

# Sport Tourism and Local Sustainable Development



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Edited by

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**INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH NETWORK  
IN SPORT TOURISM**

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# INTRODUCTION

CLAUDE SOBRY AND SORINA CERNAIANU

Since 2010, the International Research Network in Sport Tourism (IRNIST) has focussed on questions about local sustainable development linked to sport tourism through articles, books, conferences, projects and seminars. This book represents the result of many months of work, conducted by IRNIST members and other experts in the field, and aims to form part of the scientific literature about sport tourism.

The notion of sustainable development has gained increasing levels of attention these past few years, thanks in particular to many large international organisations. The famous Brundtland Report takes into account three determining variables: the economy, society and the environment as the foundation of sustainable development. Those elements are often referred to as the triple bottom line and have served as the basis of many works in the sport tourism sector. Today, a broader and more complete approach to sustainability is used which directly affects the world of sport and sport tourism.

In 2000, Louise Fréchette, the UN Deputy Secretary-General, said at the World Sports Forum:

“The power of sports is far more than symbolic. You are engines of economic growth. You are a force for gender equality. You can bring youth and others in from the margins, strengthening the social fabric. You can promote communication and help heal the divisions between peoples, communities and entire nations. You can set an example of fair play. Last but not least, you can advocate a strong and effective United Nations”.

In addressing sustainable development more fully, the UNO established a list of seventeen criteria constituting sustainable development: no poverty, zero hunger, good health and well-being, quality education, gender equality, clean water and sanitation, affordable and clean energy, decent work and economic growth, industry, innovation and infrastructures, reduced inequality, sustainable cities and communities, responsible

consumption and production, climate action, life below water, life on land, peace, justice and strong institutions and partnerships.<sup>1</sup>

Several UN agencies, including the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), have adopted this comprehensive approach. The Commonwealth Guide to Advancing Development through Sport (Kay and Dudfield 2013) has also opted to follow this approach.

Concerning the world of sport, the most important international structure, the International Olympic Committee (IOC), decided to adhere to this initiative as well. In April 2014 the IOC and UN officially united under a memorandum of understanding (MoU) to use the power of sport to promote peace and economic development (IOC 2014). Leaders of each organisation agreed that the ‘Olympic principles are United Nations principles’ (IOC 2014a).<sup>2</sup>

Those principles were included in the 2020 and 2030 IOC’s programmes. The Association of Summer Olympic International Federations (ASOIF)<sup>3</sup> initiated a platform of evolution, sometimes of revolution, for the sustainable objectives of the International Federations operating under its aegis, taking up the seventeen goals and adapting them to the world of sport. In October 2018, during the World Investment Forum, the IOC and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) jointly organized a round table entitled “Investing in sport for Sustainable Development Goals” (IOC 2018).<sup>4</sup>

Under pressure from the substantive work carried out by the ASOIF at the level of the International Federations (IFs), new measures were adopted. For example, the creation of a biennial ranking system encouraged these IFs to adapt to the rules of their central body, the IOC. Even if some notable results were achieved, however, most remained particular to and exclusively for the functioning and organisation of the IFs. Nevertheless, some of the outcomes became a subject for the global press. For example,

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<sup>1</sup> “Take Action for the Sustainable Development Goals,” United Nations (UN), accessed June 4, 2020, <https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/>.

<sup>2</sup> “IOC and UN Secretariat agree historic deal to work together to use sport to build a better world,” International Olympic Committee (IOC), last modified April 28, 2014, <https://www.olympic.org/news/ioc-and-un-secretariat-agree-historic-deal-to-work-together-to-use-sport-to-build-a-better-world>.

<sup>3</sup> The Association of Summer Olympic International Federations (ASOIF), accessed April 27, 2020, <https://www.asoif.com/>.

<sup>4</sup> <https://olympics.com/ioc/news/investing-in-sport-for-the-sustainable-development-goals-a-dedicated-panel-at-the-world-investment-forum-2018>

in 2008, under pressure from the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA)'s reaction to working conditions on construction sites for the 2022 World Cup in Qatar, new protective labour laws were passed.

Similarly, in 2019, an Iranian female supporter who was dressed in men's clothing in order to attend a football match was caught by the police. Since women are not allowed to attend football matches and fearing prison and punishment, she preferred to immolate herself. Following this incident, FIFA put pressure on the Iranian government to change this law<sup>5</sup>.

