

**A comparative study of rural community and ecotourism Park managers' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup: Case study of the Izibukwana and Makhowe communities as well as Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks, respectively**

**By**

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## **DECLARATION**

**Submitted in fulfilment / ~~partial fulfilment~~ of the requirements for the degree of Master of Social Science, in the Graduate Programme in School of Environmental Science, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.**

I declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work. All citations, references and borrowed ideas have been duly acknowledged. I confirm that an external editor ~~was/~~ was not used (delete whichever is applicable) and that my Supervisor was informed of the identity and details of my editor. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Social Science in the Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Science, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. None of the present work has been submitted previously for any degree or examination in any other University.

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**...10 March 2010...  
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## **DEDICATION**

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## **ABSTRACT**

The staging of sport mega-events such as the Football or FIFA World Cup has drawn much attention from different countries, as a result they bid to host such events because of the social, economic and political positive spin-offs associated with them (Swart and Bob, 2004; Grundling and Steynberg, 2008). Deccio and Baloglu (2002) assert that sport mega-events, because of their magnitude and size, have the potential of not only impacting upon the host cities but their impacts can also be felt in the periphery of the host cities. Cornelissen and Swart (2006) specifically state that the winning of the 2010 FIFA bid presents a challenge to the South African government on delivering on its promise of improving the lives of all South Africans through hosting the 2010 event. Rural communities in South Africa remain marginalised and often impoverished. Deccio and Baloglu (2002) argue that most studies about sport mega-events focus on the host city's resident's perceptions and neglect the perceptions of the non-host rural communities. This study specifically assesses what rural communities and Park Managers expect (both the costs and benefits) from the 2010 event and how they are planning to use the event to their advantage. This is a particularly neglected area of research in relation to mega-events. Questionnaires were administered to 100 household respondents in two rural communities in KwaZulu-Natal (Izibukwana which is close to Durban, one of the semi-final host cities and Makhowe which is approximately 200 km away from Durban). Telephonic interviews were conducted with the Park Managers (one from Tala Private Park and another from Ezulwini Private Park, in KwaZulu-Natal). The findings of the study reveal perceptions of different stakeholder groups (rural communities and Park managers) about the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup. The results indicates that the socio-economic status of the respondents was low because of reasons such as high unemployment rate, lower level of education, low income level and also lack of basic services. Most of the community respondents and both Park managers indicated that the 2010 FIFA World Cup will be the best ever and leave positive legacies for South Africa. However, the Park managers indicated that they do not think that the 2010 event, since it will be a once-off event, will have any positive impacts or leave any legacies for their Parks as they are already well established ecotourism sites. The Park managers also indicated that they are not preparing for the 2010 event since they already have improved infrastructure such as accommodation areas that can cater for the visitors who will be coming for the 2010 event. Furthermore, linkages/partnerships linked to 2010 do not exist and Park managers do not see this happening. The results also indicate that communities expect direct benefits from the 2010 FIFA World Cup. However, most community respondents indicated that they can mostly benefit directly from the 2010 event if they can establish a relationship or form partnership with their adjacent Parks. What also emerges as a critical finding is the linkages with tourism enterprises located in or in close proximity to the rural communities. It is envisaged that these linkages need to be strengthened to ensure that socio-economic opportunities related to the hosting of the World Cup are developed in rural areas.

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## **LIST OF ACRONYMS**

ASGISA- Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa

DEAT- Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism

DSR- Department of Sport and Recreation

FASA- Football Association of South Africa

FIFA- Fédération Internationale de Football Association

GDP - Gross Domestic Product

HSSA- Haley Sharpe Southern Africa

IAAF- International Amateur Athletic Federation

IDP- Integrated Development Plan

IOC- International Olympic Committee

IUCN- International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources

LOC- Local Organizing Committee

NSC- National Sport Council

NOCSA- National Olympic Committee of South Africa

NRF- National Research Foundation

RDP- Reconstruction and Development Program

SAFA- South African Football Association

SASF- South African Soccer Federation

SAST- South Africa Sports Tourism

SATOUR – South African Tourism Agency

SPSS- Statistical Package for Social Sciences

SRSA- Sport and Recreation South Africa

SMME- Small Medium and Micro Enterprise

TASA- Twelve Apostolic Student Association



WCED- World Commission on Environment and Development

WTO- World Tourism Organization

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Sport tourism is a new industry that has emerged within the tourism industry and has drawn much attention from both private and public sectors (Daniels, 2007). Also, different countries are starting to realize the importance of sport tourism as part of the tourism industry (Turco et al., 2003). According to Gibson (1998), academics and practitioners view sport and tourism as two different fields. The World Tourism Organization (WTO), International Olympic Committee (IOC) and International Organizations for Sport and Tourism, according to Hinch and Higham (2004), met in Barcelona, Spain, to discuss matters relating to sport and tourism. It was evident at that meeting that there is a strong relationship between the two (sport and tourism), as in most cases sport; particularly sport mega-events have the potential of influencing people to travel to host regions. As a result, there has been a mutual relationship between sport and tourism (Hinch and Higham, 2004). According to Bohlmann (2006), in the same year that WTO and IOC met in Barcelona, a report was released which showed that with the tourism contribution of between 4% and 6%, in the developed countries, sport can contribute approximately 2% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Gibson (1998) postulates that different countries are creating agencies that will organize and attract sport mega-events to their regions.

Recently, the importance of sport mega-events as part of tourism development has been recognized by different governments throughout the world (Saayman and Rossouw, 2008). Different countries bid to host such events because of the potential benefits associated with them such as infrastructural developments, job creation opportunities, public and private investments and the promotion and growth of tourism in the host region (Cornelissen 2004a; 2004b; Swart and Bob, 2006). According to Cornelissen (2004a), there is a growing trend of developing countries bidding to host sport mega-events which were previously hosted by the developed countries. However, very little research has been done to assess the impacts of such events on developing countries (Cornelissen, 2004a). Swart and Bob (2006) raise a question of whether the expected legacies and benefits supposedly to be left behind by sport mega-events are being realized by the citizens of the host country.

Although sport mega-events are staged because of the positive impacts, Higham (1999) argues that when it comes to the impacts of sport mega-events, much of the focus tends to be only on the economic benefits that are expected to be accrued after staging the sport mega- events. According to Higham (1999), sport mega-events occur over a short duration of time but they have long-term negative and/or positive consequences on the host cities. This view is supported by Cornelissen and Swart (2006) who state that sport mega-events bear more costs than benefits. Hosting sport mega-events could result in price inflation and tax increases because of the required facilities for the event, some which would not be needed for future usage (Saayman and Rossouw, 2008). Furthermore, Higham (1999) postulates that local communities are usually excluded from participating in sport mega-events because they cannot, among other things, afford tickets for the games. The reasons for staging sport mega-events are questioned and this also raises the issue of who these events are staged for, if the local communities are excluded from them (Higham, 1999).

According to Van der Merwe (2009), ever since the Football World Cup begun in 1930 for the first time the 19<sup>th</sup> Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup will be held on the African continent. The moment when the FIFA President Joseph Blatter announced that South Africa was awarded the 2010 FIFA World Cup was memorable to most proudly South Africans (Swart, 2008). Van Wyk (2008) states that the country is presented with tremendous opportunities which will contribute to the GDP, social development programs, the tourism sector, South Africa's status on the global world and infrastructural developments. According to Magi (2006), on television, newspapers and radio there are discussions, in the context of the nine host cities, about the positive spin-offs that will be derived from the 2010 FIFA World Cup. However, there are no speculations made about the benefits that might accrue to the rural communities (Magi, 2006). Specifically, Magi (2006) indicates that there are no discussions regarding the creation and/or development of infrastructure, job opportunities and financial spin-offs that might accrue to the rural communities in KwaZulu-Natal.

According to Deccio and Baloglu (2002), sport mega-events are unique because they do not only have negative and/or positive impacts on host cities but their impacts could also be felt by non-host rural areas and peripheral communities. This is why Atkinson (2007) argues that although the 2010 FIFA World Cup will take place in host cities, game Parks and non-host rural communities could also benefit from that event. Unlike host cities, rural communities are

at a disadvantage because of the lack of infrastructural developments, accessibility challenges and lack of interest from investors to invest in rural tourism developments (Viljoen and Tlabela, 2006). However, new forms of tourism types such as ecotourism and cultural tourism, presents rural communities with the opportunity of attracting more visitors and investors to their areas, thereby contributing to the diversification of rural economies (Viljoen and Tlabela, 2006). On the other hand, private Parks are in a better position to leverage the 2010 benefits since they are established tourism sites. Van Wyk (2008) argues that the 2010 event's socio-economic benefits are supposed to be accrued to all South Africans of all levels of society. However, whether and how this will be realized, especially in rural communities, is yet to be adequately articulated.

## **1.2 AIM OF THE STUDY**

The above discussion clarifies the aim of the study which is to examine local rural community and ecotourism Park managers' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The focus of the study is on the Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks as well as rural communities (Izibukwana and Makhowe, respectively) residing adjacent to the Parks. The understanding of perceptions helps to accommodate different stakeholders' views, attitudes, understanding and expectations about the 2010 FIFA World Cup. This will help sport organizers to assess their current policies and strategies and examine whether they indeed cater for different stakeholders. Collaboration of different stakeholders contributes significantly to the success of any tourism development, particularly a sport mega-event. This study seeks to determine whether sport mega-events do really provide the benefits that they are supposedly to be delivered, particularly in non-host rural communities.

## **1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**

Deccio and Baloglu (2002) argue that although sport mega-events are staged in host cities, but, because of their size and scope they also have impacts on non-host rural communities. The problem is that most research tends to focus only on the host residents' perceptions of sport mega-events and forgets about the spillover effects that sport mega-events may have on non-host rural communities (Deccio and Baloglu, 2002; Atkinson, 2007). We need to understand how private Parks and non-host rural communities perceive the impacts of sport

mega-events. Kim and Petrick (2005) emphasize the importance of looking at people's perceptions of sport mega-events. This is because sport mega-events tend to focus mostly on the economic impacts and neglect the social and cultural impacts of such events. Kim and Petrick (2005) argue that the success of any sport mega-event is influenced by the attitudes and perceptions of the local people towards that event.

According to Jönsson and Devonish (2007), the staging of sport mega-events, such as the Olympic Games and World Fairs, is one of the strategies for attracting foreign revenue to the host country or region which contributes to the improvement in the quality of lives of the host country's residents. This study examines stakeholder perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on ecotourism sites and adjacent non-host rural communities because sport mega-events usually neglect local community perceptions and concerns about the events in these locations. Donaldson et al. (2008) assert that support for a sport mega-event, particularly at a local level, is mostly dependent upon local community perceptions about that particular event. Community's perceptions of any sport mega-event can either be positive or negative (Jönsson and Devonish, 2007). According to Jönsson and Devonish (2007), the understanding of community's perceptions and attitudes towards a sport mega-event is very important because the success of that sport mega-event is also dependent upon local community support. Turco et al. (2003) support the view that examining local people's attitudes and reactions towards a sport mega-event is important because without local people's support it is likely that the event will not be successful.

## **1.4 OBJECTIVES**

The specific objectives of this study are to:

- **To determine the socio-economic profile of the Izibukwana and Makhowe communities.**

The main focus of this objective is to assess the socio-economic status of the respondents and determine whether it will have influence on how the respondents perceive the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

- **To assess the community and ecotourism Park managers' awareness, attitudes, perceptions and expectations of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.**

The intention of this objective is to look at whether the communities and Park managers are aware of the 2010 FIFA World Cup to be held in South Africa. If they are aware, this objective intends to determine the levels of awareness, attitudes, perceptions and expectations of the 2010 event.

- **To determine whether there are any initiatives undertaken by the rural communities who are living in close proximity to the Private Parks in preparation for the 2010 World Cup.**

This objective intends to look at whether the rural communities plan to undertake initiatives that will make them share a slice of 2010 FIFA World Cup benefits.

- **To determine whether there are any initiatives undertaken by Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks in preparation for the 2010 World Cup.**

The aim of this objective is to explore whether the Parks are planning any initiatives that will allow them to participate and also benefit from the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

- **To assess the types of initiatives (if any) by the Parks and communities and their potential benefits.**

This objective intends to explore the different kinds of initiatives that both the Communities and Parks might plan or are already involved in, in preparation for the 2010 event.

- **To assess the potential impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks and surrounding rural communities.**

The main focus of this objective is to look at the potential costs and benefits that may accrue to both the Communities and the Parks under study.

## **1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

To date, little research had been undertaken to explore non-host rural communities' perceptions of sport mega-events. Most literature focuses on sport mega-events and their impacts on urban renewal and growth, this gives rise to the question of: what about the non-host rural communities? What are their chances of benefiting from sport mega-events such as the 2010 event? According to Atkinson (2007) and Magi (2006), not much literature focuses on what is happening in non-host rural communities in terms of preparations for the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup. According to Atkinson (2007), there is only one study conducted by Deccio and Baloglu (2002) which focused on the non-host community perceptions of the 2002 Winter Olympics and its spillover impacts. This study is significant because it is expected that the findings will not only contribute to the academic field of sport tourism and mega-events but will inform South African policy-makers and sport mega-event organizers about the perceptions of non-host rural communities towards tourism developments in general and sport mega-events in particular.

## **1.6 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The scope of the study is to examine local rural communities' and ecotourism Park managers' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in relation to what are the costs and benefits of hosting sport mega-events, how sport mega-events impact on non-host rural communities, and further touches on how non-host rural communities, with the help of private Parks, could benefit from the 2010 FIFA World Cup. This study is limited to two private Parks (Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks) and their adjacent rural communities (Izibukwana and Makhowe communities, respectively). Due to limited time and financial constraints the study is only limited to KwaZulu-Natal, focusing on the costs and benefits that could be derived from the 2010 matches that will be held at the Moses Mabhida stadium in the eThekweni Municipality. During the 2010 FIFA World Cup, seven games will be held at the Moses Mabhida stadium, five group matches, one second round match and a semi-final. It is not possible for the researcher to compare experiences of other non-host rural communities from the rest of the eight host cities throughout South Africa. The study is also limited to two stakeholder groups: non-host rural communities and ecotourism Park managers.

## **1.7 CHAPTER OUTLINE**

This study is divided into six chapters. Chapter one provides the background information about the study, and it further justifies and outlines the aim, objectives, significance as well as the scope and limitations of the study. Chapter two provides a review of the sport mega-events literature from an international and then South African context. It outlines the nature of sport mega-events and its relevance to South Africa who will be hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup. It also explores how the bidding and commercialization processes of sport mega-events impacts on the host country. It examines the challenges facing rural communities in South Africa. It explores the roles that non-host rural communities and private Parks can play in maximizing the 2010 FIFA World Cup benefits. Furthermore, chapter two looks at the perceived impacts of sport mega-events and how the 2010 event benefits can be maximized to realize sustainable development. This is followed by chapter three which explores the social exchange and stakeholder theories that provide the conceptual framework for the study. Chapter four provides the case studies and the research methodology. Chapter five provides a detailed analysis of the comparative results and findings of the research. Lastly, chapter six summarizes and evaluates key findings and further provides recommendations.

## **1.8 CONCLUSION**

Most countries, including developing countries, are in pursuit of staging sport mega-events because of the economic benefits associated with them. Because of the scope and size of these events, they do not only impact on host cities but their impacts can also be felt even in the periphery of the host cities. Since South Africa will be hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the interest in how this event will impact on ecotourism sites and their adjacent non-host rural communities has resulted in the current study being conducted. Looking at non-host rural communities' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup will broaden the scope of sport mega-event's impacts on host countries and further contribute to the limited existing knowledge of the impacts of sport mega-events in the context of developing countries, particularly countries in Africa. The main concern of the study is: can non-host rural communities be able to promote and market themselves in such a way that the 2010 FIFA World Cup benefits could be evenly distributed across South Africa and also be realized by non-host rural communities?



## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

Recently, most governments have been engaged in the pursuit of staging sport mega-events such as the Olympic Games, Commonwealth Games and Football or Rugby World Cups (Cornelissen, 2004a). The Football or FIFA World Cup has become one of the biggest sporting event throughout the world (Grundling and Steynberg, 2008). According to Swart and Bob (2004), the staging of sport mega-events is usually linked to social, economical and political positive spin-offs. Swart and Bob (2004) further reveal that for a country to be able to host a sport mega-event, it depends on international recognition of that country in relation to its economic, social and political capabilities. Although sport mega-events have significant benefits, however, their overall effects have different impacts for different groups of people within the host country (Nauright, 2004). Once a country manages to host one sport mega-event, it gets motivated to host even more mega-events (Swart and Bob, 2004; Cornelissen and Swart, 2006).

The literature review starts by exploring the nature of sport mega-events and how they have evolved. This chapter examines how bidding and commercialization of sport events have impacted upon host countries. It also conceptualizes sport mega-events' legacies. This chapter further examines sport tourism in the South African context and how South Africa intends to go about hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup. It also explores the challenges facing non-host rural communities in terms of tourism developments and how non-host rural communities can use the 2010 FIFA World Cup to their advantage. This chapter further discusses the perceived impacts of sport mega-events. It also explores how sport mega-events' impacts can be leveraged.

#### **2.2 NATURE OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS**

According to Keyser (2002), events can be classified into different categories depending on their economic impacts, attendance profile and the type of venue and facilities needed for the event to take place. Keyser (2002) further classifies events into three categories which are

mega-events, hallmark events and community events. Mega-events are classified as ‘mega’ because of “their size in terms of attendance, target market, level of public financial involvement, political effects, construction of facilities, and impact on the social and economic fabric of the host community” (Keyser, 2002: 264). On the other hand, Burbank et al. (2002) define mega-events as large scale performance of short duration, such as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cups, which are intended to contribute significantly to the host region’s economic development through drawing attention and attracting tourists revenues and media coverage.

Cornelissen (2004a) states that most sport mega-events were previously held by the developed countries only, as a result, most of the research pertaining to sport mega-events has been framed and contextualized within the developed country’s context. It tends to focus on the impacts of sport events on developed countries. Hiller (2000) states that sport mega-events have mostly been awarded to industrialized countries because they usually meet the requirements of hosting a sport mega-event which include but are not limited to costs, infrastructural developments and political stability. It is important, however, to note that there has been a number of developing countries which have hosted some of the sport mega-events, yet, very little research had been undertaken to assess the impacts of such events on developing countries (Cornelissen, 2004a). Furthermore, Cornelissen (2004a) argues that there are more African countries, such as South Africa, Nigeria and Morocco, that have shown an interest in hosting sport mega-events, but there is little research being done to explore how these countries intend to go about improving their economy and tourism developments through the use of such events and also what are their chances to successfully host sport mega-events.

Pillay and Bass (2009) postulate that developing countries in Asia and South America have hosted some of the sport mega-events, and there are more developing countries that will be given a chance to host sport mega-events, such as, China hosted the 2008 Beijing Olympics, South Africa which will be hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup and India which will be hosting the 2010 Commonwealth Games. According to Nauright (2004), the shift from developed countries to developing countries promotes branding, theming and representation of developing countries to the global society. Although developing countries are being given a chance to host some of the sport mega-events, Matheson and Baade (2004) argue that

compared to developed countries, developing countries usually have to spend too much money towards infrastructural developments needed in order to host a sport mega-event.

There are various reasons for countries to host sport mega-events. However, Matheson and Baade (2004) assert that there is no appealing reason for a country to host a sport mega-event other than the economic spin-offs associated with it. According to Sturges and Brady (2006), more countries are increasingly bidding to host sport mega-events because hosting such events are perceived by relevant stakeholders, politicians and national associations as having the potential to, among other things, bring national pride to the host country. Hiller (2000) and Preuss (2007) further state that the hosting of sport mega-events have impacts and meanings that are felt by host country's residents, pre and post the events. Atkinson (2007) supports the idea that sport mega-events have both costs and benefits that have impacts on social, economic and environmental aspects of the host country.

According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006), sport mega-events result from the specific economic objectives which also encompass political and social effects that go beyond the event itself. Furthermore, sport mega-events have the potential of attracting and emotionally touching different people from all over the world because they are able to mirror and promote the host country to the global society (Black and Van der Westhuizen, 2004). According to Nauright (2004), during the 1980s and 1990s different governments started financing their countries in order to attract sport mega-events. Swart and Bob (2009) add that governments are more than willing to financially support their countries in bidding to host sport mega-events. During the 1990s and 2000s, media companies also gained interest in covering sport-related matters.

Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) state that sport mega-events are characterized by two distinctive features: they draw significant media coverage and they also have significant impacts on the host country. For example, 3.9 billion people watched through television the 2004 Olympic Games (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006). Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) compare how tremendously different countries had gained interest between 1984 and 2004 in hosting and participating in the Olympic Games. According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2006), there were only 140 countries who participated in the 1984 Summer Olympics in Los Angeles, but twenty years later, there were 201 countries who participated in the 2004 Olympic Games held in Athens.

There has also been a tremendous change with the hosting of the FIFA World Cups which are held, like the Olympics, every four years (Matheson and Baade, 2004). The World Cup started in 1930 at Uruguay. Since then the games were awarded to developed countries until 1994 when the World Cup started to be awarded to countries outside Europe and Latin America (Matheson and Baade, 2004). Matheson and Baade (2004) assert that FIFA promoted football as a sport when it awarded the hosting of the World Cup to the United States and Japan in 1994 and 2002, respectively, because both countries are not well known for its football tradition. According to Hiller (2000), history has previously shown that sport mega-events were only held in developed countries because of the costs, infrastructure and political stability needed for the event to occur. However, this is changing as both developed and developing countries are increasingly competing to host such events (Cornelissen, 2004b; Matheson and Baade 2004; Swart and Bob, 2009).

For a country to qualify to host the World Cup, FIFA requires that a host country should at least have 8-10 stadiums that can accommodate between 40 000 to 60 000 spectators (Matheson and Baade, 2004). Also, FIFA requires that stadiums should accommodate 32 teams and 64 matches (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006). According to Cornelissen (2007), currently, there is no African country that has such infrastructural developments. For the 2002 FIFA World Cup, South Korea spent approximately \$2 billion on the construction of 10 new stadiums while Japan spent an estimated amount of \$4 billion on the construction of 7 stadiums and upgrading of other stadiums (Matheson and Baade, 2004). According to Matheson and Baade (2004), football governing bodies, such as FIFA, sustain its operation through the staging of sport mega-events therefore it is likely to select a host country that would meet their standard requirements and, above-all, FIFA should also benefit from the event. Cornelissen and Swart (2006) indicate that FIFA regulates how the whole event should unfold. According to Greeff (2008), it is FIFA who controls, without exception, the full planning for the staging of any FIFA World Cup. Cornelissen and Swart (2006) warn that in the case of South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, FIFA's control and regulation of the 2010 event could contradict with the South Africa's government plans to promote development and nation-building.

## **2.3 THE BIDDING AND COMMERCIAL PROCESSES**

Jones (2001) states that the impacts of a sport mega-event could be felt on different stages of the event; they could be felt before the event, during the event and after the event. According to Jones (2001), there is a growing body of literature that focuses on the negative impacts of sport mega-events. The argument is centered on the bidding processes which a country undergoes in order to qualify for hosting a sport mega-event. According to Swart and Bob (2004), the bidding process requires a significant amount of resource investment. Unlike the bidding processes for small-scale sporting events, Higham (1999) argues that bidding for sport mega-events is likely to involve both commercialization and political corruption. This is because a sport mega-event's bidding processes usually entail the use of public money which does not involve transparency and accountability, and it is not open for public discussions (Higham, 1999). As a result, in most cases, the bidding processes usually take away the economic benefits from the host communities to the corporate sponsors and sport organizers (Higham, 1999; Jones, 2001). If there is misappropriation of revenues from bidding processes, it is most likely to have inaccurate assessments of the sport mega-events' benefits. Higham (1999) argues that particularly with the Olympic Games bids, there is bribery and misappropriation of funds by the IOC.

The staging of sport mega-events, according to Hiller (1998), is usually a decision made only by political leaders and elite groups, grassroots people are not always part of the decision-making process. Cornelissen and Swart (2006) state that there is always corporate interest attached to a sport mega-event that might have negative impacts on the outcome of the event. This could be seen with the Korea and Japan 2002 World Cup where the event organizers spent huge amounts on stadium constructions in both countries, US \$2 billion in South Korea and US \$4 billion in Japan, with the hope of making more money out of the event but at the end their expectations were not met (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006).

Jones (2001) further states that bidding processes could also serve individual interests rather than the host country's residents. While bids are mostly subsidized by public money, the public is not involved in the decision-making concerning bidding processes. Jones (2001) argues that the way sport events are being commercialized has resulted in the sport event's not benefiting the host economies and sport organizations but benefiting certain individuals and commercial sponsors. According to Cornelissen (2007), the increasing commercialization of

sport mega-events is a result of increasing consumption of such events. Cornelissen (2007) further states that the way sport mega-events are marketed and broadcasted incorporates a number of different stakeholders which has led to the creation of a global sport economy. According to Cornelissen (2007), the global sport economy is dominated by different transnational corporations such as those that produce sport apparels (Nike and Addidas) and also those that produce non-sport products such as beverage companies (Coca-Cola). Cornelissen (2007) states that sport mega-events attract significant transnational corporate sponsorships and such sponsorships also have positive spin-offs on the tourism industry of a host country as they attract more visitors.

On the other hand, Cornelissen (2007) argues that politicians have intervened in the way the host country promotes and markets itself to the outside world; they have changed the marketing strategies to serve their own political agendas. The hosting of the 2008 Olympic Games by the People's Republic of China served Chinese authorities, in terms of proving that China on its own is modernized enough, it does not need Western modernization (Cornelissen, 2007). In 1994, when South Africa elected the first democratic government, the democratic government wanted to forge a new identity for the country which had divisions due to the then apartheid government. The South African government has opted to use sport as one of the strategies to promote nation-building and also contribute to the country's economic growth and development (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006). The staging of a sport mega-event was also seen as the way to bring along loyalty towards the new democratic government who wanted to embrace the concept of the new rainbow nation and African Renaissance (Cornelissen, 2004a; Cornelissen and Swart, 2006).

Proponents of South Africa's numerous bidding processes argue that sport mega-events result in economic developments that are far beyond the revenue spent in bidding processes (Swart and Bob, 2004). Black and Van der Westhuizen (2004) argue that although sport mega-events bring along developmental opportunities but one should also consider the risks of failure in terms of bidding processes and also of the event itself. It is not all the countries that are awarded sport events during bidding processes. Therefore, a failed bid also has negative economic impacts on the country which had bid to host a sport mega-event. The 1996 Toronto Olympic Games failed bid cost about US \$17 million, whereas another US \$125 million would have been required if the bid was successful (Higham, 1999). Also, South Africa made a failed bid for the 2006 FIFA World Cup which was awarded to Germany (Cornelissen,

2004a). According to Matheson and Baade (2004), the South African bid for the 2006 World Cup was based on the promise that it would increase the economy by US \$6 billion and also create 129 000 job opportunities. However, Cornelissen (2004a) argues that if South Africa was indeed awarded the 2006 World Cup, it would have generated US \$2.3 billion but would have also incurred costs of approximately US \$1.7 billion. Opponents of South Africa's different bids argue that resources used in bidding processes can be better used for development programs aimed at alleviating poverty (Swart and Bob, 2004). According to Swart and Bob (2004), although there are a few people benefiting from the bidding processes, they do little to improve the living standards of the marginalized people.

Theron (2008) argues that the South African government made many promises prior and post the 2010 bid, promises such as that the 2010 event will contribute to the unification of South Africans and also the benefits of the 2010 event will be shared with other African countries. Cornelissen and Swart (2006) state that campaigns during the 2010 bidding processes created many expectations among South Africans in terms of economic development and employment opportunities. Theron (2008) argues that it is time that the South African government delivered on the promises it made during the 2010 bidding process. According to Theron (2008), it is doubtful that the South African government through the ideology of Pan-Africanism will manage to deliver effectively and satisfy all stakeholders such as FIFA, the South African population, other African countries and the business community. Greeff (2008) supports the idea that the 2010 FIFA World Cup cannot be entirely an African event since the concept of the FIFA World Cup is from European countries. According to Greeff (2008), the 2010 event will mostly likely benefit FIFA, the private sector and international agencies. Local rural communities, who have no housing and lack electricity and sanitation facilities, and tax payers, who have contributed towards the 2010 project constructions and upgrading, are some of the people who will least benefit from the 2010 event (Greeff, 2008).

## **2.4 CONCEPTUALIZING SPORT MEGA-EVENTS' LEGACIES**

According to Hiller (1998), sport mega-events are of short-term duration. However, their impacts are felt even after the event has occurred (Hiller, 2000). According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2006), most countries are interested in hosting sport mega-events because of, among other things, the legacies left by the events. Preuss (2007) argues that although there is

much literature on legacies left by the sport mega-events, there is no clear definition of the word 'legacy'. Most host countries tend to focus only on the economic and tourism legacies left and not on sport legacies (Preuss, 2007). Preuss (2007) argues that most countries also do not have a clear understanding of the costs and risks embedded in hosting such events, as not all the legacies that could be left by the sport mega-event have positive impacts, there are also negative legacies that could be left. Harper (2005: 15, cited in Preuss, 2007) defines legacy as "property left by will". Preuss (2007) critically analyzes Harper's definition and concludes that this definition is inadequate because as Harper (2005) refers to the property, a property is owned by an individual/ body/ institution whereas in the case of sport, legacies that are usually left, such as tourism developments, are accessible and utilized by the public rather than being beneficial to certain individuals only. Also the legacies left by sport mega-events are not always planned for or left by anyone's will (Preuss, 2007).

Preuss (2007: 211) proposes a definition of legacy which is "all planned and unplanned, positive and negative, tangible and intangible structures created for and by a sport event that remain longer than the event itself". Although sport mega-events are usually portrayed as only leaving positive legacies behind but the proposed definition reveals that sport mega-event legacies could either be positive or negative or both (Preuss, 2007). Swart and Bob (2009) argue that legacies and benefits left by sport mega-events are sometimes questionable in terms of whether or not they are being realized after the event is over. Preuss (2007) adds that there are legacies left by sport mega-events that are tangible and could be seen and recognized by people, such as sport infrastructure. Cornelissen and Swart (2006) cite an example of Cape Town City which improved and developed infrastructure when it bid for the 2004 Olympics Games which turned to be a failed bid, but those developments are still found in the City although Cape Town was not awarded the Games. There are also legacies that are intangible such as renewed community spirit, opportunity for place marketing and additional employment opportunities (Preuss, 2007). Preuss (2007) also reveals that although sport could leave positive legacies but also negative legacies could be left, legacies such as debt from developments and constructions and increased property value.



## **2.5 SPORT TOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA**

Ritchie and Adair (2004) define sport tourism as travel that include passive and/or active sport holidays. They state that with this kind of travel there will be a great involvement of sport or tourism, furthermore, either sport or tourism can be the main reason for visiting a particular attraction. Kurtzman (2000 cited in Ritchie and Adair, 2004: 8) state that there are different categories under sport tourism such as sport tourism attractions, sport tourism resorts, sport tourism cruises, sport tourism tours, sport event tourism and adventure tourism. This study focuses on sport event tourism, particularly sport mega-events.

According to Swart (2005), South African sport and tourism industries have not performed to their best in terms of promoting economic growth and development because they were badly impacted by the then apartheid regime policies. Apartheid policies required, among other things, that sporting activities be separated according to racial divisions, non-white teams were not allowed to play against white teams (Van der Merwe, 2009). According to Van der Merwe (2009), between 1930 and 1962 South Africa did not participate in the FIFA World Cups and was banned from FIFA between 1966 and 1992. During the apartheid regime, football associations were divided according to race; there was a White controlled association called the Football Association of South Africa (FASA) and a non-racial association called the South African Soccer Federation (SASF) (Van der Merwe, 2009). During the 1970s and 1980s, tourism development in South Africa was also held back because of apartheid policies (Swart, 2005).

In the early 1990s, many changes took place in South Africa which included the establishment of a non-racial football association, the South African Football Association (SAFA) (Van der Merwe, 2009). With South Africa attaining democracy in 1994, the government tried to correct the imbalances of the past by creating a five year plan to deal with sport injustices (Swart, 2005). Furthermore, Swart (2005) states that in 1994 there was also recognition of the National Olympic Committee of South Africa (NOCSA) as the only South African Olympic controlling body. On the other hand, the National Sport Council (NSC) was also established as South Africa's major sport organization. To facilitate better and effective communication between government, the Department of Sport and Recreation (DSR), and sport organizations, the National Sport Forum was also established in 1994 (Swart, 2005).

Furthermore, for South Africa to actively and effectively participate in sport tourism, according to Turco et al. (2003), the South African government also formed a sport tourism campaign called South Africa Sports Tourism (SAST). This campaign was intended to promote, publicize and market all relevant sport tourism events, locally and internationally, in such a way that it contributes to the growth of the tourism industry throughout the country (Turco et al., 2003). Although there have been changes after 1994, Nauright (1997) argues that most of the changes, in terms of sport and tourism, are integrated only on paper and administrative structures.

On 9 July 1991, South Africa was re-admitted to international sport and in March 1992, South Africa was also admitted to the International Amateur Athletic Federation (IAAF) (Nauright, 1997). Since South Africa was re-admitted to international sport, Swart and Bob (2009) state that it has used and is still using sport tourism as one of the strategies to contribute to the socio-economic growth of this country. According to Swart (2005), sport tourism has an important role to play in achieving the Reconstruction and Development Program's (RDPs) vision that intends to contribute to the improvement of living standards of all South Africans. The RDP emphasizes the importance of sport as a development tool that could be used to uplift communities. Nauright (1997) further states that the RDP suggests that sport should be incorporated into all development programs. All communities, particularly the youth, should have access to sport and recreational amenities because that will contribute to the prevention of juvenile delinquency (Nauright, 1997).

According to Nauright (1997), sport forms an important part of the reconciliation process in South Africa because it fosters a new national identity. Nauright (1997) cites an example of the Springbok team which was seen during apartheid as a White team (racially-based sport), but during the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the Springbok team was supported by almost all South Africans under the leadership of the then president Nelson Mandela. Cornelissen and Swart (2006) further state that through hosting the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the South African government created a united society which was previously divided by racial laws. The 1995 Rugby World Cup is one of the significant sport events that has contributed to nation-building and national identity (Nauright, 1997). Nauright (1997) suggests that sport mega-events could play an important role in South Africa as a country that has a history of segregation; mega-events could reconstruct the new South Africa into a Rainbow Nation.

