

SPORT EVENT TOURISM ORGANIZATIONS AND RESILIENCE THEORY: A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

JANICE [HEMMONSBEY](#)  AND BRENDON [KNOTT](#) 

Sport Management Department, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, Cape Town, South Africa

The growing sport event tourism sector generates substantial socioeconomic impacts for host destinations. However, the COVID-19 pandemic significantly impacted this industry, resulting in a dramatic decline in international tourist arrivals of 20–30% globally and the cancellation/postponement of sport tourism events. An emerging topic within organizational management theory is that of “resilience,” which relates to how organizations proactively adapt to and recover from disturbances in the system. This study therefore aimed to determine existing applications of resilience theory to the sport event tourism industry to assess its usefulness for these organizations as they seek to recover from COVID-19. This article focuses on the first stage of this study, reflecting the findings of a systematic literature review of articles relating to sport event tourism and organizational resilience ($N = 164$). A qualitative analysis revealed the lack of application of this theory to this sector. A deeper analysis revealed the unique industry challenges and opportunities relating to organizational resilience for sport event tourism in times of global crises. The study extends the conceptualization and application of resilience theory to the sport event tourism field of study. Drawing from this theory, it informs sport event tourism best practice in terms of preparedness for future crises and outlines an agenda for further research in this field.

Key words: Organizational resilience; Crisis management; Sport event tourism; COVID-19; Responsiveness

Introduction and Background

Globally, sport tourism is one of the fastest growing industries of tourism, with an estimated worth of \$600 billion, before the COVID-19 pandemic (World Travel Market [WTM], 2017). Economic

activities, especially from major sport events such as Olympic Games and World Cups, remain the foremost feature of sport tourism development (Francis & Murphy, 2007).

Pigeassou (2004) described sport tourism as an “economic and social activity at the crossroads of

Address correspondence to Janice Hemmonsbej, Sport Management Department, Cape Peninsula University of Technology, CPUT Bellville Campus Technology way Food Science & Technology Building, Bellville South Industrial, Cape Town, 7530 South Africa.
E-mail: hemmonsbej@cput.ac.za

sport and tourism” (p. 287). Weed and Bull (2004), however, posited that the links between sport and tourism diversify far beyond tourism and economic development associated with sport events and the heterogeneity of sport-related travel should be incorporated in the study of sport tourism. To this end, Gibson (2005) offered an enduring definition for the overlapping niche area of “sport tourism,” recognizing three distinct areas, namely: the participation in physical activities (active sport tourism); watching/spectating physical activities (event sport tourism); and visiting attractions associated with physical activities (nostalgia sport tourism).

The ongoing COVID-19 pandemic, much like previous crises and disasters such as the terrorist attacks of September 11 (2001); the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) epidemic (2003); Bird flu or H1N1 (Swine flu) in 2009; Middle East Respiratory Syndrome (MERS) (2012), and the Ebola outbreak (2013–2014), as well as other financial, natural, or political emergencies, has exposed the vulnerability of the sport event tourism industry to disasters. However, unlike many of these previous crises, the COVID-19 pandemic has been unprecedented in the modern era, in terms of its global reach and sustained impact on travel and sport events (Dias et al., 2022; Hodeck et al., 2021).

The 21st century has experienced several pandemics that threatened the sport tourism industry (Gössling et al., 2020). The recent, and ongoing, pandemic experienced is COVID-19. Initially defined by WHO as an epidemic, the SARS outbreak saw the most cases in China and Hong Kong, with some clusters in Taiwan and in Canada (Siu & Wong, 2004). From a tourism perspective, SARS had adverse impacts on the overall Hong Kong economy with a short-term decline in travel and tourism. Naturally, the effects extended towards sport-related travel and activities. Siu and Wong (2004) reported an overall estimated global economic cost of \$100 billion, and \$48 billion in China alone. While the Swine flu is considered a pandemic, this had comparatively mild effects and resulted in approximately 284,000 deaths globally (Viboud & Simonsen, 2012). The effects of SARS on the tourism industry in Mexico suggested a loss of 1 million international visitors, which translated into losses of approximately \$2.8 billion (Gössling et al., 2020).

Both Ebola and MERS were still active at the onset of COVID-19. Ebola has particularly been recognized to create wider uncertainty and negative reputational damage for affected African nations (Maphanga & Henama, 2019). Fan et al. (2018) noted that both the Ebola and MERS epidemics were significant in raising awareness of the threat of global epi-/pandemics, but from a health security perspective, these types of pandemics have revealed gaps in the investment and adequate preparation of nations against future pandemics.

Nevertheless, there has been no pandemic of the magnitude of COVID-19 since the Spanish flu of 1919—a global health pandemic of the 20th century that resulted in the extreme mortality of approximately 40 million people worldwide (Barro et al., 2020). Due to the growth of the sport, tourism, and event sectors in recent decades, the current pandemic has presented unprecedented negative impacts and uncertainty for the sport event tourism industry, compared to other epidemics of the 21st century. While the aforementioned crises’ effects were geographically concentrated and their impacts on international tourism did not exceed 4%, the COVID-19 pandemic presented wider, global, and greater consequences. In a matter of months, some destinations shifted from mass tourism to no tourism (Gössling et al., 2020).

For example, the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2020a) estimated a decline of 20% to 30% in global international arrivals in 2020, which can be translated to a loss of approximately \$450 billion in international tourism revenue due to the COVID-19 pandemic. This amounts to almost one third of the global tourism receipts (a US\$1.5 trillion industry). Furthermore, the number of scheduled flights worldwide decreased by 50% from August 2019 to August 2020, resulting in a direct loss of at least \$1.2 trillion (Statista, 2020a). Most sport tourism events in 2020 were canceled or postponed (Hemmonsby et al., 2021), with the loss of global sport revenue estimated at \$60 billion for 2020 alone (Statista, 2020b).

Moreover, sport was generally possible during previous crises issued by the World Health Organization, and even mega-events like the 2010 Winter Olympics in Vancouver and the FIFA World Cup in South Africa during the H1N1 pandemic could take place, ergo global sport event tourism was not

significantly affected (McCloskey et al., 2020). The onset of the COVID-19 pandemic in March 2020 saw some major sporting events being postponed or canceled, while other events uniquely adapted their event formats to include digital technologies through electronic sports (esports) platforms with the National Association for Stock Car Auto Racing (NASCAR) being the first to develop the eNASCAR iRacing Pro Invitational Series Race (Majumdar & Naha, 2020). Ke and Wagner (2022) further illustrated inclusions of virtual fan engagements at major sport events via creative online and offline digital screens through broadcasting (see Ke & Wagner, 2022). In both cases, sport event organizers utilized opportunities to harness creative user-generated content from the event while remaining relevant. Elsewhere, Davis (2022) cited “at home” formats of a Professional Darts Corporation (PDC) tournament, which mainly aimed at retaining fan interactions and engagement while capitalizing on media coverage and broadcasting. Notwithstanding these adaptations to events and tournaments, professional leagues and amateur and popular sports remained adversely affected over a 2-year period.

Despite its inherent vulnerability, the sport event tourism industry has displayed significant recoveries in the face of past predicted and unpredicted disruptions, which indicates a level of inherent industry resilience (Kennelly, 2022). Yet, with the unprecedented impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the global industry, it is too early to predict the resilience and recovery of this sector to pre-pandemic levels.

It is from the view of the seismic impact of COVID-19 on the sport tourism industry that Dias et al. (2021) advocated for the study into strategies and policies for recovery of this new, unusual context. Within recent organizational management literature, such strategies and policies have drawn on “resilience” theory. This study therefore aimed to conceptualize the application of resilience theory for the sport event tourism sector. Specifically, this article reflects on the initial focus of the study: to determine existing applications of resilience theory to the sport event tourism industry, in order to assess the theory’s usefulness for these organizations as they seek to recover from the COVID-19 pandemic.

Literature Review

Resilience Theory and its Application for Sport Event Tourism

In its simplest form, resilience refers to the capacity of a system to quickly resume its critical functions that were affected by disasters (Boin & Lodge, 2016). The organizational management literature on resilience identifies “proactive,” “absorptive/adaptive,” “reactive,” or “dynamic” attributes of resilience (Boin et al., 2010; Boin & Lodge, 2016; Hadi & Supardi, 2020). Boin et al. (2010) defined resilience as “the capacity of a social system (e.g., an organisation, city, or society) to proactively adapt to and recover from disturbances that are perceived within the system that fall outside the range of normal and expected disturbances” (p. 2).

Resilience theory has recently been referenced within tourism literature (e.g., Baraero-era & Del Rosario, 2020). As a result, the authors proposed its application for the sport event tourism sector. Although the sport, event, and tourism industries are somewhat distinct fields, they are also deeply connected and significantly interrelated. Not only do sport events inherently attract tourists in the form of participants and spectators (Higham & Hinch, 2018), but sport events themselves are conceptualized as tourist attractions (Hinch & Ito, 2018). Moreover, the sport tourism product is intrinsically linked to the destination in which travel and tourism takes place (Shipway, 2018). Despite the advances in sport tourism knowledge, sport and tourism are generally still studied as isolated fields, which creates a considerable knowledge gap in the context of sport tourism resilience (Shipway, 2018).

According to Higham and Hinch (2018), the sport tourism field is evidently at an early and descriptive stage with still a considerable amount of work to be done to shape both research agendas and future directions, most notably in respect to developing resilience. As such, researchers like De Milliano and Jurriens (2017) and Shipway and Miles (2020) particularly argued for resilience theory to bridge the gap between these fields of study.

From an industry perspective, certain sport tourism organizations, including destinations, seem to be more resilient both in their adaptability to change as well as their speed in recovery from a crisis. Considering international traveling recovery, UNWTO

(2022) reported that Europe and the Americas recorded international travel recovery figures in 2021 of 19% and 17%, respectively, compared to 2020 figures. Perhaps surprisingly, the best global improvement recorded was the Caribbean with 63%. Second to this was Southern Mediterranean Europe with 57% and Central America with 54%. Far more limited recovery figures were experienced in the regions of Central Eastern Europe (18%), North America (17%), and Africa (12%). While a degree of factors may contribute to the slow and uneven pace of recovery across world regions, such as the varying degrees of mobility restrictions, vaccination rates, and traveler confidence (UNWTO, 2022), this could also question the efficacy of recovery practices and crisis management plans from various stakeholders and organizations, including governments (Reddy et al., 2020).

Boin and McConnell (2007), later followed by Jiang et al. (2019), Alves et al. (2020), and Fitriasari (2020), introduced resilience theory as a complementary strategy to crisis management for organizations. Despite this, industry commentators still noted a lack of organizational responsiveness to policies and procedures on crisis management in dealing with global pandemics such as the COVID-19 pandemic (Gössling et al., 2020; Hemmonsby et al., 2021).