The concept of sustainable development in sport is constantly evolving. This development however is not without any consequences for the sport tourism industry. Broadly defined, sport tourism covers travelling to participate in sporting events, attending these events, visiting places with sporting history and participating in the organisation of sport and sports events. These four elements retained by Gibson (1998) and Pigeassou (2004), are intended to be inclusive, such that attending a sporting event (even if it was not the original purpose of a journey) must be taken into consideration. This point has been widely developed (Sobry, Liu, and Li 2016; Bouhaouala and Sobry 2017; Bouchet and Sobry 2019) and highlights the role of supply and demand in sport tourism development.

Competitions organised by international federations are multiplying, as are the number of locations in which they take place. The socio-economic effects of these events can be impressive, brought about by the flow of competitors and their families, as well as the spectators. A remarkable example is the Multi-sport European Championships. This event showcases the European championships of several types of sport every four years. The first occasion occurred in August 2018 in two European locations: Glasgow, for swimming, cycling, gymnastics, rowing, triathlon and golf, and in Berlin for athletics. The next championships will take place in Munich in 2022 and this time the event will feature nine sporting disciplines. This new sporting event will gather tens of thousands of people for a limited time (eleven days). The potential economic benefits are significant, but these benefits must be balanced with the possible social and environmental risks (e.g. job creation, involvement of local people, but also disruption, risk of increasing prices, hooliganism, etc.).

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<sup>5</sup> Women were indeed allowed to attend a match with the national team by buying their tickets themselves. But it was the one and only time and, during the match, demonstrators demanded the resignation of the Minister of Sports who flouted the Koran by allowing the presence of women in the stadium.

The final phase of the 2020 Euro Football<sup>6</sup> took place in twelve different cities and countries. Host cities included London, Munich, Rome, Baku, Saint Petersburg, Amsterdam, Budapest, Bucharest, Bilbao, Glasgow, Copenhagen and Dublin. As evidenced with this particular event, there was a marked discrepancy between what the international organizations (especially environmental advocacy groups) desired concerning sustainability and the decisions made by the sports federations on this matter. Such widespread locations of the competition venues clearly had a negative effect on the carbon footprint objectives of this championship, in direct contradiction to the ASOIF's and UN's stated goals.

With the increasing pressure to tackle climate change and the environmental threat to our planet, these contradictions can no longer be tolerated. Planning and implementation of events in four or five years must be focused on these sustainable goals right at the outset of the decision-making process, along with choosing the host city or cities, and the specifics of the event itself.

The pressure applied in the IFs has had repercussions on all aspects of sport, even on recreational sports taking place daily and on the planning and implementation of the smallest events. The equipment producers must respect a certain ethical code (e.g. a green code) regarding the conditions of production or be subject to being denounced and boycotted by consumers. As such, sports' equipment manufacturers and maintenance sites must demonstrate innovation and respect for strict environmental standards. Organisers must reassure the competitors and spectators that the environmental impact of the competition is minimal.

We can observe some progress in the perception of a need for sustainability, even if it is limited to the three traditional Brundtland variables. If the economic rewards or returns remain an essential part of the development of sport, the other variables of the equation "sport and local sustainable development," such as the social and environmental impacts, have become more and more important, and consequently, sport tourism has been directly impacted by this shift towards sustainable development.

This work aims to explore the different reasons around why and how sport tourism develops, especially at a local level and within the context of modest sustainable development. To achieve this objective, the subject areas need to be identified with care.

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<sup>6</sup> This competition was scheduled to take place from June 12 to July 12, 2020. It was postponed to 2021 because of the COVID-19 pandemic.

This book is structured into four parts and consists of an introduction followed by twelve chapters.

The first four chapters provide a theoretical approach to better understand sport tourism.

Chapter one attempts to introduce the theoretical framework of IRNIST by providing the socio-economic elements which inform sport tourism management. This chapter introduces the broad concepts of social organisation and the formulation of the sport tourism business model.

The focus of the second chapter is the management of “third-places” and their impact on the community’s wellbeing. These places are suitable for year-round, multi-faceted use due to the connection between work and leisure activities.

The subsequent chapter investigates the relationship between sport, city design and tourism. For example, some Spanish cities are seeking to develop their municipalities from an urban and regional point of view. The adoption of various political and strategic approaches for example is intended to include sport and tourism.

