SECTION VI

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THE LOCAL AND REGIONAL GOVERNMENTS’ PERSPECTIVES

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Introduction

Urban regeneration is a primary concern of municipal governments as regeneration leads to further development in the community and region and attracts investment that will, in due course, provide a higher tax base (Hughes 1999, Brindley 2000). With a shift in federal policies that has decentralised responsibilities from the federal or state level to the municipal level, North American cities have become more entrepreneurial in their pursuit of growth and development. Early entrepreneurial development strategies focused on urban aesthetics as illustrated in waterfront developments, flagship projects such as convention centres and sports and entertainment facilities, and the use of events for place promotion or city marketing (Hughes 1999). As a result, cultural and tourist attractions such as arenas, art galleries, and museums, are now part of the policy agenda of cities.

Meanwhile, many local governments integrated private sector management principles to expand their own economic base, and turned to tourism and other cultural and commercial activities to spur development. Torkildsen (1999) identified how tourism and leisure infrastructure projects are thought to ‘prime the pump’ so that additional private investment will be enticed to the area. Similarly, Harvey (1989) suggested that local governments have been forced to invest in consumption- and entertainment-oriented development to retain and attract mobile capital. Further to this point, Whitson and Macintosh (1993) have argued that the local and regional governments’ enthusiasm for sport infrastructure projects and their pursuit of hosting major sporting events should be viewed within the context of competition among cities for public and private investment thought to contribute to the growth of a city. This is because local and regional governments, along with business elites, view sporting events as unique opportunities to secure resources for infrastructure development and to promote the city to a global audience (cf. Andranovich et al. 2001). Addressing the changing nature of sport in cities and
the use of sport for promotion and marketing, Gratton and Henry (2001: 5) noted that ‘sport as a welfare service may be in decline, but as an element in city marketing, an attractor of the tourist market or of inward investment, sport has grown in significance for local government and in particular for cities.’

Prominent examples of sporting events embedded in larger urban regeneration programs include Manchester and the 2002 Commonwealth Games and Barcelona in hosting the 1992 Olympic Games. In each of these cases, proponents of urban development were the central drivers of the use of sport-for-development centred initiatives (Misener and Mason 2008, 2009). However, Whitford’s (2004: 81–82) study of event policy in Queensland, Sunshine Coast, Australia, found that ‘public policies appeared to give little recognition to events as a vehicle to facilitate entrepreneurial enterprises and/or regional development’ and argued that the number of events hosted and supported by the local community will decline if they ‘do not adopt a more whole of government, proactive entrepreneurial approach to the development of event public policy.’

When pursuing leisure and tourism development projects, local governments must be sensitive to the needs and wishes of the local citizens in order for these projects to be sustainable and offer the community a return on investment. The attraction and retention of residents is also an important objective in the government’s place marketing strategy (Kotler et al. 1999). Trying to satisfy community and citizen demands is a complex task facing all local governments (Pugh and Wood 2004). The critical relationship between the local government and citizens will be examined through the chapter, and will be explored as a direction for future research in the concluding section.

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the role of the local government as a stakeholder group in the organisation and management of sports events. We will analyse the existing body of literature on event hosting to define the group and to identify the parameters of its membership. The discussion will examine three distinct event categories, drawing on examples, to illustrate the role of the local government in event management and their relationship with other stakeholder groups. Through selected examples of sport events, we will seek to determine how decision-making occurred in these cities and the associated policy implications for local residents and the event organisation itself.

The chapter is organised as follows: first, the characteristics of local government in Canada will be presented to provide context of the political structure that governs the three Canadian cities discussed in the case study. Second, we review key themes in the literature: economic benefits and consequences; place and tourism promotion; and social and cultural impacts. In discussing local governments’ relationships with other stakeholders, we identified the federal and provincial governments and the local business community as two key groups with whom coordination is necessary to stage a sports event. The case study section of the chapter will present overviews of three Canadian cities, of various sizes, each engaged in a unique event strategy. Vancouver, British Columbia, is a world or global city that hosted a mega-event – the 2010 Winter Olympic Games. Edmonton, Alberta, is a mid-sized (or second tier) Canadian city pursuing the hosting of major or second tier events, such as the Commonwealth Games. Finally, we examine Kamloops, British Columbia, a smaller city with a defined tournament-hosting policy that is the cornerstone of their economic development planning. The discussion will address the role of the local government in managing resident opposition and protest to hosting and the development of legacy planning. The concluding section will offer recommendations for future research directions to further explore the role of this stakeholder group.
Local and regional government stakeholder group

Characteristics of local government

Within the Canadian context, local government primarily refers to municipalities, but may also encompass other special bodies such as agencies, boards, and commissions. These bodies function as tourist agencies, public health boards, economic development commissions, and park agencies. Collectively they function together with the municipal government to form a system of local governance. Local government is an institutional and legal entity that enables individuals to work together to achieve the common goals of safety and wellbeing. Or as Crawford stated, ‘the need for local government occurs when people live in sufficiently close association that community problems arise or that it becomes feasible to join together as a group to attain certain mutually desired ends’ (1954: 15). In Canadian cities a local government is a legal entity, created by provincial jurisdiction that allows residents in a defined geographic area to provide services of public interest. It is also a democratic institution, governed by elected officials accountable to the residents and to which they can address their collective concerns, and an instrument that residents can potentially use to influence change and development in their local community.

The primary function of local government is the delivery of local services. These services broadly encompass safety services, such as fire and policy, education, infrastructure, such as transportation and communication, and facilities, such as recreation and culture. Local governments also exist to represent the wishes of their residents. Therefore, ‘combining these roles suggests that local government exists to provide services in accordance with the needs and wishes of its local inhabitants’ (Tindal 1977: 3).

Given that of the three governing levels, the local government operates ‘closest’ to citizens, it is often considered the most responsive to citizen needs. Crawford argued that ‘to the extent that functions can be exercised effectively locally, they are more likely to be exercised in accord with what the people want than if they are the responsibility of any other government’ (1954: 8). Others have pointed to governance at the local level being an effective tool of democracy given the broad opportunities for citizen participation in agenda setting and decision-making.

