Title: Linking sport events with sport participation and development.

Chapter Objectives

After reading this chapter, readers should be able to:

- understand that sport participation is asserted to being one of various impacts of sport events;
- distinguish between tangible and intangible impacts of sport events;
- understand that sport participation and development are considered intangible impacts from events;
- recognize ways in which sport facilities, as tangible impacts from sport events, affect participation (or not);
- understand how events size (large vs. small) affect sport participation differently; and,
- define and illustrate the concepts of impact, legacy, and leveraging in the context of sport events and sport participation.
Introduction

Sport is at the core of sport events. Therefore, it is not unreasonable to expect that sport participation could be a major outcome of hosting sport events. In addition, reducing physical inactivity is a desired outcome of the investment that accompanies staging sport events that resonates with policy makers worldwide. Increasing physical activity through events has been referred to in the literature as trickle down effects, inspiration effects, and/or demonstration effects, which all propose that elite athletes or elite sport events have the power to inspire spectators to become more active sport participants\(^1\). The question is: can sport events deliver this so-called trickle down, inspiration or demonstration effect\(^2\)? To date, there is little research that supports that sport events stimulate new participation in sport\(^3\). In fact, if an effect is apparent, it is among those who are already (or have been) involved in sport, who may participate a little more\(^4\).

Moreover, most event research to date has focused on planned and tangible legacies of mega-events (both positive and negative). However, there is a shift in focus into three directions: (1) from tangible to intangible impacts\(^5\); (2) from large to small events\(^6\); and, (3) from legacy to leverage\(^7\). The current chapter will illustrate these three trends broadly, and then discuss how they are specific to sport participation associated with sport events. Through outlining the current research trends, this chapter will act as a guideline to develop a future research agenda in order to enhance our understanding how sport events can be used, and strategically planned to enhance sport participation and development.

Sport Event Impacts: Research Trends

From Tangible to Intangible Impacts

Events have a variety of impacts, including economic, tourism, social, and sport participation\(^8\). Given the lack of substantial economic and sustainable tourism outcomes from
events to justify major public funding, there has been a shift in research attention towards more social and sport participation outcomes from events⁹. Generally, economic and tourism impacts are considered to be more ‘tangible’ and social and sport participation impact are more ‘intangible’ in nature¹⁰. However, as shown in Table 1, each of these events impact dimensions has tangible and intangible aspects, in which tangible impacts are relatively easy to measure, while intangible impacts are easy to see, but more challenging to measure. The focus of this contribution is on the tangible and intangible impacts of sport events on sport participation (highlighted in grey), and will be elaborated on further throughout this chapter.

**From Large to small events**

There are no universal definitions or typologies of events, however, Getz²² defined a mega sport event as an event that generates “very high levels of tourism, media coverage, prestige or economic impact for their host community” (p. 45), although their impact and meaning reaches far beyond the event and the host city. There is consensus among researchers that the Summer Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup are mega-events; but there is less consensus about events such as the Common Wealth Games, Euro football cup, and Winter Olympics, which are also labeled as ‘second tier events’²³.

Regardless of ‘mega’ status, major events have a significant impact on the host community. In the context of this chapter, non-mega sport events (NMS) are one-off sport events, of short duration and ‘out of the ordinary’, ‘significant’ and ‘special’ for the host community where they are being hosted, but are considered to be more so as the ‘little brother or sister’ of the mega sport event (MSE). They are generally acquired by host communities based on a bidding process, and require a substantial amount of public funding. Clearly, they are smaller in size, scale, scope and reach than their mega counterparts, however, they maintain the same issues faced by host
communities of mega events. For instance, Müller identified the *mega-event syndrome* to encompass common issues faced by mega events, as well as their major counterparts. The ‘syndromes’ include: (1) the bid to host the event over-promising benefits to the host community; (2) underestimation of costs and the presence of unexpected expenses; (3) event take over, where the event overshadows any other development priorities of the host community; (4) public risk taking, when private firms reap the rewards; (5) rule of exception, which involves suspension of normal laws, typically that benefit corporations and hinder citizens; (6) elite capture, where large firms are favoured over local vendors; and, (7) event fix, where the event is framed as a solution to a host community’s planning challenges.

