Sport Tourism Events and Local Sustainable Development: An Overview

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Abstract Until recently, sport and tourism were studied as two distinct spheres of activity. However, the intersections between these two social phenomena have been gradually increasing, and the growing demand for travel related to sport has created the need for a new tourism segment, referred to as sports or sport tourism. The relationship between sport and tourism has also drawn considerable attention to the potential and real environmental, economic, and sociocultural impacts of these activities, both positive and negative. This chapter provides a review of scholarship to date, with particular focus on the linkages between small scale sport tourism events and local sustainable development. The chapter begins with a brief overview of the evolution of the sport tourism field, highlighting key conceptualizations and categorizations. It then discusses the predominant descriptions and categories of sport tourism events. Next, the chapter analyzes the meaning and practice of sustainable development at the intersection of sport and tourism, with particular emphasis on small scale sport tourism and local sustainable development. Finally, the chapter calls for a comparative methodology to provide a tool for sport tourism scholars globally.

Keywords Literature Review · Local Sustainable Development · Small Scale Sport Tourism Events · Sport Tourism · Sport Tourism Events

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R. Melo et al. (eds.), *Small Scale Sport Tourism Events and Local Sustainable Development*, Sports Economics, Management and Policy 18,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-62919-9_2

Introduction

Until recently, sport and tourism were studied as two distinct spheres of activity (Glyptis, 1991). Tourism has been defined in many ways and for a variety of purposes (Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gylbert, & Wanhill, 2007; Hall & Page, 2006; Murphy, 1985; WTO, 2019). However, from the multiple definitions of tourism, three primary dimensions can be highlighted: a spatial dimension, a temporal dimension, and a variety of activities experienced while traveling (Hinch & Higham, 2001; Van Rheenen, Cernaianu, & Sobry, 2017). In this regard, tourism involves, in combination, travel to a place of non-residence, during a period of time of one or more days, to engage in a specific leisure activity.[1]

In its overarching definition of tourism, the World Tourism Organization (WTO) makes explicit reference to sport, listing it as one of several critical leisure activities (Hinch & Higham, 2001). This direct reference confirms the important linkages between these two economic and sociocultural sectors. The European Sports Charter defines sports as "all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organized participation, aim at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition at all levels" (Council of Europe, 1992, p. 3). This definition implies a broad notion of sport, encompassing a wide range of activities and multiple levels of competition. Such a perspective can be juxtaposed to narrower definitions of modern sport that focus on institutionalized, highly structured, and competitive, physical activities (Coakley, 2014; Guttman, 1978; Loy, 1968). This broader conceptualization of sport likewise includes novel and emerging practices such as those associated with leisure, recreation, and tourism (Melo & Gomes, 2017a). The definition is also consistent with the ideas of those authors who have argued that a broader definition of sport helps increase the significance of the linkages between sport and tourism (Melo, Van Rheenen, & Gammon, 2020; Sobry, Liu, & Li, 2016; Standeven & De Knop, 1999). These two concepts are clearly symbiotic in that "sports is an activity within tourism and tourism is a fundamental characteristic of sport" (Hinch & Higham, 2001, p. 48).

The intersections between these two social phenomena have been gradually increasing (Melo & Sobry, 2017a, 2017b); the growing demand for travel related to sport has created the need for a new tourism segment, referred to as sports or sport tourism (Gammon & Robinson, 2003; Gibson, 2002; Hinch & Higham, 2001; Melo & Sobry, 2017c; Van Rheenen et al., 2017; Weed & Bull, 2004). According to several seminal scholars (Gammon & Robinson, 2003; Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1993), this sudden interest in sport tourism is due to five reasons: (1) the growing popularity of major sport events; (2) the greater awareness of the health benefits associated with active participation in sports activities; (3) the increasing importance given by government and tourism authorities to sport, due to the impacts on the economy and

[1] While earlier definitions of tourism limited such activities to leisure or vacation, business travel can also include facets of tourism distinct from one's work.

international relations; (4) more varied sports programming, offering events throughout the year and available to participants and spectators; and (5) the ease of communication and movement of people due to the development of modern technologies and infrastructures.

Sport tourism scholarship has also increased significantly since the middle to late 1990s, evidenced by the sheer number of publications (e.g., articles, chapters, and books), course curricula and program offerings, organized conferences and seminars, and established research networks (Gibson, 2002; IRNIST, 2020; Melo & Sobry, 2017b). With these advances in academic and scientific knowledge, Gibson (2002, 2004) postulated at the turn of the twenty-first century that sport tourism was at a conceptual crossroads. Despite conceptual debates that exist within the field of sport tourism, Weed (2009) argued that the field may well have reached a stage of maturity, citing several markers indicative of this maturation process:

> a strong conceptualization of the field; the underpinning of empirical work by appropriate theory; the robust, appropriate and transparent application of methods and methodology; and a clear community of scholars with a sustained interest in the area, served by a supporting and credible academic journal (*The Journal of Sport & Tourism*), and wider body of knowledge. (p. 625)

Though many aspects of sport tourism scholarship will certainly continue to benefit from further exploration and description, it is important at this stage in the field's maturation to embark upon work that is both theoretically grounded and methodologically rigorous. This book seeks to embark on this journey and add to the existing literature. As such, this chapter provides a review of scholarship to date, with particular focus on the linkages between small scale sport tourism events and local sustainable development. The chapter begins with a brief overview of the evolution of the sport tourism field, highlighting key conceptualizations and categorizations. It then discusses the predominant descriptions and categories of sport tourism events. Next, the chapter analyzes the meaning and practice of sustainable development at the intersection of sport and tourism, with particular emphasis on small scale sport tourism and local sustainable development. Finally, the chapter calls for a comparative methodology to provide a tool for sport tourism scholars globally. As articulated in the next chapter, this comparative method provides a model to evaluate local sustainable development—economic, environmental, and social outcomes and impacts—of a similar sport tourism event (half marathons) held in nine countries across three continents.

