Risks and decision making in event management

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Summary
This paper highlights the key decisions in the cycle of event planning and the means and methods used to assist the process. Risk management must include the evaluation and use of probability, which is always the greatest challenge for decision makers. The paper particularly emphasizes the importance of understanding the decision-making process for event managers and why it should extend above explanations of decision making as a rational process focused on the point of selection. Using examples from the context of event management, we explain the reasons for decision making. Therefore, the manager who can perceive opportunities by exploring and examining other personal, social, organizational and external factors is a person who will ask to outsmart less inspired and less creative competitors, because there is no competitive advantage without a risk.

Key words: Risk, event management, decision making.

1. INTRODUCTION

When Daniel Kahneman received the Nobel Memorial Prize in Economics in 2002, a milestone occurred. His research, published in early 1980's, has shaken the foundations of economic theory and its model of decision-makers as rational, selfish accomplices. The research has shown that when we make decisions we do not estimate options systematically, but we use mental shortcuts or heuristics in order to choose. However, created discussion presented a very pessimistic view of the human mind and its decision-making capacities. Basically, these heuristics are seen as sources of prejudices and systematic errors while making decisions.

What kind of insights this research can provide to the planning and operations in managing special events? This paper will provide a sufficient volume of resources for decision-making, representing the fundamental issues and the scope of current thinking. The paper will also explore risk...
assessment and factors that may undermine the quality of made decisions. It can happen in the context of decisions taken in the cycle of event planning.

2. EVENT MANAGEMENT

The special event is an opportunity to spend leisure time, a social or cultural experience outside the normal scope of options or beyond everyday experience.

Event management has a long history. However, the basic elements of event management are a little altered; only what it is possible, what suits the taste of consuming audience and what is morally and aesthetically acceptable for a modern society. The market demand on events has been increased in the world, it has been added to the wealth and relative peace (on home ground) and it increased the awareness that the tradition leads to a re-invention of historical and religious events and rituals. Since it is difficult to quantify it in terms of income, taking into account the wide variety of events that it includes, it's now the second part of the area of kindness and tourism services such as leading to the establishment of industrial associations, specific training courses and accreditation schemes. Shone (2001)\(^1\) somehow hidingly suggests that event management is more art than science. In fact, it is an intuitive knowledge built on firsthand experience of the whole event industry that is moving the event management from pure science to art. Goldblatt (2002, p. 7)\(^2\) argues that the "event manager is responsible for researching, designing, planning, coordinating and evaluating the event." Those activities require a balance of creative and logical thinking. What is important for successful management is that those thinking processes must reach climax by making good decisions including the selection, accountability and implementation.

The search for an excellent outcome requires a critical review of the decisions made. In event management, it includes the completion of events’ cycle with the assessment and interpretation of the outcome or the legacy of given event. This kind of reflective practice is now seen as fundamental for successful learning organizations. The greater understanding of decision-making process enhances that assessment process which helps managers to make better decisions and gives greater insight into the decision of shareholders, for example, commissionary clients, participants of the event.

3. DECISIONS RELATED TO EVENT: REVIEW OF CONTEXT

By definition, special events are something unique, not routine, but event management literature provides a consistent opinion that techniques used for events planning, organization and management are not unique. Event management had the benefit of:

- **observing events as activities of services.** That includes improving the understanding by analyzing the characteristics of services of special events (uniqueness, personal interaction, ritual or ceremony, intangible elements, timing, environment and services, intensity of work);

- **observing events from the operational perspective,** as a project. That includes the analysis of phases: objectives and the beginning, planning, organization and the preparation of events, the implementation of: event management and stock sales.

The characteristics of transience, uniqueness and diversity make special events a potentially resource-intensive and labor-intensive. The synchronization of event management with the perspectives of services and operations allows a manager to limit and organize the type and scope

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of made decisions. The following parts will more closely examine the processes underlying decision-making, starting by analyzing different types of decisions about the events and their associated planning stages.

### 3.1 Making decisions – strategic and operational decisions

We will use four descriptive dimensions to classify decisions: operational/strategic (how many times it has been repeated, the new volume of influence, short-term and long-term problems), structured/unstructured (clarity of definition, degree of ambiguity), distinctiveness (associated with probability, insecurity, risk); dependent/independent (scope of influence, links with past/future decisions, isolated or widespread effects on other areas of the organization). The process of event planning can be strategic and operational planning.