According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006), after winning the 1995 Rugby World Cup, South Africa gained interest in hosting more sport mega-events. After winning the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the South African political leaders and corporate elites started to seize the opportunity of hosting different pan-Africa events such as African Cup of Nations and All African Games (Van der Merwe, 2009). Cornelissen and Swart (2006) state that after the 1995 Rugby World Cup, South Africa hosted the 1996 African Cup of Nations, the 2003 President's Cup (International Golf Tournament), the 2003 Cricket World Cup and the 2004 International Women's Golf Cup. Furthermore, Cornelissen and Swart (2006) highlight that South Africa had failed bids for the 2004 Olympic Games, the 2006 FIFA World Cup and the 2011 Rugby World Cup.

## **2.6 THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP**

According to Maennig and du Plessis (2007), if a country has been awarded to host a World Cup, there has to be a contract signed between the host country and FIFA. In that contract, FIFA regulates how the benefits associated with the World Cup should be distributed. It was announced on 15 May 2004 that South Africa had won the bid to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Pillay and Bass, 2009; Saayman and Rossouw, 2008), and in October 2004, the South African government formally signed the Organization Association Agreement to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006). The 2010 FIFA World Cup will be held from the 11 June to 11 July 2010 (Van Wyk, 2008). According to Matheson and Baade (2004) and Grundling and Steynberg (2008), there are three arguments that could be made towards South Africa being awarded the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Firstly, the African continent had never hosted the FIFA World Cup before; secondly, within the FIFA regions, African Football Confederation has more members than any other region; and lastly, African countries have become more competitive when it comes to playing football. Pillay and Bass (2009) state that as South Africa is the first African country to host a sport mega-event of such magnitude, it does not only represent itself but the entire African continent.

According to Labuschagne (2008), if a country was awarded the rights to host a sport mega-event that particular country will never be the same because of the impacts such an event will have on the host country. Through hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa is presented with an opportunity to realize some of the country's socio-economic and political objectives, which include, among other things, using sport to support the government's

initiative of nation-building (Labuschagne, 2008). It is expected that during the 2010 FIFA World Cup 32 teams will participate in 64 matches (Saayman and Rossouw, 2008; Swart and Bob, 2007). Swart and Bob (2007) further state that approximately 350 000 visitors will attend the 2010 event and also 40 billion viewers will watch the matches in over 207 countries.

According to Swart and Bob (2007), the 2010 FIFA World Cup is linked to a variety of tourism opportunities such as corporate hospitality packages and conferences. Greeff (2008) supports the idea that with South Africa hosting the 2010 event, the country is presented with an opportunity to attract more tourists and show them what products and services the country could offer. South Africa has internationally recognized attractions such as Table Mountain, Robben Island and Drakensberg Mountains; also the country could offer the Big 5 animal kingdom (Greeff, 2008). Van Wyk (2008) states that the tourism industry is expected to generate approximately R15.6 billion from the 2010 event. Although tourism is one of the industries that is expected to benefit from the 2010 event, Pillay and Bass (2009) caution that tourism benefits associated with the staging of sport mega-events are provisional in the developing country's context.

According to Van Wyk (2008), in November 2007, it was announced by the South African Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism that approximately 22 000 hotel rooms and more than 6 000 non-hotel rooms have been already contracted for accommodation during the 2010 FIFA World Cup and most of these accommodations that have been contracted are found in KwaZulu-Natal. Furthermore, Van Wyk (2008) asserts that there are also other South African neighboring countries, such as Swaziland, Botswana and Zimbabwe, who have intentions of improving, among other things, their accommodation and sport facilities for the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup. Cornelissen (2007) supports the view that there are other African countries who had announced plans towards development and/or improvements of stadiums and hospitality services, since there is anticipation that the 2010 event will create the flow of visitors and investments to these countries.

When South Africa was awarded the 2010 World Cup, according to Jenvey (2008), there was much celebration about job opportunities that will be created because of stadium construction as well as hotel and transport network improvements. Swart and Bob (2009) support the idea that the main expectation associated with the 2010 FIFA World Cup is that it will create job

opportunities. According to Swart and Bob (2009), with the construction and renovation of stadiums, it is where the general population, particularly disadvantaged communities are expected to get job employment opportunities. Furthermore, Swart and Bob (2009) argue that the extent to which construction and renovation of stadiums create job opportunities still remain to be seen in South Africa.

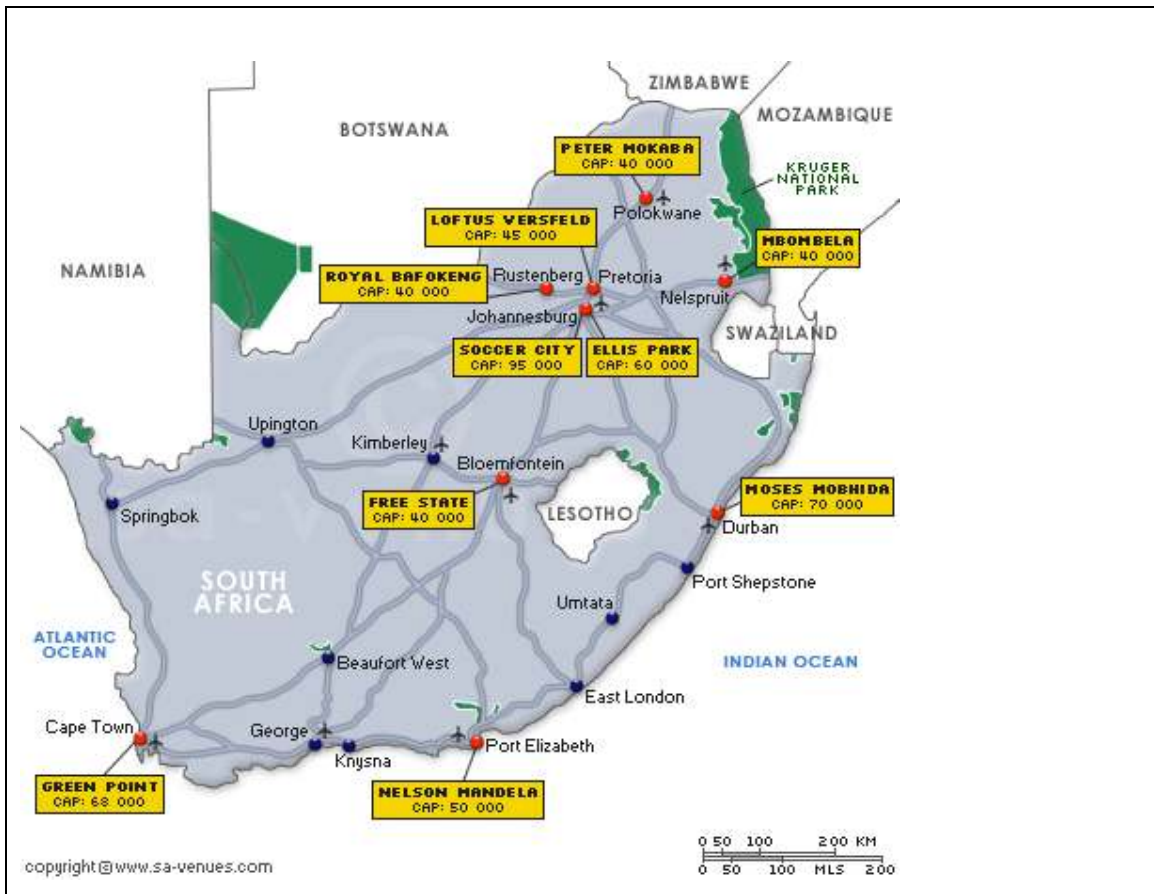
According to Jenvey (2008), it is expected that the 2010 World Cup will create long-term job opportunities that will develop people's skills and further provide training and viable tourism markets. Landie (2007) states that about 15 000 volunteers, including specialized and general volunteers, have been hired by the 2010 World Cup LOC to help in preparations for the upcoming 2010 event. Labuschagne (2008) emphasizes that the South African government and sport officials should ensure that South Africans benefit from the 2010 event. From a socio-economic perspective, Labuschagne (2008) states that the South African government should plough back the 2010 benefits to South African residents in the form of job opportunities and further improve the living standards of the poor.

According to Cornelissen (2007), from the initial bidding process for the 2010 FIFA World Cup to the year 2007, it was estimated that the 2010 event's contribution towards South Africa's national economy has been adjusted from R30 billion to R51 billion. However, Cornelissen (2007) further states that the South African government has decided to spend more than R400 billion between 2006 and 2010. In 2007 the government contributed R17.4 billion towards preparations for the 2010 event; R8.4 billion was expected to be spent on building five new stadiums as well as renovating five existing stadiums (Cornelissen, 2007; Landie 2007; Campell and Phago, 2008). A further R9 billion was expected to be used for development of road, air and other forms of transport infrastructure (Cornelissen, 2007; Campell and Phago, 2008). Campell and Phago (2008) state that host cities are expected to contribute another R2.6 billion towards the costs of their stadiums. Provincial and municipal governments are also expected to make some contribution towards the successful hosting of the 2010 event in their areas. For example, the eThekweni Municipality is expected to contribute R2.8 billion towards the construction of the Moses Mabhida stadium (Campell and Phago, 2008). Davies (2009) argues that although the South African government committed itself to financially support the construction and alteration of stadiums to be used for the 2010 World Cup, a significant proportion of funds for such developments and alterations are coming from South African tax payer's money.

Some of the construction and improvements that are taking place in the nine host cities which are presented in Figure 2.1 are as follows:

In Durban/eThekweni there is the construction of the Moses Mabhida stadium in the former King's Park soccer stadium location (Cornelissen, 2007). According to Landie (2007), this stadium will have a seating capacity of 70 000. Makhaye (2008) further states that this stadium will host five group matches, one quarter final and a semi-final. Furthermore, it will have athletics facilities and tennis courts that could also be used in future for the hosting of the Olympic Games (Makhaye, 2008). According to the Tribune Reporter (2008), near the Moses Mabhida stadium, there is also the construction of the railway station. Along the Umgeni (north) and Durban (south) railway stations, there will be multi-million rand developments taking place (Tribune Reporter, 2008).

Figure 2.1: Map of stadiums in South Africa to be used for the 2010 FIFA World Cup



Source: South Africa Explored (2009b)

As part of the 2010 developments, the eThekweni Municipality together with the Metrorail are also improving their services to South African commuters which will include the provision of a public square and waiting area within the station (Tribune Reporter, 2008). Metrorail is also refurbishing its trains while introducing the new park and ride scheme which will allow sport fans to leave their cars at the station and use the train to the 2010 matches (Tribune Reporter, 2008). Cornelissen (2007) states that in the north of the eThekweni city center, a new international airport, King Shaka Airport, will be built. According to Mhlophe (2007), the eThekweni municipality has also introduced new buses, called People Movers, which will commute football fans. It is expected that by March 2010 at least 10 new buses would have started operating within the city of eThekweni. Mhlophe (2007) further states that these buses will carry 18 seated and 15 standing passengers, will have CCTV cameras and will be accessible to wheel-chair bound passengers.

According to Makhaye (2008), there is a construction of the Mbombela stadium in Nelspruit which will have a 40 000 seating capacity. The first four round matches of the 2010 FIFA World Cup will be held at this stadium (Landie, 2007). Furthermore, Makhaye (2008) states that there is improvement of Loftus Versveld stadium, the home ground for Mamelodi Sundowns, in Pretoria. This stadium will be used for the 2009 Confederations Cup (Makhaye, 2008). In Cape Town, there is construction of the Green Point stadium which will have a 68 000 seating capacity (Landie, 2007). According to Makhaye (2008), the final draw for the 2010 FIFA World Cup will take place in this stadium on the 4 December 2009. During the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the Green Point stadium will host the five first round matches, one second round match, one quarter-final and one semi-final (Landie, 2007). Landie (2007) further states that after the 2010 event, the Green Point stadium will be turned into a multi-purpose venue for hosting, among other things, sport events and conferences. According to Makhaye (2008), Green Point stadium could also be able to host the Olympic Games in future.

According to Makhaye (2008), the Nelson Mandela Bay stadium is being built in Port Elizabeth. It will have a 48 000 seating capacity (Landie, 2007). Among the new five stadiums which are being built for the 2010 event, Nelson Mandela Bay stadium is the only one which hosted the 2009 Confederations Cup. According to Makhaye (2008), in Polokwane, there is a 45 000 seater Peter Mokaba stadium which is being newly built next to the older Peter Mokaba stadium. During the 2010 FIFA World Cup, this stadium will host four first-

round matches (Landie, 2007; Makhaye, 2008). In Rustenburg, there is the Royal Bafokeng stadium which is being upgraded from being a 39 000 seater to 45 000 seater venue (Makhaye, 2008). During the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the Royal Bafokeng stadium will host four first round matches and one second round match (Landie, 2007). The Royal Bafokeng stadium will also be used for the 2009 Confederations Cup (Makhaye, 2008). According to (Cornelissen, 2007), Rustenburg city intends to create a huge theme park in order to attract more visitors and football fans to the city.

In Bloemfontein, there is upgrading of Vodacom Park or Mangaung stadium which previously had 38 000 to 46 000 seats (Makhaye, 2008). According to Landie (2007), this stadium will host five first round matches and one second round match. Furthermore, this stadium will also be used for the 2009 Confederations Cup (Makhaye, 2008). In Johannesburg, according to Makhaye (2008), there is improvement of the Soweto ground to be renamed the Soccer City stadium. This stadium is being upgraded from accommodating 70 000 spectators to a 94 000 seater stadium. Cornelissen (2007) and Makhaye (2008) further state that near the Soccer City stadium there will construction of the SAFA house which will be the headquarters of the FIFA officials during the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Also, the Soccer City stadium will host the 2010 FIFA World Cup opening ceremony, five first round matches, one quarter-final and the final (Makhaye, 2008). Also in Johannesburg, there is upgrading of the 62 000 seater Ellis Park stadium at a cost of R2 billion (Makhaye, 2008). According to Landie (2007), Ellis Park stadium previously hosted the 1995 Rugby World Cup and during the 2010 event it will host five first round matches, a second round match, and a quarter-final. The Ellis Park stadium also hosted the 2009 Confederations Cup.

According to Van der Westhuizen (2007), in Gauteng there is also a mega-project of about R25 billion, of the first ever South African high speed metropolitan transport, the Gautrain. It is intended to reduce congestion during the 2010 event. Furthermore, Van der Westhuizen (2007) states that the creation of Gautrain symbolizes South Africa as a modern African country. However, Van der Westhuizen (2007) also argues that the Gautrain will almost benefit only the upper middle-class people because all the Gautrain stations are located in suburbs which are not easily accessible to poorer people.

In all the nine 2010 FIFA World Cup host cities, it is stated by Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) (2009), the South African government has provided R136 million for the



improvement of electricity networks. According to Grundling and Steynberg (2008), Eskom has provided assurances that during the 2010 FIFA World Cup there will be no energy crisis which can negatively affect the 2010 event. Furthermore, Grundling and Steynberg (2008) assert that the South African government had spent over R1.5 billion on information and communication technologies needed for the 2010 FIFA World Cup. According to Cornelissen (2007), during the 2002 and the 2006 FIFA World Cups there were fan Parks allocated for public viewing of the matches. It is also planned that for the 2010 FIFA World Cup there will be fan Parks allocated in different parts of the host cities and also in neighboring countries. According to Atkinson (2007), provincial governments are most likely to have plans for the establishment of fan Parks, the large areas with big screens. However, Atkinson (2007) warns that such development will require proper planning in terms of traffic regulation and road planning within local areas. Cornelissen (2007) supports the idea that establishment of fan Parks require proper planning in terms of infrastructure developments and policing. Magi (2006) suggests that fan Parks should also be established in rural areas and semi-rural areas.

According to Swart and Bob (2009), it is also expected that the 2010 World Cup will contribute to the social development of South Africans. In order to promote sport and development in the non-host communities, training venues are expected to be constructed in those areas. Nadvi (2008) states that although the 2010 FIFA World Cup will result in remarkable benefits for South Africa as a host country, but the question stands regarding how the South African government intends to translate the 2010 event's economic benefits to all South Africans, particularly the disadvantaged communities. Cornelissen (2007) argues that due to South Africa's history of inequality that resulted in unequal developments, it is most likely that even after the 2010 World Cup had occurred, the legacies left will be unevenly distributed. Greeff (2008) adds that nine cities will be hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup matches; however, Greeff (2008) is concerned about how the rural and disadvantaged communities staying in close proximity to and around the stadiums are ignored in terms of development opportunities.

## **2.7 THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP, PRIVATE PARKS AND NON-HOST RURAL COMMUNITIES' DEVELOPMENT**

According to Deccio and Baloglu (2002), the scope and magnitude of sport mega-events have different opportunities and challenges which are not only limited to the host-communities but they also have spill-over effects on non-host rural communities. Furthermore, Deccio and Baloglu (2002) argue that most research focuses on host communities' perceptions of sport mega-events; there is little that has been done to assess how non-host rural communities perceive such events.

### **2.7.1 Challenges facing rural tourism development in South Africa**

According to Viljoen and Tlabela (2006), most African countries such as Uganda and Morocco are using new forms of tourism that can protect their natural environment, embrace cultural diversity while contributing to the economic growth and development. In South Africa, rural tourism is seen as one of the approaches to the eradication of poverty and creation of job opportunities in rural areas (Viljoen and Tlabela, 2006). Atkinson (2007) asserts that tourism development has been unevenly distributed in South Africa. This is because South Africa has passed through different political regimes (Allen and Brannen, 2004). The South African tourism industry has passed from colonialism to apartheid and from apartheid to the democratic era (Allen and Brennan, 2004). According to Allen and Brennan (2004), the South African tourism industry during colonialism and apartheid periods catered for White elites only and Black people who were concentrated in rural communities were left out. As a result most rural communities do not know much about the tourism industry and its potential benefits and risks. According to Allen and Brennan (2004) and Viljoen and Tlabela (2006), when the democratic government took over in 1994 it had to correct the imbalances of the past. The democratic government encouraged growth through redistribution so that the rural people could participate in the tourism industry (Allen and Brennan, 2004). Viljoen and Tlabela (2006) support the idea that after 1994 the democratic government introduced policies, such as the Rural Development Strategy, that impacted positively upon the poorer communities, reduced inequalities and created opportunities for economic growth.

The South African government, the South African Tourism Agency (SATOUR), national and provincial Parks boards, the private sector, academics and other sectors embraced the concept of ecotourism (Allen and Brannen, 2004). According to Weaver (1998), the South African government declared 1996 as the year of ecotourism and also introduced the White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism. The White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism promotes, among other things, responsible tourism which incorporates nature conservation while improving the living standards of rural communities who live in close proximity to Parks and protected areas (DEAT, 1996). According to Viljoen and Tlabela (2006), after 1994 the South African government pledged to support investors in rural areas. The importance of unleashing tourism potential through provision of infrastructure in rural areas was also considered by the democratic government (Viljoen and Tlabela, 2006).

The full participation of rural people in tourism developments does not go without challenges. According to Viljoen and Tlabela (2006), South African rural communities are faced with political and institutional challenges such as administration in rural areas which is not as easy as in urban areas, also the bridging of the gap between the coordination of rural development and tourism developments seems to be very challenging. Most rural areas lack proper infrastructure such as roads, rail, communication and recreational facilities (Magi, 2006). According to Magi (2006), the benefits of KwaZulu-Natal's rural communities from the 2010 event is highly dependent on the provision of proper infrastructure which will link them to the host cities. Atkinson (2007) argues that not having non-host rural communities on the international tourist map is a challenge on its own. Magi (2006) adds that crime rates seem to be the problem. In some parts of Zululand there has been instances where tourists were robbed, assaulted and even murdered (Magi, 2006). If tourists are going to visit rural areas, particularly those found in Zululand during the 2010 event crime should be dealt with accordingly (Magi, 2006). Atkinson (2007) asserts that most rural communities do not have financial and institutional capacity to start their own tourism ventures. This is the reason why the South African government is promoting public-private-partnerships (DEAT, 1996).

Atkinson (2007) argues that although the South African government is trying to attract more tourism developments to rural areas, it is also problematic for some rural communities to fully understand how the tourism industry operates. According to Atkinson (2007), the problem lies with the fact that most rural people are inexperienced, lack skills, finance, marketing expertise and reliable market information when it comes to tourism ventures. Atkinson (2007)

emphasizes that the lack of tourism awareness, knowledge and understanding among most rural communities is the major challenge for tourism developments in rural areas because rural people could not participate fully in tourism developments and also in the decision-making processes. Although the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup will create a conducive space for non-host rural communities to explore ways of benefiting from the 2010 event, Atkinson (2007) argues that in order for non-host rural communities to really benefit, there has to be strong support from all spheres of government (local, provincial and national) towards rural communities.

### **2.7.2 Ecotourism developments adjacent to private Parks**

The White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa (DEAT, 1996) states that most prime attractions are situated in rural areas; this gives them a chance of benefiting from tourism ventures. Viljoen and Tlabela (2006) assert that there are various types of tourism developments, such as community-based tourism, cultural tourism, adventure tourism and ecotourism, which rural communities could offer to visitors. However, this study has only focused on ecotourism developments and the role that private Parks can play in creating a space for rural communities to benefit from the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

#### **2.7.2.1 The concept of ecotourism**

According to Viljoen and Tlabela (2006), the definition of ecotourism is usually debated and has different meanings to different people. Furthermore, Viljoen and Tlabela (2006) assert that as from the 1990s, ecotourism gained popularity. Honey (1999: 6) states that in 1991, the Ecotourism Society defined ecotourism as “responsible travel to natural areas that conserve the environment and improves the well being of local people.” Fennell (2003: 25) defines ecotourism as a “sustainable form of natural resource-based tourism that focuses primarily on experiencing and learning about nature, and locally orientated (control, benefits, and scale). It typically occurs in natural areas, and should contribute to the conservation or preservation of such areas.” On the other hand, Keyser (2002) describes ecotourism broadly as any kind of tourism that involves, among other things, provision of a first-hand drive experience of the place, provision of education to visitors so that they can be able understand and appreciate, closeness to natural environment and preservation of individual identity.

Viljoen and Tlabela (2006) argue that the international definition of ecotourism goes beyond travel to natural areas but includes that all parties involved in ecotourism should benefit rather than benefiting selected parties. Furthermore, Viljoen and Tlabela (2006) state that parties that are involved in nature-based tourism such as national and provincial Parks and private game reserves have started to include the concept of local community benefits and involvement. Keyser (2002) supports the idea that benefits accrued from ecotourism ventures should be equally distributed to all parties involved and a significant share of benefits should go to local communities. Local community benefits could be in the form of employment, the use of local knowledge, the purchasing of local products and services and the utilization of local facilities (Keyser, 2002). According to Fennell (2003), the growth of ecotourism has resulted in the demand for more wilderness space and the development of private Parks is one option for extending wilderness space for ecotourism ventures. South Africa and Texas are some of the countries which have a legacy of private Parks (Fennell, 2003).

#### **2.7.2.2 The rise of private Parks**

According to Weaver (2001), there is not much that is known about private Parks, but they are increasing in numbers. Some of the reasons that cause private Parks not to be known are because of their diversity and their exclusion from the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) classification protocol (Weaver, 2001). Langholz (1996) asserts that there has been alarming habitat destruction in the tropics which needed an urgent response on how biodiversity can be conserved. According to Langholz et al. (2000), the current existing approaches to biodiversity protection have proved to be unsuccessful, and furthermore some protected areas are under-protected while others only exist on paper.

Private protected areas continue to exist and grow because of the failure of government to adequately protect natural environments and depleting biodiversity (Weaver, 2001). Langholz and Lassoie (2001) state that most governments from developing countries fail to adequately support public Parks because of, among other reasons, debt crisis. Therefore, developing countries' governments usually reduce funding towards public Parks (Langholz and Lassoie, 2001). Langholz et al. (2000) argue that even if the public Parks were to be well protected, still 93% of the world's land area would be left unprotected. According to Langholz et al. (2000), there should be strategies in place to protect those areas that would never be covered under public Parks/protection, and the creation of private Parks is one of the solutions.

According to Langholz (1996), the existence of private Parks is not new; it can be traced back to protected lands which were used for royal hunting only. Although, royal hunting only catered for nobles, it conserved biodiversity and halted human encroachments (Langholz, 1996). According to Fennell (2003), much of tourism industry was based on consumptive activities, particularly hunting. Hunting was done by sport, commercial and subsistence hunters. According to Fennell (2003), as time went by, it was evident that the resources were depleting and subsistence hunters were denied the right to hunt and that created tension between those who had access and those who had no access to hunting areas. As a result, there was creation of private land to control hunting (Fennell, 2003). In most cases such privately owned lands were owned by elites and some had incorporated ecotourism ventures to their lands in order to, among other reasons, balance different forms of land use (Fennell, 2003). The Monteverde Cloud Forest Reserve in Cost Rica is one of the world's most noteworthy private reserve for ecotourism (Fennell, 2003). According to Weaver (2001), the growth of ecotourism has also contributed to the proliferation of private Parks.

Private Parks serve the same purpose as the national Parks. Their existence has strengths and weaknesses (Langholz and Lassoie, 2001; Weaver, 2001). Like public Parks, private Parks also have strengths and weaknesses in terms of their ecological, economic and social functions (Langholz and Lassoie, 2001). According to Langholz and Lassoie (2001), private Parks fulfill the same ecological and social functions as public Parks. Although private Parks are used for, among other things, air and water purification and recreational purposes, their key strengths are in biodiversity protection. They usually protect rare and threatened species which are not normally found on public Parks (Langholz and Lassoie, 2001). Langholz and Lassoie (2001) further state that private Parks usually serve as a precursor to public Parks; they can temporarily protect endangered species until the government manages to take full responsibility for the protection of those threatened species. Langholz and Lassoie (2001) cite an example of the private park which kept large valuable habitat in the United States until the park was formally made a public park after it was approved by the Tall-grass Prairie National Preserve Act of 1994.

From an ecological point of view, Langholz and Lassoie (2001) argue that private Parks also have disadvantages. Unlike public Parks which are permanently protected, most private Parks are informally protected. Langholz (1996) argues that most private Parks are small in size. Furthermore, Langholz (1996) asserts that private Parks found in the African continent protect

approximately 11 436 hectares of land which is larger than the portion of land protected by private Parks in Latin America. According to Langholz and Lassoie (2001), some private Parks are informally protected partly because of their small size. As a result some private Parks cannot keep and protect mega animals because of their small size. Langholz and Lassoie (2001) also suggest the fact that most private Parks are either located in close proximity to national Parks or are bordered by national Parks which contributes to them having a small size.

In terms of the economic considerations, one of the important market values for private Parks is their profitability; they can be very profitable projects (Langholz et al., 2000). Allen and Brennan (2004) support the idea that private Parks usually make more profit than public Parks when there are involved in ecotourism related ventures. Langholz et al. (2000) cite a study conducted by Church et al. (1994) where one private Park proved to have made more profit than all of Costa Rica's public Parks combined. Although private Parks draw their revenues from different sources, the tourism industry provides most revenues (Langholz, 1996). According to Langholz and Lassoie (2001), when private Parks are involved in ecotourism ventures, they represent a livelihood strategy that has economic and ecological viability.

Langholz and Lassoie (2001) further argue that for those private Parks who rely mostly on the tourism industry for the generation of revenues that can present a conflict of interest between economic and ecological features. Furthermore, it is possible that they can be tempted to degrade the environment while making a profit. Private Parks can place profit over environmental protection in many ways, such as exceeding the park's carrying capacity by accommodating more tourists (Langholz and Lassoie, 2001; Weaver, 2001). Weaver (2006) states that there is a growing number of commercial game reserves in sub-Saharan Africa which are attracting a huge number of tourists in order to accumulate profits through activities such as big game hunting which may not be in line with ecotourism. On the other hand, Langholz et al. (2000) highlight the non-market value of private Parks which is the bequest value. According to the study conducted by Langholz et al. (2000) which examines, among other things, the non-market value of private Parks in Costa Rica, it was evident that most Park owners keep their Parks for their heirs. According to Langholz et al. (2000), the legacy value attached to the private Parks is mostly attributed to the park's heirs rather than the community.

Langholz and Lassoie (2001) and Weaver (2001) state that private Parks have gained prominence and recognition from many different institutions and organizations who intend to start ecotourism ventures. Viljoen and Tlabela (2006) assert that those stakeholders such as national Parks, provincial Parks and private Parks who are already involved in ecotourism ventures have started to consider the importance of involving local communities in the planning processes and distribution of costs and benefits. According to Langholz and Lassoie (2001), private Parks usually overlap with some of the social and political conservation themes which are decentralization of resources and public participation in decision-making processes pertaining to resources management. Langholz and Lassoie (2001) cite an example of Columbia where private Parks started to empower rural communities through the decentralization of control over resources. Langholz and Lassoie (2001) further argue that private Parks can also serve wealthy tourists only, and forget about the needs of local rural communities surrounding them. There should be a meaningful relationship between private Parks and rural communities surrounding them (Langholz and Lassoie, 2001). According to Langholz (1996), one of the most important links between private Parks and adjacent communities is the contribution towards job creation. Private Parks can offer temporal or full time employment to the members of the communities living near and around the private Parks (Langholz, 1996).

### **2.7.3 Opportunities and impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on non-host rural communities**

According to Swart and Bob (2007), the South African democratic government is attempting to promote sport development in previously disadvantaged communities; however, it is evident that facilities and skills needed for sport development are still concentrated in urban areas. The hosting of sport mega-events should provide different stakeholders a chance of exploring ways of increasing their share from such events held in their region (Atkinson, 2007). Swart and Bob (2007) argue that South Africa is still in a process of integrating sport and tourism developments. This could be done through the creation of tourism products and markets that will expose tourists to rural communities. Atkinson (2007) supports the view that it is generally the private sector which takes the initiative to create tourism products that can expose rural communities to visitors in their areas. From the government side, little has been done to package and market rural areas to tourists visiting their areas. Furthermore, Atkinson (2007) states that it is the government's responsibility to promote economic diversification in



rural areas that could also be achieved through the promotion of tourism developments in rural areas.

According to O'Brien and Gardiner (2006), it is usually the case that before the sport mega-event takes place in a host country or region, sport participants, their coaches and support staff normally arrive early so that they could familiarize themselves with the local conditions such as climate and culture. Their study on the 2002 Sydney Olympic Games showed that non-host communities can capitalize on sport mega-events held in their countries. Most of the Australian cities did not want to host the pre-event training sessions; as a result some of the non-host communities used that opportunity to improve on their local businesses and tourism development, thereby contributing to their local economic growth (O'Brien and Gardiner, 2006).

According to Atkinson (2007), non-host rural communities are likely to benefit from the 2010 FIFA World Cup. This is because, there are more chances for non-host rural areas not to be overcrowded, not to have higher crime rates and increased prices. According to Atkinson (2007), tourists who come for the 2010 event are likely to leave the host cities because of problems like noise pollution, traffic congestion and crime rates and go to quieter places such as Parks for accommodation and relaxation. Additionally, visitors may want to experience other aspects of South Africa's tourist offerings. Saayman and Rossouw (2008) provide an example of the 1994 World Cup in the United States of America. Their research findings reveal that non-host areas benefited more than host areas because host cities were too congested and tourists preferred quieter areas and non-soccer related tourism (Saayman and Rossouw, 2008).

Atkinson (2007) further states that non-host rural communities can market their products and services with the help of the Park's brochures so that tourists could know that they exist and what they have to offer. Atkinson (2007) states that the public and private sector could work together so that the 2010 event benefits could be realized and the collaboration of the public and private sector would put rural communities on a platform to access 2010 benefits.

#### **2.7.4 Possible spill-over effects of mega-events on non-host rural communities**

According to Atkinson (2007), there are four possible spillover effects on non-host-rural communities that could result from the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Some of the following spill-over effects overlap.

##### **2.7.4.1 Accommodation or satellite areas**

It is most likely that host cities would not have enough accommodation for the thousands of visitors who will be coming to South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Therefore, satellite areas would play a significant role in assisting with accommodation. Visitors can stay over in the satellite areas before moving to the next match venue (Atkinson, 2007). According to Davies (2009), it is for the first time that FIFA will consider non-hotels as accredited accommodation for the Football World Cup that gives small businesses an opportunity to leverage on 2010 benefits by providing accommodation such as bed and breakfast establishments. The name of the organization responsible for seeing that the 2010 accommodation are in place is called MATCH (Atkinson, 2007). According to the Government Communication and Information System (2008), FIFA requires 55 000 rooms (10 000 non-hotel rooms and 45 000 hotel rooms) to be signed with MATCH. At the time of the Government Communication and Information System publication, MATCH had only registered 19 398 hotel rooms and 5 327 non-hotel rooms. To be more specific, in KwaZulu-Natal, eThekweni, which forms part of the study, there are only 1 349 non-hotel and 3 027 hotel rooms registered through MATCH (Government Communication and Information System, 2008). According to Atkinson (2007), the proximity of the accommodation to the host venue/host city is not an issue; however, the accommodation should have 200 rooms, proper road infrastructure and be graded by the Tourism Grading Council of South Africa.

South Africa has a potential of attracting more international visitors because of its rich natural resources and wildlife (Cornelissen, 2005). According to DEAT (1996), most of the South Africa's rich natural base and wildlife are found in rural areas. Since the proximity of accommodation to the match venue is not a pre-requisite for accommodation owners to register with MATCH, this gives non-host rural communities a chance to leverage the benefits of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. According to Cornelissen (2005), the way place and people are promoted and marketed matters a lot when it comes to tourists' image of the area. Also, tour

operators play an important role in the projection of people and place to the tourists. However, tourists may also use their discretion about host people and their places (Cornelissen, 2005). Since Atkinson (2007) states that it is most likely that the 2010 visitors would prefer quieter, non-congested areas; this creates opportunities for non-host rural areas to use the 2010 event to their advantage. Deccio and Baloglu (2002) support the view that non-host rural communities can maximize their chances through proper advertisement and new stories. Working together with non-host rural communities, business owners or tourism marketers and government officials in terms of advertisement can help in promoting and marketing non-host areas to international visitors (Deccio and Baloglu, 2002; Atkinson, 2007).

