

# THE (WIDE) WORLD OF SPORTS EVENTS

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Sports event is a generic term that covers everything from local sports competitions to the Olympic Games. Such events are much more than just competitions between elite athletes or mass participants; they are social and media occasions that bring together large numbers of people and activities around a sporting competition. In addition to their entertainment and festive dimensions, sports events are also shop windows for communities and regions, and can provide business opportunities for sponsors and broadcasters. All of these facets have to be taken into account in order to properly manage a sports event.

Sports events come in many shapes and sizes, and can be categorised according to a number of parameters:

- **Size:** defined according to a range of criteria such as number of participants, number of venues, budget, or number of spectators and television/internet viewers.
- **Spatial characteristics:** the event can take place outdoors or indoors, in a public space or a private arena. Competitions can occur simultaneously in several different venues or in one venue but spread out over time.
- **Temporal characteristics:** the duration and/or the periodicity of the event and the competition calendar. They can recur regularly in the same place (every year, every two years, or every four years) or be one-off events that do not automatically come back to the same place and generally require bids.
- **Sporting characteristics:** an event can include one or several sports. It can also satisfy different needs, for example, competition (elite) or leisure (mass-participation sport). The popularity of sports varies tremendously, ranging from football (arguably the most popular sport in most parts of the world) to tchoukball, a sport invented in Switzerland and taken up in just a few other countries.
- **Financial objective:** an event can be organised by a sport organisation whose aim is to break even; if there is a surplus, it will invest it in its other sporting activities, in particular grass-roots projects. But it can also be organised for profit, as a show or entertainment for spectators, sponsors, and television/internet viewers.

- **Renown:** measured by the outreach of the event, which can be local, regional, national, or international. An event's fame and image can also be measured by the number of participants, spectators, and/or sponsors it attracts and by its coverage in the media.

These characteristics can be combined in many different ways, making it difficult to produce a clear classification of sports events. Nevertheless, a simple, if not simplistic, typology of events can be drawn up based only on media coverage: XS, S, M, L, XL sports events.

- **(Very) big (XL and L) events** include the Olympic Games, the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) Football World Cup and European Football Championships (UEFA Euro), some world championships (athletics, swimming, skiing, etc.), the Tour de France, the Super Bowl, and a few other hallmark events. These events involve the world's sporting elite, receive extensive media attention, are given international television coverage, and attract large numbers of spectators. For example: The 1987 World Alpine Ski Championships at Crans Montana, Switzerland.
- **Medium-sized (M) events** include some world and continental championships, major tournaments, large sports meetings, and major mass-participation events such as marathons. They can involve a large number of participants and bring together the sporting elite and amateurs. For example: The annual European Masters Golf Tournament at Crans Montana (since 1923).
- **(Very) small (S and XS) events** receive less media attention. They may involve the public, but they can also involve the sporting elite for world and European championships in 'small' sports. For example: The 2000 World Handi-Ski Championships at Anzère and Crans Montana.

The examples given for each of these three types of event show that a single city, region, or resort (in this case, Crans Montana in Switzerland), can host events of different sizes. It should be noted that smaller-scale events can produce good economic and tourism benefits, as can events that receive little media coverage, but they take place over several days and involve a large number of participants who contribute to the economy of the area, most notably in terms of the number of bed-nights. For example, in order to re-use the facilities built for the 1991 World Student Games, the city of Sheffield has hosted a number of sports events, including European Championships (now known as UEFA Euro) football matches and the 1996 World Masters Swimming Championships. This latter event for older athletes did not attract many spectators and received poor media coverage in 1996, but it generated more bed-nights than the widely televised European Championships football matches in the same city because Masters athletes came with their families and stayed in the Sheffield region longer for a vacation (Gratton *et al.* 2006). This was also the case for Winnipeg, Canada, which saw higher returns from hosting the 2002 North American Indigenous Games in contrast to the much larger 1999 Pan American Games. Such participant-based events can therefore be seen as more attractive to host regions given their higher likelihood of a return-on-investment in economic form.

### A new typology of sports events

Several authors have proposed typologies for sports events, especially the largest events and those that receive the most media attention (Ritchie 1984, Hall 1989, Jago and Shaw 1998, Gratton and Taylor 2000, Getz 2005, Parent and Smith-Swan 2013). The following typology is new in that it focuses on the nature of an event, rather than its size. It is based on three dichotomies that are

essential from a managerial point of view (for-profit or non-profit, mono-sport or multi-sport, one-off or recurring) and which correspond to three resources – financial, infrastructure, and information – an organising committee must manage (like any other body) in addition to human resources.

The first dimension is whether or not an event is staged in order to make a profit and provide a financial return. This question may have seemed preposterous 20 years ago, but in today's world, many competitions are no longer organised by non-profit sports associations (clubs, federations, etc.), but by specialist firms that have to make a profit in order to survive and grow. These companies are newly important stakeholders in 21st-century sport, even if they have existed since the beginning of the previous century. One of the oldest and most famous sports events – the Tour de France, which celebrated its 100th edition in 2013 – has been organised from its very beginnings by a press group, now owned by Amaury Sport Organisation (ASO), a French corporation which controls the sport newspaper *L'Equipe*. Even non-profit organisers must generate revenues in line with their expenditure; but the principle aim of their financial management is to balance their budgets. If a small profit is made, it is used to finance the current and future editions or redistributed to the sports organisations involved for use in developing their sport. Under no circumstances must this profit be shared among the organisation's members (otherwise the organisation will lose its non-profit status). If revenues exceed budgetary needs, the excess can be used to produce a more sophisticated event or ensure the next edition of the event is even better.