The literature on local governance acknowledges certain conditions that must exist if municipal governments are to operate effectively and efficiently. First is the clear division of responsibility and authority between the provincial and municipal levels. Geographic boundaries of the local government must be established so citizens can easily identify their elected officials to express their approval or disapproval. The duties between elected officials and appointed officials in city government need to be assigned in a manner that fosters not only collaboration, but also accountability and transparency.

During the 1990s, regionalization emerged as a major issue in Canadian local governance. Provincial governments began to adopt regional forms of municipal governance, which saw the reorganisation of municipal governments in a metropolitan area. For example between 1995 and 2001, legislation was passed in three eastern Canadian provinces – Nova Scotia, Ontario, and Quebec – to implement major municipal mergers within the largest of their respective metropolitan areas (Halifax, Toronto, and Montreal) and within other metropolitan areas in all three provinces.

Regionalism often comes about as a means to address issues associated with smaller local governments. Smaller municipal governments may be exemplars of democratic process with strong citizen involvement and shared decision-making; however, they may not have the resources to provide effective and efficient service delivery. Areas can also create regional service districts, which represent an administrative form of amalgamation rather than a political form.
Key themes in the literature

The impacts (whether positive or negative) of sporting events are often couched in economic, tourism, physical, sociocultural, psychological and/or political terms (Ritchie 1984). Although generally there is a significant financial cost associated with hosting sporting events, there is typically an intense competition for the opportunity to host such events due to the perceived anticipated positive benefits the host will incur. These potential benefits include growth in tourism and employment (Hall 1992, Getz 1997), opportunities for place promotion and marketing of the host community as a destination (Smith 2005), and improvement to the local citizens quality of life and their social networks (Missoner and Mason 2006).

The following section will address three key themes within the event hosting literature relating the local government stakeholder group. These include economic benefits and consequences; place and tourism promotion; and social and cultural impacts.

Economic benefits/consequences of event hosting

City governments and event proponents use economic impact studies as a justification for the expenditures related to the hosting of sport events. Generally, studies highlight the economic benefit of event hosting in the form of increased tax revenues, employment, and ancillary revenues, such as visitor spending in the service sector; however, questions have been raised about the validity of many of the economic impact studies associated with event planning (Crompton 1995, Crompton et al. 2001, Tyrrell and Johnston 2001). Local governments often promote sporting events, and in turn, tourism development, based on economic benefit justifications. These justifications often have common themes, such as including recreational and service sector facilities and the hospitality industry during shoulder seasons, or that hosting the event will expand and diversify the local economy. Another common justification is that hosting an event will draw a large influx of tourists to the community, and that their spending on services and goods will result in a boost to the local economy and an increase in local jobs. Furthermore, local governments will often argue that the money earmarked for development projects would not have been available without the hosting of an event (Burbank et al. 2001).

Regardless of the event size, staging a sporting event incurs the same types of direct costs, including but not limited to, garbage removal, traffic control, medical assistance, security and emergency services (such as police, fire, and ambulance), and transportation. These basic costs to the host community can often be overlooked in the excitement surrounding the hosting of the event (Crompton 1995). Indirect costs to the community are often difficult to measure but also need to be taken into account for a realistic and balanced economic impact assessment. These indirect costs can include property damage to personal residences and commercial properties caused by event goers, traffic, and other infrastructure congestion.

For local governments attempting to gain the community support required to host an event, the management of public funds and the amount of public funding allocated to hosting the event are generally the two key economic concerns for citizens that must be addressed. If there is any mismanagement or perceived misuse of public funds, this is likely to foster negative resident perceptions of hosting the event (Deccio and Baloglu 2002) and impact support for future events. Furthermore, if the event requires significant government assistance and competes for resources earmarked for other community needs, negative perceptions are likely to arise in existing community institutions (Ritchie 1984). Perhaps as a result of substantial financial losses and/or the perception of events underperforming financially, the focus on events benefits has moved away...
from the tangible economic benefits that have been typically argued as a the driving force behind hosting an event towards the more intangible benefits of social and community development, and improved quality of life.

**Place and tourism promotion**

Cities throughout the world have turned to place promotional activity for marketing and reimagining purposes to remain competitive for mobile capital in changing economic and social climates (Kearns and Philo 1993, Kotler and Gertner 2002). Cities of all sizes are engaging in the process of creating an image that is representative of the area and communicating that image to an identified target audience in order to create or maintain the desire to visit or live there (Kotler et al. 1999, Blain et al. 2005). Therefore, it can be argued that place promotion is an essential activity for any area trying to represent itself positively to local residents, businesses, and visitors and is best achieved through substantial involvement or oversight by the local government. However, the local government cannot engage in these activities alone; there is a need for collaboration between public and private sectors in the form of active partnerships in order for place promotion to be successfully adopted by community stakeholders (Kotler et al. 1999).

Within this context, recreation, cultural and heritage venues, and public amenities have come to the forefront of urban (re)development (Ritchie 1984, Hall 1992, Roche 2002). Parks, festivals, and special events are now elements of most urban marketing plans, and are key features in the promotion of civic pride and place identity for local residents. These spaces and events have become synonymous with the places they are staged, such as Boston’s Marathon, and Edinburgh’s Fringe Festival. Local and regional tourism agencies often feature events, attractions, and exhibitions as focal points of their tourism strategies (Getz 1989). Getz (1997: 51) stated that ‘place marketing provides a framework within which events and event tourism find multiple roles, as image makers, quality of life enhancers and tourist attractions.’

Event tourism is an emerging trend that gives city marketers the opportunity to position their destination while fulfilling specific target markets and stakeholders needs. The event should, however, be consistent with the destination’s overall image and cultural heritage. Regional factors and conditions conducive to event hosting include a clean environment, necessary facilities and support infrastructure, welcoming citizens, and a local government receptive to the wishes of the host population (Walo et al. 1996).