#### **2.7.4.2 Base or training camps**

Atkinson (2007) asserts that the final team preparation for a sport mega-event is usually conducted on the training camps. The training camp should be easily accessible for the event participants to train, have proper accommodation and other services such as transport and food, and also be in close proximity to the match venue. Base camps should be located within 120 km from the host match venue. However, the selection of a base camp is also dependent on the team's discretion (Atkinson, 2007). Furthermore, Atkinson (2007) reveals that base camps should accommodate about 50-80 people. Atkinson (2007) asserts that the areas that could be used as base camps should also provide sophisticated training facilities and further accommodate approximately 30-40 000 supporters. According to Atkinson (2007), in the Eastern Cape, the Cacadu District Municipality had already started to create strategies that will attract teams to establish base camps within their municipal jurisdiction. Also in the Western Cape, different municipalities are exploring their options whether to bid for base camps or not (Atkinson, 2007). Atkinson (2007) further reveals that in order for rural communities to serve as base or training camps, different relevant stakeholders, such as the government and private sector, should work together in designing strategies that will benefit rural areas.

#### **2.7.4.3 Expansion of tourism**

Kirsten and Rogerson (2002) argue that it is very surprising how the growth of small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) are not properly supported and nurtured in South Africa, whereas their importance is stressed in the White Paper on the Development and Promotion of

Tourism in South Africa (DEAT, 1996). In the White Paper (DEAT, 1996) the South African government promotes tourism developments and Kirsten and Rogerson (2002) emphasize that government could also attract and promote investments to rural areas. Furthermore, Kirsten and Rogerson (2002) recognize the important role that alternative forms of tourism, such as ecotourism, could play in enabling rural communities to benefit from tourism developments. For example, rural communities could start their own informal tourism enterprises. In most cases, informal tourism enterprises such as arts and crafts sellers, street guides and providers of transport services such as rickshaws, are not properly recognized and supported in terms of tourism planning and development. However, their growth is mostly dependent upon recognition by larger tourism enterprises (Kirsten and Rogerson, 2002).

With the upcoming 2010 World Cup, Atkinson (2007) asserts that rural communities are presented with opportunities to diversify their economies from relying only on agricultural productions. According to Atkinson (2007), it is likely that tourists coming for the 2010 event would like to explore tourism products that South Africa has to offer and the most prime attractions are found in rural areas. Private game Parks, as well as established tourism sites, could use some of the services from non-host rural communities, such as “providing food through a restaurant; supplying fresh fruit, vegetables or fish; selling and producing handicrafts; staging cultural performances; security; laundry services; room cleaning services; general maintenance services; transport services for guests and staff; and rubbish removal” (Kirsten and Rogerson, 2002: 43). This can allow rural communities to share the slice of 2010 event’s benefits.

According to Magi (2006), although there are no speculations that have been done to predict the impacts of the 2010 World Cup on rural communities, it can be hypothesized that rural areas, particularly those in Zululand, can only benefit from the 2010 event through provision of arts and crafts, cultural artifacts and guest house accommodations. Contrary to this position, Atkinson (2007) states that there could be more developmental opportunities created for non-host rural communities such as support for informal traders and services and also creation of job opportunities. Atkinson (2007) further argues that non-host rural communities should use the 2010 event to their advantage, in such a way that they move from supply led strategies and create tourism demand strategies. Also, the South African government should create tourism strategies that will promote and market rural communities to the local and international tourists, thereby attracting more visitors to rural areas (Atkinson, 2007).

#### **2.7.4.4 Travel/ route tourism**

Route tourism is one of the strategies used worldwide to promote rural tourism (Atkinson, 2007). According to Lourens (2007), route tourism helps to bring together, under one theme, different activities and attractions in rural areas, that creates a space for entrepreneurial developments where there could be complementary products and services offered by rural communities. Furthermore, Lourens (2007) adds that routes present opportunities for the creation of local partnerships. In this study, private Parks and their adjacent rural communities could also create partnerships in order to maximize 2010 benefits. Route tourism also helps travelers to explore some of the rural areas that were never or less explored, which have rich natural and cultural resources (Atkinson, 2007). As some rural areas are far from the 2010 World Cup host cities, Atkinson (2007) states that those non-host rural areas can attract tourists to stay over-night in their communities or they could attract visitors in such a way that they en route or pass by on their way to their next match venue. Such routes will also enable non-host rural communities to be recognized by outsiders. According to Atkinson (2007), non-host rural communities should embark on promotion and media strategies so that they could be known and noted by visitors. Furthermore, they should also engage themselves with travel agencies and tour operators so that they could know how to market themselves properly and also assess what they can offer to the tourists during the 2010 World Cup (Atkinson, 2007).

### **2.8 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND SPORT EVENTS**

According to Hinch and Higham (2004), the sustainable development concept does not have a universal meaning; different people attach different meanings to this concept. Furthermore, Hinch and Higham (2004) state that in the tourism sector development opportunities can be created and nurtured in such a way that tourism developments benefit present and future generations. Sustainable development is defined by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) (1987: 4) as the kind of “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”.

Hinch and Higham (2004) further link sustainable development to sport tourism developments. In sport mega-events there has been an emergence of the importance of

achieving sustainable development which encompasses the social, economic and environmental aspects (Swart and Bob, 2007). When achieving sustainable sport tourism, there must be a balance between social, economic and environmental goals. This means that sport tourism should contribute significantly to the improvement of social and cultural support systems of the local communities, at the same time protecting the natural environment (Hinch and Higham, 2004). In most cases, sport organizers tend to focus only on economic gains of sport tourism and neglect the social, cultural and environmental costs that might arise, but if social, cultural and environmental factors are seen to have some form of capital, arguments might arise as to how sustainable development could be reached (Hinch and Higham, 2004). The way sport tourism seeks to achieve economic gains results in social and environmental aspects being compromised or neglected (Swart and Bob, 2007).

## **2.9 PERCEIVED IMPACTS OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS**

According to Gursoy et al. (2002), tourism development successes rely heavily upon local people's support. This is because if the country or region becomes a tourist attraction, members of the host communities' lives are affected because of the developments associated with that tourism venture. It is also important to note that the success of any tourism development rests upon attractions and services mostly provided by local people (Gursoy et al., 2002). This means that the tourism industry requires hospitality of local communities. Therefore, understanding people's attitudes, reactions and perceptions of the tourism developments is important for the success and failure of any tourism development. Community reactions are to a large extent influenced by perceived costs and benefits which can be classified into three categories: economic, environmental and social (Andereck et al., 2005; Deccio and Baloglu, 2002; Gursoy et al., 2002). Besides the fact that sport mega-events also have negative impacts for the host country, different countries continue to bid for hosting such events (Kim et al., 2006). Before the event takes place, residents tend to focus only on the positive spin-offs of the event; they ignore the cost or negative impacts, more especially the environmental impacts, which might arise because of the staging of a sport mega-event (Kim et al., 2006).

## **2.9.1 Negative social impacts**

### **2.9.1.1 Displacement of local residents**

In most cases, the impacts of sport mega-events are viewed from the economic perspective. However, Jones (2001) states that sport mega-events also have social effects on host countries or destinations. The fact that these events are organized and controlled from outside the host country makes it difficult for the host country to deal with some impacts that come with hosting sport mega-events (Jones, 2001). Although the hosting of sport mega-events comes with urban renewal which contributes significantly to the improvement of the quality of life of most people in the host country, urban renewal also comes with the displacement of local people (Ohmann et al., 2006). Also, near the location where the sport mega-event is going to take place, there is usually a displacement of working class people by the middle class residents (Hiller, 2000). This was evident in the 1988 Seoul Olympics where 700 000 people were removed. Also in Beijing, it was expected that 300 000 people were to be removed because of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006).

For the upcoming 2010 World Cup, Baatjie and Kirkby (2008) state that the Metropolitan Councils of the 2010 host cities should revisit the way they are handling urban renewal in preparation for the 2010 event. According to Baatjie and Kirkby (2008), there is urban renewal that is currently taking place in South African host cities. Some of the host cities, such as Johannesburg Metropolitan, are using urban renewal at the expense of the poor. The poor people are being removed by developers from certain buildings where the developers think they can use the buildings for 2010 accommodations (Baatjie and Kirkby, 2008). According to Baatjie and Kirkby (2008), in preparation for the 2010 World Cup, the Ekurhuleni Metropolitan is removing informal settlements from the city. Jones (2001) argues that it is not only housing which is affected by evictions of people but in some cases, also small businesses are affected. This was also evident in the 1992 Barcelona World Cup.

Jones (2001) states that disadvantaged people who normally stay on the streets in the host cities could be removed or arrested because the event organizers want to portray their city in a positive light; this was the case with the 1996 Atlanta World Cup. In preparation for the 2010 event, in the Durban/eThekweni Metropolitan City which is also one of the host cities, the informal traders are being re-allocated from the inner city to other areas where they cannot be

visible to the tourists visiting the city during the 2010 event (Nadvi, 2008). According to Nadvi (2008), most of these informal traders do not have trading permits and others are foreigners who do not qualify for South Africa trading permits. Nadvi (2008) further reveals that some informal traders cannot afford to rent the designated areas for trading.

### **2.9.1.2 Disruptions of people's lives**

Any major sport event will to some extent have social impacts, such as congestion, overcrowding, increased crime and disruption of lives, on host communities, which mostly affect the marginalized people (Jones, 2001; Kim et al., 2006). According to Ohmann et al. (2006), the hosting of sport mega-events contributes to immoral activities such as increased prostitution, drunkenness and common assaults. Ohmann et al. (2006) provide an example on how prostitution has increased due to the visitors' demands on the sex industry prior and during the 1986 America's Cup in Fremantle. In some cases, host countries' authorities try ways to legitimize the brothels and street prostitution, like in the case of the 2000 Sydney Olympics and 2004 Athens Olympic Games (Ohmann et al., 2006). Jones (2001) further emphasizes that the way people perceive the event is very important, the way costs and benefits are distributed is also crucial because it influences the overall perception of the event.

### **2.9.1.3 Safety and security**

Provision of maximum security is one of the requirements, which is too costly, that a host country should meet in order to qualify for hosting a sport mega-event (Matheson, 2006). In order to meet safety and security requirements, some host governments use tax payers' money to cover costs. This was evident in the 2004 Summer Olympic Games where the Athens government spent \$1.5 billion only on security issues (Matheson, 2006). Safety issues are some of the challenges that are facing South Africa as the 2010 World Cup host country (Cornelissen, 2007; Donaldson and Ferreira, 2007). Cornelissen (2007) further states that safety issues will require more attention from the South African government in terms of preparation to increase safety measures. Higham (1999) states that safety and security issues and unusual behavior of sport junkies are some of the factors associated with the hosting of a sport mega-event. Donaldson and Ferreira (2007) support the view that the hosting of any sport mega-event comes with many uncertainties in terms of safety and security. This is because in a very short period of time a sport mega-event attracts more people into the host



country and this has the potential of sport fans having differences and clashes that might be of concern to the host government. Furthermore, Donaldson and Ferreira (2007) state that the hosting of a sport mega-event is a good opportunity for terrorists to attack the host country.

Swart and Bob (2006) argue that the media plays a role in perpetuating perceptions pertaining to the criminal activities taking place in a host country, as a result, it impacts on the way local and international visitors perceive the host country's safety issues. If tourists, while in a host country felt unsafe, it is mostly likely that they will not revisit that country and also not recommend visitation to other tourists (Donaldson and Ferreira, 2007). Ohmann et al. (2006) state that although the hosting of sport mega-events comes with increased crime rates, in most cases crime takes place in areas where there are less security measures in place. Crime usually takes place outside the event venues, such as in hotels and pubs. Matheson (2006) also argues that the publicity that a host region receives is not always positive, there are cases, such as the bribery issue associated with the 2002 Winter Olympic in Salt Lake, which ruined the reputation of the host region. Pillay and Bass (2009) support the view that in most cases when developing countries host sport mega-events, media tend to perpetuate stereotyped images which puts a negative light on the host country. This could be seen in South Africa where international and local media have shown doubt on the ability of South Africa to successfully host the 2010 World Cup, and have further speculated on the potential alternative countries that can host the 2010 World Cup should South Africa fail (Pillay and Bass, 2009).

### **2.9.2 Negative economic impacts**

Measuring the economic impacts of sport mega-event is usually problematic and biased. This is because studies are done by proponents of the event itself, such as the event organizers who want to prove at any cost that investments have been spent accordingly. Sturgess and Brady (2006) and Matheson (2006) argue that such studies need to be reviewed to prove whether they are indeed true or not. Chalip and Leyns (2002) support the view that independent agencies usually question some of the sport mega-event's benefits. According to Mules (1998), the studies that examine the economic impacts of sport mega-events tend to focus only on the positive economic impacts, they ignore the costs borne by the local communities. At times such studies even forget to mention the economic loss made which impacts badly on tax payers (Mules, 1998).

According to Hiller (1998), public money spent on the staging of sport mega-events by governments and sport organizers is usually justified on the basis that the sport mega-events would create positive spin-offs for the host country. Hiller (1998) argues that in most cases sport mega-events result in incalculable benefits and/or benefits that could only be regarded as estimates. Furthermore, Hiller (1998) states that economic gains of sport mega-events usually overshadow the negative impacts of such events. Negative impacts are ignored and seen as minor impacts compared to the economic benefits that would be accrued because of hosting a sport mega-event. Furthermore, it is rare to find studies that check whether or not the projected benefits before the event are indeed accrued after the event has occurred (Hiller 1998; Jones, 2001).

According to Saayman and Rossouw (2008), research has also shown that different countries together with their host regions experience different economic impacts from hosting sport mega-events. Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) add that the economic gains from a sport mega-event are unevenly distributed. Pillay and Bass (2009) support the view that sport mega-events result in unequal distribution of its positive impacts, particularly in the context of developed countries. Pillay and Bass (2009) argue that when there is a sport mega-event held in a region, non-host areas can experience reductions in revenue that might have long-term effects. They cite an example of the 1994 Winter Olympics which were held in Lillehammer in Norway. The employment rates increased in the host city while they dropped in the non-host areas after the event occurred. Furthermore, Pillay and Bass (2009) assert that the use of public funds to finance preparations for the staging of a sport mega-event means that government should cut down the budget from other areas. Such an initiative usually affects those who least benefit from the staging of that particular sport mega-event. Also, such initiatives often result in resources earmarked for the development of marginalized areas (such as rural communities) being significantly reduced since the focus is on improvements in the host cities.

### **2.9.2.1 Lack of domestic skills and capacity development**

According to Matheson (2006), sport mega-events require specialized labor, material and technology which are usually accessed outside the host country. According to Bohlmann (2006), when South Africa won the 2010 FIFA World Cup bid, the country realized that it had to address constraints such as skills shortages which will be needed in preparation for the

2010 event. In February 2006, the South African government introduced the new macro-economic framework, the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA), which highlighted the need for skills and capacity development (Bohlmann, 2006). Theron (2008) asserts that for the 2010 World Cup projects the South African government employed most people from Zimbabwe who have construction, artisan and engineering skills. According to Theron (2008), the hiring of Zimbabweans is problematic to the Zimbabwean economy and also to South Africa since it takes away job opportunities which would have been given to the South Africans. If foreign contractors do not hire domestic workers it would impact badly on the South African population who anticipated employment opportunities and economic gains from the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Bohlmann, 2006).

### **2.9.2.2 Price inflation**

The staging of sport mega-events usually results in price inflation and also in an increase in tax payments so that the host government can be able to finance the preparation to host a sport mega-event. This creates a burden on host communities (Kim et al., 2006). Also, property and rent normally increases when there is a sport mega-event hosted in the region, which was the case with the 2000 Sydney Olympic where the property and rent rose in the vicinity of Homebush Bay (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006). However, Matheson (2006) argues that although accommodation prices increase, the money that is earned by hotel workers does not increase. Although the host country can accumulate significant revenues from foreign exchange, only the business owners such as hotels owners, who raise the price during the sport-mega event benefit, not general workers (Matheson, 2006).

### **2.9.2.3 Substitution of normal visitors**

According to Matheson and Baade (2004), sport mega-events result in the increase of gross as opposed to net income. The gross measure does not take into account the regular spending that is being replaced by sport mega-event spending. Matheson and Baade (2004) further state that if there is a sport mega-event being held in a region, regular visitor spending is often replaced by visitors who have only come to watch a sport mega-event in that region. Matheson and Baade (2004) cite an example of the 2002 South Korea and Japan World Cup where there was a significant increase in the number of European visitors to Korea; however,

this significant increase was offset by the decrease in the same number of visitors from Japan to Korea. It was estimated that the total number of visitors to Korea during the 2002 World Cup was 460 000, a very similar figure to that of the previous year's foreign visitors during the same period. Greeff (2008) states that during the 2006 FIFA world Cup held in Germany, the German government was surprised when the country did not receive the many visitors as they had anticipated. The hotels, bed and breakfast facilities and guesthouses also did not receive the number of tourists they had anticipated (Greeff, 2008).

#### **2.9.2.4 Expensive infrastructural developments**

Nadvi (2008) asserts that the staging of sport mega-events differs between developing and developed country's contexts. Matheson and Baade (2004) state that infrastructural development costs needed for the staging of a sport mega-event differs between developed and developing countries. According to Matheson and Baade (2004), this is because in most cases when developed countries are awarded such events, they normally have sophisticated infrastructure needed whereas this is not the case with developing countries. Developing countries have to build new stadiums in order to meet FIFA's requirements (Matheson and Baade, 2004). According to Matheson and Baade (2004), when the 1994 World Cup was held in the United States, the United States only spent US \$30 million on infrastructural developments because it had already had the nine stadiums needed by FIFA. However, this was not the case with the 2002 World Cup which was co-hosted by Korea and Japan; South Korea spent approximately US \$2 billion on 10 new stadiums and Japan spent approximately US \$2 billion on 7 new stadiums and 3 renovated stadiums. The same thing could be said about the 2010 FIFA World Cup to be held in South Africa. The South African government requires large investments in preparing for the upcoming 2010 event (Greeff, 2008). Matheson and Baade (2004) support the idea that South Africa will have to spend huge funds on infrastructural developments to meet FIFA's requirements.

Although, sport mega-events leave behind infrastructure developments created before they are staged, Jones (2001) states that some of these developments leave the host country in debt. Jones (2001) further argues that if such facilities are as important as they claim to be, why do the host countries only build them because of the upcoming sport mega-events? Matheson (2006) argues that the hosting of a mega sport event comes with infrastructural developments and improvements which results in the host country's government cutting down on the budget

of some of the services, borrowing money and also increasing taxation, which at the end impact badly on the local economy. Under these circumstances the poor are likely to be the most negatively impacted since they rely mostly on State resources. Cornelissen and Swart (2006) emphasize that there is a thin line between benefits and costs of hosting such events. Although they can attract investments and development in the host country, if they are not planned properly, the host country could not benefit as much as it had anticipated. According to Nadvi (2008), it is challenging for the host country to recover the funds spent on new infrastructural developments, such as stadiums, transport systems and tourist retreats needed for the staging of a sport mega-event. It is also demanding for the host country to maintain such facilities. As a result, there is an increase of ticket prices to access and utilize such facilities, and that discourages the disadvantaged communities from utilizing the facilities (Nadvi, 2008). According to Greeff (2008), Barcelona is still paying the debt accumulated because of the hosting of the 1992 Olympic Games.

#### **2.9.2.5 Costs of stadium construction**

Matheson (2006) states that sport mega-events, such as the Olympic Games, require huge amounts of money so that they could meet the IOC's required standards. According to Matheson (2006), the country which is awarded to host a sport mega-event has to spend too much tax payers' money in the construction of new and/or improving stadiums so as to meet FIFA's requirements. With the 2006 World Cup, Germany spent over 1.4 billion euros on 12 stadium constructions and upgrading, of which approximately 35% of that money came from tax payers' money (Matheson, 2006).

According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2006), it is usually the case to find that economic and social benefits associated with stadium construction and developments are overstated, thereby undermining the costs of such developments. Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) further state that sport mega projects, such as stadiums and road construction, are not usually finished within the expected time as a result they normally exceed the estimated budget. Matheson (2006) argues that the construction and upgrading of stadiums are too costly and they have a very limited use for local communities after the event has occurred. To Matheson (2006), stadium construction and upgrading should be perceived as costs rather than benefits to the host country.

Mules (1998) argues that the sophisticated stadiums that are built because of sport mega-events sometimes are a burden to the local communities because of the cost of maintenance. For example, with the 1982 Brisbane Commonwealth Games, the athletics stadium left after the Games had not much use for the local people. It was later changed to cater for usual sport, such as rugby and baseball in the area (Mules, 1998). Without the conversion of this stadium, according to Mules (1998), there would have been no funds to maintain and keep it. Matheson and Baade (2004) suggest that the stadium constructed during the 2002 Korea and Japan FIFA World Cup impacted badly on the Japanese economy. According to Donaldson et al. (2008), the stadiums built for the 2002 World Cup were not often used after the event had occurred because they were suitable for high profession events. The 2002 World Cup did not meet most of the organizers' expectations made before the World Cup (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006; Donaldson et al., 2008). Greeff (2008) argues that it is uncertain how most South Africans will benefit in the long run on the 2010 event's infrastructural developments, such as the stadiums.

#### **2.9.2.6 Ticket affordability**

International events such as sport mega-events are costly in terms of attendance (Jones, 2001). However, there are disparities between people's attendance in developed and developing countries. Most of the population in the developed countries could afford sport mega-event's match tickets whereas most people in the developing countries cannot afford to buy expensive match tickets (Matheson and Baade, 2004). In a host country, some local people could not afford to go and watch an event because they could not afford tickets prices (Jones, 2001; Higham, 1999). According to Greeff (2008), for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, most South African rural communities have concerns about accessibility and affordability of the 2010 matches. The problem lies with the ticket prices and location of matches. Not only are the South African rural communities having problems with the 2010 FIFA World Cup tickets prices, Du Plessis and Maennig (2009) state that local South African football fans have concerns with 2010 tickets prices. The initial tickets prices was at US \$128 (R1 000) and the average price was expected to be US \$272. Such pricing of tickets are likely to be too ambitious for South Africa which have an unemployment rate of about 27% and median monthly income of US \$260 (Du Plessis and Maennig, 2009).

Greeff (2008) argues that it would not be fair for Bafana Bafana (South African national football team) to play during their 2010 matches without support from South African fans because fans cannot afford to pay for the tickets costs. From Greeff's (2008) point of view, there are more Black South Africans who are interested in watching football games and Bafana Bafana than White South Africans. However, most of those Black South Africans are financially less fortunate, that presents a challenge for the LOC who will be filling seats during the 2010 matches if spectator numbers depend mostly on the less financially fortunate people (Greeff, 2008). According to Du Plessis and Maennig (2009), FIFA and LOC tried to address ticket price issues by pricing tickets games according to four categories. Category one, two and three are priced in US dollars whereas category four tickets are priced in rands and also reserved for South Africans. Furthermore, Du Plessis and Maennig (2009) assert that category four tickets price will range from US \$20 for first round match and US \$150 for the final. On the other hand, Higham (1999) states that there are also other factors that lead to host people not attending the mega-event, such as crowding and congestion, which could result in local people not participating in the event even if they wanted to. This means that the way events are organized and the economic issues involved play an important role in influencing the perceptions among local people about the event.

### **2.9.2.7 Quality of job opportunities created by sport mega-events**

According to Hiller (1998), the benefits of sport mega-events are usually exaggerated so as to justify their staging. Hiller (2000) states that there are various benefits, such as job creation and economic development, associated with hosting sport mega-events and he questions whether these benefits are really accrued. Pillay and Bass (2009) argue that although there are stadium constructions for the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup, the kind of jobs created are usually short-term or temporary and also only a few people get to be employed, as a result, the event does little to change most of the poorer South African's lives. Nadvi (2008) supports the idea that although the hosting of a sport mega-event can create job opportunities which can give local communities income, training and skills development, however, after the event it is most likely that jobs will be lost and people have to return to poverty. According to Nadvi (2008), there are very few people who can exploit opportunities presented by a sport mega-event and be able to escape poverty. Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) support the view that job opportunities created by mega-events are of short duration and pay less. The evidence could be seen from the job opportunities that were created during the 1992 Barcelona Olympic

Games. After the Games, those jobs were found to be of short duration and low payment (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006).

### **2.9.3 Negative environmental impacts**

Sport events play an important role in a region, because they attract developments and promote the regions image (Sookrajh, 2008). However, it is important for any tourism development, including sport mega-events, to take into consideration the importance of conserving the natural environment (Deccio and Baloglu, 2002). Deccio and Baloglu (2002) further state that the issue of preserving the natural environment is a bit challenging because the environment serves recreational purposes but at the same time it has to be preserved for present and future generations. According to Ahmed et al. (2008), environmental concerns pertaining to sport events have been previously ignored. Matheson (2006) supports the idea that in most cases environmental impacts that result from the hosting of a sport mega-event are often not reported. This is because most people do not take them seriously enough to report (Kim et al., 2006). In the case where environmental concerns are taken into consideration, one normally finds that the environmental impacts are underestimated (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006).

According to Ahmed et al. (2008), there has currently been recognition of the significant impacts that sport events have on the natural environment. They argue that any sport event that draws many visitors to the small area has a potential of creating noise pollution, traffic congestion and overcrowding. Furthermore, such a situation can also result in the generation of large amounts of waste, utilization of energy, impacts upon water quality and quantity and further disturb natural environments and local people's activities (Ahmed et al., 2008). Kim et al. (2006) support the view that sport mega-events destroy the physical and natural environments to the extent that they could also change the land-use and also affect cultural and heritage resources.



## **2.9.4 Positive social impacts**

### **2.9.4.1 Increased community pride, national identity and the feel-good effects**

Sport mega-events have a potential of creating a strong emotional shared experience among host country residents (Black and Van der Westhuizen, 2004). According to Black and Van der Westhuizen (2004), more countries, particularly developing countries, use the staging of sport mega-events as a brand to attract foreign investments, media coverage and further project its image to other international countries. Black and Van der Westhuizen (2004) further state that sport mega-events have been used to promote nation-building, thereby fostering national identity in a host country. The elite and politicians normally use sport mega-events to reflect common political identities, as this was the case with the co-hosted 2002 Korea and Japan World Cup (Black and Van der Westhuizen, 2004). According to Kim and Morrision (2005), the 2002 World Cup brought unity among different groups in Korea. Labuschagne (2008) supports the idea that politicians use sport to promote social integration and unity among fragmented societies. Labuschagne (2008) further asserts that the 1995 Rugby World Cup and the 1996 Africa Cup of Nations contributed to nation-building in South Africa.

According to Jones (2001), the hosting of a sport mega-event also contributes to the creation of community pride among the host country's residents. The use of a sport mega-event to foster new identity in the host country was achieved when South Africa hosted and won the 1995 Rugby World Cup. That event contributed to the re-imaging of South Africa as a democratic country which is part of the world sport community, it further fostered a new identity and brought about social change in the country (Black and Van der Westhuizen, 2004; Matheson, 2006). In the following year, in 1996, South Africa hosted and won the African Cup of Nations (Cornelissen, 2004a). To some people, community pride and international recognition are as or more important than the economic impacts derived from the hosting of the sport mega-events. In the study undertaken by Deccio and Baloglu (2002) on non-host community perceptions of a sport mega-event, the results showed that the Calgary and Georgia residents viewed community pride and international recognition as important as or more important than the economic spin-offs of the 2002 Winter Olympics. Furthermore, hosting a sport mega-event fosters and strengthens values, traditions and cultural understanding between tourists and local communities (Deccio and Baloglu, 2002).

According to Maennig and Porsche (2008), an economic analysis focuses mostly on the tangible effects of sport mega-events. However, sport mega-events also have the intangible effects such as the feel-good effect which have recently gained much attention. Donaldson et al. (2008) support the idea that economic studies tend to ignore the feel-good effect of a sport mega-event. According to Donaldson et al. (2008), a feel-good effect is important since it is the experience that can be felt by local host communities even if they did not personally go to the stadiums to watch the World Cup's matches. According to Maennig and Porsche (2008), most of the positive effects on tourism employment and income that Germany anticipated before it hosted the 2006 World Cup did not materialized. However, according to Maennig and Porsche (2008), the local German communities still experienced the feel-good effect. Furthermore, Maennig and Porsche (2008: 2) state that "the feel-good effect has proved to be the greatest measurable effect of the 2006 World Cup."

#### **2.9.4.2 Developments and legacies created by sport mega-events**

According to Black and Van der Westhuizen (2004), developments associated with sport mega-events should not only be limited to sport developments, but should also encompass economic and social developments. Usually, sport mega-events leave legacies such as infrastructural developments which are used for training and competition purposes during the sport mega-event in a particular area (Black and Van der Westhuizen, 2004). Such infrastructural developments that are left as a legacy after the sport mega-event that occurred could be seen on the 1996 Atlanta Olympic where, among other things, a \$189 million Olympic stadium, a \$17 million Wolf Creek Shooting Complex and a \$10 million Lake Lanier Rowing Center were left behind after the Olympics (Jones, 2001).

Although some stadiums constructed because of the sport mega-event to take place in the region and after the event they are left as a legacy, Donaldson et al. (2008) argue about the issue of sustainability of such infrastructure after the event. Donaldson et al. (2008) cite the case of Korea and Japan that used most of their investments on building and upgrading the stadiums which were later of a debatable value to the local low-income residents (as highlighted earlier). This was because the stadiums were of a single purpose and catered for elite sports (Donaldson et al., 2008). Campell and Phago (2008) argue that stadiums should be built in such a way that they continue to be utilized even after the sport mega-event had occurred. Campell and Phago (2008) cite an example of the Stade de France stadium built in

Paris for the 1998 FIFA World Cup. Because this stadium has multi-purpose capabilities, it was also able to host the 2007 Rugby World Cup. The Nelson Mandela Bay stadium in Port Elizabeth is one of the stadiums built for the 2010 World Cup which is planned to have multi-purpose capabilities (Campbell and Phago, 2008). Kim et al. (2006) argue that local communities like the legacies, particularly infrastructure developments, which they could use even after the sport mega-event had occurred. According to Jones (2001) and Saayman and Rossouw (2008), if a sport mega-event contributes to the improvement of recreational facilities in the area, it is most likely that the event will get more support from the local communities.

#### **2.9.4.3 Sport development and increased participation**

In the developing countries, the hosting of sport mega-events such as Olympic Games is expected to promote sport development and further expose the host country to new and different kinds of sport that are unknown to the host country (Bob et al., 2008). According to Bob et al. (2008), sport development can form part of a legacy aspect of the sport mega-event held in the developing country. This is because sport development includes, among other things, development of infrastructure and capacity building (Bob et al. (2008). On the other hand, sport mega-events also contribute to the participation of local people in sports in general (Jones, 2001). In South Africa, Swart and Bob (2009) state that the creation of training venues for the 2010 FIFA World Cup will contribute to the promotion of sport and development in marginalized communities.

Swart and Bob (2007) argue that infrastructure constructed because of the staging of sport mega-events should be suitable for the use of local communities. In most cases such facilities are questionable in terms of their services to the local communities after the event has occurred. Black and Van der Westhuizen (2004) raise a question of who really uses some of the infrastructural developments left as a legacy by sport mega-events. Jones (2001) argues that small-scale sporting events provide local communities with infrastructure developments that are more appropriate for the use of the public than mega-events. According to Swart and Bob (2007), in South Africa, the post-apartheid government has tried to develop various sports among previously disadvantaged communities, but, facilities and skills are still concentrated on few sports within disadvantaged communities. Furthermore, Swart and Bob

(2007) state that sport development and tourism could still be integrated into unique products and markets which will expose visitors to indigenous sports.

#### **2.9.4.4 Increased safety and security measures**

Maennig and Porsche (2008) state that the staging of sport mega-events have been criticized because their staging require, among other things, the upgrading of security measures which require too much public funds. According to Maennig and Porsche (2008), such criticism could create negative perceptions about the sport mega-event to be hosted. If the host government could implement security measures that would make both local communities and tourists to feel safe during the sport mega-event, it could create positive perceptions about the event. Maennig and Porsche (2008) state that during the preparations for the 2006 FIFA World Cup, the German government deployed approximately 250 000 German police officers, 1 700 members of Federal armed forces and 16 000 security personnel. The German government also deployed other security operatives from European and outside European countries to help with potentially aggressive fans from outside Germany. Furthermore, Maennig and Porsche (2008) assert that security measures, such as an electronic ticket and access control system, were also upgraded within stadiums where the event were going to take place. Such improvements on safety and security measures contributed to the positive “perception of a peaceful and friendly World Cup” (Maennig and Porsche, 2008: 4). However, they come with an enormous cost that can be a drain on the resources available in developing countries such as South Africa.

According to Donaldson and Ferreira (2007), the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup is a good opportunity for South Africa to increase its safety and security measures which will persist even after the World Cup has occurred. Van Wyk (2008) states that the South African government promised to ensure that during the 2010 event, guaranteed safety and security measures will be in place. According to Grundling and Steynberg (2008), in 2007, the South African government allocated R6.8 billion for crime prevention and justice services. From that budget R666 million will be used for the 2010 event’s safety and security related issues. Furthermore, more than 30 000 police will be recruited and trained specifically for the 2010 event (Grundling and Steynberg, 2008).

## **2.9.5 Positive economic impacts**

### **2.9.5.1 Promotion of host region**

Sport mega-events, such as the Olympics, Rugby World Cup and FIFA World Cups, have significant economic impacts on the host country that would have not accrued if it was not for the hosting of such event (Mules, 1998; Sturgess and Brady, 2006). Sport mega-events have the potential of attracting media to the host country; as a result it raises the awareness about the host country or host region (Mules, 1998). The host country becomes exposed to other countries of the world, as a result, even after the event the tourists may come and re-visit the host country. This will contribute to the increase in the number of future visitors and investors (Mules, 1998; Matheson, 2006). Furthermore, Kim et al. (2006) state that as sport mega-events attract new investors to the host country; they create the space for new commercial opportunities in the host country.