Based on the notion that events require investments of human, financial and physical resources from communities that stage them, we prefer to define event size in terms of Event Resource Demand (ERD); more specifically large events are those events with high ERD and small events have a low ERD. We acknowledge that there are an infinite number of events that fall on the ERD continuum. Thus, instead of using the previous event typologies or event outcomes, we refer to a large event as an event with a high ERD, and a small event refers to one with a low ERD. Examples of smaller sized events are the International Children’s Games, or the European Junior Swimming Championships.

Large events are under scrutiny for multiple reasons, including financial debacles, corruption, and their sustainable impact is being questioned. This is evident from cities deciding: not to bid for the Olympic Games (OG) (e.g. Boston and Toronto for the 2024 OG); withdrawing their bid (e.g., Budapest for the 2024 OG); or, not to host when awarded (e.g., Durban for the 2022 Common Wealth Games in South Africa). This has led towards a push for more research on smaller sized events, which may have greater potential for beneficial and sustainable outcomes for host
communities, partially because of tighter social connections, and a greater probability for a bottom-up strategy\textsuperscript{27}.

**From Legacy to Leverage**

Special “one-off” sport events are temporal and can trigger a variety of short- or long-term, positive or negative impacts, which lead to positive or negative outcomes, and if sustained, these outcomes have been called ‘legacies’\textsuperscript{28}. Event leveraging refers to the strategic planning for event outcomes, well in advance of the event, or even bidding for the event to strategically use available resources to meet pre-determined goals\textsuperscript{29}. The concept and development of event leveraging is further expanded on in the section below on sport participation and events.

**Sport Participation Impacts from Sport Events: Research Trends**

The following sections discuss the research trends described above applied to the specific impacts from sport events on sport participation. We will look at the collective trends, and illustrate tangible and intangible sport participation impacts, for both, large and small events. The section will conclude with a discussion of the third research trend of legacies to leveraging and illustrate the need for deliberate planning when it comes to the facilitation of sport participation impacts from events.

**Tangible Sport Participation Impacts**

**Tangible impacts and large events.** Sport facilities are considered the “tangible” component of sport events stimulating sport participation. MSE usually require very expensive, high-end facilities. There are multiple examples facilities that costed a fortune to be built and became abandoned post-event. These so called “white elephants” are a detrimental outcome of MSE\textsuperscript{30}; these facilities remain unused post event because of high maintenance costs, and because they do not meet community needs. Examples include most football stadiums following the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa; the Olympic facilities following the 2004 Olympic Games in
Athens; and, most recently, the 2016 Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro. The problem is that these facilities are generally not built with the sport participation needs of the host community in mind. For instance, the facilities from the 1988 Calgary Winter Olympics became a high-end national training centre for speed skating post event to serve high performance athletes (i.e., those who are already involved with sport), contributing to elite sport development, but not necessarily serving the local community or stimulating new participation in sport. In contrast, the Richmond Oval, built for the 2010 winter Olympics in Vancouver, was first built to serve the Olympic Games, but was re-sized post event to better serve the community. Of course, building this facility to meet Olympic standards, and bringing it down to meet the community needs afterwards, came at an extravagant cost, which could have been avoided if the city had decided to build a community facility only, rather than also staging the Olympic Games. This would have saved a substantial amount of money that could have otherwise been spent to stimulate participation in sport, if that was a goal of the local community. In contrast, the facilities built for the 1976 Olympic Games in Munich have served the community very well all these years. There is a current gap in the literature regarding evaluating community usages for multiple post Olympic Games and World Cup facilities, that should be addressed to understand what strategies were effective and why.

**Tangible impacts and small events.** Occasionally, facilities are being upgraded or even newly built for smaller scale events. Examples of sport events held in Windsor, Ontario, will be used to illustrate this point. First, hosting the 2005 Pan American Junior Athletics Championships led to a new stadium was built at the University of Windsor, a facility that was very much needed by the host university and community. Thus, the stadium was an expected and intended legacy of hosting the event. Seven years after the fact, Taks and colleagues\(^{31}\) evaluated the outcome of this facility among key stakeholders in the community. The new facility provided more and better
access to athletics for the community and, with the addition of the infield turf, even helped to develop other sports such as soccer and American football. Again, there is evidence for sport development, namely important improvements for those already involved in sport.