In the case of sports event hosting, a mega-event provides an unparalleled opportunity to make a statement on the world stage or to put the host ‘on the map’ through the significant international media coverage that accompanies hosting. Cities and countries look to mega events to help boost or reshape their image; however, there are numerous instances where inadequate planning, poor stadium design, the withdrawal of sponsors, political boycotts, heavy infrastructure cost overruns, and the forced eviction of residents living in areas scheduled for development can leave a legacy that tarnishes, rather than enhances, the reputation of the host city (see Tomlinson 1999, Preuss 2004, Payne 2005).

In their study of the 1988 Winter Olympic Games, Ritchie and Lyons (1990) found that 50 percent of local residents surveyed mentioned recognition for the city as a positive benefit, followed by 36.3 percent who suggested increased tourism and 34 percent who mentioned increased economic benefits. Further to that study, Ritchie and Smith (1991) specifically studied the effect of the Calgary 1988 Winter Olympics on levels of awareness and the image of the city internationally. The study occurred over a five-year period pre- and post-Games; and the findings questioned whether hosting a mega-event indeed put a region or city ‘on the map’ in the long term. The study found an initial increase in awareness of the city of Calgary in Europe and the
United States, but found that it decreased in the subsequent years after the event. The research concluded that a well-known or global city would receive little to no increase in awareness from hosting a mega-event, as those cities already received widespread media coverage in the absence of the event. The research also placed doubts on other popular assumptions of mega-events, concluding that it was unclear if events lead to sustained increased visitation, tourism receipts, and other forms of economic development. There was an increase in awareness immediately following the hosting of the Olympics, but an extensive long-term study to determine the effects of hosting a mega-event is needed. For Calgary, the mega-event strategy does not appear to have translated into the long-term international recognition that organisers had sought.

Social and cultural impacts to residents

Local governments seek the hosting of sports events not only to provide an economic stimulus, but for the positive social and cultural impacts to residents. Benefits such as growth in community spirit and cooperation amongst residents are thought to result from community members being significantly involved in event planning and staging. Many local events would not be viable without the assistance of volunteers in planning, marketing, production, and operations. Hall (1992) noted the importance of local volunteer contributions to events, where such voluntary labour in the community would not be offered without the event as a catalyst. Volunteers contribute in a variety of capacities such as hosting visitors, maintaining facilities, event administration, hospitality roles, and security.

Understanding the social impacts of hosting a sport event is crucial if the local government and organisers want to develop resident support for hosting these types of events (Fredline 2004). In developing policy relating to the event, it is important to understand not only the levels of support and opposition for hosting the event, but also the reasoning behind the communities’ perception as to how the event will impact their lives (Ritchie et al. 2009). Resident perceptions regarding the nature of event impacts will vary greatly, and are typically derived from their own knowledge, value system, and social network. Therefore, studies of resident perception could be considered a crucial component to developing event-related public policy.

To this point, most of the research studies exploring resident perceptions have focused on large-scale or mega-events such as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup Final (see Deccio and Baloglu 2002, Kim and Petrick 2005, Ohamm et al. 2006, Bull and Lovell 2007). For example Ritchie et al. (2009) presented the first stage of a longitudinal study examining the resident perceptions relating to the hosting of the 2012 Olympic Games in London, UK. They found that, generally, residents were supportive of hosting events in their community, but were concerned over traffic congestion, both during the event and during pre-event construction, the lack of local employment created, and potential increases to the cost of living. There have been examples of studies examining resident perceptions associated with non-mega events, such as Lorde et al. (2011), who analysed the resident perceptions of the impacts of hosting the Cricket Council Cricket World Cup 2007 in Barbados. The study found that the pre-games expectation was that the costs (such as traffic congestion, price increases, and construction costs) would outweigh the benefits; however, after the games, Barbadians perceived the benefits had outweighed the costs.

Relationship with other stakeholder groups

In the study of sports events, stakeholders are the people and groups who are involved in the event and include participants at various stages of the event lifecycle (development, bidding, planning, production, post). In the organisation of a sports event, the local government will establish a
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working relationship with any stakeholder groups; however, key relationships to facilitate the
delivery of the event will include other levels of government, community groups, local citizens,
and the local business community.

**Federal and provincial government**

A key stakeholder the local government will engage with when hosting a sports event,
particularly one of national interest and international media attention, would be the federal
and provincial governments. As outlined in the earlier section, local governments in Canada
are provincially mandated and receive subsidies to operate and deliver essential services.
Thus, local governments will work closely with the other levels of government when host-
ing sporting events (cf. Andranovich *et al.* 2001, Gold and Gold 2008, Leopkey *et al.* 2010,
Dredge and Whitford 2011, Martin and Barth 2013). The coordination between the levels
of governments increases in relation to the size of the event (i.e. hosting a mega-event would
have high levels of coordination between the various levels of government, whereas a small
event would have less coordination). In order to strategically guide this coordination when
hosting international events, the Government of Canada adopted the *Federal Policy for Hosting
International Sport Events* in 2008. The policy provides a framework for the delivery of Sport
Canada’s Hosting Program, assisting in the coordination among the various levels of gov-
ernment, sporting community, and related stakeholders. It seeks to ensure that the provincial
and territorial governments take a coordinated approach to bidding for, and the hosting of,
international events, while maximizing the benefits derived from the event. According to
the policy (2013: paragraph 12):

> The Government of Canada recognizes the sport development, social, cultural, eco-
> nomic and community benefits that are derived from hosting international sport events,
> and that a proactive, strategic, and coordinated approach to bidding and hosting is
> required in order to realize and maximize the benefits for Canadians. The Government
> of Canada recognizes the important role of bidding for and hosting of international
> sport events in further establishing Canada as a leading sport nation.