According to a study conducted by Kim and Morrision (2005) on the Korean's image after the 2002 World Cup, the study reveals that the 2002 World Cup promoted Korea's image in a positive light to other international countries. Maennig and Porsche (2008) state that before Germany hosted the 2006 World Cup, it was not associated with warmth, hospitality, beauty, culture or fun, after the World Cup that image changed. According to Maennig and Porsche (2008), tourists who visited Germany during the 2006 World Cup were surprised by, among other things, warmth, tolerance and friendliness of the Germans. Through the 2006 World Cup, Germany improved its international recognition (Maennig and Porsche, 2008). Kim and Morrision (2005) argue that there should be a research conducted after the event; to see whether the positive image created because of the World Cup will remain stable or it will change back to normal as time goes on.

### **2.9.5.2 Job opportunities and volunteerism**

According to Deccio and Baloglu (2002), sport mega-events create long-term and short-term job opportunities. Contrary to that, Baum and Lockstone (2007) argue that sport mega-events rarely create long-term employment opportunities, but they only provide volunteer programmes which are only beneficial to sport mega-event organizers. According to Smith and Fox (2007), volunteer programs provide and enhance host people's skills which can be

nurtured even after the games have occurred. With the 1994 Winter Olympic Games, out of 9 100 volunteers who were involved during the games, 79 % felt that their skills were improved because of being involved in the games. Also, there were 62 000 people involved in the volunteer program for the 2002 Sydney Olympics (Smith and Fox, 2007). Smith and Fox (2007) further argue that little had been done by host regions to ensure that volunteer programs benefit marginalized and least skilled people. According to Smith and Fox (2007), sport mega-events should not only leave hard legacies, such as infrastructure, but should also contribute to economic and social regeneration.

## **2.10 LEVERAGING SPORT MEGA-EVENTS' IMPACTS**

The use of public subsidies is justified on the basis that the staging of sport mega-events will accrue significant economic benefits. Tax is paid by almost all people, but not everybody benefits from the staging of a sport mega-event hosted in their region (Chalip, 2006; Chalip and Leyns, 2002). Chalip and Leyns (2002) argue that economic benefits resulting from a sport mega-event are usually exaggerated and not all businesses benefit equally from an event. Some businesses get worse off because of a sport mega-event held in their region (Chalip, 2004). Sookrajh (2008) supports the view that the economic gains accrued from hosting a sport-mega-event are still concentrated in the hands of a few people rather than being shared by most host country's population.

Chalip (2004) argues that as most sport mega-events are staged for political reasons, it is surprising that after the event has occurred, most of the focus will be on the economic gains, whether they were attainable or not. If sport mega-events are staged for political reasons, also the end results should be of a political nature (Chalip, 2004). However, if their staging is legitimized on the basis that they would contribute to economic gains, then sport organizers, place marketers and elite groups should deliver the economic gains as far as possible (Chalip (2004). Black and Van der Westhuizen (2004) also argue that through the hosting of any sport mega-event, the host government manages to access public funds and further attract public and private investments in terms of physical and social infrastructure, but questions remain as to who really benefits from those developments and also how those benefits can be leveraged in such a way that the disadvantaged communities could benefit from the hosting of a sport mega-event in their region. Chalip and McGuirly (2004) support the view that there are concerns about distribution of economic benefits resulting from the staging of sport events

which has led to the interest on how such benefits can be maximized and distributed as far as possible.

According to Chalip (2004), the process whereby benefits from the staging of a sport mega-event could be maximized is called leveraging. It is divided into short-term and long-term leveraging. Short-term leveraging can be achieved through creating the activities that can be done around the event itself, and long-term leveraging is used to expose and market the host country to other countries of the world. That is why Chalip (2006) states that sport mega-event's benefits could be leveraged through visitor spending, trade and event media. Chalip and Leyns (2002) assert that the economic gains of a sport mega-event rely heavily upon visitors spending. According to Chalip and McGuirly (2004), in order to increase visitor spending during a sport mega-event, businesses should establish relevant event theming and/or promotions targeted at event visitors. However, Chalip and Leyns (2002) argue that local suppliers fail to employ such initiatives (theming and promotions); as a result they do not benefit much from visitor spending even if the sport mega-events are staged within their area. Chalip and McGuirly (2004) assert that sport mega-events should be marketed together with the attractions that the host region has to offer to visitors coming for that sport mega-event. According to Chalip and McGuirly (2004), the sport mega-event can attract visitors to the host region, and attractions offered by the host region can make visitors stay longer than they anticipated.

According to Chalip (2004), tourism developers and place markers can also play a vital role in exposing local communities to tourists and potential investors visiting because of the sport mega-events held in the region. According to Chalip and Leyns (2002), because of the sport mega-event happening in the region, it could result in the creation of job opportunities, reduction of tourists' seasonality and also attraction of investors and developments in the area. In the study conducted by Chalip and Leyns (2002) of the Gold Coast Honda Indy race in Queensland, Australia, it was evident that some of the local businesses did not think that was possible for them to leverage the benefits associated with the race. Chalip and Leyns (2002) suggest that a well coordinated leveraging strategy could help most stakeholders involved in a sport mega-event. Furthermore, in Chalip and Leyns' (2002) study, it was evident that coordination of different stakeholders plays an important role in event leveraging because if the staging of a sport-mega event is justified on the basis that it would render economic gains,

then sport organizers, the government and local people should work together in order to accrue the expected economic gains.

When it come to the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup, Donaldson et al. (2008: 37) argue that “the authors generally agree that anticipated benefits are unlikely to be widespread and the poorer segments in society are less likely to leverage opportunities linked to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.” According to Bob et al. (2008), most of the opportunities presented by the 2010 event are controlled by the Organizing Committee’s. Therefore, leveraging of such opportunities is most likely to be beyond the control of host cities (Bob et al., 2008). According to Atkinson (2007), if there could be cooperation between government, private sector and non-host rural communities, the 2010 positive spin-offs can be leveraged.

## **2.11 CONCLUSION**

The staging of sport mega-events has gained prominence throughout the world. This is because of economic, tourism and political spin-offs linked to these events (Cornelissen, 2004a). Recently, developing countries have started to bid for hosting sport mega-events. However, Matheson and Baade (2004) have shown that the hosting of sport mega-events have different impacts for developed and developing countries. This is due to the facilities and resources needed to host such events. In most cases, developed countries have the required facilities and resources before they even bid for the event, but developing countries have to spend huge amounts of money building or improving infrastructural developments to meet FIFA’s standards (Matheson and Baade, 2004). The general impacts of staging mega-events have mostly been framed and contextualized around developed countries (Cornelissen, 2004a). Most studies that examine community perceptions of sport mega-event tend to focus only on the host city community perceptions of that event. This study will examine whether these perceptions and concerns prevail in non-host areas as well.

When developing countries such as South Africa are awarded the FIFA World Cup, there are major expectations in terms of infrastructural developments that are believed to create employment opportunities and further contribute to the improvement of living standards of the most marginalized South Africans (Swart and Bob, 2009). However, Cornelissen and Swart (2006) argue that it will be challenging for the South African government to deliver on the social, economic and political objectives that were promised during the 2010 South African



bid campaign because the government has to strike a balance between the event's investments and people's needs (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006).

The importance of leveraging the 2010 FIFA World Cup benefits beyond the host cities is very important because it will afford non-host rural communities the chance of gaining from sport tourism benefits. Through increasing visitor spending, trade and media coverage, the benefits from the 2010 event could be leveraged (Chalip, 2006). Non-host rural communities can leverage the effects of the 2010 event to their advantage. Spill-over effects include the use of non-host rural communities as accommodation or satellite areas, base camps or training areas, through travel or en-route tourism areas and expansion of the tourism industry (Atkinson, 2007). In order for non-host rural communities to fully realize the 2010 event's benefits, the emphasis is on the fruitful collaboration of different stakeholders such as government, the private sector and rural communities (Atkinson, 2007).

In view of the above discussion, this chapter explained relevant issues pertaining to the hosting and impacts of sport mega-events. It showed how sport mega-events have evolved. It also revealed how developing countries have shown an increasing interest in hosting sport mega-events and the implications of doing so. This chapter further examined sport tourism within the South African context and further explored how South Africa intends to go about hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup and what the possible spillover effects are that the 2010 event could have on non-host rural communities. This chapter also discussed the general perceived impacts of sport mega-events. It ended by exploring how sport mega-events' impacts can be leveraged.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

According to Sautter and Leisen (1999), the tourism industry plays an important role in the development of both local and global markets. Although the tourism sector contributes significantly to economic growth and development, there is still debate on whether the benefits resulting from tourism ventures really reach the intended beneficiaries or not. Sautter and Leisen (1999) state that there are two views that define the role played by tourism in community and market development. The first perspective comes from the political economy approach which views tourism as something that is exploitive and comes from middle-class people. This view implies that local communities have little or no say in the development of tourism ventures in the areas. The second view comes from the functional perspective which views tourism as an industry that has the potential of benefiting all the relevant parties if developments within this industry are done appropriately. Gursoy et al. (2002) further argue that in the case where local communities are excluded from the planning stages of any tourism venture, it is most likely for that the tourism venture will be threatened or loose support from local communities where it is going to take place. This chapter will discuss two theories, which are the stakeholder and social exchange theories, and further link these theories to the community perceptions of tourism developments in general, and sport mega-events in particular.

#### **3.2 STAKEHOLDER THEORY**

According to Hardy and Beeton (2001), the first definition of a stakeholder came from the Stanford Research Institute in 1963. They defined stakeholders as “groups upon which an organization depends for continual survival” (Hardy and Beeton, 2001: 174). Freeman (1984, cited in Sautter and Leisen, 1999) defines stakeholders, in an organization, as a group or individuals who can either affect or be affected by the way an organization wants to achieve its objectives. Sautter and Leisen (1999) further state that each stakeholder has a right to fully participate in its organization where he or she has a stake. Jamal and Getz (1995) define stakeholders as all individuals, groups and organizations that are influenced by the actions that

are undertaken by one another in order to solve a problem or issue. Furthermore, Jamal and Getz (1995) add that stakeholders have same interest in solving a common issue. Donaldson and Preston (1995) support the idea that a stakeholder is someone who has a legitimate interest in the day-to-day functioning of an organization. Furthermore, Donaldson and Preston (1995) describe stakeholder theory as having three aspects, normative, instrumental and descriptive. According to Donaldson and Preston (1995: 67), the normative aspects serve as a fundamental base for stakeholder theory because it involves acceptance of two ideas:

*(First), stakeholders are persons or groups with legitimate interests in procedural and/or substantive aspects of corporate activity. Stakeholders are identified by their interests in the corporation, whether the corporation has any corresponding functional interest in them. (Second), the interests of all stakeholders are of intrinsic value. That is, each group of stakeholders merits consideration for its own sake and not merely because of its ability to further the interests of some other group, such as the shareowners.*

According to Hardy and Beeton (2001), stakeholder theory has previously been applied to the functioning of organizations, and this has recently changed. Stakeholder theory has recently been applied to the tourism industry to serve as, among other things, a planning and management tool (Hardy and Beeton, 2001). Hardy and Beeton (2001) further state that in order for tourism developments to be implemented in a sustainable manner that can avoid costs which might result because of poor planning and management, the use of stakeholder analysis seems to be one of the appropriate means to identify different stakeholder opinions and concerns about tourism development. Robson and Robson (1996) support the use of stakeholder analysis because it tries to bring equality among stakeholders.

### **3.2.1 Stakeholder analysis**

According to Allen and Kilvington (2007), stakeholder analysis involves the identification of key stakeholders, assessment of their interests, and also the ways in which stakeholders' interests affect the running of day-to-day aspects of a project. Allen and Kilvington (2007) further state that a stakeholder analysis identifies goals and roles of different people or groups involved in a project. It further formulates appropriate ways which different groups can employ in order to be able to work together. Robson and Robson (1996) support the idea that

stakeholders should be identified, and the relationship among them should be nurtured so that concerns, values, goals and responsibilities can be clearly understood, and that will constitute a strategic framework to work upon.

In order to optimize the benefits within an organization, according to Sautter and Leisen (1999), it is the responsibility of managers to choose appropriate activities that will benefit all identified stakeholders. Sautter and Leisen (1999) further state that managers should take each and every stakeholder's input into consideration. Although some stakeholders may have stronger voices than others, they all have to be treated in the same manner. Bramwell and Lane (2000) suggest that in order to create a conducive space for different stakeholders to work together; there should be regular interaction between them that will be based on agreed rules and norms. Furthermore, Bramwell and Lane (2000) postulate that different collaboration arrangements can be established within the tourism industry, ranging from coalitions, forums, task forces to public-private partnerships.

Freeman (1984, cited in Sautter and Leisen, 1999: 314-315) postulate that an organization that manages its stakeholders well should take into consideration three key concepts: "identification of stakeholders and their respective perceived stakes, the processes necessary to manage the organization's relationships with its stakeholders, and management of a set of transactions or bargains among the organization and its stakeholders." Furthermore, Sautter and Leisen (1999) recommend that stakeholder theory should go beyond identifying stakeholders and further involve them in tourism planning. In addition, Robson and Robson (1996) suggest that tourism stakeholders should also be involved in decision-making processes. Jamal and Getz (1995) support the idea that stakeholders should be involved in the early planning stage of any tourism development and also in decision-making processes.

Allen and Kilvington (2007) postulate that the stakeholder analysis can be used to:

- Identify and define the characteristics of key stakeholder;
- Draw out the interests of stakeholders in relation to the problems that the project is seeking to address (at the identification stage) or the purpose of the project (once it has started);
- Identify conflicts of interests between stakeholders, to help manage such relationships during the course of the project;

- Help to identify relations between stakeholders that may enable ‘coalitions’ of project sponsorship, ownership and cooperation;
- Assess the capacity of different stakeholders and stakeholder groups to participate; and
- Help to assess the appropriate type of participation by different stakeholders, at successive stages of the project cycle, for example, inform, consult and partnership.

When one views the 2010 FIFA World Cup as a mega project, the relevance of the above emerges. In relation to this study, it therefore becomes important to see rural communities and private Park establishments as stakeholders because they are part of the South African society which the World Cup is aimed at benefiting and specifically because of potential links to the tourism aspects related to the event which can accrue benefits to a range of stakeholders. Additionally, these groups have a stake of benefiting with the economic, social and environmental legacies associated with the event. Furthermore, they can be impacted by intended and unintended negative impacts associated with hosting the event.

### **3.2.2 Tourism stakeholders and perceptions**

According to Bryd et al. (2009), tourism developments may have positive or negative impacts on the area where it is taking place. For tourism developments to be implemented successfully there has to be good planning and management strategies in place (Bryd et al., 2009). Jamal and Getz (1995) argue that the tourism industry is characterized by a lack of coordination and cohesion between different stakeholders which is problematic for both destination planners and managers. Sautter and Leisen (1999) assert that in most cases where there will be tourism development, local residents are not involved in the planning stage; at times they may have little or no say in tourism development processes. According to Sautter and Leisen (1999), local residents only have to react to the consequences of tourism developments in their areas. Furthermore, they state that the tourism industry is usually criticized because it imposes tourism development decisions on local communities.

For a community to realize sustainable development, Bryd et al. (2009) emphasize the importance of inclusion of all stakeholders. Without the community’s support for tourism development in their area, it is most likely for that development to be unsuccessful (Bryd et al. (2009). According to Hardy and Beeton (2001), the main aim for the involvement of local communities in tourism development taking place in their areas is to achieve sustainability.

Sustainable tourism means planning and management of tourism in such a way that different interests, including environmental, financial, community and tourists satisfaction are met (Hardy and Beeton, 2001). It becomes a problem when different stakeholders have different perceptions about tourism developments since such a situation can result in conflicts between them (Bryd et al., 2009). According to Bryd et al. (2009), conflict is a result of different stakeholders' interests and perceptions of the overall tourism development's costs and benefit. Therefore, understanding stakeholder attitudes and perceptions can prevent conflict (Bryd et al., 2009; Hardy and Beeton, 2001). Hardy and Beeton (2001) further suggest that the understanding of stakeholder perceptions can be a requisite for achieving sustainable development. In order for tourism developments to be successfully implemented, Getz and Jamal (1995) emphasize the importance of collaboration of all relevant stakeholders in planning for tourism developments in their areas.

### **3.3 SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY**

Zafirovski (2005) describes social exchange theory as a process that is based upon human interaction where there is an exchange of activities which can have either tangible or intangible costs and/or rewards. Social exchange theory involves the reciprocal relations, if reciprocity is violated or sustained then the whole exchange process will be stopped (Zafirovski, 2005). Social exchange is not only limited to the exchange of monetary things, but it is a process that could be observed and experienced in almost every social relationship (Blau, 1964). According to Blau (1964), parties that are involved in such a process should do so voluntarily; they should be motivated by what they expect to gain from the exchanging process. Deccio and Baloglu (2002) support the idea by explaining that an individual or a group will only be involved in an exchange if there is some kind of benefits that they will receive from an exchange. Blau (1964: 89) further states that the social exchange process "involves favor that create diffuse future obligations, not precisely specified ones, and the nature of the return cannot be bargained about but must be left to the discretion of the one who makes it." Zafirovski (2005) supports the idea that in the social exchange process, the parties involved engage themselves in such a process on the basis that both parties involved will honor their relationship by meeting each other's expectations in such a way that both parties benefit and a reciprocal relationship is established and well sustained.

### **3.3.1 Social exchange theory and diverse community perceptions**

According to Bryd et al. (2009), most rural communities have realized the need of diversifying their economies, and tourism routes is one of the alternative means to improve rural economies. According to Jurowski and Gursoy (2004), most communities support the idea of tourism developments because it brings economic spin-offs such as job opportunities, tax revenues and other forms of income which contribute to the improvement of resident's quality of life. Andereck et al. (2005) support the idea that tourism contributes to the improvement of quality of life but it also brings along with it concerns such as traffic congestion, increased crime rates and crowding. According to Andereck et al. (2005), the tourism industry in general has the potential to affect local communities' lives. As people are affected by tourism developments differently, Jamal and Getz (1995) state that their perceptions of tourism developments vary significantly.

From a tourism perspective, different stakeholders' attitudes and support for tourism developments depend on their evaluation of the actual and perceived costs and benefits of the tourism venture in their communities (Andereck et al, 2005). Social exchange theory is one of the appropriate theories used by different researchers (Andereck et al., 2005; Deccio and Baloglu, 2002; Gursoy et al., 2002; Kim et al. 2006; Waitt, 2003) to examine and understand people's perceptions of tourism developments. According to Andereck et al. (2005), social exchange theory suggests that resident's attitudes and support for tourism developments is influenced by their evaluation of the expected outcome in the community. When there is tourism development in any community, Andereck et al. (2005) state that benefits and costs are unequally distributed, some community members benefit while others bear the costs. Because of such discrepancies, different residents evaluate tourism impacts differently depending on their outcomes (Waitt, 2003).

Jurowski and Gursoy (2004) postulate that resident's perceptions and support for any tourism venture is influenced by social, economic and environmental impacts of that venture. Therefore, their perceptions may either be positive or negative, depending on the costs and benefits of that particular tourism venture (Waitt, 2003). Residents who perceive the tourism industry as having more economic spin-offs or personal gains are most likely to have positive perceptions of the impacts than those who perceive the industry as having negative impacts on their communities or personal lives (Andereck et al., 2005). Gursoy et al. (2002) postulate that

during tourism development, the way the community resource base is utilized has an effect on residents' perceptions of that development. According to Gursoy et al. (2002), if the tourism development improves local recreational amenities, it is most likely that the residents will have positive perceptions about that development, whereas if the development has negative impacts, residents will also perceive such a development negatively. Furthermore, Gursoy et al. (2002) suggest that residents' concerns (such as concerns about crime rates and preservation of the natural environment) influence residents' perceptions.

On the other hand, Jamal and Getz (1995) assert that resident's perceptions and support for any tourism development is also influenced by whether residents have an understanding or are knowledgeable about the proposed tourism development. Furthermore, Jamal and Getz (1995) postulate that the level of community involvement in the tourism development planning stages have an influence in the way they perceive and support tourism development in their areas. Active community participation in tourism development is important because tourism planning and development can "be adjusted as the economic, social and environmental perceptions change within the community" (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 194).

### **3.3.2 Community's support for sport mega-events**

According to Deccio and Baloglu (2002), social exchange theory is the appropriate theory for studies that look at people's perceptions of sport mega-events because it provide room for the residents to explain their reasons and motivations for involving or not involving themselves in an exchange process. It further explains what motivates residents to support or not support an exchange process (Deccio and Baloglu, 2002). Waitt (2003) postulates that positive perceptions normally occur only when both actors involved in a tourism venture have high levels of power within an exchange relationship. In this context, social power comes from influencing, controlling or having resources that the other parties need (Waitt, 2003). Contrary to this, negative perceptions normally occur when actors involved in the tourism venture have low power levels; as a result they perceive gains from the exchange to be very low (Waitt, 2003). Waitt (2003) also reveals that the form of relationship that exists between residents and sport mega-event organizers plays an important role in the formation of residents' perceptions of sport mega-events.



Deccio and Baloglu (2002) assert that for any community to support a sport mega-event, it starts by assessing the costs and benefits which might be derived from such an event. In most cases, community support for any sport mega-event relies upon the expected economic benefits and also the long-term awareness derived from that sport mega-event (Deccio and Baloglu, 2002). On the other hand, Kim et al. (2006) argue that residents of the host country are most likely to form their perceptions about the sport mega-event before the actual event takes place. Kim et al. (2006) further assert that it is rare to find studies that focus on residents' perceptions of sport mega-events' impacts prior and after the event, then make comparisons between these two periods. The perceptions of communities prior to the event usually serve as a reference point for communities to refer back and check whether what they expected prior to the event is actually met after the event has occurred (Kim et al., 2006). Other factors that Kim et al. (2006) suggest to have an influence in the way residents perceive sport mega-events are national media, government agencies and sport committees. Such bodies when advertising the event generates too much hype, as a result communities are likely to believe that they will be more benefits than costs which will be accrued after the event has occurred (Kim et al., 2006).

Jurowski and Gursoy (2004) postulate that distance from tourism zones play an important role in explaining the discrepancy between resident's perceptions and attitudes towards any tourism developments. Most people who stay in close proximity to the attraction are likely to support a tourism venture in that attraction and are also likely to have positive perceptions about it. As the distance from attraction widens, it becomes more unfavorable for those people who stay far from the attraction, as a result their perceptions of the venture that will take place in that attraction will most likely to be negative (Jurowski and Gursoy, 2004). Deccio and Baloglu (2002) state that use of community recreational amenities by outsiders during tourism ventures or sport mega-events can influence the way communities perceive or support the event. According to Deccio and Baloglu (2002), some community members use outdoor resources more often as a result they are concerned with what is happening to them.

Deccio and Baloglu (2002) argue that at times sport mega-events utilize resources that are used by local community members almost on a daily basis and this could have different impacts on different community members. In most cases, communities are reluctant to support tourism ventures that will result in them competing with tourists for space and recreational amenities and also communities usually do not like to be overcrowded (Deccio and Baloglu,

2002). Deccio and Baloglu (2002) further state that there should be a balance between recreational use and preservation. This is because some communities have intrinsic value for their environment. According to Kim et al. (2006), communities who feel that staging of sport mega-events in their area has degraded the environment and are more likely to oppose future staging of such events in the area, whereas those who felt that the staging of a sport mega-event in the area that contributed to the preservation of the environment are more likely in future to support the staging of such event in their area.

According to Bryd et al. (2009), there are very limited studies that compare perceptions of different stakeholder groups. Most studies tend to examine perceptions of one stakeholder group (Hardy and Beeton, 2001). Hardy and Beeton (2001) further emphasize the importance of studies that compare perceptions of different stakeholder groups. This study aims to examine local rural community and ecotourism Park managers' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. This study will contribute to the existing body of knowledge about stakeholder perceptions of tourism by examining local rural community and ecotourism Park managers' perceptions of the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup, to be hosted in South Africa. The focus of the study is on the Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks as well as rural communities (Izibukwana and Makhowe, respectively) located adjacent to these Parks. The understanding of these stakeholder groups' perceptions will help to accommodate different stakeholders' views, attitudes, understanding and expectations about the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

### **3.4 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has articulated the reasons that cause different stakeholders to perceive tourism developments differently. Some of the discrepancies result because tourism developments have different impacts on different stakeholders. Some accumulate benefits from tourism developments while others bear the costs. It was apparent in the literature reviewed that local communities are usually excluded from planning and management of tourism developments in their areas; however, they are the ones who normally bear the consequences. As a result of the discrepancies that comes with tourism developments, different stakeholders evaluate the perceived costs and benefits of the proposed tourism development in their area, then decide whether to support it or not. Involvement of all stakeholders in planning and decision-making processes is also important because, by doing so, tourism organizers will manage to understand different stakeholder perceptions of the proposed development. Taking into

consideration stakeholder perceptions will help organizers to structure their tourism developments in such a way that it meets all stakeholder interests, thereby creating sustainable development. This study in part examines whether the 2010 FIFA World Cup organizers have identified all stakeholders for this upcoming event, if they have, to what extent are they involved in the planning and decision-making processes?

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The methodology chapter describes and discusses the methods used by the researcher to examine local rural community and ecotourism Park managers' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The focus of the study is on the Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks as well as rural communities (Izibukwana and Makhowe, respectively) situated in close proximity to these Parks. The quality of data is usually determined by the appropriate procedures and techniques that are adopted by the researcher for a particular field of study. This chapter will present the research questions; describe in detail the study areas; discuss the sampling framework, methodological approaches employed and research instruments used; and data collection procedures.

#### **4.2 QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE APPROACHES**

According to Phillimore and Goodson (2004), qualitative approaches are used by researchers when collecting data about activities, events and behaviors. Phillimore and Goodson (2004) further postulate that with the use of this approach, the emphasis is on studying things in their natural settings to further understand them in terms of the meaning people attach to those things. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), the qualitative approach allows the researcher to provide a detailed description and understanding of a phenomenon in the perspective of those who are researched. The researcher engages with the object of study (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Unlike the qualitative approach, the quantitative approach normally removes the phenomenon that is studied from the rest of the social world (Goodson and Phillimore, 2004). Furthermore, the quantitative approach focuses on predicting what might happen rather than trying to explain the reason behind the processes that determine behavior (Goodson and Phillimore, 2004). This study used both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The researcher used both the questionnaire survey (for rural communities) and an interview schedule (for the park managers) to determine their understanding, attitudes and perceptions about the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The data collected was analyzed using quantitative methods in order to quantify results and be able to determine the attributes of

objects and numbers to represent quantities. Such information can be acquired using quantitative methods.

### **4.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

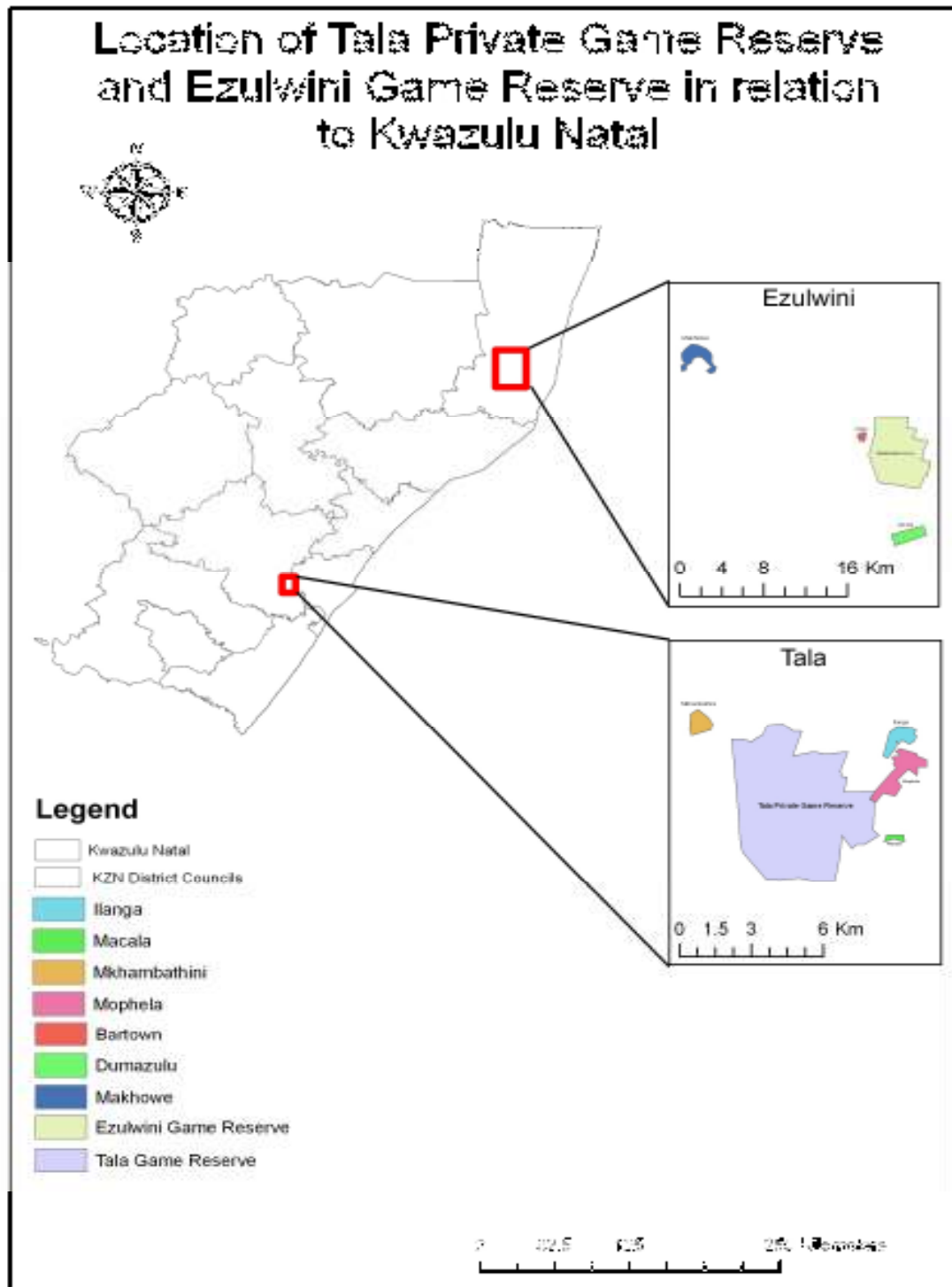
According to Okech (2004), research questions refer to specific aspects that the researcher would like examine in the study. Furthermore, Okech (2004) states that research questions helps to ensure that questions posed in relation to the problem statement are addressed. This study was guided by the following broad research questions:

- Are the communities aware of the major sport event that will take place in 2010?
- What are the people's perceptions and expectations of the 2010 FIFA World Cup?
- What are the Park Managers' perceptions and expectations of the 2010 FIFA World Cup?
- Are there any initiatives being undertaken by the communities in preparation for this major event?
- Are there any initiatives being undertaken by the Parks in preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup? If there are initiatives by the Parks, are the Parks incorporating the rural community which is living in close proximity to it in these initiatives?
- Do the communities think that they will benefit directly from 2010 event?
- What are the potential impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on the Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks and surrounding rural communities?

### **4.4 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AREAS**

The research was conducted in two study areas which are the Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks as well as rural communities (Izibukwana and Makhowe, respectively) residing adjacent to the Parks. A description of study areas is provided below and illustrated in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Map of Kwazulu-Natal showing the location of the Parks and Communities



Source: Kourtenbout (2009)

#### **4.4.1 Tala Private Park**

According to Siyabona Africa (2007), the Tala Private Game Reserve is a wildlife conservancy hidden in the hills of KwaZulu-Natal. It is located 45 minutes from Durban and 15 minutes from Pietermaritzburg. Siyabona Africa (2007) further states that Tala Game Reserve allows people to be in touch with mother nature and people get to interact with environment and animals. The Tala Private Park is characterized by thornveld, wetland and grassland (Siyabona Africa, 2007). World Wide Travel West Coast (2009) states that this reserve has over 300 bird species, providing bird watchers with great viewing opportunities. There are wild animals such as buffalo, rhino, kudu, hippo, giraffe and the rare sable antelope which are found in this reserve. Furthermore, World Wide Travel West Coast (2009) states that this reserve also has various remarkable plant species. According to Siyabona Africa (2007), the Tala Game Reserve has both rustic and luxurious accommodations. It further provides venues for conferences, weddings and celebrations and relaxation.

#### **4.4.2 Izibukwana community**

The Izibukwana community is located adjacent to the Tala Private Park. This community falls under ward 4 of the Mkhambathini Local Municipality. According to the Mkhambathini Municipal Integrated Development Plan (2003/2004), the Mkhambathini Local Municipality is situated almost in the center of Durban and Pietermaritzburg which are both important urban nodes in KwaZulu-Natal. This municipality is characterized by, among other things, the lack of social infrastructure, poor access to institutions of higher learning, high illiteracy rates, lack of basic services and poverty (Mkhambathini Municipal Integrated Development Plan, 2003/04). This municipal area has high levels of cultural, historical and natural resources which contribute significantly to the tourism industry. The Tala Private Park is one of the tourists attractions, mentioned in this municipal Integrated Development Plan, as contributing to ecotourism developments in the area (Mkhambathini Municipal Integrated Development Plan, 2003/2004). It is further stated in the Mkhambathini Municipal Integrated Development Plan (2003/2004) that most rural communities are not involved in tourism related activities, including ownership of tourism products. The Mkhambathini Municipal Integrated Development Plan (2003/2004) suggests that there is a need for the education of rural communities about benefits and obligations of the tourism industry.

As the Izibukwana community forms part of the Mkhambathini Local Municipality, it is characterized by most of the above mentioned characteristics such as lack of basic services. Although it is stated in the Mkhambathini Municipal Integrated Development Plan (2003/2004) that the Mkhambathini Local Municipality intended to improve provision of services to its rural communities, five years has passed and very little, if any, signs of significant development has taken place. One of the things that this municipality intended to improve was the upgrading of sports fields and development of a multi-purpose sports center in Camperdown which is their nearest town, but by the time of the conclusion of this research, there were no sport fields developed for the Izibukwana community.