Since the 1980s, Olympic Games organising committees have made a slight profit on their operating budgets. This profit is usually shared with the International Olympic Committee (IOC), the host country's National Olympic Committee (NOC), and sometimes a body appointed to maintain the sports facilities after the Games. The large revenues obtained from television and marketing rights (broadcasters and sponsors), collected directly by the IOC, are redistributed to the international sports federations (IF) represented at the Olympic Games and, via a body known as Olympic Solidarity, to participating NOCs. Hence, the sports event that generates the largest revenues (the Olympic Games) is a non-profit event, rather than a for-profit event such as the Tour de France.

The second dimension of our typology is whether an event is mono-sport or multi-sport, a factor that determines the facilities and infrastructure needed to stage the event. A multi-sport event requires multiple facilities in order to cater to each sport on the program. Because it is rare for a single city or region to possess all the installations needed, permanent or temporary facilities have to be planned and built, which adds to the complexity of managing multi-sport events. Even in Los Angeles, which has outstanding sports facilities, the organising committee for the 1984 Olympics had to make sure that a swimming pool, a velodrome, and a shooting range were built in time (and paid for by sponsors). Of course, it is generally necessary to build several stadiums in order to host certain very large mono-sport events (such as the FIFA Football World Cup), a task that is now frequently attributed to a specialist organisation linked to the organising committee (e.g. a delivery authority) or directly to the public authorities. However, most mono-sport events are staged using one or more existing installations, or installations that are already under construction, which is one of the reasons for an event being held in a certain place. For example, the 2009 World Ice Hockey Championships were held in Berne and Zurich (Switzerland), which house two of the country's largest ice rinks.

It is easy to see that a multi-sport event is more difficult to manage than a mono-sport event because multi-sport events (often known as 'Games') require the organisers to recruit specialists in every sport involved and take into account each sport's particularities, as well as obtaining expertise in sports arena construction. In addition, as the event approaches, organising committee

staff members (split into major functions such as finance, human resources, marketing, communication, etc.) have to move to the competition venues. Hence, when the event is about to start, the structure of the organising committee changes from a hierarchical structure to a matrix or divisional venue-based structure, which can pose managerial problems when multiple venues are involved (see Parent and Smith-Swan 2013 for more information). This phenomenon also affects the largest mono-sport events, as they too involve multiple venues. In the case of a mono-sport, single-venue event, all the organising committee staff members have to do to carry out their respective functions is move to the competition venue a few days before the event starts.

The third dimension is whether a sports event is unique or recurring for a given host area. Whether it takes place every year, every two years, or every four years, a European championship moves from one country to another across the continent. As a result, an edition of the event will be unique for its host city or region, which will not host another edition of the event, other than under exceptional circumstances, for many years. On the other hand, many events are always held in the same place, usually every year, unless they are interrupted by exceptional events (war, natural catastrophe, etc.). One of the oldest events that can be considered a sports event is the Palio di Siena, which consists of two horse races that have been held every July and August in the Italian city of Siena's main square since 1656. Long-standing sports events, such as the Royal Henley [rowing] regatta at Henley-on-Thames (since 1839), the Boston Marathon (1897), and the Australian [tennis] Open (held in Melbourne since 1905), can be considered to belong to the host city's (intangible) heritage and can therefore be referred to as 'heritage sport events'. These events can contribute significantly to an area's economic and social development (Chappelet 2006).

Managers of recurring events can capitalise on the expertise built up from staging successive editions of the event, as long as there is some continuity in the event's management. This is a major managerial advantage. Rather than 'reinventing the wheel' for a new venue and a new environment/country, they can focus their efforts on gradually improving the event in order to increase its success. Some owners of mega-events that move from one country to another, such as the Olympic Games and the Football World Cup, have understood the need to transfer knowledge from one organising committee to the next. For example, the IOC has done this since 2000 through its Olympic Games Knowledge Management (OGKM) program. Nevertheless, every edition of the Games has its specificities and can therefore only incorporate the broad outline and general lessons from previous editions. As a general rule, this type of information and knowledge management is not available for smaller, non-recurring events.

Crossing the three dichotomies presented above (for-profit/non-profit, mono-sport/multi-sport, one-off/recurring) results in the schema shown in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 is a possible typology for sports events, which are divided into seven categories (a theoretical eighth category, i.e. multi-sport, for-profit, and recurring is not represented, as no sport event of this kind could be identified [the Disney Corp.-owned X-Games, which could be considered for this category, regularly change locations]). The heart of Figure 1.1 (the central triangle), which combines three dimensions (non-profit, mono-sport, and one-off), contains the competitions held by most sports organisations to determine the best athlete or best team at local, regional, national, continental, or international levels. These competitions are usually called championships (e.g. the French Judo Championships), cups (e.g. the FIFA World Cup), or sometimes tournaments (e.g. US Masters Golf Tournament, one of the four major championships in professional golf) or leagues (e.g. UEFA Champions' League, between Europe's best football clubs, with matches, apart from the final, held in the clubs' own stadiums). These events are mono-sport, non-profit, and non-recurring in the same place. The terms championships, cup, and tournament are also used for some recurring events (e.g. The All England Championships is the official name of the famous Wimbledon tennis tournament; The FA Cup is the English