The policy is financially supported by a budget allocated by the Government of Canada,
which will allow for the hosting of two international major multisport games every 10 years:
One large international single sport event every two years, 30 or more small, international
single-sport events each year, and international multisport games for Aboriginal peoples
and persons with a disability. The policy also recognises that multiple bid attempts may be
required to secure the above listed events and will vary within a given period. Given the
federal policy goal of supporting the development of community based initiatives, which
includes enhanced voluntarism, active citizenship and civic participation, and cultural pro-
grams, additional coordination between the federal, provincial, and local governments is
required.

For example, at the provincial level, the Government of Ontario adopted the International
Amateur Sport Hosting Policy in 2008. Much like the federal policy, this policy provides a frame-
work to guide the involvement of the Government of Ontario in the hosting of international
sport events (the policy does not govern domestic sporting events such as the Canada Games).
The policy also outlines the financial support the Province of Ontario will offer to local govern-
ments and/or local organising committees hosting an event.
Local business community

The business community is a key stakeholder for the local government to engage and collaborate with in staging a sports event. Regardless of the event size, the local government is reliant on the business community to provide service and hospitality amenities to support hosting of the event. Given a reliance on local businesses and of the fact that hosting an event needs to be congruent with the broader strategic goals of the local government and citizen perceptions of their community, the event hosting must align with on-going economic development initiatives in the business community. Often the potential to leverage an event to benefit the local business community is often unrealised (cf. Chalip and Leyns 2002, Tindall 2011, Giampiccolli et al. 2013).

In the organising of events, the business community can also offer a wealth of experience and knowledge upon which organisers can draw on and employ. This is particularly relevant with smaller events where organisers may not have the financial resources to hire professionals, or in smaller communities that do have the capacity to allocate administrative resources to staff an event. In these instances, governments looking to host an event draw upon business community knowledge and engage their skills in the staging of an event. For example, the organising committee for the 2011 Western Canada Summer Games in Kamloops, British Columbia, Canada (which is one of the case studies presented in the following section) was chaired by a local business leader, who also serves as President of the Kamloops Sport Council and previously served on various sporting boards and tournament-organising committees in the community. This is one example of how the local government can draw on the expertise found in the business community to help stage sports events in their community.

Relationships with the local business community are critical, and private–public partnerships are now a common feature of most urban development plans involving sports events. However, these alliances can also be problematic. The hosting of the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta, Georgia, serves as a cautionary tale of the divergence of public and private interests. With Georgia’s state constitution limiting the role the city could play, and local opposition to imposing financial measures such as ticket taxes or an increase in sales tax, a local consortium assumed organisation of the Games. The consortium viewed the Games as a tool to promote Atlanta to the world and ‘galvanising local support and fostering civic pride’ (Hall and Hubbard 1998: 8). Business leaders wanted the Games to stimulate economic growth and to undertake relatively cosmetic urban improvements, with an emphasis on beautification and the removal of eyesores, rather than addressing fundamental social issues (Burbank et al. 2001: 82). The promoters stressed that these benefits would accrue without involving taxpayers’ money. The joint chair of the Organising Committee (and former mayor of Atlanta) stated that the Games were ‘not a welfare programme, but a business venture’ (Rutheiser 1996: 238).

While the Games benefited Atlanta’s business community, they did not necessarily meet the goals of more marginalised communities in the city, who anticipated benefits such as job creation and improved housing (Maloney 1996). The Olympics also failed to meet the hopes of Atlanta’s place marketers, who wanted to broaden the city’s image as a cultural centre. Instead, the local government and tourism promoters found themselves having to counter a barrage of negative reports, including criticism for overt commercialism, and systems and transportation failures. Following the hosting of the 1996 Olympic Games, the IOC began to refocus their requirements of a host city, seeking to create sustainability – economically, environmentally, and socially.
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Sport event case studies

This section will present case studies of three Canadian cities and their respective experiences hosting a mega-event, pursuing a major/large event, and establishing a tournament hosting policy for small events. Through the exploration of each of these cases, we discuss the people and groups (or stakeholders) involved in pursuing and staging events in each city.

Hosting a mega event: the Vancouver 2010 Olympic Winter Games

In 1998, the Canadian Olympic Committee, the national governing body for Olympic sport in Canada, chose Vancouver as the Canadian bid city over Calgary and Quebec City for the 2010 Winter Olympic Games. This set in motion a series of events that required collaboration between all levels of government, and a significant amount of private involvement in the bid process to secure the Games. The city of Vancouver plays host to several professional sports teams including the well-known National Hockey League (NHL) team Vancouver Canucks; however, the city was not well known for event hosting. Previous interest in hosting the Olympic Games came from the ski resort town of Whistler, seeking to increase its tourism revenues and expand its infrastructure. The opportunity to bid for these Games required the City of Vancouver and the town of Whistler to develop tourism, sport, and economic development partnerships. In 1999, the Vancouver-Whistler 2010 Bid Corporation was formed, with a bid budget of $34 million.

In July 2003, Jacques Rogge, president of the International Olympic Committee (IOC), announced Vancouver’s successful candidacy to host the XXI Olympic Winter Games. Vancouver’s successful bid involved the formation of a 500-plus member committee, multi-million dollar investments from public and private entities, and a vote that required public approval to host the Games. As explained in the Vancouver 2010 Bid Book, organisers claimed that the four political institutions of Canada, including the federal government, the provincial and territorial governments, the municipal/regional governments, and the ‘First Nations’ supported the development of the bid and the organisation of the Games.

However, because cities bid up to 10 years in advance of the staging of the actual event, much of the political landscape can drastically change during that time period. In the case of Vancouver, the municipal and provincial parties in power at the beginning of the bid were not the same ones in power during the final preparation phase. This led to an opening up of forums for debate (Hiller and Wanner 2011). Some organised groups (e.g. No Games 2010, Olympic Resistance Network) and politicians were opposed to hosting the Games from the outset (Shaw 2008). A number of already contentious issues were exacerbated, including the displacement of the poor, construction projects and costs, and aboriginal concerns.

