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**Eventful Futures and Triple Bottom Line Impacts: BRICS,
Image Regeneration and Competitiveness**

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Eventful Futures and Triple Bottom Line Impacts: BRICS, Image Regeneration and Competitiveness

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Structured Abstract

Purpose: There are many ways of viewing, interpreting, and even conceptualizing BRICS growth. This paper considers image regeneration and how this helps enhance place competitiveness. A focus on events and the spectacle they create also challenges us to think about sustainable futures. To supplement this focus on image regeneration and competitiveness, it is important to discuss and outline triple bottom line impacts as a framework to consider going forward.

Approach: Looking at the BRICS, the growing events, tourism and leisure industries transcend private and public business practices and can help align with more contemporary sustainable development practices and regeneration agendas. Such agendas can in turn help enhance destination competitiveness and image. While we need (and should) continue to assess and address economic impacts and development, it is just as important to consider environmental impacts and social impacts on a destination and its residents when considering competitiveness.

Findings: This conceptual paper frames insight from the literature to reflect on and consider research directions linked to triple bottom line impacts. The paper puts emphasis on the need to consider social and environmental impacts of events.

Originality/Value: This paper links conceptual discussions of image regeneration and competitiveness with triple bottom line impacts to look at directions for BRICS nations. It is useful for policy makers and planners who look at the 'big picture' of event hosting and argues the need for more sustainable policy and planning agendas.

Keywords

BRICS, Image Regeneration, Competitiveness, Event Impacts, Triple Bottom Line

Introduction

When we hear the term BRICS today (referring to Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) we are directed to the increasing influence and role of these five key emerging economy countries to the global political economy (see Chatin and Gallarotti, 2017). These countries are at the core of global manufacturing and production, but we are also directed to the fact that these countries are regularly bidding for and hosting global major- and mega-events (or large-scale events hereafter referred to in this paper). Each of these countries have and are continuing to invest heavily in mega-infrastructure projects to showcase their power, and key international sporting events are central to these developments. While many of these countries are modernizing rapidly, there are concerns over social, economic and environmental sustainability. With substantial budgets to develop new venues, there