Sport Tourism

As an emerging field of inquiry, scholars have attempted to define sport tourism (Gammon & Robinson, 1997, 2003; Gibson, 1998a, 1998b; Hall, 1992; Hinch & Higham, 2001; Standeven & De Knop, 1999) seeking to describe characteristics of this social phenomenon (De Knop, 1990; Gibson, 1998b; Hall, 1992; Redmond,

1991). In his meta-review regarding the progress of sport tourism research to date, Weed (2009) stated that "debates over core concepts have included discussions of the way in which the field is described (sport tourism, sport-tourism, sports tourism, sports-tourism), the categorization of sports tourism (usually by the nature of participation on a particular trip) and its nature, and the relationship of sports tourism with tourism and with sport" (p. 617).

Early definitions of sport tourism tended to discuss "sport holidays" rather than sport tourism (Weed, 2009) and, in this regard, Glyptis (1982) described 'sport holidays' and 'general holidays with sport opportunities'. De Knop (1990) identified three types of 'sports holidays': the pure sport holiday, the sporadic acceptance of organized sports, and the private sporting activity on holidays. However, the implication of this terminology assumed that day trips or excursions, now considered a significant element of sport tourism, were not considered, and it was established relatively early that it was more appropriate to focus on the concept of tourism rather than holidays (Weed, 2009).

Initial conceptualizations defined sport tourism only as active participation in sport while traveling (e.g., De Knop, 1990; Glyptis, 1982, 1991). Redmond (1991) was one of the first scholars to recognize spectators of sports events as sport tourists, alongside those who participate in sports activities and those who visit sports attractions. Broader concepts were later established, including that of Hall (1992), who defined sport tourism as: (1) major tourist events, including, for example, the Olympic Games; (2) outdoor activities (adventure nature tourism), which include recreational activities in a natural environment, such as canoeing, surfing, or skiing; and (3) health and fitness tourism, which includes, as examples, spa, tennis, or golf activities. Soon thereafter, Gibson (1998b) articulated three types of behavior associated with sports tourism: (1) active sport tourism, which refers to people who travel to take part in sport; (2) event sport tourism, which refers to individuals who travel to watch a sports event; and (3) nostalgia sport tourism, which includes those who visit sports museums, sports venues, and sports-themed cruises.

Midway through the field's maturation process, there was still debate regarding the use of the term "sport" (e.g., Gibson, 2002) or "sports" (e.g., Weed, 2005; Weed & Bull, 2004, 2009), a debate those outside of the field might call semantic silliness and unnecessary sniping. Actually, the distinction of terms was important. Gibson (2002) argued that the term "sport tourism" was preferred as it recognized sport as "as a social institution rather than the micro view of individual sports" and that the concept of "sport tourism [is] unique from other forms of tourism" (p. 115). On the other hand, Weed and Bull (2004) proposed the use of the term "sports tourism," as it implied a focus on diverse and heterogeneous activities. As Van Rheenen et al. (2017) noted, the debate seems to have been silenced, or at least mollified, as the primary journal devoted to the subject, first published in 1995 was called the *Journal of Sport Tourism*, later to be renamed the *Journal of Sport & Tourism* in 2006, both adopting the singular tense of sport. It is noteworthy that Mike Weed has also been the singular editor of the latter journal since its inception.

The model proposed by Gammon and Robinson (1997, 2003), based on a participatory and motivational approach, suggested the existence of four categories of

sport tourists. The authors began by distinguishing the concepts of sport tourism and tourism sport. Sport tourism refers to individuals who, actively or passively, participate in a sporting, competitive, or recreational activity, while traveling outside their place of residence. Here, sport is the main motivation for travel, even though the tourist activity acts as a reinforcement or complement to the overall experience. In tourism sport, or what Bouhaouala and Sobry (2017) referred to as opportunity sport tourism, individuals travel away from their homes to participate, actively or passively, in a recreational or competitive sporting activity, as a secondary activity. The main motivation of the trip is to be on vacation or visit a place. In these two distinct domains, the authors classify hard and soft sport tourism.

Hard sports tourists are those who actively or passively travel and participate in a competitive sporting event, such as the Olympic Games, Football Championships, and marathons. Soft sport tourists comprise those individuals who travel and actively participate in a recreational leisure activity, such as golf, hiking, or skiing. This heuristic categorization allows us to better understand the dynamic interactions between sport and tourism and the varying motivations of both participants and spectators of sporting events (Gammon & Robinson, 1997, 2003). Standeven and De Knop (1999) presented a definition of sport tourism in line with that of Gammon and Robinson (1997), describing it as all forms of participation in a sport activity, active or passive, organized or not, which lead to travel from one's place of residence or work. At the same time but in a different continent, this conceptualization of varying participant motivations provides a potential tool for the tourism industry to incorporate, thereby providing a range of services that meet the divergent tastes, demands, and athletic skill levels of tourists (Sofield, 2003).

These epistemological developments surfaced a recurring tension between those who focus on the demand and those on the supply of sport tourism activities and events. This epistemological tension among researchers was perhaps reflective of the historical rift between scholars and practitioners of sport tourism, that is, those studying the maturing field and those engaged in the industry and emerging market (Van Rheenen et al., 2017). Sport tourism, according to Pigeassou (2004), appeared as a tourist activity with an economic impact before being understood as an experience of sports culture. Pigeassou (2004) argued that the contemporary vision of sport tourism is organized into four categories, according to the profile and motivation of the participants: (1) event sport tourism (those who attend); (2) action sport tourism (those who actively practice or compete); (3) the cultural sport tourism (those who are interested in sports history); and (4) sport involvement tourism (those involved in sports organization).

Each of these categories has been explored more fully within the literature. For example, active sport tourism, including participation in active nature sport tourism (Melo et al., 2020),

> can be divided into five types of travel: (i) independent travel where nature sports participants take part in informal nature sports activities such as climbing, hang-gliding, surfing or snorkeling; (ii) organized travel where participants hire the services of a touristic company or agency to engage in specific nature sport tourism activities, such as white water rafting; (iii) travel to participate in nature sports competitions such as trail running events; (iv)

> travel to develop skills in a particular practice and/or prepare for sports competitions, such as surfing camps and (v) travel where tourists take advantage of nature sports facilities at a holiday destination, though nature sport is not the primary purpose of the trip, such as participating in kayaking, trekking, and mountain biking. (p. 7)

The approach of Hinch and Higham (2001) considered that sport tourism encompasses travel outside the place of residence, for a limited period of time, in order to participate in a competitive sports activity (with a specific set of rules and where it is physical prowess) or playful. This approach is in line with most definitions of tourism, respecting its dimensions (space, time, and activities included), with the difference that in sport tourism the activity is specifically sport. Sport takes the main role in the tourist experience, being the decisive factor in the travel option. As illustrated in Table 1, these authors sought to capture the breadth of definitions related to sport tourism but that had coalesced around consistent themes or parameters. In a recent content analysis of sport tourism definitions over the course of the last nearly four decades, Van Rheenen et al. (2017) identified three main parameters, namely, sport as the motivation for travel, combined with a temporal and a spatial dimension. According to the authors, the predominance of these three parameters provides empirical support for Hinch and Higham's (2001) proposed three-dimensional definition of sport tourism and framework for future research.

Table 1 Selected definition related to sport tourism

Dimension	Definition and source
Sport tourism	Travel for non-commercial reasons to participate or observe sporting activities away from the home range (Hall, 1992, p. 194) An expression of a pattern of behavior of people during certain periods of leisure time—such as vacation time, which is done partly in especially attractive natural settings and partly in artificial sports and physical recreation facilities in the outdoors (Ruskin, 1987, p. 26) Holidays involving sporting activity either as a spectator or participant (Weed & Bull, 1997; p. 5) Leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical activity (Gibson, 1998b, p. 49) All forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organized way for noncommercial or business/commercial reasons, that necessitate travel away from home and work locality (Standeven & DeKnop, 1999, p. 12)
Sport tourist	A temporary visitor staying at least 24 h in the event area and whose primary purpose is to participate in a sports event with the area being a secondary attraction (Nogawa et al., 1996, p. 46) Individuals and/or groups of people who actively or passively participate in competitive or recreational sport, while traveling to and/or staying in places outside their usual environment (sport as the primary motivation of travel) (Gammon & Robinson, 1997)
Tourism sport	Persons traveling to and/or staying in places outside their usual environment and participating in, actively or passively, a competitive or recreational sport as a secondary activity (Gammon & Robinson, 1997)

Source: Adapted from Hinch and Higham (2001)

The maturation process well underway, Weed (2005) cautioned that those studying sport tourism should move away from a dependency on definitions of sport and/or tourism to conceptualize sport tourism as "a social, economic and cultural phenomenon arising from the unique interactions of activity, people and place" (Weed & Bull, 2004, p. 37). Additionally, sport tourism is "related to but more than the sum of sport and tourism" (Weed, 2005, p. 234), thus establishing sport tourism as far more than a tourism market niche or subset of sports management. We may well be at a new epistemological crossroads, moving beyond definitional debates and singular case studies to expand our understanding of sport tourism as an expanding global market and academic discipline. This book seeks to make such an effort, proposing theoretically grounded and methodologically rigorous research. As the remaining chapters of this book articulate, local context informs both the production (supply) and consumption (demand) of sport tourism activities and events as social-cultural and economic phenomena. While a number of similar themes emerge in different places among different people engaged in a similar, if not the same, activity, there are stark differences across these contexts as well.

Sport Tourism Events

The study of events has long existed within several disciplines, manifested in research and theory development; for example, events have been studied by anthropologists, geographers, and economists, among others. Recently, "event studies" has become a distinct field of its own (Getz, 2008). As a research topic, sport tourism events became firmly established in the last decade of the twentieth century, and has been expanding exponentially since 2000 (Getz, 2008). In particular, the volume, range, meaning, and significance of local and global events and festivals have grown rapidly (Page & Connell, 2012). As these authors have mentioned, "Every year, a number of large-scale events of international significance take place, attracting large numbers of participants and spectators, along with their associated entourages, increased media interest and 'armchair' spectators" (p. 1), from major or mega sporting events, such as the FIFA World Cup or the Olympic Games, to annual sporting events such as the Tour de France, the Super Bowl in the United States, or the World Surf League in Portugal, but also artistic, musical, cultural, and other events, such as the European City of Culture, the Cannes Film Festival in France, the AgitÁgueda in Portugal, Carnival in Rio de Janeiro—Brazil, or San Francisco's Gay Pride Parade in the United States, among many others. Events have thus become staples of popular culture and the late capitalist economies, associated with the post-modern human experience and meaning making (Hepp & Couldry, 2010; West, 2015).

As such, events are an important motivator of tourism. The roles and impacts of planned events within tourism have been well documented and are of increasing importance for destination or place recognition and competitiveness (Cornellisen & Swart, 2006; Gillis, Oliver & Briggs, 2007; Van Rheenen, 2014). Equally, "event

management" is a rapidly growing professional field in which tourists constitute a potential market for planned events; the tourism industry has become a vital stakeholder in their success and attractiveness. Not all events need to be tourism oriented, however, and some fear the potential negative impacts associated with adopting a marketing orientation for every planned event (Getz, 2008).

Planned events are a spatial-temporal phenomenon, and each is unique because of the interactions among the setting, people, and management systems—including design elements and programming. Much of the appeal of events is that they are never the same, and you have to "be there" to enjoy the unique experience fully; if you miss it, it's a lost opportunity (Getz, 2008). This acknowledgment recognizes that the "same" kind of tourism event (e.g., half marathons) may be sponsored, promoted, managed, and experienced in qualitatively different ways based on local context.

Existing literature provides numerous classifications of planned events. Events can be classified by type, scale, frequency, location, and ownership or business model (Getz, 2005). In terms of type, the author has proposed the following classification: (1) Cultural Celebration Events (e.g., festivals, carnivals, commemorations, religious events); (2) Political and State Events (e.g., summits, royal occasions, political events, VIP visits); (3) Arts and Entertainments (e.g., concerts, awards ceremonies); (4) Business and Trade Events (e.g., meetings and conventions, consumer and trade shows, fairs, markets); (5) Educational and Scientific Events (e.g., conferences, seminars, clinics); (6) Sport Competition Events (e.g., amateurs/professionals, spectators/participants); (7) Recreational Events (sport or games for fun); and (8) Private Events (e.g., weddings, parties, socials).

Getz (2005) has also classified events in terms of size and value in regard to touristic demand, categorizing them in four typologies: (1) Occasional mega events, which have high tourist demand and high value; (2) Periodic hallmark events, which have high tourist demand and high value; (3) Regional events (periodic and one-time), which have medium tourist demand; and (4) local events (periodic and one-time), which have low demand and low value.

Later, Getz and Page (2016) divided planned events within an event-tourism context in four main categories: (1) Business events; (2) Festivals and other cultural celebrations; (3) Entertainment events; and (4) Sports events. With regard to sport events, which emerge as a specific activity of sports tourism (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1997), these reveal themselves as a new way of promoting the touristic activity (Getz, 2008; Salgado-Barandela, Barajas, & Sánchez, 2017), and can be classified according to their impact on tourism. Salgado-Barandela et al. (2017) proposed a typology of sport events (Table 2), based on the four types (Type A, B, C, and D) of sport events previously defined by Gratton, Dobson and Shibli (2000), and the Type E category, small scale sport tourism events, added by Wilson (2006). Furthermore these authors divided Type C and D in terms of the irregular and irregular nature of the event (Salgado-Barandela et al., 2017).

This book project is focused on Type D2 and Type E above, posited by Wilson (2006) and Salgado-Barandela et al. (2017). Small scale sport tourism events are defined as events in which the number of athletes often exceeds the number of

Table 2 Typologies of sport tourism events

Type of event	General characteristics
Type A	Irregular or regular events that change the venue every time the event is held, one-off, major international events generating significant economic activity, the media interest, more international spectators and competitors, more attraction to non-resident spectators, great competitiveness among countries and cities in order to win the candidacy, and high institutional support (e.g., Olympic Games, Football World Cup, and European Football Championships).
Type B	Regular major spectator events, part of an annual domestic cycle of sport events, generating significant economic activity, the media interest, more attraction to non-resident spectators, little competitiveness among countries and cities in order to win the candidacy, and high institutional support (e.g., FA Cup Final, Six Nations Rugby Union Internationals, Test Match cricket, Open Golf, Wimbledon).
Type C1	Irregular or regular events that change the venue every time the event is held, one-off, generating limited economic activity, international spectators and competitors, less attraction to non-resident spectators, and less institutional support (e.g., World and European Championships in most sports unless previously stated).
Type C2	Regular events, generating limited economic activity, international spectators and competitors, less attraction to non-resident spectators, and less institutional support (e.g., International City Marathons, Stages of World Surf League).
Type D1	Irregular or regular events that change the venue every time the event is held, one-off, generating limited economic activity, no international spectators and competitors, and less attraction to non-resident spectators (e.g., national championships in most sports).
Type D2	Regular events, part of the annual cycle of sports events, generating limited economic activity, no media interest, more competitors than spectators, less attraction to non-residents spectators (e.g., national sports events in most sports).
Type E	Regular events, part of the annual cycle of sports events, generating limited economic activity, no media interest, fewer spectators and competitors, and non-economic reasons for authorization (e.g., local and regional events in most sports).

Source: Adapted from Gratton et al. (2000), Salgado-Barandela et al. (2017), and Wilson (2006)

spectators. These events are developed on a regular basis and, as a rule, receive little media coverage. They are mostly organized using existing capacity and infrastructure, and therefore do not require significant costs or expenses. These events are less invasive to the local population compared to major sport tourism events, but they also have limited economic activity or return on investment (Daniels & Norman, 2003; Gibson et al., 2012; Wilson, 2006).

Sport Tourism and Sustainable Development

Since the latter decades of the twentieth century, there has been an increased awareness of the negative impacts resulting from the dominant model of development based solely on economic growth and revenue generation. These concerns have led to the search for new forms of development, that is, economic growth fostered in

consideration of both social cohesion and environmental protection (WCED, 1987). The term "sustainable development" may have been mentioned officially for the first time by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), in their published report, *Our Common Future*, where it was defined as development that "meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987, p. 43). Sustainable development is linked to three fundamental dimensions: economic development, social cohesion, and protection of the environment, which are interconnected but also interdependent (Melo, 2013; Melo & Gomes, 2016a).

The concept of sustainable development is based on four major principles (Bessy & Mouton, 2004; Fidélis, 2001; Melo, 2013), acknowledging: (i) a new relationship with time that requires intergenerational solidarity, encompassing the short and long term; (ii) a new relationship with the world and with space, articulating the local and the global, in a transversal and systemic approach; (iii) a new relationship of knowledge, which requires precautionary measures, scientific advances and temporary measures; and (iv) a new mode of governance based on the principle of stakeholder participation of individuals, which combines the ideas of different actors in the decision-making process.

In recognizing the need for local and global strategies to address these concerns, the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development was held in 1992 in Rio de Janeiro (Brasil), in 2002 in Johannesburg (South Africa), and in 2012 again in Rio de Janeiro (Brasil) where attendees reinforced the concept of sustainable development as a common global discourse and political agenda (Carneiro, Breda, & Cordeiro, 2016; Melo, 2013; Melo et al., 2020). As seen in Table 3, the concept was quickly accepted and promoted by many national and international organizations and governing bodies. The concept was also widely incorporated into sport and tourism development policies and strategies, as well as a growing body of academic literature on the subject (Bučar, Van Rheenen, & Hendija, 2019; Carneiro et al., 2016).

The concept of sustainable tourism has been approached from various perspectives, resulting in a proliferation of definitions. The definition proposed by the World Tourism Organization is "tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities" (UNWTO & UNEP, 2005, p. 12). The global sport industry also adopted initiatives for sustainable development. For example, the IOC (1999) adopted the "Olympic Movement's Agenda 21: Sport for Sustainable Development" aiming

> to encourage members of the Movement to play an active part in the sustainable development of our planet. It sets out the basic concepts and general actions needed to ensure that this objective is met. It has been inspired by the UNCED Agenda 21, adapted to the characteristics of the Olympic and sports Movement. It suggests general outlines which should guide the activity of the Olympic Movement in the fields in which it can bring an effective contribution. (p. 21)

According to the IOC (2012), sport presents certain characteristics and provides unique opportunities "to promote environmental awareness, capacity building and

Table 3 Chronology of institutional initiatives relative to sustainable development applied to sport and tourism

Year	Designation	Description
1992	United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED)/ Earth Summit	These conferences are ongoing forums for international negotiation on environmental matters. It was inaugurated with the so-called "Earth Summit," a conference held in Rio de Janeiro (Brazil) in 1992. UNCED builds upon the achievements of the UN Conference on the Human Environment, which was held at Stockholm in 1972 and which led to the founding of the United Nations Environment Program (UNEP). Since 1990, the international community has convened 12 major conferences that have committed governments to address urgently some of the most pressing problems facing the world today. The most relevant UNCED were held in Johannesburg, South Africa, in 2002 (known as Rio +10), and again in Rio de Janeiro in 2012 (known as Rio +20).
1995	Charter for Sustainable Tourism	This document, published as the result of the World Conference on Sustainable Development, held in Lanzarote, Spain, in 1995, calls for planning and management of tourism that conserves and protects the natural and cultural heritage, and for tourism to be ecologically bearable, economically viable, socially equitable for local communities, and sustainable for the future.
1996	Agenda 21 for the Travel and Tourism Industry: Towards Environmentally Sustainable Development	This document, published in 1996 by the World Travel and Tourism Council, the World Tourism Organization and the Earth Council, outlines practical steps that governments and private tourism companies can take to implement the goals of the Rio Earth Summit and make the future of the tourism sector and our entire planet more sustainable.
1999	Olympic Movement's Agenda 21: Sport for Sustainable Development	This document, published in 1999 by the International Olympic Committee, was inspired by the UNCED Agenda 21, and adapted to the characteristics of the Olympic and Sports Movement, aims to be a theoretical and practical guide for all members of the Olympic Movement, to encourage them to play an active part in the sustainable development of the planet.
1999	Global Code of Ethics for Tourism	This document, published in 1999 by the United Nations World Tourism Organization, is a comprehensive set of principles designed to guide key-players in tourism development, aiming to help maximize the sector's benefits while minimizing its potentially negative impact on the environment, cultural heritage, and societies across the globe.
1999	European Charter for Sustainable Tourism in Protected Natural Areas	This document, published in 1999 by Europarc Federation, aims to be a practical management tool that enables protected areas to develop tourism sustainably.
2002	1st European Tourism Forum	This was the first of an annual series of European forums dedicated to tourism, approaching sustainability issues.

(continued)

Table 3 (continued)

Year	Designation	Description
2007	Agenda for Sustainable and Competitive European Tourism	This document, published in 2017 by the European Commission, aims to guide European tourism stakeholders in their policies and actions affecting the impact of outbound tourism from Europe and in supporting tourism as a tool for the sustainable development of the host countries, with the objectives of delivering economic prosperity, social equity, and cohesion and environmental and cultural protection.
2013	1st IRNIST Sport Tourism Conference	This was the first of a series of conferences organized by IRNIST, dedicated to sport tourism and local sustainable development. The first IRNIST conference was organized in Lille, France, in 2013, followed by Coimbra, Portugal, in 2014; Zagreb, Croatia, in 2016; and Lille, France, in 2016. The 2020 IRNIST conference was to be held in Rome, Italy, but was postponed because of COVID-19.
2015	2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development	This document, published in 2015 by the United Nations, contains a plan of action, establishing 17 sustainable development goals and 169 targets, integrating and balancing the three dimensions of sustainable development—economic, environmental, and social—aiming stimulating actions over the year 2030 in areas of critical importance for humanity and the planet. Sport and tourism were incorporated as important enablers of sustainable development in the 2030 Agenda.
2017	Tourism and the Sustainable Development Goals—Journey to 2030, Highlights	This document, published in 2017 by the World Tourism Organization and United Nations Development Program, aims to build knowledge, empower, and inspire tourism stakeholders to take necessary action to accelerate the shift toward a more sustainable tourism sector by aligning policies, business operations, and investments with the SDGs.
2018	The Contribution of Sports to the Achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals: A Toolkit for Action	This document, published in 2018 by the Sustainable Development Fund Secretariat, aims at raising the visibility and understanding of the SDGs, showcasing and promoting the contribution of sports and best sports practices in relation to the SDGs by relevant stakeholders.

far-reaching actions for environmental, social and economic development across society. It also can be a means of achieving peace and reconciliation as a fundamental prerequisite for sustainability principles to be shared and applied" (p. 5).

The relationship between sport and tourism has also drawn considerable attention to the potential and real environmental, economic, and sociocultural impacts of these activities, both positive and negative. These impacts have been an ongoing concern for leisure, sports, and tourism scholars, who have discussed these tripartite impacts in terms of the triple bottom line (Elkington, 1997; Getz, 2009; Dwyer, 2015; Van Rheenen, 2017), seeking to enhance positive outcomes while mitigating the negative impacts (Melo et al., 2020).

The economic dimension of sport tourism has been highlighted by several scholars (Bouchet & Sobry, 2019; Carneiro et al., 2016; Pigeassou, 2004; Pigeassou,

Bui-Xuan and Gleyse, 2003); potential economic impacts of sport tourism have often been centered on the direct expenditure of participants and spectators of sport tourism activities and events that are related directly to the sport activity or event itself. These expenditures include the acquisition of tickets, registration fees to participate in a sport tourism event, the acquisition of the services of a company or a sport tourism guide; the acquisition or consumption of complementary goods and services, like accommodation, food and beverages, and souvenirs (Andersson, Armbrecht, & Lundberg, 2016; Briedenhann, 2011; Gibson et al., 2012; Melo & Gomes, 2016b, 2017b). Economic sustainability in sport tourism is also related to creating employment opportunities (Briedenhann, 2011; Markwick, 2000; Melo & Gomes, 2017b).

In order to improve economic sustainability, some authors have suggested developing specific measures (Carneiro et al., 2016), namely:

1. increase the number of visitors or their average expenditure (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Roberts & Tribe, 2008);
2. diversify the product supply in order to decrease the seasonality of tourism businesses (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Ma et al., 2011);
3. encourage the industry to buy products from local suppliers and to create intersectoral linkages locally in order to avoid leakages from the community (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Miller, 2001; Roberts & Tribe, 2008); and
4. set appropriate price and taxation levels to avoid potential dissatisfaction with sport tourism development on the part of local residents (Briedenhann, 2011; Fredline, 2005; Markwick, 2000).

Ideally, a positive economic impact can help maintain ecosystem protection, while a healthy ecosystem provides the venue for sustainable market supply and growth (Boley & Green, 2016; Melo et al., 2020).

Environmental sustainability remains one of the most commonly discussed dimensions in terms of sport tourism impact (Carneiro et al., 2016) but perhaps the least studied dimension of sustainability (Hinch, Higham, & Moyle, 2016). Potential negative environmental impacts may occur as a by-product of sport tourism activities, such as noise, water and air pollution, soil erosion, natural landscape destruction, fauna and flora destruction, and the deterioration of monuments and historic sites (Fredline, 2005; Higham, 2005; Markwick, 2000; Melo & Gomes, 2016a; Orams, 2005). These negative environmental impacts are due, in part, to an increase in the human presence and footprint in fragile places, intrusion of visitors into the habitat of certain species, and damage caused by trampling, etc. (Carneiro et al., 2016).

Sport tourism can also promise the possibility of environmental conservation and protection when developed and managed in a sustainable and intentional manner (Melo & Gomes 2016a; Melo et al., 2020). The various sites and facilities developed for these activities (trails, tracks, routes, take-off and landing areas, mooring buoys, submerged paths, shops, parking, etc.) have contributed to sound conservation management practices, thus reducing the exploitative use of the (natural) environment, allowing sport tourism participants to enjoy the activities without harming

it (Melo, 2013). Service providers and sport tourism guides play an important role in the promotion of sustainability, acting as environmental interpreters, role models, and activists (Weiler & Davis, 1993; Pereira & Mykletun, 2012; Melo & Leite, 2020).

The relevance of preserving natural resources and biodiversity has been highlighted in sport tourism scholarship (Weiler & Davis, 1993; Pereira & Mykletun, 2012; Melo et al., 2020), perhaps because of the high dependency of tourism activities on the destination site (Carneiro et al., 2016). A growing awareness regarding the potential negative effects of additional pressure on resources, especially in fragile ecosystems with a high number of endangered species (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006), has led researchers to support actions that will ensure environmental sustainability within sport tourism activities and events (Carneiro et al., 2016). These actions include:

1. limiting the growth and number of participants (Mykletun, 2009; Ponting & O'Brien, 2014);
2. developing strategies that involve the implementation of measures and plans for conserving and monitoring both the quality and use of resources to avoid pollution and the high use of resources such as air, water, and energy due to sports and other tourism activities (Alonso-Almeida et al., 2018; Andersson et al., 2016; Fredline, 2005; Ma et al., 2011; Markwick, 2000; Orams, 2005; Roberts & Tribe, 2008; Wickham & Lehman, 2015);
3. adopting recycling practices and other special measures to avoid water pollution, as well as litter and noise production (Fredline, 2005; Gibson et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2011; Orams, 2005; Roberts & Tribe, 2008);
4. using renewable energy and more environmentally friendly forms of locomotion such as public transport, walking, or cycling (Ma et al., 2011);
5. utilizing existing sports infrastructure rather than building new, single-use facilities (Gibson et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2011);
6. designing environmental education training for employees (Alonso-Almeida et al., 2018; Bagur-Femenías et al., 2015; Choi & Sirakaya, 2006);
7. levying taxes associated with tourism services in order to raise funds to preserve or improve areas with important natural resources (Gibson et al., 2012); and
8. embracing environmental activities that contribute to enhancing environmental quality (Alonso-Almeida et al., 2018; Bagur-Femenías et al., 2015).

Space and land management remain important areas for the conservation of the environment, where sport tourism and conservation combine to create a symbiotic relationship based on sustainability. Beyond these management strategies for environmental protection and conservation, another significant social benefits of sport tourism participation can be achieved through intentional planning and implementation (King & Church, 2020).

The sociocultural impacts of sport tourism can be either positive or negative (Carneiro et al., 2016; Melo & Gomes, 2016a, 2017b). Local residents are likely to perceive negative impacts when an event is associated with crowding (Fredline, 2005; Higham, 2005; Ponting & O'Brien, 2014), increased pressure on existing facilities (e.g., roads, public transport) (Fredline, 2005; Markwick, 2000),

inappropriate behavior of visitors, and lack of security (Higham, 2005), particularly in the case of mega-events. In this regard, some scholars have suggested adopting sustainable management measures that avoid congestion (Carneiro et al., 2016). These measures include:

1. limiting visitor volume, restricting the accessibility to the destination, imposing an entrance fee, establishing visitor quotas, or requiring an accompanying guide for the visit (Deprest, 1997), taking into account the carrying capacity of the destination in order to avoid dissatisfaction on the part of residents (Butler's, 2006);
2. ensuring the safety of both residents and visitors, and to prevent residents from losing access to sites they previously visited (Carneiro et al., 2016).

From a more positive perspective, sport tourism events may bring tangible benefits to tourism destinations and their residents, such as the creation of a positive modification of the sociocultural structure (education, culture, profession, etc.); enhancement and preservation of historical and cultural heritage, sites, local handicraft manufacturing, including retaining local traditions; increased local pride and community spirit; enhanced accessibilities; construction of basic infrastructures (public water supply, sanitation, electricity network, etc.); creation of new facilities, attractions, and leisure infrastructures; and an increase in the level of interest and local participation in sport activities and events (Melo & Gomes, 2016a, 2017b). This has the potential to enhance social cohesion opportunities, whereby residents are proud to live in this particular location (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Fredline, 2005). Simultaneously, the events may foster an appealing image of the destination to visitors (Andersson et al., 2016).

To achieve these positive outcomes, however, measures must be adopted (Carneiro et al, 2016), including the following:

1. promote local community involvement in the planning and supply of sports tourism services (e.g., as volunteers) (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Fredline, 2005; Ma et al., 2011; Miller, 2001; Roberts & Tribe, 2008; Wickham & Lehman, 2015);
2. increase the pride of local residents (Fredline, 2005);
3. combat social exclusion and isolation through this form of tourism (Ma et al., 2011; Wickham & Lehman, 2015);
4. ensure a fair distribution of tourism benefits (Fredline, 2005);
5. guarantee a high percentage of local employment (Ma et al., 2011; Roberts & Tribe, 2008);
6. ensure job satisfaction, by minimizing part-time and seasonal jobs and offering appropriate wages (Alonso-Almeida et al., 2018; Bagur-Femenías et al., 2015; Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Ma et al., 2011; Markwick, 2000; Miller, 2001; Roberts & Tribe, 2008); and finally,
7. promote the creation or maintenance of facilities only if they may be used by residents, even after sports events have taken place (Fredline, 2005).

Although much of the research in the field has been confined to assessing tourism impacts and has focused on specific topics and activities, such as mega-events (Ma et al., 2011; Ziakas & Boukas, 2012), golf (Markwick, 2000), climbing (Bailey

& Hungenberg, 2020), surfing (Mach et al., 2020; Ponting & O'Brien, 2014), and other nature sports activities (Melo & Gomes, 2016a, 2017b; Melo et al., 2020), we hope that the interest in the sustainability of sports tourism will continue to grow (Carneiro et al., 2016; Gibson et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2011; Melo et al., 2020). In this regard, robust, comparative research into small scale sport tourism events is particularly needed within the field, as there is a current gap in the literature. This book attempts to fill this gap.

Small Scale Sport Tourism Events and Local Sustainable Development

According to Turco (1997, 1998), communities and governments host sport tourism events for three primary reasons: (1) to offer entertainment to the local population; (2) to increase a sense of pride for the local community; and (3) to increase revenue in the host community. The impact of hosting a sporting event goes beyond the event itself, as many tourists who, after knowing a certain destination in the context of a sporting event, in loco or through the media, will return to visit the place again (Gibson, 1998b).

While many studies in the late twentieth century focused on the benefits of hosting international mega sporting events such as the Olympic Games (Armstrong, 1985; Kolsun, 1988; Lazer, 1985; Ritchie, 1984; Wilkins & Zelinsky, 1970), other studies have been highly critical of the sponsorship and organization of major sport tourism events (Gibson, 1998b; Hall, 1992; Higham, 1999; Sack & Johnson, 1996). For example, in their study of the Volvo International Tennis Tournament, Sack and Johnson (1996) concluded that public investment in infrastructure for this event was extremely high, with the construction of a stadium; after the event, this investment began to have a residual and less than positive outcome from what was initially planned and promised. Hall (1992) warned of the possibility of a "displacement effect," an effect that leads tourists and residents alike to avoid certain destinations on the days when there is a major sport tourism event. In this regard, Roche (1994) argued that "mega-events are short-term events with long-term consequences for the cities that stage them" (p.1). The consequences are often unintended but run counter to models of sustainable development.

In contrast to hosting major sport tourism events, these authors defended small scale sport tourism events that attract less interest and attention, as they are less likely to have negative impacts or consequences. The ability to realistically scale sport tourism events to be compatible with the infrastructure and resources available in the host community promotes successful tourism development alternatives. Thus, government authorities must invest in the development of sport tourism events and activities as a way of promoting their local destinations (Higham, 1999). This strategy seeks to induce other forms of tourism and increase the competitiveness of the destination (Getz, 2008; Whitson & MacIntosh, 1996).

Most studies on the impacts of organizing sport tourism events focus on the analysis of economic impacts (Gibson, 1998b), assessed through the consumption patterns of participants. In this regard, Crompton and McKay (1994), Doshi et al. (2001), and Daniels and Norman (2003) argued that the economic impact of an event corresponds to the concrete economic changes verified in the host community. For example, Lee (2001) defined an event's economic impact as the net change in the local economy resulting from the sporting event. This impact, according to the author, is composed of the direct, indirect, and the induced effects of the event. Direct impacts result from the acquisition of goods and services purchased by the participants, their friends and family members and spectators (if any); indirect effects include subsequent consumption of goods and services and are sometimes referred to as secondary-level impacts. Induced effects or impacts reflect the increase in income and employment resulting from both direct and indirect impacts.

According to scholars (Crompton, 1995; Duglio & Beltramo, 2017; Sobry, 2003), sporting events can also have a multiplier effect, stimulating and developing the local economy. However, calculating the economic impact of a sporting event is both difficult and subjective. Additionally, potential multiplier effects are often prepared by companies with the aim of demonstrating the viability of an event; as a rule, only positive impacts are considered, without weighing the possible negative impacts, such as congestion, vandalism, and environmental degradation (Lee, 2001).

Although there are few studies that have analyzed the impacts of small scale sport tourism events from the point of view of sustainable development (Gibson et al., 2012), some have revealed that these events tend to provide economic benefits for the host communities, especially in terms of accommodation and catering (Daniels & Norman, 2003; Gibson et al., 2012; Horne, 2000; Walo et al., 1996). It should be noted, however, that at local sport events, the distance traveled to the event location is often less than for larger events. As such these smaller events will attract fewer participants to stay overnight and, consequently, the income from accommodations may not be of significant benefit (Turco, 1998).

Typically, small scale sport tourism events use existing infrastructure and attract visitors who would not otherwise travel to this particular location. Thus, these kind of events have the potential to act as catalysts for economic development and urban renewal (Wilson, 2006). Moreover, small scale sport tourism events can help combat the seasonality of demand, spreading tourism geographically (Getz & Page, 2016). However, in order to promote sustainable economic development, such events must be organized intentionally to ensure a consistent flow of tourists and their travel companions (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008).

Walo et al. (1996) argued that a significant difference between major sport tourism events and small scale sport tourism events is due to the fact that the latter improve the quality of life of the host community. This assumption suggests that smaller sport tourism events will have a positive effect on the local community and its residents' income. The authors warn, however, that even in these situations, there may also be negative impacts on the local community, such as traffic congestion, and environmental degradation.

At the sociocultural level, the development of small scale sport tourism events may contribute to an increase in the quality of life of the local populations, as well as to their sense of community pride (Gibson et al., 2012; Horne, 2000). Gibson et al. (2012) argue that the rise in volunteerism and an existing infrastructure are two essential conditions that maximize the social and economic benefits of hosting small scale sport tourism events. In addition to the listed benefits, most of these types of events are freely accessible to the community, so residents are able to enjoy this local event and corresponding entertainment (Daniels & Norman, 2003).

The environmental impacts of sport tourism events are the least studied in the literature (Gibson et al., 2012). Those that are more prominent in major sport tourism events, such as the Olympic Games or the Football World Cup, are related to the "carbon footprint" (the amount of carbon dioxide we produce daily and the way these gas emissions influence the environment), with the construction of new infrastructures and the concentration of people on the days of the events (Gibson et al., 2012). By comparison, there are environmental advantages in the organization of small scale sport tourism events, as the carbon footprint is clearly less invasive and destructive. Participants tend to be local or regional, existing infrastructures are used, and the flow of visitors is more compatible with the host community (Gibson et al., 2012).

Table 4 summarizes the most commonly cited impacts of small scale sport tourism events within the literature. This list highlights the positive steps taken in promotion of local sustainable development, particularly in comparison with events of greater size (e.g., major or mega sport tourism events).

Table 4 Potential positive impacts of hosting small scale sport tourism events

Economic	Sociocultural	Environmental
Use existing infrastructure and resources. Require little public investment. Generate revenue in the hosting from accommodation, food and beverage, souvenirs, etc. Combat seasonality of demand, spreading tourism geographically. Builds event loyalty for future (annual) tourism. Promotes place recognition for future tourism.	Attract a flow of participants compatible with the scale of the host community. Promote the involvement of the local population. Provide entertainment to the local population. Increase the feeling of pride of the host community. Improve the quality of life of the local community (income increase, facilities, etc.).	The "carbon footprint" is small because the participants are mostly local or regional. Do not require the construction of new infrastructures. Do not generate a large concentration of people with the resulting problems (noise, traffic congestion, degradation of urban space, waste, etc.).

Source: Adapted from Daniels and Norman (2003), Getz (2008), Getz and Page (2016), Gibson et al. (2012), Higham (1999), Horne (2000), O'Brien and Chalip (2008) and Walo et al. (1996)

Concluding Remarks

These best practices for promoting local sustainable development, collected over decades, create an ideal plan of action for those organizing, sponsoring, and marketing small scale sport tourism activities and events. We must ask whether these best practices are actually implemented within local contexts? And what are the consequences when they are not? The stakes are simply too high for these concerns to be framed as a set of research questions, applied to a given context and specific event. The following chapter articulates a comparative methodology to study small scale sport tourism events. This methodology provides an accessible tool for scholars and practitioners to share a common language in promoting and then evaluating local sustainable development efforts associated with these events. The methodology, adopted by researchers from nine countries, expands our understanding of small scale sport tourism events beyond singular case studies, thus refining the rigor of the field. This book seeks to promote applied, robust research in support of local sustainable development, while bridging the historical divide between scholars and practitioners.

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