**Strategic planning** is being developed from the defined mission and vision, and it includes the agreed policies and the analysis of funding culminating in the overall strategy of events that will allow you to achieve the mission.

**Operational planning** includes decisions on specific operating procedures and steps required for the organization of an event. This could also include short-term plans for events that are not repeated or longer lasting plans for those that are repeated. Breaking down this complex process into the stages and more specific questions on which policy-makers will focus helps to go contrary to the human tendency to avoid decisions. Factors such as memories of past mistakes, group pressures, role confusion and time pressure can also easily stimulate a climate of indecisiveness. In contrast, a cycle of planning creates tasks that must be discussed and decisions that must be made.

In the phase of strategic planning, it is necessary to bear in mind the needs of key players, while at the same time there is a close review of the mission and vision, that is, if they meet qualities such as that they are specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time-bound (SMART). Another important part of the strategy is to analyze the external and internal environment. The research of environment includes examining external factors that may affect the event: political, economical, socio-cultural and technological influences (PEST), and demographic, meteorological, competitive organizations and events. Situational analysis or internal scanning can involve the examination of strong sides (strengths), weak sides (weaknesses), opportunities and threats (SWOT) imposed by the organization that manages the event. An effective strategic planning which includes risk analysis and research maximizes the chances for success, but also minimizes time and resources spent in planning the strategy of events that eventually may be considered impossible. Event managers must be effective in identifying and predicting the impacts of (positive and negative) events and manage them so that the outcome is positive.

The primary task of the operation strategy is to define a set of operational policies in order to receive guidance on making decisions for each of the five decisions: quality, process, capacity, inventory and labor (Figure 1).

Examples of decisions under each of the five categories of decision are as follows:

- **Quality**: decisions on harmonization of services with set standards. They include measurements, information about the needs of staff and resource requirements;
- **Process**: decisions about the process and procedures used to provide services. Questions about the display of design, purchase and maintenance of physical resources (often involving long-term, high-capital investments);
- **Capacity**: decisions that relate to the planning of access levels, so that a suitable number of visitors can safely come to an event in an appropriate time.

- **Inventory**: is linked to the ordering of materials and products necessary for the operation functioning; For example, food catering, information leaflets.

- **Labor force**: associated with the selection, hiring, training, control, and even dismissal of staff (this is a special challenge for the event management that is work-intensive over a specific period of time).

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 1. Operation strategy, policies defining decision-making**

*Events with the stamp* particularly require a more systematic approach that includes strategic planning to ensure not only short-term success, but includes long-term benefits for wider community; For example, tourist resources. Bramwell (1997, pp. 167-76)\(^3\) provides an interesting overview of different perspectives of strategic planning in the review of Sheffield Student Games. The classical perspective is sequential and formal. It includes rational processes and operations resulting from a clear strategy. Authors such as Getz (1997)\(^4\) and Inskeep (1994)\(^5\) extended this approach.

The *professional perspective* puts more emphasis on the imperfection and complexity of people. It is pragmatic where the strategy appears retrospectively through learning and adaptation. In essence, both perspectives are facing the inside because success or failure is seen as something that depends on management.

The final *systemic perspective* puts the emphasis on the social system, political and social forces that influence the outcome of events. It faces the outside and takes into account external influences. It is clear that the event management literature incorporates a mix of those approaches, especially classical and systemic perspectives. In essence, risk assessment is a key aspect of strategic planning. The next part will examine the risk assessment in the event management.

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3.2 Defining and measuring risk

One definition of risk is taken alongside the likelihood that something will happen. Risky decisions vary between situations in which probabilities of outcomes are objectively known; For example, throwing coins (risk) for those who are not familiar with the objective probabilities of outcome, and in practice can not be easily assessed (risk under uncertainty). In this context, risk is associated with a probability rather than a threat. The greater the influence of external factors, the more uncertain scenario of events. Meteorological factors are particularly problematic and should be considered very carefully when it comes to big events. For example, the British Grand Prix was moved to April 2000 instead of the usual July, and due to bad weather, everything resulted in a significant loss of revenue.

Slack and others (1998) points out that "typology of events in terms of increased levels of complexity (individual, group, organizational, multi-organizational, national, international) and uncertainty (cost, time schedule, technical requirements)". Events with high complexity and uncertainties include more high-risk decisions under uncertainty; For example, planning sailing from Britain to France or air balloon races includes many external factors that are difficult to measure and control. Therefore, risky decisions under uncertainty are most difficult to process, they occur with dynamic, changeable and unknown variables, and events or states of the world influence the outcome; For example, the global economy, time.

The definition of risk that is commonly used associated risk with coincidences and possibilities of the opposite outcome, and uncertainty surrounding the likelihood, timing or magnitude of the opposite outcome. In event management, a risk can be defined as the probability that special events or festivals do not meet their goals, but it is more often associated with the assessment and management of potential threats. The crisis in the event may vary from visitors who do not get his or her paid reality to the loss of life. Risk assessment and management should be effective and efficient, but not paralyzing. Control elements of risk assessment are: setting goals, either explicitly or implicitly, the collection and interpretation of information, an action that would affect human behavior and physical resources.

Categories of risk in event management include: personnel, health conditions and safety requirements, catering, management of visitors, insurance, transport.

The risk must be identified, problems must be anticipated and ways to manage them in complete integrity with the events planning must be found. This often includes back-up plans and conduction of necessary resources in stand-by position if you may need them. How far managers of the event should go on developing expensive backup plans? The threat of a bomb in 1999 at the Aintree track for horse racing resulted in the evacuation of 60 000 fans of racing, 20 000 cars, thousands of coaches were trapped underground. Finding lodging for those who got lost required support of the Committee for emergency situations. With increasing threats of global terrorism, what is the responsibility of managers in managing large-scale emergencies? How do you assess the probability that this may happen?

Risk management involves the assessment and the use of probability, which is perhaps the greatest challenge to any decision-maker. The perception of risk is a human and social phenomenon which can not be easy to measure, describe and predict. It is an inevitable fact that the literature on risk perception, its impact and consequences is extensive. An excellent source for assistance in risk assessing at events is a Guide to safety at events.

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Tarlow (2002)\textsuperscript{8} applies the principles of \textit{Gemba Kaizen} for risk management. Originally designed to assess the risk in situations of production, eight steps and the basic ethos have significant value in the organization of an event. Key factors are the centrality of events managers for the collection and analysis of reliable, useful data. Manager must maintain a significant contact with the operational side of events in order to follow the potential sources of risk. The next part will more closely explain the processes involved when decisions are made. It will also analyze factors that influence the process and circumstances under which mistakes may happen. The question that prevails here is: how rational are we when making decisions?

### 3.3 Rationality and making decisions

Rational theories of decision-making are based on the assumption that decision makers are obliged to follow rational procedures for making decisions, that is, to choose the option that will produce the best outcome possible. The decision is decomposed at component parts of the mathematical equations that are used for modeling decision-making process. It is assumed that decision makers have perfect knowledge and use perfect assessments. These theories were not originally intended to describe how people behave, but how an ideal hypothetical decision maker should behave.

Techniques to support decisions are ranging from simple descriptive modeling; For example, using the decision tree, to the complex mathematical modeling of decision situations, usually with the help of advisors for specialist management. This process of modeling is used for different purposes: to present the essence of decision-maker assessment policy, to make comparative assessments of the quality of made decisions, to \textit{pull out} or replace decision-makers.

Quantitative, specialized models of decisions belong to the area of \textit{operations research} or \textit{management science}. Leigh (1983) reports that "one third of Top 500 American companies use some form of decision analysis at the level of Board."\textsuperscript{9}

Many tools and techniques that are recommended in the literature of event management, designed to minimize errors, are a reminder of those formal, rational approaches. There are clear benefits. They promote a systematic approach to making decisions. They also help to simplify the decision making process and expose a decision-maker to the interpretation of principal aspects of the decision. It can promote understanding and critical analysis. The cost of more complex support outcomes is likely to be too high in many contexts of event management.

A research has shown that many managers consider these techniques as consumers of time, extensive and difficult to understand. Even when they are trained to use the classical theory of decision (and even when they have supporting decisions in order to apply them more easily) managers rarely use them. Managers rarely implement decisions required by those procedures, if they are in conflict with their subjective intuitions.

How rigorously do event managers complete the steps in the cycle of planning an event? According to Bramwell in (1997, pp. 167-76)\textsuperscript{10}, even at mega-events there is a little evidence of rigorous application of complete cycle of planning. The reality of decision-making is somehow a bit more confusing than it was proposed by rational models.