Resilience in low-chance, high-impact events (such as COVID-19) typically require government interventions under conditions of deep uncertainty (Boin et al., 2010). However, Helsloot et al. (2012) and Boin and Lodge (2016) noted that administrators and political leaders largely find it challenging to deal with the dynamics of crises and disasters of any scale. Specifically, the commonalities between Hurricane Katrina, the global financial crisis, and terrorist attacks in capital cities of the US were cited by Helsloot et al. (2012) as examples of governments failing to respond timeously and effectively to crises. In these cases, this was attributed to the failure of the president and senior political advisors to understand the nature of these crises, as well as an unclear division of responsibilities between national and federal government to manage and coordinate assignments and resources to deal with aspects of the crises (Helsloot et al., 2012).

For the reasons cited above, a common critique of governments' response to crises is that they are

characterized as fragmented, delayed, ineffective, and somewhat arbitrarily applied in hindsight to the crisis (Boin & Lodge, 2016; Hemmonsby et al., 2021). Karunarathne et al. (2021) argued for resilience to be the key imperative of all responsible parties beyond government, including hotel and restaurant managers, tour operating companies, entrepreneurs, and local tourists and residents. Adding to this multistakeholder list, and in the context of sport tourism, event organizations and sport clubs/federations, sponsors, and destination organizations should also feature in recovery plans for the entire sector (Hemmonsby et al., 2021).

Methodology

This article reflects on the first stage of a broader study of the application of resilience theory to the sport event tourism literature and industry. The primary stage aimed to identify the extent of the literature on resilience theory relevant for sport event tourism. As such, the authors conducted a systematic literature review, as per the recommendations of Tawfik et al. (2019). In line with this process, the study first validated, through a preliminary search, whether the research idea had previously been conducted in any journal, protocol, or purpose in several studies. Thereafter, search engines and databases were identified where inclusion and exclusion criteria were used to develop keywords in the searches according to the main research question.

The search protocol followed with an application of a set of predetermined keywords in journal databases as suggested by Pickering and Bryne (2014). Similar to previous systematic reviews (see Lamberton & Stephen, 2016), this research initially applied a general keyword search linked to the study's topic area. The search terms used were: "organizational resilience," "resilience theory," "sport tourism," "COVID-19," "responsiveness," and "crisis management." During this phase, all articles published prior to 2000 were excluded to maintain current relevance. From these articles, additional keywords were applied to an advanced search from the references and keywords within selected articles. These keywords were: "sports," "sports events," "tourism destination resilience," "post pandemic resilience," and "post disaster

recovery.” The keywords in shown in Table 1 were distinctly applied to obtain relevant and appropriate sources.

Due to the limited number of publications on the study’s topic area, the authors included peer-reviewed journal articles, book chapters, conference papers, and published internet articles and reports. The study followed the “protocol writing” and “abstract screening” steps as outlined by Tawfik et al. (2019). The search was set for the period 2000–2021 to include all crises of the 21st century.

In this instance, a variety of appropriate scholarly databases were selected by the researcher, with the assistance of a university librarian, which according to Pickering and Bryne (2014) can help to select appropriate keywords and databases. In order to reach the wisest possible number of relevant academic sources, the academic databases used for this study were: Scopus, Springer, Google Scholar, Elsevier (Science Direct), and the Cape Peninsula University of Technology’s Library Database (which additionally includes EbScoHost, Sports Discus, ProQuest, Wiley, Taylor and Francis, and Emerald Publishing). Table 2 indicates the number of articles that were sourced in each of these databases/publications. The highest number of articles were contributed by Google Scholar (64).

Table 1
Searched Keywords in Various Databases

Sports
Sports events
Sport tourism
Global
South Africa
Resilience theory
Tourism resilience
Tourism
Tourism destination resilience
Business resilience
Business continuity
COVID-19 pandemic
Post pandemic resilience
Destination management and resilience
Destination marketing and resilience
Crisis management
Virtual sports events
Event management
Recovery strategies/future strategies
Risk management strategies
Post disaster recovery

Table 2
Numbers of Articles per Database

Database/Publication	No. of Articles Sourced
Scopus	5
Springer	4
Google Scholar	64
Elsevier (Science Direct)	18
Ebscohost	9
Sports Discuss	11
Proquest	4
Wiley	5
Taylor & Francis	38
Emerald	9
Total	164

A total of 167 articles were downloaded and transferred to the Mendeley software system to be screened and sorted. Abstracts were screened to confirm the article’s relevance, resulting in just three duplicate articles being deleted. A final total of 164 full text articles proved to be relevant and were captured in an Excel spreadsheet for further analysis.

Abstracts (or full articles in the absence of an abstract) were subsequently analyzed and categorized to elucidate the authors, year of publication, research domain, study context, methods, key findings, and future suggestions for research. A qualitative analysis of the articles followed as suggested by Smit (2002) using a software program, Atlas.ti (version 9). Codes were deductively applied through a list of predetermined themes based on existing theory/knowledge based on the study’s research question and primary objectives. Themes were: “organizational resilience in sport tourism research,” “theoretical challenges,” “practical challenges,” “policy challenges,” “best practices of resilience,” and “proposed recommendations for organizational resilience in sport tourism.” These themes are used to discuss the findings in the following section. The systematic review flow diagram as cited by Tawfik et al. (2019, p. 2) is illustrated in Figure 1.

Results

Considering the searched keywords, the data analyses show that 62 of the sourced articles (38%) were focused specifically on the COVID-19

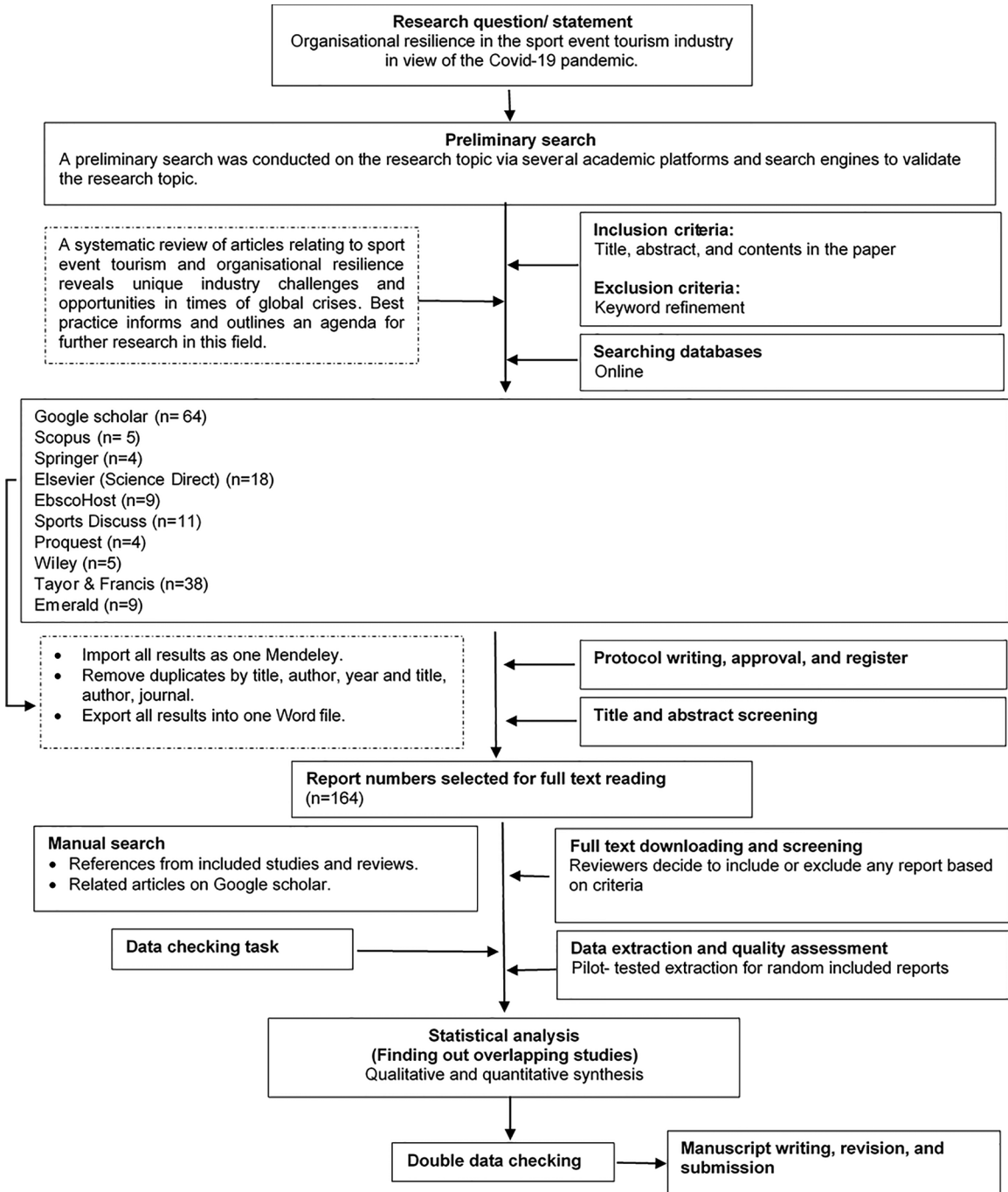


Figure 1. Systematic review flow diagram. Adapted from Tawfik et al. (2019, p. 2).