To minimise possible coordination problems between political interests, Vancouver was the first bid city to establish an agreement between the parties involved in the bidding for the event in advance of acquiring the Games. The agreement, known as the Multi-Party Agreement (MPA), was established 14 November 2002 (Government of Canada 2002). The 2010 Federal Secretariat, responsible for supporting the Government of Canada’s involvement in the bid process, signed a legally binding agreement to help ensure that over the seven-year life of the Vancouver Olympic and Paralympic project, every area of logistical responsibility would be carefully assigned, accepted, and accounted for by all 2010 Games Partners. The agreement also addressed the customs and border services, sports associations, regional transit authorities, and dozens of other public sector organisations. The signatories to this agreement included: (a) the Government of Canada; (b) the Province of British Columbia; (c) the City of Vancouver; (d) the Resort Municipality of Whistler; (e) the Canadian Olympic Committee; (f) the Canadian Paralympic
Committee; and (g) the Vancouver Bid Corporation (changed to Vancouver Organizing Committee for the 2010 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games upon the successful bid).

The MPA committed each of the levels of government involved in the bid processes to a working relationship, and contained contractual agreements for issues ranging from financial contributions, legal processes and responsibilities, and the sport legacies directorates of the Games that were established in both Vancouver and Whistler. Drawing from the experiences of past Games, in particular the 2000 Sydney Summer Games, the establishment of the MPA was designed to demonstrate the high level of commitment that each of the governing bodies had to the successful staging of the Olympic Games. Other stakeholders not part of the agreement also played a role, albeit to a lesser degree in the various decision-making mechanisms. These organisations included the Four Host First Nations Partners, the City of Richmond, the 2010 Legacies Now society, the Canadian Foundation for Cross-Cultural Dialogue, and the Fédération des francophones de la Colombie-Britannique.

The Vancouver Bid Committee campaigned on a platform pledging sustainability in all aspects of the event, including venues, environment, and legacy. As a way to address the concerns coming from opposition groups and concerned citizens, and to ensure a positive outcomes of the Games, 2010 Legacies Now was created as a non-profit arms-length philanthropic group working alongside the bid and organising committee to ensure a positive legacy from the Games. The aim of the group was to work in partnership with community organisations, non-government organisations, the private sector, and all levels of government to develop sustainable legacies in sport and recreation, healthy living, arts, literacy, accessibility, and volunteerism. Further, this organisation sought to actively assist communities in discovering and creating social and economic opportunities leading up to and beyond the 2010 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games. From 2000–2011, Legacies Now developed and supported more than 12,000 community programs across the province of British Columbia. This organisation, which was primarily funded through the provincial government, leveraged the excitement of the Games to increase access to literacy, sport, healthy living, and other opportunities. Many of these programs continue to operate as legacies of the Games, now managed by partner organisations through the province and in local communities. Following the Games, Legacies Now transitioned into a non-profit organisation called LIFT philanthropy, which continues to use the momentum of the Olympic and Paralympic Games to help non-profit organisations improve their social impacts. This is one example that is demonstrative of the wide reaching community connections and partnerships that were created as a result of hosting the Games.

**Pursuing major/large sports events: the city of Edmonton**

Edmonton is the capital and largest city in the province of Alberta with a metropolitan population of 1,159,869 over 684.37 km², making it one of the largest cities, by area, in North America. It also has one of the lowest population densities of any major North American City. Unlike many cities around the world that have seen declines in, or the relocation of, manufacturing, Edmonton’s industrial economy continues to flourish. Economic growth continues in manufacturing, business services, and advanced technologies.

Canadian cities are typically characterised by non-partisan politics; however, it should be noted that the province of Alberta is dominated by a right wing Conservative government. Seventeen separate cities, towns, and counties make up Edmonton’s metropolitan area. In the city of Edmonton, the largest municipality, elections are held every three years for a mayor and councillors who represent each of the 12 wards. The city council appoints a city manager, which serves for a negotiated length of time and manages the day-to-day operation of city government. Typically, the city manager is a
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Relatively influential political position. There is no metropolitan regional government, but appointed boards, such as the Capital Health Authority, provide some services on a regional basis.

While Edmonton has a strong economic position, particularly in the manufacturing and commodities sectors, the city has also focused heavily on increasing its service economy. In particular, ventures such as West Edmonton Mall—the largest shopping mall in North America—and the use of sport, arts, and culture to boost tourism have become central to Edmonton's economic growth strategy. The city hosts a multitude of major arts, cultural, and sports festivals and events every year. It is known as Canada’s Festival City, due to the abundance of recurring festivals, including North America’s largest alternative theatre event, the Edmonton International Fringe Festival, and Canada’s premiere folk festival, the Edmonton Folk Music Festival (Edmonton Festival City 2004).

Edmonton also has a self-proclaimed tagline of the ‘City of Champions’ for its long history of successful professional and amateur sports teams and the resiliency of its citizens during times of hardship. The Edmonton Grads women’s basketball team were the first sports dynasty to win acclaim for the city. Between 1915 and 1940, the Grads played 522 games across Canada and throughout the United States and Europe, against men’s and women’s teams. The Grads won 502 games, including Western Canadian championships, Canadian championships, and Olympic exhibition games. The Grads also represented Canada at four consecutive Olympic Games from 1924 to 1936. Since that time, the city has been host to professional hockey, football, baseball, lacrosse, and soccer teams at one time or another throughout its history. The city began its run of hosting major sports events with the 1978 Commonwealth Games and soon after hosted the 1983 World University Games. More recently Edmonton has hosted a range of sporting events, including the 2001 International Association of Athletics Federations [IAAF] World Championships, the 2007 Fédération Internationale de Football Association [FIFA] Under-20 World Cup Canada, the 2007 and 2013 CN Canadian Open Women’s Golf Championship, the 2012 International Ice Hockey Federation World Junior Hockey Championships, and will serve as a host city for the 2015 FIFA Women’s World Cup. These events have been central to the city's tourism development strategies.