The last chapter of this first section questions cultural domination in the context of sport tourism and raises several interesting questions that we invite the reader to consider.

The purpose of the second part of the book is to highlight the close links between sport tourism and cultural heritage. Three chapters describe this association.

The first chapter within this section focuses attention on a traditional Moroccan game, Tbourida (which is also known as Fantasia). Two questions arise from this chapter: what is the impact of this event and what could the result be if a specific development policy was carried out? The role of this equestrian event in the development of the local economy, especially the promotion of regional development, is illustrated in this chapter.

A similar study to the Moroccan case study is described in the second chapter (of this part of the book) looking at how The Old Sports Olympics, a traditional Croatian event of rural sports and games, contributes to the preservation of cultural heritage.

These two chapters are part of a broader movement that is international in scope. These examples explore the possibility of establishing a development policy for traditional games and sports, from camel races to various types of oil wrestling to all the types of boules games and skittles which show off the competitors’ skills and strength.

The third chapter of this section studies the Dragon Boats Festival in Turkey, a recreational and culturally vibrant event for the local community.

The mechanisms that are in place regarding the development policy and/or strategy for this festival are discussed.

The third part of the book is devoted to sport tourism and the strategies of development and motivation. This part begins with a chapter that illustrates how digital communication and communication strategies are used by road race organizers to promote sport tourism in Italy.

The subsequent chapter presents how awarding the title of European Capital of Sport and the European City of Sport contributes to the development of sport and sport tourism, utilising the example of Olomouc in the Czech Republic.

The last chapter of this third section refers to the nautical ski lift facilities in France, used to develop local sport tourism, and will additionally explore the socio-economic structures of wakeboarding. The availability of equipment can be a means of assessing a site, as is the case of the two representative locations chosen for examining wakeboarding culture in France.

The subject of the fourth part of the book is structured with two chapters devoted to the motivation of sports tourists who come to participate in a trail running event in Germany and attend the EuroBasket in Croatia.

Questions posed to participants include: what motivates athletes participating in these distinct events and how do organisers meet these expectations and thus attract the maximum number of participants?

Sport Tourism is a vast area that has not yet been fully explored by the scientific community despite the success IRNIST had in proposing a methodology for a better understanding of the field. It is also an area that is constantly changing and adapting not only as society develops but also to unforeseen phenomena such as the COVID-19 pandemic, which has heavily impacted both sport and tourism. Sport tourism has not escaped the consequences of this pandemic, which are, at the time of writing, difficult to imagine fully. What is certain is that serious and lasting change will appear in the motivation, habits, desires and behaviours of athletes and tourists, as well as all supporters, volunteers and community members involved in local sports development.



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**PART ONE:**

**SPORT TOURISM**

**THEORETICAL APPROACHES**



# CHAPTER ONE

## SOCIAL ORGANISATION AND BUSINESS MODEL OF SPORT TOURISM

MALEK BOUHAOUALA

### **Abstract**

This chapter conceptualises sport tourism as a complex activity where the social and economic characteristics of both sport and tourism converge. By focusing on the parallel development of economic models, social organisation and professional structures, the discussion highlights the role of a) the convergence of business models of some types of sports (e.g. outdoor sports) and tourism and b) the evolution of new offerings and structures for professionals. The chapter hypothesises that the convergence between the actors' strategies and the business models has contributed to creating this market. This hypothesis is confirmed by the role that the social context – along with the convergence process involving social organisations and business models of sport and tourism – plays in the structures' transformation and the emergence of a specific market. **Keywords:** sport tourism, typology of sports, business models, offering evolution, ecosystem market.

### **1. Introduction**

This article uses a multidisciplinary approach to conceptualise sport tourism as a specific ecosystem market (Bouhaouala 2017) combining both social and economic dimensions. It analyses the economic and professional foundations of sport tourism. To this end, it focuses on the sociological and economic evolution of the parties involved in sport and tourism in the context of the development of sport tourism territories (Sobry and Bouhaouala 2017). This contribution provides an opportunity to analyse how, on the one hand, some sports and tourism business models

converge and, on the other hand, new structures of a different nature emerge and evolve in the offering and the specific professional practices.