Table 3

Summary of Research on Resilience in Sport, Tourism, and Event Sectors

Research Domain and Study Context	Papers That Clearly Reflect This Domain/Context (in Chronological Order)
Business/organizational resilience:	
Crises/disasters	Dahles and Susilowati (2015); Brown et al. (2017); Filimoau and De Coteau (2020); Brousselle et al. (2020); Fransen et al. (2020); Hynes et al. (2020); Shipway et al. (2020); Lindsay-Smith et al. (2021); Biřan et al. (2021)
Major businesses	Acciarini et al. (2021)
Micro and small businesses	Păunescu and Matyus (2020)
SME (Small and medium-sized enterprises)	Biřan et al. (2021)
Tourism businesses	Bhaskara and Filimonau (2021)
Tourism in a protected area	Strickland-Munro et al. (2010)
Community sport clubs	Wicker et al. (2013)
Post-natural disaster in the tourism sector	Biggs et al. (2012)
Postpandemics/crisis	Jiang et al. (2019); Gössling et al. (2020)
Small businesses	Alves et al. (2020); Hadi and Supardi (2020); Fitriasari (2020)
Sport management	Bostock and Breese (2021)
Community resilience:	
Community based tourism	Holladay and Powell (2013); Noorashid and Chin (2021); Holladay and Méndez-lázaro (2021)
Tourism—focuses communities	Lew (2014)
Employee resilience:	
Tourism employees	Bořović et al. (2021)
Event resilience:	
Event industry	Liu-Lastres and Cahyanto (2021)
Sport event recovery strategies	Majumdar and Naha (2020); Ke & Wagner (2022); Davis (2022)
Operations and resilience:	
Tourism stakeholder views	Ranasinghe et al. (2021)
Resilience and stakeholder views:	
Tourism management	Paolo et al. (2020)
Postconflict	Buultjens et al. (2016)
Sustainability	Calgaro et al. (2014); Espiner et al. (2017)
Terrorism	Liu and Pratt (2017)
Resilience theory:	
Conceptual	Boin et al. (2010); Ruiz-Martin et al. (2017)
Planning resilience (tourism)	Strickland-Munro et al. (2010); Luthe and Wyss (2014)
Sport tourism resilience:	
Crisis/disasters	Hemmonsbey et al. (2021)
Sport clubs	Escamilla-Fajardo et al. (2021); Kennelly (2022)
International sport events	Shipway and Miles (2020)
Sport and tourism	Shipway (2018)
Leisure and hospitality industry	Khan et al. (2021)
Small-scale sport events	Vegara-Ferri et al. (2020)
Tourism resilience:	
Destination resilience and disaster management	Calgaro et al. (2014); Holladay (2018); Filimoau and De Coteau (2020); McCartney et al. (2021); Holladay and Méndez-lázaro (2021); Sharifi et al. (2021)
Postpandemic tourism behavior	Corbisiero and Monaco (2021)
Tourism and hospitality	Ntounis et al. (2021)
Tourism practices	Baraero-era and Del Rosario (2020)
Tourism resilience framework	Hall et al. (2017); Brown et al. (2017); Amore et al. (2018); Jiang et al. (2019); Sharma et al. (2021)
Travel and tourism sector	Setthachotsombut and Sua-iam (2020)
Wine tourism business framework	Alebaki et al. (2020)

pandemic (as opposed to other crises). As an indication of the recent development of this field of study, the earliest papers were published in 2010, with 53 papers (32%) published since 2019 alone. Crisis and risk management studies have been part of the sport tourism research domain since the late 20th century. However, since the early 2010s, and seminal studies such as Boin et al.'s (2010) "The rise of resilience," the concept of resilience in tourism studies has truly emerged. Fifteen articles (9%) were focused on the African context, with South Africa making up 10 (67%) of the Africa-focused papers. While the majority of these 15 articles (80%) were specifically related to COVID-19 as the crisis under investigation, the remaining articles investigated the Ebola virus and the SARS epidemic. This perhaps indicates the extent of the impact of pandemics on this region.

The full set of papers was grouped according to the research domains and study contexts listed in Table 3. The table also lists examples of papers that most clearly reflected these domains/contexts.

The following section discusses the key findings in greater depth, under themed headings. It draws out the issues of relevance to the topic and relates this to the context of sport event tourism.

Discussion

Organizational Resilience and Sport Tourism Research

The paucity in sport event tourism resilience studies as mentioned by Shipway (2018) is still evident from this systematic review. Furthermore, the overwhelming amount of literature on resilience is within the general tourism context. The bulk of these papers focuses on the context of tourism destinations (Alebaiki et al., 2020; Baraero-era & Del Rosario, 2020; Calgaro et al., 2014; Filimoau & De Coteau, 2020; Holladay, 2018; Holladay & Méndez-lázaro 2021; McCartney et al., 2021; Ntounis et al., 2021; Sharifi et al., 2021), while other areas of interest include tourism businesses (Setthachotsombut & Sua-iam, 2020), and travel and tourism behavior (Corbisiero & Monaco, 2021).

Likewise, Bostock and Breese (2021) noted that, overall, the organizational resilience literature in

sport management is in its infancy; hence, the scant literature on resilience in sport-related studies compared to tourism is evident. What is more, of the sport-related studies, there is still a neglected inclusion of the tourism component, despite Shipway (2018) discussing the importance of applying resilience to a broader body of work. For example, Escamilla-Fajaro et al. (2021) and Kennelly (2022) specifically alluded to the resilience of sport clubs in various settings amid COVID-19. Moreover, Shipway and Miles (2020) reported on the resilience of events and festivals. Vegara-Ferri et al. (2020) attempted to bridge this gap by applying small-scale sport events to sustainable sport tourism practices and future visitation, albeit their research did not explicitly focus on pandemic recovery or crisis response.

Only very recently did two papers (Bazzanella et al., 2021; Hemmonsby et al., 2021) make considerable efforts to holistically apply resilience to the sport tourism sector as they recognized the importance of resilience for sport event tourism and host destinations. It is further noted that a large number of organizational resilience studies analyzed are associated with the tourism industry, especially as it relates to crises and disasters (see Biğan et al., 2021; Brousselle et al., 2020; Brown et al., 2017; Dahles & Susilowati, 2015; Fransen et al., 2020; Hynes et al., 2020; Lindsay-Smith et al., 2021; Shipway et al., 2020).

From the papers reviewed, organizational resilience can be viewed as the structural and physical capabilities of organizations to not only overcome the disaster but also to reinvent themselves (Brown et al., 2017; Khan et al., 2021). In view of the current COVID-19 crisis, Bhaskara and Filimonau (2021) underpinned that the ability of the tourism industry to overcome this crisis will depend on the level of organizational resilience applied to its practices and policies.

A few studies on organizational resilience were conducted in post-natural disasters in the tourism sector. These studies focused on tourism businesses, and mainly the small to medium enterprises (SME). Key findings of these studies suggest that SMEs are highly flexible when reacting to high impact crises such as COVID-19 compared to larger enterprises. This is partly due to their low level of bureaucracy, limited social responsibility compliance, and their

flexible Human Resource strategies adopted (Alves et al., 2020; Biřan et al., 2021). Notably, SMEs were the worst impacted during COVID-19 due to the sudden and drastic decline in demand (Alves et al., 2020).

Moreover, of these academic articles on post-natural disasters, the imperative of a business contingency plan was critically underscored. While not alluding to a specific contingency plan, Biřan et al. (2021) cited that the priority of contingency plans is to provide measures to mitigate the impact of abnormal situations and to overcome the adverse economic effects. Fitriasari (2020) and Hadi and Supardi (2020) cited another mitigating factor for resilience among SMEs being the use of a Business Model Canvas (BMC)—a strategic tool that considers each element of the business with constant reflection, stimulating business creativity and innovation (Trimi & Berbegal-Mirabent, 2012). This tool also creates a shared “language,” supports brainstorming, team building, collaboration, and forming a structure upon which new ideas and innovations can be implemented, which supports organizational resilience (Stenn, 2019). According to Fitriasari (2020) this is a practical and appropriate contingency tool to not only survive the pandemic, but also to accelerate the economic

transformations post-COVID-19 and thus achieving “Business Resilience.”

Interestingly, an article by Wicker et al. (2013) investigated organizational resilience in a community sport club setting in view of crisis response. Under the assumption that sport organizations form part of the social make-up of the community and health sector, their research argued for organizational resilience being critical to recovery for the sport sector. They further noted the potential for high levels of resilience among community sport clubs. A study by Feiler et al. (2022) specifically on COVID-19 and the recovery of sport clubs reveals the intricacies of clubs from a membership, volunteer, and financial standpoint that makes it difficult for sport clubs to adapt their business strategies to accommodate social distancing measures and consequently remain viable. Although some sport clubs in Germany, England, and Scotland developed digital alternatives to in-person sport, memberships were still on the decline during lockdown. While such digital offerings are a start to establish capabilities and infrastructure to bridge the gap for in-person sport, it may not be an option for effective business resilient practices for all sport clubs.

Sport and tourism industries are interrelated phenomena, which reflects in their consideration

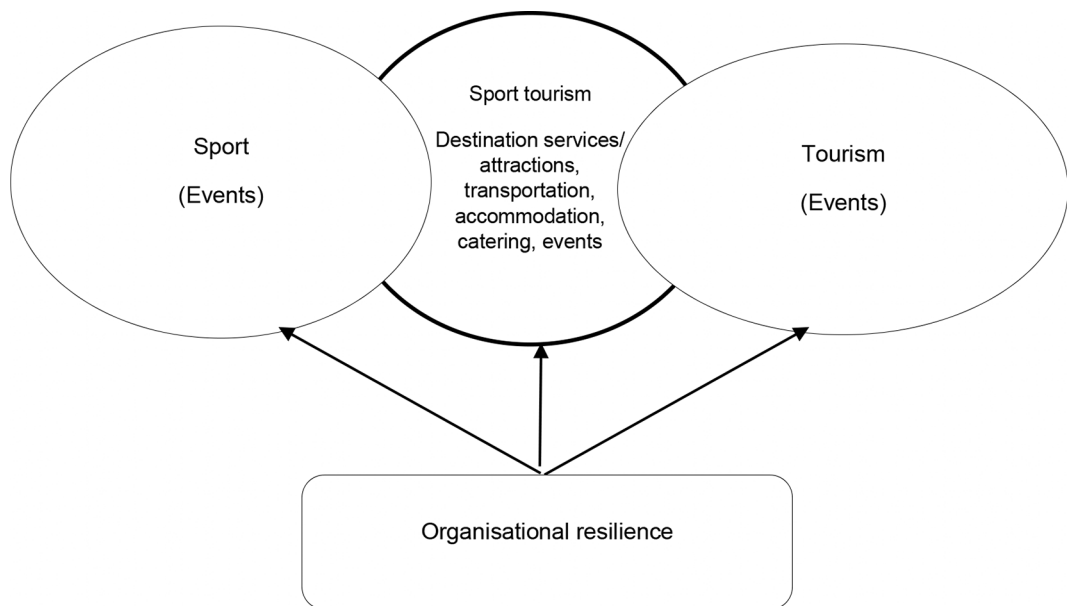


Figure 2. Interrelatedness of sport tourism and organizational resilience. Source: Authors.

to a shared multistakeholder group, including destination brand organizations (Hemmonsby & Tichaawa, 2019; Jiang et al., 2019). Sport and tourism industries share collective abilities to attract visitors to destinations and are significant role players in economic and social impacts/development (Higham & Hinch, 2018). Both industries consider travel as a key part of their core operations, especially in sport event hosting. While all forms of travel were ceased and major events canceled/postponed during the COVID-19 pandemic, the entire sport tourism sector has thus suffered from adverse effects to their organizational operations and have dealt with huge socioeconomic losses to the industry (Swart & Maralak, 2020). As organizational resilience applies to both industries respectively, it can be argued that, because of their interrelatedness, organizational resilience can be applied to the unique sport tourism system. Based on the findings, Figure 2 illustrates the interrelatedness of sport and tourism and the link to organizational resilience.