Constituencies in and around the city have often elected Liberal Members of Parliament (MPs), despite the fact that the rest of the province of Alberta has remained a Conservative stronghold. Despite the apparent political discord between the city and the province, and the provincial and federal governments, the city has succeeded in securing support from both the provincial and federal governments for many of its sporting events. For example, the federal government put forth CDN$40 million, which was matched by the province of Alberta, for the hosting of the 2001 IAAF World Athletic Championships.

The Edmonton Economic Development Corporation2 (EEDC) was formed in 1993 ‘to promote a strong, diversified economy and tourism base in Greater Edmonton’ (EEDC 2005). The development of this group brought together four economic development organisations: Edmonton Economic Development Authority, Edmonton Research Park Authority, Edmonton Convention and Tourism Authority, and Edmonton Convention Centre Authority in order to bring some focus and consistency to economic growth and development in Edmonton. The organisation’s purpose is to attract and retain growth and development opportunities to the Edmonton service area. EEDC is a not-for-profit company, marketing Edmonton to the world on behalf of the City of Edmonton. EEDC is responsible for regional economic development, regional tourism marketing, the Shaw Conference Centre and the Edmonton Research Park. EEDC reports to a 15-person Board of Directors appointed from both the private and public sectors by Edmonton City Council.

(EEDC 2005)
Formally, this organisation has historically not had a specific strategic plan focusing on the use of sporting opportunities for growth and development. However, they have been heavily involved in the retention of professional franchises, and the acquisition of major sporting events in the city. For example, in 1998 EEDC took a leadership role in assisting to keep the National Hockey League Edmonton Oilers franchise in the city. The corporation helped to coordinate the emergence of local investors, The Edmonton Investors Group Ltd., and assisted the group in submitting an offer to the Alberta Treasury Branch to receive funds to purchase the hockey team. In addition, EEDC managed the Edmonton Oilers Forever Fund, as well as the Stay Oilers Stay community campaign. The organisation has also played a part in bidding for, acquiring, and staging almost all of the major sporting events that have been held in Edmonton.

Despite EEDC’s role in growth and development initiatives in the city, until more recently it appeared that most events were brought to the city through the impetus of a few strategic players, without much planned coordinated efforts (Mason et al. 2004). The city has now developed a more strategic approach to acquisition of sporting and cultural events in the city. In 2004, Edmonton Tourism hired a Coordinator of Cultural and Sports Events, and in 2005 Edmonton Events International (EEI) was formed. This organisation is a mix of community expertise from both the public and private sector that dedicates itself “to positioning Edmonton as one of the world’s most desirable event host cities” (EEI 2005). The mission of this group was to strengthen Edmonton’s international image, create a solid collection of events, maintain a group of expertise devoted to a common vision of growth and development, and provide opportunities that strengthen Edmonton’s cultural and sporting community. The group has since reorganised as the Event Attraction department part of the EEDC. The office of the city manager recently developed a long-term events strategy to attract international or major events that will support the goals of economic development and building resident civic pride. Several stakeholder partnership groups have been identified in the development of the strategy, including (but not limited to) the EEDC, the Government of Alberta, the Government of Canada, the University of Alberta, Edmonton Sports Council, and Edmonton Arts Council. In addition to being selected as a host city for the 2015 FIFA Women’s World Cup Final Tournament, the city will host the 2014 International Triathlon Union Grand Final and is considering pursuing a bid for the 2022 Commonwealth Games, pending funding agreements with the provincial and federal governments (Stasynec 2012). Through 2014, the City’s Edmonton Events arm now partners with the EEDC (also branded as Edmonton Economic Development) to attract events. In doing so, Edmonton has developed a more organised and sophisticated means of targeting and attracting multiple events, using a streamlined event hosting program developed and implemented by these development partners.

Hosting policy of a small city: the city of Kamloops ‘tournament capital of Canada’ and 2011 Western Canada Summer Games

To examine stakeholder coordination of regional-level sporting events, we now examine Kamloops, British Columbia, Canada. Kamloops has been actively pursuing the hosting of sporting events as part of their economic development strategy for nearly 30 years. The city of Kamloops offers a unique example of a city choosing to pursue an event hosting policy as a key strategic component of their broader community and economic development planning. The case will not focus solely of the hosting of one event but speak to the ongoing development of local event policy.

In 1985, a group of local citizens recognised that Kamloops should capitalise on the many sporting events that were already taking place in the city. The citizens approached a City Councillor with their proposal, who requested that the municipal government explore the concept.
The resulting report stated that Kamloops could indeed be considered a ‘Tournament City’, citing the city’s location, amenities, climate, and strong history of civic organisation and governance that would allow for the successful organisation of future sports events (Kujat 1989). City Council accepted the report’s recommendations and on 11 July 1985, the Mayor and Provincial Tourism Minister signed a proclamation making Kamloops the ‘Tournament Capital of British Columbia.’ City Government then developed a program administered through the city’s Recreation, Parks, and Tourism Development department to support the attraction and development of sports events. Initially, the program had two key elements. One was a marketing component, which provided promotional videos and brochures to prospective event organisers and visitors, and a tournament package, containing items such as maps, pens, and coupons for use with local businesses. The second offered a grants program available to tournament organisers. This focus helped the city win the rights to host the 1993 Canada Summer Games in 1989, just four years after the inception of the program.

By 2001, the attraction of sports events became a key policy for the City Government; to further this development, City Council then declared Kamloops to be the ‘Tournament Capital of Canada’ and expanded the program in support of this goal. The aims of the expanded program included: attracting visitors and spending to Kamloops; facilitating the development of local sport organisations; enhancing health and wellness through participation in sport, volunteerism, and physical activity; encouraging civic pride and community spirit; and facilitating the development of high performance athletes/coaches (City of Kamloops 2004).

To provide the necessary infrastructure to support the program, and with the goal of facilitating growth of the sport tourism industry, Kamloops City Council held a referendum in November 2003, requesting permission to borrow CAD$37.5 million to be used for new and renovated athletic facilities. After the referendum passed, the City Government negotiated with the provincial and federal governments to secure the additional funding needed to complete the project. The primary facility built was the Tournament Capital Centre, which houses an Olympic-length pool, an artificial turf field for soccer, track, and field facilities, a training centre, and a gymnastics centre. In addition to that facility, the city is also home to seven ice arenas, including the Interior Savings Centre, a 6,400 seat arena built in the downtown core, which houses a Western Hockey League (WHL) franchise.