This market's existence relies partly on the rising level of prosperity in modern societies (Neuvonen 2018) and partly on the involvement of practitioner-consumers, as well as political and entrepreneurial action. Given the pursuit of the new dynamics of their socio-economic development, some countries in the West with tourism areas and a leisure culture (e.g. Austria, France and the US) have shown an interest in exploiting the interest in outdoor sport for tourism purposes.

France, which became the world's leading tourist destination in 1988, received 89.4 million visitors in 2018 and generated tourism consumption of more than €168 billion (7.2% of the country's GDP). Broadly speaking, between 50% and 75% of the population does sport, which has an economic weight of nearly €40 billion (2% of GDP), including 50% of household consumption (Charrier and Durand 2005). However, the recognition of sport as an activity in the public interest (thanks to the passage of a law to this effect in 1984, as well as the development of a range of private for-profit sports opportunities) has contributed substantially to the development of a sports economy and its spin-offs in tourism. French mountain tourism is a good example and combines outdoor mountain sport with tourist services.

In this light, it is important to define sport tourism as a complex socio-economic ecosystem (Bouhaouala 2017), and a multidisciplinary analytical model should be applied to it in order to identify how it operates and how important it is to the development of territories (Nepal and Chipeniuk 2005). Until the 1990s, sport and tourism had very few socio-economic links. The two activities were organised and studied separately within the humanities and social sciences in both English (Percy 1937; Sage 1979; Snyder and Spreitzer 1974) and French (Callède 2002; Darbon 2014; During 2002, Parlebas 2016). In addition to cultural differences in the understanding of and approach to sport, the compartmentalisation of English- and French-language writers also led to misunderstandings between the two groups.

## **2. Theoretical foundation**

The 1990s saw an increasing number of studies focused on sport tourism (Weed and Bull 2004). This trend led to proposals to define the term in ways that were more or less technical (e.g. only involving movement) or categorical (e.g. event sport tourism) and often based on the condition of there being a sports-related motivation to travel and stay overnight

(Gibson 1998; Pigeassou 2004; Van Rheenen et al. 2017). Although such definitions can be inadequate, they had the merit of opening up the work, but two remarks should be made in response (Bouchet and Bouhaouala 2009): First, these definitions start with an approach based on juxtaposing one or more sports practices with tourism practices. Second, these approaches were limited to separate categories such as uses, products and the types of experiences combining sport and tourism.

Accordingly, defining sport tourism represents an opportunity to offer a response from a theoretical and methodological point of view. Therefore, the main objective is to define sport tourism, identify its structuring factors and understand the different actors' role in the creation of an autonomous ecosystem market that is socially and economically organised as a major driver of territories' economic development.

The hypothesis consists of two parts: 1) The structuring factors of sport tourism are of a social and economic nature, and 2) their interaction, as well as the actors' co-evolution, has made it possible to combine sport with tourism to form an ecosystem market.

Sport tourism is a complex socio-economic activity based on the convergence of social and economic factors that should be understood and explained through a multidisciplinary approach. Socioeconomics (Granovetter 2017) is the most appropriate tool to show the interconnectedness of contributions from specialised disciplinary works and the creation of new concepts within the human and social sciences.

Particular attention will be paid to the role of sport and tourism business models and how they converge in the ecosystem of sport tourism and the evolution of various types of initiatives: associative, institutional and entrepreneurial.

One of the central approaches will be to analyse the evolution of sports actors and what has pushed some of them towards tourism. This may be the result of the change in sports' models of sociological and economic organisation or the emergence of new offering structures in response to a new demand for sport-focused active tourism (e.g. skiing, hiking etc.).

Analysing this evolution and the underlying links between sport and tourism from a socio-economic perspective provides a better understanding of the contemporary transformation. Sport's evolution towards tourism covers not only the evolution of the sports actors' behaviours and strategies, the organisations and the economic models of the offering but also the roles of tourism and regional development actors, which constitute additional elements to define this complex socio-economic ecosystem.

Tourist sports are generally market-based in the sense that their development depends on economic actors intervening in the market

framework. In addition, they rely on the territory itself, as well as attributes like practice spots (e.g. ski resorts, hiking trails). In return, they help to attract visitors, investors and entrepreneurs and, in so doing, contribute to the territories' economic development.

To get a clearer picture, we propose a general classification of various sports based on their types of social and economic organisation. The goal of this classification is to understand the socio-economic foundations of the interaction that certain sports have with tourism in general. It also enables us to distinguish between sports integrated into tourism and those that serve other more conventional objectives. This classification defines four types of sport in the light of their evolution since the 20<sup>th</sup> century and the socio-economic structure.