Windsor, Ontario, was also the host city of the 2013 International Children’s Games, that led to the creation of the $78 million CND aquatic centre. The building of this facility required the closure of four smaller local pools, greatly affecting the swimming ability for low-income community members for two reasons: lack of accessibility, and price increases to use the new facility\textsuperscript{32}. Residents questioned whether this ‘legacy’ benefited the needs of the few over the needs of the many. Moreover, the operational costs for the aquatic complex highly surpassed the estimations, negatively impacting the annual city budgets. This financial burden, with an unintended $3 million deficit per year\textsuperscript{33}, is an unexpected outcome, which even put the lowest payed, temporary city jobs in jeopardy\textsuperscript{34}.

City Council assumed that hosting events and building an aquatic complex would make residents more active. However, in the absence of a benchmark measure of swimming levels in the community, it is impossible to evaluate if swimming participation increased, decreased, or remained the same because of the building of the aquatic centre in the community. In fact, there is no record of anybody being responsible for following-up on whether residents have become more active as a result of building the aquatic complex. There is, however, evidence for sport development: the construction of the aquatic complex enabled Windsor to host other international events such as the FINA World Diving Championships and to some extent the FINA 2016 World Swimming Championships (25m). However, hosting these events, again, came at a very high additional cost for the city, without substantial economic return. Moreover, a local diving club was established in January 2016, and received preferred treatment over other community sport
organizations. In 2017, City Council approved a motion to waive aquatic complex fees up to $75,000 over three years for the Windsor Diving Club, however it denied other swimming clubs the same request. This triggered a hostile feeling of these sport clubs towards City Council, as they struggled to afford the high rental costs of the aquatic complex, jeopardizing the viability of their programs.

**Tangible sport participation impacts and implications for future research.** From this overview of sport facilities built in relation to sport events, we learn that residents’ needs are central in the case of building or upgrading sport facilities. Moreover, addressing these needs assures long-term use, which is central for sustainable community development. Thus, future research such focus on: (1) determining community needs in advance of bidding for an event; (2) learning to accurately determine and estimate community needs; (3) understanding the budgetary implications from building before, and maintaining facilities after events; (4) benchmarking participation and physical activity levels in advance of new and upgraded facilities in order to be able to evaluate their impact; (5) evaluating impact after the facility is built; and, (6) learning from past experiences.

**Intangible Sport Participation Impacts**

**Intangible impacts and large events.** The 2012 London Olympic Games will likely be remembered as the flagship event for bringing the ‘sport participation’ legacy explicitly to the forefront. Never before has there been an Olympic Games that put such a strong emphasis of leaving a legacy for sport participation and development. This emphasis has had a far-reaching impact on public policy agendas. Sport England, for example, justified this legacy goal because “the promotion of general physical activity and the wider social, community and economic well-being agenda has been marginalized in favour of a concentration on sports for sports sake and
sporting excellence”38. The intention of delivering a successful Olympic and Paralympic Games that create “a sustainable legacy and get more children and young people taking part in high quality PE and sport”39 was at the forefront of the London bid and subsequent public relations campaigns. In their overview of systematic reviews, Mahtani and colleagues40 found no evidence of sustained increase in sport participation among the English population, or any other associated health outcomes as a result of the London 2012 Olympic Games. Moreover, when speaking to the English population directly, Carter and Lorenc41 found that sedentary adults were in fact discouraged to participate in physical activity after watching Olympic athletes.

In the context of the 2010 winter Olympic Games in Vancouver, Craig and Bauman42 performed rigorous measurements of sport and physical activity levels among 5–19 years (n = 19862) Canadian children between August 2007 and July 2011 (including the use of pedometers). The authors found no measurable impact on objectively measured physical activity or the prevalence of overall sports participation among Canadian children. Similarly, using nationally representative data, Potwarka and Leatherdale43 found no significant change in physical activity rates among youth at the national (Canada) and provincial level (British Columbia) levels. Changes were, however, found at the regional levels of North Shore and Richmond, British Columbia among female youth44. These changes were found in regions that housed Olympic venues that saw female Canadian athletes reach the podium45. It was not, however, indicated if these increases in participation were new participants, or those who were already active participating a little more.

Pfister and colleagues46 studied the overall impact of the 2011 Women’s World Cup on the development of Women’s soccer in Germany. Since 2007 (the beginning of the application process), the Deutsche Fussball Bund (DFB) launched multiple initiatives to stimulate girl’s soccer development in Germany. The authors noted an increase in female membership rates in the DFB
immediately after Germany hosted the 2011 Women’s World Cup; following a general trend that
effects are usually seen in the first “post-event period”. However, the authors noted that
membership rates do not accurately reflect soccer involvement. The number of girls’ and women’s
teams are a more accurate measure to estimate participation rates, and these numbers already
started to decline in 2010 (prior to the hosting of the 2011 Women’s World Cup), and continued
to decline post event. The authors concluded that “the World Cup has not triggered an increase in
the number of girls taking up soccer” (p. 147). However, the overall quality of women’s soccer
has drastically improved, pointing out evidence for sport development rather than new
participation in sport.

Wicker and Sotiriadou\textsuperscript{47} analyzed the trickle-down effect of the 2006 Melbourne
Commonwealth Games, and specifically focussed on to various population groups benefiting from
hosting major sport events. The authors found the overall effects to be relatively small, with only
5.9\% of the respondents taking up a new activity, and 6.9\% spending more time participating in
sport and physical activity; various groups who benefitted were younger people, less educated
people, females, people of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander origin, and the locals. Note that
“taking up a new activity” is not necessarily “new participation”; people may have simply switched
sports.

In another study, Frick and Wicker\textsuperscript{48} analyzed the long-term effects, from 1950 to 2014, of
the performance of the German national football team on German football participation. The
results indicated that only the wins of the World Cup titles of the men’s national team had a positive
and significant effect on the number and the percentage change in individual club membership.
Similar effects were not found for the European Championships of the men, nor for the World Cup
and European Championships of the women. In fact, this study confirms the temporary peak that
can be seen among other sports every four years following the mega-events’ cycles, because the increases were not sustained. Moreover, it was surprising not to see any results on the variance explained in the regressions.

A cohort analyses executed by Aizawa and colleagues\textsuperscript{49} on the long-term effect of the Tokyo 1964 Olympic Games revealed that the Japanese residents who are currently between 60 and 69 years old (those who were between 12 and 19 years old during the 1964 Tokyo Olympic Games) participate in sport more frequently than other cohorts. The authors explain this phenomenon through the sleeper effect, where subtle persuasive messages take effect on behaviour over time. Though this is an intriguing notion, the sleeper effect can equally explain why younger cohorts are currently not participating more frequently, raising questions about the true effect of the Olympic Games. Moreover, many other initiatives, such as policies and sport infrastructure were put in motion in the years leading up to, and post Olympic Games, making it extremely difficult to attribute the findings to the hosting of the 1964 Olympic Games. What if these initiatives were put into place without hosting the Olympic Games, and more funds were put into sport participation initiatives instead?

A last example on long term sport participation effects is from the 1984 Los Angeles Olympic Games. The unexpected profits post event led to political consensus to give it back to ‘youth sport’ and the establishment of the Foundation LA84. This foundation distributes $225 USD annually to support 2200 youth sport organizations in Southern California. Unfortunately, there were no benchmark data, but participation rates are significantly higher than the general population\textsuperscript{50}.

**Intangible impacts and small events.** Much of the research on sport participation impacts from sport events had focused on larger events, leaving the power of smaller events to generate
sport participation to be largely under-researched. We present some research conducted on, and evaluations of two past events: the 2005 Pan-American Junior Athletic Championships (Windsor, ON), and the 2005 Canadian National Figure Skating Championships (London, ON)\(^{51}\). Document and media-analysis, as well as retrospective interviews (n=21 and n=14 respectively) with key stakeholders (i.e., local organizing committee, local sport organization, facility managers, athletes) were conducted six years after the events. Key stakeholders of sport events supported the idea that increasing sport participation through events is a worthwhile endeavour. There was an overarching assumption that the events in and of themselves, through the process of ‘creating awareness’, are sufficient to engender participation outcomes. However, participation effects in the absence of leveraging are negligible. The authors found no evidence for defined strategic intentions or plans to leverage events to foster sport participation; the leverage occurrences were more coincidently. In the case of the 2005 Pan American Junior Athletic Championships, a coaching clinic and a new facility were two intended tactics expected to intentionally trigger increases in sport participation. The coaching clinic was not well attended, and therefore did not attain the intended outcome. As indicated earlier, the building of the new stadium stimulated development for those already involved in sport\(^{52}\). The 2005 Canadian National Figure Skating Championships implemented an educational program through schools and organized demonstrations during event breaks. Flyers were handed out on site for both events. No partnerships were activated to serve sport development. Despite the general belief that it would be a good idea to increase the number of new participants, the focus for any sport development efforts or ideas was clearly on individuals already in the sport system rather than any attempts to get new participants into the sport\(^{53}\).

