

STRATEGIC PLANNING THROUGH SPORT EVENTS LEVERAGING ESSENTIALLY

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Abstract: Events tourism is recognized as a significant and essential part of economic development strategies in developing countries as this industry affects the economy and the development of tourist destinations. Globally, many destinations are exploiting sport events as a strategic tool for energizing and themselves. In recent years, it has been widely accepted by tourism destination managers that sport events tourism make huge contributions to the tourism industry and the economy through foreign capital inflows. Various studies demonstrate that there is growing interest or even hunger to host sport events tourism as promoting development is evident in both developing and developed countries. Events tourism has demonstrated a significant growth over the years in both developing and developed countries. Nowadays, events are utilized as catalysts to develop and market host destinations. Therefore, the image of the host destination can improve and this can potentially lead to an influx of tourists to the host destination. Sporting events benefit destinations in various ways such as the infrastructural developments, foreign investment and foreign exchange, which leads to entrepreneurial opportunities.

Keywords: Destination, Portfolio, tourism, sport event, bidding, and media management

INTRODUCTION

Tourism, as an interdisciplinary phenomenon, involves three research areas: the geographical-spatial, the social and the economic one. They comprise issues regarding natural values, land development and spatial planning, ethics of tourism, its impact on local communities and the connected with it intermingling of cultures. Tourism is also perceived as an economic phenomenon.

It is a form of business activity which has developed various types of

tourist services offered to travellers, among which accommodation services, catering services and transport services are of greatest importance. Opportunities to earn huge revenues from providing tourist services are a driver of economy in many countries.

The dynamic development of tourism which took place in the 20th century and has continued to the present day is undisputed. In its early years tourism was elitist; nowadays it is a mass phenomenon involving millions of people. It has also become one of the

best developed and modern branches of global economy.

The essence of tourism lies in human activity through which a person realizes specific objectives related to travelling. This creates difficulties in a single, simple definition of the concept of tourism and persons participating in it, defined as tourists. The purpose of this paper is to review the past years of sports event tourism and explore the potential of the next years.

METHOD

A systematic literature review method has often been applied to better understand diverse kinds of topics on sport event and tourism-related research directions. In addition, examining databases is an appropriate approach to exploring the extant of literature on the focus areas. The chosen database for this research was the Google Scholar because this database includes top-rated peer-reviewed journals with international scope and coverage.

Comprehensive review was conducted thoroughly searching the Google Scholar database for scientific journal papers published in the English language that contain the terms 'sport event and tourism' in the topic (from titles, abstracts or keywords) from early publishing dates to the recent. These searches revealed 196 papers written in English language, from which 120 on

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

"sport event and tourism" research in the Google Scholar database. However, an initial analysis of selected papers revealed that many of the identified publications were not research papers and/or dealt with the sport event and tourism concept in an unsubstantial way. Based on the exclusion criteria, the final sample contains in total 57 papers. When reviewing the final sample, the authors defined several categories (e.g., destination, Portfolio, tourism, sport event, bidding, and media management) by which to sort and quantify the data. Direct extraction helped classify data into categories, thus allowing new findings to emerge. The author stored, coded and categorized data manually and then counted frequency of appearance within particular categories.

For more profound insight into the focal papers, authors applied content analysis. Content analysis allows researchers to analyze text systematically and to discover underlying concepts and hidden qualities and relationships between concepts. The author stored and categorized data manually regarding whether they are tourism or sport event elements/attributes. Then, the inductive interpretation method (i.e., inductive coding) was useful to classify data into meaningful planning and organizational dimensions. Therefore, the coded dimensions were derived straight from the text data.

The beginning of sports tourism

One can talk about sport tourism when sport was born. Highly organized

forms of the sport originated only in ancient Greece. In ancient Greece a great role was played by the Pan-Hellenic games being a manifestation of the Greeks' national unity. The greatest Pan-Hellenic Games were held in Olympia, Delphi, Corinth and Nemea. However, those at Olympia were the most important. The year 776 BC is considered to be the date of the origin of the Olympic Games, as well as the first documented historical fact in the history of Greece. The games lasted 5 days. Athletes from all over the country arrived there. For the duration of the competition *ékécheiria* – the holy truce – was proclaimed, which advocated respect for the rules of fairness and respect for the opponent. It was supposed to help athletes and their companions to arrive at competitions. The Greek Olympic Games survived till 393 CE, when Emperor Theodosius I forbade organizing them, treating them as a cultivation of pagan customs.

The modern Olympic Games, which were held in 1896 in Athens, resulted in the development of sport around the world, just as the development of sport tourism. Athletes and fans come from all over the world to global events anywhere they are held. It was noted that different types of events are an important factor contributing to the development of regions, because they significantly affect the image of the place and are a strong factor in attracting tourists, especially out of season. Their degree of impact is very

diverse. One can distinguish the following types of events:

- mega events,
- hallmark events,
- Regional events,
- Local events.

The same author has proposed a more systematic typology of events, dividing them into the following groups:

- Cultural,
- Political and national,
- Arts and entertainment,
- Business and commercial,
- Educational and scientific,
- Sport,
- Private.

The concept of sports tourism

In 1943 Walter Hunziker formulated a classic, widely accepted by most economists till today, definition of tourism, saying that tourism is "a complex of relations and phenomena arising from travelling and staying of visitors unless it is associated with settling down and undertaking paid employment". Similarly, Kornak's definition stipulates that tourism is a set of relationships and socioeconomic phenomena that arise from travelling and staying of visitors unless there is associated with it settling down and undertaking paid employment.