Successful sport event hosting strategies employed by municipal governments need to serve the interests of local constituent groups as these initiatives draw and depend on the resources the residents provide. In the case of the City of Kamloops and the local governments’ strategy to attract sporting events as a means of economic development, the necessary sporting facilities and other event-related infrastructure all come at a cost to taxpayers and impact the local environment. As a result, the municipal government must take into consideration the needs and wants of the community when developing their sport tourism strategic plan. As Murphy (2013: 16) stated:

The product and image that intermediaries package and sell is a destination experience, and as such creates an industry that is highly dependent on the goodwill and cooperation of host communities . . . It is the citizen who must live with the cumulative outcome of such developments and needs to have greater input into how his community is packaged and sold as a tourist product.

Goals for sport-based development should be integrated into the overall community objectives, as they represent just one segment of the overall economy. Murphy (1983: 182) summarised this goal by stating that: ‘for tourism in advanced economies the goals should be a subset of the overall community objectives since it represents but one of several activities within most local economies.’
In 2011, the City hosted the Western Canada Summer Games (WCSG). The event was held over a two-week period (5 August to 14 August 2011) and included 2300 competitors in 19 sports, hosted in 11 venues throughout the city. The WCSG are held every four years, in a rotation between the Canadian Western Provinces and Territories. The aim of the tournament was to offer athlete development for amateur athletes aged 13 to 23 in hopes of progressing to national level competition.

The organisation and staging of the event relied heavily on the support of volunteers serving in various roles from the members of the organising committee, to food service, security, and general festival support. There were approximately 2,100 volunteers involved in staging the event. The local government established a board of directors to oversee the event, while liaisons from other key stakeholder groups, such as the business community and provincial sport organisations, were appointed.

There was a community culture component to hosting the event, which included artistic and cultural activities such as daily displays in a local park and musical performances held each evening. In October 2011, the Western Canada Games Organisation announced that a prominent feature of the event’s legacy plan was the hosting of a biennial sporting competition, the ‘Kamloops Legacy Performance Games,’ a multisport event for athletes across Western Canada and the Pacific Northwest. The event is run by the municipal sport council, and is in part funded by the 2011 WCSG Legacy Fund. The aim of the Games was to continue sport and athlete development in Kamloops, while continuing to support growing the local sport tourism industry and the tournament hosting initiative of city council.

As evidenced by this edited collection, the hosting of sporting events is of interest, and concern, to a variety of stakeholders in cities of all sizes. This particular case has shown a small city that has not simply engaged in a ‘one off’ event strategy; rather, Kamloops has adopted a systematic policy to leverage the hosting of sports events to support economic development, further the local tourism agenda, and improve the quality of life of residents.

Role of the stakeholder group

As a key stakeholder in the staging of sports events, local governments contribute in a variety of ways. This section will focus on two key roles of the local government in producing a sports event, the management of resident concerns and the development and implementation of legacy plans. It will also highlight the complexity of the event hosting environment and the impacts of other stakeholder groups on local government.

Management of resident concerns

There are many reasons why a resident or community group may or may not support the staging of a sports event in a community. For example, residents who benefit – in the form of employment and/or increased business revenue – from the increase in visitors related to the event may be more inclined to support hosting than those who do not receive those benefits (Fredline 2004). Similarly, locals who derive a benefit through the use of recreation facilities developed to host an event have been found to be more supportive of event hosting (Allen et al. 1993). However, that is not to say all those who benefit from the event will support the hosting of a sporting event in their community, and all those who do not benefit will protest the hosting an event.

Resident concerns and related protests to hosting an event could be caused or exacerbated by the use of the hosting of a sporting event, particularly mega-events, for regeneration purposes (e.g. 2012 London Summer Olympic Games, 2010 Delhi Commonwealth Games, 2002
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Manchester Commonwealth Games). A regeneration strategy can create additional tensions with marginalised groups in the host community, especially those displaced to construct infrastructure or who become the focus of job creation or health promotion plans.

For example, the 2010 Vancouver Olympics took place in several municipalities that included traditional shared territories with Aboriginal peoples. During the bidding and preparation stage, the Vancouver Organizing Committee (VANOC) stressed the inclusive nature of the Games. Whilst VANOC established a formal relationship with the Four Host First Nations, providing a platform for cultural inclusion in Olympic programming and the pursuit of specific economic objectives, the agreement and resulting partnership were largely criticised and its aim of improving relations between Aboriginal and non-Aboriginal peoples in British Columbia was questioned (Silver et al. 2012).

Resulting protests and other forms of activism took place across the City of Vancouver and other host municipalities to highlight the social injustices against Aboriginal peoples and poverty of their communities. Responding to and managing the protests groups was the responsibility of the Vancouver City Government and other affected municipalities, even though it may not have been a direct decision or action of the local government that caused the negative reaction in the community.

Compounding this situation was the fact that the marginalised populations most impacted by the 2010 Vancouver Olympics were living in the Vancouver Downtown Eastside – a community that has been reported to be the ‘poorest postal code in Canada’ (Downtown Eastside Community Monitoring Report 2000), where average incomes are substantially lower than in the rest of the city, illegal drug trade and street prostitution are highly visible, and the HIV infection rate is high. In spite of these challenges, the community is recognised as having a long tradition of action and activism (Culhane 2003). The Downtown Eastside Residents Association (DERA), established in 1973, is one of the largest and most successful community organisations in Canada and serves as an influential actor in the promotion of social housing advocacy, community support programs, and services (Sommers and Blomley 2002, Downtown Eastside Residents Association 2013). These community groups had longstanding ties to, and relationships with, local government. This also serves as an example of the influence that other stakeholders, such as the Organising Committee, can have on the ability of others trying to stage the event and manage the concerns of the residents.

Development and implementation of legacy plans

Legacy is believed to be the post-event or long-term economic, social, and/or environmental outcomes realised from hosting an event (cf. Ritchie 2000, Gratton and Preuss 2008). Several scholars have attempted to define and conceptualise legacy (Cashman 2003, 2006, Preuss 2007; Preuss (2007: 211) proposed the following definition: ‘irrespective of the time of production and space, legacy is all planned and unplanned, positive and negative, tangible and intangible structures created for and by a sport event that remain longer than the event itself.’

Despite being challenging to define, legacy has become a focal point in the discourse of sport event hosting. Within the literature, there are examples suggesting positive legacies such as urban regeneration and tourism development (Gratton et al. 2005); however, there is also evidence suggesting that event hosting is detrimental to local communities and economies (Searle 2002). The mixed outcomes associated with hosting an event signify challenges in creating and implementing legacy plans.

The challenge of implementing and monitoring of an overall legacy plan can be complicated by the creation of multiple legacy plans by event stakeholders. For example the 2014
Commonwealth Games, hosted by the City of Glasgow, Scotland, identified six key legacy themes – prosperous, active, inclusive, accessible, green, and international; meanwhile, the Government of Scotland (2013) developed another legacy plan, which has four themes – flourishing, active, connected, sustainable. While the legacy planning of the Government of Scotland will encompass all citizens and communities throughout the country, not just the City of Glasgow, there will still be collaboration and potential overlap with the planning undertaken by the City of Glasgow. That could lead to potential duplication of programs and challenge the evaluation of the implemented legacy programs. However, it does raise an important consideration as to who should oversee the planning of an event’s legacy and begs the question: How can the creation of multiple legacy plans for one event be managed effectively? While the role of the local government may be to implement legacy programs in the community, their decision-making authority may be diluted if the program is resulting from federal or provincial policy.

As cities pursue the trend of event-led regeneration (Smith 2012), the hosting of mega events can be conceptualised as a phase of long-term urban regeneration planning (Stevenson 2013). This creates a complex environment comprised of various stakeholder roles and interests, which are attempting to leverage the hosting of an event for the development physical (e.g. infrastructure) and non-physical (e.g. civic pride) of local amenities.

Research examining local government involvement in bidding for and hosting sports events has focused on the potential impacts received by the local community (Misener and Mason 2006, Bull and Lovell 2007). These have been typically examined along two lines – the tangible and intangible benefits communities receive (Wicker et al. 2012). Scholars from the fields of sport management, tourism, political science, geography, and urban studies have all examined the role of this stakeholder from different perspectives (cf. Brindley 2000, Burbank et al. 2001, Chalip and Leyns 2002, Gold and Gold 2008). This has included the manner through which stakeholders mobilise to garner support for events, how the media shape public opinion on the value of hosting (Carey et al. 2011), and measuring the value of hosting on the community post event (Collins et al. 2009, Ritchie et al. 2009).

Conclusion and future research directions

As we continue to witness an increase in the number of local governments around the world pursuing sport event hosting as a means to meet broader economic and social goals, it is imperative that researchers continue to investigate this phenomena. There are several areas of research which we feel warrant future attention.

First, as discussed in the previous section, the management of resident concerns is a key function of the local government in the organisation of a sporting event. Lorde et al.’s (2011) study of Barbadians’ perceptions of the impacts of hosting the 2007 Cricket Council Cricket World Cup concluded with the recommendation that there needs to be a greater level of engagement with local residents and the event organisations by the local government prior to hosting an event to maximise benefits and minimise costs. This area should be explored further to examine how or if this is currently occurring, and if not, how could this consultation phase be better operationalised prior to a community hosting an event.

Cities are now collaborating with regional neighbours to host events; examples within the case study included the City of Edmonton, who co-hosted the 2012 IIHF World Junior Hockey Tournament with the City of Calgary and the partnership between the City of Vancouver and the Municipality of Whistler to host the 2010 Winter Olympic Games. Therefore, future research should focus on the study of the event policy community, particularly examples of regional collaboration of local governments to host events. Developing an understanding of how policy
decisions relating to the event hosting and use of resources occur in these hosting collaborations would have significant implications for policy makers and local stakeholders.

Dredge and Jenkins (2007: 275) suggested the politics of place needs to be investigated to identify if a lack of collaboration emanates from power struggles between the various actors in the policy community, who the beneficiaries of events in the region are, and what these beneficiaries get from the events. Such research would also provide greater explanation as to why and how event policy has been developed and why some policy focuses on sponsoring events or the structure of an event, while other policy focuses on enabling events to be catalysts for the implementation of a government’s vision for community growth.

In recent years, the benefits of hosting a mega-event for cities with global or world status has been greatly debated. Given the argument that global cities do not gain from the hosting of a mega-event, why do they continue to compete to host these events? An examination of the perceptions of the local government leaders would be beneficial to determine what their motivations for pursuing the hosting of a mega-event and if there was any significant external influence in their decision making process.

Finally, legacy planning is not the sole preserve of mega-events; communities of various sizes hosting different types of events are now developing strategies to capitalise on the positive externalities associated with hosting. As the concept of legacy has been a critical component of event hosting, it would be beneficial to explore how legacy plans are evaluated and monitored. The development of a legacy plan requires evaluation throughout the event lifecycle (Matheson 2010); identifying targets and methods for measurement in a coherent strategy will maximise legacy benefits before, during, and after the event (Taylor and Edmondson 2007). The further development of a framework or a model for evaluation would be a useful tool for policy makers to assess if the stated objectives of the plan are being achieved.

Suggested readings


Notes

1 There has been significant tension around the involvement of First Nations communities as a political entity in this process. A national policy has not been developed that recognizes First Nations as an official political institution in the governance process within Canada. For a more detailed analysis of this process in relation the 2010 Olympic Games, see Obanswain (2010).

2 The organisation was formed in 1993 was originally named Economic Development Edmonton (EDE). The organisation emerged as EEDC in May 2004.

References


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