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3 are also voices of critique and concern over the economic viability of these mega-projects—as many
4 argue money can be directed elsewhere. Despite some of the widespread criticisms and media
5 reporting we see and hear about the BRICS, it is possible to suggest that large-scale events are
6 contributing to destination revitalization and competitiveness in these nations.
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10 There are many ways of viewing, interpreting, and even conceptualizing BRICS growth, and this paper
11 considers image regeneration, and how this can help with place/destination competitive and
12 attractiveness. A focus on events and the spectacle they create also challenge us to think about
13 sustainable futures (Hall, 2012; Wise and Hall, 2017; Wise and Harris, 2019). To supplement this focus
14 on image regeneration and competitiveness, it is important to discuss and outline triple bottom line
15 impacts. Later in this paper I discuss social, economic and environmental impacts and how each of
16 these influence image and competitiveness, especially surrounding the social impacts of events on
17 locals as the world looks on and see the rapid pace of growth.
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21 With the BRICS nations investing in modern venues, the hosting of large-scale events is viewed as a
22 form of image regeneration (see Henderson, 2017; Smith, 2012). Increasing the image of a place can
23 contribute much to its future competitiveness. As places seek to attract investors and the media to a
24 country, as international events are a way of broadcasting modern images and attractive destination
25 features, as well as a means of changing perceptions (see Gibson et al., 2008; Wise et al., 2015). But
26 given this point, others argue that hosting events are just a façade for promotion and power (see
27 Maharaj, 2015; Gaffney, 2010). For example, BRICS nations often use large-scale events to attract new
28 investors, and to enhance their national images and destination attractions for the purpose of building
29 a new (modern) tourism economy. In this sense, an event is in many ways a form of soft power to
30 influence and communicate cultural appeals to gain international attention, and then after the event
31 that country can diversify its service economy to attract growth beyond its imagined
32 industrial/manufacturing base (that is driving its economic growth). Thus, the image generated, with
33 the assistance of the international media, is a way of widely advertising the features of each place (see
34 Pasti and Ramaprasad, 2017). While the BRICS nations continue to be key players in global
35 manufacturing, showcasing destinations with a burgeoning service sector helps these countries
36 achieve economic diversification.
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40 Jackson (2013, 847) noted: “the expanding annual calendar of sport mega-events, both in terms of the
41 bidding process and the actual hosting of the event, means there is rarely time for considered
42 reflection”. This paper also does not reflect, but considers the rise of the BRICS and seeks to
43 conceptualize them alongside large-scale events by considering the triple bottom line framework, as
44 this helps us understand eventful legacies, impacts, image and competitiveness. Mega- and major-
45 events are described as large-scale mass cultural gatherings that attract significant international
46 audiences, who travel to places and also consume new insight through the media (Roche, 2000).
47 Sporting mega-events such as the Summer Olympic Games and the men’s FIFA World Cup attract
48 much attention, but other large-scale sporting events are likewise just as significant because they too
49 play a key role in regional/international expansion and sports development, and the burgeoning
50 service sector economies that result from sustained hosting. Some argue that regional events that are
51 more sustainable, or play a role in the legacy of large-scale events as it puts venue/infrastructural
52 developments back to use again so that new complexes do not just become abandoned or deemed
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3 'white elephants'. However, with all this, years ago Alegi (2007), and more recently Hall and Wise
4 (2019), each argued that there is a need to focus more on social transformations and local impacts.
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7 This paper will next offer a brief context and history of BRICS before framing some conceptual
8 considerations around image regeneration and place/destination competitiveness. The impact and
9 contribution of this paper in line with place management is the rapid change that we are observing in
10 BRICS nations. When bidding for large-scale events, there is a need for planners and policy makers in
11 these nations to step back and look at the wider impacts of development, beyond the financial bottom
12 line, by assessing and addressing social and environmental concerns. Place management is about
13 enhancing place image and/or place branding, focusing on people and the environment amidst rapid
14 economic development and changing times (especially during times of uncertainty). The contribution
15 of this paper is insight on place regeneration, place competitiveness, local and national economic
16 development (and social development) and the consideration of sustainable futures alongside rapid
17 change and development associated with the hosting of large-scale events in BRICS nations. This leads
18 into insight and directions discussed in line with the triple bottom line framework, noting the need to
19 focus on eventful futures aligned with social, economic and environmental sustainability/impacts. The
20 concluding remarks section will look at the new trend the BRICS have established as more emerging
21 economy countries seek to gain a new competitive advantage using international events, followed
22 with some key questions that we as scholars and educators can use to frame contemporary critical
23 discussions.
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31 **The BRICS**