The 1980s marked a turning point in the evolution of sport. In France, thanks to state action and the development of a managerial-entrepreneurial structure, there was a growing interest in modern sports. The loss of interest in traditional local practices (Chifflet 1993) and the development of the commercial sector accelerated this transformation, which coincided with the practice of leisure and holiday sports becoming widespread. At the same time, the holiday and tourism sectors made it possible to market sport by introducing new forms of sporting activities that have a very fun and hedonistic character. From this perspective, practitioners are no longer the users of a public service or members of an association but have become customers paying for what they consume for their own pleasure. This marked the beginning of market-based sports whose financing depends on revenues generated by the related trade.

Sports integrated into the offering of sport tourism are generally based on the principle of exclusivity (a price has to be paid) and developed far removed from the conventional sports' federations. Thus, they are market-based. This offering corresponds perfectly to that of tourism and the market framework. Thus, it can be said that the development of sport tourism is based more on market logic, even if public actors and non-profit organisations (NPOs) play an important role, particularly in terms of spatial planning and regional promotion, respectively.

### **3. General socio-economic classification of different sports**

This typology is built on the distinction between sports' economic models and social organisations. The link between the two dimensions makes it possible to identify sports that are compatible with tourism and, above all, understand the shift of certain sports toward the market of sport tourism in particular. According to Chesbrough and Rosenbloom (2002: 6–7), "In the



most basic sense, a business model is the method of doing business by which a company can sustain itself –that is, generate revenue. [...] The essence of the idea is ‘how you get paid’, or ‘how you make money’, with a taxonomy of alternative mechanisms.”

In this current chapter, the economic model refers to how different types of sports, depending on their social organisations and objectives, generate and pull in revenue to finance, maintain and develop themselves. It is clear that, in this respect, highly market-based tourism’s sports stand in contrast to classic modern sports, which depend essentially on the intervention of public and non-profit actors.

### **3.1. Community contribution–based sports**

These are ancient sports developed by cultural communities at the local or even the regional scale to contribute to traditionalist, community or tribal forms of socialisation. As a result, they are unique and geographically and socially limited to specific groups. They have an identification and integration function at a community, territorial, cultural, ethnic or popular identity level (Saumade 2017; Vigne and Dorvillé 2009). Sports games have been around for a long time and often combine either another component of social, cultural (Saumade 2017) or economic (e.g. sale of products from crafts, agriculture or livestock) activity or a popular (Vigne and Dorvillé 2009), community or tribal identity. Animal farming – promoted through shows, fights and races – is a good example. Such examples include bullfighting in southern France, Fantasia among the Berbers in Morocco, and camel jumping among the Zaraniq tribe in Yemen. While some traditional sports games have a movement component, involve adversity or induce trade, these characteristics are not their primary goal; in fact, some sports games predating modern sports are often opposed to the latter (Elias and Dunning 1986; Darbon 2014; Chifflet 1993; Parlebas 2016).

At its core, the economic model is communitarian and traditionalist; it relies on the contributions of its members following customary rules and traditions. It is based on the community’s belief in the strength of the social and cultural bond forged by the sports games particular to them. While some exchanges do take the form of trade, they happen outside the marketplace. The trade in question is not regulated by the price mechanism but by traditions: the links that result from them and the socio-cultural value ascribed to the games. This trade is only an unintended consequence as the purpose of sports games is not to make an economy or a market out of it. Here, the participants contribute voluntarily because of their

community membership, beliefs and customs. It is a “pay as a community member” model.

### **3.2. Public funding–based sports**

These are modern sports that embody universal values (e.g. equality, freedom, respect, selflessness etc.) and are developed by the public and individuals within the framework of NPOs (e.g. sports federation). It has been defined as a sports system (Darbon 2008); in France, for instance, it is a mixed-sports (public-private) system in which the public and actors from NPOs play a central role (Chifflet 1993).

Because of its universal, rational, normative, institutional and autonomous character, modern sport stands in contrast to sports games (Elias and Dunning 1986). It is codified, standardised and secularised, thus making equality, competition and the quest to surpass oneself the end goal (Chifflet 1993; Darbon 2008; Guttmann 2006). According to Frey and Eitzen (1991), modern sport also has economic and political dimensions, which makes it appealing to states that are seeking to be modern as sport plays a major role in building citizenship and affirming national identities through international competitions. The economic dimension is introduced through entertainment sport and sports competition and events (top-level and professional sport) and boosted by media coverage and globalisation (Frey and Eitzen 1991; Washington and Karen 2001).