During the interaction of the researcher with an informant from the community, it was evident that most of the community members relied on the Tala Private Game Reserve for employment. There are no other income generating sectors in the area. Most of the members of the Izibukwana community rely on agricultural production for their livelihoods. It was also evident during the researcher's interaction with an informant that most of the Izibukwana community members do not own the land they are staying on, and this affects their socio-economic status. Most of the respondents' plots of lands are owned by the Park owner.

#### **4.4.3 Ezulwini Private Park**

According to Accommodation Direct (2009), the Ezulwini Game Reserve is located in close proximity to the isiMangaliso (formerly known as the Greater St. Lucia) Wetland Park. It covers 3 million hectares of unspoiled natural environment. Furthermore, Accommodation Direct (2009) reveals that Ezulwini offers the big seven which comprises of lion, elephant, leopard, rhino, buffalo, hippo, crocodile as well as giraffe and zebra. Furthermore, there are approximately 460 bird species found in this game reserve (Accommodation Direct, 2009). The Ezulwini Private Park is situated in close proximity to different main attractions such as the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Game Reserve, the isiMangaliso Wetland World Heritage site, False Bay, birding and Zulu Culture (South Africa Explored, 2009a). South Africa Explored (2009a) further postulates that in the northern part of this game reserve runs the Olifant River which is the largest of all lowveld rivers.



#### **4.4.4 Makhowe community**

The Makhowe community falls under the Mdletsheni area (tribal area) in the Hlabisa local Municipality which is “located in one of the world’s richest and diverse tourism areas” (Hlabisa Municipal Integrated Development Plan (IDP) Review, 2005/06: 8). According to the Hlabisa Municipal IDP Review (2005/06), the Hlabisa area has great tourism potential because of the presence of game reserves which draws visitors into the municipal area. Furthermore, it is stated in the Hlabisa Municipal IDP Review (2005/06) that Hlabisa is 100% rural. Some of the problems found across the municipal area include lack of infrastructure and basic services, as well as the area is located away from major employment centers and inadequate transport networks. Although the tourism sector offers economic opportunities for the area, these are not yet fully exploited. According to the Hlabisa Municipal IDP Review (2005/06), the tourism potential has to be unlocked so that local communities can also benefit from the tourism industry.

### **4.5 THE SAMPLING TECHNIQUE**

According to Sturgis (2008), sampling is important because it is how the researcher is able to make statistical inferences from the sample to the general population. This means that a researcher can be able to make conclusions (known facts) from the responses from the sample, and then be able to understand unknown facts from the rest of the population (Sturgis, 2008). Bless et al. (2006) define a population as the entire people from which the researcher would like to determine some characteristics. Durrheim and Painter (2006) also define population as a major source where a researcher can draw sample elements from and then be able to make generalizations based on the findings. A sample is a subset of the population; the researcher studies its characteristics then makes generalizations to the entire population (Bless et al., 2006). A sampling frame is a list with all the elements where a probability sample can be selected (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). According to Sturgis (2008), a population is usually huge and because of costs and practicality, the researcher cannot be able to engage every member of the population. That is why the researcher draws a sample and then from that sample he/she can generalize from the responses of those who were sampled to the broader population (Sturgis, 2008). Working with a sample is more manageable and cost-effective than studying the whole population (Neuman, 1997).

In order for a researcher to determine which sampling technique to employ, Sturgis (2008) highlights that it is important for a researcher to define the population from which he/she would like to draw the sample from. This study involved two stakeholders, which were non-host rural communities and Park Managers. The sampling techniques employed in this study in relation to these stakeholders are discussed below.

#### **4.5.1 Rural communities**

The researcher used the systematic sampling technique in selecting one hundred community members from each of the local community study areas, Izibukwana and Makhowe rural communities. With the use of systematic sampling, a researcher selects the first case randomly, and then all the succeeding cases are selected using a particular interval (Strydom, 2005).

For Izibukwana community, the targeted population consisted of the Izibukwana community living in close proximity to Tala Private Park. The sample frame was that of the residents living in and around the park. One hundred households situated around the Park were selected. To obtain a systematic sample, the researcher worked out a sampling fraction by dividing the population size by the required sample. There was a population of 200 households and every second household was sampled, the sampling frame was  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Therefore, the researcher selected one household for every two households in the population.

For the Makhowe community, the targeted population consisted of the Makhowe community living in close proximity to Ezulwini Private Park. The sample frame was that of the residents living in and around the park. One hundred households situated around the Park were selected. As was the case with the Izibukwana community, to obtain a systematic sample, the researcher worked out a sampling fraction by dividing the population size by the required sample. There was a population of 300 households and every third household was sampled, the sampling frame was  $\frac{1}{3}$ . Therefore, the researcher selected one household for every three household in the population. The first household was also selected randomly using the same approach adopted in the Izibukwana community.

In this study the researcher used face-to-face interviews. Rather than giving respondents questionnaires to fill-in, a face-to-face interview allows the researcher to ask the respondents

questions and then record the respondents' responses (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). The researcher was available to assist where the respondents did not understand what was required of them. The researcher explained the questions in IsiZulu, which is the vernacular language of the respondents.

#### **4.5.2 Park managers**

At times, it is appropriate for a researcher to select elements based on his/her knowledge of the population. The researcher uses his/her judgment to select a sample, based on the purpose of the study (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). In this study, the researcher used the purposive sampling technique to select two Park managers, from each Park under study, to be key informants on behalf of management. According to Neuman (1997: 206), the use of purposive sampling is suitable when doing a field research and can be used to:

- Select unique cases that are especially informative;
- Select members who are difficult to reach; and
- Identify particular types of cases from in-depth investigation.

The researcher conducted the interviews with the Park managers telephonically, one from Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks. One of the advantages for using the telephone interview is that it saves time and money, rather than for the researcher to drive significant kilometers to the respondents' residence, the researcher can call the respondents (Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

### **4.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS**

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), survey research can be employed when the researcher wants to describe, explain or explore things. Babbie and Mouton (2001) further state that survey research is mostly used by studies that intend to examine individual people as their unit of analysis. In cases where it is used in studies involving groups of people, some individuals should be used as key informants (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Babbie and Mouton (2001) suggest that survey research is the best method to be used when collecting original data from large numbers of the population. They are also appropriate tools to be used when the researcher measures attitudes and orientations of large populations. According to Babbie and

Mouton (2001), survey research is an appropriate tool for social enquiry. According to Neuman (1997), once a researcher has decided on using a research survey, he/she can then decide on the research design and data collection. Okech (2004) postulates that it is usually the case within social science research for researchers to use questionnaires and interview schedules as some of the instruments for collecting data. This study used both secondary and primary data sources.

#### **4.6.1 Secondary Data Sources**

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), secondary data sources are the existing information from previously produced sources. In this study, the researcher used information from journal articles, dissertations, books, newspaper articles and internet sources. The information from these sources was used to inform the literature review and further helped in contextualization of the study within the South African situation.

#### **4.6.2 Primary Data Sources**

Primary data refers to the kind of information that the researcher collects personally (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Babbie and Mouton (2001) further state that unlike the use of secondary data sources which are written by other people, the researcher has some control over the use of primary data sources in his/her study. In this study, the researcher used questionnaires and interviews as primary data sources.

##### **4.6.2.1 Questionnaire survey**

According to Simmons (2008), the use of interviews and questionnaires in surveys is very useful to social scientists, since it allows them to collect data on attitudes and personal experiences. Furthermore, Simmons (2008) asserts that the success of any research survey depends on the way the researcher has formulated his/her questions including the way the questions are asked, phrased and also the order they are following. Delport (2005) argues that in cases where a questionnaire is not planned properly, it may confuse the respondents and further lead them not to respond.

In this study the researcher designed a questionnaire that had both open-ended and closed-ended questions (Appendix 1). With the use of closed-ended questions, the researcher prepares the questions in advance then provides possible answers to the questions. The respondent is then required to choose from the given responses (Simmons, 2008). Furthermore, Simmons (2008) reveals that closed ended questions have both advantages and disadvantages. Some of the advantages of using closed-ended questions are that they are pre-coded and that makes it easier for the researcher to input data which saves time and money (Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Simmons, 2008). Delport (2005) states that closed-ended questions help the respondents to understand questions better since questions can be answered within the same framework. Simmons (2008) supports the idea that from the respondent's side, the use of closed-ended questions takes less time because the respondent just chooses the relevant response/s from those which is/are provided. Some of the disadvantages of using closed-ended questions are that the respondent is forced to choose from the given responses (Simmons, 2008). Delport (2005) suggests that the use of closed-ended questions gives the respondents ideas that they would not have thought of. In some instances, respondents maybe confused by the fact that their desired responses are not provided in the list of choices provided (Delport, 2005; Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

Open-ended questions provide respondents with an open/ blank space to write what he/she thinks is appropriate to the question (Delport, 2005). Sarantakos (2005) supports the idea that open-ended questions allow the respondents to respond in a way they think is appropriate and in their own words. They give the respondents freedom to express their thoughts and understanding of the study, and also allow the respondents to explain further in such a way that the researcher may obtain the information that he/she had never expected (Sarantakos, 2005). Delport (2005) further states that open-ended questions allow respondents to provide detailed answers. However, the use of open-ended questions may also have disadvantages because the respondent may give ambiguous responses which may be difficult for the researcher to categorize (Simmons, 2008). Babbie and Mouton (2001) argue that with the use of open-ended questions, there is a possibility that the respondent might provide irrelevant answers to the researcher's intent. Delport (2005) further postulates that too much use of open-ended questions prolongs the questionnaire and that may be disadvantageous because the respondents may be tempted to leave out some questions, as a result the value of data collected is decreased. Responses from open-ended questions may be too costly and time-

consuming when it comes to coding, interpreting and analyzing them (Delpont, 2005; Sarantakos, 2005).

This study's questionnaire focused on the awareness, perceptions and attitudes of the respondents towards the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup; the event attendance and interest of the respondents in the 2010 FIFA World Cup; the perceived social, economic and environmental impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on respondents' communities; the respondent's expectations during the 2010 FIFA World Cup; the respondent's expectations post the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the demographic profile of the respondents. All the questionnaires administered were accompanied by a consent letter which assured the respondents that they were not obliged to participate in the study and that they would remain anonymous. Furthermore, they were allowed to withdraw from participating in the study at any time.

#### **4.6.2.2 Key informant interviews**

An individual interview is one of the most used methods within the qualitative approach to gather data (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). According to Fontana and Frey (2005), interviewing is not limited to the interaction of two individuals only but can also be conducted with groups and furthermore it can also be done through the telephone. Like any other human interaction, an interview also involves norms, expectations and social roles (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). According to Fontana and Frey (2005), an interview can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured. However, qualitative interviewing is very flexible rather than being rigid because of prearranged questions (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Furthermore, Babbie and Mouton (2001) postulate that the qualitative interview allows the respondents to speak for him/herself and the researcher provides guidelines to the conversation.

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), when researchers conduct interviews, it is usually the case that respondents tend to change from their normal roles to other ones, and that has an effect on their responses. Babbie and Mouton (2001) further state that in an interview setting, respondents sometimes have fears because of the presence of interviewers in their areas. Other respondents see interviews as a test or spying process (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Respondents get different feelings about being interviewed because interviews involve gathering data on how people make their everyday lives constructive, and what activities they

engage in almost every day (Fontana and Frey, 2005). This study used an interview schedule (Appendix 2). It was conducted with Tala and Ezulwini Park managers (one from each Park). The interview schedule covered the following themes: Park managers' personal profiles, Park managers' awareness and perceptions of the 2010 World Cup, Park relationships with the community, Park managers' expectations during the 2010 World Cup, Park managers' expectations post the 2010 World Cup and Park managers' plans for the 2010 World Cup. During the interview, the researcher clarified some of the questions to the respondents thereby helping the respondents to provide relevant answers.

## **4.7 PROCEDURES FOR ANALYSIS OF THE DATA**

To analyze the data, this study used both quantitative and qualitative analysis methods which are discussed below.

### **4.7.1 Quantitative methods**

According to Durrheim (1999), data collected from research is just raw material (completed questionnaires). It therefore needs to be transferred to data that can be read by a computer. The researcher coded, captured and analyzed the data using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Tables and figures were generated and imported into MS Word and cleaned. Durrheim (1999) stated that once data is cleaned then it is possible for the researcher to analyze the data statistically. Furthermore, Durrheim (1999) indicates that there are two types of data analysis, descriptive and inferential data analysis. The data was first analyzed using descriptive analysis which enabled the researcher to understand and describe the distribution of scores meaningfully using statistics. From the descriptive analysis, the data was analyzed inferentially which enabled conclusions to be made about the rest of the population from the sampled data.

### **4.7.2 Qualitative methods**

According to Neuman (1997), qualitative analysis involves a search for patterns from the data collected. Once the pattern has been identified, the researcher can then interpret it either using theory or the setting where the data was collected. Furthermore, Neuman (1997) states that

after the researcher had interpreted the patterns from the data collected, then he/she can make general interpretation of its meaning. According to Neuman (1997), data analysis can be used to examine, sort, categorize and compare the coded data and review the raw and recorded data. This study makes comparisons of different stakeholders' perceptions and attempted to determine what is common in most cases and what is different. The researcher then tried to understand the reasons for the different or common perceptions among the two stakeholders interviewed.

#### **4.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Most of the elderly members from both communities (Izibukwana and Makhowe) under study were not willing to participate because they felt that since the study focused on examining local people's perceptions about the upcoming FIFA World Cup to be held in South Africa, the youth were more relevant to the study since they were the ones who were mostly active in terms of supporting football. That limited the researcher from acquiring knowledge and perceptions from most of the elderly members of the communities about the 2010 event. Most females from both communities also perceived this study as something that was more relevant to males only; as a result there were more male respondents, from both communities, than females. Also the Park managers from both Parks, Tala and Ezuluwini Private Parks, were not easily accessible. On several instances when the researcher called the Parks, the managers were not available to participate in the study. When the researcher finally managed to get hold of one personnel from each of the park management's side, they agreed to participate in the study but did not have much time available for the interview. With the minimum time that the researcher was given by the Park managers, the researcher tried to acquire as much relevant information as possible.

#### **4.9 CONCLUSION**

This section focused on the research methodology adopted in this study. It outlined broad questions that guided the study. It provided a detailed description of the study areas. This section also described methods used to collect data and further provided procedures that were used in analyzing the collected data.



## **CHAPTER 5**

### **DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Usually in social science research, data collected from the field is usually in a form of numbers that represent value of variables which measure, among other things, the characteristics of respondents (Neuman, 1997). According to Neuman (1997), such numbers are in a raw form in a questionnaire or recording sheets. Before the advent of computers, the collection of data and its analysis used to be done manually, and the results were also calculated using a hand calculator. With the introduction of computers, the analyzing of data becomes less time consuming and sophisticated (Maguire, 1989). According to Maguire (1989), the use of computers requires that the researcher code the data he/she collected into a suitable format that can be inputted into a computer. Furthermore, Maguire (1989) asserts that although computers can be used for different purposes, scientists and social scientists mostly use them for various statistical analyzes.

This chapter statistically analyzes the data using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 15.0. The researcher used SPSS because, according to Maguire (1987), it is the most suitable survey analyzes package for analyzing questionnaire-type data and telephone interviews. This chapter will also use the frequency tables and graphical presentations. According to Neuman (1997), the use of graphs and tables by the researcher helps the readers to understand and see the evidence of data collected then the reader can also make deductions by herself/himself about data collected. This chapter will present two sections which will be representing the stakeholders who were involved in this comparative study: They are:

- Izibukwana and Makhowe Communities
- Tala and Ezulwini Park Managers

From the results of the study, the researcher was able to make interpretations and tried to relate findings to the objectives. Only a descriptive analysis of the data was undertaken and this follows in the next section.

## 5.2 LOCAL COMMUNITIES ADJACENT TO TALA AND EZULWINI PRIVATE PARKS

This study examines local rural community and ecotourism Park managers' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. According to Deccio and Baloglu (2002), the staging of mega-events presents different problems and opportunities which are not only limited to host communities but also to the peripheral communities. Therefore, this section will examine how the Izibukwana and Makhowe non-host rural communities perceive the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup.

### 5.2.1 Demographic profile of respondents

**Figure 5.1: Gender of respondents (n=100)**

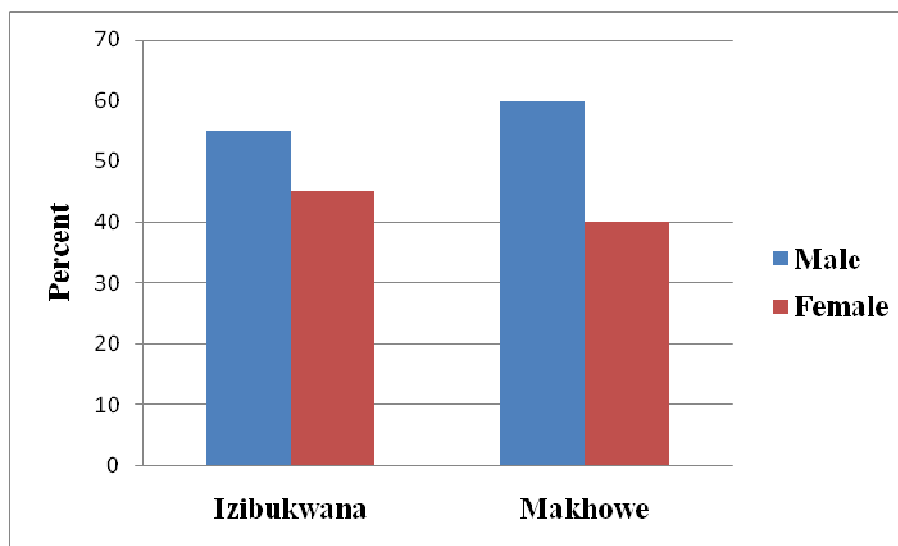


Figure 5.1 shows that there were more males (55% from Izibukwana and 60% from Makhowe) who participated in the study than females (45% from Izibukwana and 40% from Makhowe). The gender difference might be attributed to the fact that most females from both communities under study did not see the relevance of the study to them. They stated that football was a sport suitable for males. Also the gender difference may have been caused by the fact that they were more male-headed households than female-headed ones.

**Table 5.1: Age of respondents (n=100)**

<b>Years</b>	<b>Izibukwana (n=100)</b>	<b>Makhowe (n=100)</b>	<b>Total (n=200)</b>
<20	16	39	27.5
21- 30	43	30	36.5
31- 40	32	19	25.5
41- 50	9	9	9
51- 60	-	2	1
61-70	-	1	0.5

Table 5.1 shows that 27.5% of the respondents (16% of Izibukwana and 39% of Makhowe) were less than 20 years old. Forty-three percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 30% from Makhowe were between 21-30 years followed by respondents in the age group of 31-40 years (32% from Izibukwana and 19% from Makhowe). Equal respondents (9% from Izibukwana and Makhowe) were between 41-50 years. The lowest percentages of respondents were found to be between 51-60 years (none from Izibukwana and 2% from Makhowe) followed by 61-70 years (one respondent from Makhowe). These age trends could have been caused by the fact that some of the respondents felt that a survey on the 2010 FIFA World Cup perceptions is more relevant to the youth than elderly people. That is why there were fewer respondents who have ages between 41-70 years than those less than 40 years.

**Table 5.2: Occupation of respondents (in %)**

<b>Occupation</b>	<b>Izibukwana (n=100)</b>	<b>Makhowe (n=100)</b>	<b>Total (n=200)</b>
Unemployed	35	26	30.5
Sales/marketing	4	1	2.5
Artisan/technician	1	-	0.5
Student/scholar	11	29	20
Administrator	-	6	3
Self-employed	15	6	10.5
Laborer/unskilled	31	30	30.5
Professional	3	2	2.5

The occupation of respondents in Table 5.2 differs significantly. Thirty-five percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 26% from Makhowe were unemployed. The unemployment rate in both communities may be caused by various reasons such as illiteracy rate, lack of skills and it is also possible that even though the respondents may be educated that does not necessarily guarantee that they are employed. Five of the respondents from Izibukwana and one from Makhowe were sales/marketing personnel. One respondent from Izibukwana and none from Makhowe were technicians. Some of the respondents (11% from Izibukwana and 29% from Makhowe) were scholars. None of the respondents from Izibukwana and 6% from

Makhowe were administrators. Some of the respondents (15% from Izibukwana and 6% from Makhowe) were self-employed. The respondents who were self-employed from Izibukwana did various kinds of work ranging from mechanical, selling second-hand clothing, selling liquor and sewing. However, in the Makhowe community all the respondents who were self-employed were doing arts and crafts which were mostly dominated by beadwork. A significant proportion of respondents (31% from Izibukwana and 30% from Makhowe) worked as laborers or were involved in unskilled work. Most of these respondents from Izibukwana worked on the farm within the Tala Private Park while others worked at the Illovo sugar mill. From the Makhowe community, most of the respondents who were laborers worked in industries. Very few respondents (3% from Izibukwana and 2% from Makhowe) were professionals.

**Figure 5.2: Monthly income of respondents (in Rands)**

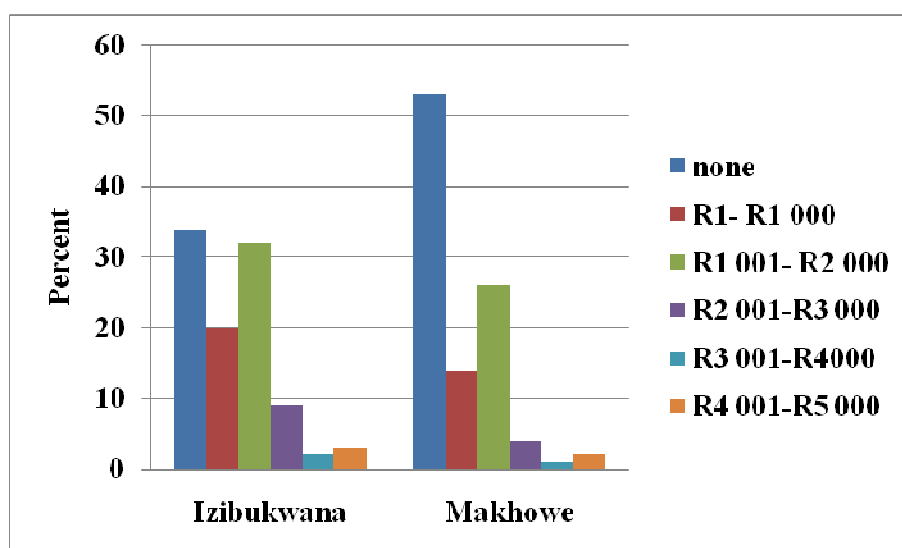


Figure 5.2 shows that most of the respondents (34% from Izibukwana and 53% from Makhowe) did not receive any form of income at the end of the month. Twenty percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 14% from Makhowe received between R1-R1 000 a month. Thirty-two percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 26% from Makhowe had a monthly income of between R1 001-R2 000. Nine percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 4% from Makhowe earned between R2 001-R3 000 per month. A few respondents (2% from Izibukwana and one from Makhowe) earned between R3 001-R4 000 a month. Other respondents (3% from Izibukwana and 2% from Makhowe) earned between R4 001-R5 000 per month.

**Table 5.3: Highest level of education of respondents (in %)**

Highest level of education	Izibukwana (n=100)	Makhowe (n=100)	Total (n=200)
No formal education	3	7	5
Partial primary	16	6	11
Primary completed	33	47	40
Secondary completed	42	38	40
Certificate/diploma	3	2	2.5
Undergraduate degree	3	-	1.5

The results in Table 5.3 reveal that some of the respondents (3% from Izibukwana and 7% from Makhowe) have never received formal education. Sixteen percent from Izibukwana and 6% from Makhowe had partial primary as their highest level of education. Thirty-three percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 47% from Makhowe have completed primary education. Most of the respondents (42% from Izibukwana and 38% from Makhowe) completed their secondary education. There were very few respondents who held certificates (3% from Izibukwana and 2% from Makhowe) and others with undergraduate degree (3% from Izibukwana and none from Makhowe). These results show that most of the respondents from both communities did not reach grade twelve (that is, they did not matriculate). Having most of the community members being uneducated or having lower levels of education can impact on their ability to make informed decisions that can also have impacts on the socio-economic status of the whole community.

## 5.2.2 Background information of respondents

**Figure 5.3: Type of sanitation found in the household of respondents (n=100)**

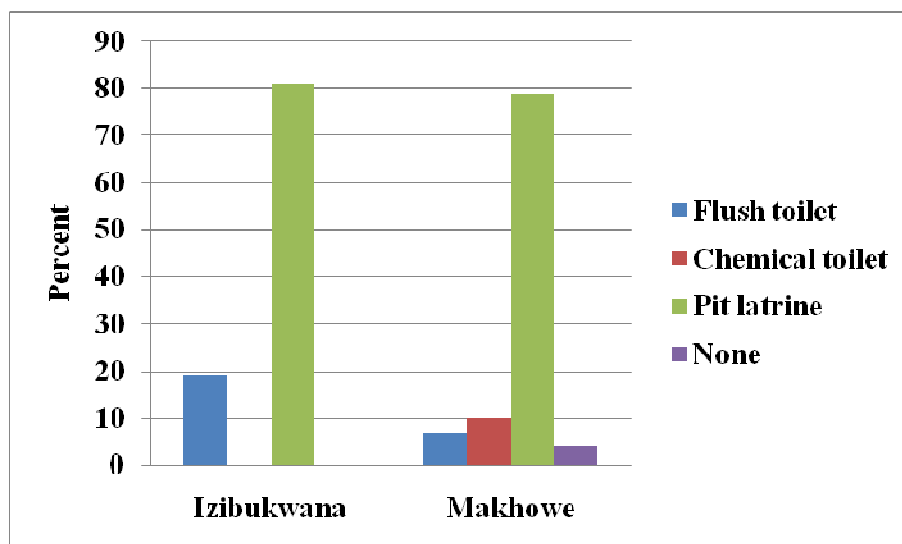


Figure 5.3 shows that some of the respondents (19% from Izubukwana and 7% from Makhowe) had flush toilets in their households. None of the respondents from Izubukwana and 10% from Makhowe have chemical toilets in their households. Most of the respondents (81% from Izubukwana and 79% from Makhowe) have pit latrine toilets in their households. Other respondents (none from Izubukwana and 4% from Makhowe) have no sanitation facilities available in their households. Most of these respondents without sanitation facilities said that they used the neighbor's sanitation facilities.

**Table 5.4: Main source of domestic water use by respondents (in %)**

Main source of water	Izubukwana (n=100)	Makhowe (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Tap water in dwelling	55	95	75
Public tap	42	-	21
Rainwater tank on site	2	-	1
Dam/pool	1	5	3

Table 5.4 shows that most of the respondents (55% from Izubukwana and 95% from Makhowe) have tap water in their dwellings. Forty-two percent of respondents from Izubukwana and none from Makhowe used public taps. Two percent of respondents from Izubukwana and none from Makhowe used rainwater tanks as their main source of domestic water. Other respondents (one from Izubukwana and 5% from Makhowe) used dams or pools as their source of domestic water.

**Figure 5.4: Main source of energy/fuel use by respondents (n=100)**

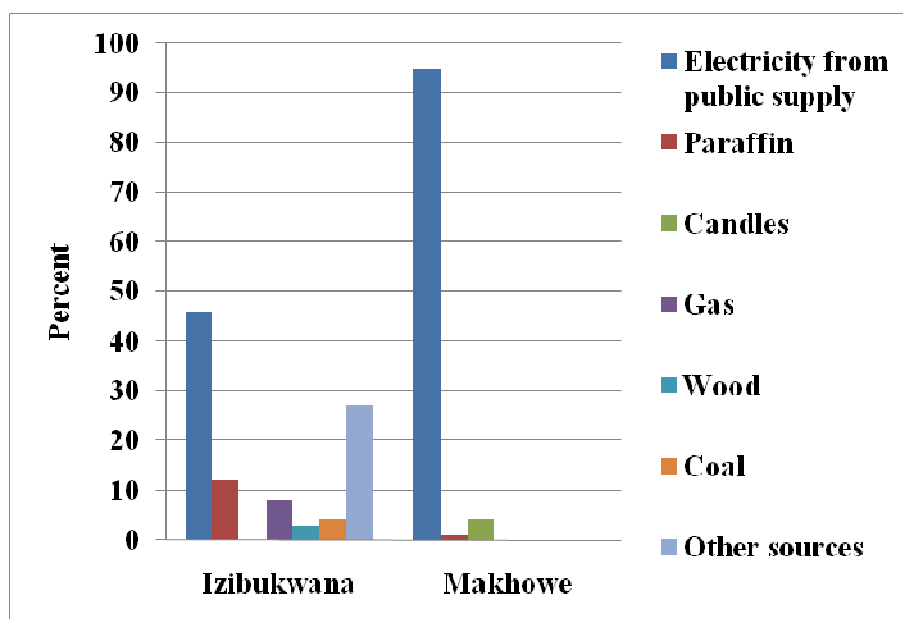


Figure 5.4 shows the main sources of energy or fuel used by the respondents. The results reveal that most of the respondents (46% from Izibukwana and 95% from Makhowe) used electricity as their main source of energy. Twelve percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and one from Makhowe relied on paraffin usage. None of the respondents from Izibukwana and 4% from Makhowe used candles. The rest of the respondents from Izibukwana used sources such as gas (8%), wood (3%), coal (4%) and 27% used other sources of energy. Those respondents from Izibukwana who used other sources of energy had illegally connected electricity from their neighbors. They were not connected from the main public electricity supply system.

**Table 5.5: Challenges identified by the respondents facing the community (in %)**

Challenges facing community	Izibukwana (n=100)	Makhowe (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Unemployment	46	68	57
Lack of basic services	37	17	27
Lack of recreational facilities	3	2	2.5
Crime	10	4	7
Poverty	4	5	4.5
Consumption of alcohol	-	4	2

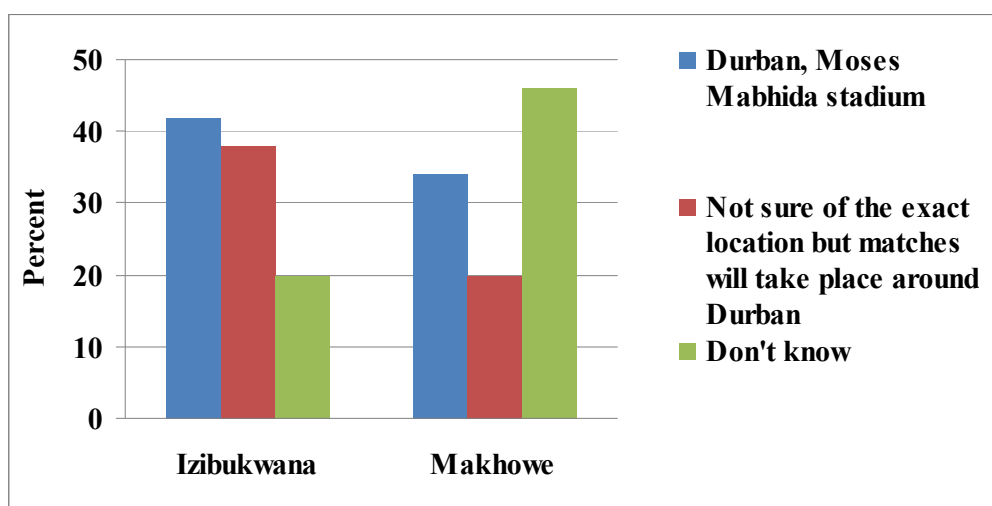
Table 5.5 shows that most of the respondents (46% from Izibukwana and 68% from Makhowe) viewed unemployment as a challenge that was facing their community. Thirty-seven percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 17% from Makhowe stated that the

lack of basic services such as water, sanitation and electricity was a problem facing their community. Very few respondents (3% from Izibukwana and 2% from Makhowe) mentioned lack of recreational facilities as a problem facing their community. Crime was one of the challenges mentioned by respondents (10% from Izibukwana and 4% from Makhowe). Some of the respondents (4% from Izibukwana and 5% from Makhowe) saw poverty as a major problem facing their community. Other respondents (none from Izibukwana and 4% from Makhowe) stated that most of the youth from their communities were too involved in alcohol consumption.

### 5.2.3 Awareness, perceptions and attitudes of the community towards the 2010 FIFA World Cup

According to Donaldson et al. (2008), support for any event, particularly at local level, relies upon the way local people perceive that event. Understanding local people's attitudes, reactions and perceptions is important because such understanding determines the success and failure of any tourism venture (Gursoy et al., 2002).

**Figure 5.5: The competition venue for the 2010 event in KwaZulu-Natal (n=100)**



Although all the respondents from both communities stated that they knew about the upcoming FIFA World Cup to be held in South Africa, Figure 5.5 reveals the discrepancy when respondents were asked whether they knew the competition venue for the 2010 event in KwaZulu-Natal. Forty-two percent of respondents from Izibukwana community and 34% from Makhowe stated that some of the 2010 matches will be held at Durban, Moses Mabhida



stadium. Some of the respondents (38% from Izibukwana and 20% from Makhowe) admitted that they were not sure of the exact area in KwaZulu-Natal but they knew that some of the 2010 matches will be held around Durban. The majority of the respondents (46%) from Makhowe and the minority (20%) from Izibukwana stated that they did not know where some of the 2010 matches will be held in KwaZulu-Natal. According to Makhaye (2008), during the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the Moses Mabhida stadium will host five group matches, one quarter final and a semi-final.