However, according to Kaspar, "tourism covers all links and phenomena that appear as a result of changes in place and hence the resulting stays of persons, on condition that for these persons the new place of stay is neither

a permanent place of residence nor a place of work”.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) defines tourism as a whole of activities of people who travel and stay for leisure, business or other purposes for no longer than a continuous year away from their everyday environment, except for travels whose main purpose is paid employment remunerated in the visited town. This definition has been adopted for statistical purposes, hence, among others, time limit of up to a year.

All of these definitions characterizing tourism have common characteristics. These include:

- travel which leads to a stay outside the place of residence,
- stay in a new place (not longer than a year),
- Temporality of the travel and the stay (the travel and the stay are temporary, which distinguishes them from other types of migration),
- The subjective element (the traveller decides about the place of stay and the reasons for the trip),
- The objective element (using the tourist infrastructure determines the implementation of the purpose the visit).

Additionally, the concept of a tourist must also be specified as it is unequivocal. In 1963 at the United Nations conference in Rome, the term “visitor” was introduced, which includes persons staying in the visited country, for whatever reasons. It comprises two categories: tourists and day-trippers.

Tourists are those who spend at least 24 hours in the destination, and the purpose for staying is: leisure, treatment, sightseeing, business, sports, religious, family, social, etc. In turn, day-trippers are persons spending less than 24 hours in the destination. In addition, for statistical purposes, the World Tourism Organization recommends a breakdown into international visitors (tourists and day-trippers) and domestic visitors (overnight tourists and day-trippers, who do not use accommodation).

Tourism, as a complex phenomenon, is difficult to classify both from a scientific and a practical point of view. The criteria for its division are very diverse. They include motivation for the choice of the destination, types of tourism (leisure, medical, sports, family, club, educational, congress, business, etc.), the tourism subject (the number of participants, age, length of stay, season of the year, means of transport, type of financing, accommodation, tourist’s origin), forms of tourism (individual, group, seniors, youth, active, passive, etc.).

It is also difficult to clearly define the concept of sport tourism. The relationship between sport and tourism are multi-faceted. They include both the areas of health, recreation and leisure and the management of free time; they have cognitive values and are also important in the economic area. In this context, sport becomes a tourist phenomenon, and for example host cities of great global events (the Olympic Games, the World and European

Championships) are the most popular destinations for tourists. For them special local attractions are prepared and volunteers and tourist staff are trained so they can best showcase of the city, the region, the country, so that at the end of the event the participants want to return to this place, not only having the sport experience in mind.

Sport as a form of human activity is a process of improving the psychophysical efficiency, satisfying the need for competition and striving to achieve results within the accepted rules of competition. Sport is one of the components of the system of physical culture. This, in turn, is the expression of a specific attitude towards one's body. Conscious and active care for one's own development, fitness and health means an ability to organize and spend leisure time with the biggest benefit for physical and mental health. The task of physical culture is to aim at human development from high physical and motor fitness to an ability to apply physical capacity in different life situations. One should keep in mind that physical culture is one of the areas of widely understood culture, by which we understand the whole of spiritual and material achievements of the society as well as patterns of behavior and products absorbed by

people in the course of their social development. Such placement of sport raises its rank and perception in the society.

Despite the rapid development of sport and tourism in general, the term "sport tourism" has been interpreted in many ways. The origins and the scope of sport tourism were studied in the 1980s, especially in German and English language literature. Various classifications and divisions were proposed. Creating models and identifying the place and the role of sport tourism took into account its wide and narrow understanding.

Thus Glyptis points to 5 areas comprised by sport tourism:

- sports camps (searching for better climate conditions or better infrastructure) for training purposes,
- Specialized or generally active holidays (commercial and non-commercial offers),
- "expensive sports holidays" (specialist, luxury sport disciplines),
- Holidays with an available sports offer (a form of club vacations),
- Spectators of sports events.
- Another division was made by Gammon and Robinson, who emphasized the importance of sport (Table 1).

Table1. Sport tourism and sport in tourism to S. Gammon and T. Robinson

Sport tourism		Sport in Tourism	
Hard definition	soft definition	hard definition	soft definition
the main motive for travel is active or passive participation in a sports event (focus	the main motive is active participation in sports, but of a leisure not a	travels in order to take active or passive part in competitive sport; however, the main	tourists engage in sport and leisure of a competitive nature; however, such participation is quite accidental

on competition is competitive purpose is the
 characteristic here) character holiday itself -
 sport plays a
 secondary role
 here

In turn, Freyer in his definition of sport tourism pays greater attention to the participants directly involved in the

event. But he also refers to museums, sports centers or people who are not active athletes anymore (Table 2).

Sport tourism		
Travels to practice sports actively	Travels supporting sport	Travels to experience sport
Active athletes (amateur professionals) • training	Active sport • coaches • doctors Passive sport • organizers • activists • media • sponsors	Spectators • competitions • training

Standeven and De Knop define sport tourism as a “journey that contains active or passive participation in sports activities outside the everyday environment of the person”.

According to Hinch and Higham, sport tourism “is short travel outside the residence environment, aiming at participation in sports, where sport is characterized by specific rules, competition related to everyday fitness and fun”. Sport tourism also comprises extreme tourism related to natural areas appropriate for this purpose and with detachment from civilization.

According to other concepts, sport tourism involves all forms of temporary absence in the place of residence whose significant important objective is to deal with sport. Thus it includes tournaments and sport-related activities, sports journalism, manufacturers and sellers of

sports goods, sports officials (such as doping control committees or judges), visitors to museums of sport.