The focus of critics of *rational* theories is concentrated around the assumptions of *perfect knowledge* and *perfect assessments*. There is a large and growing group of research that indicates that decision makers are not naturally rational in their approach. They apply shortcuts and strategies of resilience that shorten the selection process. What are those shortcuts and how will they influence the event management?

### 4. HEURISTICS*

Kahneman and Tversky (1982)\(^\text{11}\) have conducted pioneering research that has found the simplification of shortcuts or heuristics that provide faster directions for making decisions by reducing complexity – but doing so, they impose severe and systemic prejudices. For example, the estimates are heavily influenced by an initially perceived value. This is called strengthening and adjustment. It seems that the initial value acts as a reference point that affects the future estimates and opinions of decision-makers.

The *strengthening* is presented in a wide scope of different scenarios of making decisions; For example, the estimates of real estate agents about the value of possessions which are influenced by the price required by a seller. It should be very careful while collecting data in event management, as the consolidation could affect the responses of participants (on badly structured questionnaires) and the interpretation of managers. For example, rapid assessments can lead to incorrect strengthening for future decisions.

The other heuristic or prejudice is called *usability*. Cases or examples that easily come to our minds create prejudices regarding our estimates or opinions on probabilities of events. That shows the importance of managing media coverage to protect the heritage of events in order to attract future participants. For example, the Roskilde Music Festival, despite being one of the oldest large-scale festivals in Europe, with a reputation for safety, has received unfavorable review in the press, that followed the incident of the destruction of part of the scene around the stage because of bad weather. Widely spread attributions of equipment scheduling and drug abuse were later proved wrong. However, damage to reputation was made.

Outcomes that are easier to imagine as well as those that are mentally more often imaged, are more likely to be selected. Therefore, the less-optimistic managers who keep at problems or delays of the events of new style or innovation will be less likely to encounter them. The prejudice on *usability* is associated with errors in predicting a disaster or perception. When predicting future disasters, people are conditioned by their very recent past. If someone has never experienced a flood, he or she will probably never be able to imagine it, and therefore he will underestimate the likelihood of its actual happening. Another common prejudice about decisions is the tendency to underestimate the likelihood of negative events. This has serious implications for risk assessment. The problems that occurred in the Millennium Dome opening night, at New Year’s Eve in 1999, were attached to the poor management and planning. A large number of factors got 4000 visitors *stuck* in Stratford Underground waiting for the transport to the dome. Management apparently failed to realize that the crisis is in sight when more than half of the participants had not received tickets even a few days before the event. Further systematic underestimation is related to the time that was left to undertake safety audits for 4000 visitors who came around the same time at only one entrance. The cost of those errors was high – the main manager was replaced within a month. It costs much less to manage risk before an event than to deal with the crisis after it happens.

\(^*\) Heuristika – Vještina i nauka o metodima u pronalaženju novih, naročito naučnih činjenica i saznanja.

Another important contribution is associated with the perception of *value* or *utility*. Kahneman and Tversky (1979, pp. 263-291)\(^\text{12}\) have shown that people apply different strategies of decision making when faced with potential loss or gain. When people are faced with a profit they tend to be more cautious in decision strategies. They will choose a safe *option*, avoiding a second chance. If faced with a loss, they will be bolder trying to avoid a loss.

This may explain the meaning given to any negative experience of event participants. The unfavorable obvious truth is that everyone notices when something does not go well, but only a few people notice a huge effort involved in the acquisition of even simple permissions/rights to the event.

*Investment trap* indicates that current decisions are heavily influenced by decisions made earlier. Previous financial investments, the costs of withdrawal, fear of failure and loss of prestige contribute to a potentially catastrophic series of traps which lead to risky decisions to the detriment of losing the flow of action.

Mega-events with significant social and political goals can proceed regardless of the huge escalation of costs.

Up till now, more than 25 *prejudices* have been identified. This research has been given a significant prominence in the field and it is applied to a large number of decisions including strategic decisions (Maule and Hodgkinson, 2002, pp. 68-71)\(^\text{13}\). It has also been used to propose methods for improving decision-making, that are describing a simple set of procedures that help to overcome *prejudices*.

There is an increased number of research that criticizes researches of *heuristics* and *prejudices*, because those are too negative. Heuristics give a clear evolutionary advantage. Terms such as *fast* and *sparing* are rather used than terms such as *errors* and *prejudices*, and suggest that, in the most situations, our mental shortcuts serve us well.