**Table 5.6: The reasons why the respondents think that South Africa is ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)**

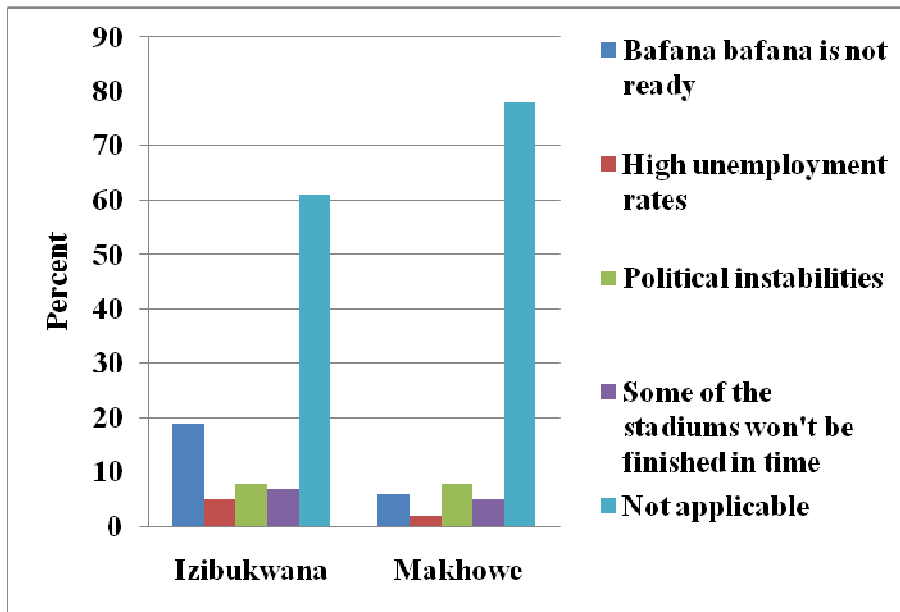
Response	Izibukwana (n=100)	Makhowe (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Bafana Bafana is ready	21	6	13.5
Most infrastructures needed for the 2010 event are being improved	28	70	49
South Africa had learnt from other countries who had previously hosted such events	12	2	7
Not applicable	39	22	30.5

The majority of the respondents (69.5% stated that they thought that South Africa is ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup. When respondents were asked to provide reasons why they thought South Africa was ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Table 5.6 illustrates that respondents (21% from Izibukwana and 6% from Makhowe) said that South Africa was ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup because Bafana Bafana was ready. The respondents from both communities said that Bafana Bafana was ready because it had won some of the matches it had played against other countries. They also declared their trust and made positive comments about the new Bafana Bafana coach and how they hoped he would assist in taking Bafana Bafana to the 2010 World Cup.

Some of the respondents (28% from Izibukwana and 70% from Makhowe) said that South Africa was ready to host the 2010 World Cup because most of the infrastructure such as accommodation, stadiums and transport facilities were being improved. According to Cornelissen (2007) and Campbell and Phago (2008), in preparation for the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, in 2007 the South African government allocated R17.4 billion. Some of the money was used for construction and development of stadiums while others will be used for the development and improvement of transport infrastructures (Cornelissen, 2007; Campbell

and Phago, 2008). Twelve percent of Izibukwana respondents and 2% from Makhowe said that South Africa was ready to host the 2010 event because it has learnt how other countries which had previously hosted sport mega-events of the same magnitude managed such events.

**Figure 5.6: The reasons why the respondents think that South Africa is not ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup (n=100)**



Close to a third of the respondents (30.5%) stated that South Africa was not ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Figure 5.6 shows that respondents (19% from Izibukwana and 6% from Makhowe) said that South Africa was not ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup because Bafana Bafana was not ready. Five percent of Izibukwana respondents and 2% of Makhowe respondents stated that the persistent high crime rate in South Africa showed that the country was not ready to host the 2010 World Cup. According to Matheson (1996), provision of maximum safety and security measures is one of the requirements that the host country must have to meet when hosting the FIFA World Cup. Cornelissen (2007) and Donaldson and Ferreira (2007) acknowledge that South Africa as the 2010 World Cup host is faced with challenges such as safety related issues.

One respondent (from Makhowe) asserted that South Africa was not ready to host the 2010 World Cup because of the high unemployment rate. Eight percent of respondents from both communities, Izibukwana and Makhowe, stated that because of the political instabilities that were taking place in South Africa, the country was not ready to host the 2010 World Cup. By

political instabilities, the respondents referred to the fact that there were xenophobic attacks that were going on in the country and also the uncertainty that was going around the country about who was going to be the next South African President after Thabo Mbeki (the fieldwork was undertaken prior to President Zuma being elected as the president in 2009). Other respondents (7% from Izibukwana and 5% from Makhowe) said that South Africa was not ready to host the 2010 event because stadiums won't be finished in time. The respondents' reason that stadiums won't be finished in time concur with the view of Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) when they state that stadium and road constructions are some of the major projects that take place in a host country when preparing for the World Cup but they are usually not finished in time as a result such projects usually exceed the estimated budget.

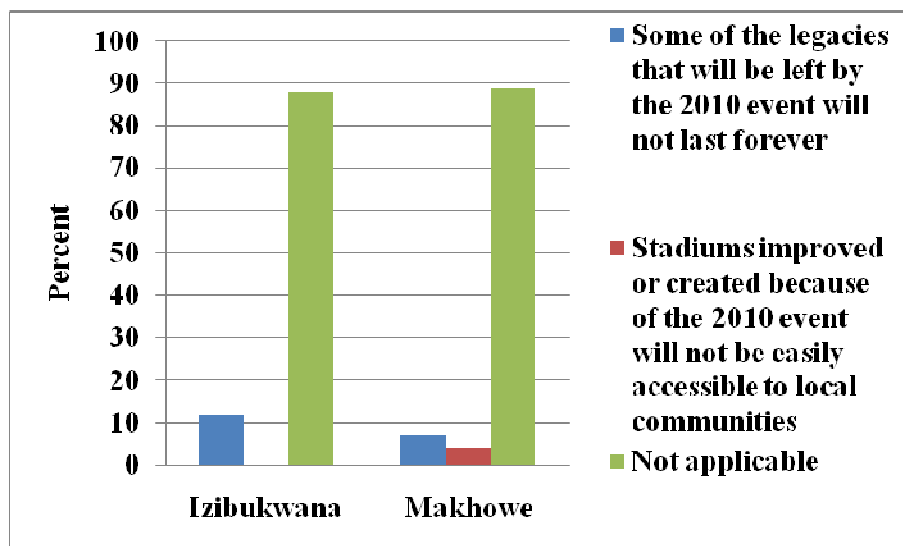
**Table 5.7: The reasons why the respondents think that the 2010 FIFA World Cup will be the best ever and leave positive legacies for South Africa (in %)**

Reasons	Izibukwana (100)	Makhowe (100)	Total (200)
The 2010 event will leave behind improved infrastructures	62	35	48.5
The 2010 event will create job opportunities	22	39	30.5
The 2010 event will attract investors into the country	4	15	9.5
Not applicable	12	11	11.5

Preuss (2007) states that sport mega-events can have tangible or intangible legacies for the host country. Table 5.7 shows that respondents (62% from Izibukwana and 35% from Makhowe) asserted that they believed that the 2010 event would be the best ever and leave behind improved infrastructures, such as roads and stadiums, for South Africa. According to Kim et al. (2006), local communities like legacies to be left by sport mega-events which they can utilize even after the sport mega-event has occurred. Twenty-two percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 39% from Makhowe stated that the 2010 event will create job opportunities that will continue even after the event had occurred. Jenvey (2008) and Swart and Bob (2009) support the idea that some of the expectations that South Africans have about the 2010 event is that it will create job opportunities. Job opportunities are expected to be created from stadium constructions, hotels and transport network improvements (Jenvey, 2008). Jenvey (2008) further asserts that it is expected that the 2010 event will create long-term employment that results in skills development and training. Other respondents (4% from

Izibukwana and 15% from Makhowe) stated that the 2010 event will attract investors into the country.

**Figure 5.7: The reasons why the respondents think that 2010 FIFA World Cup will not be the best ever and leave positive legacies for South Africa (n=100)**



Swart and Bob (2009) argue that legacies and benefits left by sport mega-events are sometimes questionable in terms of whether or not they are being realized after the event occurred. Figure 5.7 reveals that a few respondents (12% from Izibukwana and 7% from Makhowe) stated that some of the legacies created by the 2010 event will not last forever. Some of these respondents questioned the sustainability of the job opportunities that were created through the improvements and construction of stadiums for the 2010 event. The respondents' arguments concur with Pillay and Bass (2009) when they state that although the 2010 event creates job opportunities, these jobs are of short-term or temporary duration as a result they do little to change or improve the living standards of most South Africans. Nadvi (2008) supports the idea that sport mega-events may create job opportunities but after the event had occurred, it is most likely that those jobs will be lost and people will become unemployed again. It is important to note, however, that the majority of the respondents linked the 2010 FIFA with positive rather than negative legacies.

A few respondents (none from Izibukwana and 4% from Makhowe) stated that stadiums improved or built because of the 2010 event will not be easily accessible to the local people. The respondent's referred in particular to the construction of the Moses Mabhida stadium in

the former King's Park football stadium. They felt that tickets prices for the games that will take place after the 2010 event would rise from the normal prices because the stadium had been improved to meet International standards. Nadvi (2008) supports the idea that when a country is awarded the rights to host a World Cup, it builds sophisticated stadiums that require significant amounts for maintenance, as a result tickets prices to access such stadiums rises and local people are disadvantaged from utilizing such facilities.

#### 5.2.4 Event attendance and interest of the community in the 2010 FIFA World Cup

**Table 5.8: The number of respondents who have intentions of attending any of the 2010 FIFA World Cup matches (in %)**

<b>Number</b>	<b>Izibukwana (n=100)</b>	<b>Makhowe (n=100)</b>	<b>Total (n=200)</b>
Yes	63	79	71
No	37	21	29

According to Greeff (2008), there are more Black South Africans who are interested in watching football games and Bafana Bafana than White South Africans. Table 5.8 shows that most of the respondents (63% from Izibukwana and 79% from Makhowe) agreed that they intended to attend some of the 2010 FIFA World Cup matches, particularly those that will be held at the Moses Mabhida stadium. From those respondents that confirmed that they had intentions of attending any of the 2010 matches, most of them confirmed that they preferred watching the 2010 games live in the football stadium rather than watching on television. Other respondents (37% from Izibukwana and 21% from Makhowe) stated that they did not intend to attend any of the 2010 matches.

**Figure 5.8: The locations where the respondents intend to watch the 2010 games (n=100)**

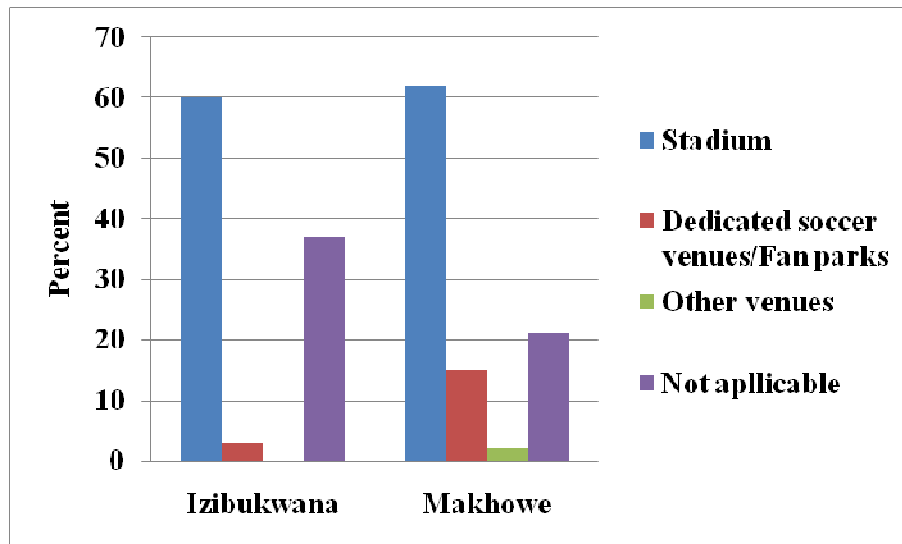


Figure 5.8 illustrates that most respondents (53% from Izubukwana and 62% from Makhowe) intended to watch the 2010 FIFA World Cup games at the stadium, in particular at the Moses Mabhida stadium which is in KwaZulu-Natal, Durban. As stated earlier, the Moses Mabhida stadium will host five group matches, one quarter final and a semi-final. The fan Parks were established in different sites during the 2002 and 2006 FIFA World Cups. It is also envisaged that there will also be fan Parks for the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Atkinson, 2007; Cornelissen, 2007). Three percent of the respondents from Izubukwana and 15% from Makhowe stated that they will watch the 2010 FIFA World Cup games at the fan Parks. According to Magi (2006), fan Parks should not only be established in the host cities only but should be extended even to rural and semi-rural areas. Other respondents (7% from Izubukwana and 2% from Makhowe) stated that they will watch the 2010 matches at the local pubs where they watch the games while relaxing and drinking with friends.

**Table 5.9: The reasons why the respondents will not attend any of the 2010 FIFA World Cup matches (in %)**

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>Izibukwana (n=100)</b>	<b>Makhowe (n=100)</b>	<b>Total (n=200)</b>
Not interested in football	5	4	4.5
Will not be able to afford to purchase tickets	16	9	12.5
Prefer to watch game on TV	9	6	7.5
Other (reasons)	7	2	4.5
Not applicable	63	79	71

Table 5.9 reveals various reasons that were given by respondents when they were asked why they will not be able to attend any of the 2010 FIFA World Cup's matches. Some of the respondents (16% from Izibukwana and 9% from Makhowe) stated that they cannot attend any of the 2010 matches because they cannot afford to purchase tickets for the games. According to Matheson and Baade (2004), when sport mega-events are being hosted in the developing countries it is usual that most of the population from such countries cannot afford tickets prices. Accessibility and affordability of sport mega-event's tickets are some of the problems experienced by most rural communities in South Africa (Greef, 2008). Greef (2008) further reveals that football and Bafana Bafana is mostly supported by the Black population who are usually less financially fortunate as a result this raises a question of who will be watching the 2010 games at the stadiums if most people who are supporting football cannot afford to buy 2010 matches tickets?

Some of the respondents (9% from Izibukwana and 6% from Makhowe) said that they preferred watching the 2010 games on their televisions. From those respondents who preferred watching the game on their televisions, most of them said that they suspected that the 2010 event will draw more people to the stadiums since it is the first time for South Africa to hold an event of such magnitude. Therefore, the respondents said that they will be avoiding the crowds by watching the games at home. Higham (1999) asserts that congestion and crowding that occurs in areas where the games are being held can cause the host population not to attend or participate in the games even if they wanted to. Five percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 4% from Makhowe stated that they will not attend any of the 2010 matches because they are not interested in football. Other respondents (7% from Izibukwana and 2% from Makhowe) stated that they preferred to watch the 2010 games at their local pub where they can watch the games while having drinks with friends.

**Table 5.10: Best statements that summarize the respondents' interest in football as spectators (in %)**

<b>Statements</b>	<b>Izibukwana (n=100)</b>	<b>Makhowe (n=100)</b>	<b>Total (n=200)</b>
I am avid fan of the sport and always try to attend or watch it on television	55	37	46
I am interested in the sport and see it when I can	37	48	42.5
I am not particularly interested in the sport, but I enjoy seeing it when it comes to our area	3	6	4.5
I am not interested in the sport but sometimes attend or watch it because family and friends are interested	-	5	2.5
I have no interest in this sport or the associated festivities even when it is held in out area	5	4	4.5

Table 5.10 shows that the respondents (55% from Izibukwana and 37% from Makhowe) stated that they were avid fans of the football and had always tried to attend and watched it on television. Some of the respondents (37% from Izibukwana and 48% from Makhowe) stated that they were interested in football and see it when they can. Three percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 6% from Makhowe indicated that they were not interested in football; however, they enjoyed seeing it when it came to their areas. The respondents (none from Izibukwana and 5% from Makhowe) stated that they were not interested in football but they sometimes attended to watch it because their family and friends were interested. Five percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 4% from Makhowe stated that they were not interested in football or the associated festivities even when it was held in their areas.



### 5.2.5 Community and the social impacts of 2010 FIFA World Cup

**Table 5.11: The ways in which the respondents think their community can benefit directly from the 2010 event (in %)**

Different ways	Izibukwana (n=100)	Makhowe (n=100)	Total (n=200)
If community can start SMMEs	10	12	11
If community can be educated about the opportunities that come with hosting such an event	7	5	6
If community can establish a relationship with the Park	22	9	15.5
If community members can work together in designing strategies to benefit from the 2010 event	1	11	6
If community members can be employed by the Park	7	16	11.5
If community can sell traditional products to tourists that will be visiting the Park during the 2010 event	-	28	14
Not applicable	53	19	36

When respondents (Table 5.11) were asked about ways in which they think their community can benefit directly from the 2010 event, some of the respondents (10% from Izibukwana and 12% from Makhowe) said that the community could benefit from the 2010 event if they could start SMMEs. Seven percent of Izibukwana community and 5% of Makhowe respondents stated that if the community could be educated about the opportunities that come with hosting sport mega-events then they can be able to decide on what they can do in order to benefit from the 2010 event. According to Allen and Brennan (2004), due to the apartheid regime, the tourism industry catered for only the White elites and most Black people who constituted rural communities in South Africa did not know much about tourism related issues which included benefits and risks that can be derived from tourism industry.

According to Tlabela and Viljoen (2006), both public and private Parks have started to realize the importance of involving rural communities living in close proximity to them in planning processes and distribution of costs and benefits of tourism ventures. Most of the respondents (22%) from Izibukwana and 9% from Makhowe stated that their community could benefit directly from the 2010 event if they could establish a relationship with the Park. Langholz and Lassoie (2001) support the idea that private Parks should have a good working relationship

with their adjacent communities. As private Parks are already established tourism sites, they are able to create tourism products and markets that would expose rural communities to the visitors that would be visiting the Parks during the 2010 event. Some respondents (1% from Izibukwana and 11% from Makhowe) stated that their community members should come together and design strategies that would make them benefit from the 2010 event. These respondents felt that there was no cohesion among the members of their communities. They strongly believed in team work rather than individuals trying to design strategies that would have only benefited them alone rather than the whole community.

Seven percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 16% from Makhowe asserted that their communities could benefit directly from the 2010 event if their community members could be employed in the Park. This is because, according to Langholz (1996), private Parks are able to offer either temporary or permanent employment to nearby communities (Langholz, 1996). Other respondents (none from Izibukwana and 28% from Makhowe) stated that if their community members can sell traditional products to tourists that will be visiting the Park during the 2010 event then they can benefit directly from the 2010 FIFA World Cup. According to Atkinson (1997), it is likely that the tourists that will be visiting during the 2010 event, due to traffic congestion, noise pollution and crime rates, will leave host cities and visit quieter areas such as Parks. This can present rural communities with a chance of meeting and selling their traditional products to the tourists during the 2010 event. Atkinson (2007) supports the idea that with the help of the Parks, rural communities can market their products and services to tourists during the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

**Table 5.12: The reasons why the respondents think that the community might not benefit from the 2010 event (in %)**

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>Izibukwana (n=100)</b>	<b>Makhowe (n=100)</b>	<b>Total (n=200)</b>
The community is located far from the stadium	18	2	10
Some community members perceive the upcoming 2010 event as something for only people who are interested in football	2	-	1
Some community members do not know how they can use the 2010 event to their advantage	23	4	13.5
Some community members are only interested in watching the 2010 matches not necessarily expecting to benefit anything from the event	1	-	0.5
Most community members are unemployed	3	-	1.5
Most community members lack skills, capacity and resources that they can use in order to benefit from the 2010 event	6	13	9.5
Not applicable	47	81	64

Table 5.12 reveals the reasons why the respondents thought that their communities will not benefit from the 2010 event. Jurowski and Gursoy (2004) state that distance from the tourism zones plays an important role in determining local people's perceptions about any tourism developments. Those local communities staying in close proximity to the tourism attraction are most likely to have positive perceptions about the ventures that will take place in the destination than those staying far from the attraction. Respondents (18% from Izibukwana and 2% from Makhowe) stated that they thought their communities will not benefit from the 2010 event because they were located far from the stadium, which in this case was the Moses Mabhida stadium in Durban. Compared to the 2% of respondents from Makhowe, it was surprising that more respondents (18%) from Izibukwana saw the distance from Moses Mabhida stadium as a factor that would make them not to benefit from the 2010 event (whereas Izibukwana is 45 minutes away from the stadium, Makhowe is more than 3 hours from Durban). This is in contradiction to Jurowski and Gursoy's (2004) assertion that as the distance from the attraction widens, local people's perceptions are most likely to be negative. In this study, the Izibukwana community has more community respondents with negative perceptions than those nearer the destination, Moses Mabhida stadium.

Two percent of respondents from Izibukwana and none from Makhowe stated that their community will not benefit from the 2010 event because some community members perceived the upcoming 2010 event as an event for the people who were interested in football.

They did not have any plans of benefiting from the event. Twenty-three percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 4% from Makhowe saw ignorance as a factor that might cause their communities not to benefit from the 2010 event. They stated that their communities did not know how they could use the 2010 event to their advantage. One respondent from Izibukwana and none from Makhowe asserted that some community members were only interested in watching the 2010 games but not necessarily expecting to benefit directly from the event.

**Figure 5.9: The respondent’s knowledge of any current plans/activities undertaken by the Park in preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup (n=100)**

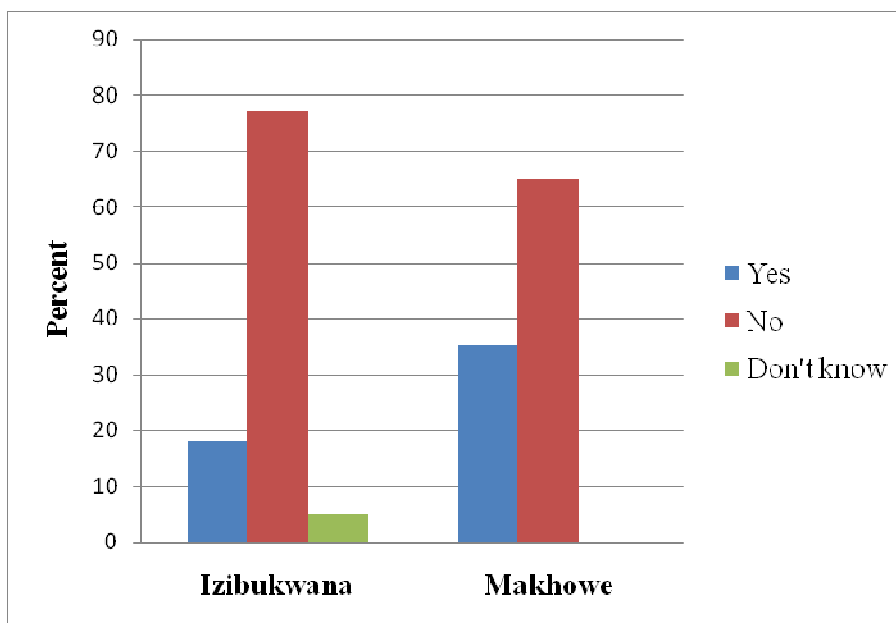


Figure 5.9 reveals that most of the respondents (77% from Izibukwana and 65% from Makhowe) stated that there were no plans undertaken by the Park in preparation for the 2010 World Cup. Eighteen percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 35% from Makhowe agreed that there were plans undertaken by the Park in preparation for the upcoming 2010 event. Other respondents (5% from Izibukwana and none from Makhowe) stated that they did not know of any plans undertaken by the Park in preparation for the 2010 World Cup.

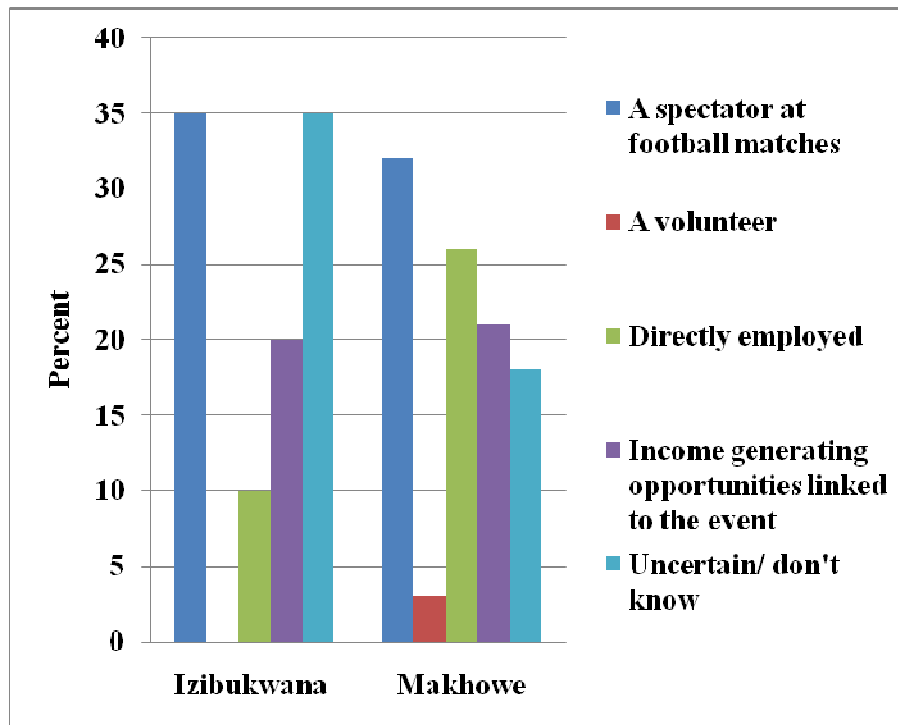
**Table 5.13: The respondent's knowledge about the Park's plan to incorporate local community in it preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)**

<b>Response</b>	<b>Izibukwana (n=100)</b>	<b>Makhowe (n=100)</b>	<b>Total (n=200)</b>
Yes	6	11	8.5
No	11	24	17.5
Don't know	1	-	0.5
Not applicable	82	65	73.5

Most of the respondents (61% from Izibukwana and 69% from Makhowe) stated that the Park did not incorporate local community members in its preparations for the 2010 World Cup (derived from Table 5.13). If the local community is excluded by the Park in its preparation for the upcoming 2010 event, that can limit the possibilities for the non-host rural communities to benefits from the 2010 event. According to Langholz (1996), private Parks have the potential to create short-term and long-term employment opportunities for its adjacent communities. This means that Parks are able to hire the non-host rural community members during the 2010 event, thereby affording them a chance of benefiting from the 2010 event. Atkinson (2007) also illustrates ways in which the Parks can assist non-host communities in benefiting from the 2010 event, such as allowing them to market their services and products in their brochures. Thus, the Parks can assist in advertising what the rural communities can offer to the 2010 visitors.

Six percent from Izibukwana and 11% from Makhowe agreed that the Park had incorporated the local community in it preparation for the 2010 World Cup. Atkinson (2007) asserts that working together the Park and non-host rural communities can provide a platform for rural communities to benefit from the 2010 event. Therefore, incorporation of the rural community in the Park's preparation for the 2010 World Cup can be one of the ways of exposing rural communities to the 2010 event, thereby giving them access to the event's benefits. According to Kirsten and Rogerson (2002), there are a variety of products and services that rural communities can offer to tourists, such as selling and producing handicrafts and staging cultural performances. One respondent (from Makhowe) did not know whether or not the Park had incorporated the local community in its preparations for the 2010 event.

**Figure 5.10: Way respondents see their involvement in the 2010 FIFA World Cup (n=100)**



When the respondents were asked to determine how they see their involvement in 2010 FIFA World Cup, Figure 5.10 show that 35% of the respondents from Izubukwana and 32% from Makhowe stated that they saw themselves as spectators in the football matches. Very few respondents (none from Izubukwana and 3% from Makhowe) saw themselves as volunteers during the 2010 World Cup. Ten percent of the respondents from Izubukwana and 26% from Makhowe saw themselves as being directly employed in the 2010 World Cup. The respondents (20% from Izubukwana and 21% from Makhowe) stated that they saw themselves seizing income generating opportunities linked to the event. A significant proportion of the respondents (35% from Izubukwana and 18% from Makhowe) was uncertain or did not know how they were going to be involved in the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

**Table 5.14: The respondent's level of agreement about the social impacts that might result in their area because of the 2010 FIFA World (in %)**

Statement	Izibukwana (n=100)			Makhowe (n=100)		
	Yes	No	Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Disruption of the lives of the locals and also create inconvenience	28	68	4	37	51	12
Traffic congestion and parking difficulties	42	55	3	67	25	8
Creation of excessive noise in the community	66	30	4	66	32	2
Increasing the rate of crime in the community	34	62	4	48	43	9
The creation of national pride and nation building	81	16	3	90	8	2
Locals feeling good about themselves and their local community	78	19	3	90	6	4

According to Deccio and Baloglu (2002), sport mega-event impacts are not confined to the host cities only but could also be felt in the periphery of the host cities. When the respondents were asked about what they thought would result in their area because of the 2010 event, Table 5.14 illustrates various respondents' responses to the question. Twenty-eight percent from Izibukwana and 37% from Makhowe agreed that they thought the 2010 event will result in the disruption of the lives of local community and also create inconvenience. Contrary to that, 68% from Izibukwana and 51% from Makhowe stated that they thought the 2010 event will not result in the disruption of the lives of the local community and creation of inconvenience. Four percent from Izibukwana and 12% from Makhowe admitted that they did not know whether or not the 2010 event will result in the disruption of lives of the local community and create inconvenience. Jones (2001) and Kim et al. (2006) state that one of the social impacts of the staging of sport mega-events is the disruption of local people's lives. However, they further reveal that the staging of a sport mega-event can result in the disruption of host city's residents' lives, particularly those that are poorer. Therefore, for those respondents who stated that the 2010 event will result in the disruption of the local people's lives, they contradict with Jones (2001) and Kim et al.'s (2006) views that the disruption of people's lives by a sport mega-event is relevant to host city's communities/residents.

When the respondents were asked whether or not they thought that the 2010 event will result in the creation of Park congestion and parking difficulties in their area, 42% from Izibukwana and 67% from Makhowe agreed that they thought there will be Park congestion and parking difficulties, as a result of the 2010 event. Fifty-five percent from Izibukwana and 25% from Makhowe stated that they did not think that the 2010 event will result in traffic congestion and parking difficulties in their area. Three percent from Izibukwana and 8% from Makhowe asserted that they did not know whether or not the 2010 event will create traffic congestion and parking difficulties in their area. When the respondents were asked whether or not they thought the 2010 event will result in the creation of excessive noise in their area, an equal proportion of respondents (66%) from both communities stated that they thought the 2010 event will result in excessive noise in their area. Thirty percent from Izibukwana and 32% from Makhowe stated that they did not think that will be the case. Four percent from Izibukwana and 2% from Makhowe asserted that they did not know whether or not the 2010 event will result in the creation of excessive noise in their area.

When the respondents were asked whether they thought crime rates will increase in their area as a result of the 2010 event, 34% from Izibukwana and 48% from Makhowe asserted that the 2010 event will result in increased crime rates in their area. Sixty-two percent from Izibukwana and 43% from Makhowe admitted that they did not think that crime rates will increase in their area because of the 2010 event. Four percent from Izibukwana and 9% from Makhowe stated that they did not know whether or not crime rates will increase in their area because of the 2010 event. Congestion, overcrowding and increased crime rates are other effects that result from the staging of a sport mega event; however, they mostly emerge in the host cities (Jones, 2001; Kim et al., 2006). That is why Atkinson (2007) states that it is most likely that tourists who will be visiting South Africa for the 2010 World Cup will leave host cities because of problems such as congestion, increased crime and noise pollution and go to quieter areas such as Parks which are found in the non-host areas. Therefore, when some respondents anticipate that they will be affected by congestion, noise pollution and increased crime rates as a result of the 2010 event, they are contradicting Atkinson's (2007) views.

When the respondents were asked whether or not they thought that the 2010 event will result in the creation of national pride and nation building in their area, most respondents (81% from Izibukwana and 90% from Makhowe) agreed that they thought that the 2010 event will create national pride and nation building in their community. Sixteen percent from Izibukwana and



8% from Makhowe stated that they did not think that national pride and nation building will be created in their area because of the 2010 event. Three percent from Izibukwana and 2% from Makhowe asserted that they did not know whether national pride and nation building will be created in their area because of the 2010 event. Sturgess and Brady (2006) assert that one of the reasons for countries to host sport mega-events is because such events can create national pride among host residents. Jones (2001) supports the idea that a sport mega-event may result in the creation of community pride among host country's residents. According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006), after 1994, the new South African government wanted to forge a new identity for its country and the government is using sport to promote nation building. It is therefore not surprising when most of the respondents from both communities agreed that the 2010 event will result in the creation of national pride and nation building in their area because such experience was witnessed when, according to (Jones, 2001), South Africa hosted and won the 1995 Rugby World Cup.

According to Maennig and Porsche (2008), sport mega-events have both tangible and intangible effects on sport mega-events' residents, and the feel-good effect is one of the intangible effects of sport mega-events. Such a feeling can be felt by host residents even if they did not personally go to the stadiums where the actual sport mega-event matches were taking place (Donaldson et al., 2008). When the respondents were asked whether or not they thought that in their area the 2010 event will result in locals feeling good about themselves and their local community, most respondents (78% from Izibukwana and 90% from Makhowe) agreed that they thought in their area the 2010 event will result in locals feeling good about themselves and their local community. Nineteen percent from Izibukwana and 6% from Makhowe stated that they did not think that the 2010 event will result in locals feeling good about themselves and their local community. Other respondents (3% from Izibukwana and 4% from Makhowe) stated that they did not know whether or not the 2010 event will result in locals feeling good about themselves and their local community (Table 5.14).