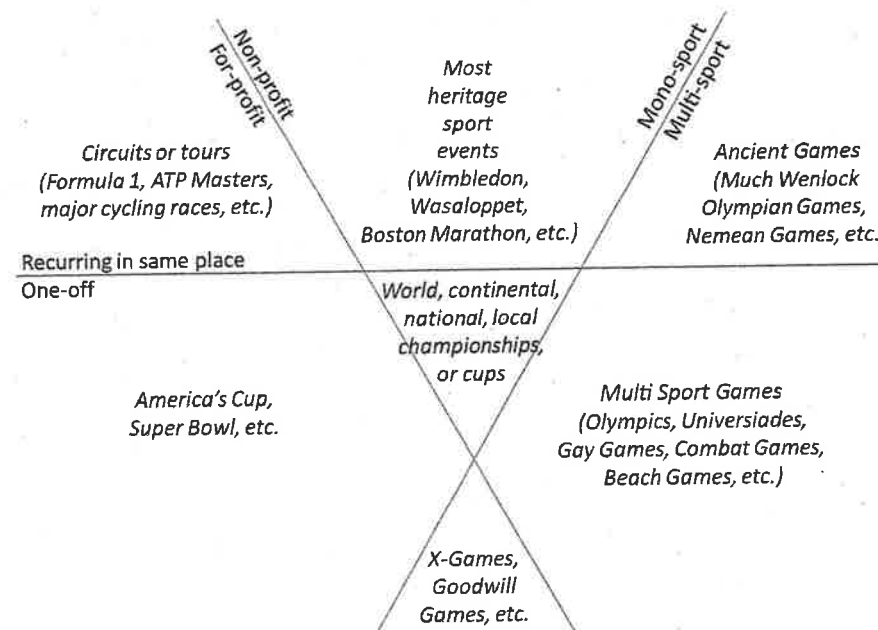


Figure 1.1 A typology of sports events

football championship, whose final is always held at Wembley stadium; and The Tournament of Roses is an American football game that takes place on January 1st every year at the Rose Bowl in Pasadena, California).

Most of the competitions on the multi-sport events (right) side of Figure 1.1 are called 'Games'. As has been the case for the Olympic Games since 1896, each edition of a Games is staged by a different host city. Very few cities (Athens, London, Los Angeles, Paris, Innsbruck, and St-Moritz) have held the Olympics two or three times. There are numerous circulating multi-sport Games, including the (summer) Olympic Games, Olympic Winter Games, World Games (for non-Olympic sports), continental Games (e.g. Asian Games), regional Games (e.g. Mediterranean Games, Gaelic Games), Commonwealth Games, Games of La Francophonie, profession-specific Games (university, military, school, doctors, etc.), and themed Games (Combat Games, Beach Games, Mind Games, Urban Games, Equestrian Games, etc.). In fact, more than 120 sports Games are held regularly at all levels (local, national, and international).<sup>1</sup>

Most of these Games are owned by an *ad hoc* sports organisation. For example, the Pan American Games belong to the Pan American Sports Organisation (PASO) and the Universiades belong to the International University Sports Federation (FISU). Most of these organisations are not-for-profit; however, some private owners have started organising multi-sport Games, the best known of which are the Summer and Winter X-Games. Owned by the American cable TV company ESPN, a member of the Disney group, the X-Games have existed since 1995. In the 1980s, Ted Turner, the founder of CNN (Cable News Network), launched the Goodwill Games, an invitation event involving the main Olympic sports that was set up to allow athletes from the western and Soviet blocks to compete against each other despite the boycotts affecting the

Olympic Games. These Games were halted in 2001 after four editions. These rare multi-sport, for-profit, one-off Games are located in the bottom triangle of Figure 1.1.

Today, very few Games are always staged in the same place, even though the origin of the term dates back to the four-year 'circuit' of Ancient Greek Games, held in successive years at Olympia, Nemea, Delphi, and Corinth. The Nemean Games, resurrected in 1996 in Nemea by an archaeologist, and the Much Wenlock Olympian Games, which have been held in the English town of Much Wenlock since 1850, are more cultural events than modern sports events. In a few sports, most notably athletics, the term 'Games' is used for mono-sport events that are always held in the same place, for example, the Millrose Games, an indoor athletics competition that takes place every February in New York City, and the Bislett Games, a famous athletics meeting held every June in Oslo. However, it is true that athletics can be viewed as a sport composed of several disciplines (running, jumping, and throwing). In general, multi-sports events are one-off events.