32 Nominal gross domestic product (GDP) figures and future projections of BRICS nations are noted in
33 Table 1. Looking at these countries based on the total value of goods produced/services provided
34 (annually) we see collectively their nominal share is just over 31.5% based on 2017 total global GDP.
35 Further, Table 1 shows the BRICS nations are gaining in terms of their GDP global share and ranking
36 with significant increases (especially in China and India) evident in IMF 2022 projections. Thus, by 2022
37 India is expected to rank 4th in global GDP share, and while South Africa may see a slight drop in rank
38 by 2022, they are still a dominant country in Africa as trading and connections are increasing.
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42 **[Table 1 about here]**
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45 BRICs countries (and later BRICS from 2010) was an acronym coined by Jim O'Neill (then Chief
46 Economist of Goldman Sachs) to identify (at the time) the largest emerging market economies. South
47 Africa, in 2010, asked to join the BRICs. South Africa would then formally invited by China to join and
48 after this nomination Brazil, Russia and India accepted (see Xing, 2014). 2010 was the same year South
49 Africa hosted the men's FIFA World Cup. Despite the acronym coined in the early-2000s, it would not
50 be until 2009 when the BRICS nations held their first international summit (Kirton, and Larionova,
51 2018). From the early-2000s it was forecast and expected that these countries would grow
52 (economically) faster than the developed countries and would come to play an increasingly important
53 role in the world, both economically and politically. In the past 15 years Brazil and India have caught
54 up with the smallest Group of Seven (G7) economy (Italy) while China has since overtaken Japan as
55 the world's second largest economy.
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3 Given changing global manufacturing and distribution, along with economic restructuring in many of
4 the world's G7 nations, it was argued in the early-2000s that the leading role of G7 nations and the
5 Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) is no longer definite (as many of the
6 multi-lateral institutions were set when the 'West' economically dominated the world). The United
7 States and Europe are over-represented in the IMF/World Bank, and along with Japan, they play a
8 defining role in controlling most regional development banks. Given this global imbalance dominated
9 by the United States, Europe and Japan, more recent global financial crises since the late-1990s meant
10 there was a need for involvement and participation by non-G7 countries, and this is where BRICS
11 nations began to play a more defining role. This led to the Group of 20 (G20), with South Africa as the
12 only nation from Africa. Arguably, South Africa's ability to establish itself as a regional nexus within
13 the global economic landscape contributed to the country's ability to host the 2010 World Cup. Indeed,
14 it has been argued that, at that time, it was the only country in the African continent with the economic
15 capacity to host such a mega-event (Maharaj, 2015). But later work has seen South Africa take a more
16 conservative stance on hosting. In particular, it was realized that the bid to host the 2022
17 Commonwealth Games was significantly under-budgeted so South Africa decided to withdraw its bid
18 for acting as Games host (see Maharaj, 2019). With Durban securing the 2022 Commonwealth Games
19 and then forfeiting it back, this is perhaps a step back from the country's wider event ambitions to
20 host a future Summer Olympics in South Africa.
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28 Despite the rising economic and political prowess of BRICS nations, change and unification has been
29 slow in the past two decades and 'Western' nations continue to exert control over international
30 financial institutions. While the G7 hold regular meetings to address and discuss ongoing and future
31 economic trends, BRICS nations have been hosting yearly summits since 2009 (South Africa began
32 attending in 2011) as an attempt to address and discuss their collective stance on pressing global
33 issues. Summits and coming to mutual decisions are important if there is to be tangible changes led
34 by non-OECD leaders, and if they want to co-ordinate actions globally. A challenge with all of this is
35 the differences in how these countries choose to collaborate, a reflection of their vastly different
36 domestic agendas and ways of handling international affairs. The only commonality of these nations
37 is their BRICS membership, as different political systems exist domestically. Some argue that BRICS
38 nations are becoming a China-led group as their nominal GDP is larger than that of the other members
39 combined. Moreover, the 'BRICS Bank', or the New Development Bank (NDB), which is the first
40 without OECD membership, is based in Shanghai. Alongside this is China's vision, as the country
41 increases their presence in the world and establishes the 'New Silk Road', as well as embarking on a
42 'One Belt, One Road' vision. Yu (2017) notes China's 'One Belt, One Road' initiative is the country's
43 approach to ascend economically, politically and strategically in the expanded region by developing
44 infrastructures that inter-connects China with their neighbors and beyond, that extends through
45 Russia and Central Asia to the Middle East and Europe. Despite these apparent social and political
46 differences, with the structure of financial systems, levels of income, education, inequality, health
47 challenges vastly differing among BRICS nations, something else that makes them stand out globally
48 is their hosting of large-scale international events since the late-2000s (see Table 2).
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57 **[Table 2 about here]**

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59 Given the prominence of BRICS nations and the need for sustainable futures, the next section
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3 addresses the impact of events on image change and competitiveness, as this helps us make sense of
4 the impact of embracing a triple bottom line framework by addressing points on social, economic and
5 environmental impacts. This is done with insights from the literature to build a discussion around
6 eventful futures. One challenge here is based on the vast differences between countries, meaning the
7 triple bottom line framework would need adapted accordingly to the needs and demands of each
8 country, as a one-size fits all framework is difficult to propose.
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11 12 **Large-Scale Events, Image Regeneration and Competitiveness**

