of urban boosterism.

Seven city image themes were selected to show the types of city resources and opportunities which are portrayed in the convention centre brochures. In general, content analysis revealed the similarities and differences between the cities in their self-image. "Culture" was the primary city theme portrayed by all the brochures in 26 per cent of lines of text and pictures. The Saint John Trade and Convention Centre brochure exhibited the lowest visual impact, and was quite unimaginative in promoting that city's convention centre and city. It was also discovered that "People" are not featured prominently. Instead their purpose is more as a 'prop' which is used in the other themes.

The brochures also revealed much about each convention centre's view of their climate. Individual cities were promoted as if summer never ceases, and negative connotations were avoided. "Sun, sand, and beaches," were included as standard parts of the portrayal of cities as being located in an environment of perpetual summer.

7.2 Limitations and Topics for Further Study

The primary task of this study was to develop a geographical framework about a modern urban phenomenon, the purpose-built convention centre. Although the section on convention centre growth dealt with a number of factors, an opportunity now exists to evaluate whether the increase in numbers of convention centres could be attributed to growth in the number of associations and organizations. Aspects of the built environment of cities were also linked with two traditional urban concepts, historical boosterism and image studies, and a more recent one, city marketing related to selling city image themes.

A comparison of the usage and economic impacts of private versus public convention centres could not be carried out because of difficulty in obtaining economic data from privately-operated convention facilities. Nevertheless, city-wide convention activity in privately owned facilities may stimulate interest in comparative studies with purpose-built centre activity held in publicly-owned convention centres. The economic impacts of convention centres needs more attention. Surveys of delegate spending habits need to be carried out to establish the precise amount of direct/indirect spending that goes on during a convention. Data produced by this type of survey may finally provide a standardized industry measurement for determining economic benefits produced by the convention industry.

An accurate accounting of money spent by exogenous convention delegates could also lead to comparisons of spending patterns by endogenous delegates (residents who attend conventions in their own city), to show who spends more and why. There exists a need to document estimates of exogenous delegates based on the origin of all visitors to the city before the income of convention centres can be confirmed.

Another focus for future geographic enquiry could be the societal impacts of convention centre construction during the period of urban restructuring in inner cities in the 1960s and 1970s. More investigation about the extent to which convention centres contribute to quality of life and amenities in a city could lead to an improvement in understanding of those socio-cultural effects.

Urban geographers now have an opportunity to address methods which have been developed in city marketing policies. The wider implications of the concept of city marketing, its impact in the Netherlands, and research on North American applications, could be contrasted to more traditional consumer marketing approaches. Links between city marketing and "selling" convention centres must be fully evaluated to find out whether this new policy is profitable in cities where it has been implemented.

This study did not attempt to survey the process of decision-making on where to hold a convention. Such an analysis might have contributed to a greater understanding of the site selection process and the role of publicity and promotion advertised in the brochures. No conclusive evidence has been provided demonstrating the correlation between the impact of advertising and number of conventions sold in specific locations. Before the effects of brochure advertising on convention site selection can be substantiated, each of the fourteen Canadian convention centre cities in this study would have to be visited. An inventory of what resources are actually present would need to be contrasted with the city image themes promoted in the individual brochures.

The content analysis demonstrated that more work is needed to measure the extent to which convention centres systematically present a biased view of a city. Evidence could be assembled to compare various features actually present in a city, to those produced in their promotional literature, particularly those which possibly influence decisions about convention centre site selection in particular cities.

A rigorous accounting for the whole complex subject of 'images' and their interpretation requires attention. More sophisticated analyses of the mental images of cities are possible. Insights into the construction of urban institutions, including convention centres, and their symbolism as an expression of civic leaders and civic groups' personal egos, has received little attention. The active role of visitor and convention bureaus and their personnel in convention centre promotion should be also be investigated. Such a study could be extended and applied to modern day boosterism to measure the specialized attitudes held by certain civic groups such as the Chambers of Commerce, convention and visitor bureaus, economic development departments, and convention centre marketing departments. Questions about the way in which the city is perceived and boosted by these groups need to be answered.

Another priority for geographic research on publicly-owned convention centres are surveys of the perceptions of convention delegates before and after a convention. What kinds of images do they have about cities they intend to visit or have visited in past for conventions? Do the images presented in the brochure literature accurately address their expectations once they are in the city? Do those perceptions fit the image? In addition, the association executives who are the people responsible for selecting a convention site could be surveyed on a number of issues. The results might show which of the convention centres and cities are the most likely to attract their business based on the kinds of themes contained in publicity campaigns.

Much could also be gained through the co-operation and interchange between geographers and researchers in other disciplines including economics, urban planning, marketing, management, tourism, and commerce, who have been investigating this subject for several years.

7.3 Convention Centres and Conventions in the Future

Changes in the growth, development, and impacts of convention centres are definitely going to occur in the future. Based on research conducted in this study, including a review of trends occurring in the industry, four factors indicate why changes will probably take place in the future.

1. There will be more investment in the construction and management of centres by private industry.
2. Technological advancement in communication as a whole will affect the convention centre industry, perhaps reducing the need for face-to-face meetings.
3. There will be increasing leisure and recreation lifestyles associated with conventions, travel and tourism.
4. The accelerating growth of national and international associations and organizations will mean more convention centres will be built.

It is the view of this author that the rate of construction of convention centres in the future will continue to grow, but expansion will depend less on public investment from governments and more from large corporations, hotels, and associations in the private sector. As taxpayers steadily become less willing to provide financial support and more critical of the implied benefits to their local economy (Ford, 20,1991:A4), the whole issue of public expenditure for private benefit will gain interest and support.

Construction and operational costs will be less dominated by government intervention and there will be more emphasis placed on public/private financial co-operation.

Given the nature of increasing information exchange, conventions will need to facilitate the specific needs of a variety of concentrated associations, as well as the more general needs provided to the city. In addition, their traditional design as 'concrete bunkers' will be changed in an effort to offer more stimulating characteristics. Also, they may become more productive learning environments, perhaps with close ties to educational institutions. The result may be an increase in convention centre size.

Conventions will not change from their historical nature, namely as a place to exchange information (Mogel, 1989:86; Tausz, 1991:C5). However, an increase in the amount of information produced from technological and societal change will be the catalysts which generate an increased number, and improved subject content of conventions. A combination of learning and leisure, business and pleasure, will be an important element of the overall objective of conventions, especially for training and education with the current trend toward increased leisure time and changes in lifestyles. The need to "get away from it all" (The Economist, 1991:25) will expand to serve both business and pleasure.

Electronic technology for communication is already well established for T.V. meetings and video conferencing. However, those brief types of meetings will not replace the societal need for larger face-to-face contact that involve socialization (Mogel, 1989:79; Tausz, 1991:C5). What will change in the future are the costs of meetings and conventions viewed in terms of time and money (Meetings and Conventions, 1990:9).

The future of conventions and convention centres will depend on numerous economic, social and technological variables. This summary has only speculated on some of them. Changes occurring in the cost for construction and operation of convention centres, technological advances in facility design and automated information, increasing leisure lifestyles, and accelerating growth in the number of associations, mean that the convention centre will be a dynamic and changing entity in the future that will be worthy of study.

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APPENDIX ONE

CONVENTION CENTRES BY GEOGRAPHIC LOCATION

A. Canada

British Columbia

- 1.Victoria: Victoria Conference Centre
- 2.Vancouver: Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre
- 3.Penticton: Penticton Trade and Convention Centre
- 4.Vernon: Vernon Recreation and Convention Centre

Alberta

- 1.Edmonton: Edmonton Convention Centre
- 2.Calgary: Calgary Convention Centre

Saskatchewan

- 1.Saskatoon: Saskatoon Centennial Auditorium and Convention Centre
- 2.Regina: Saskatchewan Trade and Convention Centre

Manitoba

- 1.Winnipeg: Winnipeg Convention Centre

Ontario

- 1.Toronto: Metro Toronto Convention Centre
- 2.Ottawa: Ottawa Congress Centre
- 3.Hamilton: Hamilton Convention Centre
- 4.Windsor: Cleary Auditorium and Convention Centre

Quebec

- 1.Quebec City: Centre des Congres de Quebec
- 2.Montreal: Palais des Congres de Montreal
- 3.Hull: Palais des Congres de Hull

New Brunswick

- 1.Saint John: Saint John Trade and Convention Centre

Prince Edward Island

- 1.Charlottetown: Prince Edward Hotel and Convention Centre

Nova Scotia

1. Halifax: World Trade and Convention Centre

B. United States

Alabama

- 1.Gadsen: Gadsen Convention Hall
- 2.Mobile: Mobile Convention Centre

Alaska

1. Anchorage: William A. Egan Civic and Convention Centre
2. Juneau: Juneau Centennial Hall Convention Centre

Arizona

1. Phoenix: Phoenix Plaza Convention Centre
2. Yuma: Yuma Civic and Convention Centre
3. Scottsdale: Scottsdale Conference Centre

Arkansas

1. Hot Springs: Hot Springs Convention Centre
2. Pine Bluff: Pine Bluff Convention Centre
3. Little Rock: Statehouse Convention Centre

California

1. San Francisco: George R. Moscone Convention Centre
2. San Francisco: Cow Palace
3. Monterey: Monterey Convention Centre
4. Oakland: Henry J. Kaiser Convention Centre
5. San Mateo: San Mateo Exposition/Convention Centre
6. Richmond: Memorial Convention Centre
7. Costa Mesa: Costa Mesa Convention Centre
8. Anaheim: Anaheim Convention Centre
9. Fresno: Fresno Convention Centre
10. Redding: Redding Convention Centre
11. San Diego: San Diego Convention Centre
12. San Diego: Convention and Performing Arts Centre
13. Visalia: Visalia Convention Centre
14. Long Beach: Long Beach Convention/Exhibition Centre
15. Pasadena: The Pasadena Centre
16. Riverside: Riverside Convention Centre
17. Sacramento: Sacramento Community Convention Centre
18. Santa Clara: Santa Clara Convention Centre
19. San Jose: San Jose Convention/Cultural Centre
20. Palm Springs: Palm Springs Convention Centre
21. Los Angeles: Los Angeles Convention Centre
22. Lake Tahoe: North Lake/Tahoe City Conference Centre

Colorado

1. Colorado Springs: Broadmoor Convention Centre
2. Colorado Springs: Cheyenne Mountain Conference Centre
3. Denver: Denver Convention Centre
4. Denver: Currigan Hall Convention Centre
5. Denver: Colorado Convention Centre
6. Keystone: Keystone Conference Centre

Connecticut

Hartford: A convention centre was in the planning stage.

Delaware

There were no purpose-built convention centres found.

District of Columbia

1. Washington: Washington Convention Centre

Florida

1. Miami: James L. Knight Convention Centre
2. Miami: The Radisson Centre
3. Miami: Miami Convention Centre
4. Miami Beach: Stephen Muss Convention Centre
5. St. Petersburg: Bayfront Centre
6. St. Petersburg: Sunset Dome Convention Centre
7. St. Augustine: Ponce de Leon Lodge/Convention Centre
8. Tampa: Curtis Hixon Convention Centre
9. Tampa: Tampa Convention Centre
10. West Palm Beach: West Palm Beach Convention Centre
11. Pensacola: Pensacola Convention Centre
12. Hutchison Island: Indian River Conference Centre
13. Daytona Beach: Ocean Centre Conference Hall
14. Orlando: Orlando/Orange County Convention/Civic Centre
15. Orlando: Tupperware Convention Centre
16. Orlando: Orlando Convention Centre
17. Orlando: Disney World Convention Centre
18. Orlando: Court of Flags Convention Centre
19. Jacksonville: Prime Osborne Centre
20. Fort Lauderdale: Fort Lauderdale Convention Centre

Georgia

1. Columbus: Columbus Iron Works Convention and Trade Centre
2. Columbus: Columbus Convention Centre
3. Atlanta: Georgia World Congress Centre
4. Atlanta: INFORUM Market Centre
5. Augusta: Augusta Convention Centre
6. College Park: Georgia International Convention and Trade Centre
7. Pine Mountain: Callaway Gardens Conference Centre
8. Jekyll Island: Jekyll Island Convention Centre

Hawaii

Waikiki: There are three purpose-built centres planned for 1991.

Idaho

1. Boise: Boise Centre on the Grove

Illinois

1. Springfield: Prairie Capital Convention Centre
2. Chicago: McCormick Place Convention Centre
3. Chicago: Chicago Convention Centre
4. Champaign: Champaign Assembly Hall

5. Rockford: Rockford Convention Centre
6. Aurora: Aurora Convention Centre
7. Rosemont: Rosemont Exposition and Conference Centre
8. Peoria: Peoria Convention Centre

Indiana

1. Indianapolis: Indiana Convention Centre and Hoover Dome
2. Muncie: Horizon Convention Centre
3. Fort Wayne: Grand Wayne Centre
4. Gary: Genesis Convention Centre
5. Evansville: Robert E. Green Convention Centre

Iowa

1. Sioux City: Sioux City Convention Centre
2. Davenport: River Convention Centre
3. Duboquet: Duboquet Convention Centre
4. Des Moines: Des Moines Convention Centre
5. Clear Lake: Surf Ballroom and Convention Centre

Kansas

1. Pittsburg: Memorial Auditorium and Convention Centre
2. Wichita: Century 11 Convention Centre
3. Wichita: Wichita Convention Centre

Kentucky

1. Lexington: Lexington Centre
2. Louisville: Commonwealth Convention Centre

Louisiana

1. Baton Rouge: Bellemont Great Hall Convention Centre
2. Lake Charles: Lake Charles Conference Centre
3. Lafayette: Cajundome
4. New Orleans: The Rivergate Convention Centre
5. New Orleans: New Orleans Convention Centre
6. Kenner: Pontchartrain Centre
7. West Monroe: West Monroe Convention Centre

Maine

There were no purpose-built convention centres found.

Maryland

1. Baltimore: Baltimore Convention Centre
2. Columbia: Merriweather Post Pavillion
3. Landover: Capital Centre
4. Ocean City: Ocean City Convention Centre

Massachusetts

1. Boston: Hynes Convention Centre
2. Worcester: Centrum in Worcester

Michigan

- 1.Detroit: Maygrove Convention Centre
- 2.Detroit: Cobo Conference Centre
- 3.Grand Rapids: Grand Centre
- 4.Grand Rapids: Grand Rapids Convention Centre
- 5.Muskegan: L.C. Walker Conference Centre

Minnesota

- 1.Duluth: Entertainment and Convention Centre
- 2.Minneapolis: Minneapolis Convention Centre

Mississippi

- 1.Biloxi: Mississippi Coast Convention Centre
- 2.Columbus: Mississippi Convention Centre
- 3.Greenville: Mississippi/Washington Company Convention Centre

Missouri

- 1.Cape Girardeau: Show Me Convention Centre
- 2.Joplin: Jack Lawton Webb Convention Centre
- 3.Kansas City: American Royal Centre
- 4.Kansas City: Kansas City Convention Centre
- 5.St.Louis: Cervantes Convention Centre
- 6.Springfield: University Plaza Convention Centre

Montana

- 1.Billings: Plaza Trade Centre

Nebraska

- 1.Omaha: Omaha Convention Centre

Nevada

- 1.Reno: Reno/Sparks Convention Centre
- 2.Las Vegas: Las Vegas Convention Centre
- 3.Elko: Elko Convention Centre

New Hampshire

There were no purpose-built convention centres found.

New Jersey

- 1.Atlantic City: Maygrove Convention Centre
- 2.Atlantic City: Atlantic City Convention Centre
- 3.Atlantic City: New Jersey Convention Centre
- 4.Asbury Park: Asbury Park Convention Centre
- 5.Cape May: Cape May Convention Centre
- 6.Seacaucus: Meadowlands Convention Centre
- 7.Somerset: Garden State Convention Centre
- 8.Wildwood: Wildwood Convention Centre

New Mexico

- 1.Albuquerque: Albuquerque Civic Auditorium and Convention Centre
- 2.Gallup: Church Rock Red State Park Convention Centre

3.Santa Fe: Sweeney Convention Centre

New York

- 1.Albany: Albany Convention Centre
- 2.Buffalo: Buffalo Convention Centre
- 3.Glen Falls: Glen Falls Convention Centre
- 4.New York City: Jacob K. Javits Convention Centre
- 5.New York City: (Manhattan) Macklowe Conference Centre
- 6.Niagara Falls: Convention and Civic Centre
- 7.Rockland: Rockland Conference Centre
- 8.Rochester: Riverside Convention Centre
- 9.Syracuse: Onondaga County Convention Centre Complex
- 10.Syracuse: War Memorial/Convention Centre Complex
- 11.Tarrytown: Tarrytown House Conference Centre

North Carolina

- 1.Ashville: Great Smokies Convention Centre/Resort
- 2.Charlotte: Charlotte Convention Centre
- 3.Raleigh: Raleigh Civic and Convention Centre
- 4.Winston-Salem: M.C.Benton Convention and Civic Centre

North Dakota

- 1.Jamestown: Jamestown Convention Centre

Ohio

- 1.Columbus: Veterans Memorial Convention Centre
- 2.Columbus: Columbus Convention Centre
- 3.Columbus: Ohio Centre
- 4.Cincinnati: Cincinnati Convention and Exposition Centre
- 5.Cincinnati: Dr. Albert B. Sabin Convention Centre
- 6.Cleveland: International Exposition Centre
- 7.Dayton: Dayton Convention and Exhibition Centre
- 8.Dayton: Hara Conference and Exhibition Centre
- 9.Dayton: Dayton Convention Centre
- 10 Toledo: Seagate Centre

Oklahoma

- 1.Enid: Cherokee Strip Conference Centre
- 2.Oklahoma City: Myriad Convention Centre
- 3.Tulsa: Tulsa Convention Centre

Oregon

- 1.Eugene: Lane County Convention Centre
- 2.Portland: Portland Memorial Complex
- 3.Portland: Portland Convention Centre
- 4.Seaside: City of Seaside Civic and Convention Centre

Pennsylvania

- 1.Allantown: George Washington Lodge/Convention Centre
- 2.Erie: Tuillo Convention Centre
- 3.Erie: Erie Convention Centre

- 4.Hershey: Hershey Lodge/Convention Centre
- 5.King of Prussia: Valley Forge Convention and Exhibit Centre
- 6.Mount Pocono: Lake Harmony Split Rock Resort/ Conference Centre
- 7.Philadelphia: Philadelphia Convention Centre
- 8.Philadelphia: Philadelphia Convention Hall Auditorium
- 9.Pittsburgh: David L. Lawrence Convention and Exhibition Centre

Rhode Island

There were no purpose-built convention centres found.

South Carolina

- 1.Hilton Head: The Cottages Resort/Conference Centre
- 2.Myrtle Beach: Myrtle Beach Convention Centre

South Dakota

There were no purpose-built convention centres found.

Tennessee

- 1.Chattanooga: Chattanooga/Hamilton County Convention Centre
- 2.Chattanooga: Chattanooga Convention Centre
- 3.Gatlinburg: W.L. Mills Convention Centre
- 4.Gatlinburg: Gatlinburg Convention Centre
- 5.Knoxville: Knoxville Convention and Exhibition Centre
- 6.Memphis: Cook Convention Centre
- 7.Nashville: Nashville Convention Centre

Texas

- 1.Arlington: Arlington Convention Centre
- 2.Beaumont: Beaumont Convention Centre
- 3.Corpus Christi: Bayfront Plaza Convention Centre
- 4.Dallas: Dallas Convention Centre
- 5.Dallas: Forum Market Convention Centre
- 6.El Paso: El Paso Convention and Performing Arts Centre
- 7.Fort Worth: Fort Worth/Tarrant County Convention Centre
- 8.Fort Worth: Fort Worth Convention Centre
- 9.Galveston: Galveston Conference Centre
- 10.Grapevine: Grapevine Convention Centre
- 11.Houston: George R. Brown Convention Centre
- 12.Houston: Houston West Convention Centre
- 13.Houston: Albert Thomas Convention Centre
- 14.Longview: Maude Cobb Convention and Activity Centre
- 15.San Angelo: San Angelo Convention Centre
- 16.San Antonio: San Antonio Convention Centre
- 17.South Padre Island: Convention/Civic Centre
- 18.Temple: Frank W. Mayborn Civic and Convention Centre
- 19.Tyler: Harvey Convention Centre
- 20.Waco: Waco Convention Centre

Utah

- 1.Salt Lake City: Salt Palace

Vermont

1. Burlington: Burlington Conference Centre
2. Stowe: Mount Mansfield Resort/Conference Centre

Virginia

1. Norfolk: Norfolk Scope Convention Centre
2. Richmond: Richmond Centre for Conventions
3. Virginia Beach: The Pavilion Convention Centre
4. Chantilly: Westfields International Conference Centre
5. Williamsburg: Williamsburg Lodge and Convention Centre

Washington

1. Ocean Shores: Washington Convention Centre
2. Ocean Shores: Ocean Shores Convention Centre
3. Seattle: Seattle Convention Centre
4. Seattle: Washington State Convention Centre
5. Spokane: Spokane Convention Centre
6. Spokane: Washington State International Convention and Trade Centre
7. Tacoma: Tacoma Convention Hall
8. Wenatchee: Wenatchee Convention Centre
9. Yakima: Yakima Convention Centre

West Virginia

There were no purpose-built convention centres found.

Wisconsin

1. Milwaukee: Milwaukee Exposition and Convention Centre
2. Oconomowac: Olympia Village Convention Centre

Wyoming

1. Casper: Casper Convention Centre

APPENDIX TWO

CONVENTION CENTRES BY YEAR OPENED, 1901-1990

Some of the early facilities listed here have been renovated and expanded in size from the time of original construction.

1901-1910

- | | | |
|----|--|----------|
| 1. | Columbus Iron Works Convention and Trade Centre Columbus, Georgia | 1901 |
| 2. | Milwaukee Exposition and Convention Centre Milwaukee, Wisconsin | 1909 |
| | | ---- |
| | | Total: 2 |

1911-1920

- | | | |
|----|---|----------|
| 3. | Grand Center Grand Rapids, Michigan | 1913 |
| 4. | Henry J. Kaiser Convention Centre Oakland, California | 1917 |
| 5. | Broadmoor Convention Centre Colorado Springs, Colorado | 1918 |
| | | ---- |
| | | Total: 3 |

1921-1930

- | | | |
|-----|--|------|
| 6. | Cook Convention Centre Memphis, Tennessee | 1924 |
| 7. | Memorial Auditorium and Convention Centre Pittsburg, Kansas | 1926 |
| 8. | New Jersey Convention Centre Atlantic City, New Jersey | 1927 |
| 9. | Maygrove Conference Centre Detroit, Michigan | 1928 |
| 10. | Atlantic City Convention Centre Atlantic City, New Jersey | 1929 |

164

11. Philadelphia Convention Hall Auditorium
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

1930

Total: 6

1931-1940

12. Tuillo Convention Centre
Erie, Pennsylvania

1931

13. Gadsen Convention Hall
Gadsen, Alabama

1935

14. Fort Worth Convention Centre
Fort Worth, Texas

1938

Total: 3

1941-1950

15. Mississippi Convention Centre
Columbus, Mississippi

1941

16. Split Rock Resort and Convention Centre
Mount Pocono, Lake Harmony, Pennsylvania

1941

17. Cow Palace
San Francisco, California

1941

18. Costa Mesa Convention Centre
Costa Mesa, California

1949

19. McCormick Place
Chicago, Illinois

1949

20. Sioux City Convention Centre
Sioux City, Iowa

1950

21. Memorial Convention Centre
Richmond, California

1950

22. San Mateo Exposition and Convention Centre
San Mateo, California

1950

Total: 8

1951-1960

23. Denver Convention Centre
Denver, Colorado

1952

24. Spokane Convention Centre
Spokane, Washington

1953

| | | |
|------------------|--|-----------|
| | | 165 |
| 25. | Rockland Conference Centre Rockland, New York | 1954 |
| 26. | Dallas Convention Centre Dallas, Texas | 1957 |
| 27. | Stephen Muss Convention Centre Miami Beach, Florida | 1958 |
| 28. | Las Vegas Convention Centre Las Vegas, Nevada | 1959 |
| 29. | Reno/Sparks Convention Centre Reno, Nevada | 1959 |
| 30. | L.C. Walker Conference Centre Muskegan, Michigan | 1960 |
| 31. | Portland Memorial Convention Complex Portland, Oregon | 1960 |
| 32. | Jekyll Island Convention Centre Jekyll Island, Georgia | 1960 |
| 33. | Forum Market Hall Convention Centre Dallas, Texas | 1960 |
| | | ---- |
| | | Total: 11 |
| 1961-1970 | | |
| 34. | Seattle Convention Centre Seattle, Washington | 1962 |
| 35. | Tulsa Convention Centre Tulsa, Oklahoma | 1963 |
| 36. | Tarrytown House Conference Centre Tarrytown, New York | 1963 |
| 37. | Champaign Assembly Hall Champaign, Illinois | 1963 |
| 38. | Curtis Hixon Convention Centre Tampa, Florida | 1964 |
| 39. | Dayton Hara Conference and Exhibition Centre Dayton, Ohio | 1964 |
| 40. | San Diego Convention Centre San Diego, California | 1964 |

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|-----|---|------|
| 41. | Hot Springs Convention Centre and Auditorium Hot Springs, Arkansas | 1965 |
| 42. | Bayfront Centre St. Petersburg, Florida | 1965 |
| 43. | Entertainment Convention Centre Duluth, Minnesota | 1965 |
| 44. | Fresno Convention Centre Fresno, California | 1966 |
| 45. | Fort Worth/Tarrant County Convention Centre Fort Worth, Texas | 1966 |
| 46. | Anaheim Convention Centre Anaheim, California | 1967 |
| 47. | Merriweather Post Pavillion Columbia, Maryland | 1967 |
| 48. | Cincinnati Convention and Exposition Centre Cincinnati, Ohio | 1967 |
| 49. | Albert Thomas Convention Centre Houston, Texas | 1967 |
| 50. | The Rivergate Convention Centre New Orleans, Louisiana | 1968 |
| 51. | American Royal Centre Kansas City, Missouri | 1968 |
| 52. | Myrtle Beach Convention Centre Myrtle Beach, South Carolina | 1968 |
| 53. | Rockford Convention Centre Rockford, Illinois | 1968 |
| 54. | Saskatoon Centennial Convention Centre Saskatoon, Saskatchewan | 1968 |
| 55. | Currihan Hall Convention Centre Denver, Colorado | 1969 |
| 56. | Century 11 Convention Centre Wichita, Kansas | 1969 |
| 57. | Ocean City Convention Centre Ocean City, Maryland | 1969 |

| | | |
|-----|--|-----------|
| | | 167 |
| 58. | Niagara Falls Convention and Civic Centre Niagara Falls, New York | 1969 |
| 59. | M.C. Benton Convention and Civic Centre Winston-Salem, North Carolina | 1969 |
| 60. | Vernon Recreation and Convention Centre Vernon, British Columbia | 1969 |
| 61. | Redding Convention Centre Redding, California | 1970 |
| 62. | Harvey Convention Centre Tyler, Texas | 1970 |
| 63. | Waco Convention Centre Waco, Texas | 1970 |
| | | ---- |
| | | Total: 30 |

1971-1980

| | | |
|-----|---|------|
| 64. | Dayton Convention and Exhibition Centre Dayton, Ohio | 1971 |
| 65. | City of Seaside Civic and Convention Centre Seaside, Oregon | 1971 |
| 66. | Norfolk Scope Convention Centre Norfolk, Virginia | 1971 |
| 67. | Williamsburg Lodge and Convention Centre Williamsburg, Virginia | 1971 |
| 68. | Phoenix Plaza Convention Centre Phoenix, Arizona | 1972 |
| 69. | Indiana Convention Centre and Hoover Dome Indianapolis, Indiana | 1972 |
| 70. | Wildwood Convention Hall Wildwood, New Jersey | 1972 |
| 71. | Myriad Convention Centre Oklahoma City, Oklahoma | 1972 |
| 72. | El Paso Convention Centre El Paso, Texas | 1972 |
| 73. | Olympia Village and Resort Conference Centre Oconomowac, Wisconsin | 1972 |

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|-----|---|------|
| 74. | Lake Charles Conference Centre Lake Charles, Louisiana | 1972 |
| 75. | Yuma Civic and Convention Centre Yuma, Arizona | 1973 |
| 76. | Capital Centre Landover, Maryland | 1973 |
| 77. | Cheyenne Mountain Conference Resort Colorado Springs, Colorado | 1973 |
| 78. | Visalia Convention Centre Visalia, California | 1973 |
| 79. | The Pasadena Centre Pasadena, California | 1973 |
| 80. | Charlotte Convention Centre Charlotte, North Carolina | 1973 |
| 81. | Centre des Congres de Quebec Quebec City, Quebec | 1973 |
| 82. | Calgary Convention Centre Calgary, Alberta | 1974 |
| 83. | Sacramento Community Convention Centre Sacramento, California | 1974 |
| 84. | Hershey Lodge and Convention Centre Hershey, Pennsylvania | 1974 |
| 85. | Mississippi Coast Coliseum and Convention Centre Biloxi, Mississippi | 1974 |
| 86. | Great Smokies Ashville Convention Centre Ashville, North Carolina | 1974 |
| 87. | Winnipeg Convention Centre Winnipeg, Manitoba | 1975 |
| 88. | Pine Bluff Convention Centre Pine Bluff, Arkansas | 1976 |
| 89. | Riverside Convention Centre Riverside, California | 1976 |
| 90. | Orlando Tupperware Convention Centre Orlando, Florida | 1976 |

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|------|---|------|
| 91. | Commonwealth Convention Centre Louisville, Kentucky | 1976 |
| 92. | Church Rock Red State Park Convention Centre Gallup, New Mexico | 1976 |
| 93. | Yakima Convention Centre Yakima, Washington | 1976 |
| 94. | Long Beach Convention and Exhibition Centre Long Beach, California | 1977 |
| 95. | West Monroe Convention Centre West Monroe, Louisiana | 1977 |
| 96. | Cervantes Convention Centre St. Louis, Missouri | 1977 |
| 97. | Monterey Convention Centre Monterey, California | 1977 |
| 98. | Buffalo Convention Centre Buffalo, New York | 1977 |
| 99. | The Radisson Centre Miami, Florida | 1977 |
| 100. | San Angelo Convention Centre San Angelo, Texas | 1978 |
| 101. | Erie Convention Centre Erie, Pennsylvania | 1978 |
| 102. | Prairie Capital Convention Centre Springfield, Illinois | 1979 |
| 103. | Dubuque Convention Centre Dubuque, Iowa | 1979 |
| 104. | Glen Falls Convention Centre Glen Falls, New York | 1979 |
| 105. | Baltimore Convention Centre Baltimore, Maryland | 1979 |
| 106. | Elko Convention Centre Elko, Nevada | 1979 |
| 107. | Lane County Convention Centre Eugene, Oregon | 1979 |

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| | | |
|------|---|------|
| 108. | Beaumont Convention Centre Beaumont, Texas | 1979 |
| 109. | Augusta Convention Centre Augusta, Georgia | 1979 |
| 110. | Grand Rapids Convention Centre Grand Rapids, Michigan | 1980 |
| 111. | Orlando/Orange County Convention/Civic Centre Orlando, Florida | 1980 |
| 112. | The Pavilion Convention Centre Virginia Beach, Virginia | 1980 |

Total: 49

1981-1990

| | | |
|------|--|------|
| 113. | Palais des Congres Hull, Quebec | 1981 |
| 114. | George R. Moscone Convention Centre San Francisco, California | 1981 |
| 115. | Bayfront Plaza and Convention Centre Corpus Christi, Texas | 1981 |
| 116. | David L. Lawrence Convention Centre Pittsburg, Pennsylvania | 1981 |
| 117. | Hamilton Convention Centre Hamilton, Ontario | 1981 |
| 118. | Genesis Convention Centre Gary, Indiana | 1981 |
| 119. | James L. Knight Convention Centre Miami, Florida | 1982 |
| 120. | Ocean Shores Convention Centre Ocean Shores, Washington | 1982 |
| 121. | Frank W. Mayborn Civic and Convention Centre Temple, Texas | 1982 |
| 122. | Statehouse Convention Centre Little Rock, Arkansas | 1982 |
| 123. | Aurora Convention Centre Aurora, Illinois | 1982 |

| | | |
|------|---|------|
| 124. | Centrum in Worcester Worcester, Massachusetts | 1982 |
| 125. | Knoxville Convention and Exhibition Centre Knoxville, Tennessee | 1982 |
| 126. | Mobile Convention Centre Mobile, Alabama | 1982 |
| 127. | Casper Convention Centre Casper, Wyoming | 1982 |
| 128. | Washington Convention Centre Washington, D.C. | 1982 |
| 129. | Edmonton Convention Centre Edmonton, Alberta | 1983 |
| 130. | Ottawa Congress Centre Ottawa, Ontario | 1983 |
| 131. | Palais des Congres de Montreal Montreal, Quebec | 1983 |
| 132. | Saint John Trade and Convention Centre Saint John, New Brunswick | 1983 |
| 133. | William A. Egan Civic and Convention Centre Anchorage, Alaska | 1983 |
| 134. | Juneau Centennial Hall and Convention Centre Juneau, Alaska | 1983 |
| 135. | Des Moines Convention Centre Des Moines, Iowa | 1983 |
| 136. | New Orleans Convention Centre New Orleans, Louisiana | 1983 |
| 137. | Hamilton County Convention and Trade Centre Chattanooga, Tennessee | 1983 |
| 138. | Tacoma Convention Hall Tacoma, Washington | 1983 |
| 139. | Las Vegas Convention Centre Las Vegas, Nevada | 1983 |
| 140. | Philadelphia Convention Centre Philadelphia, Pennsylvania | 1983 |

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|------|--|------|
| 141. | Metro Toronto Convention Centre Toronto, Ontario | 1984 |
| 142. | Grand Wayne Centre Fort Wayne, Indiana | 1984 |
| 143. | Veterans Memorial Convention Centre Columbus, Ohio | 1984 |
| 144. | Dallas Convention Centre Dallas, Texas | 1984 |
| 145. | Prince Edward Convention Centre Charlottetown, Prince Edward Island | 1984 |
| 146. | Tulsa Convention Centre Tulsa, Oklahoma | 1984 |
| 147. | Robert E. Green Convention Centre Evansville, Indiana | 1984 |
| 148. | Maude Cobb Convention Centre Longview, Texas | 1984 |
| 149. | World Trade and Convention Centre Halifax, Nova Scotia | 1985 |
| 150. | Georgia International Convention and Trade Centre College Park, Georgia | 1985 |
| 151. | Riverside Convention Centre Rochester, New York | 1985 |
| 152. | Arlington Convention Centre Arlington, Texas | 1985 |
| 153. | Pensacola Convention Centre Pensacola, Florida | 1985 |
| 154. | Columbus Convention Centre Columbus, Georgia | 1985 |
| 155. | Ocean Centre Conference Hall Daytona Beach, Florida | 1985 |
| 156. | Santa Clara Convention Centre Santa Clara, California | 1985 |
| 157. | Prime Osborne Convention Centre Jacksonville, Florida | 1986 |

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|------|--|------|
| 158. | Seagate Centre Toledo, Ohio | 1986 |
| 159. | Nashville Convention Centre Nashville, Tennessee | 1986 |
| 160. | Wichita Convention Centre Wichita, Kansas | 1986 |
| 161. | Richmond Centre for Conventions, Richmond, Virginia | 1986 |
| 162. | Jacob K. Javits Convention Centre New York City, New York | 1986 |
| 163. | Vancouver Trade and Convention Centre Vancouver, British Columbia | 1987 |
| 164. | Plaza Trade Centre Billings, Montana | 1987 |
| 165. | Cherokee Strip Conference Centre Enid, Oklahoma | 1987 |
| 166. | George R. Brown Convention Centre Houston, Texas | 1987 |
| 167. | Washington State Convention Centre Seattle, Washington | 1987 |
| 168. | Miami Convention Centre Miami, Florida | 1987 |
| 169. | Show Me Convention Centre Cape Girardeau, Missouri | 1987 |
| 170. | Horizon Convention Centre Muncie, Indiana | 1988 |
| 171. | Penticton Trade and Convention Centre Penticton, British Columbia | 1988 |
| 172. | Saskatchewan Trade and Convention Centre Regina, Saskatchewan | 1988 |
| 173. | Dr. Albert B. Sabin Convention Centre Cincinnati, Ohio | 1988 |
| 174. | Fort Lauderdale Convention Centre Fort Lauderdale, Florida | 1988 |

| | | |
|------|--|------|
| 175. | Palm Springs Convention Centre Palm Springs, California | 1988 |
| 176. | Albany Convention Centre Albany, New York | 1988 |
| 177. | Orlando Convention Centre Orlando, Florida | 1988 |
| 178. | Cobo Conference Centre Detroit, Michigan | 1988 |
| 179. | Indian River Conference Centre Hutchison Island, Florida | 1988 |
| 180. | Los Angeles Convention Centre Los Angeles, California | 1988 |
| 181. | Chicago Convention Centre Chicago, Illinois | 1988 |
| 182. | North Lake/Tahoe Conference Centre Lake Tahoe, California | 1988 |
| 183. | Charlotte Convention Centre Charlotte, North Carolina | 1988 |
| 184. | Chattanooga Convention Centre Chattanooga, Tennessee | 1988 |
| 185. | Keystone Conference Centre Keystone, Colorado | 1989 |
| 186. | Cleary Auditorium and Convention Centre Windsor, Ontario | 1989 |
| 187. | Dayton Convention Centre Dayton, Ohio | 1989 |
| 188. | Victoria Conference Centre Victoria, British Columbia | 1989 |
| 189. | Sunset Dome Convention Centre St. Petersburg, Florida | 1989 |
| 190. | Gatlinburg Convention Centre Gatlinburg, Tennessee | 1989 |
| 191. | Anaheim Convention Centre Anaheim, California | 1989 |

| | | |
|------|--|------|
| 192. | San Diego Convention Centre San Diego, California | 1989 |
| 193. | Washington State International Convention and Trade Centre Spokane, Washington | 1989 |
| 194. | Minneapolis Convention Centre Minneapolis, Minnesota | 1989 |
| 195. | Hynes Convention Centre Boston, Massachusetts | 1989 |
| 196. | Galveston Conference Centre Galveston, Texas | 1989 |
| 197. | Harvey Convention Centre Tyler, Texas | 1989 |
| 198. | Macklowe Conference Centre Manhattan, New York City, New York | 1989 |
| 199. | San Jose Convention Centre San Jose, California | 1989 |
| 200. | W.L. Mills Convention Centre Gatlinburg, Tennessee | 1989 |
| 201. | Garden State Convention Centre Somerset, New Jersey | 1989 |
| 202. | Westfields International Conference Centre Chantilly, Virginia | 1989 |
| 203. | Meadowlands Convention Centre Seacaucus, New Jersey | 1990 |
| 204. | Ohio Centre Columbus, Ohio | 1990 |
| 205. | Colorado Convention Centre Denver, Colorado | 1990 |
| 206. | Tampa Convention Centre Tampa, Florida | 1990 |
| 207. | West Palm Beach Convention Centre West Palm Beach, Florida | 1990 |

| | | |
|------|---|-----------|
| | | 176 |
| 208. | Oregon Convention Centre Portland, Oregon | 1990 |
| 209. | Convention/Civic Centre South Padre Island, Texas | 1990 |
| 210. | Onondaga County Convention Centre Complex Syracuse, New York | 1990 |
| 211. | Albuquerque Convention Centre Albuquerque, New Mexico | 1990 |
| 212. | Duluth Entertainment and Convention Centre Duluth, Minnesota | 1990 |
| 213. | Boise Centre on the Grove Boise, Idaho | 1990 |
| 214. | University Plaza Convention Centre Springfield, Missouri | 1990 |
| | | ---- |
| | | Total:102 |

NO YEAR OF OPENING FOUND

Letters were sent to sixty convention centres in September 1990 requesting the year their facility opened but there was no reply from the thirty-two convention centres listed below.

1. Mount Mansfield Resort Conference Centre
Stowe, Vermont
2. Burlington Conference Centre
Burlington, Vermont
3. International Exposition Centre
Cleveland, Ohio
4. Valley Forge Convention and Exhibit Centre
King of Prussia, Pennsylvania
5. Salt Palace
Salt Lake City, Utah
6. Scottsdale Conference Resort
Scottsdale, Arizona

7. Clear Lake Surf Ballroom and Convention Centre
Clear Lake, Iowa
8. River Convention Centre
Davenport, Iowa
9. Kansas City Convention Centre
Kansas City, Missouri
10. Asbury Park Convention Hall
Asbury Park, New Jersey
11. Pontchartrain Centre
Kenner, Louisiana
12. Sweeney Convention Centre
Santa Fe, New Mexico
13. Civic and Convention Centre
Raleigh, North Carolina
14. Peoria Convention Centre
Peoria, Illinois
15. Jamestown Convention Centre
Jamestown, North Dakota
16. Court of Flags Convention Centre
Orlando, Florida
17. Ponce de Leon Lodge and Convention Centre
St. Augustine, Florida
18. Callaway Gardens Conference Centre
Pine Mountain, Georgia
19. Bellemont Great Hall/Convention Centre
Baton Rouge, Louisiana
20. Jack Lawton Webb Convention Centre
Joplin, Missouri
21. Mississippi/Washington Company Convention Centre
Greenville, Mississippi
22. Cape May Convention Hall
Cape May, New Jersey
23. Houston West Convention Centre
Houston, Texas

24. George Washington Lodge and Convention Centre
Allentown, Pennsylvania
25. The Cottages Resort and Conference Centre
Hilton Head, South Carolina
26. San Antonio Convention Centre
San Antonio, Texas
27. San Diego Convention Centre
San Diego, California
28. Lexington Centre
Lexington, Kentucky
29. Omaha Convention Centre
Omaha, Nebraska
30. Exposition and Conference Centre
Rosemont, Illinois
31. INFORUM Atlanta Market Centre
Atlanta, Georgia
32. Grapevine Convention Centre
Grapevine, Texas

APPENDIX THREE

NEW AND EXPANDING FACILITIES 1991-1994

This is not an extensive list of new convention centres being planned, or existing ones being expanded, but it does provide a general idea of future growth in purpose-built facilities.

- | | | | |
|-----|--|-------------|------|
| 1. | Greater Fort Lauderdale/Broward County Convention Centre Fort Lauderdale, Florida | (new) | 1991 |
| 2. | Reno/Sparks Convention Centre Reno, Nevada | (expansion) | 1991 |
| 3. | Hartford Convention Centre Hartford, Connecticut | (planning) | 1991 |
| 4. | River Centre Davenport, Iowa | (new) | 1991 |
| 5. | Kelowna Convention Centre Kelowna, British Columbia | (new) | 1991 |
| 6. | Las Vegas Convention Centre Las Vegas, Nevada | (expansion) | 1991 |
| 7. | Atlantic City Convention Centre Atlantic City, New Jersey | (planning) | 1991 |
| 8. | McCormick Place Convention Complex Chicago, Illinois | (expansion) | 1991 |
| 9. | New Orleans Convention Centre New Orleans, Louisiana | (expansion) | 1991 |
| 10. | Pontchartrain Centre Kenner, Louisiana | (new) | 1991 |
| 11. | Pueblo Convention Centre Pueblo, Colorado | (new) | 1991 |
| 12. | Georgia World Congress Centre Atlanta, Georgia | (expansion) | 1991 |

- | | | | |
|-----|---|-----------------|------|
| 13. | Columbus Convention Centre Columbus, Ohio | (expansion) | 1991 |
| 14. | Banff Conference Centre Banff, Alberta | (new/planning) | 1991 |
| 15. | Waikiki Convention Centres Waikiki, Hawaii | (3 in planning) | 1991 |
| 16. | London Convention Centre London, Ontario | (new) | 1992 |
| 17. | Mobile Convention Centre Mobile, Alabama | (new) | 1992 |
| 18. | Jefferson Civic Convention Centre Birmingham, Alabama | (expansion) | 1992 |
| 19. | Los Angeles Convention Centre Los Angeles, California | (expansion) | 1992 |
| 20. | War Memorial/Convention Centre Complex Syracuse, New York | (new) | 1992 |
| 21. | Austin Convention Centre Austin, Texas | (new) | 1992 |
| 22. | Anaheim Convention Centre Anaheim, California | (expansion) | 1992 |
| 23. | Long Beach Convention Centre Long Beach, California | (expansion) | 1992 |
| 24. | Sacramento Convention Centre Sacramento, California | (expansion) | 1992 |
| 25. | Moscone Centre San Francisco, California | (expansion) | 1992 |
| 26. | Orange County Convention Civic Centre Orange County, Florida | (expansion) | 1992 |
| 27. | Cervantes Convention Centre St. Louis, Missouri | (expansion) | 1992 |
| 28. | Calgary Convention Centre Calgary, Alberta | (new/planning) | 1992 |
| 29. | Charlotte Convention Centre Charlotte, North Carolina | (new) | 1994 |

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|-----|---|-------------|------|
| 30. | Dallas Convention Centre Dallas, Texas | (expansion) | 1994 |
| 31. | Memphis Convention Centre Memphis, Tennessee | (expansion) | 1994 |

APPENDIX FOUR

CANADIAN CONVENTION CENTRE

ORGANIZATIONAL/MANAGEMENT STRUCTURE

The organizational structure developed for the administration of Canadian publicly-owned convention centres appears to be associated with four different types of management. Information about the way management is arranged is included here because of possible links with factors such as operating expenses, marketing plans, and economic impacts.

1. Edmonton, Saskatoon, Winnipeg, Hamilton:

The city-owned facilities are operated as non-profit umbrella organizations. They are governed by a board of directors, either appointed by mayor and council, or governed by an independent advisory authority in an operating agreement with the city which may be subject to direction from the board of directors.

2. Victoria, Calgary, Hull:

These city-owned facilities are under direct control by individual city departments, with a convention centre manager reporting directly to the city manager or mayor who has varying degrees of authority and autonomy. The convention centre managers may have the power to advise but not to govern, on policy matters. An advisory board of directors may have advisory or governing powers.

3. Vancouver, Toronto, Ottawa, Montreal, Halifax:

The facilities are provincial crown agency corporations under operational agreements with the cities. Umbrella agencies appoint boards of directors who operate the centre for the crown agencies. The centres are operated by independent general managers under a lease agreement with the corporation, who takes direction from the presidents of the corporation.

4. Quebec City, Saint John:

Both facilities are city-owned but have entered into long-term agreements with privately-owned hotel chains. The convention centre managers report to a board of directors appointed by the city, the city manager, and the general manager of the hotel. The general managers report to the city on trends of the operation. Palais des Congres de Quebec and Saint John Trade and Convention Centre are managed by Hilton Hotels International.



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Department of GEOGRAPHY

Telephone (403) 220-5584

APPENDIX FIVE
LETTER OF CONTACT

May 29, 1989

Dear Director:

I am a Master of Arts student (urban geography). My thesis research is an examination of the growth and impact of government-owned convention centres in Canadian cities.

There are three components to the study. It will trace the growth and diffusion of convention centres, summarize economic impacts of convention activity, and will provide an interpretation and analysis of images utilized in each centre's promotional brochures. This letter is being sent to all non-private convention centres requesting a copy of your:

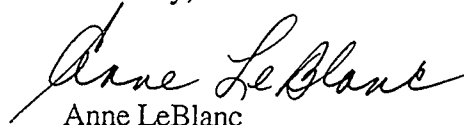
1. most recent promotional brochure(s)
2. economic data for 1988, including number of conventions held, number of associations and delegates attending each convention, and revenues generated locally from those conventions
3. the date your facility opened.

I would also like to purchase a colour slide or print showing the exterior of your facility, if you have one available.

The research is a previously unexplored topic by urban geographers in Canada. It will provide a broad geographic survey of convention centres, marketing approaches to the promotion of specific centres, an economic summary illustrating the impact of convention centres on urban growth and their role as an amenity in urban development, and establish the origins and spread of government-owned centres across Canada.

Your co-operation and participation is crucial to the data collection component of the research. Without your response the research cannot be completed. Thank you in advance for your assistance.

Sincerely,


Anne LeBlanc