With the exception of the few multi-sport events mentioned above (such as the Goodwill Games), the for-profit (left) side of Figure 1.1 contains both one-off events (such as the Super Bowl) and recurring events (such as the Paris-Roubaix cycling race) held regularly in the same place. Recurring events allow organisers to reduce the cost of staging an event by using the same installations every year (which the organisers sometimes own). These for-profit, recurring events often take the name of 'circuit', the most famous being Formula 1 motor racing worldwide circuit and the ATP circuit, which includes several tournaments at different levels (ATP 250, 500, and 1000), held in places that change little from year to year. For-profit, recurring events also include some mass-participation running events, such as the Paris Marathon, organised by ASO. Classic cycling races, such as Milano-San Remo, are also of this type. The major cycling tours (Giro d'Italia, Tour de France, Vuelta a España) can also be included in this category, even though the stage towns change every year, as they always finish in the same city (Milan, Paris, and Madrid, respectively) and some stage towns are almost permanent features of the race (e.g. Alpe d'Huez for the Tour de France). The right to be a stage town on a major cycling tour or a venue for a Formula 1 race or a location of the ATP Tour is attributed by the event owner in exchange for a hosting fee. Hosting fees are also applied by the owners of some non-profit events, such as FISU for the Universiades (University Games).

There are also one-off, for-profit events that change venue for each edition. For example, the Super Bowl (owned by the National Football League – NFL) between the victors of the National Football Conference and the American Football Conference is held in a different city in the United States every year, although Los Angeles, Miami, and New Orleans are often chosen. The most famous and oldest sports event of this kind is the America's Cup (yachting). According to its ancient rules, the winner of the cup automatically becomes the owner of the event and can choose the venue for its next edition. Following the 1851 inaugural edition at Cowes (England), for more than a century the America's Cup was held at Newport (Rhodes Island) uniquely because the American holders of the trophy, the Newport Yacht Club, kept winning the event. However, other teams have won the trophy since 1987, so the America's Cup has been held at irregular intervals at Freemantle (Australia), San Diego (USA), Auckland (New Zealand), Valencia (Spain), and San Francisco (USA). It is interesting to note that an attempt by the Swiss winners of the 2003 edition to create a permanent location and owner in the form of the limited company (AC Management), based in Jersey (Channel Islands), failed.

Non-profit, mono-sport events that recur in the same place form the final category in this typology (top trapezium of Figure 1.1). Many are created every year with the aim of continuing from edition to edition in the same, often historic venue. Few such events survive very long. Those that are more than 25 years old can be called 'heritage sport events' or 'hallmark sport events'. They gradually become icons of their sport, components of the host city's image, and

hallowed places for fans and the population in general. They are 'places of memory' to use Nora's (1999) concept. There are numerous examples, notably in tourist cities and resorts, which have developed such events over the years in order to enliven their 'season'. Such heritage sports events are common in Europe (Chappelet 2014), including for winter sports, for example, the Wassaloppett cross-country ski marathon from Sälen to Mora in Sweden (since 1922), the Lauberhorn alpine ski races at Wengen in Switzerland (since 1930) and the Four Hills ski-jumping tournament in Germany and Austria (Vierschanzentournee) (since 1950). Examples from outside Europe include the Kentucky Derby (horse race) at Louisville, Kentucky (since 1875), the sumo Hatsu Bashi in Tokyo (since 1909), and the Sydney-Hobart yacht race (since 1945).

### Countries hosting events

The above typology highlights the wide diversity of sports events and hence the many techniques that can be used to manage sport events. It would be interesting to determine which category includes the most events for a given period, and which countries and regions host them, but there has been very little research into this issue. Studies that have been carried out include work to try to document the history of many multi-sport Games, notably the Wikipedia encyclopaedia project (WikiProject Multisport events), and a study of major championships held in Switzerland between 1995 and 2009 (Chappelet and Favre 2008).

However, the most important study in this field is a doctoral thesis by Lee (2013), which examined the attribution of 'major' one-off sports events, such as world championships in Olympic sports and universal multi-sport Games. Lee's research shows that during the period from 1990 to 2012 (24 years) world championships for summer and winter Olympic sports and disciplines, the Olympic Games, the Summer and Winter Universiades, and the World Games, that is 857 sports events, were attributed to only 60 countries (see Figure 1.2). Four of these countries

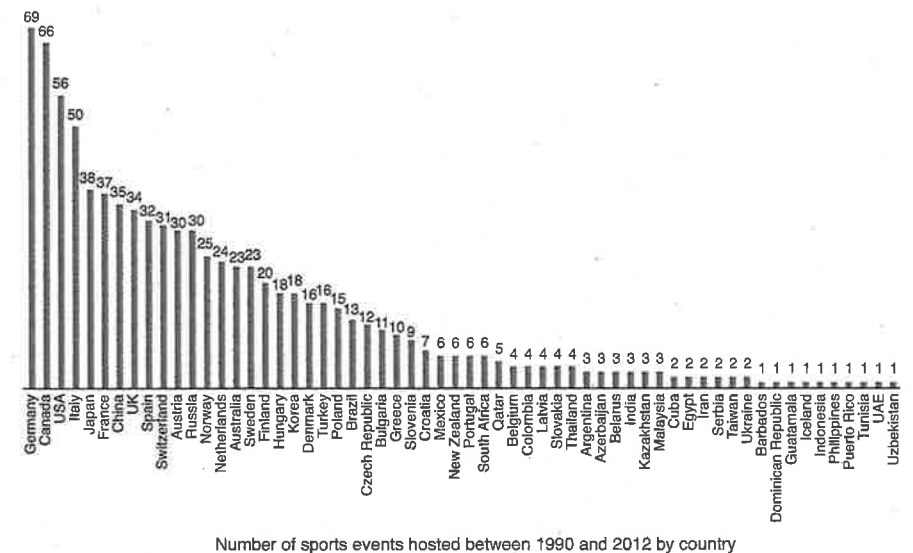


Figure 1.2 Number of large-scale, one-off sports events by country between 1990 and 2012

hosted more than 50 major events during the period, that is, an average of more than two per year (Germany, Canada, USA, Italy).