This introduces the idea that modern sport is not as homogeneous as suggested by early studies in the field of social sport sciences. This allows some nuances to be formulated and questions to be asked about the validity of defining sport as a uniform milieu. Because of the numerous developments and spin-offs mentioned above, it is appropriate to speak at the beginning of this 21st century of contemporary sports made up of a complex socio-economic ecosystem that includes multiple forms of sport (amateur, high-level, professional, health, leisure etc.) characterised by varying degrees of economisation ranging from low to high. That being said, contemporary sports mostly remain faithful to the form of modern sports, which are fundamentally amateur and voluntary, practised under the umbrella of NPOs and supported by public authorities. The events, tournaments, shows, competitions and so forth related to modern sports may also be connected to tourism (which numerous authors define as passive sport tourism).

In reality, professional sport involves few practitioners but many spectators who represent a substantial pool of actual and potential consumers. Because of its coverage in the media, it is extremely visible. It

is a kind of market hybrid resulting from the development of globalised consumption and offers a market opportunity to players in the advertising, entertainment and media industries. These sports events produce certain socio-economic effects on territories and organisers.

On the whole, the economic model of contemporary non-professional sports practice is based on the predominance of public funds in investments and operations. Citizens contribute to financing it by paying taxes, even if they do not practise the sports themselves. In this model, practitioners are users who can also contribute by paying a fee or taking out a membership when needed. The contemporary sports funding model of “pay as a citizen enthusiast” is a mixed coercive-participative model. The dominant logic is that of public service or service through an NPO.

### **3.3. Market-based sports**

These sports are fundamentally market-based and depend on their trade activity. They have been developed because of their ability to generate financial profit for the economic actors who commit to them in exchange for a return on investment (ROI). We are dealing here with supply and demand sides, whose relationship is regulated by price in the context of a market. The precondition is the possibility of applying the principle of exclusivity (the possibility of imposing a price on customers). Skiing off-piste or watching football players play on the street are free of any property rights and escapes the principle of exclusivity. In most countries, mountains are considered a public space and are, therefore, accessible to all users.

By contrast, skiing safely and comfortably on the slopes of a resort involves using its ski lifts, just as being seated in a beautiful stadium to watch football professionals play means having to pay a price (a ski pass and a ticket to enter the stadium, respectively). These examples, considered as private commercial transport or entertainment services, require that consumers accept the market terms of trade (i.e. a price) to access them. Access to skiing or football in a public space (mountain or street) is free of charge, but accessing these spaces through private commercial facilities means that clients agree to pay a price. In other words, the ski lifts and stadiums allow the condition of economic exclusivity.

In this way, mountain sports and entertainment sports become compatible with the market logic. Their development and how they operate are the market players' responsibility. However, despite this individualistic character of entertainment, they affect enough consumers to form an attractive market that generates a profit. As a result, the

investments are made by actors interested in the profit they will generate. The practitioners are clients who only contribute when they choose to consume a good or service.

The economic model is “pay only when you consume”. Price is the means of directing income towards economic actors, which makes these sports market-dependent. Thus, market-based sports meet customer needs that are not served by communities, the public sector or NPOs. The economic model is based on the market price, which the customers agree to pay when they choose to consume. The approach here is entirely market-oriented.

### **3.4. Tourism-based sports**

These sports are integrated into tourism because of the added experience they offer to consumers. This is made possible by their dependence on a practice spot or the special conditions offered by their territory (e.g. snow, rivers etc.), as well as tourist infrastructure and services. Doing sport in this context is more attractive and fun for the individual. If we tried to categorise them, there would be many tourism-based sports. It seems more useful to steer clear of categorical approaches and, instead, offer a theorisation of the socio-economic foundations of sport tourism. The goal here is to understand certain sports’ shift towards tourism to create an autonomous field of activity. To this end, it is important to focus on analysing the compatibility of their economic and organisational models.

In essence, certain sports activities may be linked to a territory (e.g. mountains, countryside), an event (e.g. the Olympic Games), heritage (e.g. a museum) or any other element responding to a need that arises from the context of the tourism market. Hence, they are central to the tourism industry. They form part of tourism development in specific areas. These sports are dependent on a territory while also contributing to its development as a tourist destination. The economic model is that of “pay only when you consume”. Beyond the interaction between sport and tourism and their dependence on the territory, it is the sharing of the same economic model and commercial entrepreneurial organisation that allows certain sports to be compatible with tourism, whence, for instance, the shift from outdoor sports to tourism (Bouhaouala 2017).

## **4. Socio-economic definition of sport tourism**

Sporting activities in sport tourism cover all activities specific to the natural environment and the spots where they take place and without

which they could not be carried out. Consequently, sport tourism excludes classic and modern sports activities that can take place away from specific tourist territories, such as football or fitness activities. The latter do not contribute to the development of sport tourism practices in a territory but do play a secondary role in increasing tourist attendance through sports events or hotels' appeal.

Other sports that initially belonged to the modern sports class have been hybridised (Augustin 2011; Sobry 2003), adapted to nature and tourism (Pociello 1996) or incorporated into the tourism offer. Launched in the mid-1990s, the process of renewing and diversifying the offer has led to a movement of innovation in outdoor sports in terms of how practices are adapted and concerning economic models – for example, sports like horse riding and golf, which have already developed tourism-oriented spin-offs (equestrian tourism and golf tourism). As a result, some sports (outdoor sports, in particular) have been adapted to the territories; this is the case, for example, with skijoring and horseback riding. Innovative entrepreneurs introduced these practices at mountain resorts in the 1990s and 2000s to attract new customers as part of a diversification drive (Bouhaouala 2008).

To refer to sports that form part of sport tourism, we use the term market-based sports, which includes outdoor, nature and/or hedonistic sports that are typically and/or specially adapted to tourism. They include 1) winter sports associated with snow or ice, such as skiing, snowshoe trekking, ice climbing, dog sledging and skijoring, among others, and 2) summer activities such as caving, climbing, paragliding, canyoning, hiking (on foot, on horseback etc.), biking and more.

#### **4.1. Sport tourism offering**

This offering consists of market-based sports requiring special dedicated natural areas or specific infrastructures that can be natural or not and have been developed in a variety of ways. These may include marked trails, secure cliffs, caving sites, waterways, ski slopes and so forth. Sport tourism activities require specific (technical, equipment, safety, supervision etc.) conditions and, therefore, often fall under the responsibility of professional actors who are interested in ROI and involved in the development and evolution of the territories. Thus, different actors from industries, services, training, research and development and politics share the same vision and interact and, in so doing, shift sport tourism from a functioning market to an ecosystem approach.

In most countries, professionals have occupations regulated by certifications, certificates or state diplomas. Most of them opt for entrepreneurial forms (e.g. self-employed, public limited company or anonymous society etc.). Their professional activity depends on the market and the presence of clients, although some of them sometimes opt for the structure of micro-firms corresponding to a micro-niche strategy. The reasons for these choices are not only ethical: They also have strategic and economic justifications (Bouhaouala 2004; 2008). Sometimes it can be an efficient strategy that makes it possible to develop a new market and thereby avoid excessive taxation.

#### **4.2. Offering and professional structures evolution**

According to Bouhaouala (2007), the development of the range of mountain sports services has been strongly influenced by a network of entrepreneurs who formed a network of small and very small companies in the 1990s. These pioneering entrepreneurs were passionate about outdoor sports and the natural environment. They were able to take advantage of the emergence of sport tourism and play an important role in integrating sport and tourism. As the market developed, they also gradually evolved from being expert enthusiasts in the 1980s to seasonal employees in collective holiday centres and providers of tourist sports services in the 1990s. Many of them acquired skills as instructors, knowledge of how the profession works and clients' expectations when they were employed in the sector (Fig. 1-1).

In the 1990s, an increase in the number of standards and regulations led to the shuttering of group holiday centres. This situation caused most instructors to shift from being employees to becoming entrepreneurs. There was a twofold transition that accompanied the development of the sport tourism market: the supply stakeholders' transition from enthusiastic practitioners to wage earners to, finally, entrepreneurs providing services. Here we see the birth of a generation of professionals and entrepreneurs who want to live all year round in the natural area they are so passionate about. Thus, entrepreneurship played a pivotal role in accelerating the sport tourism ecosystem.