### 4.1 Information and perception

In an ideal scenario, a decision maker is interested, has time, has the ability to plan, understand and interpret information, is aware of the goals and has the experience and expertise for the implementation of made decisions, but all this is rarely fully realized in reality. Event management does not always successfully complete the assessment of planning cycle phases. Collected information may be incomplete due to a number of reasons: the lack of expertise, required effort, cost, resources that are moved to focus on the next event, and so on. A thorough analysis of the return response related to the event can take up to three years. Potential resources of information include qualitative and quantitative data; For example, ticket sales, attendance figures, written reviews, the use of participating observers who give immediate written and oral feedback, review after the event (by phone or mail), preview before and after the event. Interpreted information may (a) determine how well the event satisfied the objectives and (b) assist in planning future events. However, some people consider a detailed analysis of information about the event as *yesterday news*. When it comes to the prediction of future outcomes, research are looking ahead and give ideas of where you are rather than where you would like to be.

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The process of perception has a particularly important influence on the collection of information and their assessment. Perception is active, selective and interpretative. It often involves adding, deleting or repairing data. It is influenced by personal characteristics of recipients, i.e. their attitudes, motivation, past experience, personality, moods. For example, decision makers tend to be too self-confident in the accuracy of their assessments/opinions, especially in situations where subjective assessments are needed. They also fall into the trap of finding or emphasizing selectively evidences to support or approve their decisions. As a very subjective process, perception, affects the problem of diagnosis, selection of alternatives and the interpretation of facts.

4.2 Expertise and making decisions

Research in making decisions in the real environment draws attention to the development of expertise in making decisions. The model of decision of primary recognition (RDP) Klein and others (1993)\(^{14}\) and Klein's (1998)\(^{15}\) shows that in making professional decisions, in perceptual process and the evaluation of the situation, the process of rapid, effective decision making begins. A previous experience has built a number of instruments of intuitive knowledge in order to allow decision makers to classify situations as typical or new, and to create a potential course of action. However, before the implementation, experts tell mental stimulation of outcome (imaging a course of events if a certain option is selected). Only if it is proved that a situation has little downsides, the outcome will be switching to the implementation. This method is fast and effective, originally applied to decisions with time pressure.

Klein's work reveals the value of developing expertise in the specific context or situation. While newcomers engage themselves in more complex evaluation process by comparing several options, the experts will be deceived only in case they discover that their experience was inadequate. Klein presents a convincing view on the professional decision-making, and also a critique of rational approaches, arguing that they are unrealistic: all data are rarely possessed, methods are often vague, there is a burden of responsibility, attributes and probabilities, time and resources are limited. "Optimizing is very difficult and it takes a lot of time, satisfaction is more efficient."\(^{16}\) Thus, Klein connects his ideas with the work of Simon Herbert (1956, 1957)\(^{17}\), the Nobel Prize winner, proposing that the decision maker operates with limited rationality by selecting an option that is good enough, that is, the one that will satisfy.

This also indicates that there can never be a manager who has complete information to assess the options. Nobody can observe everything, no one can collect all the necessary information. The need to create an internal, professional database is one of the main reasons why the managers of event risk should try to collect first-hand knowledge from the entire event management industry. It produces a basis from which a professional intuition is developing.

Both Klein and Tarlow clearly show the importance of most experienced person in any event, which is managed by a person close enough to the event itself, so that he or she is able to recognize indications of potential problems and engage himself/herself in appropriate actions. Klein is skeptical about the courses of learning formal methods of making decisions, as they teach methods that people rarely use. He further argues that we are engaged in a risk of slowing down the expertise

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development. The aim of training should be to improve the recognition of a situation with the use of scenarios. Another important lesson for the training is the use of mental situation in order to perform quality review of the potential flow of action. This would be especially important in crisis decision-making, while the event unfolds.

5. DECISION-MAKING – THE WIDER CONTEXT

5.1 Personal factors

The cognitive process involved in decision-making has been examined so far. However, a significant analysis has to be spread beyond this in order to examine other personal, social, organizational and external factors that affect the process. Figure 2 summarizes the range of factors that influence decision-makers.

First, everyone involved in making decisions are under the influence of psychological characteristics and processes such are, for example, personality, motivation, moods, attitudes, ethics and values. In recent years, there is an increased interest in the role that emotions play in decision making and risk assessment. Traditionally, rational theories consider decision-making as cognitive activities. Feelings caused by the situation of decision-making are not considered integral to the process of making decisions. However, some initial studies have examined emotions and the process of selection. Bell (1982, pp. 961-981) and Loornes and Sugden (1982, pp. 805-824) observed disappointment and regret that are conceived and engineered for later reactions.

Other studies observed the general effects of mood; For example, happy decision makers are more optimistic (Isen and Patrick, 1983, pp. 194-202) and less willing to gamble. Another study showed that high levels of stress and negative emotions have a negative impact on decision-making; For example, decreased range of attention, conflicting thoughts, the level of clarity.

The work of Loewenstein and others (2001, pp. 267-280) emphasizes emotions as a resource of information that help in making decisions. It has been noted that emotional reactions are faster and more essential than cognitive perceptions. That gives people a quick, but rigid assessment of the situation and available options. Emotions can also redirect the limited cognitive processes where it is most needed. Hasty decisions made in risky situations are directly influenced by the intuitive feelings: concern, fear, nervousness. They are directly inserted into the cognitive assessment and sequence actions, or intentions to react.

It is clear that the direction of a new research opens up and suggests that collecting information about emotional reactions in assessing risks and making decisions should become the routine. Moreover, the observed gender differences suggest that emotions may explain the differences in strategy of decisions. For example, men tend to be less prone to risk and they experience emotions less intensely, especially nervousness and fear.

Figure 2. Restrictions for decision-makers
5.2 Social factors

The organization is made up of groups of people who have their own needs, desires and interests. They are internal shareholders in the event business. The concept of decisions aimed to achieve maximum performance, then, is a logical impossibility. Decisions will be good for some, but not for the others. Among other things, policies that appear from unequal distribution of resources lead to the further development of interests. The strategic perspective includes the research of policy and interest groups in the process of planning. There are many ways in which this influence will be manifested; the flow of information, for example. People can hide problems, implement different methods of collecting information, provide a selective interpretation of data, selectively transmit information, control the setting of agenda, limit the diagnosis of a problem or restrain the implementation of decisions.

The presence of other people has a deep impact on decision-making even if there is no a direct physical presence of others. The vast majority of research is directed towards the clarification of group decision making. Group thinking involves accidental retention of key skills and can result in the superficial analysis of a problem, the biased and selective search and assessment of information, the limited discussion of alternatives, and too much confidence and feeling untouchable. Delphi technique was used to overcome the problems of group processes. What can be considered a fault or prejudice from one perspective may be the rational opinion/assessment from a broader, social perspective that considers things such as: people can seek to protect or improve their social image, they can also choose the option that they will see likely acceptable by others.

5.3 External factors

A large volume of external factors complements the broader context in which decision making takes place. As we have previously mentioned, the dependence on the exterior will vary from event to event. A drastic change in the wider environment will make the necessary fundamental strategic and operational changes. Those external, environmental factors are the most difficult to foresee and control. Good risk management has the positive side with potentially high payoff or conditions associated with taking risks. One reason that makes the event special is the risk itself because it has never been done before! Among theoretical perspectives that surround a risk, the conflict theory suggests that there can always be only winners and losers; so in essence, the event management is a zero sum game of competitive players and participants. However, an event manager that can perceive opportunities in times of external change is the person who will strive and outsmart those less inspired, less creative competitors. Without risk, there is no competitive advantage.

6. CONCLUSION

Event Management includes many types of decision making. Decision-making can be linked to the cycle of event management planning and it can focus on strategic and operational problems and risk management.

Rational theories focus on cognitive processes occurring while making decisions and describe how decisions should be taken. Many means for event management planning are reminders of this approach. They promote a systematic approach, using the framework and model for decomposition and the analysis of decisions. They can also facilitate communication regarding decision-making and documentation to support the bids.

Rational premises of perfect knowledge and perfect assessments rarely occur when making decisions in real situations. The behavioristic research of decisions reveals a complex mutual
influence on decision-making: inside the decision-maker, between internal and external environment.

The recent research on decision-making is focused on heuristics, perception, expertise, skills development and emotions. These are important factors for the event management.

A manager who understands decision-making is well deployed to manage, develop professionally and understand the interests of groups involved in the event business.

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