Lee's (2013) statistics purposefully start in 1990, as this was the year the Cold War ended and the beginning of a period when the attribution of one-off sports events subject to a bidding process was no longer guided by political considerations, so these events did not have to be held regularly in countries from the former Soviet bloc. It is no surprise that the rich G7 countries plus China, Russia, and Switzerland occupy the top ten places in this ranking. After 2000, countries with little history of hosting major sports events, such as Brazil, South Africa, and Turkey, began obtaining increasing numbers of events. Qatar is the most striking example of this (see Table 1.1). After obtaining the 2022 Football World Cup, Qatar has set its sights firmly on hosting the Olympic Games and has already bid for the 2016 and 2020 editions. In addition, every year, Qatar stages several recurring events: Doha Tennis Open (since 1993), Qatar Athletic Super Grand Prix (since 1997), Qatar Masters (golf) (since 1998), Tour of Qatar (cycling) (since 2002), Qatar Moto Grand Prix (since 2004), and Ladies' Tour of Qatar (cycling) (since 2009).

Table 1.1 One-off sport events obtained by Qatar (1985–2022)

1985, 1986, 1994, 1998	Under-16 Asian Cup (football)
1988, 2011	Asian Cup (football)
2004	World Table Tennis Championships
2005	World Weightlifting Championships
2006	Asian Games
2006	ITU World Cup (triathlon)
2008	Asian Indoor Athletics Championships
2009	FIVB Men's Club World Championships (volleyball)
2010	World Indoor Athletics Championships
2010, 2011	FIVB Men's and Women's Club World Championships (volleyball)
2011	Pan-Arab Games
2011	Global Champions Tour (equestrian sports)
2012	Asian Field Hockey Championships
2012	World Squash Championships
2014	World Swimming Championships (25 m)
2014	PSA World Championships (squash)
2015	World Handball Championships
2017	World Fencing Championships
2018	World Gymnastics Championships
2019	World Athletics Championships
2021	Confederations Cup (football)
2022	Football World Cup

Source: Boniface et al. (2012: 14) and authors' own research

## Mega events difficulties

Since a few years ago, mega events have become difficult to manage and risky to organise for the host, which gets a lot of negative coverage. The 2013 (football) Confederation Cup, the 2014 (football) World Cup, and the 2016 (summer) Olympic Games, all in Rio de Janeiro and Brazil, caused severe riots. The Sochi 2014 Olympic Winter Games were criticised because of Russian security, homophobia, and corruption problems. There are a decreasing number of bids for the summer and winter Olympic Games, and the IOC, which owns the Games, is worried about whether they can be managed as well as kept unique (Chappelet 2013). Major world championships are not sought after as they used to be. Two cities (Almaty and Beijing) only are bidding for the 2022 Winter Olympic Games, two (Lausanne and Brasov) for the 2020 Winter Youth Games, and, currently, just one (Doha, Qatar) for the 2024 Summer Olympic Games. Rome, Vienna, Dubai, and Toronto, for the Summer Olympics, and St. Moritz, Munich, Oslo, and Stockholm, for the Winter Olympics, have recently withdrawn their bids. This is reminiscent of the post-Montreal syndrome (when there was only one candidate for the 1980 Winter Olympic Games and only one for the 1984 Summer Olympic Games), with mayors or ministers being unconvinced of the worth of bidding for or hosting the Olympics – or other mega events – as the prestige that goes with being a host city or country will no longer be guaranteed.

The real problem for the long term is to keep the mega (and smaller) sport events in line with the society in which we are living. This is where significant innovation is needed. In the 20th century, the success of mega sport events paralleled the success of sport. But sport has changed a lot since the last century.

Today, the spirit of competition between cities and countries or athletes that mega events promote has weakened. People still enjoy peaceful contests between nations, but their fervour has waned. In Europe, people at the grass-roots level of sport are abandoning sport clubs where competition is a prime motivator, preferring to do their sport individually or in popular mass-participation events. In North America, sports clubs were never many and are being replaced by school and college sport. At the Olympic Games, it no longer seems to be about taking part that counts (as Coubertin emphasised), but winning (sometimes at any price, even if that means doping or cheating). There is also a growing discrepancy between the mega events and the society that finances them through sponsorship and television. Some TV channels are finding that covering the mega events is no longer profitable (Peca 2014). On 14 February 2014 (apex of the Games) the edition of the French sport newspaper *L'Equipe* dedicated only 4 pages out of 22 to the Games. Of course, this cannot continue forever. Soon, we may be facing a similar situation to the Ancient Olympic Games and other ancient Games, which disappeared painlessly in 393 A.C.

But mega events must be safeguarded, as they are still one of the very few examples of peaceful coexistence and international cooperation we have. These symbols deserve protection as part of the world's cultural heritage.

Consequently, we need to bring the mega (and other) sport events back in step with the spirit of the 21st century by putting greater store on truly sustainable development, human rights, fair trade, etc., perhaps even reducing their size and/or cost, instead of putting competition and growth above all else (as suggested by the sport ministers declaration of 2013 at their meeting organised by UNESCO in Berlin for the MINEPS Conference). Rather than insisting on elite sport only at the mega events, more space needs to be made for adaptive Paralympic sport, grass-roots sport, culture, music, non-traditional sports, young people, etc.

It should also be possible to regularly reuse the vastly expensive facilities built for sport events as well as Olympic parks built since Sydney 2000 for the Summer Olympic Games and since Sochi 2014 for the Winter Olympic Games. Courbetin's vision of a modern Olympia, a permanent summer Olympic site that was to be built at Lausanne-Dorigny at the beginning of the 20th century, is no longer realistic. But it should not be out of the question for the mega events to move from park to park, from continent to continent, as almost every continent (except Africa and North America) already has one or more Olympic parks. Existing or temporary up-to-date facilities should be encouraged whenever possible. It is only through such major reforms that the mega (and other) sport events will remain in tune with the spirit of the times, thereby ensuring their continuing longevity.

### Sport event management

The world of sport events is changing rapidly both in terms of where events are staged and the nature of events with respect to the typology presented in Figure 1.1. Classic championships seem to be losing ground slightly compared with circuits combining several events. For example, while maintaining its world championships, in 2006, the World Archery Federation created the Archery World Cup: a four-stage circuit plus a final in iconic venues that change every year. In 2010, the IAAF (International Association of Athletics Federations) brought together 14 recurring athletics meetings, mostly in Europe, to create the Diamond League (which succeeded the Golden League), a competition based on points that can be won at each meeting by participating athletes. At the Super Bowl, the half-time (musical) events are almost as important as the match itself. These rather new formats enable a sport to obtain more regular media coverage.

At the same time, cities, regions, and countries hosting one-off or recurring events want to achieve greater social, political, and social benefits, as well as economic benefits. They want to obtain a legacy from these events that extends far beyond the few days, or sometimes few hours, the event lasts (Chappelet 2012). To do this, they implement policies to systematically host events, based on portfolios of one-off (for which they have to bid) and recurring (on which they can capitalise year after year) events (Chappelet 2006). The emirate of Qatar, the city-state of Singapore, the Melbourne area (Australia), and the city of Lausanne (Switzerland) are just a few examples among many public hosting policies. It would be interesting to carry out more research into these event-hosting policies or strategies to see the impact they have on the respective regions.

As sports events have grown in number and in size, as well as in complexity (e.g. higher number of sports and participants, heightened security needs and measures, new technologies and social media), sport event managers have had to adapt to the new realities of hosting sports events. Parent and Smith-Swan (2013) argued for a number of recurring themes regarding sport event management and research: 1) the sport event must go on regardless of, for example, organisational issues or personality problems; 2) the focus should be on the stakeholder's experience at the event; 3) organisational, strategic, and human resources management are core aspects of planning the event but also coordinating the various stakeholders; and 4) ultimately, sports events are done and experienced by individuals, thus, it is important to focus on or examine managers/stakeholders' motivations and emotional reactions throughout the planning and hosting of the sports events.

Recent years have also seen the emergence of very innovative organisers, often for-profit bodies. This is especially the case for boardsports and descent sports (snowboarding, freeride skiing, wakeboarding, downhill ice cross, etc.), such as the Free Ride Tour, a ski and snowboard competition with several stages (Chamonix, Verbier, etc.). For the last few years, Red Bull has organised the Crashed Ice tournament for downhill ice cross, a sport that involves ice skating down a frozen channel built on steep streets. Bessy's (2014) book gives several other examples in

France. Even long-standing event organisers, such as the IOC and UEFA, are innovating. In 2007, the IOC launched the Youth Olympic Games for young sportspeople aged 15 to 18, with the first editions of the summer and winter versions of the Games being held in Singapore, in 2010, and in Innsbruck, in 2012 (Wong 2011, Hanstad *et al.* 2013). In 2020, the UEFA European Football Championships (UEFA Euro) will be held in 13 cities and stadiums in 13 different European countries (as conceived by UEFA), rather than following the classic format of a single country (e.g. Euro 2016 in France or Euro 2004 in Portugal) or two countries (e.g. Euro 2012 in Poland and Ukraine, Euro 2008 in Austria and Switzerland) hosting the event. Such a move will make the Euro easier to organise (in existing stadia) and politically more unique (for Europe).

Some events are exceptional and are very difficult to obtain. These so-called mega events essentially consist of the Summer and Winter Olympic Games, Continental Games, the Football World Cup and European Football Championships, and a small number of world championships (athletics, swimming, rugby, skiing, etc.). Although they attract unparalleled media attention, their size and cost are making these events increasingly difficult and risky to organise. The Summer Olympic Games has suffered from gigantism for many years (Chappelet 2013). One of the reasons for organising Euro 2020 in 13 countries was the difficulty of finding countries with about 12 stadiums capable of hosting a competition of this size, which now involves 24 teams. The 2013 Confederations Cup (football) and the 2014 FIFA World Cup, both of which were held in Brazil, have generated strong criticism over their cost, leading to huge street protests in Brazil in 2013 and 2014.

In examining the world of sport event management, we can see a recent increase in the number of Global South countries hosting major international multisport events, such as South Africa (2010 FIFA World Cup), Singapore (2010 Youth Olympic Games), and Brazil (2014 FIFA World Cup and 2016 Olympic Games). Brazil is also part of what are termed the BRICS (Brazil-Russia-India-China-South Africa) countries, those emerging countries on the economic, political and, in our case, sport scenes. Each have hosted a major or mega sport event, but with varying degrees of success. While China spent billions of dollars to make the 2008 Olympics technically flawless and showcase itself to the world, India's attempt to host the 2010 Commonwealth Games was plagued with planning and logistical problems (e.g. bridge collapsing, athletes' village cleanliness issues, corruption), to the point where the Commonwealth Games Federation and the President of India got personally involved, pooling their collective resources to help the organising committee pull off the event. According to a recent survey (RIA Novosti 2013), almost two-thirds of Russians believed that too much public money was spent in Sochi for the 2014 Winter Olympic Games, much of which was siphoned off by corruption. The owners of mega events must find solutions to these problems in order to avoid bids becoming difficult to attract, as occurred in the 1980s. This will require a great deal of imagination because it is very difficult to shrink an event after a period of seemingly limitless growth.

Most research is being done on events hosted by Global North countries, possibly simply because that is where most sport event researchers are located and/or because of the number of events available in those countries (see Figure 1.2). While there is emerging research on events hosted by Global South and BRICS countries, most seems to be on tourism and imaging, with a few on the actual employees and working environment of such events (e.g. Xu 2006, Qi *et al.* 2009, Xing and Chalip 2009, 2012, Guojun *et al.* 2011, Lepp and Gibson 2011, Nadeau *et al.* 2011, Ndlovu-Gatsheni 2011, Swart *et al.* 2011). Although researchers have not typically claimed that their Global North event findings translate to developing/emerging countries, the lack of research in these countries means that sport event managers must rely on information that may be contextually difficult to implement given the economic and political differences found. We hope that the increasing number of events being hosted in Global South and BRICS

countries will translate into a larger number of studies on the management of sports events in these countries.

In the years to come, heritage events may also increase in importance, to the benefit of the areas that stage them (public authorities and the local or national associations that organise them regularly in the same place) and to the detriment of the owners of large-scale international events. The strategic manoeuvrings between the different stakeholders will be fascinating to watch and even more interesting to study.

### The book

The difficulty of managing sports events lies in their very different sizes and shapes and in the fact that they have many stakeholders whose expectations must be satisfied and who co-create the event to a large extent. Stakeholders are those who can impact or be affected by the actions of a given organisation, in this case, the organising committee (cf. Freeman 1984, Parent and Deephouse 2007, Parent 2008). This Handbook provides an overview of the different key stakeholders involved in small, medium, major/large, and mega sports events, be they one-off or recurring, and single-sport or multisport events. The stakeholder groups include:

- **The organisers:** the promoters and professional sport event bidding and hosting organisations, as well as the organising committee staff and volunteers;
- **The sport organisations:** the event owners and the sport federations;
- **The participants:** the athletes (youth, elite, and masters) and the spectators;
- **The support:** the parents and entourage, and the delegation mission staff;
- **The community:** the residents, community groups, and the local tourism organisations and businesses;
- **The funders:** the local, regional, and national host governments, and the sponsors;
- **The media:** the broadcasters, written press, and new/social media;
- **Other stakeholders:** the security agencies and non-governmental organisations (e.g. United Nations).

Each chapter addresses a specific stakeholder, defining the stakeholder and its relationships associated with sports events, describing what is needed to manage this stakeholder so that the event is successful, presenting and analysing the current research on the stakeholder, and considering the normative aspects and responsibilities of the stakeholder (e.g. legacy and sustainability).

We have opted for using a stakeholder approach versus a functionalist approach, which is a typical approach of most books on sport event management, as it affords a greater cross-functional analysis and integration of information from a variety of perspectives. It also allows authors to reflect on the role each stakeholder plays in creating, planning, hosting, and leveraging events of all sizes. We hope that practitioners can also pick up this Handbook and look up pertinent information more easily as it would be contained within one chapter. In fact, a sport event (management) can be successful from one stakeholder's perspective, but not from another stakeholder's perspective.

Stakeholder theory in itself stems from corporate social responsibility (CSR) in parallel with issues management (Wood 1991, Carroll 1999, Mainardes *et al.* 2011). In his seminal work titled *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach*, Edward Freeman (1984) integrated strategic organisational planning, systems theory, and organisation theory to form the basis of what we know as stakeholder theory today, the core idea being that voluntarily or not,

organisations are linked socially and economically with other organisations (Wood 1991, Carroll 1999; Mainardes *et al.* 2011). Stakeholder theory is therefore interested in three areas: the focal organisation, its stakeholders, and the relationship between the focal organisation and its stakeholders. As such, stakeholder theory includes four main premises (Jones and Wicks 1999: 207):

- 1 A focal organisation has relationships and forms partnerships and networks with many stakeholders;
- 2 Stakeholder theory concerns itself with the nature (i.e. process and outcome) of the relationship between the focal organisation and its stakeholders;
- 3 "The interests of *all* (legitimate) stakeholders have intrinsic value, and no set of interests is assumed to dominate the others." This is linked to principle of fairness (Phillips 2003); and
- 4 Stakeholder theory focuses on managerial decision-making and the strategies required to meet stakeholder needs.

As it has evolved, stakeholder theorists have typically used one of three approaches: descriptive/empirical, instrumental, and normative (Donaldson and Preston 1995). The descriptive and instrumental approaches stem from social science-based research, while the normative approach stems from ethics-based theory (i.e. moral obligation in relation to social issues) (Jones and Wicks 1999). Jawahar and McLaughlin (2001) noted that most research in stakeholder theory uses an instrumental approach – often seen in reference to corporate social performance research (e.g. Jones 1995) – or a normative approach, often associated with CSR research (e.g. Harrison and Freeman 1999).

The descriptive/empirical includes providing descriptions of the nature of the organisation, of the way managers think about managing, of how board members think about the interests of stakeholders, of who the stakeholders are, of the stakeholder issues, etc. (Donaldson and Preston 1995). For example, stakeholder theorists have provided different definitions of what stakeholders are, definitions which vary in breadth and scope of inclusion; still, these definitions all touch on concepts of stake (equity, economic, influencer) or interest (affiliative, informational, material, political, or symbolic) in the organisation, legitimacy, and voluntary or involuntary contributions to wealth-creating capacity and activities, being beneficiaries, moral obligations, and/or power to affect activities and outcomes (cf. Freeman 1984, Donaldson and Preston 1995, Post *et al.* 2002, Phillips 2003, Reichart 2003). On the stakeholder end of the descriptive spectrum, Ponsford and Williams (2010) provided strategies for managing passive stakeholders who essentially just want to be kept informed in contrast to active stakeholders who want to be more involved in the process:

- **Passive stakeholders:** open forums, comment-card systems, displays in public spaces, and organising committee-led presentations.
- **Active stakeholders:** public meetings, informal individual stakeholder meetings, open door (communication) policy, formal liaison committee including both the organising committee and interested stakeholders, stakeholder involvement in environmental assessments, and venue owner-led venue walkabouts.

The descriptive approach has also resulted in understanding why stakeholders mobilise/act. They do so because of:

- their specific needs/interests, their identification with a certain cause, their history, or pressures from other members of the stakeholder network (Rowley and Moldoveanu 2003);

- their dependence, their power (Savage *et al.* 1991); and/or
- the perceived costs of getting involved as opposed to not involved (Frooman 1999).

Once a stakeholder chooses to act, it can do so directly or through a third party, by withholding or providing resources to the focal organisation (Frooman 1999).

In contrast, the instrumental or strategic approach identifies connections (or the lack thereof) between stakeholder management and the desired objectives – usually performance – of the focal organisation (Donaldson and Preston 1995). We know, for example, that positive stakeholder relationships are good for business as they help reputation, wealth creating capacity, flexibility, alliance formation, competitive advantage, trust, information exchange, and innovation (Parmar *et al.* 2010). Still, a positive link between social performance and financial performance is questionable at best as there are methodological and operationalization problems between studies (see Margolis and Walsh 2001).

The third approach, normative, is also seen as the moral approach, providing moral/philosophical guidelines for the operation and management of organisation; it is used to analyse the functions of an organisation (Donaldson and Preston 1995). Concepts of process and procedural justice (Phillips *et al.* 2003) are included here. The normative core is also argued to be at the root of stakeholder theory's importance, especially with all the ethical problems faced by companies in the last few years such as Enron, Arthur Andersen, BP, Parmalat, the IOC, and FIFA (cf. Donaldson and Preston 1995; Jennings 2000; Mokhiber and Weissman 2003, Chappelet and Mrkonjic 2013). Interestingly, when competing models of instrumental versus normative stakeholder theory were tested, support was found for the instrumental model, not the normative model (Berman *et al.* 1999). This is supported by the successful testing of a model of stakeholder integration (again an instrumental approach) by Heugens *et al.* (2002).

This Handbook addresses the descriptive approach presenting chapters focused on each of the main stakeholder groups. It addresses the instrumental approach through presenting the impacts of a given stakeholder on sport events' outcome/performance. Finally, it addresses the normative aspect through presenting issues of sustainability, CSR, green initiatives, legacy, and/or leveraging associated with the stakeholder being analysed.

Stakeholder theory has been used in sport management and marketing (e.g. Ferrand and Chanavat 2006, Parent and Deephouse 2007, Parent 2008, Ferrand and Robin 2009; Hautbois *et al.* 2012, Parent *et al.* 2012), public management and policy development (Parent *et al.* 2011), policy development, health management, environmental policy, and law, to name but a few fields (Parmar *et al.* 2010). Still, stakeholder theory is not a theory per se. Although it helps 'describe the world and foster better action' (Parmar *et al.* 2010: 409), it does not have a set of interconnected testable hypotheses/propositions (cf. Bacharach 1989, Whetten 1989). It is a framework, 'a set of ideas from which a number of theories can be derived' (Parmar *et al.* 2010: 406). As such, stakeholder theory may be used as an overarching framework to organise the Handbook and its contents; however, each chapter author will present his or her own set of specific theories/perspectives used to analyse the chapter's given stakeholder.

### Suggested readings

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### Note

- 1 See Wikipedia article "List of multi-sport events" at [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List\\_of\\_multi-sport\\_events](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_multi-sport_events)

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