13 An important conceptual link joining this focus on image change and competitiveness is scale, and this
14 scale is based on cores and peripheries, and BRICS nations are part of this emerging core. Research
15 has addressed events and scalar relations looking at where power and governance is concentrated,
16 based on established hierarchies (see Harris and Wise, 2011; Wise, 2017). What is still relevant today,
17 is two scalar spectrums, emerged through Wallerstein's (1974) world systems theory that identifies
18 cores and peripheries, and the semi-periphery. An acknowledgement of scale, core and periphery is
19 often discussed by economic and political geographers who assess globalization and this links to the
20 international expansion of hosting mega-events. Scale refers to 'one or more levels of representation,
21 experience, and organization of geographical events and processes' (Smith, 2000: 724). Scale is
22 therefore a useful way of apprehending how processes are structured based on political and economic
23 complexities of power, control and hierarchies (Wise, 2017), which can then be directed towards
24 discussions of image regeneration aimed to increasing competitiveness. Some nations are rapidly
25 emerging, growing or gaining new influence. This helps create closer ties with the core, or an emerging
26 core. These emerging economies are benefiting from strategic advantages based on their location,
27 ease of access and regional influence. This helps BRICS nations to build and showcase a new global
28 influence, and ultimately their competitiveness. Their rapid expansion draws on their international
29 division of labor, extensive manufacturing and notable infrastructural modernization and planning
30 agendas.
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38 An emerging market economy describes a nation that is progressing toward becoming more
39 advanced, usually by means of rapid growth and industrialization. As noted in the previous section,
40 such countries are experiencing an expanding role both in the world economy and on the political
41 frontier. Rapid development often defines expanding emerging economy nations in both the
42 production/manufacturing sectors and service sector. They display to the world their emerging power
43 not only through production, but also via spectacle and cultural influence – this is where large-scale
44 events are significant.
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49 Image remains a popular topic of inquiry regarding perception, awareness and knowledge of
50 attractions, places and nations. Dwyer and Kim (2003) argue that image is an important determinant
51 of competitiveness. Thus, insight into destination competitiveness complements research on
52 destination image by critically assessing current management programs, planning agendas, potential
53 impacts and areas needing improvement or investment. These are all important elements of place
54 transformation (Wise and Clark, 2017). Concerning competitiveness, Gomezelj and Mihalič (2008, 294),
55 note:
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59 "In an ever more saturated market, the fundamental task of destination management is to
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3 understand how a tourism destination's competitiveness can be enhanced and sustained.
4 There is thus a strong need to identify and explore competitive (dis)advantages and to analyse
5 the actual competitive position.”
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8 Developing this idea, BRICS nations increased production and manufacturing during the 1970s and
9 1980s, driven by a race to the bottom to produce cheaper products (Pilger, 2003). This resulted in
10 negative connotations towards emerging economy countries from those deemed the established core.
11 To compete and showcase their emerged global presence, large-scale events have since become a
12 way for BRICS nations to, in some respects, de-saturate the market. This involves BRICS nations
13 spending more and setting a new high standards for hosting events, and this drives the former global
14 core countries to not bother, especially given the rising costs associated with event bidding and
15 subsequent building of event infrastructures. It is not clear if funds are actually diverted elsewhere
16 given rising wealth gaps, but countries such as the United States and Norway are not seeing the
17 sustained benefits of hosting one-off large-scale events given the costs needed to go towards
18 infrastructural development and modern mega-venues.
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24 Destinations are continually competing for visitors and therefore must effectively adapt to consumer
25 demands to strengthen their competitiveness. To BRICS nations, presenting modern (futuristic)
26 infrastructures, that are more advanced than what exists in the established core, creates a new
27 benchmark standard for how a place needs to showcase a modern image. This aligns with Dwyer and
28 Kim's (2003: 369) point that to achieve a competitive advantage that meets appeal, a place “must be
29 superior to that of the alternative destinations open to potential visitors”. Nevertheless, appeal can
30 create/re-create a new image, that foregoes negative associations as developments in BRICS nations
31 happen rapidly — and hosting large-scale events attracts media attention to help transform the image
32 of these countries, cities and attractions. However, Crouch (2011) argues that it is difficult to manage
33 rapid change and competition because it is not clear what the end goals are because there is a desire
34 to build higher and design/innovations are ever-changing based on consumer appeal and demand.
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40 BRICS nations each have differing motives, which may involve vastly different financial (of social and
41 environmental) demands and consequences, as observed in work by Maheshwari et al. (2019) on
42 Brazil. These consequences are some of the main challenges they face. While modernization is
43 perceived as making a place more competitive, a failure to acknowledge the wider impacts of this on
44 society and the environment can lead back to negative place images. This links back to another point
45 by Gomezelj and Mihalič (2008: 295), who highlight that:
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49 “a destination's competitiveness is a country's ability to create added value and thus increase
50 the national wealth by managing assets and processes, attractiveness, aggressiveness and
51 proximity, and thereby integrating these relationships within an economic and social model
52 that takes into account a destination's natural capital and its preservation for future
53 generations.”
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56 Thus, balancing the influence and impact of triple bottom line contexts can help sustain image and
57 competitiveness for BRICS nations going forward. One image challenge these nations need to
58 overcome is how domestic issues are communicated, as there is a desire to focus solely on
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3 modernization and consumption, and this can threaten social and environmental (as well as economic)
4 sustainability.
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6 7 **Towards a Triple Bottom Line Framework**

8 The 'bottom line' is a framework commonly used among finance experts and accountants to assess
9 sustainability and sustainable management. John Elkington, a leader in corporate responsibility and
10 sustainable development, coined the term 'triple bottom line' in 1994 (see Henriques and Richardson,
11 2004). Widely accepted are three key dimensions: social, financial (economic) and environmental
12 responsibilities. These are also referred to the three Ps (people, profit and planet). Seen in other
13 studies, these three triple bottom line dimensions represent the core pillars of sustainability,
14 discussed by scholars focusing on place and destination development (see Dwyer, 2005; Fairley et al.,
15 2011). For BRICS, the growing propensity to host events means the triple bottom line framework has
16 direct relevance for their tourism and leisure industries. Specifically, it points them in the direction of
17 more contemporary sustainable development practices and regeneration agendas, which in turn can
18 help enhance destination competitiveness and image.
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24 Referring to the triple bottom line dimensions, pertinent to image regeneration and competitiveness,
25 the focus is too often directed to economic impacts and the need and want to revive and sustain
26 economic benefits. This is because economic indicators drive tangible change and development. But
27 while we need (and should) continue to assess and address economic impacts and development, it is
28 just as important to consider environmental impacts (Maguire and Hanrahan, 2016) and social impacts
29 (Aquilino et al., 2019) on a destination and its residents when considering competitiveness. We can
30 see and evidence the economic impacts of the BRICS based on the insights from Table 1 showing their
31 total global GDP collective; equally important, however, are points of consideration related to social
32 and environmental impacts.
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37 ***Social Impacts***

38 We are increasingly concerned with how the public sector focuses on social legacy, or 'softer' impacts
39 that locals can resonate with, and moves beyond just focusing on economic generation and improving
40 the visitor profiles or city image during and after an event (Vanolo, 2015). Notably, an ongoing critique
41 facing BRICS nations during times of mega-events is domestic issues and how funds are used to build
42 or enhance social development (Maharaj, 2015). It is essential, in these situations, that governments
43 and public sector organizations measure social impacts so it can be seen that they move beyond
44 economic benefits (see Wise, 2019). Thus, policy initiatives need to focus on improving local wellbeing
45 through planning for large-scale events (Clark and Kearns, 2015) so that tourism/leisure opportunities
46 can be enhanced for both locals and visitors. In the run up to both the 2014 FIFA World Cup and the
47 2016 Rio Olympic Games, Brazil received a lot of negative press around the social impacts of these
48 events, and the need for money to be invested in education, local experiences, and improvements to
49 residential facilities, opposed to stadia complexes (see Hall and Wise, 2019). Such investment might
50 have helped increase civic pride in the hosting of these events, as opposed to encouraging local
51 protests. The UNWTO Manila Declaration in 1980 considered the social impacts of tourism in relation
52 to rapidly changing tourism trends and dynamics, and it appears that many of these have yet to have
53 been met, or remain a challenge to meet, where mega-events are concerned.
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3 Lawless (2010) argued social benefits/legacies are lost as destinations regenerate and seek ways to
4 enhance competitiveness. Many large-scale event projects are financed, supported and maintained
5 through the private sector, who acquire and utilize public funds—thereby limiting opportunities and
6 directing profits to companies instead of communities. Therefore, it is also important to leverage
7 outcomes of infrastructural planning, to determine what approaches will be most beneficial to the
8 general public, and what will have local transferrable use in the future. Any resultant social impacts
9 and social change can alter peoples' outlook and attitudes, thereby encouraging cohesive public
10 involvement in the events concerned and an enhancement of local social capital (Thwaites et al., 2013).
11 In this sense, social capital involves the formation of networks, norms and trusts that enable people
12 to work together to peruse and achieve shared objectives (Richards and Palmer, 2010), and build ties
13 that lend to a greater sense of community, belonging and placemaking (Custódio et al., 2018). While
14 there exist a number of conceptual approaches to measuring social impacts (e.g. Wise, 2019; Wise
15 and Perić, 2017), such impacts are difficult to measure, but are nonetheless important if we want to
16 acknowledge notions of inclusion and exclusion.
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23 ***Environmental Impacts***

24 Planners and policy makers need to prioritize conservation because building for and hosting large-
25 scale events does not always go hand-in-hand with environmental sustainability. It is therefore up to
26 appropriate government agencies to work with event and tourism planners/managers ensure that an
27 event or destination is environmentally sustainable. This can have a lasting effect as well, especially in
28 BRICS nations that do not have a positive image when it comes to environmental protection. By
29 hosting events that are planned and delivered as having a (significantly) reduced environmental
30 impact, this can increase competitiveness in a way that showcases a new awareness. Moreover, with
31 the high economic surplus and earning potential that BRICS nations gain from export earnings,
32 investing in more environmental sustainable agendas can help them achieve a competitive advantage
33 and also help them align with nascent consumer demands whereby there is a desire to reduce carbon
34 footprints. It is a challenge to eliminate completely the negative environmental consequences
35 associated with events (and related tourism), but by investing in new products and innovations,
36 relevant stakeholders can work toward reducing negative consequences. Aiming to restore and
37 preserve urban and rural ecosystems can help enhance consumer perceptions, and help overcome
38 images of mass congestion, over-consumption and waste, which threaten air/water/environmental
39 quality (Wise, 2016).
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46 Thus innovative policies are needed in BRICS nations to address the mass tourism that they seek after
47 hosting large-scale events. Such tourism growth extends mass consumption practices, which even
48 when planned for can still put a strain on resources and impact residents. This is in part because
49 resources for tourism and event consumption may be given priority over those for the local population
50 because of the opportunity to earn further income from tourism after the event (see, for example, Li
51 et al., 2013). Mass consumption is an environmental issue facing the service industries (Gössling et al.,
52 2012), but also inherently social—given who has access to resources. In many cases, venue sites and
53 hotel complexes may have more immediate access so to keep visiting consumers satisfied (see Cole,
54 2012). For BRICS nations there may be lessons to be learnt from European countries, which emphasize
55 more sustainable event and tourism planning agendas (see Shoval, 2018). Moreover, Western Europe
56 enacts strict regulations to ensure environmental sustainability when constructing new events and
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3 tourism infrastructures (Austin, 2014). This necessitates setting policy and regulatory agendas that can
4 help reduce environmental footprints. A challenge is also keeping event attendees and tourists
5 comfortable, and this implicates issues of water/air pollution, as some places are creating climate
6 controlled environments that require excessive energy usage (Wiedmann et al., 2014). This is
7 especially the case in dry environments (e.g. the UAE), where water scarcity is more of an issue from
8 the outset.
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12 Ultimately, as Wise (2016) argues, it is the public sector's responsibility to set regulations/implement
13 policies that protects and preserves the environment, so that negative impacts associated with
14 development projects are minimized. Some environmental movements have focused on defining
15 clean water/air acts, planning/containing urban development and sprawl (or maintaining anti-sprawl
16 stances), smart growth policies, clean public transit systems and 'greening'. Greening is a popular
17 aesthetic enhancement approach which can be important for image transformations. Parks and green
18 spaces, for example, helps project a clean and comfortable environment (Austin, 2014). When it
19 comes to event venues, we are also increasingly seeing those that produce their only renewable
20 energy with built-in solar panels or wind turbines, such as Lincoln Financial Field in Philadelphia,
21 United States. These changes and more sustainable environmentally policies can change peoples'
22 attitudes/perspectives (see Kellison et al., 2015).
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28 **Concluding Remarks**