Gaps in Resilience Theory, Practice, and Policy for Sport Tourism Organizations

Theoretical Challenges. The dearth of research on resilience applied to the sport tourism sector was confirmed by this systematic literature review. In addition, it was found that most of the theoretical knowledge development concerning organizational resilience for sport and tourism was informed or created by contemporary industry practices and studied in hindsight to a particular crisis. For example, Lew (2014) pointed out that tourism resilience was observed and developed more from case studies, rather than being based on theoretical constructs. Currently, holistic frameworks that build on tourism resilience in postconflict contexts are still an emerging area in crisis management research (Hemmonsby et al., 2021; Mair et al., 2016; Reddy et al., 2020). Thus, a knowledge gap still exists in this area, particularly for constructs of preparedness and planning as part of “precrisis management.”

Conceptual frameworks on tourism resilience that have more recently appeared in the literature mostly incorporate adaptive sequence of stages to disaster recovery, sustainability, and transformation from crises (see Aldao et al., 2021; Baraeo-era &

Del Rosario, 2020; Espiner et al., 2017; Filimoau & De Coteau, 2020; Lew et al., 2020; Reddy et al., 2020). To this end, key findings of Aldao et al. (2021) and Lew et al. (2020) denoted resilience theory as the constant adaptation to change, and as a result theorized four phases of an adaptive cycle for tourism systems to adapt the COVID-19 crisis. Phase 1 recognizes the “(re)organization” of resource allocation in response to the initial shock to the travel and tourism system (i.e., travel restrictions and social/physical distancing). Phase 2 is “growth,” which involves restoring local markets, reviving the destination cultural heritage, and easing visa regulations. Phase 3 refers to “consolidation,” which aims to establish fixed institutions to bring about economic change and to stimulate sustainable tourism development. And Phase 4 is “collapse,” the failure to fix and adapt to change. However, Aldao et al. (2021) placed Phase 4 (collapse) as Phase 1 as they recognized the crisis as the “collapse of the system” (Aldao et al., 2021, p. 935) and thereafter apply (re)organizing tactics. Moreover, Aldao et al. (2021) advanced this, stating that crises affect people on an individual (resident and tourist), collective (tourism and hospitality organizations), and institutional (government and destination marketing organization) level. Accordingly, they added these three dimensions throughout the four phases of the resilience cycle to contribute to the complexity of a disruptive event in the tourism system.

Elsewhere, Baraeo-era and Del Rosario (2020) and Reddy et al. (2020) proposed a resilience cycle, named “the Holling loop,” which centers on theoretical constructs of Holling (1973), who denoted resilience theory as interdependent societal, economic, and environmental systems. Much like Lew et al.’s (2020) adaptive cycle, this Holling loop cycle starts by “reorganization” of the system after a rapid change (crisis) occur. This stage sees a renewal of societal structures such as residents, tourists, and economy. This is followed by the “exploitation” of a new system, new institutions, and new political, cultural, and social relationships, much like the consolidation phase in Lew et al.’s (2020) adaptive cycle. The next cycle is “conservation” where new structures progressively lead to new stable states and settings (institutions). Such stable states will reach the final cycle of “release,” which according to Baraeo-era and Del Rosario

(2020) leads to a rapid change of the former tourism systems. Both the adaptive cycle from Lew et al. and the “Holling loop” cycle from Baraero and Del Rosario (2020) focus on disaster recovery from a postdisaster perspective.

Preceding these resilience cycles, Filimoau and De Coteau (2020) proposed a conceptual framework that considers the context of tourism destinations and disaster management and accordingly explores the role of stakeholder collaboration as a construct to building resilient organizations. This action framework is suggested to aid in disaster planning and preparedness at a destination management level and indicates a predisaster approach to organizational resilience. While focusing on an inclusive tourism industry (i.e., tourism and hospitality), and with themes of sustainable tourism, climate action, transformation to the new global economic order, and resilience, Sharma et al. (2021) supported the consideration of key stakeholders in tourism resilience. These researchers argued that, “with the help of the resilient approach from governments, market players, technology innovators, and the workforce employed in the industry, the tourism sector may end up evolving in a much more sustainable way post-pandemic” (p. 9).

As such, Sharma et al. (2021) proposed a resilience-based framework that focuses on transformational elements such as sustainable tourism, well-being of society, mitigating climate change, and engaging local communities, which occurs from resilience to secure sustainability after the COVID-19 crisis. An application of Sharma et al.’s (2021) framework to community-based tourism was employed by Noorashid and Chin (2021) who suggested additional elements to transformation (i.e., innovating roles and practices, and the appreciation towards local products and services). These are however particularly underpinned for the community-based industry in Brunei in South East Asia.

Interestingly, Espiner et al. (2017) placed a conceptual resilience framework at the forefront of “sustainability” for tourism organizations, while none of the other conceptual models explicitly considers sustainability as a key construct of resilience. It is noted by Espiner et al. (2017) that, “while not yet explicit, it seems increasingly necessary that resilience is considered a critical component of

sustainable tourism—inherent in each of the social, economic and environmental elements of tourism development” (p. 1395). It is thus merited to consider resilience as a means to achieving sustainability from crises. From a theoretical perspective, “sustainability” can be considered as a key imperative in conceptualizing organization resilience.

Based on these findings, the development of a theoretical conceptualization of resilience for the sport event tourism sector should thus consider an evolving understanding of the term according to the complexity or phase of a crisis; incorporate resilience into organizational planning theory, and link resilience to the achievement of sustainability goals.

Practice Challenges. Considering pandemics (such as COVID-19), the vulnerability of the sport tourism industry depends on government-imposed health regulations (Thukral, 2021). Several papers reviewed revealed the dire impacts of crises for sport tourism as well as the subsequent response from governments, who assume the main responsibility for implementing measures to mitigate the impact of crises. For example, Alonso et al. (2020) cited the government-imposed lockdowns on all non-essential business, which included sport tourism organizations. Specifically, the hospitality sector had restrictions imposed by governments on businesses resulted in far-reaching impacts on hotels, restaurants, bars, and other hospitality businesses (Alonso et al., 2020). Further, the UNWTO (2020b) alluded to COVID-19-related travel restrictions and 107 countries’ closed borders led to a significant phenomenon where destinations asked their visitors to stay home and postpone their travel, while continuing to market their place brands.

Considering the stay-at-home regulation, Cooper and Alderman (2020) alluded to the swift cancellation of the NCAA division Men’s Basketball Tournament, also known as “March Madness” (an American college basketball tournament), an event that attracts mass sport tourism. Moreover, Swart and Maralack (2020) commented on the Two Oceans Marathon in Cape Town, South Africa in April 2020 to be one of the first to suffer the effects on the global marathon stage, prior to the Tokyo Marathon in February 2020. Thus,

the sport industry saw several factors, interests, and stakeholders affected by the cancellation and postponement of events (Bazzanella et al., 2021). However, the “stay at home” regulation had some major events initiating alternative event formats to minimize stakeholder effects and to retain fan/spectator following and engagements. With this goal in mind, the PDC initiated an “at home” darts tournament aimed at spectator engagement while capitalizing on international media and event sponsors (Davis, 2022). Moreover, popular events such as the NASCAR and National Basketball Association (NBA) had adapted their traditional event offerings towards the esports platform (Majumdar & Naha, 2020), while others initiated virtual fan engagements with digital screens through broadcasting (Ke & Wagner, 2022). While these examples show best practices of resilience amid a global pandemic, the complete digitization of sports and “at home” tournaments are not proven feasible to the sport tourism and traveling industry including the stakeholders of sport events. Even after the vaccine rollouts in late 2021, early 2022, the sport tourism sector was one of the last to resume normal activities globally. For example, guidelines set by the Maharashtra government in India saw restricted fan attendance at the 2022 Indian Premier League (IPL) in March–May with a 40% stadium capacity. This has further hampered the recovery of the sector.

Destinations are considered an important element of sport event tourism. However, studies by Gani and Singh (2019), Gurtner (2016), and Mair et al. (2016) called on the agenda of research to focus on destination recovery and resilience, especially as the management of tourist destinations during crises and disasters has been neglected. To this end, Mair et al. (2016) recognized that the challenges for some destinations to recover from crises are due to the damaging effects on tourism infrastructure, such as destination image and reputation, and changes in tourists’ behavior following crises and disasters. They therefore advocated for studies to inform destination practitioners both from a theoretical and practical perspective on the possible improvements to cope and deal with recovery of complex destination systems.

Challenges for industry practices with reference to governments’ response are underpinned in the literature (see Baraero-era & Del Rosario,

2020; Bhaskara & Filimonau, 2021; Ntounis et al., 2021; Păunescu & Matyus, 2020; Wicker et al., 2013). These papers point to the practice gaps, where governments struggle to absorb the shock of crises and their inability to help companies build organizational resilience. Bhaskara and Filimonau (2021) and Lindsay-Smith et al. (2021) posited the lack of an initial understanding of governments and industries to crises and disasters, which could be blamed for insufficient preparedness and the need to “improvise” when generating new sources of income. To this end, it is suggested by Bhaskara and Filimonau (2021) that tailor-made training be provided to governments and industry leaders alike, on business preparedness and recovery that will foster opportunities for knowledge exchange and organizational resilience learning on best practices in local and international tourism business, especially those prone to crises and disasters.

Ntounis et al. (2021) decried the lack of information from government about lockdown regulations provided to organizations in sport tourism, which left these organizations with unclear plans to reopen/restart. However, Bhaskara and Filimonau (2021) and Wicker et al. (2013) acknowledged the financial relief funds and incentives from government grants to the industry workforce and to aid in the recovery of organizations. Baum et al. (2020) bemoaned the inability of such government schemes to appropriately address social vulnerabilities of the workforce, in particular to the poor, minorities, women, and undocumented migrants, because of the nature their work contracts (or the lack thereof), the legal system in which they operate, or the duration of employment. This caused further job losses in the industry.

The findings of Lindsay-Smith et al. (2021) further echoed that such funds were indeed insufficient for businesses, especially the big commercial operators in the hospitality industry whose service charges are much more compared to the smaller lodges who could survive on the allocated funds from government. Thus, the context in which the business operates needs to be considered. The lack of consideration from government into the specific context of business operations then reflected governments’ misunderstanding of the diversity of the tourism industry and its operations or the extent of the losses that it had been experienced since the start of the COVID-19 pandemic.