In summary, the examples provided here for both large and small events, confirm what Weed and colleagues\(^{54}\) found in their systematic review of large events, that: (a) those who already
do a little sport can be inspired to do a little more; (b) those who have played sport before can be inspired to play again; and, (c) some people might give up one sport to try another. Moreover, there is no evidence to support the notion that new participation was generated. Indeed, sport club registration may have increased in the immediate aftermath of an event, however, the use of national data sets, or club membership does not indicate if this temporary increase in participation is made up of new sport participants. Furthermore, there is a dearth of investigations that have addressed the quality of these participation experiences. It is suggested that many of the community sport clubs that are tasked with taking on the increase in participation are not equipped to do so, thus potentially leaving participants dissatisfied with their experiences. Clearly, sport events are unlikely in-and-of themselves to generate increases in sport participation. This raises the question: what can be done to create sport participation from events? Here is where the notion of event leveraging comes into play.

**From Legacy to Leveraging Sport Events for Participation**

Events are hosted, and create outcomes. Usually there is very little strategic planning for event outcomes, thus, legacies are typically ‘expected’ or at least hoped for. Leveraging is different from legacy planning because it focuses attention on the means to obtain desired outcomes (here sport participation objectives), by integrating each event into existing community’s marketing and management strategies. Thus, the focus is on strategy formulation and implementation throughout event planning and implementation processes. Taks and colleagues undertook a series of studies to examine and develop how to effectively manage the event leveraging process. Their efforts in the context of the 2013 International Children’s Games (hosted in Windsor, Ontario) are detailed below, beginning with the planning phase, followed by the
implementation phase. We conclude this section with examples from other scholars’ work on leveraging sport events for sport participation.

**The planning phase.** For the planning phase, a task force was created to consider the challenges and prospects for leveraging sport events for sport development. The panel of experts was comprised of 12 practitioners and academics from a variety of organizations that would (or could) be involved in (and benefit from) leveraging sport events for participation (e.g., sports policy, event management, facility management, coaching, tourism, marketing, education, and community development). Brainstorming and nominal group techniques were used to collect the data, which resulted in a framework for leveraging sport events to build sport participation (see Figure 1).

The model, as illustrated in Figure 1, consists of three elements: (a) the context (culture; opinions and attitudes; systems and structures), (b) three types of organizations with a stake in the leveraging process (event, sport, and non-sport entities), and (c) resources needed (human, physical, and knowledge). The centre of the model reflects the core of the leveraging effort: the sport participation goals. Each of the factors in the model can enhance or hinder leveraging strategies and tactics. Sport events can be leveraged to enhance sport participation if the necessary alliances among sport organizations, event organizers and non-sport stakeholders are forged to integrate each event into the marketing mix of sport organizations. Potential barriers need to be addressed for example, the lack of available capacity to absorb new participants; crowding out of local participation by the event; and, the disincentives resulting from elite performances that seem outside the reach of aspiring participants.

**The implementation phase.** For the implementation phase, an international youth sport event (2013 International Children’s Games) was selected as the event to be leveraged, and
athletics and gymnastics were selected as the two sports to be stimulated\textsuperscript{59}. The first step consisted of a one-day workshop six months prior to the event to scope, discuss, and develop an action plan for leveraging. The next steps evaluated processes and outcomes through: participant observation and casual meetings during the event; a post-event workshop one month after the event; and reflective interviews (n=9) one year after the event.