29 Given the point made earlier in this paper about countries using events to enhance their image and
30 increase the appeal of the destination, we are seeing other countries follow this trend. Countries in
31 Europe, the United States or Canada, and other nations that we may in the past have associated more
32 with large-scale events, are not seeing the benefits of hosting given rising costs and the negative
33 environmental impact that these large-scale events have. However, other emerging economy
34 countries are seeking to define their place and are thus seeking to follow the trend of the BRICS and
35 host mega-events as a way of displaying their image to the world via international media outlets. This
36 is so that they too can establish their own eventful futures and increase their place and destination
37 competitiveness on a global stage. This is place marketing writ large.
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42 Some future cases to consider going forward are Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria and Turkey (now termed
43 MINT). These countries are seen as the next wave of countries that will play a key role in the future of
44 the global political economy (Xing, 2014). Of these four, only Nigeria is not in the G20, but again like
45 the BRICS we are seeing a clear geographical distribution of power emerging across the Global South
46 from Asia to the Middle East, and from Africa to Latin America. Emphasizing points made above, from
47 a triple bottom line standpoint, these countries are likely to face similar issues around the social and
48 environmental sustainability of any mega-events they host. It is important, therefore, that in their
49 event planning and financing these nations seek to invest funds not only in infrastructural
50 developments for capitalist gain, but also in their populations and environment. This should improve
51 the chances of sustainable growth and development going forward. Other considerations include
52 Dubai and Doha, which are hosting EXPO2020 and the FIFA World Cup in 2022, respectively. There has
53 been much focus among scholars on Dubai and Doha (e.g. Henderson, 2017). These destinations have
54 a distinct advantage as global airline hubs, and this has helped grow investments in tourism and other
55 business/service sectors. Some scholars warn us that events can raise alarms because large-scale
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3 events can have negative consequences on small businesses because mega-events align more
4 strategically with corporate agendas (see Duignan, 2019). These nations are now seeking more large-
5 scale events so that they can benefit from the associated publicity, which, in turn, can help enhance
6 and regenerate their place image. We are also seeing rapid mega-event hosting developments in Baku,
7 the capital city of Azerbaijan. Similarly, Kazakhstan is continually attempting to secure the Winter
8 Olympics so they too can define their place among global event hosts.
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12 Many questions remain. As noted above, we have seen a lot of negative media about Brazil in the
13 build up to recent global sporting mega-events. Brazil just recently hosted the 2019 Copa América
14 tournament, now that this event has concluded it will be interesting to see if the media continues to
15 raise issues of social exclusion, or will they move to the next host? Linked to this, we need to question
16 how our perceptions of the BRICS nations have changed in the past 20 years, and are these perceptions
17 increasingly positive or negative. Aside from this, their exposure in relation to hosting mega-event is
18 a key driver in building a new competitive image. So we must now ask: what challenges do BRICS
19 nations face when it comes to hosting such events in the future? Also, is the future of global mega-
20 events going to shift towards another group of emerging economy countries? And, if new emerging
21 nations begin to bid for such events, will we see a new race to the bottom or a new wave of prosperity
22 for their economies? This heralds a strong imperative to focus on eventful futures and put emphasis
23 on associated triple bottom line impacts to promote, socially, economically and environmentally
24 sustainable futures.
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Table 1. BRICS GDP and global ranking based on 2017 figures and 2022 projections.

Country	GDP Nominal (USD\$ in Billions) of total global GDP				
	2017	Share	Rank	2022	Rank
China	\$11,795	15.1	2	\$17,707	2
India	\$2,454	6	6	\$3,935	4
Brazil	\$2,140	8	8	\$2,676	8
Russia	\$1,560	2	11	\$1,841	11
South Africa	\$317	.407	35	\$380	39

(Source of data: IMF, 2017)

Table 2. Large-scale events hosted by BRICS nations, 2007-present.

Brazil	2007 Pan-American Games 2014 FIFA World Cup Rio 2016 2019 Copa América
Russia	Sochi 2014 2018 FIFA World Cup <i>2028 Olympic Bid being considered</i>
India	Delhi 2010 Commonwealth Games Co-Host 2011 Cricket World Cup 2023 Cricket World Cup
China	Beijing 2008 2010 Asian Games in Guangzhou Beijing 2022 2022 Asian Games in Hangzhou
South Africa	2010 FIFA World Cup Durban 2022 Commonwealth Games (event forfeited) <i>2028 Olympic Bid being considered</i>