Sport as a spectacle and competition becomes a product whose offer on the market it to meet the consumer’s needs – the passive one, viewing the competition from grandstands and the active one, directly participating in the event. Sport should be taken into account as a tourist product, as a collection of a variety of items related to taking the trip. These will be goods and services purchased both before going to a sporting event and during it, as well as during the stay at the destination. The price for the package of services and customer satisfaction from the trip will play an important role.

However, in order to be in line with the “classic” definition of tourism by the United Nations World Tourism

Organization (UNWTO), which is recommended, among others, for statistical purposes, and in order to meet the World Classification of Tourism Activities, the concept of sport tourism should be narrowed down to persons who passively participate in all kinds of sports events and to the actual participants in these events. Thus there will be two groups of people who could be assigned the idea of sport tourism or a sport tourist. They can be colloquially called fans and athletes. Such a classification will reflect the purpose of the trip. And the purpose of a sport tourist's trip is tournaments at various levels (in different disciplines, in different events) which he or she wants to watch or take part in.

The above is of great importance for statistical purposes. Otherwise, an important argument is lost, for example, in negotiations with sponsors and other partners. Many of them would engage financially seeing specific, tangible benefits of such activities, for example by purchasing advertising space at a sports venue expecting a specific number of people to see it.

Economic and tourism roles of sport events

Over the past few decades, event tourism (culture, sporting and business-related events) has become a rapidly expanding segment of the leisure travel market. The connection between sport and tourism is not new, and scholars have considered the rise of sporting events as one of the most significant components of event tourism and one of

the most extensive elements of sporting tourism. The growing use of sporting events is an attempt to expand economic development opportunities and achieve tourism growth. Management and planning issues are a key focus and researchers are interested in the impacts events have on the host community. Therefore, the impacts of sporting events on destination are many. The triple bottom line (TBL) is arguably the most widely accepted approach to identifying and measuring impacts, which is an assessment of economic, socio-cultural and environmental influences as pertinent to sporting events and sport tourism on the local communities.

Political impact

The political and business interests commonly associated with the Olympic Games (as well as other large-scale sporting events) draw the image and identity benefits for host cities into question. The politics of the Olympic Games have served to seriously erode the Olympic ideals with which host cities seek an association. The Olympic ideals of fairness, competition, sportsmanship and success have, in recent years, been swept away by the Cold War politics of the three Olympics of the 1980s. A number of successful Olympic bids have also been earned by cities willing to suppress with force the rights of its citizens. Mexico (1968), Seoul (1988) and the near-miss Beijing (2000) bids were all marred by the suppression of human rights and the deaths of many host residents (Jennings, 1996). The selling of

the Olympic movement to business interests has negatively impacted the culture of the (Coca Cola) Olympic flame, the credibility of drug testing (world records are good for Olympic business), the cover up to positive drugs tests (which are bad for sponsors business interests), and the compromising of the Paralympic movement. These lead Jennings (1996) to the conclusion that the benefits associated with the Olympic Games do not accrue to host cities but rather to international political and commercial business interests. The bidding process is described by Jennings as a most effective means of transferring money from the public purse into private pockets. It would seem, therefore, that the more critical analyses of the impacts of sporting events (Hodges & Hall, 1996; Olds, 1998; Hiller, 1998) are fully justified.

Economic impacts

Economic and related tourism benefits are seen as tangible or 'hard' impacts, and thus local stakeholders see the hosting of events as beneficial. Economic benefits include target investments in sport and event infrastructures, employment, prolonged tourism season, increased tourism, and new tax revenues. Economic benefits also include some non-monetary effects, such as generating media attention and destination image enhancement. One point of concern is the high (and sometimes excessive) costs and spending involved with building and preparing infrastructures, and this can

result in increased taxes, higher prices and housing costs locally.

Social/cultural impacts

Social/cultural impacts are often considered 'soft' impacts, and scholars view the assessment, measurement and management of these impacts as more difficult. Among these intangible impacts is a focus on local resident quality of life, enhanced social cohesion and pride in place, a new perceived destination image, and the potential to increase sport participation among locals. However, a concern is that an increase in tourism can result in cultural conflicts among residents and tourists, traffic congestion problems, security and crime concerns, as well as vandalism—these are seen as negative impacts among local stakeholders observed in recent research.

Environmental impacts

Environmental impacts are also an important but challenging area of focus among scholars today. Some findings suggest that positive environmental impacts result when new sport infrastructures are built on devastated or reclaimed land and are a strategy to improve a site, but in most cases local stakeholders perceive environmental impacts negatively. Without appropriate regulations and careful planning, new sports tourism infrastructure can lead to environmental consequences in a given area and with high concentrations of people attending events; mass gatherings of event-goers see increases in waste, air and water pollution, as well as higher noise levels.

Although the main dimensions of sport event impacts are established (i.e., economic, socio-cultural and environmental), the scope of these dimensions are not unified—and sometimes result in very different impact outcomes. What is also noticed is that particular impacts could belong to different dimensions. Furthermore, some impacts are mentioned more often than others, leading to a conclusion that not all type of impacts is equally important, or at least not equally assessed. This makes this area of research open to further scrutiny and systematization. In addition, different stakeholders (e.g., organizers and managers, sponsors, spectators, active participants or locals) can have very different perspectives and impressions of an impact. Thus, an impact depends on many factors (type of the event, type of sport, demographics of the host community), but an accepted conclusion among researchers is that larger events result in greater impact, and these impacts can be positive and negative. In case of large-scale events, the impacts could spill over to non-host peripheral communities.