The sport communities (i.e., athletics and gymnastics) were unable to implement the ideas and initiatives that had been developed in the 6 months leading up to the event. Only some isolated tactics were implemented (e.g., handing out posters and flyers in schools prior to the event; flyers during the events). Challenges to implement the developed strategies and tactics seem to be a lack of human resources (in the case of athletics), and a lack of ‘community’ to enable collaborative actions among a variety of clubs (in the case of gymnastics). One year after the event, stakeholders revealed some evidence of an ‘inspiration effect’: for those already involved in the sport, competing in an international context at this level and age was very attractive and rather unique. However, there is no evidence of increased participation in either sport. Without evidence of tangible outcomes, the key stakeholders displayed no efforts to sustain any positive impacts. Though stakeholders feel that lessons can be learned from the leveraging unsuccessful effort, what is being done to retain and capitalize on what was learned is unclear at this stage. Based on their empirical work, Taks and colleagues\textsuperscript{60} developed an event leveraging framework, presented in Figure 2.

The major findings from this action research approach is that: (1) local sport organizations lack the necessary skills and resources to leverage sport events; (2) local sport organizations have their ways of doing things; and, (3) events can help local sport organizations to build their sport. One of the major questions in terms of creating sport participation outcomes through events, is
however, ‘who’ or ‘which entity’ is going to take responsibility for making this happen? (This entity can vary according to the specific context; see leveraging model presented earlier).

**Additional examples of leveraging sport events for sport participation.** Though limited, other research teams have attempted to implement leveraging initiatives for sport events to generate sport participation in the context of large and small events. Chen and Henry\(^6^1\) evaluated a leveraging for sport participation initiative associated with the London 2012 Olympic Games. The leveraging initiative was partnered with a workplace, aiming at engaging employees in physical activity in regions outside the Olympic host city (East Midlands and Leicestershire). Though not effective for all individuals in all organizations, the program was found to be an overall successful way of engaging some groups of employees in physical activity in some organizations.

In the context of local sport clubs, when attempting to leverage a series of medium-sized, elite tennis events in Auckland, New Zealand, Hoskyn and colleagues\(^6^2\) employed an action research method to include local sport clubs in the leveraging process. The research team worked with the local tennis clubs to facilitate an offering of free tennis lessons given away at the tennis events that spectators would be able to redeem at a club close to them. Though there was some uptake of the offer, it was limited. In contrast, Potwarka and colleagues\(^6^3\) provided a voucher for a free trial of the velodrome facility built for the 2015 PanAmerican Games to spectators after they had watched the competition. The authors found that in the context of a novel participation opportunity, as none of the spectators have had the opportunity to participate in track cycling before the facility had been constructed for the sport event, the provision for a free-trial voucher stimulated a few to try the sport, but there was no evidence of sustained participation.

In the context of the Tour de Flanders, an elite road cycling event in Flanders, Belgium, local organizations took ownership of implementing the *Village of the Tour*, where youth and
current cyclists were targeted for cycling promotion strategies and activities\textsuperscript{64}. Though the initiatives were effective in engaging host residents in cycling, the strategies may not be effective in engaging those who did not already participate in cycling. Furthermore, the research team found that resources were limited at the local level, and if the levels of government would be more streamlined in their leveraging approaches, local leveraging initiatives could be more effective.

**Conclusions and Future Research**

The findings of the literature and the studies described in this chapter suggest that sport organizations’ capacity to market themselves to participants is a prerequisite for effective leverage of events to build participation, and that capacity building must take place well in advance of an event so that the necessary skills and resources are adequately established. Future research should examine how local sport organizations can build that capacity, and evaluate processes and outcomes to determine to what degree adding an event into a well-developed marketing strategy will benefit local sport organizations in building participation in their sport.

Moreover, it is imperative for future research to evaluate processes and outcomes, and create tools to accurately measure changes in sport participation and development. These evaluations should also be applied longitudinally to evaluate the sustainability of any strategies and actions taken. Moreover, based on the event leveraging framework proposed by Taks and colleagues\textsuperscript{65}, more strategies and tactics that work to leverage sport events for sport participation and development should be identified, as well as to find pathways to implement strategies and tactics\textsuperscript{66}.

Furthermore, it is imperative to take into account the specific context; this requires knowledge of the host’s available resources and social needs, including which types of events generate the best sport participation outcomes; whether a participant or spectator event should be used; weather a one-sport or multi-sport event should be held; how long the event should be (one
day or multi-day); and, what age groups should be included in the event (youth, senior, master). We need to find out how these requirements can be added to the policies for hosting sport events, be it at the federal level (e.g., Federal Policy for hosting International Sport Events), the provincial or the local levels (for smaller sized events).

Though there is evidence of sport development outcomes from sport events for those who are already active sport participants, overall, there is little evidence for new sport participation outcomes from hosting events. We need a better understanding of: (1) how sport facilities can become better strategic tools to increase sport participation; (2) how large and small events can grow sport participation and impact the quality of sport participation experiences; (3), what strategies and tactics work to leverage events for sport participation purposes; and, (4) how researchers can help LSO to leverage events to increase participation in their sport.

**Discussion Questions**

1. What are the three research trends for studying sport events’ impacts on sport participation?

2. What type/size of event would be appropriate for your current city/town to host? What infrastructure is available for that event? What strategies would you employ to leverage that event to increase sport participation in your community? What key performance indicators will you use to measure the sport participation outcome(s)?

3. Why do you think proponents of sport events continue to claim that there is an inherent association between large sport events and sport participation, despite the lack of evidence to support this claim?

**Learning Activity**

Find examples of “white elephants” online. Brainstorm ideas of how the white elephants could have been avoided.
Notes


4 Weed et al., “The Olympic Games and Raising Sport Participation.”


7 Lawrence Chalip, “From Legacies to Leverage,” 2007

8 Marijke Taks et al., “Impacts and Strategic Outcomes from Non-Mega Sport Events for Local Communities,” 2015.


10 Preuss, “The Conceptualisation and Measurement of Mega Sport Event Legacies.”


14 Taks et al., “Economic Impact Analysis versus Cost Benefit Analysis.”


17 Kyriaki Kaplanidou, “The Importance of Legacy Outcomes for Olympic Games Four Summer Host Cities Residents’ Quality of Life,” (2012)

18 Gibson et al., “Psychic Income and Social Capital among Host Nation Residents.”

19 Gibson et al.

20 Gibson et al.


25 Müller.


33 Pearson, “Council Waives Fees for Diving Club — but No One Else | Windsor Star.”

34 Jarvis, June 24, and 2017, “Jarvis.”
35 Pearson, “Council Waives Fees for Diving Club — but No One Else | Windsor Star.”
36 Weed et al., “The Olympic Games and Raising Sport Participation.”
38 Stephen Brookes and Jay Wiggan, “Reflecting the Public Value of Sport,” 2009.
39 Brookes and Wiggan.
44 Potwarka and Leatherdale.
45 Potwarka and Leatherdale.
50 Lawrence Chalip et al., “Creating Sport Participation from Sport Events,” 2017
51 Misener et al., “The Elusive ‘Trickle-down Effect’ of Sport Events: Assumptions and Missed Opportunities.”
52 Taks et al., “Evaluating Sport Development Outcomes.”
54 Weed et al., “The Olympic Games and Raising Sport Participation.”
55 Taks et al., “Impacts and Strategic Outcomes from Non-Mega Sport Events for Local Communities.”
56 Taks et al.
57 Chalip, “From Legacies to Leverage”; Taks et al.
58 Chalip et al., “Creating Sport Participation from Sport Events”; Taks et al., “Sport Participation from Sport Events: Why It Doesn’t Happen?”
59 Taks et al., “Sport Participation from Sport Events: Why It Doesn’t Happen?”
60 Taks et al.
65 Taks et al., “Sport Participation from Sport Events: Why It Doesn’t Happen?”
Selected Bibliography


Figure 1: Model for leveraging sport events for participation (Chalip et al. 2017, p. 261)
Figure 2: Event Leverage Framework (Taks et al. 2018, p. 186)
Table 1: Examples of tangible and intangible impacts of sport events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of impact</th>
<th>Tangible</th>
<th>Intangible</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>• Dollar amounts</td>
<td>• Consumer Surplus(^{11}) • Public Good Value(^{12}) • Psychic income(^{13}) • Opportunity Costs(^{14})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism</td>
<td>• Number of tourists • Sustained tourism adding to economic development(^{15})</td>
<td>• Destination image (potentially stimulating future tourism(^{16})) • City Marketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>• Physical social spaces(^{17}) (temporary or permanent)</td>
<td>• Social cohesion(^{18}) • Social capital(^{19}) • Community spirit(^{20}) • Happiness(^{21})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>• Sport facilities and infrastructure • Number of sport participants, coaches and volunteers</td>
<td>• Sport participation and skill development • New participation • quality of participation experiences</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>