## 5.2.4 Community and the economic impacts of 2010 FIFA World Cup

**Figure 5.11: The reasons why the respondents think that the 2010 event will contribute to the local economic growth (n=100)**

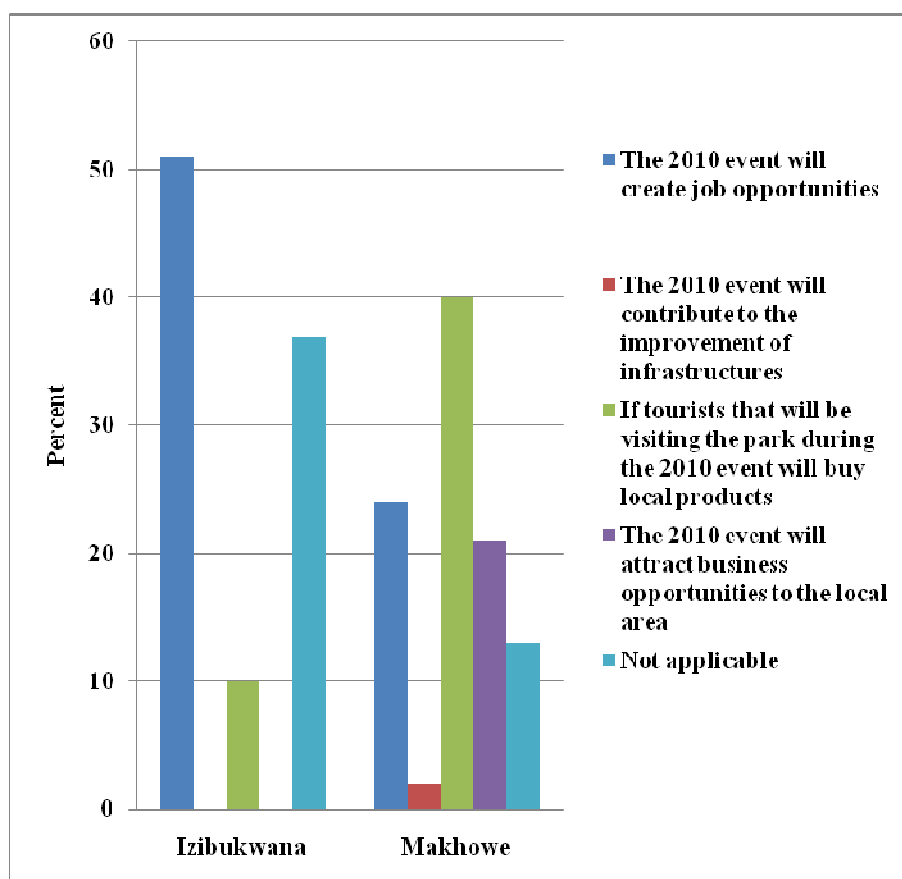


Figure 5.11 shows that respondents (51% from Izubukwana and 24% from Makhowe) stated that they thought that the 2010 event will contribute to local economic growth because the 2010 event will create job opportunities. The main expectation associated with the 2010 event is that it will create job opportunities (Swart and Bob, 2009). Most job opportunities are expected to be created from improvement and construction of stadiums, accommodation areas and transport network infrastructure (Jenvey, 2008). However, Nadvi (2008) argues that job opportunities created by sport mega-events do not last. Two respondents (from Makhowe) asserted that the 2010 event will contribute to local economic growth since it will contribute to the improvement of infrastructure in their areas. Magi (2006) states that most of the rural areas of the KwaZulu-Natal lack proper infrastructure and if this problem can be overcome, then rural communities will be able to benefit from the 2010 event since they will be able to be linked to the 2010 host city which in KwaZulu-Natal is the eThekweni Municipality.

Ten percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 40% from Makhowe stated that if the tourists that will be visiting South Africa during the 2010 event purchase local products then the 2010 event will be able to contribute to local economic growth. Rural communities could offer services to their adjacent Parks which are more likely to be visited by tourists during the 2010 World Cup. According to Kirsten and Rogerson (2002), rural communities could offer handicrafts and stage cultural activities to visitors visiting the Park. However, Magi (2006) argues that rural communities do not appear on international maps that means that it is likely that most visitors that will be coming for the 2010 event will not know the location of rural areas. Other respondents (none from Izibukwana and 21% from Makhowe) stated that the 2010 event will attract business opportunities to their areas thereby contributing to local economic growth. Kirsten and Rogerson (2002) assert that the South African government should attract and promote investments to rural areas because that can allow the rural communities to diversify from only relying on agricultural production and be able to seize the opportunities offered by the tourism industry.

**Table 5.15: The respondent's level of agreement about the potential economic impacts of the 2010 event (in %)**

Statement	Izibukwana (n=100)			Makhowe (n=100)		
	Agree/ Strongly agree	Neutral	Disagree /Strongly disagree	Agree/ Strongly agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly disagree
The 2010 event will be good for local economic growth since it will create jobs	67	10	23	86	7	7
The event will be good for local businesses (increases turnover)	79	22	9	88	12	-
The event will only be a major boost for economic development in the areas where stadiums are located	73	5	22	65	14	21
The 2010 event will be a waste of tax-payers money	64	12	24	28	34	38
Too much money is currently being spent on 2010 event preparations that could be spent on other social service such as water, sanitation and electricity	81	4	15	67	13	20
The 2010 event will lead to increase in the price of things like food and transport	81	7	12	68	14	18

When the respondents were requested to rate their level of agreement about the potential economic impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Table 5.15), most respondents (67% from Izibukwana and 86% from Makhowe) strongly agreed that the 2010 event will be good for local economic growth since it will create job opportunities. These respondents said that the 2010 event will create more job opportunities at the Parks since more visitors are expected to come to the Parks during the 2010 event. Ten percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 7% from Makhowe were neutral about whether or not they thought that the 2010 event will be good for local economic growth since it will create job opportunities. Twenty-three percent from Izibukwana and 7% from Makhowe indicated that they strongly disagreed that the 2010 event will be good for local economic growth since it will create job opportunities. Some of

these respondents who strongly disagreed to the statement raised the question of how the 2010 event will create job opportunities in their areas since there was no development taking place there.

Most respondents (79% from Izibukwana and 88% from Makhowe) asserted that they strongly agreed that the 2010 event will be good for local businesses since it will increase turnover. These responses concur with Atkinson's (2007) view that because of the 2010 event there could be more development opportunities for the rural communities which may include provision of support for informal traders and services. This can contribute to local economic growth. Twenty-two percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 12% from Makhowe were neutral about whether or not the 2010 event will be good for local businesses since it will increase turnover. The respondents (9% from Izibukwana and none from Makhowe) strongly disagreed that the 2010 event will be good for local businesses since it will increase turnover.

When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought the event will only be a major boost for economic development in the areas where stadiums are located, 73% of the respondents from Izibukwana and 65% from Makhowe strongly agreed. Five percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 14% from Makhowe were neutral about whether or not they thought the 2010 event will only be a major boost for economic development in the areas where stadiums are located. Twenty-two percent from Izibukwana and 21% from Makhowe strongly disagreed that the 2010 event will only be a major boost for economic development in the areas where stadiums are located. The distance between the communities under study and the Moses Mabhida stadium, where some of the 2010 matches will be held in KwaZulu-Natal, played a major factor in determining their perceptions about whether or not they thought that the 2010 event will only be a major boost for economic development in the areas where stadiums are located. Jurowski and Gursoy (2004) state that as the distance widens between the people and the attraction, it becomes more unfavorable for the people to support the initiative to be undertaken in that attraction because negative perceptions about the attraction/ initiative are created as the distance widens. However, it is important to note that there were more respondents from Izibukwana than the Makhowe community who strongly agreed that the 2010 event will only boost the economic development in the areas where stadiums are located, whereas the Izibukwana community is not as far away as the Makhowe community from the Moses Mabhida stadium.

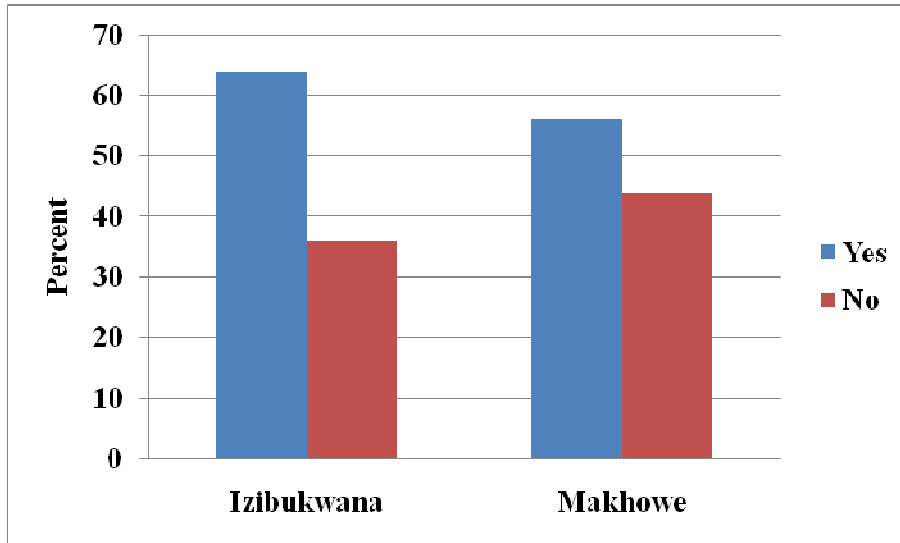
According to Higham (1999), during the bidding phase for the staging of a sport mega-event, the bidding country uses public funds to cover associated costs. The public funds are also used when the country is awarded the right to stage a sport mega-event. Davies (2009) asserts that as there are preparations, such as improvements and construction of stadiums, taking place in South Africa for the 2010 World Cup. Most of the funds for this are coming from tax payers' money. When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought that the 2010 event will be a waste of tax-payers' money, 64% from Izibukwana and 28% from Makhowe strongly agreed to the statement, 12% from Izibukwana and 34% from Makhowe were neutral to the statement and 24% from Izibukwana and 38% from Makhowe indicated that they strongly disagreed that the 2010 event will be a waste of tax-payers' money.

When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought that too much money is currently being spent on 2010 event preparations that could be spent on other social services such as water, sanitation and electricity, most respondents (81% from Izibukwana and 67% from Makhowe) strongly agreed, 4% of the respondents from Izibukwana and 13% from Makhowe were neutral, and 15% of the respondents from Izibukwana and 20% from Makhowe strongly disagreed that too much money is currently being spent on 2010 event preparations that could be spent on other social services such as water, sanitation and electricity. As indicated earlier, public funds are usually utilized when a host country is preparing for staging a sport mega-event. Pillay and Bass (2009) assert that most governments, particularly in developing countries, reduce budgets from other areas to finance preparations for the staging of a sport mega-event. It is, therefore, not surprising that most respondents felt that too much money is currently spent on the 2010 event's preparations which could have been spent on other social services which are mostly needed in rural communities. Magi (2006) argues that there are no speculations of the 2010 event's benefits to be accrued to the rural communities since most of the focus is on the host cities.

When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought that the 2010 event will lead to increases in the price of things like food and transport, most respondents (81% from Izibukwana and 68% from Makhowe) strongly agreed, 7% of respondents from Izibukwana and 14% from Makhowe were neutral, and 12% from Izibukwana and 18% from Makhowe stated that they strongly disagreed that the 2010 event will lead to increase in the price of things like food and transport.

### 5.2.5 Community and the environmental impacts of 2010 FIFA World Cup

**Figure 5.12: Whether respondents' thought that the 2010 event will have negative impacts on the environment (n=100)**



Most people tend to focus only on the economic benefits of sport mega-events and ignore other potential impacts such as the environmental impacts that might arise because of the staging of a sport mega-event (Kim et al., 2006). Figure 5.12 shows that most respondents (64% from Izibukwana and 54% from Makhowe) thought that the 2010 event will have negative environmental impacts. Thirty-six percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 46% from Makhowe thought that the 2010 event will have negative impacts on the environment. According to Ahmed et al. (2008), any sport that draws many spectators has a great potential of impacting on the environment. Therefore, with the 2010 event which is expected to draw a significant number of spectators to the locations where the 2010 matches will be taking place it is likely that some of the environmental impacts such as noise pollution, congestion, generation of large amounts of waste and utilization of energy will occur.

**Table 5.16: The respondent's level of agreement about the potential environmental impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)**

Statement	Izibukwana (n=100)			Makhowe (n=100)		
	Agree/ Strongly agree	Neutral	Disagree /Strongly disagree	Agree/ Strongly agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly disagree
As a result of construction undertaken in preparation of the 2010 event, pollution will occur	90	-	10	65	4	31
Excessive land degradation will result because of infrastructural developments such as roads and stadiums	84	2	14	68	5	27
The community will obtain greater understanding of environmental related issues because of the 2010 event	40	23	37	65	17	18

Ahmed et al. (2008) argue that in most cases people tend to ignore the environmental impacts of sport mega-events. It is worth noting that in this study most of the respondents realized that the staging of the 2010 World Cup can have an effect on the natural environment. Table 5.16 reveals that the respondents (90% from Izibukwana and 65% from Makhowe) indicated that they strongly agreed that the 2010 event has the potential of creating environmental impacts since there will be construction undertaken in preparation for this event and pollution may occur. Some of the respondents (none from Izibukwana and 4% from Makhowe) stated that they were neutral about whether or not construction undertaken in preparation for the 2010 event will result in pollution. Ten percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 31% from Makhowe strongly disagreed that the construction undertaken in preparation for the 2010 event can result in environmental impacts such as pollution. Such responses (being neutral and strongly disagreeing to the statement that the construction undertaken in preparation for the 2010 event can result in pollution) can mean that these respondents were unaware about the potential environmental impacts of staging an event of such a magnitude.

According to Cornelissen (2007), in 2007 the South African government allocated R17.4 billion towards the preparations for the upcoming 2010 World Cup. The money was to be



used for, among other things, improving existing stadiums and constructing new ones, and also improving different transport network infrastructures. When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought that excessive land degradation will result because of infrastructural developments such as roads and stadiums, most respondents (84% from Izibukwana and 68% from Makhowe) thought that the 2010 event has the potential for excessive land degradation which can result from infrastructural developments. Two percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 5% from Makhowe stated that they were neutral on whether or not the 2010 event could create excessive land degradation which can result from infrastructural developments. Fourteen percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 27% from Makhowe stated that they strongly disagreed that the 2010 event will create excessive degradation through infrastructural developments.

When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought that because of the 2010 event the community will obtain greater understanding of environmental related issues, most respondents (40% from Izibukwana and 65% from Makhowe) strongly agreed, twenty-three percent from Izibukwana and 17% from Makhowe were neutral, and 37% from Izibukwana and 18% from Makhowe strongly disagreed.

### 5.2.8 Community expectations during the 2010 FIFA World Cup

**Table 5.17: The respondent's level of agreement about their expectations during the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)**

Statement	Izibukwana (n=100)			Makhowe (n=100)		
	Agree/ Strongly agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly disagree	Agree/ Strongly agree	Neutral	Disagree/ Strongly disagree
As a result of the price increase for basic things like food and shelter, the overall costs of living will also increase	95	2	3	76	7	17
More local people will be visiting the park for various reasons	48	20	32	71	21	8
The local community will be more interested in ecotourism related activities	53	17	30	75	10	15
Crime rate will increase	41	10	49	54	15	31
Disorderly behavior such as drunkenness will increase among locals	93	4	3	74	11	15
Inconveniences such as noise pollution and traffic congestion will occur	63	13	24	67	2	31
More job opportunities will be created	62	7	31	75	20	5

Table 5.17 reveals the responses when respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement about their expectations during the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Most respondents (95% from Izibukwana and 76% from Makhowe) stated that they strongly agreed with the statement that during the 2010 event, the overall costs of living will also increase as a result of the price increase for basic things like food and shelter. Two percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 7% from Makhowe were neutral about whether or not during the 2010 event the overall costs of living will also increase as a result of price increases for basic things like food and shelter. Three percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 17% from Makhowe strongly

disagreed with the statement that during the 2010 event the overall costs of living will also increase as a result of the price increase for basic things like food and shelter.

When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought that during the 2010 event there will be more local people who will be visiting the Park for various reasons, most respondents (48% from Izibukwana and 71% from Makhowe) strongly agreed, twenty percent from Izibukwana and 21% from Makhowe were neutral while 32% from Izibukwana and 8% from Makhowe strongly disagreed that during the 2010 event there will be more local people who will be visiting the Park for various reasons. From those respondents who strongly agreed that more local people will be visiting the Park during the 2010 event, some said that local people will be visiting the Park in order to interact with the visitors who will be coming to the Park during the 2010 event. Others felt that most local people will be visiting the Park to sell traditional products to the visitors who will be visiting the Park during the 2010 event. Those respondents who strongly disagreed with the statement, particularly those from Izibukwana community, said that they did not see the reasons that can cause them to visit the Park since they were never allowed to interact with visitors coming to the Park before.

Most respondents (53% from Izibukwana and 75% from Makhowe) indicated that they strongly agreed that during the 2010 event, the local community will be more interested in ecotourism related activities. Seventeen percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 10% from Makhowe were neutral on whether or not they thought that during the 2010 event the local community will be more interested in ecotourism related activities. Other respondents (30% from Izibukwana and 15% from Makhowe) strongly disagreed with the statement that during the 2010 event the local community will be more interested in ecotourism related activities. It was evident during the survey that most respondents did not understand the meaning of ecotourism and the researcher had to explain what this concept meant. According to Keyser (2002), ecotourism ventures should have positive spin-offs that will be accrued to local communities in the form of job opportunities, utilization of local knowledge and facilities and also the purchasing of local products.

Forty-one percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 54% from Makhowe stated that they strongly agreed that crime rates will increase in their areas during the 2010 event. Ten percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 15% from Makhowe were neutral on whether or not they thought that during the 2010 event crime will increase in their areas. Forty-nine percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 31% from Makhowe strongly disagreed that there will be an increase in crime during the 2010 event

When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought that during the 2010 event disorderly behavior such as drunkenness will increase among local people, most respondents (93% from Izibukwana and 74% from Makhowe) strongly agreed, 4% from Izibukwana and 11% from Makhowe were neutral, and 3% from Izibukwana and 15% from Makhowe strongly disagreed that during the 2010 event the disorderly behavior will increase among local people.

Sixty-three percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 67% from Makhowe admitted that they strongly agreed that during the 2010 event there will be inconveniences such as noise pollution and traffic congestion. Thirteen percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 2% from Makhowe were neutral on whether or not they thought that inconveniences such as noise pollution and traffic congestion will occur during the 2010 event. Three percent from Izibukwana and 15% from Makhowe strongly disagreed that during the 2010 event the inconveniences such as noise pollution and traffic congestion will occur.

When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought that during the 2010 event there will be more job opportunities that will be created, most respondents (62% from Izibukwana and 75% from Makhowe) strongly agreed. Seven percent of the respondents from Izibukwana and 20% from Makhowe were neutral while 31% from Izibukwana and 5% from Makhowe stated that they strongly disagreed with the statement that during the 2010 event more job opportunities will be created

### 5.2.9 Community expectations post 2010 FIFA World Cup

**Table 5.18: The reasons why the respondents think that after the 2010 event most of the local people’s standards of living would have improved (in %)**

Reasons	Izibukwana (n=100)	Makhowe (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Job opportunities would have been created	22	39	30.5
People would acquire knowledge and skills that would have improved their lives	11	15	13
Local people would have received basic services and access to improved infrastructure	2	7	4.5
People would have started their own SMMEs	-	11	5.5
Not applicable/ no response	65	28	46.5

Hiller (2000) states that sport mega-event’s impacts can be felt before the actual sport mega-event takes place and also when the event has occurred. According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2006), the legacies left by sport mega-events are the main reason most countries bid to host such events. When the respondents were asked to provide reasons why they thought that after the 2010 event most of the local people’s standards of living would have improved, Table 5.18 reveals that most respondents (22% from Izibukwana and 39% from Makhowe) stated that most local people’s standards of living would have improved because job opportunities would have been created. These respondent’s response concur with Jenvey’s (2008) view that the 2010 event is expected to create job opportunities, particularly with the construction and improvements of stadium, accommodation and transport networks. Labuschagne (2008) also supports the view that through the 2010 event, the South African government is expected to provide job opportunities, particularly to the poor, so that after the event their living standards will be improved. It is important to also note that some authors (Hiller, 1998; Hiller, 2000; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006; Pillay and Bass, 2009) question the type of jobs created by sport mega-events. They question the duration of such jobs, the payments received and sustainability of such jobs.

Some of the respondents (11% from Izibukwana and 15% from Makhowe) stated that after the 2010 event most local people would have acquired knowledge and skills that would improve their living standards. These respondents’ view concurs with Jenvey (2008) who states that it is expected that the 2010 event will provide local people with training, skills development and viable tourism markets. Two percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 7% from Makhowe stated that local people would have received basic needs and access to improved

infrastructure. Other respondents (none from Izibukwana and 11% from Makhowe) asserted that people would have started their SMMEs. Kirsten and Rogerson (2002) argue that SMMEs are not properly recognized and as a result they are not properly supported. This means that rural communities require more support from the South African government in order to be able to nurture their businesses in such a way that they benefit from the 2010 event.

**Table 5.19: The reasons why the respondents think that after the 2010 event most of the local people’s standards of living would have not improved (in %)**

Reasons	Izibukwana (n=100)	Makhowe (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Only people living in close proximity to the stadiums, where the 2010 matches would be held, would have their living standards being improved	17	13	15
Only those people who have money would have been able to use the 2010 event to their advantage	28	12	20
No developments are taking place in our community	10	-	5
Most local people do not know how they can use the 2010 event to improve their lives	8	1	4.5
Jobs created by the 2010 event will not last forever	2	2	2
Not applicable	35	72	53.5

When the respondents were asked to provide the reasons why they thought that after the 2010 event most of the local people’s standards of living would have not improved, Table 5.19 shows that some of the respondents (17% from Izibukwana and 13% from Makhowe) felt that only the living standards of the people staying in close proximity to stadiums that will be hosting some of the 2010 World Cup matches would improve. The distance between the locations of the study areas and the actual Moses Mabhida stadium where some of the 2010 event’s matches will be held in KwaZulu-Natal played a role in the perceptions of these respondents. These responses concur with Jurowski and Gursoy’s (2004) view that as the distance widens between people and attractions, people’s perceptions about the event that will take place in that attraction will more likely be negative. However, it is surprising that there are more respondents (17%) from Izibukwana than from Makhowe (13%) who perceive the distance as a factor that could hinder them from benefiting from the 2010 event, whereas they are closer to the Moses Mabhida stadium than the Makhowe community.

Twenty-eight percent of respondents from Izibukwana and 12% from Makhowe asserted that only the living standards of the people who have money would be improved after the 2010 event because those people would have been able to use the 2010 event to their advantage. Most rural communities in South Africa are faced with different challenges which include the fact that they have limited skills and finance (Atkinson, 2007). Such challenges limit the opportunities for rural communities to benefit from most of the tourism ventures, including the 2010 event. Nadvi (2008) argues that although sport mega-events present some opportunities to host residents, very few people would be able to take advantage of those opportunities and be able to escape poverty. Ten percent of respondents from Izibukwana and none from Makhowe stated that there were no developments taking place in their community; therefore, they did not see how their living standards would be improved after the 2010 event. According to Magi (2006), in order for the rural communities in KwaZulu-Natal to benefit from the 2010 event they need proper infrastructure such as roads that can link them to the host cities. Most of South Africa government's focus, in terms of preparing for the 2010 event, is on host cities.

Some of the respondents (8% from Izibukwana and 1% from Makhowe) stated that most of their community members did not know how they could use the 2010 event to improve their lives. The lack of knowledge of rural communities when it comes to tourism developments seems to be a major problem that can hinder most rural communities from seizing the opportunities presented by the tourism industry (Atkinson, 2007). Atkinson (2007) argues that in order for rural communities to fully participate and use the 2010 event to their advantage, they should receive full support from all spheres of the South African government. Other respondents (2% each from Izibukwana and Makhowe) stated that the jobs created because of the 2010 event will not last forever, therefore they did not see how, after the 2010 event had occurred, their living standards would be improved. These respondents' views contradict with Jenvey (2008) who asserts that it is expected that the 2010 event will create long-term employment opportunities that will provide people with training and skills development. However, these respondents' view that the jobs created because of the 2010 event will not last, concurs with Nadvi's (2008) view that after the sport mega-event has occurred, most jobs that were created by such an event are no longer available, as a result most people return to poverty.

## **5.3 TALA AND EZULWINI PARK MANAGEMENT**

This section will examine how the Tala and Ezulwini Park Managers perceive the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup.

### **5.3.1 The Park Managers' awareness and perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

Both Park managers (one from Tala and another one from Ezulwini) agreed that they were aware of the 2010 FIFA World Cup to be held in South Africa. The Tala Private Park manager knew the location of the Moses Mabhida stadium, where some of the 2010 World Cup matches will be held in KwaZulu-Natal, however, the Ezulwini Private Park manager knew the stadium but did not know the name of the new stadium. She asked the researcher as to why the stadium was given such a name. She raised concerns about the visitors who will be coming for the 2010 World Cup, who will not be familiar with such name changes, since most of them still use old maps.

### **5.3.2 The Park managers' views about South Africa's readiness to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

According to the Ezulwini Park managers, South Africa has been given ample time to prepare for the upcoming 2010 World Cup. Therefore, she admitted that she thought that South Africa was ready to host the 2010 World Cup. The Tala Park manager, although she concurred with the Ezulwini Manager's view, further raised concerns about escalating crime rates in the country and suggested that it should be better if crime was combated by the government in order for the 2010 visitors to feel safe in the country. It is important to note that the Ezulwini Park managers' views on the readiness of South Africa to host the 2010 World Cup differ drastically with those of the adjacent community. Most of the Makhowe respondents (78%) did not think that South Africa was ready. They provided reasons such as the high unemployment rate in the country and also that stadiums will not be finished in time for the World Cup. The Tala Park manager did not share the same concerns as far as South Africa's readiness to host the World Cup, as the adjacent communities. The Izibukwana respondents (61%) provided reasons which were the same as that of the Makhowe respondents. They thought that South was not ready because of high unemployment rates, Bafana bafana was not ready, political instabilities such xenophobic attacks and stadium constructions not meeting the deadlines.



### **5.3.3 The Park managers' views about the 2010 FIFA World Cup being the best ever and leaves positive legacies for South Africa**

Both Park managers (one from Tala and the other from Ezulwini) stated that they believed that the 2010 FIFA World Cup will be the best ever and leave legacies for South Africa. They asserted that the event will leave behind improved infrastructure such as roads and stadiums.

### **5.3.4 The Park's relationship with the community**

According to Langholz and Lassoie (2001), private Parks should have a meaningful relationship with their adjacent communities. This is because private Parks have the potential of creating employment opportunities for local communities (Langholz, 1996). When the Park managers were asked to rate their relationship with their adjacent communities, the Tala Private Park manager stated that there was no relationship between their Park and the adjacent community but their Park did create employment opportunities for the local people. The Ezulwini Park Manager stated that they did not have a relationship with the community since there were no communities close to their Park. This means that the Ezulwini Manager did not consider the Makhowe community as being close enough to them to be classified as their adjacent community.

When the Park Managers were asked about what they had put in place to develop and assist the local communities bordering them so that they could benefit from the 2010 event, the Tala Private Park manager stated that the Park was not preparing anything for the 2010 event since it was a well established ecotourism site. The Ezulwini Park manager did not respond to the question since she did not consider her Park as having communities living close to it. Such responses from Park managers raise questions of how the rural communities are going to benefit from the 2010 event if the Parks are not willing to work with their adjacent communities. Atkinson (2007) suggests that rural communities can benefit from the 2010 event if they can receive help and support from Parks. Parks can incorporate, in their brochures, what their adjacent rural communities can offer to the visitors that will be coming for the 2010 World Cup.

### **5.3.5 The Park manager's expectations during the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

When the Park Manager's were asked whether or not they thought that there would be more tourists visiting their Parks during the 2010 event, both Park managers stated that there were expecting more visitors during the 2010 FIFA World Cup because they knew that most visitors are interested in viewing wildlife and beautiful natural scenery which they offer. When the Park managers were asked whether or not their Parks will be used as dedicated viewing venues for the 2010 World Cup, the Tala Park manager did not respond to that question and the Ezulwini Park manager said that her park would not be used as a dedicated viewing area for the 2010 event.

### **5.3.6 The Park managers' expectations post the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

When the Park managers were asked whether or not they thought that the 2010 event would leave any legacy for their Park and respective adjacent communities, both Park managers stated that they did not think that the 2010 event will leave any legacies for their Park because it will be a once-off event. They further stated that their Parks were already well established ecotourism sites; therefore, there was nothing new that would be brought by the 2010 event for them. For the legacy that might be left for the Parks' adjacent communities, the Tala Park manager stated that she cannot comment about the community expectations since she did not know what was the community plans for the 2010 event. The Ezulwini Park manager did not respond to that part of the question about the legacy that might be left for the community since she did not consider the Makhowe community as being close to her Park.

### **5.3.7 The Park manager's plans for the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

The Park managers stated that there were no initiatives undertaken by their Parks in preparation for the 2010 World Cup, the reason being that they were already well established ecotourism sites. Furthermore, the Tala and Ezulwini Park managers also stated that there were no infrastructure, such as roads and accommodation facilities, being developed or improved because of the 2010 event. It is important to note that the Park managers view that there were no initiatives undertaken by their Parks in preparation for the upcoming 2010 event contradicts with what some of the community respondents had said. Some of the respondents (18% from Izibukwana and 35% from Makhowe) stated that there were plans undertaken by

the Parks in preparation, such as extension of accommodation in Tala and some renovations at Ezulwini, for the 2010 World Cup.

## **5.4 CONCLUSION**

This chapter presented the data collected and further analyzed the results of the study. It can be concluded that different groups of stakeholders can expect and perceive different things from a sport mega-event. Even stakeholders within one group could have different views about the sport mega-event. This chapter revealed how the rural community and the Park manager stakeholder groups perceived the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup. There were generally differences between these two stakeholder group perceptions of the 2010 event. One of the similarities between the rural communities and the Park managers was that most of the community respondents and both managers thought that South Africa was ready to host the 2010 event and that the event would be the best ever and leave positive legacies for South Africa. One of the differences between these stakeholder groups included the fact that some of the community respondents believed that post the 2010 event their living standards would be improved whereas the Park managers believed that a once off mega-event will not leave any legacies for them, therefore, they did not expect any or much change after the 2010 event.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

Based on the literature reviewed, theoretical framework employed and the findings of the study, general conclusions about different stakeholders' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup can be drawn. This case study has highlighted some factors that have contributed to the way the stakeholders, involved in the study, perceive the impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. It has revealed different issues that are linked to hosting the sport mega-event in a developing country's context. This chapter will provide key findings of the study and forward recommendations.

#### **6.2 REVIEW OF RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES**

It is important to review the aim and objectives of the study in order to determine whether or not the researcher was able to achieve the objectives of the study. The aim of the study was to examine local rural community and ecotourism Park managers' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The focus of the study was on the Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks as well as rural communities (Izibukwana and Makhowe, respectively) residing adjacent to the Parks. Some of the key research questions that guided the study were related to examining awareness, perceptions, plans and potential impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The objectives of the study and the summary of the key findings are provided below.

##### **6.2.1 Determining the socio-economic profile of the Izibukwana and Makhowe communities**

Tlabela and Viljoen (2006) assert that involvement of rural communities in tourism ventures is one the strategies identified by the South African government as having the potential to eradicate poverty in rural areas. However, Atkinson (2007) illustrates that rural communities are faced with numerous challenges such as lack of knowledge which may result in them not being able to fully participate in the tourism industry. After 1994, the South African government together with the private sector, and Parks board embraced the notion of ecotourism (Allen and Brennan, 2004). Ecotourism is the kind of tourism that promotes and

supports nature conservation while improving the well-being of local people living in close proximity to ecotourism attractions (Honey, 1999). Tlabela and Viljoen (2006) support the view that ecotourism contributes to the improvement of living standards of rural communities since it helps rural people to diversify their economies.

The findings of this study reveal that most of the respondents were males (55%). Most of the community members were between the ages of 21-30 years (36.5%). In terms of occupation, 30.5% of the respondents indicated that they were unemployed and also 30.5% were labourers or unskilled workers. Most of the respondents (43%) had no monthly income followed by those who were earning between R1 001-R2 000 (29%). Very few respondents earned between R3 001-R4 000 (1.5%) and R4 001-R5 000 (2.5%). Equal proportion of respondents (40%) had completed primary or secondary school.

The background information relating to the respondents' households revealed that that most households (80%) used pit latrine type of sanitation. Only 13% had access to flushable toilets. A significant proportion of the respondents had access to electricity from public supply systems (70.5%) and tap water on dwelling sites (75%). It is important to note that there were also community members who relied on their neighbors' basic services such as using their neighbors' sanitation facilities and having illegal connections of electricity from their neighbors. In terms of challenges facing the communities, the findings reveal that the respondents were faced with unemployment (57%), lack of basic services (27%), lack of recreational facilities (2.5%), crime (7%), poverty (4.5%) and consumption of alcohol by the youth (2%).

It can be concluded from the findings that the socio-economic status of the community members was low because the unemployment rate was high together with low skill levels. Additionally, income levels were low and a significant proportion of the respondents did not earn an income. Furthermore, very few respondents had post-matric qualifications. Also the challenges such as unemployment and lack of basic services that were facing the community had negative impacts on the socio-economic status of the respondents and rural households generally. These findings contradict with Langholz and Lassoie's (2001) views that when private Parks are involved in ecotourism ventures they present a viable social and economic livelihood strategy. This study reveals that in relation to both communities under study, there has been very little income generating opportunities created by the private Parks in the

respective areas. The low socio-economic status of the communities could have had an influence on the way the respondents' perceived the 2010 World Cup. For example, 12.5% of the respondents stated that they were not going to attend any of the 2010 matches because they could not afford to pay for the tickets. Also 11.5% of the respondents believed that their communities could benefit from the 2010 event if they were to be employed by the Park.

### **6.2.2 Assessing the community and ecotourism park managers' awareness, attitudes, perceptions and expectations of the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

- **Ecotourism park manager's awareness, attitudes, perceptions and expectations of the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

Both Park managers were aware that South Africa will be hosting the FIFA World Cup in 2010. They also knew that in KwaZulu-Natal the 2010 matches will be held in Durban. However, only the Tala Park manager knew the exact location which is the Moses Mabhida stadium. The Ezulwini Park manager did not know the name of the stadium where 2010 matches will be held in KwaZulu-Natal. The findings also revealed that the Park managers are expecting more visitors during the 2010 event. The results also show the Park managers are not expecting any legacies to be left for them post the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

- **The community awareness, attitudes, perceptions and expectations of the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

All the community respondents were aware that South Africa will be hosting the FIFA World Cup in 2010. Most of the respondents (38%) knew that in KwaZulu-Natal the 2010 matches will be held at Durban/eThekweni at the Moses Mabhida stadium. Twenty-nine percent of the respondents were not sure of the exact location within the Durban area, whereas 33% knew the location where the 2010 matches will be held in KwaZulu-Natal.