In light of the above inconsistencies in practice, studies by Chacko and Marianne (2008), Dent et al. (2018), Hemmonsbey et al. (2021), Thukral (2021), and Yang (2020) noted governments prioritization of health and safety of the population above concerns of costs, instability, economy, and livelihoods in the form of sustaining jobs in sport and tourism. Baraero-era and Del Rosario (2020) started to examine the tourism organizational resilience practices in relation to the SARS, Ebola, and the recent COVID-19 pandemic as a basis for gaining insight and direction for best practices of the industry and government systems when recovering from crises and disasters. Their research suggests that government and industry stakeholders adopt multilevel strategies that focus on sustainability, inclusivity, adaptiveness, innovation, and transformation. More importantly, their study advocates for tourism recovery plans to center on solidarity and resilience actions from both industry and government.

Policy Challenges. The following papers emphasized the importance of policies for sport tourism organizations to move beyond crisis recovery towards a state of resilience (Acciarini et al., 2021; Bazzanella et al., 2021; Begović, 2022; Bhaskara & Filimonau, 2021; Çakar, 2018; Ćorak et al., 2020; C. M. Hall et al., 2020; Mair et al., 2016; Thukral, 2021). Almost immediately after COVID-19 was declared a global pandemic in March 2020, the global policy was to halt all non-essential services and to lockdown countries' borders for international travel, including an end to all sport-related activities and events (Bhaskara & Filimonau, 2021). Less extreme policies saw all businesses implement protective measures such as compulsory mask wearing, sanitizing, and social distancing. C. M. Hall et al. (2020) called these measures "non-pharmaceutical interventions" (NPI) and further recognized the challenge for the industry to come to terms with the extreme policy impacts for the sector.

A study by Lindsay-Smith et al. (2021) revealed the inconsistencies of government policies on COVID-19 safe practices. For instance, they noted that "national parks were completely closed to operators but not for improvement works, despite few issues maintaining social distancing" (p. 85). In the context of sport tourism events, these policies

were particularly contradictory when it came to sport spectators being allowed to travel to local and international events. For example, the 2020 Olympic Games hosted in 2021 in Tokyo, Japan and the British and Irish Lions Rugby Tour to South Africa in 2021 had empty stadiums, whereas other types of tourists (i.e., participants and medical personnel) had traveling privileges (Hemmonsbey et al., 2021). Moreover, policy decisions on event attendance were not consistent globally. None of the academic papers reviewed reported on such inconsistencies in sport tourism, with only Lindsay-Smith et al. (2021) reporting on tourism in general. Thus, such competing narratives and inconsistent applications of policy and decision making for sport tourism organizations negatively impacts the industry's resilience.

A few papers reported on existing national policies and emergency plans that were adopted by some governments to respond to and recover from various crisis situations to mitigate social and economic impacts for the tourism sector. For example, Ulak (2020) reported on the Nepal Preparedness and Response Plan (NPRP) to measure the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the tourism industry in Nepal. The NPRP was designed to prepare for responding to pandemics tactfully, to support government in preparing and responding to COVID-19, while considering mitigating factors relating to social and economic impacts, and to ensure all people have equal access to health care. Contrastingly, Yang (2020) revealed the Emergency Management (EM) strategic plan in China, which aimed at emergency response upon an event, rather than preparedness and recovery. From an implementation perspective, Yang (2020) reported that, despite this EM Plan, leaders of Wuhan were still unprepared and slow to act in the production of medical protective equipment, as well as with mitigating lockdown measures after COVID-19 broke out in March 2020. Thus, compared to the NPRP, the efficacy and sustainability of the EM Plan to the humanitarian response and crisis preparedness are questioned.

Elsewhere and more specific to tourism retention, Woyo (2021) cited the Tourism Recovery Strategy in Zimbabwe to measure perceptions of domestic travelers and tourism managers on the sustainability of using domestic tourism as strategic

responses to the impacts of COVID-19. While this strategy is a starting point, it may remain notional for Zimbabwe and other developing countries where pre-COVID-19 issues (i.e., geopolitical and socioeconomic challenges) persist (Woyo, 2021).

Notwithstanding such recovery plans, there are studies that reported on the policy gaps that may lead to plans not being fully realized (see Bhaskara & Filimonau, 2021; Ćorak et al., 2020; Mair et al., 2016). These gaps refer typically to the lack of stakeholder collaboration between tourism and disaster management policymakers and local governments, communities, and other tourism businesses (Bhaskara & Filimonau, 2021). Ćakar (2018) underpinned the imperatives of the unique coordination of collaborative initiatives to provide response to the industry, while noting that the role of both private and public, government and nongovernmental actors, is to share policymaking authority.

Contrastingly, a study by Barao-era and Del-Rosario (2020) showed the potential for tourism recovery through stakeholder collaboration of various nations in vulnerable economies of West Africa during the 2014–2015 Ebola outbreak. According to their study, West Africa called for a more integrative approach to address low source areas where there are major gaps in knowledge about the disease. While recognizing that disease outbreaks such as Ebola negatively affect the tourism growth of a destination, West Africa called on other African governments to work together, thus driven “by Pan Africanism.” This meant more capable states helping other sister nations in ending the Ebola outbreak. Such efforts demonstrated and reinforced the imperative of collaboration from governments for industry recovery and resilience.

Additionally, studies by Bazzanella et al. (2021), Blumberg et al. (2016), and Loncarevic et al. (2009) outlined key factors to consider in sport tourism risk management strategies that, if appropriately adopted in policy development around the COVID-19 pandemic, could avoid the cancellation of sport events and aid the continuation of sport tourism activities. These factors include: 1) adequate prevention and information campaigns in the months before the event; 2) effective coordination of resources and authorities who create specific crisis management committees and teams of doctors

and expert operators working 24/7 throughout the national territory; 3) an effective system of alerting and tracking travelers and athletes, operating before and during the event; and 4) precise and clear rules for the treatment of suspected and positive cases with the purpose of isolating infected people in specific and equipped areas at the event sites. To this end, it was highlighted by Vancini et al. (2016) that adequate countermeasures against the disease, correct management of delegates, including athletes, staff, and tourists, and the reports held by delegation on their daily symptoms guarantee adequate levels of safety during sport competitions.

To illustrate the effective risk assessment and management during prior sport events, papers by McCloskey et al. (2020), on the Winter Universiade in Serbia during the 2009 Influenza A (H1N1) epidemic, and by Loncarevic et al. (2009), on the African Youth Games in Botswana, the All African Games in the Republic of Congo, and the African Cup of Nations in Equatorial Guinea during Ebola, stated examples of successful major sport tourism events that have adopted the abovementioned risk assessment factors within their event planning. From a mega-event perspective, the 2016 Rio Olympic Games were threatened by the spread of the Zika virus but thanks to the preventative factors continued safely and successfully (Bazzanella et al., 2021).

Best Practices and Recommendations Proposed for Organizational Resilience in Sport Tourism

Domestic Sport Tourism and Travel. From the papers reviewed, it is noted that the sport tourism industry recovery requires a reconfiguration to include more focus on domestic traveling. At least 11 papers advocated opportunities for domestic travel as a start to industry recovery in the wake of the COVID-19 pandemic. Vegara-Ferri et al. (2020) argued that the role of domestic tourism in the postpandemic period, where international travel may still be limited, is imperative. In association with small-scale sport events, domestic tourism could be a significant mechanism in the recovery of the sport tourism sector. What is more, domestic tourism can have an impact on long-term transformation in the most resilient destinations, while responding to the demand for short- and long-term

tourist behavior (Vegara-Ferri et al., 2020). New Zealand is one of the few countries that has strictly implemented COVID-19 protocols during the last 2 years of the pandemic—one of the reasons how this country could effectively contain the spread of the virus. However, an example of New Zealand shows how domestic tourism has risen from pre-COVID-19 to during COVID-19.

A report by Yeoman et al. (2022) reflects domestic holidaying increasing from NZ\$9.5 billion to NZ\$10.9 billion for 2019 and 2021, respectively, and that 62% of New Zealanders intended to spend their saved international travel money on domestic holidays. What is more, the marketing agency responsible for marketing New Zealand to international markets had a primary focus regional destination marketing to run domestic tourism campaigns (Ketter & Avraham, 2021). However, there were limitations to domestic sport tourism where the New Zealand government had implemented strict domestic traveling (i.e., charter flights for domestic traveling, exclusive hotel floor bookings, as well as limited number of attendance—10% of the venues capacity) for the 2022 New Zealand Women's Cricket World Cup (Yeoman et al., 2022). While the restrictions on fan attendance were lifted by the International Cricket Council due to increased demand from sporting fans, the potential for strict measures to be reintroduced by the New Zealand government is plausible post-World Cup.

Avraham (2020) claimed that domestic tourism was used as a recovery strategy by North Carolina after the September 11 terrorist attacks to combat fears of air travel, security measures to traveling, increasing gas prices, and general traveling costs. This was done by turning a negative event into a positive one. For example, marketing communicating messages were strategically devised to lure domestic travelers to destinations where crises may have occurred. Such messages would include 'Discover the state that you're in' (Avraham, 2020, p. 2883). Moreover, Hawaii during the H1N1 pandemic and Florida and New Jersey post-Hurricane Sandy set out similar strategic campaigns.

Elsewhere, Woyo (2021) cited that Zimbabwe launched its tourism recovery strategy in August 2020, with a focus on promoting domestic tourism as a strategic option for building destination resilience. Linking to domestic travel and maximizing

the use of hotel establishments during SARS in China, accommodation establishments extended their services to include lower rates for high-yield corporate clients, offering life-skill programs to secondary schools, as well as hospitality and extensive language training programs offered to college teachers (Baraeo-era & Del-Rosareo, 2020). It is noted by their research that tourism resilience calls for different key stakeholders to work together at different levels towards recovery, and that the aforementioned initiatives from the hospitality sector is one that defines resilience in the context of pandemics where "the state of bouncing back" is a collective effort across a diverse set of industry partners (Baraeo-era & Del-Rosareo, 2020).

Domestic tourism remains a viable strategy during a time of crisis; however, Bhaskara and Filimonau (2021) and Corbisiero and Monaco (2021) cautioned that domestic tourism does not bring in extensive profits to sustain the industry in the long term in all countries, compared to international tourism. This is especially true where countries have been struggling to build and sustain domestic tourism pre-COVID-19. For example, for Bali, key source tourist markets are countries such as Australia, and with the borders closed, this Balinese economy relied entirely on the Indonesian government for recovery (Bhaskara & Filimonau, 2021). Likewise, Zimbabwe has always been struggling with domestic tourism due to the cost of traveling domestically. According to Woyo (2021), this has affected the success of using domestic tourism as a recovery and resilience building strategy in Zimbabwe. Notwithstanding such examples, most papers indicated that it certainly can be an optimal strategy to sustain jobs of staff at least in the short term.

Opportunity for Public and Private Collaboration. The following papers alluded to the importance of multistakeholder collaboration in sport and tourism sectors to achieving industry recovery. Çakar (2018) denoted collaborations as a partnership between industry practitioners and governments to adapt to new demands brought by crises and disasters. Acciarini et al. (2021) and Bhaskara and Filimonau (2021) cited the importance of stakeholder collaborations is to establish a shared vision, and tools and resources to achieve a collective

purpose. Klein and Todesco (2021) further indicated the imperative of multistakeholder collaborations is to improve flexibility in crises response and organizational resilience.

Uniquely, a study by Alonso et al. (2020) advocated for collaboration between the tourism industry and medical experts in the health sector. This is to disseminate knowledge on health crises, which will help the industry prepare for potential new health-related crises and avoid devastating consequences of lockdowns. Moreover, Ćorak et al. (2020) distinctively supported the collaboration between tourism scholars and tourism practitioners, which in their respective roles of knowledge and practice can help alleviate future complex global phenomena such as health crises.

Through public and private collaborations, Becker (2021) noted the opportunities for industry relief in the form of employment of the workforce and broader economic gains, especially during crisis situations. As such, Becker (2021) argued for a government tender system to be extended to private enterprises for projects linked to industry-specific knowledge and practice. To this end, governments can operate more efficiently in economic stimulation while enhancing wages and incentives to industry workforce. Moreover, this opportunity can help multiple spin-offs associated with restaurants, and domestic and retail purchases (Becker, 2021).

Conclusion and Recommendations

This article set out to examine the extent of the application of resilience theory to sport event tourism organizations, specifically aiming to identify the extent of literature on this topic in the related fields of sport and tourism. While the dearth of knowledge in this area was confirmed, the article identifies that this has remained the case despite a surge in literature on this topic in recent years in related fields. Knowledge growth in this area has been disproportionately focused on tourism in general, as opposed to sport, event, or sport event tourism fields. It appears that this has highlighted again the knowledge divide between sport tourism and tourism literature. However, this article has conceptualized the relationship between sport, tourism, sport tourism, and resilience literature, thereby affirming the connected nature of these

fields of study and highlighting the need for shared knowledge between the fields. Although sport tourism may still be considered a fairly recent field of study, it is recommended that more attention be given to the inclusion of sport tourism and events within tourism resilience studies. However, future research could adopt a multidisciplinary approach to resilience theory to strengthen the comprehension of differing literature on resilience as applied to crisis response. This will also enhance a richer theoretical and empirical understanding of the varied resilience constructs and applications within applied disciplines such as sport tourism.

While COVID-19 may be the latest and most globally significant of recent crises to affect sport tourism organizations, it is still rather surprising that more advances in crisis planning and preparedness as part of organizational resilience is under-researched. Epidemics, pandemics, and crises are certainly not new to the industry, although they may not have been as globally impactful or as severe as the COVID-19 pandemic. This article therefore calls for the global sport event tourism industry to pay attention to the lessons learned from previous crises, as well as emergent knowledge from the current pandemic, to mitigate future risks for the sector. It is imperative for sport tourism organizations to include these learnings in their preparedness and planning, considered as “precrisis management.” This article has advanced the understanding of the relationship between crisis management and resilience theory, through identifying the chronological development and emergence of resilience theory.

The article has identified several practical lessons, implications, and tools for resilience mitigation through planning and preparedness. This is equally applicable to SMEs, larger organizations, as well as government or public sector authorities. Public sector sport tourism organizations, which have been blamed by the industry for a lack of understanding and insufficient preparedness relating to COVID-19, are especially well-placed to influence future policy, planning, and preparation for resilience. The literature strongly calls for existing national policies and emergency plans to be reviewed and to incorporate a greater consultation between private and public, government and non-governmental actors. It is also evident that these plans should emphasize a consistent approach for

the global sport tourism sector and the sharing of best practices across global sport tourism events.

Based on this theoretical review and deeper conceptualization of the relationship between resilience theory and the sport tourism industry, this study will aim to determine industry stakeholder experiences during the COVID-19 pandemic. This will aim to develop the application of resilience theory further within this field and connect the conceptualization with industry practice and policy development.

At the time of writing, the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic remain a constraint and continue to create uncertainty for much of the global sport tourism sector, particularly in the Far East nations. While the literature only speculates exactly what resilience for the sport tourism sector in the short term may look like, this article advocates that, regardless of the nature of the tourists or spectators, the resumption of events is universally agreed to be an essential element for the resilience and recovery of sport tourism post-COVID-19 pandemic.

ORCID

Janice Hemmonsbey:  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1302-324X>

Brendon Knott:  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6401-1970>

References

- Acciarini, C., Boccadelli, P., & Vitale, M. (2021). Resilient companies in the time of Covid-19 pandemic: A case study approach pandemic. *Journal of Entrepreneurship and Public Policy*, 10(3), 1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JEPP-03-2021-0021>
- Aldao, C., Blasco, D., Espallargas, M. P., & Rubio, S. P. (2021). Modelling the crisis management and impacts of 21st century disruptive events in tourism: The case of the Covid-19 pandemic. *Tourism Review*, 76(4), 929–941. <https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-07-2020-0297>
- Alebaki, M., Liantakis, A., & Koutsouris, A. (2020). Benchmark analysis of wine tourism destinations: Integrating a resilience system perspective into the comparative framework. In Corporate Chair in Wine and Tourism_EM Strasbourg Business School_Proceedings, 2nd International Research Workshop on Wine Tourism: Challenges and future perspectives.
- Alonso, A. D., Kok, S. K., Bressan, A., O'Shea, M., Sakellarios, N., Koresis, A., Solis, M. A. B., & Santoni, L. J. (2020). Covid-19, aftermath, impacts, and hospitality firms: An international perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 91, 102654. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102654>
- Alves, J. C., Lok, T. C., Luo, Y., & Hao, W. (2020). Crisis management for small business during the Covid-19 outbreak: Survival, resilience and renewal strategies of firms in Macau. *Frontiers of Business Research in China*, 14, Article 26. <https://doi.org/10.21203/rs.3.rs-34541/v1>
- Amore, A., Prayag, G., & Hall, C. M. (2018). Conceptualizing destination resilience from a multi-level perspective. *Tourism Review International*, 22(3–4), 235–250. <https://doi.org/10.3727/154427218X15369305779010>
- Avraham, E. (2020). From 9/11 through Katrina to Covid-19: Crisis recovery campaigns for American destinations for American destinations. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(20), 2875–2889. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2020.1849052>
- Baraero-era, J. S., & Del Rosario, J. (2020). Examining tourism resilience practices as basis for a post-Covid-19 recovery in the Philippines. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 18(1), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.5614/ajht.2020.18.1.01>
- Barro, R. J., Ursúa, J. F., & Weng, J. (2020). *The coronavirus and the great influenza pandemic: Lessons from the "Spanish flu" for the coronavirus's potential effects on mortality and economic activity*. National Bureau of Economic Research (working paper No. w26866). <https://doi.org/10.3386/w26866>
- Baum, T., Mooney, S. K., Robinson, R. N., & Solnet, D. (2020). Covid-19's impact on the hospitality workforce—New crisis or amplification of the norm? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(9), 2813–2829. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-04-2020-0314>
- Bazzanella, F., Muratore, N., Schlemmer, P. A., & Happ, E. (2021). How the Covid-19 pandemic influenced the approach to risk management in cycling events. *Journal of Risk and Financial Management*, 14(7), 296. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jrfm14070296>
- Becker, H. M. (2021). The impact of the Covid-19 global pandemic on the Cuban tourism industry and recommendations for Cuba's response. *Multidisciplinary Business Review*, 14(1), 71–83. <https://doi.org/10.35692/07183992.14.1.7>
- Begović, M. (2022). Effects of Covid-19 on society and sport a national response. *Managing Sport and Leisure*, 27(3), 241–246. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23750472.2020.1779115>
- Bhaskara, G. I., & Filimonau, V. (2021). The Covid-19 pandemic and organisational learning for disaster planning and management: A perspective of tourism businesses from a destination prone to consecutive disasters. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 46(1), 364–375. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2021.01.011>
- Biggs, D., Hall, C. M., & Stoeckl, N. (2012). The resilience of formal and informal tourism enterprises to disasters: Reef tourism in Phuket, Thailand. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(5), 645–665. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2011.630080>
- Bişan, G. E., Olaru, S. M., & Fogoroş, T. E. (2021). Improving organizational resilience through integrated business continuity plan in times of crisis. In R. V. Pamfilie, L. Dinu, D. Tăchiciu, C. Pleşea, & Vasiliu (Eds.), *7th BASIQ International Conference on New Trends in Sustainable Business and Consumption* (pp. 610–617). ASE.

- Blumberg, L., Regmi, J., Endricks, T., McCloskey, B., Petersen, E., Zumla, A., & Barbeschi, M. (2016). Hosting of mass gathering sporting events during the 2013–2016 Ebola virus outbreak in West Africa: Experience from three African countries. *International Journal of Infectious Diseases*, 47(1), 38–41. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijid.2016.06.011>
- Boin, A., Comfort, L. K., & Demchak, C. C. (2010). The rise of resilience. In L. K. Comfort, A. Boin, & C. C. Demchak (Eds.), *Designing resilience* (pp. 1–12). University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Boin, A., & Lodge, M. (2016). Designing resilient institutions for transboundary crisis management: A time for public administration. *Public Administration*, 94(2), 289–298. <https://doi.org/10.1111/padm.12264>
- Boin, A., & McConnell, A. (2007). Preparing for critical infrastructure breakdowns: The limits of crisis management and the need for resilience. *Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management*, 15(1), 50–59. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-5973.2007.00504.x>
- Bostock, J. & Breese, R. (2021). Theorising organisational resilience for sport management research and practice. *Managing Sport and Leisure*. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23750472.2021.1930113>
- Božović, T., Blešić, I., Knežević, M. N., Đeri, L., & Pivac, T. (2021). Resilience of tourism employees to changes caused by Covid-19 pandemic. *Journal of the Geographical Institute*, 71(2), 181–194. <https://doi.org/10.2298/IJGI2102181B>
- Brousselle, A., Brunet-Jailly, E., Kennedy, C., Philips, S. D., Quigley, K., & Robert, A. (2020). Beyond Covid-19: Five commentaries on reimagining governance for future crises and resilience. *Canadian Public Administration*, 63(3), 369–408.
- Brown, N. A., Rovins, J. E., Feldmann-Jensen, S., Orchiston, C., & Johnston, D. (2017). Exploring disaster resilience within the hotel sector: A systematic review of literature. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction*, 22(1), 362–370. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijdr.2017.02.005>
- Buultjens, J. W., Ratnayake, I., & Gnanapala, W. A. C. (2016). Post-conflict tourism development in Sri Lanka: Implications for building resilience. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(4), 355–372. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2014.1002760>
- Çakar, K. (2018). Critical success factors for tourist destination governance in times of crisis: A case study of Antalya, Turkey. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 35(6), 786–802. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2017.1421495>
- Calgaro, E., Lloyd, K., & Dominey-Howes, D. (2014). From vulnerability to transformation: A framework for assessing the vulnerability and resilience of tourism destinations. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(3), 341–360. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2013.826229>
- Chacko, H. E., & Marianne, M. H. (2008). Repositioning a tourism destination. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 23(2–4), 223–235. https://doi.org/10.1300/J073v23n02_17
- Cooper, J. A., & Alderman, D. H. (2020). Cancelling March Madness exposes opportunities for a more sustainable sports tourism economy. *Tourism Geographies*, 22(3), 525–535. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1759135>
- Čorak, S., Živoder, S. B., & Marušić, Z. (2020). Opportunities for tourism recovery and development during and after Covid-19: Views of tourism scholars versus tourism practitioners. *Tourism Review*, 68(4), 434–449. <https://doi.org/10.37741/t.68.4.5>
- Corbisiero, F., & Monaco, S. (2021). Post-pandemic tourism resilience: Changes in Italians' travel behavior and the possible responses of tourist cities. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 13(3), 401–417. <https://doi.org/10.1108/WHATT-01-2021-0011>
- Dahles, H., & Susilowati, T. P. (2015). Annals of Tourism Research business resilience in times of growth and crisis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 51, 34–50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2015.01.002>
- Davis, L. (2022). The adaptation of the live PDC darts event during the Covid-19 lockdown. *Managing Sport and Leisure*, 27(3), 247–253. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23750472.2020.1782251>
- De Milliano, C., & Jurriens, J. (2017). A different cup of tea. In D. Chandler & J. Coaffee (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of international resilience* (pp. 260–261). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315765006>
- Dent, P., Woo, R., & Cudworth, P. (2018). *Crisis management for the resilient enterprise*. Deloitte Review. https://www2.deloitte.com/content/dam/insights/us/articles/GLOB305_Crisis-management-survey/DI_DR24_Inbrief_Crisis-mgmt-resilient-enterprise.pdf
- Dias, Á., Patuleia, M., Silva, R., Estêvão, J., & González-Rodríguez, M. R. (2022). Post-pandemic recovery strategies: Revitalizing lifestyle entrepreneurship. *Journal of Policy Research in Tourism, Leisure and Events*, 14(2), 97–114. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19407963.2021.1892124>
- Escamilla-Fajardo, P., Parra-Camacho, D., & Nunez-Pomar, J. M. (2021). Entrepreneurship and resilience in Spanish sports clubs: A cluster analysis. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 18(10), 5142. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18105142>
- Espiner, S., Orchiston, C., & Higham, J. (2017). Resilience and sustainability: A complementary relationship? Towards a practical conceptual model for the sustainability – resilience nexus in tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(10), 1385–1400. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2017.1281929>
- Fan, Y. Y., Jamison, D. T., & Summers, L. H. (2018). Pandemic risk: How large are the expected losses? *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 96(2), 129–134. <https://doi.org/10.2471/BLT.17.199588>
- Feiler, S., Beerman, S., Hallmann, K., & Breuer, C. (2022). Covid-19 and sport clubs. In S. Frawley & N. Schultenkorf (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of sport and Covid-19* (pp. 242–251). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003176329>
- Filimonau, V., & De Coteau, D. (2020). Tourism resilience in the context of integrated destination and disaster management (DM²). *International Journal of Tourism*

- Research*, 22(2), 202–222. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.cput.ac.za/10.1002/jtr.2329>
- Fitriasari, F. (2020). How do Small and Medium Enterprise (SME) survive the Covid-19 outbreak? *Jurnal Inovasi Ekonomi*, 5(2), 5–62. <https://doi.org/10.22219/jiko.v5i3.11838>
- Francis, S., & Murphy, P. (2007). Sport tourism destinations: The active sport tourist perspective. In J. Higham (Ed.), *Sport tourism destinations: Issues, opportunities and analysis* (pp. 73–92). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780080474434>
- Fransen, J., Ochoa, D., & Francesca, P. (2020). The emergence of urban community resilience initiatives during the Covid-19 pandemic: An international exploratory study. *The European Journal of Development Research*, 34, 432–454. <https://doi.org/10.1057/s41287-020-00348-y>
- Gani, P. A., & Singh, D. R. (2019). Managing disaster and crisis in tourism: A critique of research and a fresh research agenda. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 8(4), 1–25. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_16_vol_8_4_2019_india.pdf
- Gibson, H. (2005). Sport tourism: Concepts and theories. an introduction. *Sport in Society*, 8(2), 133–141. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17430430500101996>
- Gössling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, M. (2020). Pandemics, tourism, and global change: A rapid assessment of Covid-19. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 29(1), 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2020.1758708>
- Gurtner, Y. (2016). Returning to paradise: Investigating issues of tourism crisis and disaster recovery on the island of Bali. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 28, 11–19. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2016.04.007>
- Hadi, S., & Supardi, S. (2020). Revitalization strategy for small and medium enterprises after Corona virus disease pandemic (Covid-19) in Yogyakarta. *Journal of Xi'an University of Architecture & Technology*, 12(1), 4068–4076. <https://doi.org/10.37896/JXAT12.04/1149>
- Hall, C. M., Scott, D., & Gössling, S. (2020). Pandemics, transformations and tourism: Be careful what you wish for. *Tourism Geographies*, 22(3), 577–598. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1759131>
- Hall, P., Prayag, G., & Amore, A. (2017). *Tourism and resilience: Individual, organisational and destination perspectives*. Channel View Publications. <https://doi.org/10.21832/HALL6300>
- Helsloot, I., Boin, A., Jacobs, B., & Comfort, L. K. (2012). *Mega-crises: Understanding the prospects, nature, characteristics, and the effects of cataclysmic events*. Charles C Thomas Publisher.
- Hemmonsby, J., & Tichaawa, T. (2019). Strategic planning of sport tourism events on destination brands: Examining the role of home-grown sport. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 26(3), 794–807. <https://doi.org/10.30892/gtg.26310-398>
- Hemmonsby, J., Tichaawa, T., & Knott, B. (2021). Strategic conceptualisation of the South African sport tourism sector's response to the Covid-19 pandemic. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 10(1), 54–68. <https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720-86>
- Higham, J., & Hinch, T. (2018). *Sport tourism development* (3rd ed.). Channel View.
- Hinch, T., & Ito, E. (2018). Sustainable sport tourism in Japan. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 15(1), 96–101. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2017.1313773>
- Hodeck, A., Tüchel, J., Hente, L., & Brunner, M. (2021). Crowdfunding as a financing instrument for sport in difficult times-analysis of crowdfunding projects in Germany during the Covid-19 pandemic. *Journal of Physical Education and Sport*, 21(142), 1124–1130. <https://doi.org/10.7752/jpes.2021.s2142>
- Holladay, P. (2018). Destination resilience and sustainable tourism development. *Tourism Review International*, 22(3/4), 251–261. <https://doi.org/10.3727/154427218X15369305779029>
- Holladay, P. J., & Méndez-lázaro, P. (2021). From hurricanes to pandemics: Community-based transformation and destination resilience in Utuado, Puerto Rico. *Journal of Sustainability and Resilience*, 1(2), Article 1. <https://digitalcommons.usf.edu/jsr/vol1/iss2/1>
- Holladay, P. J., & Powell, R. B. (2013). Resident perceptions of social-ecological resilience and the sustainability of community-based tourism development in the Commonwealth of Dominica. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21(8), 1188–1211. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09669582.2013.776059>
- Holling, C. S. (1973). Resilience and stability of ecological systems. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics*, 4(1), 1–23. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.es.04.110173.000245>
- Hynes, W., Trump, B., Love, P., & Linkov, I. (2020). Bouncing forward: A resilience approach to dealing with Covid-19 and future systemic shocks. *Environment Systems and Decisions*, 40(2), 174–184. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10669-020-09776-x>
- Jiang, Y., Ritchie, B. W., & Verreynne, M. L. (2019). Building tourism organizational resilience to crises and disasters: A dynamic capabilities view. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 21(1), 882–900. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jtr.2312>
- Karunarathne, A. C. I. D., Rangashinghe, J. C. I. C., Sammani, U. G. O., & Perera, K. J. T. (2021). Impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on tourism operations and resilience: Stakeholders' perspective in Sri Lanka. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 13(3), 369–382. <https://doi.org/10.1108/WHATT-01-2021-0009>
- Ke, X., & Wagner, C. (2022). Global pandemic compels sport to move to esports: Understanding from brand extension perspective. *Managing Sport and Leisure*, 27(1–2), 152–157. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23750472.2020.1792801>
- Kennelly, M. (2022). Covid-19 and sport clubs. In S. Frawley & N. Schulenkorf (Eds.), *Routledge handbook of sport and Covid-19* (pp. 242–251). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003176329>
- Ketter, E., & Avraham, E. (2021). #StayHome today so we can #TravelTomorrow: Tourism destinations' digital marketing strategies during the Covid-19 pandemic. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 38(8), 819–832. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10548408.2021.1921670>

- Khan, A., Bibi, S., Lyu, J., Latif, A., & Lorenzo, A. (2021). Covid-19 and sectoral employment trends: Assessing resilience in the US leisure and hospitality industry. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(7), 952–969. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2020.1850653>
- Klein, V. B., & Todesco, J. L. (2021). Covid-19 crisis and SMEs responses: The role of digital transformation. *Knowledge and Process Management*, 28(2), 117–133. <https://doi.org/10.1002/kpm.1660>
- Lamberton, C., & Stephen, A. T. (2016). A thematic exploration of digital, social media, and mobile marketing: Research evolution from 2000 to 2015 and an agenda for future inquiry. *Journal of Marketing*, 80(6), 146–172. <https://doi.org/10.1509/jm.15.0415>
- Lew, A. A. (2014). Scale change and resilience in community tourism planning. *Tourism Geographies*, 16(1), 14–22. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2013.864325>
- Lew, A. A., Joseph, M., Cheer, M. H., Patrick, B., & Noel, B. (2020). Visions of travel and tourism after the global Covid-19 transformation of 2020. *Tourism Geographies*, 22(3), 455–466. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14616688.2020.1770326>
- Lindsay-Smith, G., Gamage, A., Pyke, J., DeLacy, T., Nguyen, V., & Shaikh, S. (2021). *Building the resilience of tourism destinations to disasters: The 2020 Victorian bushfires and Covid-19 pandemic*. Melbourne, Victoria University. <https://vuir.vu.edu.au/id/eprint/42441>
- Liu, A., & Pratt, S. (2017). Tourism's vulnerability and resilience to terrorism. *Tourism Management*, 60, 404–417. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2017.01.001>
- Liu-Lastres, B., & Cahyanto, I. (2021). Building a resilient event industry: Lessons learned during the Covid-19 pandemic. *Proceedings of the Travel and Tourism Research Association: Advancing Tourism Research Globally*. <https://scholarworks.iupui.edu/bitstream/handle/1805/26276/Liu-Lastres2021Building.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>
- Loncarevic, G., Payne, L., Kon, P., Petrovic, V., Dimitrijevic, D., Knezevic, T., Medić, S., Milic, N., Nedeljkovic, J., Seke, K., & Coulombier, D. (2009). Public health preparedness for two mass gathering events in the context of pandemic influenza (H1N1) 2009-Serbia. *Eurosurveillance*, 14(31), 19296. <https://doi.org/10.2807/ese.14.31.19296-en>
- Luthe, T., & Wyss, R. (2014). Assessing and planning resilience in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 44(1), 161–163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2014.03.011>
- Mair, J., Ritchie, B. W., & Walters, G. (2016). Current issues in tourism towards a research agenda for post-disaster and post-crisis recovery strategies for tourist destinations: A narrative review. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(1), 1–26. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2014.932758>
- Majumdar, B., & Naha, S. (2020). Live sport during the Covid-19 crisis: Fans as creative broadcasters. *Sport in Society*, 23(7), 1091–1099. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17430437.2020.1776972>
- Maphanga, P., & Henama, U. (2019). The tourism impact of Ebola in Africa: Lessons on crisis management. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 8(3). <https://doi.org/10.46222/ajhtl.19770720-89>
- McCartney, G., Pinto, J., & Liu, M. (2021). City resilience and recovery from COVID-19: The case of Macao. *Cities*, 112, 103130. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2021.103130>
- McCloskey, B., Zumla, A., Ippolito, G., Blumberg, L., Arbon, P., Cicero, A., Endericks, T., Lim, P. L., & Borodina, M., & WHO Novel Coronavirus-19 Mass Gatherings Expert Group. (2020). Mass gathering events and reducing further global spread of Covid-19: A political and public health dilemma. *The Lancet*. 395(10230), 1096–1099. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30681-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30681-4)
- Noorashid, N., & Chin, W. L. (2021). Coping with Covid-19: The resilience and transformation of community-based tourism in Brunei Darussalam. *Sustainability*, 13(15), 8618. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13158618>
- Ntounis, N., Parker, C., Skinner, H., Steadman, C., & Warnaby, G. (2021). Tourism and hospitality industry resilience during the Covid-19 pandemic: Evidence from England. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 25(1), 46–59. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13683500.2021.1883556>
- Paolo, B., Silvana, S., Valerio, B., & Davide, C. (2020). Employing value chain theory to address Covid-19 outbreak in tourism management: A resilience and stakeholder view. *International Journal of Business Research and Management*, 11(3), 39–64. <https://dx.doi.org/10.31219/osf.io/tmzvf>
- Păunescu, C., & Matyus, E. (2020). Resilience measures to dealing with the Covid-19 pandemic: Evidence from Romanian micro and small enterprises. *Management & Marketing. Challenges for the Knowledge Society*, 15(1), 439–457. <https://doi.org/10.2478/mmcks-2020-0026>
- Pickering, C., & Byrne, J. (2014). The benefits of publishing systematic quantitative literature reviews for PhD candidates and other early-career researchers. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 33(3), 534–548. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2013.841651>
- Pigeassou, C. (2004). Contribution to the definition of sport tourism. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 9(3), 287–289. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1477508042000320205>
- Ranasinghe, J. P. R. C., Sammani, U. G. O., & Perera, K. J. T. (2021). Impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on tourism operations and resilience: Stakeholders' perspective in Sri Lanka. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 13(3), 369–382. <https://doi.org/10.1108/WHATT-01-2021-0009>
- Reddy, V. M., Boyd, S. W., & Nica, M. (2020). Towards a post-conflict tourism recovery framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 84(1), 102940. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2020.102940>
- Ruiz-Martin, C., López-Paredes, A., & Wainer, G. (2018). What we know and do not know about organizational resilience. *International Journal of Product Management and Engineering*, 6(1), 11–28. <https://doi.org/10.4995/ijpme.2018.7898>
- Setthachotsombut, N., & Sua-iam, G. (2020). The Resilience Development for the Entrepreneurs Tourism Sector (RDETS) from the 2019 coronavirus crisis in Thailand. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 9(2),

- 1–14. https://www.ajhtl.com/uploads/7/1/6/3/7163688/article_52_vol_9_2_2020_thailand.pdf
- Sharifi, A., Khavarian-Garmsir, A. R., & Kummitha, R. K. R. (2021). Contributions of smart city solutions and technologies to resilience against the Covid-19 pandemic: A literature review. *Sustainability*, *13*(8018), 1–28. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13148018>
- Sharma Deep, G., Thomas, A., & Paul, J. (2021). Reviving tourism industry post-Covid-19: A resilience-based framework. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, *37*, 100786. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2020.100786>
- Shipway, R. (2018). Building resilience and managing crises and disasters in sport tourism. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, *22*(3), 265–270. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14775085.2018.1498152>
- Shipway, R., & Miles, L. E. E. (2020). Bouncing back and jumping forward: Scoping the resilience landscape of international sports events and implications for events and festivals. *Event Management*, *24*(1), 185–196. <https://doi.org/10.3727/152599518X15403853721376>
- Shipway, R., Miles, L., & Gordon, R. (2020). *Crisis and disaster management for sport* (1st Ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429431272>
- Siu, A., & Wong, Y. R. (2004). Economic impact of SARS: The case of Hong Kong. *Asian Economic Papers*, *3*(1), 62–83. <https://doi.org/10.1162/1535351041747996>
- Smit, B. (2002). Atlas.ti for qualitative data analysis. *Perspectives in Education*, *20*(3), 65–75.
- Statistica. (2020a). Year-on-year change of weekly flight frequency of global airlines from January 6 to January 4, 2021, by country. <https://www.statista.com/statistics/1104036/novel-coronavirus-weekly-flights-change-airlines-region/>
- Statistica. (2020b). Effect of the coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic on sports industry revenue worldwide in 2020. <https://www.statista.com/statistics/269797/worldwide-revenue-from-sports-merchandising/>
- Stenn, T. L. (2019). Building resilience and meaningful enterprises with the sustainability lens. *Journal of Strategic Innovation and Sustainability*, *14*(3), 98–110. <https://doi.org/10.33423/jsis.v14i3.2111>
- Strickland-Munro, J. K., Allison, H. E., & Moore, S. A. (2010). Using resilience concepts to investigate the impacts of protected area tourism on communities. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *37*(2), 499–519. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2009.11.001>
- Swart, K., & Maralack, D. (2020). Covid-19 and the cancellation of the 2020 Two Oceans Marathon, Cape Town, South Africa. *Sport in Society*, *23*(11), 1736–1752. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17430437.2020.1805900>
- Tawfik, G. M., Dila, K. A. S., Mohamed, M. Y. F., Tam, D. N. H., Kien, N. D., Ahmed, A. M., & Huy, N. T. (2019). A step by step guide for conducting a systematic review and meta-analysis with simulation data. *Tropical Medicine and Health*, *47*(46), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41182-019-0165-6>
- Thukral, E. (2021). Covid-19: Small and medium enterprises challenges and responses with creativity, innovation, and entrepreneurship. *Journal of Strategic Change*, *30*(2), 153–158. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jsc.2399>
- Trimi, S., & Berbegal-Mirabent, J. (2012). Business model innovation in entrepreneurship. *International Entrepreneurship Management Journal*, *8*, 449–465. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11365-012-0234-3>
- Ulak, N. (2020). Covid-19 pandemic and its impact on tourism industry in Nepal. *Journal of Tourism & Adventure*, *3*(1), 50–75. <https://doi.org/10.3126/jota.v3i1.31356>
- UNWTO. (2020a, March 26). *International tourist arrivals could fall by 20-30% in 2020*. <https://www.unwto.org/news/international-tourism-arrivals-could-fall-in-2020>
- UNWTO. (2020b, May 11). *UN tourism news*. <https://www.unwto.org/news/Covid-19-world-tourism-remains-at-a-standstill-as-100-of-countries-impose-restrictions-on-travel>
- UNWTO. (2022). *Tourism growth 4% in 2021 but remains far below pre-pandemic levels*. UNWTO. <https://www.unwto.org/news/tourism-grows-4-in-2021-but-remains-far-below-pre-pandemic-levels#:~:text=The%20pace%20of%20recovery%20remains,%25%20below%20pre%20pandemic%20levels.>
- Vancini, R., Andrade, M., Vancini-Campanharo, C., & Barbosa de Lira, C. (2016). Zika virus infection, Summer Olympic and Paralympic Games in Rio 2016, and sports performance. *Journal of Human Kinetics*, *53*(1), 5–7. <https://doi.org/10.1515/hukin-2016-0005>
- Végará-Ferri, J. M., López-Gullón, J. M., Valantine, I., Díaz Suárez, A., & Angosto, S. (2020). Factors influencing the tourist's future intentions in small-scale sports events. *Sustainability*, *12*(19), 8103. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12198103>
- Viboud, C., & Simonsen, L. (2012). Global mortality of 2009 pandemic influenza A H1N1. *The Lancet Infectious Diseases*, *12*(9), 651–653. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099\(12\)70152-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1473-3099(12)70152-4)
- Weed, M. E., & Bull, C. (2004). *Sports tourism: Policy, participants, and practice*. Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780080942117>
- Wicker, P., Filo, K., & Cuskelly, G. (2013). Organizational resilience of community sport clubs impacted by natural disasters. *Journal of Sport Management*, *27*(1), 510–525. <https://doi.org/10.1123/jsm.27.6.510>
- World Travel Market. (2017, January 30). *GCC countries eye greater share of \$600bn global sports tourism industry*. <https://hub.wtm.com/press/gcc-countries-eye-greater-share-of-600bn-global-sports-tourism-industry/>
- Woyo, E. (2021). The sustainability of using domestic tourism as a post-COVID-19 recovery strategy in a distressed destination. In W. Würndl, C. Koo & J. L. Stienmetz (Eds.), *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2021* (pp. 476–489). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-65785-7_46
- Yang, K. (2020). Unprecedented challenges, familiar paradoxes: Covid-19 and governance in a new normal state of risks. *Public Administration Review*, *80*(4), 657–664. <https://doi.org/10.1111/puar.13248>
- Yeoman, I. S., Schänzel, H. A., & Zentveld, E. (2022). Tourist behaviour in a Covid-19 world: A New Zealand perspective. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, *8*(2), 155–176. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JTF-03-2021-0082>