In the extant literature that has focused on tourism, the sector's growth, coupled with the increase in recreational activities, are said to have significant implications for the local economies, particularly in terms of the socio-economic development of marginal regions and rural destinations. (Kimbu, 2011; Rogerson, 2013a) Rogerson (2013b) contends that various tourism

activities can be used to contribute significantly to the preservation of regional identity, for example, and for the stimulation of local service activities which, in turn, contributes to employment creation. LED has, thus, become an increasingly important theme for destinations globally, and, in particular, the importance of local-level planning for socio-economic development has been much improved. (Rogerson, 2011) LED activity represents a socio-economic approach that stresses employment creation, poverty alleviation, the enhancement of the quality of life of community members, and environmental sustainability. (Van der Merwe & Rogerson, 2018) Similarly, and although not yet largely explored in the Pan-African context, sport tourism has, equally, been noted as an effective tool for employment creation, and as a tool for improving the quality of life and well-being of community members. (Hemmonsbe & Tichaawa, 2018; Nyikana, 2016; Saayman, 2012; Tichaawa et al., 2018) According to Rogerson (2011), an LED strategy focuses on adopting an integrated developmental approach as opposed to a more general, 'one size fits all' solution. As such, its main aim is to mobilize the local economic potential through innovation regarding infrastructure, SMME development, and human resource skilling, attracting foreign direct investments (FDIs), fostering destination competitiveness, and strengthening the local institutions. LED is seen as a social technique of development, where in

economic aspects, as well as employment creation, the reduction of poverty, the enhancement of the quality of life of the locals, and environmental sustainability are considered holistically for the benefit of the local economy. (Van der Merwe & Rogerson, 2018) The decentralized approach to development, in terms of which development is focused on the local level, is a strategic vehicle for driving national economic development.

Much of the LED promotional activity centers on expanding the role of localities in the developing context. (Van der Merwe & Rogerson, 2018) The authors contend that the increased interest around tourism as an important and equally strategic vehicle for LED is largely due to the increased importance of tourism in the national economies. In the African context, LED is seen as a process whereby collaborations between local governments, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), community-based groups, and the private sector are encouraged and established. The above is done to manage resources, to create employment opportunities for the locals, and to stimulate the economy of a local destination. (Rogerson, 2011) Over the past decade, the amount of importance attached to LED as a way of developing the African continent has been markedly rising. (Rogerson, 2011) Sport tourism can be used to further enhance LED, especially if its impacts are carefully planned, and collectively leveraged, for

all the stakeholders concerned, but particularly for the host communities.

Sport is inherently peaceful competition, whose essence is the individual or team rivalry (according to specified rules) conducted in accordance with the fair play principles and to strive to achieve the best results; it is also competition undertaken, among others, for the purpose of recreation and to improve one's own physical features.

Rivalry is an immanent feature of sports. A competitor wants to win, to break the record, to complete the competition at each level of this rivalry (amateur, professional, or recreational participation). On the other hand, there are people who want to watch this rivalry. Therefore, the sport objective of the trip will distinguish a sport tourist from others. According to the UNWTO, tourist purposes may involve rest, recreation, holidays, visiting friends and relatives, business, health, religion, pilgrimages and others. With such a wide spectrum and a lack of a strict definition of sport tourism, among the sport tourists we may include, for example, a person going on a pilgrimage to Fatima and along the way visiting sports venues (the Camp Nou in Barcelona or the Santiago Bernabeu Stadium in Madrid). On the one hand, this is pilgrimage tourism, but the authorities in Barcelona or Madrid may qualify these persons as sport tourists. Another example, a sports fan arriving for longer than a few hours – a hotel or hostel guest – by definition becomes also a cultural tourist, although he or she treats the cultural offer "incidentally", in

the intervals between participation in a sports event.

Evolution and Outlook of Event Portfolio Concept

The event portfolio concept has evolved gradually over time driven by a handful of scholars. Getz (2008) was among the first scholars who advocated the need for a balanced demand-based portfolio strategy, similar to how a company strategically evaluates and develops its line of products and services. Later, Getz and Page (2016) highlighted that portfolio management is strategic and quite different from typical project management as applied to events, supporting that asset management theory has a key role to play in event tourism. Chalip (2004) also, in developing the economic event leverage model, put forth the leveraging of an event portfolio to optimize the host community benefits. In terms of destination marketing, Chalip and Costa (2005) claimed that the strategic incorporation of sport events into destination branding requires that each event be cross-leveraged with others in the destination's event portfolio. Thus, the value of an event portfolio can be measured by the capacity to build its brand for residents and visitors alike.

Building on this discourse, Ziakas and Costa (2011a), in the first theoretical paper focused exclusively on event portfolios, conceptualized them as multi-purpose developmental tools, which are capable to generate economic, social and other benefits for host communities by assembling

different event stakeholders in a network and serving multiple purposes through the employment of joint cross-leveraging strategies. On this basis, they highlighted the instrumental value of a holistic planning approach that incorporates the economic and social goals of different events and proposed a comprehensive research framework for studying event portfolios. This holistic approach was formed by a series of articles (Ziakas, 2010, 2013; Ziakas & Costa, 2011b) about the rural community of Fort Stockton in Texas that examined its event portfolio through a doctoral ethnographic study (Ziakas, 2007). This inquiry also grounded the publication of another theoretical paper (Ziakas, 2014b), which provided a nuanced analysis for enabling integrated strategic planning through the effective synergy of a supporting inter-organizational network of actors.

According to the above work by Ziakas, an event portfolio should not be confused with a random collection of a host community's whole population of events. Instead, it is a systemic assemblage of interrelated events in terms of resources, theming, and markets. In other words, events are strategically patterned in accordance with their operational and thematic relatedness, thereby creating a system that is more than the sum of its parts. Thus, the notion of relatedness is central for portfolios. Specifically, relatedness refers to the ways that events complement one another. This may

occur through capitalization on capacity of an array of events to engender markets, transfer of knowledge in organizing events effectively and efficiently, utilization of theming that is symbiotically connected among different events to maximize their impact, and mobilization of shared resources and volunteer pools that can facilitate event implementations (Ziakas, 2013).

The potential benefits of an event portfolio do not concern only the sustainability of event impacts. They also concern the variety of different events in a portfolio, which can target and reach diverse market segments, hence increasing the size of a host community's events market. Furthermore, the inclusion of different event types in a portfolio can help event organizers respond to different community issues and reach varied segments of the population by appealing to people's different interests. In addition, different events when bundled in a portfolio can act as hooks for one another, and hence, bring together segments of the population that might not otherwise meet. On the whole, an event portfolio incorporated in the development policies of cities and regions can yield a range of social and economic benefits (Ziakas & Costa, 2011b). This is labeled as the multiplicity of an event portfolio; that is its capacity to engender and convey multiple meanings and serve multiple purposes (Ziakas, 2013). Multiplicity along with relatedness, constitute the two

foundational principles that distinguish the event portfolio as a phenomenon.

As such, an academic interest has emerged underscoring that if cities employ a balanced event portfolio strategy, they can move from being cities with events to become 'eventful cities' (Richards & Palmer, 2010). This argument preceded the formulation of 'eventfulness' as a core notion, denoting that an 'eventful city' needs to take a strategic, holistic view of its events portfolio (Richards, 2017a; Richards & Palmer, 2010). In this context, Richards (2017a) examined how some cities are developing more holistic approaches to event policy and eventfulness. Getz (2017) added the perspective of sustainability outlining that its pursuit in eventful cities entails managing overlapping portfolios of events, taking a long-term perspective, and considering multiple perspectives on value and cumulative impacts. In this regard, the extrinsic (return on investment) and intrinsic (socio-cultural) values were unveiled as binary perspectives of value that need to be synergized for shaping the overall portfolio value. Another binary distinction was noted by Richards (2015) relating to iterative and pulsar events. In particular, Richards (2015) argued for a broader view of the role of events as social actors that have the potential to both sustain and transform social systems. His study showed that the maintenance of social systems is reliant on iterative events (regularly occurring celebrations confirming social

structures), while pulsar events (one-off mega-events) may transform social structures. This work illustrated the interplay between different types of events in a portfolio, enabling the alternation of continuity through iterative events and change through pulsar events.

To demarcate the event portfolio concept, Getz (2013) argued that a portfolio of events should have structure and balance, shaped by long-term strategy: "A full portfolio will consist of various types of events, for different target markets, held in different places, and at different times of the year, in pursuit of multiple goals" (2013, p. 23). Similarly, Ziakas and Costa (2011b) suggested that a portfolio constitutes a strategic patterning of events and their symbiotic interrelations. From this standpoint, a series of interrelated events can be synergized and cross-leveraged to attain multiple benefits through a holistic approach (Ziakas, 2010, 2014a, 2014b). In this fashion, Ziakas defined an event portfolio in broad terms: "An event portfolio is the strategic patterning of disparate but interrelated events taking place during the course of a year in a host community that as a whole is intended to achieve multiple outcomes through the implementation of joint event strategies" (2014a, p. 14). This definition stresses the notion of cross-leverage that requires essentially a relational approach (i.e., focus on event interrelationships) in the way we manage and evaluate sport events.

To sum up the evolution of event portfolio theory to date, prior and current conceptualization of event portfolio by sketching the seminal articles on this area along with their major contribution to the field and the core notions being featured. This illustration outlines the economic and business origins of the event portfolio concept as first conceived by Getz (2008), applying a product portfolio angle, and the attendant resonance of asset management in portfolio delivery and evaluation (Getz & Page, 2016). A broader community-based approach, balancing the social and economic value, was put forth by Ziakas and Costa (2011a, 2011b) and Ziakas (2010, 2013, 2014b) conceptualizing the event portfolio as a multi-dimensional phenomenon and a suitable policy tool for multi-purpose development that its effective management requires a holistic integrative mindset. This holistic approach was grounded in the perspective of event leverage treating portfolios as an investment and their potential to meet the triple bottom line, thereby leading to the sustainability of cities as postulated by Getz (2017). The conceptual discourse was advanced by Richards (2015, 2017a) who lastly established the notion of eventfulness to underpin holistic portfolio policies and turned attention on network effects of events within portfolios to both sustain and transform the social order.

Events range from small community events to regional, hallmark, and internationally oriented mega-

events, and are across different themes: cultural, business, and sports. Hallmark events are rooted in the destination tradition and culture. Reoccurring hallmark events, usually attached to a specific destination (Getz, 2008), have an ongoing effect on, and are closely related to, destination marketing, although the effectiveness of using hallmark events in regenerating or modifying destination image is understudied. Unlike hallmark events, mega-events are typically internationally orientated and highly visible, attracting tremendous media coverage and global attendance (Jafari, 1988). Most mega-events rotate among destinations; therefore, the opportunities for destination marketing may be short-lived without proper planning and management.

Mega-events play an invaluable role in the development of many destinations. For instance, the Eurovision Song Contest (regarded as a mega cultural event) was used by Azerbaijan as an official strategy of incorporating mega-events into their attempt to develop international tourism, reduce the image of the country's dependence on oil, and to achieve long-term development (Arnegger & Herz, 2016).

A strategic leveraging approach to sports events

The model of strategic leveraging of sport events created by Chalip (2004) is supported by a number of authors (Kellett et al., 2008; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008; Karadakis et al., 2010; Beesley & Chalip, 2011; Grix, 2012; Knott et al.,

2013; Tichaawa & Bob, 2015). The concept of leveraging obtained particular potency around the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, in the form of the efforts made by the Australian stakeholders concerned to employ strategies for repositioning the country by means of capitalizing on media, seeking convention business, minimizing the diversion effect of the Games and promoting both pre- and post-Games touring (Chalip, 2002). 'Leverage' rather broadly refers to "those activities... which seek to maximize the long-term benefits from events" and "the processes through which the benefits of investments are maximized" Chalip (2004:228). Smith (2014) recognized that the notion of leverage is not merely a normative, theoretical one, but that it is one that has been identified by means of analyzing emerging practices. He described leveraging as (Smith, 2014:15-16):

An approach which views events as a resource which can be levered to achieve outcomes which would not have happened automatically by "staging an event"; and where "events are reconceived as windows of opportunity within which to undertake initiatives".

The focus on leveraging, therefore, represents a shift to a more forward-thinking, proactive, strategic approach (Chalip 2004; Smith 2014), explained in the following quotation from Chalip (2004:228):

Unlike impact assessments, the study of leverage has a strategic and tactical focus. The objective is to identify

strategies and tactics that can be implemented prior to and during an event in order to generate particular outcomes. Consequently, leveraging implies a much

more pro-active approach to capitalizing on opportunities rather than impacts research, which simply measures outcomes.

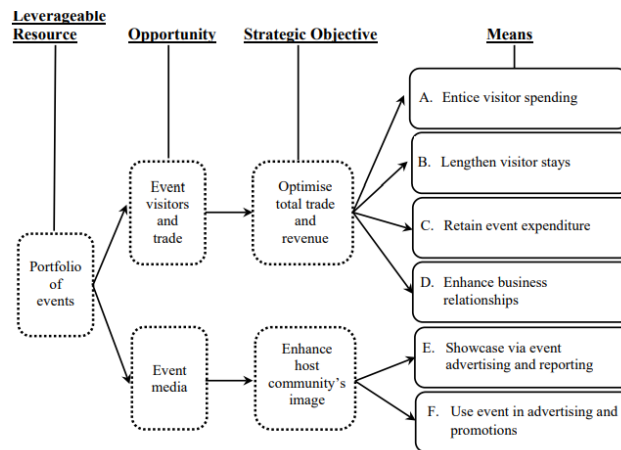


Figure 1. SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF EVENT LEVERAGE
(Chalip, 2004:229)

Such mega-events as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup predominantly invite opportunities for strategic sport event leveraging, due to their economic value and their global media coverage. (See, for example, the respective studies of Chalip (2002) and Grix (2012) on the sport event leveraging of the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games and the German 2006 FIFA World Cup). However, Chalip (2004) recognized the importance of adding an event portfolio, consisting of home-grown, recurring events, to the destination marketing strategy, in that doing so should allow the destinations concerned to optimize their reach (in terms of the number of market segments involved) and frequency (the number of times that there is exposure to events, by way of various communication means at the host destination) when hosting the

different events throughout the duration of the once-off mega-event.

Strategic planning serves as the basis for leveraging in its approach to recognize events as an opportunity for designing and implementing strategies and tactics to achieve desired impacts.

Strategic planning through leveraging advocates for the need to formulate strategic objectives that work towards an overall goal.

From the moment, Chalip (2004, 2006) and O'Brien and Chalip (2007) established a research line providing new insights into sports events; several studies were undertaken in order to analyze these events through a leveraging lens. The focus on this approach requires alliances and the participation of different actors other than just the event organizers (Chalip, 2014). Moreover, it is important to note

that impacts and leveraging have different meanings. Unlike the events impacts resulting from the host requirements, the outcomes achieved by leveraging strategies are not mandatory to host the event (Smith, 2012). Several studies attempted to assess how the economic and social leveraging approaches develop the events. Empirical evidence of the economic dimension has been demonstrated in the studies of Chalip and Leyns (2002), Chalip and McGuirly (2004), Green et al. (2010), O'Brien (2007), Pereira et al. (2015a), Smith (2010), Snelgrove and Wood (2010) and Sparvero and Chalip (2007). Research in the social dimension has been extended by Kellett et al. (2008), Peachey et al. (2015), Pereira et al. (2015a), Schulenkorf et al. (2011), Schulenkorf and Edwards (2012) and Ziakas and Costa (2010). The study of Mendes et al. (2011) about a project called Algarve with a vast events portfolio showed that the initiative had a positive impact and reasonably strong influence on the image of the destination. Nowaczyk (2018) verified that nautical tourism is a potential sector in the development of the local economy in West Pomerania, Poland. The design of major and small-scale sports events can promote the creation and development of social benefits for the host communities (Chalip, 2017). However, it is important to design specific leveraging strategies to fit the characterization of the host destination rather than is one-size-fits-all thinking. Additionally, integration of the

economic and social leverage has been claimed as a way to sustainable leverage (e.g. Smith, 2009; Taks, 2013). Furthermore, empirical research also showed that one action could achieve several goals, relating economic and social leverage (Pereira et al., 2015a).

Given the clear set of strategic objectives as a result of strategic planning, it is argued that stakeholders involved can take ownership of their selected objectives and approach. However, there is still a need to define the roles and responsibilities of stakeholders in the collaboration of stakeholder groups towards optimal leveraging (Hemmonsbey & Tichaawa, 2018). Despite the issue of stakeholder collaboration, the case study of sport event leveraging for Australia and the 2000 Olympic Games provides best practices of stakeholder collaboration pre- and post-event hosting. In an attempt to strategically position Australia as a leading destination for sport tourism, stakeholders representing both public and private institutions merged their efforts and objectives in pursuit of a greater goal. Stakeholders' leveraging efforts have moreover allowed this nation to capitalize the Olympic media around their brand image which essentially lead to stakeholders influencing respective journalist stories in respect to their destination brand. In a different case where destination brand image was the impetus for strategic planning, Grix (2012) reported on Germany's attempts to engage in sport event leveraging to improve their nation's (poor) image abroad. This finding came as a result of

international perceptions labeling the people as 'dominant', 'arrogant', and 'dull', as well as the Second World War and Nazi perceptions still remaining, especially in the British press (Grix & Lacroix, 2006). These two examples thus contradict the earlier reference to Athens and their unsuccessful attempts to coordinate stakeholder efforts towards a joint strategic approach to leveraging the 2004 Olympic Games. The discussion on strategic planning through sport event leveraging places a clear emphasis on the deliberate design and implementation of marketing strategies, the formulation of strategic objectives, as well as the establishment of stakeholder partnerships. From a practice perspective, case studies show that an engagement with global media networks in relation to the host destinations' image, product and service offering coherently positions tourism destination brands such that long-term positive perceptions are formed. Consequently, these strategic planning approaches are explored in the context of developing destinations by means of hosting annual, recurring events.

Media management related to sport event tourism

Media management for events can therefore be defined as the deliberate management or manipulation of media coverage to achieve both strategic and tactical objectives for the event, its sponsors, and the host destination. It is one of a number of actions taken by events and destination marketing organizations to generate travel demand. A basic issue is that it cannot

be assumed that the host destination will be positively featured in media coverage of events, a problem identified as having reduced the promotional effectiveness of the World Championships in Athletics in Gothenburg, Sweden (Mossberg, 2000). Media personnel are not necessarily interested in promoting the destination, and television in particular might resist incorporating the broadcast of destination imagery in order to maximize the time available for paid advertising. In delayed broadcasts, destination imagery and unwanted sponsorship messages can be deleted

Mass media can influence people's choices (Field et al., 2005; Sarker, Sarker, Chatterjee, & Valacich, 2010). The messages reach large audiences and can be reflected in behavioral changes that may become a social norm over time. Media campaigns have been used in an attempt to affect various behaviors in the mass population in relation to health matters (Wakefield, Loken, & Hornik, 2010), body image (Lopez-Guimera et al., 2010), climate change (Sampei & Aoyagi-Utsui, 2009) and other issues. However, in terms of sporting events, it is difficult to test the effect of media campaigns on the intention to visit an event since a single campaign is not enough to attract visitors to a sporting event (Getz & Fairley, 2004). This is especially true for small-scale or local events, which generally also do not have the budget to advertise. It is even more difficult to find conversion studies that

measure the direct media effect on participants at a community sport event. To understand how media can shape sporting-event participants' behaviors, the present study was proposed. Mass media campaigns generally aim to encourage physical activity by focusing on health outcomes (Cavill & Bauman, 2004), which may partially affect people's decisions to participate in sport and leisure activities during their free time. However, little is known about media campaigns that encourage people to actively participate in sport events, which our research suggests may influence peoples' behaviors and feelings.

The media's relationship to sport participation has been notably studied in terms of adolescent females and their weight or body shape (Field et al., 2005; Lopez-Guimera et al., 2010) and how media coverage of sport events can affect the younger generation (Lines, 2007). Women's sports and the media is generally the most researched context of the media's influence on sport participation (Bowers, Speed, Wolfe, Miller, & Martin, 2013; Markula, 2009). Studies have largely ignored groups other than 'women' and 'youth' when studying media influence, as if the media have no influence on other groups. In terms of sporting events, widespread media attention is given to mega events (Müller, 2015; Weed, 2014), while small-scale events are of little media interest (Fotiadis et al., 2016) due to their low popularity, which leads to low sponsor interest; thus, small-scale or community

events are generally organized with low budgets. However, small-scale events such as local or community events can generate more sustainable organizational, environmental, physical, social and emotional aspects of the sporting event experience (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2010). The emotional impacts of a sporting event are especially important in communities organizing small-scale or community events, where positive post-event feelings are crucial for traditional events and festivals. An attempt to include the media's influence on the sporting event management process was developed by Getz and Fairley (2004), who argued that determining the cause and effect relationship between media coverage and demand needs would require increased attention and specific media management. Nonetheless, their study and many others (Chalip, Green, & Hill, 2003; Hallmann & Breuer, 2010; Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2007, 2010) focus more on conceptual destination promotion by evaluating media management related to sporting events or image creation.

Bidding for sport events

In the bidding process for international large-scale sport events, potential hosts have been asked to meet various requirements including the provision of stadiums and related infrastructure (Maennig & Vierhaus, 2017; Westerbeek et al., 2002). More recently, challenges such as increasing costs and lack of public support have forced event owners to change bidding

and hosting processes and criteria (MacAloon, 2016). For instance, event owners of large-scale sport events such as the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA), the International Olympic Committee (IOC), and the Union of European Football Associations (UEFA) included human rights as one of the key bid requirements for the latest edition of their events (Heerdt, 2018).

As bidding for sport events can be risky, having competitive positioning tactics and well-structured strategies has become important for bidders (Chappelet & Lee, 2016). Forming international joint event bids, which are defined here as two or more countries coming together under a cobranded identity to form a proactive strategic partnership in an effort to gain the right to host a sport event, has been employed as a strategy for event bidders. While cases of joint bidding existed before 2000 (e.g. Rugby World Cup), recent examples have emerged in more diverse sport event contexts (e.g. Indonesia, Japan-The Philippines will co-host the 2023 Basketball World Cup). Most significantly, the Olympic Games have moved towards a more flexible framework for bidding and hosting. Changes to the Olympic Charter based on proposals from an IOC working group and the guidance of Agenda 2020 now allow for hosting events in multiple cities, regions, or countries. This represents an effort to improve the sustainability of the Games by moving away from costly construction projects

and expanding the pool of potential hosts. These changes have increased support for joint bidding in the Olympic Games (Morgan, 2019) and resulted in the formation of two joint bids for the 2026 Winter Olympics (i.e. Milano-Cortina and Stockholm-Åre) with Milano-Cortina ultimately chosen to become the first official Olympic co-hosts.

Varadarajan and Cunningham (1995) define strategic alliances as 'a manifestation of inter-organizational cooperative strategies [that] entail[s] the pooling of skills and resources by the alliance partners, in order to achieve one or more goals linked to the strategic objectives of the cooperating firms' (p. 283). Given this definition, it has been argued that joint bids can be understood as strategic alliances among organizations or entities that have, among other goals, the aim of winning the right to host a sport event (Byun et al., 2019). While there have been several sport event joint bids, little attention has been paid to the potential impact of such alliances on the success of a bid.

In an effort to fill this gap the concept of legitimacy will be applied as a framework. Research suggests there are clear links between legitimacy and organizational success (i.e. Zimmerman & Zeitz, 2002). As a result, the purpose of this study is to explore how the practices and structures of a joint bid alliance could lead to the creation of organizational legitimacy, and therefore success. Legitimacy is defined here as 'a generalized perception or assumption

that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs, and definitions' (Suchman, 1995, p. 574). Legitimacy has often been recognized as a reason for inter-organizational relationships (IORs), such as strategic alliances, might be advantageous (Dacin et al., 2007). Although several justifications (e.g. asymmetry, reciprocity) for IORs are suggested in the literature (cf. Oliver, 1990) this study considers legitimacy as a key determinant that motivates bidders to form joint bids. Thus, given that the creation of IORs for the purpose of strengthening legitimacy originates from the motive to show or improve its congruence with its institutional environment, understanding how joint bids may be related to the changing institutional conditions of sport event bidding is important.

While bidding can be a highly political activity and the selection process has, at times, been influenced by various forms of corrupt power (Szymanski, 2016), it can be argued that joint bidding alliances could help provide practices and structures that bring about its legitimacy in the eyes of those holding the power to grant hosting rights. While the type(s) of legitimacy required for success and the constituents who confer that legitimacy vary by context (Dacin et al., 2007), event owners are arguably more likely to confer hosting rights on the bidding organization that demonstrates the greatest ability to conform to the organizational institutions event owners

perceive as crucial for success. The ability of a bid to conform to, and be legitimized by, the event owner is significant as being legitimized by powerful environmental institutions is crucial for the ultimate survival of organizations (Meyer & Rowan, 1977).

Growth of sport events and changes in the bidding process

Through sport event hosting, bidders may gain diverse outcomes such as new facilities, and tourism development (Preuss, 2015). More recently, some sport event owners have become eager to increase the size and scope of their events (Walmsley, 2013). For instance, the International Basketball Federation (FIBA) decided to grow from 24 to 32 teams for the 2023 Basketball World Cup whereas FIFA increased the number of teams for the 2026 World Cup from 32 to 48. This increases the cost and complexity of hosting (Parent & Chappelet, 2017). Thus, criticisms about the diverse negative outcomes of hosting events (e.g. economic and social problems) have emerged (Holmes et al., 2015). In response, event owners have modified bid requirements to include socially responsible and sustainable initiatives (Emery, 2017). In this context, sustainable event management refers to the balancing of environmental, economic, and sociocultural principles in a way that ensures the event's long-term viability and local legacy (Raj & Musgrave, 2009). In that regard, through Agenda 2020, the New Norm, and Olympic Charter reforms, the IOC for instance, has asked bidders to propose a

holistic hosting concept focusing on sustainability, legacy, and reducing hosting costs (IOC, 2018).

CONCLUSION

What kind of tourist takes part in them? Mostly ones staying for 1–2 day. Fans of league matches mostly come for a few hours. It is for them that competitions are usually organized at noon or in the afternoon, so they can arrive in the morning, relax and participate and then return home in the evening or at night. Unfortunately, Tri-City lacks cyclical events of a national and international range. The events listed above mostly involve people from the region who spend only a few hours in the place of the competition, limiting their stay to a minimum and, in principle, to the event venue. They hardly ever use what could be called cultural attractions. To a large extent they do not benefit from the culinary offer either. From the economic point of view, their participation in the “consumption” of a tourist product, i.e. the competition, is not large. The higher the rank of the sporting event, the greater the number of tourists visiting the city. The rank is also influenced by the organization, the venue, accessibility, the tradition of the event, awards for the participants (including the so-called starting package), and the time of the event. Therefore, it seems reasonable to strive to create such a “sports offer” which will attract participants from different parts of the country and from abroad. The attractiveness of the place is beyond

dispute; it should encourage prospective sport visitors to come. One just needs to “create” events. These can be sailing, cross-country skiing, biking, hiking and even trekking events. What counts is the idea and good organization. However, such an approach to sport tourism requires developing long-term strategy taking into account economic and social aspects.

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