In terms of the respondents' interest in football as spectators, the findings revealed that most of the community (46%) confirmed that they were avid fans of football and always try to attend or watch it on television. Very few community members (4.5%) stated that they have no interest in this sport or the associated festivities even when it is held in their area. Seventy-one percent of the respondents stated that they had intentions of attending some of the 2010

matches with 57.5% of the respondents stating that they had intentions of watching these matches at the Moses Mabhida stadium. Very few respondents (12.5%) stated that they will not be able to attend some of the 2010 matches because they cannot afford to pay for the tickets. The study reveals that many respondents would like to attend the event and it is likely that they will travel to Durban when the matches are held. It is, however (given the price of the tickets and the income levels of the respondents) very unlikely that the respondents will be able to afford to pay for the tickets. Most likely they will attend fan parks. In any event, the host cities must prepare for the large numbers of people who will come to the locations where the matches are held.

When the respondents were asked how they see their involvement in the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the results show that the different respondents perceived their involvement in the 2010 event differently. Most of the respondents (33.5%) saw themselves as spectators at the football matches, followed by those (26.5%) who were uncertain or did not know how they were going to be involved in the 2010 event, 20.5% of the respondents stated that they saw themselves involved in the income generating opportunities linked to the 2010 event. Other community members (18%) saw themselves being directly employed in event related activities while 1.5% saw themselves volunteering at the event.

Most of the respondents indicated that there would be price increases for basic items like food and shelter, the overall costs of living will also increase because of the 2010 event. Other respondents stated that there will be more local people who would visit the Park for various reasons and also show interest in ecotourism related activities because of the 2010 event.

Most of the respondents had negative perceptions about what might happen in their communities during the 2010 World Cup. Most of the respondents indicated that during the 2010 event there will be an increase in disorderly behavior such as drunkenness among locals and also inconveniences such as noise pollution and traffic congestion will occur. In terms of the perception and expectation about the level of crime during the 2010 event, almost equal proportion of respondents had different expectations, 47% of the respondents indicated that there will be an increase in the crime rate during the 2010 event while 40% of the respondents disagreed with that perception. Furthermore, most of the respondents indicated that more job opportunities will be created during the 2010 event.

Most of the respondents indicated that post the 2010 event, their standards of living would have improved because they would have been employed, acquired knowledge and skills and also received basic services and access to improved infrastructure. There were very few respondents who indicated that they did not think that their standards of living would have been improved, after the 2010 event. They provided reasons such as that there were no developments taking place in their areas but the focus, in terms of development, was on host cities, and they did not know how they could use the 2010 event to improve their standard of living and they also indicated that only the people located in close proximity to the stadiums would have their standards of living improved. Very few respondents were concerned about the jobs created by the 2010 event and they indicated that although the 2010 event created job opportunities because of roads and stadium constructions, such jobs will not last after the 2010 event.

### **6.2.3 Determining whether there are any initiatives undertaken by the rural communities who are living in close proximity to the Private Parks in preparation for the 2010 World Cup.**

The findings reveal that the respondents had no plans in place to prepare for the 2010 FIFA World Cup as yet but when they were asked how they see their involvement in the 2010 event, the respondents (33.5%) saw themselves as spectators at the football matches. Very few respondents (1.5%) saw themselves as volunteers during the 2010 event. Some of the respondents (18%) saw their involvement in the 2010 event mainly being directly employed. Others (20.5%) saw themselves involved in income generating activities linked to the 2010 event. It was very surprising that 26.5% of the respondents were uncertain or did not know what would be their involvement in the 2010 event. Therefore, it is also not surprising that there are currently no preparations undertaken by the respondents if most of the respondents see themselves as mainly spectators at the football matches.

### **6.2.4 Determining whether there are any initiatives undertaken by Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks in preparation for the 2010 World Cup.**

According to the Park managers interviewed, there were no initiatives undertaken by their Parks in preparation for the upcoming 2010 event because they were already well established ecotourism sites. The findings reveal that the 2010 event did not create any need for the Park



managers to undertake any preparations since they had proper infrastructure such as accommodation facilities which can cater for the visitors that will be coming for the 2010 event.

#### **6.2.5 Assessing the types of initiatives (if any) by the Parks and communities and their potential benefits.**

- **Assessment of the type of initiatives undertaken by the Park**

They were no initiatives undertaken by the Parks in preparation for the upcoming 2010 event. However, since the Park managers indicated that they were expecting more visitors during the 2010 event, there are anticipated economic spin-offs that might accrue to the Parks because of the revenues that they will be receiving from the visitors. The study did not ascertain whether additional tourists/visitors are expected or similar numbers to previous years.

- **Assessment of the type of initiatives undertaken by the community**

There were no initiatives undertaken by the community in preparation for the 2010 event. However, when the respondents were asked to provide ways in which they could benefit directly from the 2010 event, most respondents (15.5%) thought that if they could have a relationship with the Park then they could be able to benefit from the 2010 event. This was followed by those respondents (14%) who thought that if their community could sell traditional products to tourists who would be visiting the Park during the 2010 event, then they could benefit from the 2010 event. Some of the respondents (11.5%) said that if they could be employed by the Park then they could benefit from the 2010 event, 11% stated that they could benefit from the 2010 event if their community could start SMMEs. Equal proportions (6% each) of respondents stated that they can benefit from the 2010 event if they could be educated about the opportunities that come with hosting such an event and also if community members could work together in designing strategies to benefit from the 2010 event.

The findings generally reveal that most of the initiatives that could be undertaken by the respondents that could have potential benefits were linked to the assistance from the Park. Langholz and Lassoie (2001) assert that private Parks should have a meaningful relationship with the surrounding communities. One major contribution of private Parks to local

communities is that of provision of employment opportunities (Langholz, 1996), which some of the community respondents require. Rural communities surrounding the Park could also be able to market themselves to visitors who would be coming for the 2010 event, if the Parks could market them in their brochures that would make the visitors aware that there are rural communities surrounding the Parks and also what they have to offer (Atkinson, 2007). In this study the rural respondents stated that they could offer traditional products to visitors.

#### **6.2.6 Assessing the potential impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Tala and Ezulwini Private Parks and surrounding rural communities.**

- **Perceived social impacts by the private Parks**

The Park managers stated that they were already well established tourism sites therefore a once-off event such as the 2010 event would not impact on them. They also stated that they have well planned infrastructure in place which was there before the hype of the 2010 event, therefore there were no preparations in place for the 2010 event since they were well established.

- **Perceived social impacts by the surrounding rural communities**

In terms of the perceived social impacts of the 2010 event, most respondents indicated that traffic congestion and parking difficulties, creation of excessive noise and disruption of local people's lives and creation of inconvenience might result in their areas because of the 2010 event. Some of these findings concur with Kim et al.'s (2006) views that sport mega-events are most likely to result in societal problems such as traffic congestion and increased crime rates. However, in terms of anticipated crime levels, more than half of the respondents did not think that because of the 2010 event the crime rate will increase in their areas.

Most of the respondents also indicated that there would be the creation of national pride and nation building because of the 2010 event. These findings concur with Black and Van der Westhuizen's (2004) view that the staging of sport mega-events helps the host country to promote nation building and national identity. The 2002 FIFA World resulted in the unification of different groups in Korea (Kim and Morrision, 2005), and also the 1995 Rugby World Cup contributed to nation building in South Africa (Labuschagne, 2008). Also, the

findings of the study indicated that most of the respondents stated that the 2010 event will result in local people feeling good about themselves and their local communities. According to Maennig and Porsche (2008), although Germany did not receive the economic gains they had anticipated before they hosted the 2006 FIFA World Cup, the feel-good effect had proved to be the most measurable effect of the 2006 World Cup for the Germans.

- **Perceived economic impacts by the Private Parks**

The Park managers asserted that they were expecting more visitors during the 2010 FIFA World which could mean that they were also expecting revenues to be generated because of the presence of visitors. According to Langholz (1996), private Parks have a variety of sources where they can draw their revenues from, but the tourism industry provides most revenue (Langholz, 1996).

- **Perceived economic impacts by the surrounding communities**

Baade and Matheson (2004) state that although there are many reasons that cause a country to stage a sport mega-event the economic benefits associated with such events are usually the most important reasons that attract the countries to stage sport mega-events. Most of the respondents indicated that the 2010 event will be good for the local economy since it will be good for local businesses (increase turn-over) and also create job opportunities. There were very few respondents who disagreed that the 2010 event will be good for the local economy.

The findings also reveal that most respondents were concerned about the distance between their communities and the Moses Mabhida stadium where the 2010 matches will be held in KwaZulu-Natal. They stated that the 2010 event will only be a major boost for economic development in the areas where stadiums are located. Furthermore, the results indicate that most respondents were concerned about how tax payers' money is being used by the government to subsidize the 2010 FIFA World Cup. A significant proportion of respondents (46%) indicated that the 2010 event will be a waste of tax payers' money. Most respondents (74%) indicated that there is too much money that is currently being spent on the 2010 event preparations that could be spent on other social services such as water, sanitation and electricity. In most cases when the host government, particularly in developing countries, finances the staging of a sport mega-event, the government usually cuts down the budget from other areas (Pillay and Bass, 2009). Other respondents (74.5%) indicated that the 2010 event

will lead to increases in the price of things like food and transport. This means that most respondents were concerned about the impacts of the 2010 event on local prices.

- **Perceived environmental impacts by the surrounding communities**

Most of the respondents indicated that because of the 2010 event's preparations, pollution will occur. Furthermore, they indicated that there will also be excessive land degradation because of the 2010 event's infrastructural developments such as the construction and upgrading of roads and stadiums. More than a half of the respondents indicated that because of the staging of the 2010 event, most local people will obtain a greater understanding of environmental-related issues. There were very few respondents who indicated that the 2010 event will not result in excessive land degradation because of infrastructural developments.

## **6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

This section presents recommendations in addressing stakeholder perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Tala and Ezuluwini Private Parks as well as rural communities (Izibukwana and Makhowe, respectively) residing adjacent to these Parks.

### **6.3.1 Empowering local rural communities**

The study revealed that the rural communities had low socio-economic status because almost half of the respondents had no monthly income. A significant proportion of the respondents were unemployed, and those who were employed were working as unskilled labourers. Most of the respondents had either completed primary or secondary school; very few respondents had tertiary education as their highest level of education. The lack of basic services and unemployment are some of the challenges faced by the communities under the study. Therefore, the communities need to be empowered in order to uplift their socio-economic status. According to Scheyvens (2002), communities need to have access to different kinds of information about the opportunities available to them. This will allow the communities to know about the risks and benefits linked to the tourism ventures, in this case the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Scheyvens (2002) asserts that empowering communities means provision of training courses, information sharing workshops and participation in decision-making processes.

In this study the rural communities are located in close proximity to private Parks which are well established ecotourism site but still their standards of living has not improved. According to Scheyvens (2002), rural communities should not view tourism ventures as the only viable option for rural development but opportunities linked to tourism should take place alongside other livelihood strategies like agriculture which has proved to support rural communities for many years. In this study the rural communities are located near the private Parks which, according to Langholz and Lassoie (2001), have the potential of providing a livelihood strategy capable of both economic and ecological viability. Therefore, the private Parks do have the potential to help and empower the rural communities surrounding them.

Magi (2006) suggests that rural communities should also be empowered through provision of proper infrastructure that will link them to the host cities. In this study conducted in KwaZulu-Natal, the host city is Durban or eThekweni. Atkinson (2007) argues that the rural communities do not even appear on international maps used by most visitors, as a result they are not known to the visitors. According to Atkinson (2007), the 2010 event is one of the opportunities for the rural communities to explore ways of diversifying their economies.

### **6.3.2 Involvement of stakeholders**

It is evident from the findings that there is no meaningful relationship between the Parks and their adjacent communities. The Tala Park manager stated that they did not have a relationship with the community but they do provide employment to the communities, and the Ezulwini Park manager stated that they did not have any communities close to their park. Langholz and Lassoie (2001) argue that private Parks serve wealthy visitors only, and forget about the needs of local rural communities surrounding them. Both Park managers stated that they were not undertaking any preparations for the 2010 event and they do not know what was happening with their adjacent communities in terms of preparing for the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

According to Scheyvens (2002), when the communities want to improve their living standards using tourism ventures, it is unlikely that they can succeed without the help from other stakeholders. Bramwell and Lane (2000) state that collaboration of different stakeholders help because it provides a platform where different stakeholders can exchange information, goals and resources. Some the concerns raised by the respondents which can make them not to benefit from the 2010 event include lack of financial assistance and lack of information about

tourism-related issues. These findings concur with Atkinson's (2007) view that most rural communities are inexperienced, lack skills, finance, marketing expertise and reliable market information related to tourism. Such lack of knowledge about tourism related issues can result in the rural areas not participating fully in tourism ventures (Atkinson, 2007). Therefore, if the communities and the Parks under study can work together, they can be able to share the benefits of the 2010 event. Since the Park managers stated that their Parks were well established ecotourism sites, they can provide employment opportunities to local people, they can use their indigenous knowledge and further buy products and services from the local people before, during and post the 2010 event.

### **6.3.3 Leveraging sport mega-event's benefits**

The findings of the study revealed that both the Park managers and most of the community respondents perceived the 2010 event to be the best ever and will leave positive legacies for South Africa. Most of the community respondents expected that the 2010 event will leave behind improved infrastructure such as roads and stadiums, create job opportunities and attract investments. The Park managers also believed that the 2010 event will leave behind improved infrastructures. It is important to note that such infrastructural developments are questionable in terms of their use after the event has occurred. Greeff (2008) asserts that it is uncertain how most South Africans will benefit in the long run from the 2010 event's infrastructural developments, such as the stadiums.

Most of the respondents also raised concerns about too much money which is currently spent on preparations for the 2010 event. The staging of sport mega-events result in the host government spending too much money on the preparation as a result cutting down on other areas and non-host areas are usually the ones that are affected by such initiatives (Pillay and Bass, 2009). Such initiative also results in resources earmarked for the development of marginalized areas (such as rural communities) being reduced since the focus is on improvements in the host cities.

The results of this study also reveal that the staging of a sport mega-event has different impacts on different people. According to Sookrajh (2008), the economic gains accrued from the staging of a sport-mega-event are still concentrated in hands of few people rather than being shared by most host country's population. Most of the respondents also raised concerns

that the 2010 event will only be a major boost for economic development in the areas where stadiums are located. The distance between the rural communities and the Moses Mabhida stadium influenced how the respondents perceived the potential economic impacts of the 2010 event.

In order to leverage some of the potential impacts of the 2010 event, Chalip and McGuirly (2004) suggest that it can be useful if host marketers can incorporate various attractions and products, particularly those that are non-event tourism-related, which the host country can offer to visitors that will be coming to attend a sport mega-event. According to Chalip and McGuirly (2004), the marketing of different attractions within the host country can attract visitors to stay long in the host country after the event has occurred. In most cases sport mega-event organizers and marketers do not explore how they can cross leverage the benefits of the sport mega-event (Chalip and McGuirly, 2004). According to Atkinson (2007), the South African government has done little to package and market the rural areas to the visitors who will be coming to South Africa, in 2010. In the case of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Atkinson (2007) suggests that it is likely that visitors who will be coming for the 2010 event would prefer to go and visit non-host rural areas which will not be congested as the host cities. Visitors are likely to visit Parks for accommodation and relaxation purposes (Atkinson, 2007).

In this study, if the rural communities can receive assistance and support from government, private Parks and the 2010 event's organizers, they can be able to benefit from the 2010 event. The government, private Parks and 2010 organizers can make the rural communities to be known to visitors that will be coming for the 2010 event and furthermore, in their marketing strategies, they can incorporate what the non-host rural communities can offer to visitors during the 2010 event. According to Kirsten and Rogerson (2002), ecotourism provides rural communities with a chance of benefiting from tourism developments because they can provide informal tourism enterprises such as arts and crafts sellers, street guides and transport services such as rickshaws. Such services and products offered by rural communities are not usually recognized, and private Parks can use some of the services offered by rural communities before, during and post the 2010 event. Atkinson (2007) and Lourens (2007) encourage route tourism strategies which allow rural communities to attract visitors into their areas. Atkinson (2007) further asserts that route tourism allows rural communities to attract visitors to their communities or they can attract visitors en route or who pass by on the way to their next 2010 match venue. The rural communities should be able to promote and market

themselves with the help from government and private Parks so that they are known to visitors who will be coming for the 2010 event. The success of such initiatives will enable the rural communities to access and share the positive spill-over effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

#### **6.4 CONCLUSION**

This study has reviewed literature that discussed the implications of hosting the sport mega-events in a developing country's context, like South Africa which will be hosting the FIFA World Cup, in 2010. It has also provided the potential risks and benefits that might be accrued by the South Africa residents. It further provided ways in which risks and benefits of the 2010 event can be leveraged so that all South Africans at all levels of the society can be able to benefit. By applying the stakeholder and social exchange theories to the perceptions of different stakeholder groups, this study has contributed to the body of literature about perceptions of non-host communities towards sport mega-events.

The literature showed that the 2010 event has the potential of providing both risks and benefits to South Africans, the main determining factor of whether or not the 2010 event will have more benefits than risks lies upon the way it is planned. The involvement of different stakeholders when planning for a tourism venture such as the staging of a sport mega-event proved to be the very important element that has an influence on how the local people will perceive the proposed tourism venture (Hardy and Beeton, 2001). For the communities to support a sport mega-event they start by assessing the costs and benefits that might accrue to them. The communities usually support a sport mega-event when they realize that they might benefit from such an event (Deccio and Baloglu, 2002).

The findings of the study shows that most of the non-host rural communities have low socio-economic status which has the potential of influencing the way they perceive the upcoming 2010 event. Both the Park managers and the rural communities were aware that South Africa will be hosting the FIFA World Cup in 2010. The 2010 event has not yet taken place but already the findings revealed that the Park managers and the rural communities have expectations that even go beyond the event itself, to the time when the event has occurred. Some of the key findings of the study showed that both Park managers and most of the rural communities saw the 2010 event as the best ever event that will leave legacies for South Africans. However, the findings also revealed that when it comes to direct benefits to either



accrue to the Parks or the communities, different perceptions emerged. The Park managers did not see the 2010 event leaving any legacies for them. However, some community members thought that forming partnership with the Park could make them benefit from the 2010 event through creation of job opportunities. Other community members did not think that they will benefit from the 2010 event, they saw the event as something that will only benefit those people living in the 2010 host cities. Although the communities under study are located far from each other, their perceptions of the 2010 event proved to have more similarities than differences.

In conclusion, this study revealed that different stakeholder groups having different perceptions about the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The findings of this study will not only contribute to the academic field of sport tourism and mega-events but will also inform the South African policy-makers and sport mega-event organizers about the perceptions of non-host rural communities towards tourism developments in general and sport mega-events in particular. This study reveals that there is a need for similar studies which will examine perceptions of stakeholders located in the periphery of the sport mega-event's host cities before the actual sport mega-event takes place and also post the event.

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## APPENDIX 1

### THE COMMUNITY PERCEPTIONS OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP IN ECOTOURISM SITE: CASE STUDIES OF IZIBUKWANA AND MAKHOWE COMMUNITIES IN KWAZULU-NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA.

#### COMMUNITY SURVEY

Park: \_\_\_\_\_

No.: \_\_\_\_\_

Municipality: \_\_\_\_\_

#### A. AWARENESS, PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES OF THE COMMUNITY TOWARDS 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP

1. Are you aware of a major sporting event that will take place in South Africa in 2010?

Yes	No
-----	----

1.1 If yes, which event is it? \_\_\_\_\_

2. In which area will the competition venue, for this event, be located in KwaZulu-Natal?

\_\_\_\_\_

3. How did you find out about this event?

Television	Newspaper	Internet
Radio	Community meetings	Other (specify)

4. Do you know of any other major sporting event that South Africa had hosted in the past?

Yes	No
-----	----

4.1 If yes, indicate which sport event South Africa hosted in the past?

1995 Rugby World Cup	2003 Cricket World Cup	Golf Tournament	Football	Swimming	Other (specify)
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4.2. If yes, how were you informed about the event?

Television	Newspaper	Internet
Radio	Community meetings	Other (specify)

5. Do you think that South Africa is ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

Yes	No
-----	----

5.1 If yes, what makes you think that SA is ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

5.2 If no, what makes you think that SA is not ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

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5.3 What are your concerns about South Africa's ability to host the 2010 event?

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6. Do you think that the 2010 FIFA World Cup will be the best ever and leave positive legacies for South Africa?

Yes	No
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6.1 If yes, provide reason/s for your answer.

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6.2 If no, what are the reasons for your answer?

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7. Do you think that the 2010 FIFA World Cup will provide an opportunity for locals to attend an interesting, international event?

Yes	No
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7.1 If no, why not?

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## **B. EVENT ATTENDANCE AND INTEREST OF THE COMMUNITY IN THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP**

8. Do you currently attend football matches at stadium in KwaZulu-Natal?

Yes	No
-----	----

8.1 If yes, why?

Interested in football	Complimentary tickets
Ability to meet friends	Want to support the development of sport
A way to relax	Company sponsored the game, have to attend

9. Do you intend to attend any of the 2010 matches?

Yes	No
-----	----

9.1 If yes, where will you be attending?

Stadium
Dedicated football venues/Fan Parks
Other (specify)

9.2 If no, why not?

Not interested in football	
Will not be able to afford to purchase tickets	
Prefer to watch game on TV	
Other (specify)	

9.2.1 If no, because you cannot afford to purchase the tickets, how much are you willing to spend on a ticket for the game?

> R20 (specify)	R61- R70 (specify)
R21- R30 (specify)	R71- R80 (specify)
R31- R40 (specify)	R81- R90 (specify)
R41-R50 (specify)	R91- R100 (specify)
R51- R60 (specify)	< R 100 (specify)

10. If you were to have a dedicated viewing area for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, will you attend to watch the matches?

Yes	No
-----	----

10.1 Where should the dedicated viewing area be located?

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10.2 Are you willing to pay in order to watch the 2010 FIFA World Cup matches in a dedicated viewing area?

Yes	No
-----	----

10.2.1 If yes, how much are you willing to pay in order to watch matches on a dedicated viewing area?

> R20 (specify)	R61- R70 (specify)
R21- R30 (specify)	R71- R80 (specify)
R31- R40 (specify)	R81- R90 (specify)
R41-R50 (specify)	R91- R100 (specify)
R51- R60 (specify)	< R 100 (specify)

10.2.2 If no, why not?

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11. Which one of the following statements best summarises your interest in football as a spectator?

I am an avid fan of the sport and always try to attend or watch it on TV	
I am interested in the sport and see it when I can	
I am not particularly interested in the sport, but I enjoy seeing it when it comes to our area	
I am not interested in the sport but sometimes attend or watch it because family or friends are interested	
I have no interest in this sport or the associated festivities even when it is held in our area	

12. Which one of the following statements best summarises your interest in football as a recreational activity?

I am a keen participant of this sport who is regularly involved in club competition	
I am a keen participant of this sport who is regularly involved but not in any formal competition	
I occasionally participate in this sport socially	
I used to participate but I have not done so in recent years	
I have absolutely no interest in participating recreationally in this sport	

**C. THE COMMUNITY AND THE SOCIAL IMPACTS OF 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP**

13. Do you think that households will benefits directly from 2010 event?

Yes	No
-----	----

13.1 If yes, provide ways in which the households can benefits from this event.

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13.2 If no, what may cause the households not to benefits from 2010 event?

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14. Do you think that the community will benefits directly from 2010 event?

Yes	No
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14.1 If yes, provide ways in which the communities can benefits from this event?

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14.2 If no, what might cause the community not to benefits from the 2010 event?

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15. Will this event contribute to the sports participation, particularly football, in the community?

Yes	No
-----	----

15.1 If yes, provide reasons for your answer.

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16. Are you aware of any current plan/activities undertaken by the Park in preparation for the 2010 World Cup?

Yes	No
-----	----

16.1 If yes, has the park incorporated the communities in those preparations for the 2010 event?

Yes	No
-----	----

16.1.1 If yes, how are the communities involved?

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17. Who, if anybody, has been approached by the park or anyone else to develop partnership with, in preparation for the 2010 event?

	Park	Anyone else
Nobody		
The Inkosi/Chief		
Selected members of the community		
The Councillor		
The Park		
Other (specify)		

18. Do you think that ordinary residents will get a say on the planning and management of the 2010 event?

Yes	No
-----	----

18.1 If yes, how are ordinary residents going to be involved in the planning and management of 2010 event?

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19. At this stage how do you see your involvement in the 2010 World Cup?

	Yes	No
A spectator at football matches		
A volunteer		
Directly employed		
Income generating opportunities linked to event, e.g. businesses		
Uncertain/don't know		
Other (specify)		

20. Do you think that 2010 event in your area will result in?

	Yes	No	Don't know
Disruption of the lives of the locals and also create inconvenience			
Traffic congestion and parking difficulties			
Creation of excessive noise in the community			
Increasing the rate of crime in the community			
The creation of national-pride and nation-building			
Locals feeling good about themselves and their community			

21. Do you like to know about 2010 activities?

Yes	No
-----	----

21.1 If yes, how would you like to be informed?

Television	Newspaper	Internet
Radio	Community meetings	Other (specify)

22. Please indicate the level of agreement with the following statements about the event. (See codes below)

<b>Codes</b> <b>1= Strongly agree 2= Agree 3= Neutral 4= Strongly disagree 5= Disagree</b>
---

The event will promote the development and better maintenance of public facilities such as roads, Parks, sporting facilities and/ public transport in the community	
The 2010 event will deny local residents access to public facilities such as roads, Parks, sporting facilities and/ public transport because of closure or overcrowding	
The event will showcase South Africa in a positive light	
The event will attract tourists to the Park	
The event will attract future business to the area	
The event will increase positive media coverage of the area	
The event will only benefits certain individuals within the community	
The event will create jobs for local people	

#### **D. COMMUNITY AND THE ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP**

23. Do you think that 2010 event will contribute to the local economic growth?

Yes	No
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23.1 If yes, give reasons for your answer.

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24. How do you think individuals can benefits from 2010 event?

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25. How do you think the community can benefits from 2010 event?

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26. Please indicate the level of agreement with the following statements about the event (please see codes below).

<b>Codes</b> <b>1= Strongly agree 2= Agree 3= Neutral 4= Strongly disagree 5= Disagree</b>
---

The 2010 event will be good for local economic growth	
The 2010 event will be good for local businesses (increases turnover)	
The event will only be a major boost for economic development in the areas where stadiums are located.	
The 2010 event will be a waste of tax payers money	
Too much money is currently being spent on 2010 event preparations that could be spent on other social services like water and sanitation and electricity.	
The 2010 event will lead to increase in the price of things like as food and transport	

## **E. COMMUNITY AND THE ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP**

27. Do you think that 2010 event will have negative impacts on the environment?

Yes	No
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28. Please indicate the level of agreement with the following statements about the potential environmental impacts (please see codes below).

<b>Codes</b> <b>1= Strongly agree 2= Agree 3= Neutral 4= Strongly disagree 5= Disagree</b>
---

As a result of constructions undertaken in preparation for 2010 event, pollution will occur	
Excessive land degradation will result because of infrastructural developments such as roads and stadium.	
The communities will obtain greater understanding of environmental related issues because of 2010 event	

29. Please indicate the level of agreement with the following statements about the community and conservation issues (please see codes below).

<b>Codes</b> <b>1= Strongly agree 2= Agree 3= Neutral 4= Strongly disagree 5= Disagree</b>
---

Because of 2010 event locals communities will gain interest in nature conservation issues.	
Because of 2010 local communities will be interested in ecotourism related issues.	
The locals will become familiar with the park, as there will be more tourists in the area	

**F. COMMUNITY EXPECTATIONS DURING THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP**

30. Please indicate the level of agreement with the following statements about the community expectations during the 2010 World Cup (please see codes below).

<b>Codes</b> <b>1= Strongly agree 2= Agree 3= Neutral 4= Strongly disagree 5= Disagree</b>
---

As a result of the price increase for basic things like food and shelter, the overall costs of living will also increase.	
More local people will be visiting the park for various reasons	
The local community will be more interested in ecotourism related activities	
Crime rate will increase	
Disorderly behaviour such as drunkenness will be fluent among the locals	
Inconveniences such noise pollution and traffic congestions will occur	
More job opportunities will be created	

**G. COMMUNITY EXPECTATIONS POST 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP**

31. Do you think that after the 2010 event, most of the local people standards of living would have been improved?

Yes	No
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31.1 If yes, provide reasons?

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31.2 If no, what would be the reasons?

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32. Do you think that the 2010 event will leave behind physical legacies like infrastructural development such as roads and stadium for the use of the local communities?

Yes	No
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32.1 If yes, provide reasons?

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32.2 If no, provide reasons?

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33. Do you think that the 2010 event will leave local rural communities having acquired training and skills development such as arts and crafts making, that they can use to sustain their livelihoods?

Yes	No
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33.1 Provide reasons for your answer?

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## H. DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

34. Gender

Male	
Female	

35. Age of respondent

<20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	>70 (specify)
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36. Historical race classification

African	White	Coloured	Indian
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35. Employment status/ occupation

Unemployed	Student/scholar	Retired	Labour/unskilled
Sales/marketing	Administrator	Businessperson	Professional e.g. doctor
Artisan/technician	Self-employed	Home executive	Other (specify)

37. Monthly income in Rands

None	1-1000	1001-2000	2001-3000	3001-4000	4001-5000	5001-6000
6001-7000	7001-8000	8001-9000	9001-10000	10001-11000	11001-12000	>12000(specify)

38. Highest educational level completed

No formal education	Partial primary	Primary completed	Secondary completed
Certificate/diploma	Undergraduate degree	Postgraduate degree	Other (specify)

**I. BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF RESPONDENTS**

39. Could you please indicate the type of house you are living in?

Formal house	
Traditional house	
Shack/informal	

40. What type of sanitation does the household have?

Flush toilet	
Chemical toilet	
Pit latrine	
Bucket toilet	
None	
Other (specify)	

41. What is the main source of domestic water?

Tap water in dwelling	
Public tap	
Bore-hole communal	
Rainwater tank on site	
Flowing stream	
Well communal	
Dam/pool	
Spring communal	
Other (specify)	

42. What is the main source/s of energy/fuel for the household?

Electricity from public supply	
Gas	
Paraffin	
Wood	
Coal	
Candles	
Other (specify)	

43. What are the major challenges facing the households?

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44. What are the major challenges facing the community?

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**THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION**

## APPENDIX 2

### THE PARK MANAGER PERCEPTIONS OF 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP IN ECOTOURISM SITE: CASE STUDIES OF TALA AND EZULWINI PRIVATE PARKS IN KWAZULU-NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA.

#### INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Park: \_\_\_\_\_  
Municipality: \_\_\_\_\_

No.: \_\_\_\_\_

#### A. PERSONAL PROFILE

##### 1. Gender and highest level of education

Gender	Highest level of education
1. Male	1. None
2. Female	2. Primary
	3. Secondary
	4. University
	5. Technical College

2. When was the Park established?

3. How do you market your Park?

#### B. AWARENESS AND PERCEPTIONS OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP

4. Are you aware of a major sporting event that will take place in South Africa in 2010?

4.1 If yes, which event is it?

5. In which area will the competition venue, for this event, be located in KwaZulu-Natal?

6. Do you think that South Africa is ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

6.1 If yes, what makes you think that SA is ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

6.2 If no, what makes you think that SA is not ready to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

7. Do you think that the 2010 FIFA World Cup will be the best ever and leave positive legacies for South Africa?

#### C. PARK RELATIONSHIPS WITH THE COMMUNITY

8. How do you rate the relationship between the Tala/Ezulwini Private Park and the local communities living adjacent to it?

1. Excellent	5. Satisfactory
2. Very good	6. Poor
3. Good	7. Very poor

8.1. Provide reasons for the choice above.

9. Are there any interactions between the tourists visiting the Tala/Ezulwini Private Parks and the neighboring local communities?

9.1 What type of interaction is there between the tourist who visit the Park and the local communities who are living adjacent to the Park?

10. What opportunities does the Park offer to the local communities regarding the following?

1. Education and training programmes	
2. Community sports facilities	
3. Job opportunities	
4. Natural resource management	
5. Decision-making	
6. Ecotourism developments	

11. What have the management put in place to develop and assist the local communities bordering the Tala/ Ezulwini Private Parks so that they could be able to benefit from the upcoming 2010 World Cup?

#### **D. EXPECTATIONS DURING THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP**

12. Do you think that during the 2010 FIFA World Cup there will be more tourists visiting the Tala/Ezulwini Private Park?

12.1 Provide reasons for your answer.

13. Is Tala/Ezulwini Private Park going to be used as a dedicated viewing venue for the 2010 FIFA World event?

13.1 If the Tala/Ezulwini Private Park is going to be used as a dedicated viewing area, are the local communities going to be allowed to watch the matches there?

14. Is the community going to be charged for watching the game in the Parks' dedicated viewing area?

14.1 How much will the communities be charged for watching matches in the Tala/Ezulwini Private Park?

#### **E. EXPECTATIONS POST THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP**

15. Do you think that the 2010 FIFA World Cup will leave any legacy for the Tala/Ezulwini Private Park and their adjacent communities?

16. Do you think that the 2010 FIFA World Cup will leave local rural communities having acquired training and skills development such as arts and crafts making, that they can use to sustain their livelihoods?

16.1 Please provide reasons for the above mentioned answer?

#### **F. PLANS FOR THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP**

17. Do you have new infrastructure, such as roads and accommodations, to cater for the tourist that will be coming for the 2010 event?

18. Are there any initiatives undertaken by Tala/Ezulwini Private Park in preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

18.1. If yes, what kind of initiatives?

18.2. Do these initiatives involve communities living adjacent to the Tala/Ezulwini Private Park?

18.3. If no, why are the communities not involved?

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION**