



**THE LEGACY IMPACTS OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD
CUP IN AFRICA: CASE STUDIES OF STAKEHOLDER
AND SOCCER FANS' PERCEPTIONS IN CAMEROON
AND NIGERIA**

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**SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE ACADEMIC REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF PhD IN GEOGRAPHY IN THE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES,
UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
DURBAN**

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NOVEMBER 2013

DECLARATION

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of PhD in Geography in the School of Agriculture, Earth and Environmental Sciences, College of Humanities and Social Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban

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 not used. It is being submitted for the degree of PhD in Geography in the School of Agriculture, Earth and Environmental Sciences, College of Humanities and Social Sciences, 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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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to Frinwei, Mercy and Zuriel

You have been patient

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to whole heartedly thank the following individuals without who this thesis would not have been possible:

- Professor Urmilla Bob, my supervisor. You have not only been a supervisor but a mentor. Thank you very much for the profound manner in which you managed, and guided the development of this study. It has been a handsomely rewarding working with you.
- Mundih Mirabel Tichaawa, I promised to mention you immediately after my supervisor in compensation for 2010. Thank you for the love, care and support.
- Achu Teumahji Nimuno, for all the efforts you have made from project managing the data collection in Cameroon and the constant encouragement and believe in my abilities.
- The Achu and Mbieh family, for accommodating my team of visitors and field workers who travelled to Cameroon for data collection. I am grateful to have such a wonderful support from you all.
- To all my brothers and sisters, Tichaawa Irene, Tichaawa Ecless, Tichaawa Christian, Tichaawa Weidenfield, Tichaawa Christabel and Tichaawa Zedekia. Thank you for all the support and encouragement.
- The support and encouragement from Mr and Mrs Bama in Cape Town, cannot go unnoticed. Thank you Bama Nelly for your prayers and encouragement.
- Dr. Kofi Acheampong, for continuously pushing me to get across the line even when the 'fuel tank' was empty.
- I owe a lot of gratitude to my student assistants Sharon Samhere and Fungai Chatikobo for the enduring efforts and the commitment they displayed in ensuring that the study is completed. I am very much indebted to you both for your support.
- Vivian Mbaze-Ebok, for project managing the data collection in Nigeria.
- Siyabulela Nyikana, for travelling to Cameroon and assisting with the data collection process, and for always having no problem reading over my chapters and pointing some errors.
- Mandilakhe Mhlauli, for travelling all the way from East London South Africa to Cameroon to assist with fieldwork and data cleaning and capturing.
- Nthabiseng Makhooane, for travelling from South Africa all the way to Cameroon and assisting with the fieldwork.
- Marvellous Mbewe, Sakhile Moyo and Yanga Mkhwibiso, for assisting with data cleaning and capturing.
- My colleagues Mrs Tseane-Gumbi, Mrs Vikelwa Nomnga and Mr Jackie Mpanza for continuous words of support and encouragement.
- My family in Dallas and Maryland in the USA, for providing me with all the support while on a working visit and the kind words of encouragement.
- My late parents, how I wish you were still around to savour this moment. I acknowledge the love and care and devotion shown towards us and the discipline to strive for excellence. Your legacy lives.
- The support of the Research Directorate of the Walter Sisulu University for their support.
- Above all, I thank the good lord for providing me with the strength and wisdom to be able to undertake and complete this study.

ABSTRACT

The hosting of sport events, especially large-scale and mega-events, is deemed to be an important component of promoting development in relation to economic and social aspects in both developed and developing contexts. South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was significant in that it was the first time that such an event had been hosted on the African continent. The subsequent positioning of the event as an 'African World Cup' which ensured the designing of African legacy objectives geared towards achieving a continental legacy, goes beyond the scope of leveraging potential benefits of any known mega-event previously hosted. This research critically examines key components of impacts beyond the host country, South Africa, with special reference to the African Legacy Programme linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Cameroon and Nigeria by detailing perceptions from key stakeholder groups in comparative terms. The theoretical contribution relates directly to articulating and underscoring the need to examine stakeholder perceptions across a range of groups in order to unpack the extent to which differences can be attributed to socio-economic profiles, interest in the sport, geographical location, nationality, etc. Both qualitative and quantitative techniques were employed to collect data. In total, 758 soccer fan questionnaires were completed (390 in Cameroon and 381 in Nigeria) using the systematic stratified sampling method. The purposive sampling technique was employed in targeting 10 key informants from relevant government departments (sports, arts, culture and tourism), NGOs (linked to the FIFA Football for Hope foundation) and football officials (administrators, club presidents and owners) in Cameroon and Nigeria were targeted.

A number of significant statistical differences and similarities in relation to perceptions were observed between fans and stakeholder groups in both case study areas. The study revealed a strong support for South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in both countries mainly because of Africanism. The levels of awareness of the African legacy intentions/objectives and understanding of mega-event legacies were generally low. Fans in both countries were largely skeptical about the event having improved the socio-economic, environmental and political condition of Africa's citizens although perceptions of legacies in relation to job creation, skills development, image enhancement, infrastructural development mainly linked to sport facilities, and improvement of football in Africa were largely positive. However, they also perceived that corruption and lack of financial support are the main challenges facing the sustainability of the African legacy projects. The key findings from the study are seen to have a wider applicability to mega-event legacy research and body of knowledge, especially in the context of Africa and the rest of the developing world. The results raise new critical questions related to mega-event legacies and inform the rethinking of theoretical constructs and contribute to the re-conceptualisation of legacy impacts in relation to mega-events.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AFCON	African Cup of Nations
ANC	African National Congress
AU	African Union
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
BRICS	Brazil Russia India China South Africa
CAF	Confederation of African Football
CAI	Consultancy Africa Intelligence
CCTV	Closed-Circuit Television
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
CWC	Cricket World Cup
EU	European Union
FECAFOOT	Fédération Camerounaise de Football
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
FFSA	Football Foundation for South Africa
FFH	Football For Hope
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HIV/AIDS	Human Immune Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HSRC	Human Science Research Council
IOC	International Olympic Committee
LOC	Local Organising Committee
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MICE	Meetings Incentives Conferences and Exhibitions
MTN	Mobile Telephone Network
NBC	National Broadcasting Corporation
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NFA	Nigerian Football Federation
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NOI	Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala
OECD	Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development
PAPI	Paper and Pencil Interviews
PVA	Public Viewing Area
RWC	Rugby World Cup
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAFA	South African Football Association
SAT	South African Tourism
SFMS	Sport Fan Motivation Scale
SMMEs	Small, Medium and Macro Enterprises
SMS	Short Message Services
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UEFA	Union of European Football Associations
UN	United Nations
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WTO	World Tourism Organisation
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
YDF	Youth Development through Football

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Preamble

One of the most noteworthy developments in tourism studies over the past decade has been that the spectrum of activities, which has been incorporated into the analysis of tourism economies, has significantly broadened (Cornelissen, 2006; Yoshida *et al.*, 2013). Sport tourism is regarded as a niche sector for the tourism industry, resulting in its prominence over the last few years, both as an academic field of study and as an increasingly popular tourism product (Hinch and Higham, 2011). Countries around the world are progressively choosing to host high-profile sport events as a potential growth strategy, to fast track development and as a means of achieving strategic corporate objectives (Emery, 2002; Weed and Bull, 2012). Notable examples of such high-profile events or mega-events are the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games.

In the available literature, mega-events are mostly defined as events that are planned within a finite period of time and usually large in terms of scope and scale (Coakley and Souza, 2013; Misener *et al.*, 2013). The high-profile nature of the event generates analyses of consequences in terms of cause–effect relationships, such as an increase in tourism activities (Giampiccoli and Nauright, 2010) urban and infrastructural development and improvement (Burbank *et al.*, 2012; Smith, 2012; 2013) civic pride, and image boosting and building (Boukas *et al.*, 2013; Minnaert *et al.*, 2011). In another definition, Roche (2003: 101) refers to mega-events as “large scale cultural (including commercial and sporting) events, which have a dramatic character, mass popular appeal and international significance”. Central to both definitions is the fact that mega-events are seen to have significant consequences for the host country and to attract widespread media coverage. For example, Saayman and Rossouw (2008: 3) estimated that the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany attracted “a cumulative television audience of 30 billion people”. The audience of the 2010 televised according to South African Tourism (SAT) event were “projected to be over 40 billion in number” (SAT, 2010: 2).

Some authors have sought to characterise mega-events. Horne and Manzenreiter (2006: 2) portray such events as “discontinuous, out-of-the-ordinary, international, and exceptionally large”. Another study by Emery (2002: 317) suggests that “characteristics of mega-events include: a clear-cut starting and finishing point; fixed, absolute datelines; once-off organisation, normally superimposed on other work; substantial risks; and many

opportunities”. He further contends that they are considered as mega due to the quality of the sporting competition, the number of participants and spectators, their socio-economic impact, the quantity of resources involved, the degree of media coverage, and the amount of attention paid to factors of international appeal.

Academic consensus regarding the impact of mega-events is that they have both positive and negative outcomes. A review of literature concerning socio-economic, socio-cultural, physical and political impacts of the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup concludes that economic benefits are prime motives for the degree of interest that has been expressed in hosting them (Allmers and Maennig, 2008; Andreff, 2012; Carey *et al.*, 2011; Clark, 2008; Cornelissen, 2006, 2010a, 2010b, 2011a; Davies, 2012; de Melo, 2012; Dolles and Soderman, 2007; du Plessis and Maennig, 2012; Getz, 2003; Grant Thornton, 2010; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2004; 2006; Kim *et al.*, 2006; Lee and Taylor, 2005; Maennig and Zimbalist, 2012a; 2012b; Pellegrino and Hancock, 2010; Pillay and Bass, 2009; Saayman and Rossouw, 2008; Swart and Bob, 2012a).

The hosting of sport events, especially large-scale and mega-events is deemed to be an important component of promoting development in relation to economic and social aspects in both developed and developing contexts. The hosting of these events is often associated with massive public investments that are justified on the basis of the multitude of positive impacts that the event is likely to generate, including economic spin-offs, destination profiling and re-positioning, and creating spaces for social interaction. Many of the impacts are associated with long-term legacies that persist beyond the hosting of the event. There is a significant body of literature that reveals that both positive and negative impacts and legacies can emerge (Allmers and Maennig, 2008; Baade and Matheson, 2004; Bob and Swart, 2010a; Cashman, 2005; Chappelet and Junod, 2006; Collins *et al.*, 2009; Cornelissen *et al.*, 2011; Davies, 2012; Dolles and Soderman, 2007; Dickson *et al.*, 2011; Horne, 2007; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006; Kim *et al.*, 2006; Lee and Taylor, 2005; Matheson, 2006; Ohmann *et al.*, 2006; Preuss, 2007; 2012; 2013; Swart and Bob, 2012a; Silvestre, 2008; Turco *et al.*, 2012) related to social, economic, destination profiling, environmental, sport and management components. Some of the main positive and negative impacts and legacies emerging from the literature linked to mega-events in particular are summarised in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1: Main impacts and legacies emerging from mega-event literature

<i>Positives</i>	<i>Negatives</i>
New event facilities	Investments in non-needed structure
Improvement in general infrastructure	Indebtedness of public sector
Urban revival	Temporary crowding problems
Gaining of international reputation	Loss of permanent visitors
Increased tourism	Property rental increases
Improved public welfare	Only temporary increases in employment and business activities
Additional employment	
Local business opportunities	Socially unjust displacement
Renewed community spirit	Crime and terrorism
Inter-regional cooperation	Environmental damage
Production of cultural values	Inflated prices of goods and services
Education	
Experience and know-how	

Source: Adapted from Cashman (2005) and Preuss (2007)

South Africa has hosted a number of large-scale international events, such as the Rugby World Cup (RWC) in 1995, the Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON) in 1996, the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in 2002, and the Cricket World Cup (CWC) in 2003. However, none of the events can be compared to the *Fédération Internationale de Football Association* (FIFA) World Cup (which was hosted between the months of June and July of 2010) in relation to its magnitude and scope. Moreover, such a mega-event was the first event of its kind to be held on the African continent. Therefore, the importance of hosting Africa's first mega-event cannot be overemphasised. From the initial bidding stage, the event was widely promoted by the host nation as an 'African World Cup', with socio-economic and environmental legacies envisaged for the entire African continent (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). This was also embedded within rhetoric included in the 2003 Bid Book, which was echoed by the then South African president, Mr Thabo Mbeki, who envisioned the opportunity to host the event as a resolve to ensure that the 21st century should unfold as one of growth and development in Africa. He stated:

This is an African journey of hope – hope that, in time, we will arrive at a future when our continent will be free of wars, refugees and displaced people, free of tyranny, of racial ethnic and religious divisions and conflicts, of hunger, and the accumulated weight of centuries of the denial of our human dignity.

(Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008: 1)

It was therefore anticipated that post the event, the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup would create a platform not merely to provide positive spin-offs in relation to the game of sport, but that it should also act as a catalyst for socio-economic growth and development in Africa. It has been strongly acknowledged elsewhere by such commentators as Bob and Swart (2010), Bohlmann (2006), Chalip (2002), Cornelissen (2008a), Desai and Vahed (2010), Maennig and du Plessis (2009), Pellegrino and Hancock (2010) and Pillay and Bass (2009) that mega-events of such a magnitude have the potential to act as such a catalyst. According to the South African government, the event could effectively contribute to the awakening of Africa's potential as a prosperous, united and influential global colossus (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). Against this background, in November 2006, the African Legacy Programme, which was a joint responsibility of the South African government and of the Local Organising Committee (LOC), was initiated in response to the objective of making the 2010 FIFA World Cup a truly African event, one that would leave a lasting legacy for the entire African continent.

The programme's aims were designed to support the realisation of the African Renaissance objectives, including those initiatives such as the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) devised by the African Union (AU) to ensure maximum and effective African participation during the 2010 event. The programme was also aimed at strengthening, developing and advancing African football, improving Africa's global image and overcoming any remaining Afro-pessimism (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). The programme received strong support from key stakeholders, including FIFA, the Confederation of African Football (CAF), the United Nations (UN) and the AU. For example, in a show of strong support, the 8th Assembly of the AU Heads of State and Government reaffirmed its undertaking to become fully and substantively involved in the preparations leading up to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Member states also pledged all-round support, and urged the international community to provide the necessary support to South Africa for the event (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). Major projects envisaged under such a programme included those related to peace and nation-building, football support and development, the environment and tourism, culture and heritage, communication and information technology, and continental security co-operation. However, events of this nature are complex affairs, as Cornelissen (2006) describes them, requiring considerable planning by all stakeholders involved in order to minimise costs and to accrue benefits.

According to Preuss (2007: 1), “the FIFA World Cup is an exorbitantly expensive event to host, despite the final tournament taking place within only a four-week period”. He notes that the wish expressed by public authorities to invest in the World Cup is only justified if the event is to create long-lasting effects. However, legacies have been noted to be particularly difficult to measure or quantify. Horne (2007: 2) states, “the ‘legacies’ – whether social, cultural, environmental, political, economic or sporting – are the greatest attraction but also form part of the ‘known and unknown’, of sport mega-events”.

Based on this rationale, Bramwell (2011), Drury (2013), Hudson (2012) and Matheson (2010) propose and emphasise the importance of legacy planning for host destinations of mega-events. Most of these studies advise and caution that without careful strategic planning directed towards keeping destinations and community development in mind, it might be difficult to justify making the large investments that are required to host an event. Despite this, the aspect of legacy impacts has only recently emerged as a component of mega-event research, with the focus being largely on economic and, more recently, social impacts. That is, research has tended to focus on impacts during the event, rather than on monitoring and assessing long-term impacts that are legacy related. Part of the research is aimed at examining what legacy is, cognisant of the fact that Bob and Swart (2010), Cornelissen *et al.* (2011) and Preuss (2013) illustrate that legacies remain a contested term in relation to what constitutes them, how long an impact should be sustained, which stakeholder group/s should benefit from them, and how legacy impacts should be monitored.

With the 2010 FIFA World Cup now being in the past, the key question that can be asked pertains to what legacy impact the event had on the African continent. This study, therefore, seeks to critically evaluate and determine such legacy impacts, by presenting case studies conducted in Cameroon and Nigeria, who made up two of Africa’s five representatives during the tournament in South Africa. Between the two countries, they have participated in ten FIFA World Cups and have won two gold medals in football at the Olympic Games.

1.2 Significance of the study

The legacy concerns pertaining to mega-events are important given the massive initial investments required by host destinations and countries, especially in the developing context. Legacy impacts refer to permanent effects, readjustments to normality, or adaptation to short and long-term changes that can be experienced by host countries or cities of mega-events (Cashman, 2005). Some studies have highlighted that the legacies are the prime motives for

mega-events being seen as sought-after commodities (Bob and Kassens-Noor, 2012; Cornelissen, 2006; Kersting, 2007). As global strategic management consulting firm A.T. Kearney (2005: 1) states:

Mega-sporting events can transform a city. Forgotten neighbourhoods get desperately needed makeovers. Massive clean-up efforts curb smog and pollution. Transportation upgrades enhance mobility. Yet for every story of a city clean-up, there is another lingering debt and disrepair. Only a few large-scale events live up to their full potential. Even fewer deliver the promised long-term rewards. But for cities and nations that focus on both the immediate and longer-term, they do more than simply host an event, they build a legacy.

According to Black and van der Westhuizen (2004: 1195), “legacies create the ‘allure of global games’ – perhaps especially for developing economies”. Despite this, Cashman (2005: 111) argues that “legacy is often regarded as a side-issue, which is put on the back-burner until after the event”. He emphasises that because the legacy of such an event is not seen as a central issue, few cities devise a well-developed post-event plan.

The importance of legacy assessments cannot be overemphasised. Legacy monitoring and evaluation in destinations that host sport mega-events is valuable as it provides insights on lessons mainly linked to cost-benefit analysis in a systematic manner. As Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012) observe, the long-term monitoring of legacy impacts is critically important since the effects of mega-events are increasingly being questioned in relation to how sustainable they are.

According to the Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2010), hosting major events is seen as an important means of accelerating existing developmental agendas and policies while attracting and enhancing investment. Such events represents a tool or catalyst to implement existing priorities, contribute to growth and innovation substantially, and promote environmental sustainability; but must be deliberately designed and implemented in ways which ensure that this is accomplished.

Evaluating mega-event legacies has the potential to augment significantly the existing knowledge and planning for the hosting of such future events with the understanding to leverage positive benefits and minimise the negative impacts (Bob and Swart, 2010). Yet, most studies on mega-event legacies of host cities or countries have mainly focused on individual components such as infrastructure linked to stadium development and its

sustainability (Lee and Taylor, 2005), socio-economic impacts (Allmers and Maennig, 2008; Baade and Matheson, 2004; Ohmann *et al.*, 2006) and tourism legacies (Preuss, 2007). In the case where such studies exist, most have tended to largely focus on issues or projections/potential impacts prior to hosting the event (often to justify hosting the event) and during the event, but a dearth of research on legacies that focus on post-event evaluations exists. Furthermore, few studies have ventured into assessing the extent of legacies impacts for an entire region, non-host areas or even for the continent on which the event is hosted. South Africa's hosting of Africa's first-ever mega-event (the 2010 FIFA World Cup) and the country's positioning of the event as a regional and continental showpiece, with the aim of achieving an African legacy, presents an intellectual opportunity to close such a gap on mega-event legacy studies.

This study examines impacts in the developing context and raises new and critical questions related to mega-event legacies. It critically assesses African legacies linked to hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup from perspectives outside South Africa given that current discussions on legacy impacts have tended to focus on the host country. The key findings from the current study, therefore, are seen to have a wider applicability to mega-event legacy research, especially in the context of Africa and the rest of the developing world. The results inform the rethinking of theoretical constructs and contribute to the re-conceptualisation of legacy impacts in relation to mega-events. The findings provide a framework for recommendations that can be used to understand and advocate basic issues on how policy-makers, organisers, development agencies and communities in general plan and manage future mega-events to leverage legacy impacts generally and on the African continent specifically. This is also applicable to large-scale events. The findings of the study also address some of the important issues discussed in the previous sections and are important in seeking to maximise the contribution that mega-events and large-scale events can bring to a destination and beyond. As Jago *et al.* (2010) underscore, the knowledge that is acquired by one host destination or region in relation to hosting such events needs to be shared with other destinations so that the continuous operation of mega-events improves and their overall contribution is enhanced.

There is no known case study and empirically-based research that examines the legacy impacts of mega-events outside the host country. Certainly, South Africa's hosting of the first mega-event on the continent and the country's positioning of the event as an 'African World Cup' (giving it a continental orientation) provides a unique opportunity for undertaking research in this area. Consequently, the study focuses on stakeholder perceptions in two

African countries, which also permits a comparative, critical examination to be undertaken. Such a study will allow for the examination of how attitudes and perceptions change across the stakeholder groups, and whether significant differences between Cameroonian and Nigerian fans and stakeholder groups exist.

1.3 Aim of the study

The overall aim of the study is to critically examine the legacy impacts of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa by assessing the pre-defined 'African legacy' objectives and intentions in the context of two country-level case studies, namely, Cameroon and Nigeria. Considering that this type of study has not previously been undertaken, the endeavour can make a significant contribution to the body of knowledge pertaining to the legacy impacts of mega-events. This study, therefore, provides a comparative examination of perceptions, concerns and experiences that allows for a critical analysis that extends beyond merely focusing on host cities and countries. Furthermore, given the uniqueness of the study's focus and the lack of previous research on the topic, conventional legacy theories/frameworks, as well as concepts, are interrogated. The theoretical contribution relates directly to articulating and underscoring the need to examine stakeholder perceptions across a range of groups, in order to unpack the extent to which differences can be attributed to socio-economic profile, interest in the sport, geographical location, nationality, and other characteristics of those concerned.

1.4 Research objectives

The specific objectives of the study are:

- To assess the awareness levels among stakeholders in Cameroon and Nigeria of the 2010 FIFA World Cup generally, and the African legacy objectives specifically.
- To examine the legacy expectations/ objectives linked to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Cameroon and Nigeria, specifically in relation to the 'African legacy' intentions.
- To identify and critically assess the impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup Legacy programmes implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria.

- To assess whether Cameroon and Nigeria planned to derive legacy benefits from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and, if so, what were these and whether they were realised.
- To evaluate stakeholder perceptions of the legacy impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Cameroon and Nigeria. Specific stakeholders targeted are soccer fans, football officials, clubs, tourism businesses, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and relevant government departments.
- To critically examine whether the African legacy component of hosting Africa's first mega-event was achieved.
- To forward recommendations based on research findings that could be used to develop policies as well as institutional, capacity-building and skills development programmes.

1.5 Scope and limitations of the study

The scope of this study is to critically examine the legacy impacts of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa. This is undertaken within the framework of the pre-defined 'African legacy' objectives and intentions adopted during the planning and implementation phases in the run-up to the event. It is geared towards understanding the successes and challenges faced by Africans, as perceived by relevant stakeholder groups, in implementing and achieving legacy initiatives. Focusing only on two countries (Cameroon and Nigeria, both in West Africa) provides limited perspectives and experiences which, however, remain important given that this is the first study on non-host country impacts.

1.6 Thesis chapter outline

The main body of this study consist of six chapters. Specifically, the introductory chapter detailed the background to the research problem and provided a general overview of mega-event legacy, with particular focus on the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the African continent. The rationale was to highlight the positioning of the event as an 'African World Cup' and the implications thereof, as well as to identify and examine the pre-defined African legacy intentions designed, proposed and adopted by FIFA, the LOC and the AU, prior to the hosting of the 2010 event. The chapter also focused on the nature and scope of the research aim and objectives that guided the research and highlighted the importance of such a study to the mega-event legacy body of knowledge, particularly in the context of the African continent.

In chapter two, a multi-dimensional theoretical conceptual framework, within which the conceptualisation of mega-event legacy is formulated and discussed, is presented. This entails a discussion on concepts of sport mega-event legacy, the political economy of sport mega-events and the stakeholder approach derived from previous tourism studies.

The third chapter critically examines the existing literature that is currently available in the domain of sport tourism, mega-events and their associated legacies. The aim is to probe and disclose existing gaps that require further investigation, and to relate them to the current research objectives outlined in chapter one of the study.

The fourth chapter provides an understanding of the research design and methodology adopted. It outlines the processes and procedures that were followed in conducting the study. This includes a description of the case study areas (Cameroon and Nigeria), the survey population, the sample size, the design of the survey instruments, the administration of the surveys and the approach to data analysis.

The fifth chapter undertakes a critical examination of the data collected and consists of presenting and analysing the research findings that were obtained from the surveys and interviews in relation to the theoretical overview provided and the literature reviewed. A thematic analysis is undertaken using the constant-comparative approach.

The final chapter of the study provides a summary of the conclusions drawn in the earlier chapters in relation to specifically addressing the research questions and to examine whether the objectives of the study were achieved. It emphasises the contribution made by the study to the legacy of mega-events, particularly in the context of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup on the African continent, highlighting the challenges identified and proposing recommendations for areas that require further research.

1.7 Conclusion

Hosting global events is increasingly being seen as a contemporary facet in tourism destination development and marketing mix. Most nations around the world, including those in the developing context, have joined what has often been described as the 'fierce pursuit' of staging sport mega-events, because of the reported legacies usually associated with them (Cornelissen, 2007). Due to their scope and size or magnitude, the events not only have the

ability to impact on the host city or country concerned, but their impact can also be experienced in non-host regions through event leveraging initiatives.

South Africa's hosting of the FIFA World Cup in 2010 was significant, in that it was the first time that such an event had been hosted on the African continent. The subsequent positioning of the event as an 'African World Cup', which ensured the designing of African legacy objectives geared towards achieving a continental legacy, goes beyond the scope of leveraging potential benefits of any known mega-event previously hosted. Moreover, as was previously mentioned, no empirically based study has yet examined legacy benefits on the scope of the current study. By critically examining key components of the African Legacy Programme linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Cameroon and Nigeria and by detailing perceptions from key stakeholder groups, this study, therefore, contributes towards broadening the scope of studies of mega-event impacts on non-host regions, thereby helping to close the existing gap in mega-event studies. In addition, the relevance of determining the impacts of the 2010 event not only in South Africa, but also on the continent contribute to the limited existing body of knowledge on the hosting of mega-events in developing contexts.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

A conceptual framework can be seen as a mechanism or as a set of philosophies that researchers use to guide and to structure a research inquiry (Maree and van der Westhuizen, 2009). Such a framework usually covers the main features (aspects, dimensions, factors and variables) of a research endeavour and their presumed relationships (Altinay and Paraskevas, 2008). As de Vos (2006: 34) states, “a research process starts with a conceptual model, or an organising image, of the phenomena to be investigated. That is, it starts with a set of ideas – whether vague hunches or clearly formulated propositions – about the nature of these phenomena”. This chapter focuses on the emerging principles in developing the conceptual framework for mega-event legacy impacts.

As tourism is embedded within the process of globalisation linked to socio-economic and cultural domains that have relevant political consequences (Cornelissen, 2006), so too are mega sporting events similarly embedded. Giampiccoli and Nauright (2010: 45) assert that “sports and sports events have become integral components of a global political economy, which has seen production shift from developed to less developed society”. According to the OECD (2010: 12), “as local economies have adapted to changing global dynamics, the hosting of international events has become more commonplace, and can play a significant role in local development, acting as catalysts for job creation, business growth, infrastructural improvements and community development”. Gursoy *et al.* (2011:302) assert that “mega-events tend to create long-term and lasting benefits for the host communities through development of infrastructure and facilities necessary to host these events”. Such long-term legacies were envisaged for South Africa and Africa in the context of the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting, as was discussed earlier in chapter one.

Although Pellegrino and Hancock (2010) emphasise that mega-events are catalysts for change, elevating the host destination’s global standing and turbo-charging its socio-economic and political development before, during and after an event; South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has stimulated debate not only about the capabilities of developing countries hosting such events, but also about the extent to which the event has benefited various stakeholder groups in South Africa and throughout the entire continent. Cornelissen *et al.* (2011: 307) observe that “given the magnitude and prominence of sport mega-events in the

global arena and massive investments by host cities and countries, there is growing interest in examining legacies of these events”.

The current chapter develops a conceptual framework for examining the African legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Cameroon and Nigeria. The thesis is conceptualised within the context of a multi-conceptual framework, consisting of political economy, mega-event legacy and stakeholder theory. The interrelationships of the three theories adopted are explored in this chapter. The three existing theories are applied to the current research focus to show how the study is conceptualised. The political economy is discussed firstly, since it contextualises issues globally, and raises aspects that are related to economic imperatives (the main reasons for hosting mega-events) and power dynamics, including global inequalities that shape who benefits from hosting events.

2.2 Political economy theory

According to Arndt (1983: 47), the phenomenon of political economy was introduced in the 17th century to denote what is today referred to as economics, in terms of which “[i]t emphasises the inter-play of power, the goals of the power wielders and the reproductive economic exchange system”. In broad terms, Cox (1981) refers to a political economy as the structures of power that both condition and emerge from a process of social change, and which vary according to the historical-geographical configuration of material capabilities, institutions and ideological forces. Bianchi (2002: 265) asserts that political economy theory should elucidate upon the “systematic sources of power which serve to reproduce and condition different modes of development, as a basis from which to develop a more theoretically informed understanding of structure and dynamics of the political economy”. Bianchi (2002: 266) further states that “the central normative preoccupation of such an approach consists of an analysis of the social relations of power which condition the unequal and uneven processes of development, which are reinforced through particular configuration of ideologies and institutions”. Political economy theory is, therefore, seen as a broad theory that can be widely applied in the social sciences, since it views various aspects of society as a whole since the social system in itself is considered to be a whole (Bramwell, 2011).

Several approaches exist that can be taken for examining the political economy. However, the two key approaches that are identified in the social sciences are the materialist and the regulatory approaches. Bramwell (2011: 464) explains that “the materialist basis for political economy emphasises the economic relations within which humans find themselves. It

presents workers in a capitalist society as active economic agents that transform nature through the labour process and achieve development by building productive forces”. In contrast, Cornelissen (2011a) underscores that the regulatory approach to political economy focuses on how society might seek to regulate instabilities created by unstable market forces that give rise to unstable political relations. Bramwell (2011: 464) puts forward the notion that, for the sake of political economy, a key driving force of change in the social system is considered to be the opposition and the contradictions within, and between, the different elements of the whole.

Due consideration is given to the political economy, since the paradigm focuses on authority and control patterns, on conflict and conflict management procedures, and on the external and internal determinants of institutional change (Arndt, 1983). For example, from its modern beginnings in the 1960s, tourism has come to be viewed as an agent of development, modernisation and change, which has largely been buoyed up by the reported economic benefits involved (Brown and Hall, 2008; Minnaert, 2012). Tourism drives the global flow of people, commodities and capital that circulates in universally “coordinated production networks governed by large transitional firms such as airlines, tour operators and hotel management companies. International tourism operates literally on the leading edge of globalisation by continually transferring consumer tastes, cultural practices, business people and capital across the world” (Hazbun, 2004: 313). Today, tourism and consumption have come to assume increasing importance in terms of the global economy; many countries have become concerned with pursuing tourism, and with positioning themselves on the circuits of international tourism (Giampiccoli and Nauright, 2010; Minnaert *et al.*, 2011).

2.2.1 The influence of globalisation

According to Manzenreiter (2004), the post-Cold War system, which was characterised by various socio-economic and political processes, led to the emergence of what is today the dominant concept of globalisation. Roche (2006: 27) asserts that “globalisation is a relatively recent developed concept in social science discourse, referring to a social reality that is variously defined and politically contested”. Maguire (2008) and Cornelissen (2010b) suggests that globalisation refers to the growing network of political, economic, and socio-cultural interdependencies that binds human beings together in either a positive or a negative way. In this sense, Guilianotti and Robertson (2004) and Rowe (2012) observe globalisation as being two distinct, but closely connected, processes, in terms of which social actors possess a relatively great sense of ‘glocality’: that is, globalisation is marked by an increasing

subjective consciousness of the world as a whole. Furthermore, Guilianotti and Robertson (2004: 547) contend that “globalisation relativises all particularisms, forcing exponents of specific beliefs or identities to confront and to respond to other, particularistic ideas, identities and social processes across the universal domain”.

The new world economy in recent times has been characterised by the increased influence of global capital, by the increased importance of transitional markets for financial services, and by international investments, among others (Manzenreiter, 2004; Nauright, 2010). Globalisation, therefore, can be said to have led to certain structural economic shifts, particularly involving financial and technological integration, over said period (Cornelissen, 2004b, 2010b). Present-day globalisation is specifically driven by irregular, interrelated techno-economic crescendos of capitalist market building and technological change, based on science (Roche, 2006). The dynamics explored above are evidently influential in contemporary sport culture generally, in terms of such factors as the incessant pressures of commercialisation and mediatisation, and also the incessant development and application of performance-enhancing medical and material technologies (Roche, 2006).

Mega-events provide an example for analysing the relationship between globalisation and sport. For example, Hiller (2000: 439) posits that “globalisation and the economic restructuring of cities have both been powerful factors in the attractiveness of mega-events as stimulants to urban economic development”. Cronin and Holt (2003: 33) assert that sport is an excellent tool, “both for demonstrating the sheer economic power of global media and for understanding the cultural limits within which it works”. According to Black and van der Westhuizen (2004), besides the fact the sport has become a multi-billion dollar industry, it has also uniquely globalised in terms of the complex interplay between the media and tourism sectors, and the competition to secure the rights to host major sports events, with all their global prestige, symbolic power and potential economic benefit. The factors that play a key role in the advancement of the globalisation of sport events, according to Thibault (2009), include pressure from multinational corporations, international capital and neo-liberal economics, and increased trade, due to deregulation and the progress in communication channels linked to information technology.

Manzenreiter (2004: 292) argues that a particularly intriguing aspect of the globalisation of sport concerns central/ periphery relationships, perhaps because “the imbalance of national income is the driving force behind the new global division of labour that also extends to

sports”. Maguire (2008) sums up the nature of the relationship by accentuating that sport is bound up in a global network of interdependency chains that are characterised by global flows and uneven power relations. Such global flows have a range of proportions, such as the movement of tourists, migrants and guest workers across international borders; the rapid flow of money around the world; and the media dimension involving the flow of images and information that is produced and distributed by means of print and electronic media. To contextualise the above, Bennett (2008) emphasises the fact that at the centre of football and globalisation is the conflict pertaining to the game’s future. For example, European clubs tend to possess so much commercial power that they have been able to transform and to shape the game in their interest and image. Conversely, Africa and the rest of the world have struggled to match the same standards, as they watch their resources being plundered and exploited to benefit a wealthy few (Bennett, 2008).

A comparative analysis of facts and figures indicates that the size of sport mega-events, coupled with the degree of enthusiasm shown in hosting, and in participating in, them, has grown significantly. Cornelissen (2008a: 119) attributes the growth of mega-events to globalisation, which she suggests can be typified as a process involving the closer integration, development and interaction of economies and politics throughout the world. Such increased closeness has resulted in deindustrialisation, which has led to a need for more attention to be paid to such new revenue sources as tourism. However, boosting a tourism sector requires special attractions, leading to the development of mega-events, accompanied by extensive international media exposure of the host country.

2.2.2 Political economy of sport mega-events

Major sport events have reached particular significance in the contemporary global political economy (Cornelissen, 2008b). Roche (2003: 100) asserts that “mega-events have been periodically and indeed recurrently politically controversial and it is undoubtedly possible in analysing them to benefit from perspectives that emphasise their explicit ideological aspirations and potentially hegemonic impacts”. In economic terms, linked to such mega-events, Humphreys and van Egteren (2012: 17) maintain that “the International Olympic Committee (IOC) or FIFA that holds the rights to mega sporting events can be viewed as monopoly sellers and the potential host cities or countries can be viewed as competing buyers”. FIFA and IOC are, in themselves, structured globally in a manner that reflects their political agenda. In the context of football, Guilianotti and Robertson (2004) place FIFA at the pinnacle of the helm of global governance, followed by competing continental governing

bodies, national associations, regional and local associations, various football clubs, and the fans who support the game. Furthermore, they state that the national football associations are the principal political units of representation. Cornelissen (2008b) mentions that through such representation, government elites and other actors (such as corporate agents) might seek to use mega-events, or the bids to host them, the factors that motivate their attempts, and their international effects, for their own ends. It is for the aforesaid reason that Black (2007) opines that mega sport events provide a unique platform from which to pursue symbolic politics, giving a chance to signal a change in the direction of policy, to reframe the dominant narratives regarding the host, and to reinforce messages of change. Cornelissen (2008b: 482) states:

Sport mega-events have particular character that makes them the embodiment of the new forms within which international relations are driven, and as a result, define the context within which states set foreign policy objectives: they involve an overlay of actors – international sports federations, sport associations, media and other corporations, states – and activities around the pursuit of (in today’s global political economy) profit, entertainment and prestige.

According to Cornelissen (2004a: 1293), “due to the sheer magnitude and the international scale of capital flows that characterise the hosting of such events as the FIFA World Cup, the pursuit of purported economic benefits to be gained from the events leads to the industrialised and developing countries increasingly contesting which country may host them”. Malek-Akhlagh *et al.* (2013) assert that many countries struggle to gain the rights to host mega-events in order to improve their political, economic and social relations; which can lead to the eradication of their financial and social problems, giving the country a reputation throughout the world as being a country that is capable of hosting such games. Cornelissen (2004a) observes that such events are rapidly developing into part of the global capitalist structure, and when taken together with the increased focus on the enhanced levels of international competitiveness and comparative advantage, they can be seen to be growing substantially in terms of the amount of appeal that they exert to countries as developmental targets.

Despite the growing amount of literature (Baade and Matheson, 2002; Lee and Taylor, 2005; Maennig and Zimbalist, 2012a, 2012b; Rose and Spiegel, 2011; Saayman and Rossouw, 2008; Sheng, 2010; Siegfried and Zimbalist, 2006; Sterken, 2012) that is available suggesting the awareness of the limited economic potential of mega-events, the competition to host them has increased (Dowse, 2011). This is due to, as Alegi (2001) notes, mega-events having come to be considered as a suitable vehicle for economic growth in what is, currently, a fiercely

competitive global market. According to Dowse (2011), such events primarily promote growth, specifically in terms of foreign investment and tourism, as well as in terms of infrastructural development and urban regeneration. Such secondary, intangible outcomes as consolidating political legitimacy and nation building are also evident. Additionally, Cartwright (2012: 129) states that “the conventional understanding is that benefits go beyond easily measured financial windfalls and include increased international profile, the opportunity to rebrand a country and influence international perceptions of a country favourably”. Notwithstanding such benefits, the argument that is consistent and that is embedded within most studies on mega-event legacy benefits, especially those that focus on economic returns, remains contentious. Such studies on how mega-events affect host economies tend to fall into two types, namely *ex-ante* (pre-event) and *ex-post* (post-event) (Baade and Matheson, 2004).

Matheson and Baade (2003) suggest that the hosting of both the Olympic Games and the World Cup has been found to result in significant costs. According to Cartwright (2012), the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa cost its national government R31 (US\$3.1) billion, as well as costing a further R9 (US\$0.9) billion in direct payments for its host cities. Furthermore, according to Andreff (2012), the organisers of the 2012 Summer Games hosted in London deliberately underestimated the cost of hosting the event as the event drew closer. In 2005, the cost was estimated at £2.4 billion, but the figure rose from between £9.4 billion to £12 billion in 2008. The extent of the costs that were incurred by South Africa and London in this case are examples of what types of issues have fuelled the debates about the corresponding economic benefits of the event. As Hall (2006) observes, significant criticism of the value of mega-events is founded not just on their role within neo-liberal competitive discourse, but also upon their actual economic contribution. Andreff (2011) is of the view that economic spillovers of global sporting events in host countries too often are subject to the fallacy of sensational and publicised overestimation.

In terms of domestic politics and mega-events, most of the importance is placed on the contribution that the event can make to economic growth, poverty alleviation and development that is undertaken by the bid promoters with the aim of generating sufficient local support (Black, 2007). However, in the later stages of the bid processes, the reported economic spin-offs by bid promoters have rather tended to become self-generating ideologies (Cornelissen, 2008b). According to Sulehria (2013), it is therefore hypocritical to separate the hosting of mega-events from politics. Furthermore, Sulehria (2013) points out that while the

ruling classes tend to exploit sports for political gains, the workers and the activists have also tended to seize upon the opportunities that sporting events offer to highlight their demands. Therefore, the hosting of large-scale mega-events can sometimes lead to protests from citizens and other stakeholder groups. Sulehria (2013) explains that the protests that were conducted by local citizens during the 2013 FIFA Confederation Cup in Brazil, which served as a dress rehearsal tournament for the 2014 FIFA World Cup event, is an example of the above. In these incidents, the local citizens staged a series of protests against the government's use of funds for the country's hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup and the 2016 Olympic Games. The citizens in question were concerned about the massive investments that were made in terms of stadium developments amid conditions of poor service, corruption and slow economic growth. Yet, as Alegi (2001) argues, FIFA still wielded its power by insisting on its own predefined requirements and on set objectives for the event. Such political, monopolistic and dictatorial power was equally experienced by South Africa in the case of the 2010 event, in relation to stadium development and to FIFA's materialistic self-interest, which sometimes clouded local agendas (Alegi, 2007). As a typical example of such manoeuvring, Swart and Bob (2009) articulate the decision to locate the Cape Town stadium in Green Point as being an example of the power exerted by FIFA. Despite the environmental impact assessment report, regarding which stadium to use for the event, suggesting the upgrading of the Athlone stadium; FIFA insisted that the stadium be located in Green Point – a more upmarket suburb that is nestled against the backdrop of Table Mountain and the Waterfront in Cape Town.

According to Dowse (2011), part of the positive potential of mega-events lies in their ability to capture global attention and to elevate popular interest in the host country or region both throughout and after the events. Black and van der Westhuizen (2004) acknowledge that, in the current age of global television, the ability of mega-events to profile and to project images of the host, both internationally and domestically, makes them highly attractive instruments for political and economic elites. Such elites, according to Cornelissen (2008b: 481), use the mega-events “to profile themselves for foreign investors or potential tourists”; but, in addition and more importantly, mega-events have become “markers of distinction for states and channels through which states may seek to communicate messages to counterparts”.

Cornelissen and Swart (2006), Cornelissen (2011a) and Burbank *et al.* (2012) insist that there is an overarching political economy of mega-events that commonly affects both developing and developed countries. The economy includes the corporate coalitions that emerge in all event hosting processes. Hall (2006) argues that such corporate interests have substantially

contributed to the desire of public–private urban growth coalitions to host sporting mega-events and exist despite the fact that mega-events tend to be hosted irregularly in most cases (Humphreys and van Egteren, 2012). Consequently, a strong link has been forged between transnational capital and global sports events, providing a basis for the creation of partnerships between local and transitional interests (Hall, 2006). Furthermore, Cornelissen and Swart (2006: 110) affirm that “while mega-events may stimulate investments and developments in the broader economy of an aspiring or current host, gains from these may be offset by the way in which mega-events are organised, and the particular set of corporate interests tied to the event”. The mega-events depend on their characteristics that are “outside of the regular sets of features whereby power and influence is accorded in the international sphere – such as economic and military dominance – they provide a means for states to translate economic or political disadvantage in the world system to advantage” (Cornelissen, 2008b: 482).

2.2.2.1 The developed world

In the context of mega-events, Cornelissen (2004a) suggests that in contemporary times a strong belief exists that a significant change in the geography of international capitalism over the past three decades has served to reduce the importance of economic activities in national wealth creation, necessitating a shift of focus to such ‘new’ growth sectors as tourism, events or sport. Place promotion, destination profiling and imaging which are aimed at luring tourists and investors, are important aspects of such a development. Hiller (1998: 48) states that “mega-events require the mobilisation of resources that are themselves a reflection of political decisions and priorities over which many may not agree”. According to Swart and Bob (2004), since the hosting of these events has socio-economic and political significance, the ability for a country to succeed at the international level relies on its receiving international recognition in terms of its economic, social and political capability. Major sport tourism events are therefore seen by Homafar *et al.* (2011) as being an important indicator of political stability and of social advancement for each country, which can cause internal continuity of the power within the country, and which can, consequently, attract special global attention. Disproportionately, the wealthier and more developed nations remain in the pole position to capitalise on mega-events because, as Darby *et al.* (2007: 144) emphasise, “core industrialised western nations dominate the global capitalist system largely by dictating the terms upon which world trade is conducted. As a consequence, they develop and prosper through the underdevelopment of those on the periphery of the global economy”. Alegi (2008) suggests that the heightening of requirements for stadiums, press facilities, accommodation and

security demanded by FIFA show that, in the present day, only the wealthiest countries can host such finals.

According to Hiller (2000), Leopkey and Parent (2012) and Roche *et al.* (2013), mega-events can be assessed in terms of the role that they play in the process of capital accumulation through corporate sponsorships. Such capital accumulation from mega-events, according to Cornelissen (2010a: 132), has congealed amongst prominent key players and, in the case of the football World Cup, comprises that of event owner FIFA, whose key interest is to manage the sport industry globally and to maintain “influence over this industry; large corporations that draw profit out of the commercialisation of sport (Adidas, Coca-Cola, Sony, Visa, Emirates, Sony etc.) apparel goods; [and] media corporations, a few of whom have established international dominance partly through the sport industry”. The global broadcasting and media industry is overwhelmingly a European and North American-based and biased industry.

Because of the commanding influence that global financial, commercial and other corporations have over mega-events, such events are progressively becoming an important component of the global capitalist system (Cornelissen, 2004b). American cities have a long history of using showcase events to attract residents, investors and visitors. In recent years, however, this strategy has been revived with renewed prominence, as a result of the confluence of several factors, notably changes in federal urban policy and increased global economic competition (Andranovich *et al.*, 2001). Shifts in the global political economy, changes in global consumption and leisure patterns, the assertion of a specific lifestyle politics by large sectors of the industrialised world’s population, and the capitalisation of such trends by sports corporations have meant that sport has become an important component of the world’s production output (Cornelissen, 2008b).

2.2.2.2 African political economy

Darby (2005: 901) asserts that “in the context of international political and economic relations, much of the story of Africa at the FIFA World Cup reflects the broader power relationship between the developed and developing countries”. Cornelissen (2004b: 43) holds the view that there exists, within the broader frame, a collective understanding that the continent of Africa plays a marginal role within the global economy and the continent is viewed “as largely de-linked from the main capitalist structures”. In the context of mega-events dialogue, Black (2007) notes the evident dichotomy of hosting such events between

developed and developing nations. He exemplifies this when he argues that whereas for developing nations the human, institutional and financial capacity to absorb the burden of events is far more limited, the opportunity costs involved are far higher, and the desire to be seen as a 'world-class' host is more acutely felt. Furthermore, Cornelissen and Swart (2006) state that, partly because developing countries face conditions that do not extend to their more developed counterparts and partly because developing states are circumscribed by an unequal global arena, their ability to compete to host such events is limited.

The global inequalities that impinge on the capacity of many African countries to host world-class events would seem to be self-explanatory. However, increasingly, it is "because of the perceived benefits of staging a mega-event that a growing number of states in the semi-periphery are being drawn into bidding contests" (Black and van der Westhuizen, 2004: 1200). In recent times, many African countries such as Nigeria, Togo, Benin and Ghana, have competed for the right to host FIFA finals. Due to several factors, these countries have not been successful in their pursuit, mainly due to their inability to secure the huge financial resources that are required to ensure a successful bid (Cornelissen, 2008b). As Table 2.1 below shows, until the year 2010, Africa had never before hosted a FIFA World Cup, despite it being the largest confederation within FIFA.

Table 2.1: FIFA World Cup host nations and participating teams

Year	Host	Winner	Number of teams participating	African teams participating
2014	Brazil	?	32	Cameroon, Nigeria, Ghana, Algeria, Ivory Coast
2010	South Africa	Spain	32	Cameroon, Nigeria, Ghana, Algeria, Ivory Coast plus South Africa as host country
2006	Germany	Italy	32	Angola, Ghana, Côte d'Ivoire, Togo, Tunisia
2002	Korea/Japan	Brazil	32	Cameroon, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Tunisia
1998	France	France	32	Cameroon, Morocco, Nigeria, South Africa, Tunisia
1994	USA	Brazil	24	Cameroon, Morocco, Nigeria
1990	Italy	West Germany	24	Cameroon, Egypt
1986	Mexico	Argentina	24	Algeria, Morocco
1982	Spain	Italy	24	Algeria, Cameroon
1978	Argentina	Argentina	16	Tunisia
1974	West Germany	West Germany	16	Zaire (DRC)
1970	Mexico	Brazil	16	Morocco
1966	England	England	16	
1962	Chile	Brazil	16	
1958	Sweden	Brazil	16	
1954	Switzerland	West Germany	16	
1950	Brazil	Uruguay	13	
1938	France	Italy	15	
1934	Italy	Italy	16	Egypt
1930	Uruguay	Uruguay	13	

Source: Modified from van der Merwe (2009)

The African continent is largely dominated by emerging democracies and the phenomenon of globalisation (articulated above within the context of mega sport events) has played a major role in shaping macro-economic policies and decision-making (Swart and Bob, 2004). For authoritarian or weak democratic regimes, hosting mega sport events promises a dual reward, in the sense that, firstly, it provides the opportunity for them to “showcase the country and secondly the opportunity to demonstrate its ‘acceptability’ to the international community” (Black and van der Westhuizen, 2004: 1200). However, for African countries, a major characteristic of the global arena is the increased number of opportunities and competition that exists. Such characteristics are likely to influence the conditions for sport bidding (discussed below), as well as the value of international sport events (Swart and Bob, 2004). Furthermore, persistent inequalities in the global arena contribute to the maintenance of the status quo, more especially because social and economic inequalities as well as the heightened influences of global forces and processes are integral features of the world today (Swart and Bob, 2004).

Over the past few years, developing nations have increasingly come to participate in mega-event enterprises. Specifically, contemporary activism around mega-event hosting by the BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa) nations, including Malaysia and Qatar, can be understood as attempts by these developing states to attain several policy goals as well as to gain economic benefits (Cornelissen, 2011b). South Africa, in particular, has emerged as a virile campaigner within such a domain, ensuring that it managed to secure the hosting of Africa's first mega-event (Cornelissen, 2004a). However, in her study of the changing political economy of global sport and the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Cornelissen (2008a: 242) asserts:

South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup is embedded within a global political economy of sport. Such an economy is marked by a particular economic rationale and set processes of commercialisation and corporatisation, which affect the way in which an African country can define its objectives.

Notwithstanding the egalitarian nature of sport – specifically of football in contemporary global society – the continent of Africa still suffers greatly from underdevelopment (Pannenberg, 2010; van der Merwe, 2009), which is, in some cases, due to factors that are linked to the political economy and to the dominant power of western industrialised nations. For example, Darby *et al.* (2007) suggest that the establishment of football academies in Africa by European clubs perpetuates the loss of Africa's football resources. This, they argue, can be described as an extension of the broader neo-imperialist exploitation of the developing world by the developed world. Darby *et al.* (2007: 144) further analyse such exploitation of African football resources and the impact thereof when they state:

Recruitment of African playing talent by European football clubs can be interpreted as a form of neo-colonial exploitation in that it involves the sourcing, refinement, and export of raw materials, in this case African football talent, for consumption and wealth generation in the European core and that this process results in the impoverishment of the African periphery.

Furthermore, given the existing global inequalities, the capacity for developing societies without such superstar teams to project themselves into the world's sporting arena is further constrained by the rapacious recruitment of promising sportsmen and women through lucrative contracts that are entered into with European and North American clubs (Black and van der Westhuizen, 2004). Accordingly, the vast majority of African star footballers ply their trade in the richest football leagues in England, Spain, France, Germany, Italy and the United States of America (Armstrong and Giulianotti, 2004; Boye, 2012; Darby, 2000; Darby and

Solberg, 2010). Such a scenario has negatively impacted on the performance of many African teams at FIFA World Cup events. As can be seen in Table 2.1 above, no African team has ever won the FIFA premier event since its inception.

Furthermore, Table 2.1 above also shows the dominance of the developed nations in terms of hosting the event, and the number of participating teams. Darby (2005) and Darby *et al.* (2007) argue that, since 1954, the continent of Europe has organised itself into a unified political configuration, with the aim of consolidating and maintaining its hegemony within FIFA, while simultaneously marginalising Africa and Asia. As illustrated by the above-mentioned table, Darby (2005: 883) asserts that the apportionment of five places to Africa for the 1998 World Cup Finals and beyond “was the culmination of a bitterly-contested and acrimonious struggle dating back to the early 1960s between the game’s emergent regions and FIFA’s European constituents over how berths at the tournament should be distributed”.

2.2.3 *Bidding for mega-events*

As the above discussion articulates, the pursuit of mega-events has become an increasingly popular political and developmental strategy for destinations that desire to host them (Black, 2007). Such a desire, as expressed by local authorities, is more based on personal and political conviction than it is on the careful analysis of the merits of hosting such events (Emery, 2002). The selection of countries or cities that host mega-events reflects the political and economic character of mega-events. According to Cornelissen (2004b: 51), mega-event bids are “highly political affairs and politics play a significant role in shaping events, bid processes and outcomes”. Cornelissen (2008b: 484) further accentuates that “bidding competitions to host events and the deliberations and dealings that take place within sport federations are often interesting extensions of international relations and mirror world schisms of influence, power, rivalry or conflict”. Baade and Matheson (2002) align themselves with the notion previously articulated in this thesis when they postulate that despite the theory of economics casting doubts on the possibility of a substantial windfall for the host city or country that hosts mega-events, cities and countries competing against one another for the mega-event would supposedly bid until their expected return reached zero. Despite the fact that the bidding process triggers the tendency to underestimate the cost and to overstate the benefits involved (Andreff, 2006; Nauright, 2004), political elites who advocate for mega-event hosting overly claim that the hosting of such events tends to benefit the entire city or country, with capitalist groups being better positioned, on average, to take advantage of the potential benefits to accrue therefrom (Cornelissen, 2006; Dowse, 2011; Rowe, 2012). As Promfret *et al.* (2009:

21) observe, “special interest groups or lobby groups may be able to extract rents from the bidding process at the expense of general welfare of the public and actively induce the government to make bids”. The authors argue that such groups are likely to benefit from the bidding for mega-events, irrespective of whether the bid concerned is successful or not. For this reason, Sulehria (2013) and Whitson and Macintosh (1996) suggest that there has been an increase in the amount of opposition that is expressed to the hosting of such events, particularly on the basis of economic and social equity.

Several studies (Andreff, 2006; Baade and Matheson, 2002; Cornelissen, 2007) consistently argue that current bidding for the hosting of mega-events is open to harsh competition between major countries (in the case of the FIFA World Cup) or between the world’s biggest cities (for the Olympic Games). According to Whitson and Macintosh (1996), the bids for such events constitute an arena for sites of struggle for growth supremacy amongst both national and local actors. In addition, Baade and Matheson (2002) and Cornelissen (2004a; 2004b) submit that the IOC and FIFA are the monopolist suppliers of mega-events. Accordingly, as such, the two bodies concerned tend to receive the benefits accruing from any economic rents from the events either directly through bribes from suitors or indirectly through mandating the potential hosts to assume all costs incurred relating to the hosting of the event. The result has been that the hosting of mega-events has traditionally been reserved for the developed world and, more recently, for a few emerging developing economies (Cornelissen, 2010b) that possess sufficient financial power to compete for such hosting. For example, as Black (2008) emphasises, the 2012 bid process illustrates that, increasingly, only a handful of ‘global cities’ can credibly bid for the Summer Olympic Games. Black (2008) further suggests that although the FIFA World Cup has partially mitigated such a tendency by adopting the process of a regional rotation, it remains the case that only a handful of countries can aspire to host the mega-event. Moreover, said regional rotation is no longer in existence.

Swart and Bob (2004) hold the view that countries and specific cities in the developing world have responded in numerous ways to bidding for mega-events, including forming partnerships or blocs, with the aim of strengthening their capacity and of gaining political leverage. Baade and Sanderson (2012) state that the political economy that defines FIFA’s behaviour during the selection process can be illuminated through considering the case of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, as hosted by South Africa.

2.2.3.1 South Africa: The 2010 FIFA World Cup

According to Cornelissen (2004a), the trends articulated above have increasingly come to apply to African countries, which, over the past few years, have steadily more and more come to participate in mega-event enterprises. South Africa, in particular, has emerged as a key campaigner within such a domain. van der Merwe (2009) attributes such emergence by South Africa in the mega-event arena to two contributing factors: firstly, its largely peaceful transition to a form of democratic governance, and its relative success in overcoming a history of discrimination; and secondly, the country progressively being seen as an idyllic candidate for furthering the increasingly developmental focus of world football, particularly on the African continent. However, in analysing the spectacle of the changing political economy of global sport and the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Cornelissen (2008a: 242) asserts that South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was "embedded within a global political economy of sport. Such an economy is marked by a particular economic rationale and set processes of commercialisation and corporatisation, which affect the way in which an African country can define its objectives". As has been the case with previous mega-events that have been hosted on a global scale, several authors (Cornelissen, 2010b; Desai and Vahed, 2010; Maharaj, 2011) stress that the bids by South Africa to host the 2006 and 2010 FIFA World Cups were envisioned as bringing economic and social benefits across the African continent.

In the wake of South Africa's successful hosting of the Rugby World Cup in 1995 and the Africa Cup of Nations in 1996, it is held by some that the South African Football Association indicated its intention to launch a bid to host the 2006 FIFA World Cup during the 1998 edition of the Africa Cup of Nations, which was held in Burkina Faso (Cornelissen, 2004a). Conversely, Alegi (2001: 3) alleges that "the idea of South Africa's bidding to host the FIFA World Cup emerged during the course of Cape Town's bid for the 2004 Olympic Games".

The literature suggests that three principal objectives were advanced by South Africa as primary motives for its hosting of the 2006 FIFA World Cup (Alegi, 2001; Black, 2007; Cornelissen, 2004a; 2004b; 2006; 2007; Nauright; 2004). Firstly, the hosting of the event was perceived as being adept at boosting capital construction and at heightening the country's international visibility, in terms of the development of an economic strategy that promised substantial benefits for the tourism industry (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006; Nauright, 2004; Swart and Bob, 2004). Alegi (2001) suggests that South Africa's Bid Committee argued that hosting the 2006 World Cup was not only about soccer, but it was also about tourism, and about the marketing of South Africa to the world. By using the event as a tourism and

marketing exercise, the hosting of the FIFA World Cup could be used to consolidate the country's position as the top tourist destination in Africa, with an anticipated increase in the percentage of overseas arrivals (Alegi, 2001, 2008; Fourie and Santana-Gallego, 2010; Swart and Bob, 2007).

A second objective in making the bid to host the FIFA World Cup was to stimulate a sense of national pride and unity that might help to overcome the country's political legacy of racial discrimination and segregation resulting from past apartheid policies (Alegi, 2001; Cornelissen, 2004a). The World Cup bid emphasised the importance of black economic empowerment, which was strengthened by the hosting of the event providing an arena in which black youth, in particular, might be able to redress any remaining feelings of marginality, by their feeling of emotional reinforcement, which would be attained by them coming to realise their own importance as part of a global force (Alegi, 2001). FIFA, in its final Inspection Report, which was published prior to the making of the final decision about who the host was to be, declared that awarding the tournament to South Africa would assist in unifying the country (Black, 2007). In her publication concerning the narratives and legitimisation supporting either Morocco's or South Africa's bids for the 2006 and 2010 FIFA finals, Cornelissen (2004a) concludes that the South African government's subsequent approval and support granted to the bidding effort were also strategically linked to the central government's larger nation-building intent.

The final objective is seen by Alegi (2001) as offering local power brokers an opportunity to renegotiate or to consolidate their positions within the power structures of South African sport and society. Cornelissen (2006: 145), in contrast, notes that "the third goal for South Africa was to enhance the country's international status by promoting the country's relatively recent democratisation set out in 1994". According to Dowse (2011), the South African government, led by the African National Congress (ANC), sought to use the hosting of the mega-event to improve the country's relations regionally and to overcome the legacies created by the apartheid regime, which were largely characterised by feelings of mistrust. The main thrust was to rebalance the country's relationship with the African continent and the international community, and to gain access to and influence capital and decision-making for itself (Dowse, 2011).

Analysis of the circumstances surrounding the 2006 bid further reinforces the realisation of the dominance of political economy prior to the mega-event hosting. Cornelissen (2004a)

asserts that, in marketing the South African bid to the global football market, the country offered a convincing argument which was sometimes cloaked in anti-colonial rhetoric. Cornelissen and Swart (2006) and Desai and Vahed (2010) highlight in their research that the advocates of the bid at that time adopted a pan-Africanist slogan, namely 'It's Africa's turn!'. Their doing so, according to Alegi (2006), inherently supported the idea that the international struggle was still being waged against the legacy of apartheid and colonialism, and boosted the appeal made to FIFA's peripheral nations to help break Europe's remaining economic domination over the African continent. Such a sentiment is echoed by Cornelissen (2004a: 1297) when she states:

One of the most significant qualities of the bid was its pan-Africanist basis, characterised by its logo and slogan geared to convey to the remainder of the world the central idea that Africa, a large football region, had never had the opportunity to host a spectacle of this magnitude.

The pan-Africanist thrust adopted by South Africa was fundamentally aimed at gathering as much support for its bid as possible within the African continent (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006). However, such support was complicated in that Morocco, which had previously campaigned to host the event in 1994 and 1998, had also signalled its intentions of wanting to host the 2006 event (Cornelissen, 2004a; 2004b). What was rather interesting to observe of the Moroccan bid was the similar foundations that it had to the bid made by South Africa, using 'with Africa' as the cornerstone (Cornelissen, 2004a). Both Morocco's and South Africa's bids paradoxically both challenged and reinforced the predominant perceptions of the marginalisation of the African continent within the context of mega-event hosting (Cornelissen, 2006). The implications for using the pan-African rhetoric as a means of leverage for gaining support by both bids meant that securing a successful bid depended greatly on the degree of such support received within Africa (Cornelissen, 2006). While Morocco's legitimisation campaign was directed at the vote-carrying African members states belonging to FIFA, the country's delicate geographic and political position on the African continent, and in its relationship with CAF, negated the impact of its use of the concept of 'Africa', since several sub-Saharan African countries questioned whether Morocco could justly claim to be 'African'. The raising of such a question highlights the legacy of the long-standing rift between the North and sub-Saharan African states over which countries truly constitute 'the African continent'. Such a rift often translates into tensions that are present in such diplomatic forums as the AU (Cornelissen, 2006).

Cornelissen (2004a) notes that the months prior to the announcement of the winning bid were characterised by robust lobbying and by intense politicking on the part of the contending countries. FIFA's executive committee primarily bases its decision on the official bid proposal submitted by the respective countries, as well as on the reports that are compiled on their existing infrastructure. Other conditions set by FIFA's technical committee are also of key importance. Secondly, the committee visits the countries concerned, where personal friendships, networking and backroom deals within FIFA structures and its individual confederations tend to play a significant role in determining the eventual winner (Cornelissen, 2006). Cornelissen (2004a: 1299) also observes the way in which voting is organised around FIFA's confederate structure, as well as around such well-organised opportunities as voting blocs. She found that such "blocs tend to form around issues such as personal loyalties and other forms of direct and indirect political pressures (such as the awarding of 'gifts', or the granting of trade agreements), which are used to sway or influence outcomes".

Although South Africa's 2006 bid was rated by FIFA as being superior to those of other contenders, such as Brazil and England, and as equal to that of Germany, the latter country secured the rights to host the tournament in a closely contested 12 to 11 votes (Baade and Matheson, 2004). Dowse (2012), Cornelissen (2008b) and Alegi (2001) both examine factors that played a key role in the eventual outcome of the 2006 vote for Africa. They agree that, firstly, the dual African bid created tension within CAF, leading to the body's refusal to endorse the candidacy of one contestant over the other. South Africa's and Morocco's reluctance to compromise on the issue, leading to their continued candidacies, presented difficulties to CAF, which did not announce the name of the country that it had chosen until the day of the award (Alegi, 2001; Cornelissen, 2006). In the second instance, Cornelissen (2004a) debates the crucial roles played by individual personalities within FIFA, who helped to determine the final outcome. She maintains that South Africa's chances were thwarted in the final voting round after an executive member from the Oceania Confederation abstained from voting. Alegi (2001: 12) remarks that "such an unprecedented abstention deprived Joseph Blatter, president of FIFA, from casting his vote presumably in favour of South Africa, which meant that Germany was awarded the rights to host the 2006 FIFA World Cup". In this context, Dowse (2011) suggests that the 2006 FIFA World Cup was awarded to Germany, albeit under dubious circumstances involving allegations of foul play and bribery. According to Manzenreiter (2004: 290), the problematic decision that was made in favour of Germany, rather than South Africa, hosting the 2006 world championship demonstrated a "deeply embedded Eurocentrism within FIFA's corridors of power".

The decision to award the 2006 FIFA World Cup to Germany was greeted with overwhelming negativity by the African countries, and by South Africa in particular, as they regarded the decision as indicating a patronising and racist international stance towards Africa as a whole (Alegi, 2001). In partial acknowledgement of the unequal structural position of developing countries within FIFA (Cornelissen, 2006), and as an attempt to attenuate the influence and the factors that were enshrined in the voting procedures, a rotation system was then adopted by FIFA. Dowse (2011: 8) states:

The incident was important because it formed the backdrop of FIFA's subsequent introduction of a policy of rotating the event on a continental basis, beginning with Africa. Ostensibly, the policy was to facilitate a general rebalancing of awards, although it has been suggested that the main objective was to ensure South Africa will be the next host.

In testament to the fact that such a rotating system was adopted with a view to ensuring that the 2010 FIFA World Cup was hosted in Africa for the first time ever, and so as to appease the African continent, said decision was reversed after the awarding of the 2010 event.

The 2010 bidding process rekindled South Africa's rivalry with Morocco during the final bidding stage, since both countries had submitted strong bids (Cornelissen, 2007). Whereas Morocco reframed its bid for the 2010 World Cup final around their national developmental strategy, namely Vision 2010, which was aimed at implementing an economic stimulus programme for the country (Cornelissen, 2004a), South Africa emphasised its showcasing of the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an 'African World Cup', which was intended to promote the assertion of a new sense of confidence and prosperity across the entire continent. The 2010 bid, therefore, was presented as being undertaken for the betterment of the African continent. Such an approach was intended to support the regional and the international ambitions of reconciliation and recognition, as had been the case with the 2006 failed bid (Dowse, 2011). Nevertheless, van der Merwe (2009: 18) holds the view that the idea of "an African Football World Cup is a steady and concerted attempt by various protagonists – situated both within football's centre and on the periphery – to reconfigure the broader inequalities not only within the footballing world but also between Africa and the developed world more generally".

The notion of an 'African World Cup' captured the imagination of FIFA, the other African countries, and the African diaspora (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2008). According to Maharaj (2011: 52), in support of South Africa's second bid for the 2010 event, former South African President Thabo Mbeki had argued:

We want, on behalf of our continent, to stage an event that will send ripples of confidence from Cape to Cairo – an event that will create social and economic opportunities throughout Africa. We want to ensure that one day, historians will reflect upon the 2010 World Cup as a moment when Africa stood tall and resolutely turned the tide on centuries of poverty and conflict. We want to show that Africa’s time has come.

According to Ndlovu (2010: 147), Mbeki’s definition of African unity, as emphasised in the above communication, also expressed the extent of ‘Africaness’ for the positioning of Africans in the diaspora as equal stakeholders in the event, as he further stated: “other Africans in the Caribbean, the US and Brazil – we want them to feel part of the African Cup”.

According to Cornelissen (2004a), prior to the announcement of the winning bid, the FIFA technical committee released its report on the capabilities of contending countries hosting the event. Whereas Egypt was evaluated as being capable of doing so, and Morocco displayed potential for organising a good World Cup, South Africa was designated as having the potential to host an excellent final. Cornelissen (2004a: 1300) further went on to suggest that “the difference in emphasis was more than semantic – the choice of wording was aimed at conveying not only an assessment of the contending countries’ capacities, but also at creating a hierarchy that was an important portent of probable outcomes in the voting sessions”. According to Pillay and Bass (2009), the decision that was made on 15 May 2004 by FIFA to award South Africa the right to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup represented a major shift in the political economy of mega-events, specifically in the context of the FIFA World Cup. As van der Merwe (2009: 27) explains, “for a complex set of political and economic reasons, and arguably also through sheer luck and timing, South Africa managed to wrest the ascendancy from other, more established contenders who, in purely footballing terms, were perhaps more deserving of host status”.

Winning the right for South Africa to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup “was a direct consequence of concerted and sustained efforts by state and corporate elites to attract sports mega-events predominantly for their own gains” (van der Merwe, 2009: 28). Being awarded the right to stage the mega-event also confirmed the ANC government’s embrace of neo-liberalism, for it served to reiterate the country’s place within the world of economic globalisation (Baines, 2010). By adopting the pan-African approach that was aimed at championing African interests, South Africa showed off its ambitions to develop, influence and position itself as a credible voice within the emerging economies of the global ‘South’ (Dowse, 2011; Ndlovu, 2010).

The narratives around South Africa and the bid to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup clearly show the country's political goals and ambitions at the time. Starting from the conceptual stages of the event, the government portrayed the event as being one that would promote economic development, while rebalancing the country's objectives (Dowse, 2011). In this study, the issues raised above are examined in relation to the broader continental impact of the 2010 FIFA World Cup within Africa.

2.3 Mega-event legacy

According to Bob and Swart (2010), sport events are gaining prominence in the global, regional and arenas, due to the massive investments that are often associated with their hosting. Cornelissen *et al.* (2011) posit that such investments have resulted in a growing interest in examining their impacts. A vast number of studies agree that mega-events are often justified on the premise of their likely long-term benefits for the destinations that host them (Agha *et al.*, 2012; Cashman, 2002; Chalip, 2006; Cornelissen and Swart, 2006; Harris, 2011; Horne, 2007; Malfas *et al.*, 2004; Nichols and Ralston, 2011; Preuss, 2011; Ritchie *et al.*, 2009; Swart and Bob, 2012a). As countries are increasingly bidding to host mega-events (the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games), the main argument presented in justification of the desire to host such events is the associated legacy benefits that are likely to accrue to the local communities concerned (Dickson *et al.*, 2011).

Several studies on mega-events (Black, 2007; Cashman, 2002; 2005; Chappelet and Junod, 2006; Cornelissen, 2007; Cornelissen *et al.*, 2011; Hiller, 1998; Preuss, 2007; 2011; 2013; Smith and Fox, 2007) have reflected on the issue of legacies. Most concur that mega-event legacies represent the outcome of the event which can be interpreted not only as permanent effects, but also as readjustments to normality, or as adaptations to changes brought about by an event. The difficulty, however, lies in the challenge of how to define the term 'legacy'.

Cornelissen *et al.* (2011) note that little consensus exists within the research community on what the term 'legacy' entails, or on how it should be defined. This is perhaps because, as Brown and Massey (2001: 19) posit, the 'legacy' of an event could easily encompass all the different elements of the impact of a major event. To illustrate such an understanding, Gratton and Preuss (2008: 1923) put forward the International Olympic Committee's (IOC's) notion of 'event legacy' "that which captures the value of sport facilities and public improvements that are turned over to communities or sports organisations after the Olympic Games". By

comparison, Mann (2008: 2) states that the legacies of mega-events involve “ensuring that as many long-term benefits are generated for the host city, region and nation – well before, during and long after the event”. However, the above definitions, according to Preuss (2007: 2), cannot be generalised, because they depend on the provision of qualitative examples. He advocates for a general definition of legacy, which is independent from qualitative examples. His definition refers to legacy as “planned and unplanned, positive and negative, intangible and tangible structures that were/will be created through a sport event and remain after the event” (Preuss, 2007: 2). The basis for the above definition is that it identifies three legacy dimensions: firstly, the degree of planned structure; secondly, the degree of positive structure; and thirdly, the degree of quantifiable structure (Preuss, 2007). Such dimensions imply that a legacy consists of a multi-faceted outcome, consequently the legacy of such an event as the 2010 FIFA World Cup might easily serve to encompass all the different elements of the impact that it creates.

In an effort to provide a framework for the definition of legacy, and on how mega-event legacies should be evaluated, Gratton and Preuss (2008: 1924) provide a ‘legacy cube’ that stresses the different aspects of legacies, as can be seen in Figure 2.1 below. According to the figure, the cube in question contains eight smaller cubes, which reflects the notion that a holistic evaluation of mega-event legacy necessitates the identification of all legacies in the first place. As the figure further shows, most pre-event studies and bid committees focus on only one sub-cube, consisting of the planned, positive and tangible legacies. In addition, pre-event studies on mega-event legacies tend to be biased, as most are more often than not commissioned with the purpose of justifying the hosting of the event, leading to the authorities emphasising only this particular sub-cube (Gratton and Preuss, 2008).

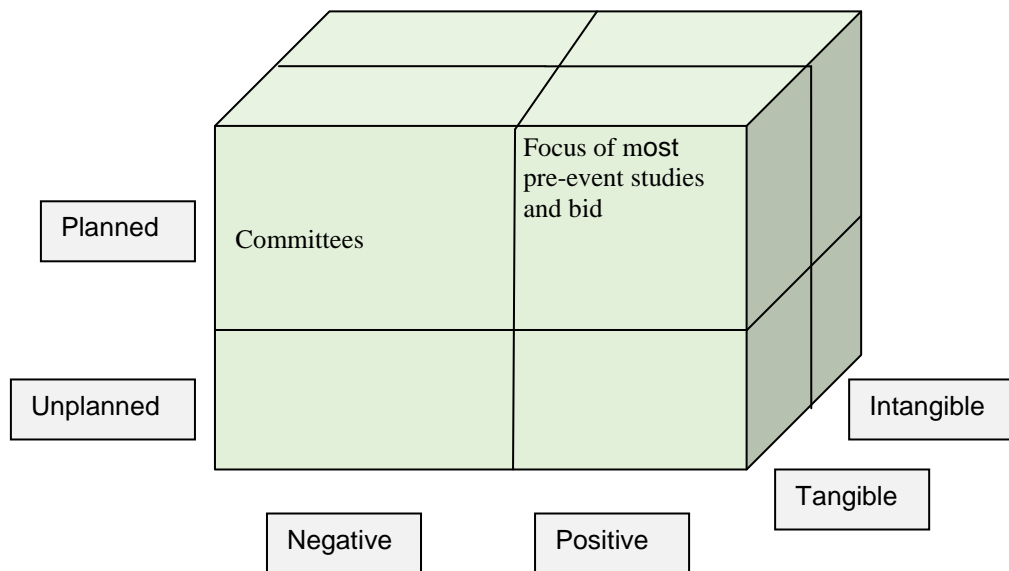


Figure 2.1: Legacy cube

Source: Adapted from Gratton and Preuss (2008: 1924)

According to Gratton and Preuss (2008: 1923), “the ‘event legacy’ – as used by the IOC – captures the value of sport facilities and public improvements that are turned over to communities or sport organisations after the Olympic Games”. Cashman (2005: 15) articulates the elusiveness and the problematic nature of the term ‘legacy’:

When the term is used by organising committees, it is assumed to be entirely positive, there being no such thing as negative legacy when used in this context. Secondly, it is usually believed that legacy benefits flow to a community at the end of the Games as a matter of course... Thirdly, legacy is often assumed to be self-evident, so that there is no need to define precisely what it is.

Preuss (2013) asserts that a countless number of legacy effects exists that are associated with the hosting of a mega-event. To boost understanding, Chappelet and Junod (2006: 84 cited by Bob and Swart, 2010a: 81-82) identify and differentiate between the following five different types of legacies, based on the nature of each one’s effects:

- Sporting legacy refers to the facilities that are newly built or renovated for an event, and which will serve some purpose post event. These sporting infrastructures often become emblematic symbols for the host city, depicting its link with sports. Furthermore, they might also play a role in changing the local culture, by either increasing people’s participation in sport, by introducing new and different types of sport to the area, or by fostering the organisation of more mega-events on a regular basis.

- Urban legacy focuses on the buildings that were constructed for the event, but which serve no sporting function. Included here are changes made to the urban structure of the host city, as well as the development of new urban districts and specialised areas.
- Infrastructural legacy refers to the different types of networks, ranging from transport to telecommunications, that are developed for the purpose of the event, and which are maintained after the event is complete. New access routes by air, water, road, or rail also form part of the infrastructural legacy. Additionally, an event can provide the trigger for promoting the modernisation of such basic services as water, electricity, and waste treatment, among others.
- Economic legacy, although difficult to determine, measures the number of tourist visitations over the long-term. Mega-events are often associated with increases in the number of tourists visiting a host city. Although it is difficult to determine the impact of tourism in the long-term, the tourist legacy needs to be evaluated by measuring the number of tourists visiting an area over the long-term. In addition, the economic legacy also includes the setting up of non-tourism-orientated companies that are attracted to the host region by its dynamism, in the form of the possibility of leveraging its investment opportunities. Other good indicators of the economic legacy of mega-events are the changes that occur in terms of the number of permanent jobs created, and in the reduction of the unemployment rate in the host region or city.
- Social legacy, which refers to the residents' memories and experiences of the event, includes the actual skills and experiences that people gain through their direct or indirect involvement in the event. Mega-events are symbolic in nature, and thus often lead to the creation of many stories and myths. These stories and myths form part of what Chappelet and Junod (2006: 85) term the 'collective memory' of an event. This term refers to the local residents' memories and experiences of the mega-event, and can also include the actual skills and experiences that people gain through their direct, or indirect, involvement in the mega-event. An essential part of the social legacy of mega-events is the change in the perceptions of the local residents of the host city or region.

Figure 2.2 below represents a consolidated model of the typologies of sport mega-event legacies that is adapted from Cornelissen *et al.* (2011).

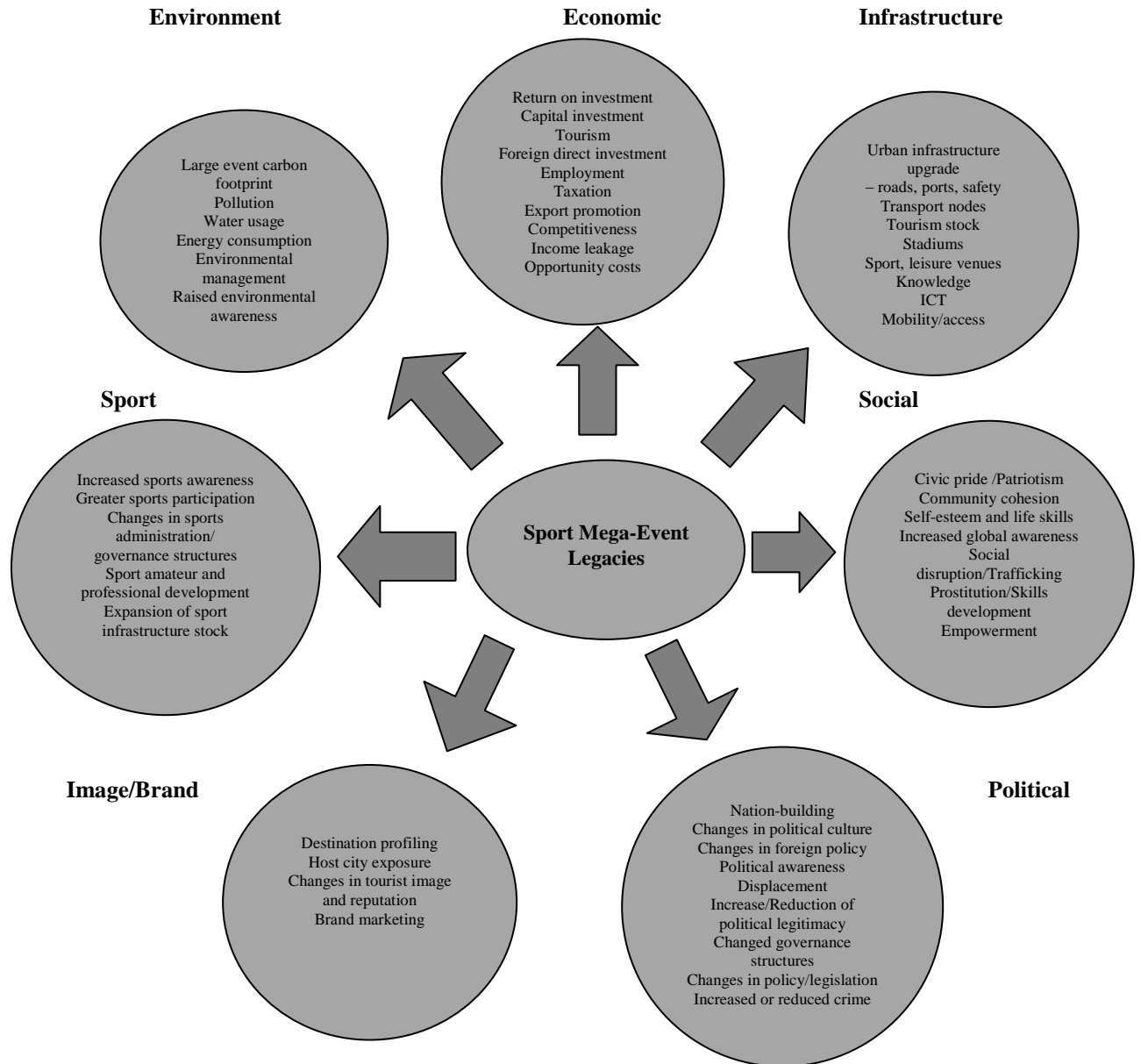


Figure 2.2: Sport mega-event legacies

Source: Adapted from Cornelissen et al. (2011)

According to Figure 2.2 above, the notable additions to legacy classification that are excluded from that of Chappelet and Junod (2006) mentioned previously are the political and the environmental legacies that also emerge as a consequence of the hosting of mega-events (Black, 2007; Cornelissen, 2007; Death, 2011; Nauright, 2004; Preuss, 2013). According to Cornelissen *et al.* (2011), the environmental legacy focus is concerned with such sustainability imperatives as minimising the negative consequences of the mega-event for the environment, and maximising the positives pertaining to the event. The political legacies may

refer to the improved governance practised at the host destination; the enhancement of nation-building (Lee and Taylor, 2005); growth in political awareness (Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2011); increased diplomacy and legitimacy (Ndlovu, 2010); and change in the host destination's political image (Maharaj, 2011). As presented above, legacies can be both positive and negative in nature, and mostly manifest in the cities or region that host mega-events. The latter point is emphasised by Cornelissen *et al.* (2011: 309):

Legacy impacts are most acutely experienced near to where the mega-event is held, especially in the case of the multi-site event such as the football World Cup that takes place within the host cities. Most sport mega-events are either explicitly city-based, or the city constitutes the most 'natural' site for these events because of the magnitude of the events and their logistical and organisational requirements.

Preuss (2007) suggests that many countries bid to host mega-events without first having a sound understanding of the complex nature of the associated legacies that might not always be positive or predetermined. For example, although economic impacts have been touted by many host destinations as being the primary motives for the hosting of mega-events (Dickson *et al.*, 2011; Horne, 2007; Maennig and Zimbalist, 2012c; Ritchie *et al.*, 2009) have all shown that such economic benefits might not, in fact, be realised after all. Cornelissen *et al.* (2011: 308) state:

In particular, the economic impacts (the main reason usually articulated for attracting these event) are seldom at levels anticipated in consultants' *ex ante* projections. In certain cases events may leave hosts with escalating public debts. For instance, it took three decades for the city of Montreal to pay off the debt it incurred in hosting the 1976 Summer Olympics.

The uncertainty regarding whether economic benefits are, in fact, reaped from the hosting of mega-events, as can be seen in the above discussion, tends to problematise the hosting of such events in developing countries, in that the level of investment that is required for the hosting could rather be justified in terms of investments that might be made in programmes that are aimed at igniting the impetus of economic growth, job creation and poverty alleviation (Pillay and Bass, 2009). According to van der Merwe (2007: 68), "mega-events which are hosted in developing countries can be termed a 'mixed blessing' since, although they may bring the promise of numerous economic benefits and the hope of uplifting the host nation in a number of ways, these events are also a source of controversy if not carefully planned, can lead to enormous financial loss".

At the centre of the controversy over legacy is the issue of appropriate planning prior to the hosting of mega-events. Some commentators have proposed the importance of legacy planning for the host destinations of mega-events. For example, Ritchie (1984) cautions that, without careful strategic planning that is focused on destination and community development, it might be difficult to justify making the large investments that are required to host an event. Similarly, Smith and Fox (2007) state that securing regeneration from events requires vigilant planning by event managers who are sensitive to the significance of legacy. Bob and Swart (2010) note that the host country that delivers a successful event, while ensuring a positive legacy, requires effective coordination between a range of such stakeholders as event organisers, regeneration agencies, the government, local businesses and the community. Therefore, comprehensive legacy planning should have helped to ensure that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup contributed to the development of the communities concerned, as well as benefiting those residents for a long time to come. However, according to Matheson (2010:12), the “mixed legacy outcomes are indicative of the challenges within the legacy planning and implementation process”. For example, “the conceptualisation of legacy lacks a shared understanding and is an emergent area in legacy.” Cashman (1998: 111), in the case of the Olympic Games, provides a number of reasons for the difficulty of planning for life post-event:

- During the rush to organise the mega-event, little time exists for considering a plan for the period after the event, despite such being the time when the issue of legacy comes under the spotlight, as LOCs wind up the event. In said case, there exists the peril of pertinent decisions being made ‘on the run’, and on an ad hoc basis.
- Legacy is usually concealed, since it is usually interpreted to represent a range of additional financial burdens for the host of the mega-event. Regrettably, a vast number of event planners fail to recognise that, while creating a legacy requires some additional expenditure, it represents a way of recouping some of the mega-event costs through the development of related tourism, and of further recouping the costs related to the construction of event facilities.
- Legacy is more often than not looked upon as a side issue that can be tackled post-event. Due to it not being seen as a central issue, few destinations that host mega-events have comprehensive post-event plans.

- In addition to the above, legacy also consists of information about how best to stage mega-events. It has been customary for the organisers of upcoming mega-events to ‘look over the shoulder’ of those staging a current event. However, the bulk of mega-event ‘knowledge’ is not passed on in any systematic way to the next destination hosting the future event.

According to Agha *et al.* (2012) and Pellegrino and Hancock (2010), to create a positive legacy for an event, the host destinations of mega-events must focus on the post-event legacies, and not just on the event itself. Authorities must plan for legacies, and not anticipate, and assume, that the legacy concerned will simply materialise. The construction of a legacy requires that deliberate effort, strong leadership and sustained commitment be exerted. Furthermore, a realistic legacy vision must be crafted and promoted to include a broad economic footprint, while stakeholder collaboration, especially within the ambit of the public and private sectors, is important.

Legacy has the potential to arouse community support for mega-events, especially so if there are tangible outcomes and return on investments concerned (Matheson, 2010). Preuss (2007) outlines that a positive legacy helps to overcome complaints about such an organisation as FIFA, and that it provides evidence of why the World Cup has been good for the host country involved. Said legacy further provides justification for the use of scarce public resources in constructing stadiums and general infrastructure to ensure that all necessary event structures for the event are ready in time. A positive legacy also motivates other nations to bid to host future World Cups. Such reasons were important in the case of South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012) and Preuss (2013) argue strongly that there is a need to sustain post-mega-event legacies for a significantly long period of time, urging that such legacy effects should be evaluated for at least a period of over 20 years. Matheson (2010: 12) cautions that “it is insufficient for policy makers to focus on short-term impacts; instead, sustainable legacies are emphasised to justify public expenditure”. The sport event tourism research conducted by Miah and Garcia (2012), Smith (2012) and Weed (2007) underscore that events should be used by the destinations that host them to drive long-term developmental plans, and that, therefore, their planning should incorporate urban regeneration strategies.

The vast number of studies that have focused on legacies have tended to come to the general conclusion that the difficulty that has been experienced in defining the term ‘legacy’ has also complicated the measurement of mega-event legacies (Agha *et al.*, 2012; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006). The monitoring of legacy effects entails considering both the intangible and the tangible effects of the event (Dickson *et al.*, 2011; Gratton and Preuss, 2008; Preuss, 2013; Ritchie *et al.*, 2009). According to Cornelissen *et al.* (2011: 309), “intangible effects – which often relate to the subjective experiences – can generally only be felt, such as the change in resident and visitor perceptions of the host city or region”. Preuss (2013) argues that the legacy effects of such mega-events could be either direct or indirect. Preuss (2007) and Harris (2011) assert that the direct effects represent those tangible sport facilities and related infrastructure that are built for the main purpose of hosting the mega-event. According to Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012) and Swart and Bob (2010; 2012a), the indirect effects of mega-events legacies for host destinations could include the intangible effects of image enhancement, and of the feel-good factor (Allmers and Maennig, 2008; Maennig and du Plessis, 2011; Maennig and Zimbalist, 2012a) that is experienced by the host population and by visitors during the event. However, as Cornelissen *et al.* (2011: 309) infer, “indirect effects are facilities and infrastructure that would have been built even if the event had not taken place, but the mega-event served to speed up these developments”.

The legacy framework discussed above illustrates the key impacts that are linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup that have been examined in relation to non-host African countries. As the discussion above illustrates, the focus on legacy impacts tends to be on the host(s) involved. This study focuses on the non-host impacts concerned, which has, up until now, been a neglected focus area in terms of mega-event research.

2.4 Stakeholder theory

The stakeholder theory is a theory of organisational management ethics (Phillips *et al.*, 2003; Phillips *et al.*, 2011), of corporate governance, and of corporate social performance (Freeman and Miles, 2002; Freeman, 2011). According to Donaldson and Preston (1995: 70), “the stakeholder theory is intended both to explain and to guide the structure and operation of the established corporation. It views the corporation as an organisational entity through which numerous and diverse participants accomplish multiple, and not always entirely congruent, purposes”. Toa and Fuying (2009: 1065) contend that the core idea of the theory is that “it is impossible for any enterprise to develop without the input of and participation of various stakeholders” and “the ultimate goal of enterprise is to pursue the overall interests amongst

them”. According to Elms *et al.* (2011), Freeman (2011) and Mitchell *et al.* (1997) stakeholder theory, therefore, attempts to articulate the following fundamental question in a systematic way: Which groups are stakeholders deserving or requiring management attention?

Byrd (2007), Harrison (2011) and Jones (2011) refer to a stakeholder as any person, group or organisation that is affected by the causes or consequences of an issue. Phillips *et al.* (2011) and Freeman (2011) provide a more expansive definition of the term when they refer to stakeholders as persons or groups that have or that claim ownership, rights or interests in a corporation and its activities; past, present or future. However, the most widely vaunted definition of a stakeholder in the context of business management is that of Freeman (1984: 25) who asserts that a stakeholder is “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm’s objectives”. Most of the literature on stakeholder theory, in general, accepts that employees, customers, persons, groups, neighbourhoods, organisations, institutions, societies, and even the natural environment are generally thought to qualify as actual or potential stakeholders (Cassidy and Guilding, 2010; Elms *et al.*, 2011; Franch *et al.*, 2010; Lewis, 2006; Mitchell *et al.*, 1997). However, Donaldson and Preston (1995) Hasnas (2013) and Phillips *et al.* (2011) suggest that a group, therefore, tends to qualify as a stakeholder only if it has legitimate interest in aspects of the organisation’s activities. Stakeholder theory is concerned with exploring the linkages between the focal organisation and its stakeholders.

Freeman (2011), Lewis (2006) and Beritelli and Laesser (2011) assert that stakeholders can possess voting power, economic power, political power, and positional power. According to Parent and Deephouse (2007), most studies take the power, legitimacy and urgency attributes as being given, and describes stakeholders in terms of these attributes. Co and Barro (2009: 594) note that, “in the stakeholder theory, three distinct attributes identify the dynamics of the interaction between the stakeholders which includes power, legitimacy and urgency”. Co and Barro (2009) further assert that power relates to the ability of an advocate to influence, to produce or to effect behaviour, outcomes, processes, objectives or direction. Legitimacy is in keeping with expected behaviour, structures, values, beliefs, norms and roles. Urgency implies that the stake is critical to the stakeholder and that it is time-sensitive. Conversely, Donaldson and Preston (1995) identify three main aspects of the stakeholder theory as being descriptive/ empirical, instrumental, and normative. The descriptive aspect of the theory is commonly used to describe certain characteristics and/ or behaviour of an organisation. The normative aspect, which is the fundamental core of the theory, is used to interpret the function

of the corporation, including the identification of moral or philosophical guidelines for operation or organisations. Furthermore, according to Phillips *et al.* (2011), the normative aspect assumes that all stakeholders have the right to be treated as an end in themselves, and not as a means to an end. As Phillips *et al.* (2003: 481) note, while there are still some stakeholder groups whose relationships with the organisation remains instrumental (due to the power that they wield), there are other normatively legitimate stakeholders than merely the equity shareholders alone.

Lewis (2006) recommends that to implement stakeholder theory, organisations must have a full appreciation of all persons or groups who have interests in planning, processes, delivery and/ or outcomes of the product or service. Stakeholder theory posits that, whatever the aim of a corporation might be, the managers involved must consider the legitimate interest of groups or individuals who might be affected by their activities (Donaldson and Preston, 1995). Paying close attention to the interests and well-being of those who can assist or hinder the achievement of the organisation's objectives is the central directive of the theory (Phillips *et al.*, 2003). As a result, Lewis (2006) accentuates that the stakeholder concept implies that management's task is to pursue an optimum balance between the diverse needs that are demanded to be satisfied by the interest groups and other constituents. According to Reynolds *et al.* (2006: 286), "balancing stakeholder interests is a process of assessing, weighing and addressing the competing claims of those who have a stake in the actions of the organisation". Reynolds *et al.* (2006) further suggest that balancing stakeholder interests is possibly the most significant principle of the theory, as doing so epitomises the action of the prime instrument that is used by managers to elicit and to sustain the support of various stakeholders, with their contrasting desires and wants. As Freeman *et al.* (2004: 365) state:

The best deal for all is if managers try to create as much value for stakeholders as possible. There are, of course, conflicts among stakeholder interests but these conflicts must be resolved so that stakeholders do not exit the deal – or worse – use the political process to appropriate value for themselves or regulate the value created for others.

Reynolds *et al.* (2006) suggest that if managers do not intermittently meet the claims of certain stakeholder groups, they may lose support from such groups. Consequently, it is in the interest of managers to ensure that stakeholder benefits are, to a certain extent, well-adjusted. Jones (2011) Leopkey and Parent (2007) contend that the stakeholder theory is not only useful for understanding stakeholders' issues, but that it also determines strategies for responding to their needs and actions. According to Crane and Ruebottem (2012) and Morsing and Schultz

(2006), through participation, dialogue and involvement with unblemished motivation and goals that are in line with democratic ideals, attaining stakeholder support through satisfying their needs is possible. This is because, while dialogue is the tool, agreement and consensus are often regarded as the solution on which further decisions and actions are based, thus facilitating continuing collaboration.

Hardy and Beaton (2001) and Kimbu and Ngoasong (2013) suggest that, in recent times, the concept of stakeholder theory has also been applied in the tourism sector for the purpose of planning and managing destinations. According to Currie *et al.* (2009: 43), “strategic planning in the tourism industry is crucial in so far as it integrates multiple stakeholders, and remains adaptable to changing environmental, social and economic conditions”. Byrd *et al.* (2009) and Verbeke and Tung (2013) state that obtaining a clear understanding of the attitudes and interests of stakeholders is a necessary precursor to the planning and the management of sustainable tourism. Byrd (2007) and Freeman *et al.* (2012) demonstrate that problems can arise when stakeholders are excluded from the planning process, and that, for sustainable tourism to be successful, the stakeholders must be involved throughout the entire process.

Currie *et al.* (2009: 46) strongly support the claim that “stakeholder involvement plays a vital role in sustainable tourism development; hence the consideration for social and environmental issues requires the identification of numerous stakeholders and the incorporation of their opinions”. Hardy and Beaton (2001) and Crane and Ruebotten (2012) argue that having an understanding of stakeholder perceptions should be viewed as a prerequisite for sustainable tourism. For example, in the context of such mega-events as the 2010 FIFA World Cup, widespread stakeholder participation helps to ensure that all major issues are addressed, thus leading to the adoption of long-term, tenable decisions.

According to Gursoy *et al.* (2002) and Hinch and Higham (2011), one key to conducting sustainable tourism development within a community is the involvement of stakeholders. Without stakeholder support, it is difficult to develop tourism in a sustainable manner. McGehee and Andereck (2004) and Currie *et al.* (2009) underscore the importance of using a common framework to plan, to set goals and objectives, and to evaluate proposed tourism development collectively, with the view of empowering stakeholders from the outset. Therefore, the stakeholder approach intimates that the adopting of plans and the taking of decisions should be done in a way that is cognisant of the stakeholders’ best interests.

Moreover, the understanding of stakeholders is of paramount importance to the minimisation of any potential conflict.

Lee and Taylor (2005) suggest that mega-events might appeal to many stakeholder groups in the host destination or region. According to Heere and Parent (2009), mega sporting event organising committees require the involvement of a range of stakeholders to be able to accomplish their preparations to host events, however, they must meet the needs and the expectations of such stakeholders in order for the latter to be willing to become involved. Such stakeholders include the local populace, the government, business (Ritchie, 1984), international and national local bodies, organising committees, the media and sponsors (Emery, 2002; Stokes, 2008), teams, tourists, football fans, government agencies as well as public interest groups that consider the holistic impact of mega-events (Burton *et al.*, 2012).

Leveraging the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an ‘African World Cup’ and developing legacy impact projects for African countries in terms of peace and nation-building, football support and development, environment and tourism, culture and heritage, communication and information technology, image enhancement and continental security represented the undergoing of major change for such stakeholder groups as football fans in Cameroon and Nigeria. The stakeholder theory is, therefore, relevant to this study as using the approach made it possible to delineate what could have been achieved, and how. Its use also enabled the identification of who should have participated in leveraging benefits from the hosting of the mega-event and who should have been consulted about it. In addition, through adopting such an approach, it was possible to determine whether the expectations of such stakeholder groups as soccer fans were met in terms of the legacy benefits pertaining to the event.

2.4.1 Stakeholder analysis

Currie *et al* (2009: 46) suggest that “an early assessment of stakeholder orientation and all other pertinent issues is an important strategic step for sustainable tourism development. Systematic stakeholder analysis therefore can and should fit within the domain of feasibility analysis”. According to Allen and Kilvington (2001), stakeholder analysis is often referred to as identifying and assessing of the interests of stakeholders in a project, and how such influence may affect the implementation of such a project. Therefore, in the context of a mega-event, stakeholder analysis is useful, since it identifies groups and their main areas of interest and influence relating to the type of values that are fostered by the mega-event being hosted within the community in which they belong.

According to Golder and Gawler (2005: 4), there are a number of ways of undertaking a stakeholder analysis. Workshops, focus groups and interviews are three common approaches. Whatever approach is used, “there are three essential steps in stakeholder analysis: 1) identifying the key stakeholders and their interests (positive or negative) in the project; 2) assessing the influence of, importance of, and level of impact upon each stakeholder; and 3) identifying how best to engage stakeholders”. Burton *et al.* (2012) suggest that identifying the primary stakeholders of mega-events makes it possible to determine their interest in the mega-event and to detect any potential conflict of interest existing between such stakeholders.

According to Gursoy and Kendall (2006: 605), “once a bid for a mega-event has been won, the involvement and support of all stakeholders is critical, irrespective of their previous attitudes”. Stakeholders’ interest in mega-events might vary. Ayuso *et al.* (2012) and Barney *et al.* (2002) point out that both corporate involvement in, and public support of, the hosting of mega-events is motivated by such factors as the advertising of products to a global audience, the leveraging of business opportunities in terms of exports and new investments, and the existing level of event management knowledge, which serve to enhance the tourist industry of the host country. In this sense, Gursoy and Kendall (2006: 606) opine that “for a mega-event to be successful, the understanding and participation of all stakeholders in the process is critical”. They further emphasise the need for relevant levels of government, the event organisers, and lawmakers to determine the level of support that is likely to be received from the community, and to understand the basis for such support or for any opposition concerned. Currie *et al.* (2009) advocate for the use of a strategic tool that incorporates stakeholder analysis prior to the implementation of the plan, if the principles of sustainability are to be integrated.

Allen and Kilvington (2001) and Agha *et al.* (2012), outline the usefulness of stakeholder analysis. They posit that adopting such an approach assists in identifying the relationships between stakeholders that may enable the development of a ‘coalition’ of project sponsorship, ownership and cooperation. Furthermore, said analysis identifies conflicts of interest and defines the key features of such stakeholder groups. According to Weed (2007: 150), “stakeholders in sport and tourism may fall into different stakeholder groups at different points in time and, consequently, the relationships between them may change both over time, and as a result of changes in purpose or indication”. As Burton (2003) observes, in the case of such mega-events as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup, there exist various

stakeholders, together with their public, private and political agendas. O'Brien (2005: 241) states that "the formation of inter-organisational relationships among mega-event stakeholders (public and private sector agencies involved in economics, sport and tourism policy development) is essential for cultivating long-term economic outcome from leveraging".

The identification of stakeholders and of their relationships, values, concerns, goals and responsibilities is of utmost importance, as doing so provides understanding and a departure point from which to design and to implement a project (Ayuso *et al.*, 2012). With a view to ensuring that stakeholders are involved appropriately, and that their participation is maximised, the importance of adopting the stakeholder diagnostic approach cannot be overemphasised, as it can help in assessing different stakeholder groups.

According to Golder and Gawler (2005: 1), undertaking a stakeholder analysis can help a project or programme identify:

- The interests of all stakeholders who might affect, or be affected by, the programme/project concerned;
- Potential conflicts or risks that could jeopardise the initiative;
- Opportunities and relationships that can be built on during implementation;
- Groups that should be encouraged to participate in different stages of the project;
- Appropriate strategies and approaches for stakeholder engagement; and
- Ways to reduce negative impacts on vulnerable and disadvantaged groups.

The full participation of stakeholders in both project design and implementation is a key to but not a guarantee of success. Golder and Gawler (2005: 1) argue that stakeholder participation:

- Gives people some say over how projects or policies might affect their lives;
- Is essential for sustainability;
- Generates a sense of ownership if initiated early in the development process;
- Provides opportunities for learning for both the project team and for the stakeholders themselves; and
- Builds capacity and enhances responsibility.

As proposed by Allen and Kilvington (2001) and Hautbois *et al.* (2012), stakeholder analysis was used in this study to help identify the key stakeholders involved. Such identification included assessing their interests and the way in which such interests affected the way in which African legacy impacts were perceived as well as what they perceived African legacy objectives linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup to be (in terms of differing expectations) and future challenges. Using such an analysis was also important, because it helped to identify and to define stakeholder interests, characteristics, relationships and participation. This study considered the relevant mega-event stakeholders such as soccer fans and officials, government departments, football organisations, event managers and NGOs in both Cameroon and Nigeria.

2.5 Conclusion

Figure 2.3 below represents a consolidated model upon which the study was based. The model contextualises the relationship between mega-events and their legacies, the stakeholders and the political economy within which they operate.

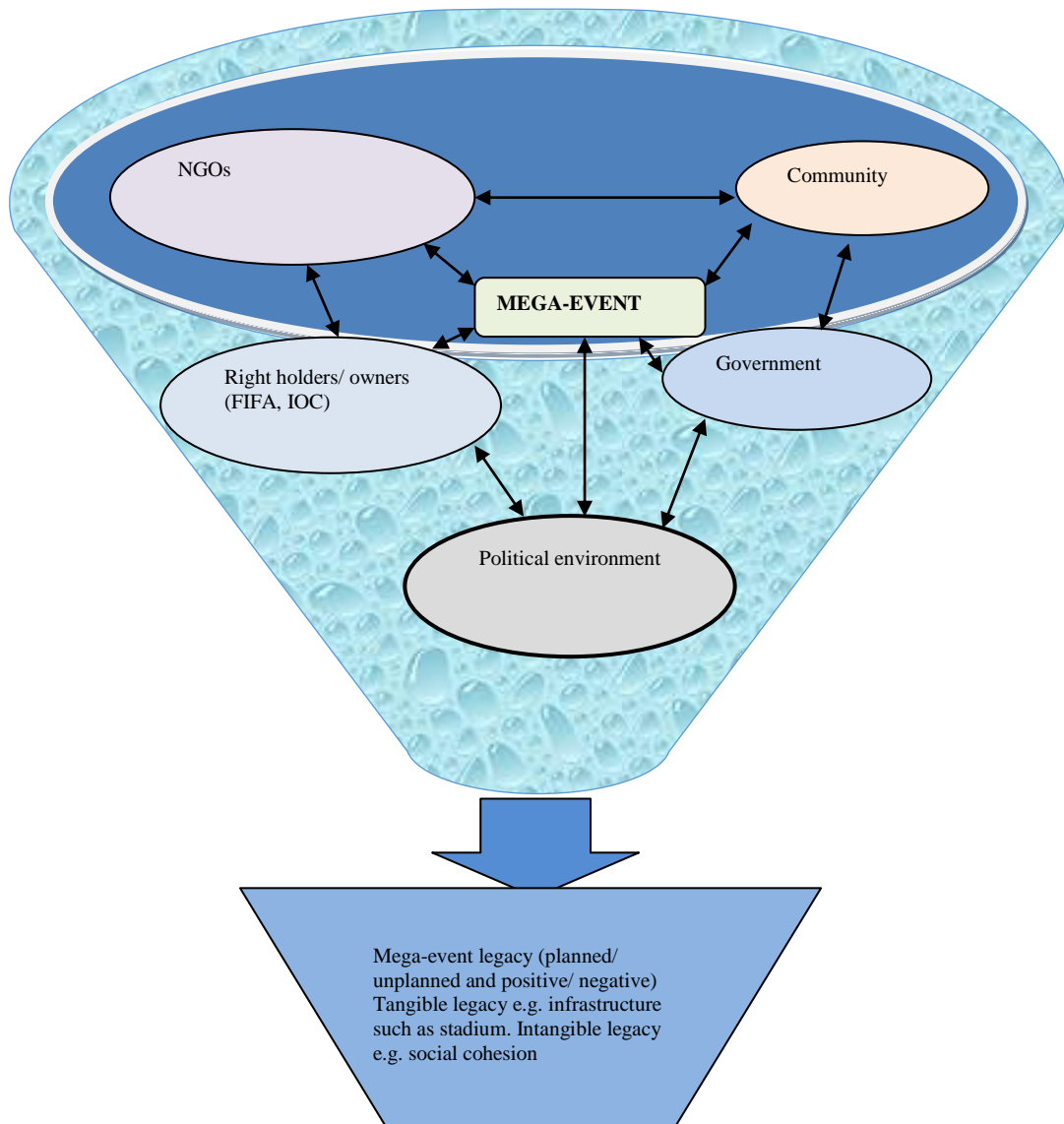


Figure 2.3: The multi-conceptual framework of mega-event legacy, stakeholder theory and political economy

The main focus of the above model is mega-event legacies. The flow chart shows the relationships between the event and the relevant stakeholders, including the event rights holder, the governmental agencies and the community, which all have motives or vested interest in such events. The diagram also depicts the relationship between the event and the political economy impact (environment), in that the events themselves are characterised by political forces, which are influenced by the institutions or by the stakeholders who could be impacted on by the event. During the run-up to the mega-event, specifically during the bidding stages, the political economy is seen to dominate. However, such dominance is seen to recede post-event. The political economy is a by-product of many social, economic and political forces which might shift over the event life cycle. Political regimes might come and go, and the volatility of financial markets, natural disasters, acts of terrorism and other

unforeseen events can also alter the political economy for a mega-event over time. Finally, the mega-event legacy is seen as the output or end product. Such legacy could be planned/unplanned and positive or negative in nature. To some extent, it might influence the political economy of the impacts and the legacies generated. Thus, the integration of multiple approaches/ theoretical frameworks allows for a more comprehensive examination of a range of issues and influences, as well as for an analysis of multiple impacts.

Although diverse, the three theories (political economy, mega-event legacy and stakeholder theory) have been used to highlight the relevancy of examining stakeholder perceptions of the legacy impacts that are linked to mega-event hosting. The discussion illuminates the fact that mega sport events have become a vital part of a global political economy, which has witnessed the production shift from “developed to less developed societies and an expanding focus in the developed world on the ‘branding’, ‘theming’ and consumption of image and lifestyle” (Nauright, 2004: 1326). The developed and developing countries that host mega-events share the same similarities owing to globalisation, as both share “an acute sense of political-economic and identity-based vulnerability in the dynamic and volatile landscape of the current era” (Black, 2007: 273). The decision to bid for, and to host, a mega-event can largely be seen to be a political one (Dowse, 2011). The bids that are made in relation to such an event tend to take place in an increasingly complex international arena, which is highly contested (Swart and Bob, 2004). The impact of global forces and processes on bidding has a profound impact on the economy before, during and after bidding process (Cornelissen and Swart, 2006). Under a specific set of circumstances, the mega-events are “deployed as political instruments by governments to which activities of signalling, legitimisation or constituency-building could be aligned” (Cornelissen, 2010b: 3013).

Cornelissen (2008b: 483) asserts that “mega-events aptly encapsulate the hybrid nature of the global political domain today: it is made up of the confluence of governmental/ state actors (at various levels), (media and sport) corporations, sport federations, and societies (or ‘consumers’) who all interact and pursue often divergent agendas”. Cornelissen, (2008b: 483) further states that a mega-event “entails the entanglement of various international economic sectors and markets, involves the production of several types of products (such as the event itself, memorabilia tied to the event, tourism infrastructure or media artefacts), speak[s] to a wide band of consumers, and involve[s] the intersection of various policy spheres both within and outside of the confines of the state”. Therefore, there are countless legacy (positive/negative) effects that are associated with the hosting of a mega-event that might affect a range

of stakeholder groups. Donaldson and Preston (1995) urge that managers (of a mega-event) must consider the legitimate interests of groups or individuals that might be affected by their actions. Paying close attention to the interests and well-being of those who can assist or hinder the achievement of the mega-event objectives is the central admonition of the stakeholder theory. According to Cornelissen *et al.* (2011), given the magnitude and prominence of mega-events in contemporary times, and the substantial financial investments made by the host cities involved, there is a growing interest in examining the legacies that such events bring. The conceptual framework for the research presented above provides insights into an all-inclusive approach to be taken towards examining and assessing the perceptions of the African legacy impacts created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa, as experienced by the soccer fans and stakeholder groups involved. The next chapter presents the literature review with specific focus on sport fans and mega-event legacy impacts.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

A literature review, according to Maree and van der Westhuizen (2009), encompasses the identification and the examination of information, and the analysis of literature, that is related to a research project, by a researcher. Kaniki (2011: 19) states that “the process includes identifying potentially relevant sources, an initial assessment of these sources, through analysis of selected sources, and the construction of an account that integrates and explains the relevant sources”. Guided by the conceptual framework of this research (chapter two), this chapter presents a thematic literature review that is structured around the different themes or perspectives in sport, tourism and mega-event legacy literature. Specifically, the focus is placed on the emerging debates between the various schools of thoughts concerned. The purpose is to review the literature critically, and to identify any gaps in the current research that forms the basis of this thesis.

Consequently, it is appropriate to begin with an overview of the relationship between sport, tourism and events. This is followed by a specific focus on sport fans, with reference to their interests, motives and consumption of sport. The chapter also focuses on the mega-event legacy impacts, with specific focus on the experiences from previous mega-events. The chapter concludes by contextualising the sustainability imperatives linked to mega-event hosting.

3.2 The nature of the relationship between sport, tourism and events

According to Gibson (1998b), Hinch and Higham (2011) and Hudson (2012), the concept of sport-related tourism has become more prominent in the last few years, both as an academic field of study, and as an increasingly popular tourism product. Neirotti (2003) and Roche *et al.* (2013) suggest that although sport tourism is relatively new in terms of modern phraseology, its scope of activity stretches far beyond the present moment. For example, Weed and Bull (2004) suggest that the documented evidence of sport tourism activity dates back to the first Olympic Games, which were held in 776 BC. Although the concept of sport tourism is relatively new, Homafar *et al.* (2011) describe sport tourism as an ever-increasing sector, which focuses on the targeted planning among both developed and developing countries, within the tourism industry. This is, in part, due to the fact that sport tourism is one

of the fastest-growing areas that contributes to overall tourism growth (Neirotti, 2003; Getz, 2012) as well as to projected growth (Swart and Bob, 2007; Weed and Bull, 2012).

In recent literature that seeks to highlight the significance of tourism generally, Harris (2012) advances the notion that, increasingly, countries are becoming ever more reliant on combining sport and tourism to jump-start their recession-stricken economies, owing to the potential rewards that could accrue therefrom. Swart and Bob (2007) perceive that sport tourism has the potential to restructure both urban and rural communities from a socio-economic perspective. Perhaps it is in this context that Rein and Shields (2007) assert that in many nations sport tourism has grown to assume the central platform for development, rather than it being a complementary concept that should be incorporated within existing destination development initiatives. As Nauright (2004) argues, cities globally have rather used the hosting of sport tourism events in a clear attempt to move towards event-driven economies. In this regard, Bob and Swart (2010) recognise the role that mega-events have to play in shaping present-day national and local tourism products. Consequently, such events are examples of the way in which sport has come to fulfill part of tourism's role regarding urban regeneration. Based on the above discussion, the key question that relates to what constitutes the nature of sport tourism. Hinch and Higham (2011) highlight that the existing nature of sport tourism can be best illustrated through the definition of key concepts and through a discussion of the interrelationships of sport and event tourism relations. Accordingly, the following subsections provide definitions of sport, tourism and sport tourism.

3.2.1 The dimension of sport

Debates have failed to establish a simple or shared definition of sport (Tomlinson, 2011). This is because defining sport has proven to be a complicated and problematic task (Hinch and Higham, 2011), if not an impossible one (Ritchie and Adair, 2004; Tekin, 2004). Sport can be defined in many ways, and from different distinctive perspectives (Kurtzman and Zauhar, 2003; Roche, 2013). Additionally, the controversy is propelled by the widely differing views that are held as to which activities can be classified as sport, among which one regards the activities concerned as being highly competitive and organised. Hence, Neirotti (2003) and Gibson (2013) argue that sport is defined in various ways, and from different viewpoints. Coakley (1990), in defining sport, examined the American versus the European perceptions involved. Coakley (1990) argues that, on the one hand, American definitions tend to characterise sport as a quest that requires a complexity of physical skill and energetic physical effort, which involves some form of rule-governed competition, and which is organised and

structured in terms of its relationships, despite retaining a sense of freedom and spontaneity. On the other hand, European definitions are usually looser, tending to acknowledge that the traditional value patterns of the sports system have lost their formerly rather homogenous structure (Coakley, 1990). These definitions are the most commonly cited in the sport tourism literature.

Furthermore, according to Hinch and Higham (2001: 47), a typical dictionary definition of sport “describes it as an individual or group activity, which is pursued for exercise or pleasure, and which often takes a competitive form”. Guttman (2004) and Weed (2010) provide an analysis of what sport constitutes, simply defining it as an autotelic physical contest. Emery (2002: 317) advocates the 1993 definition of sport that is provided by the Council of Europe in its Sport Charter. The Charter suggests that sport “means all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organised participation, is aimed at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social or obtaining results in competition at all levels”. Most of these definitions agree that sport is a “human activity (a contest or performance) usually associated with a degree and combination of human exertion and skill, which in its modern form is conducive to measurement and evaluation of individual and team performance” (Tomlinson, 2011: 9). Sport can therefore be seen as either formal or recreational in nature, and can be for leisure or commercial purposes (Weed and Bull, 2012).

Ritchie and Adair (2004: 3) argue the fact that “sport is a socially constructed activity that has differed across historical eras, societies and cultures”. Coakley’s (2001) definition of sport, as noted by Ritchie and Adair (2004: 4), insists that the classification of sport should encompass four major factors, consisting of the following:

Physical conditions

- The physical conditions concerned include the use of physical prowess, physical skills or physical exertion.

Complex physical skills

The complex physical skills concerned include consideration of the following aspects:

- Coordination, balance, quickness or accuracy, speed, strength, and endurance;
- The exclusion of such non-physical activities as chess and cards; and
- The inclusion of the human use of equipment and machines such as motor-car racing.

Institutionalised and competitive

The institutionalised and competitive factors should include consideration of the following aspects:

- The standardisation of rules;
- The overseeing of rule enforcement by the official regulatory agencies concerned;
- Due regard for the importance of the organisation, and for the technical aspects of activity;
- The finalisation of the learning of playing skills.

Individual participation, motivated by a combination of intrinsic factors and extrinsic factors

The consideration of individual participation should cover the following aspects:

- The accessing of intrinsic rewards through involvement (dynamics of the activity play, fun, etc.);
- The accessing of extrinsic rewards (in the form of a salary, a prize, money, a medal and fame);
- The more playlike nature of the activity, if the orientation inclines towards the intrinsic; and
- The more gamelike nature of the activity, if the orientation inclines towards the extrinsic.

According to Tomlinson (2011: 10), sociologists advocate for additional features of a sport to embrace “its separateness from the hurly-burly of the workplace or the grinding routines of domestic life, its capacity to construct a world of its own with distinct rules and schedule and spaces, and the possibility of improvement of skill and performance through planned practice”. Based on the factors and key components that are presented above, Coakley (2001: 8) defines organised sport as “an institutionalised competitive activity that involves vigorous physical exertion or the use of relatively complex skills by individuals whose participation is motivated by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors”. According to Neirotti (2003), although escape for diversion purposes might still be a motivation for a sport activity, sport presently embraces a far more engaging concept that accommodates both spectators and participants who seek fulfilment for a wide variety of human needs and wants.

The definitions provided highlight the importance of sport as a social activity that is motivated by intrinsic and extrinsic factors, and which seeks to satisfy the participants’ needs and desires. Elendu (2013) considers that sport is a social event that influences the travel of

people to the cities, the countries and the continents of the world. Kurtzman and Zauhar (2003: 37) argue that “sport build character, teach values, encourage healthy competition, provide outlets for aggression and promote international friendship and understanding”.

3.2.2 The dimension of tourism

Despite the turbulent economic environment witnessed in contemporary times, the tourism sector continues to grow tremendously, with it being influenced by such factors as increases in leisure time and income (Ritchie and Adair, 2004), and the demand for new exotic holidays (Cooper *et al.*, 2005). In the year 2001, the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) anticipated world tourism arrivals to be growing at a rate of 4.3% per year, reaching up to 1.6 billion by 2020, while tourist spending was expected to grow at 6.7% per year, reaching US\$2 trillion in the same period. In the year 2008, travel and tourism generated approximately US\$5 890 billion of global economic activity (Harris, 2012). Research conducted by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2012) on the economic impact of tourism shows that global tourism was robust in 2012, irrespective of the many recently encountered economic challenges that have faced both the developed and the developing countries. The WTTC’s data show that the total contribution of tourism, accumulated either directly, indirectly or induced (see Figure 3.1 below) to the world Gross Domestic Product (GDP) grew by 3.0% in 2012, making the growth concerned faster than that of the world economy (2.3%), and equally faster than that of sectors including manufacturing, financial, business services and retail. Tourism’s direct contribution to GDP in 2012 was US\$2.1 trillion, with the industry directly supporting 101 million jobs. Furthermore, the WTTC (2012) states that the contribution of tourism to direct GDP in 2013 has been forecast to grow by 3.1% and it has again been forecast to outpace the growth of the total global economy (2.4%) in the same year. The longer-term prospects are even more positive, with the annual growth being estimated to be 4.4% per year over the ten years reaching to 2022. If such forecasts become the reality, the general perceptions that are held as to tourism making a significant contribution to economic development are understandable.

The drive to travel is an economic, environmental and sociological force of global proportions (Kurtzman and Zauhar, 2003). Sport tourism has contributed significantly to such statistics (Neirotti, 2003; Peric, 2010). Specifically, according to Harris (2012), the niche sector currently contributes an astonishing 14% of overall travel and tourism receipts, and the percentage concerned is set to grow exponentially over the next decade, owing to its fast-growing nature. Due to tourism cutting across several sectors of the global economy,

analysing its effects can be a complex exercise. As Figure 3.1 illustrates, the economic contributions alone are generated from various sources/ sectors. This situation has raised consistent debate around the definition of tourism as a concept.

As was the case with the analysis of the definition of sport discussed above, the concept of tourism has historically attracted a variety of definitions that differ in scope and perspective (Cooper *et al.*, 2005). Yet, there is little consensus on an all-encompassing definition in academic research on what tourism is. Definitions of tourism vary with respect to whether the term is applied from a supply-side (industry) perspective or from a demand-side (consumer) perspective (Ritchie and Adair, 2004). According to Bennett and Strydom (2005: 5), tourism denotes “any activity concerned with the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, and activities during their stay at these destinations”. The WTO (2003: 1) defines tourism as “... activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes that are not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited”.

Hinch and Higham (2004) provide three key dimensions that both of the above-mentioned definitions share. The most ubiquitous dimension is spatial, in terms of which tourism is said to involve the ‘travel of non-residents’. In terms of such a definition, in order to be considered a tourist, an individual must leave, and then eventually return to their original home. Although the travel of an individual does not constitute tourism in and of itself, it is a necessary condition for such an activity to take place (Weed and Bull, 2004). The second dimension involves those temporary characteristics that are linked to tourism. Fundamental to such a dimension is the requirement that the trip should be characterised by a “temporary stay away from home of at least one night” (Cooper *et al.*, 2005; Edgell Sr. and Swanson, 2013; Hinch and Higham, 2004). Statistical definitions frequently differentiate between excursionists, who visit a destination for less than 24 hours, and tourists, who visit a destination for 24 hours or more, while conceptual definitions focus on the journey and the activity that involves the discretionary use of time and resources (Bennett and Strydom, 2005). However, both such groups are referred to as ‘visitors’. The third dimension concerns those purposes or activities with which engagement takes place during travel. Within such a dimension, several tourism sub-fields, such as ecotourism, adventure tourism, urban tourism, heritage tourism and sport tourism originate (Higham and Hinch, 2003).

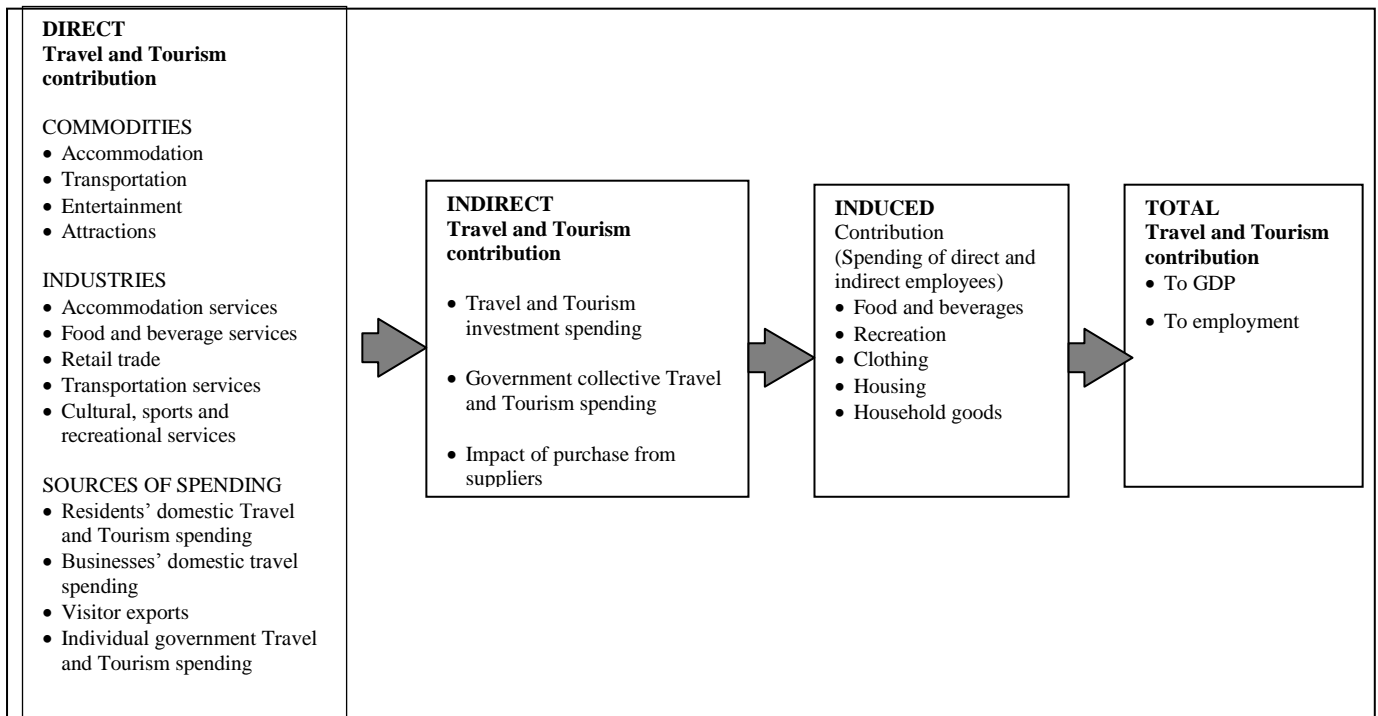


Figure 3.1 Definition of the economic contribution of travel and tourism

Source: Adapted from UNWTO (2013)

3.2.3 What is sport tourism?

Several sport tourism researchers have put forward various definitions of the concept of sport tourism. Most of these definitions are closely related in terms of scope and characteristics (Weed, 2009b, 2010). The most prominent and acceptable definition is that which is stated by Standeven and De Knop (1999: 12) who refer to sport tourism as “all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activities, participated in casually or in an organised way for non-commercial or business and commercial reasons that necessitate travel away from home and work locality”. Similarly, Gibson (1998b: 49) defines sport tourism as “leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities”. Furthermore, according to Hinch and Higham (2004: 19), sport tourism involves “travel for non-commercial reasons to participate, or observe, sporting activities away from the home range”. The definitions clearly articulate the key characteristics of sport tourism to include traveling away from home to play sport, to watch sport or to visit a sport attraction, including related competitive and non-competitive activities. Weed and Bull (2012) and Hudson (2012) suggest that the concept of sport tourism simply involves sporting activity, which is participated in from the standpoint of either a spectator or a participant.

In a study that focuses on active sport tourism participation, Gibson (2013) distinguishes between three broad categories of sport tourism: watching sport events, visiting sport-related attractions and actively participating in sport. Gibson (2013) observes that the first category, which entails watching sport events, or participating in sport event tourism, includes attendance at events such as the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games. She cites the 1994 FIFA World Cup and the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta as being examples of events that were actively promoted as tourist attractions. The second category, celebrity or nostalgia sport tourism, involves visiting famous sport-related attractions. Such attractions include the basketball Hall of Fame, sport museums and famous sport venues, such as the Olympic Stadium in Barcelona (Gibson, 2013). The third and final category, active participation or active sport tourism, comprises travel by individuals to participate in such sports as golf, skiing, tennis, fishing, mountain biking or scuba diving (Gibson, 2013). Other studies further sub-divides this category into ‘active participants’, who engage in sport-related travel as a form of leisure, and ‘hobbyists’, who are amateur ‘players’ who travel to participate in competitions in their chosen sport (Saayman, 2012). Kurtzman (2005a: 49) asserts that sport tourism involves “six supply-side tourism categories which includes sport events, sport tours, sport cruises, sport adventures, sport attractions and sport resorts”. Kurtzman (2005a: 49) further states:

Sport tourists, on the other hand, are considered to be those individuals, whose travel (to outside the individual’s home region), is primarily ‘motivated by sport’ – to visit sport sites, to attend/ participate in sport events, to observe sporting activity, to learn/ improve skills, to experience the ambiance of a major event, the environment of a sporting activity, the meeting of sport persons, etc.

Based on Kurtzman’s above assertion, sport tourism can be considered to embrace different participants such as athletes, spectators, sport officials and the media (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2012; Epitropoulos *et al.*, 2003).

Deery *et al.* (2004) present a framework that further expands on the concept of ‘sport tourism’, in which they include the types of involvement in, and outcomes from, sport tourism that can be seen in Figure 3.2 below. According to their model, sporting events include the participants concerned, who are categorised in terms of different roles: attendee, competitor and official. The model further illustrates that the motivation behind the participation in such events is intentional, with the outcomes being individual enjoyment and with the host communities reaping socio-economic benefits from the events, or the host nations benefiting from the image enhancement involved (Deery *et al.*, 2004).

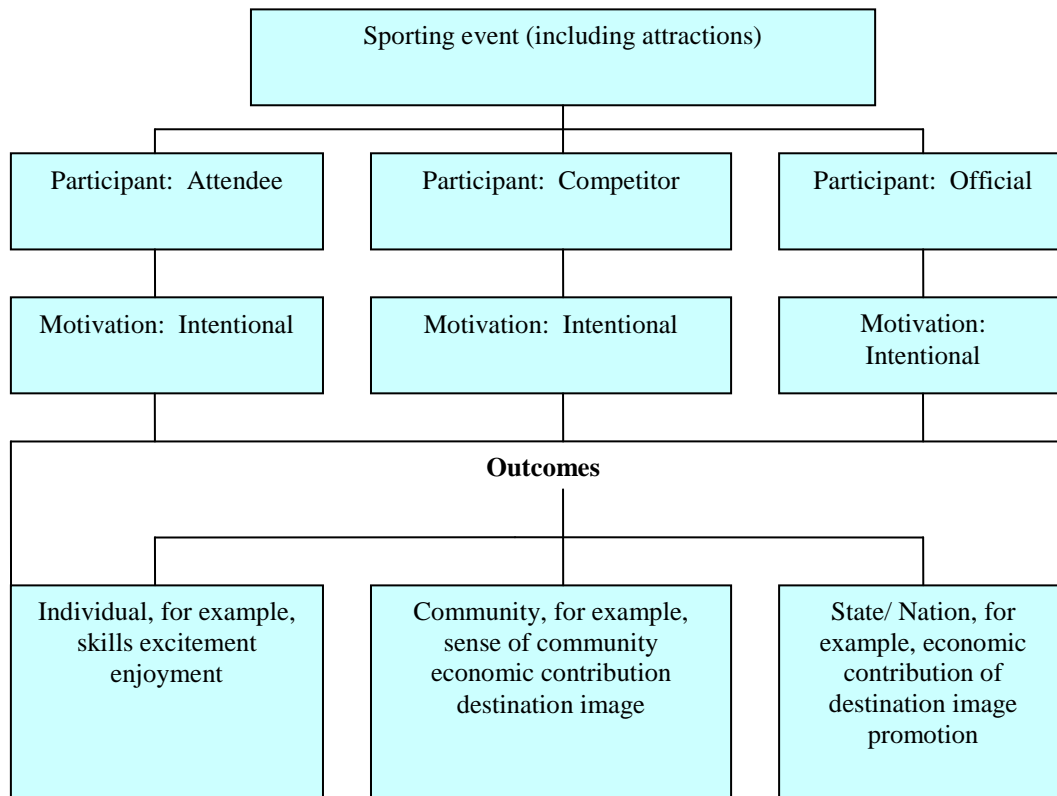


Figure 3.2: A sport tourism framework

Source: Deery et al. (2004: 242)

According to Hudson (2012) and Standeven and De Knop (1999), the relationship between sport and tourism in recent years can be described as being symbiotic, since both rely on the other's support for their own success. De Knop (2004: 304) describes the relationship when he states that "not only does sport act on tourism, producing an ever-increasing range of valued visitor experiences, but that tourism also acts on sport. In addition to tourism influencing participation in sport, sport infrastructure has also followed case models in the tourism industry". In this sense, the concepts of sport and tourism can thus be seen to be intricately linked. De Knop (2004), Getz (2012) and Roche *et al.* (2013) assert that due to the advancement of globalisation, new and exciting possibilities are emerging to enrich tourist experiences through sport and to enhance sport development through tourism. Standeven and De Knop (1999) argue that the interdependence of the sport tourism interrelationship also indicates that sport can be viewed as being a segment of the tourism industry. In addition, both the concepts concerned benefit from the existence and from the occurrence of each part. It is also believed that tourism encourages participation in sport and the use of sport infrastructure.

Sport tourism has witnessed extensive growth over the last two decades mainly because of the changes in the socio-economic and demographic situations of individual and group. Many people now have wealth and leisure time available, mode transport of transportation has improved, the emergence of globalisation and corporate capitalism (Cornelissen, 2007; Giampiccoli and Nauright, 2010; Weed and Bull, 2012). Correspondingly, Kurtzman (2005a: 50) indicates the primary factors evidenced in the New Millennium, which have contributed to a major stimulus within tourism sector, and which have benefited sport tourism:

The current economic growth, which has led to an increase in consumer spending, as a result of which leisure expenditures have expanded; the growth of 'second holidays' and 'short breaks', which have evolved from more flexible working patterns, leading to the incremental growth of tourism; the willingness of stressed workers who can only afford short vacations to a special destination; and the prioritisation of holidays in terms of spending discretionary monies, due to the economic upturn experienced at the turn of the Millennium.

All the above-mentioned factors are known to contribute to the advancement and to the development of sport tourism. What remains unknown is the extent to which the recent global economic meltdown might have impacted, and continue to impact, on the above-mentioned factors and subsequently, on the actual visitor numbers during recent sporting events, specifically the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosted by South Africa, and the 2014 and 2016 mega-events to be hosted in Brazil. Weed (2009a: 2) suggests that "the current global economic, environmental and security climate is one in which researchers are challenged to examine the impacts of global trends and events".

Swart and Bob (2007: 374) assert that sport and tourism have become significant economic activities for destinations globally. They argue that "sport and tourism have been identified as playing significant roles in the economic and social regeneration of both urban and rural communities". Such activities are regarded as vehicles for improving the quality of life for residents by attracting visitors, by boosting the economic well-being of the local communities (Swart and Bob, 2007), by providing opportunities for entertainment (Daniels and Norman, 2003) and by providing opportunities for those from all levels of society implicated (particularly organisers, promoters, volunteers and entrepreneurs) to work together towards a common end (Kurtzman and Zauhar, 2005a). The challenge or question that remains in the case of South Africa and the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup is the extent to which regeneration arising from such hosting occurred, given the country's wider geographical

landscape. Moreover, as Smith (2012) observes, regeneration efforts are vastly uneven between regions.

The development of sport mega-events has played a significant role in the growth of sport tourism, in terms of both commercialisation and globalisation (Sallent *et al.*, 2011). Sport participation and attendance have both become global phenomena (Gammon and Robinson, 2003; Ko *et al.*, 2011), while international sport competitions have fuelled an ever-increasing world tourism market. An increase in demand for sport programming from television broadcasters, and the significant amounts of money that is spent by corporations on sponsoring teams and events, have also contributed to such growth (Biddiscombe, 2004; Getz, 2012; Turco *et al.*, 2002).

Sport tourism is thus a complex and diverse phenomenon that warrants a multidisciplinary approach and the employment of a wide range of perspectives stretching over multiple subjects in analysing it (Gibson, 2013; Weed, 2006). In addition, Weed (2006) provides germane approaches that could be useful in understanding sport tourism. He states that “sport tourism participation may be considered from a range of perspectives. Economists consider things such as rational choice, while marketing researchers consider segmentation. Social psychologists examine ideas associated with identity, whilst sociologists might consider societal or structural influences on behaviour” (Weed, 2006: 195).

3.2.3.1 Relationship between sport tourism and sporting events

As was the case with sport and tourism, Hinch and Higham (2011) and Hudson (2012) claim that the relationship between sport and tourism is multifaceted, and that it is a consistent question of interest amongst many researchers, both in the developed and in the developing context. Owusu-Mintah (2013) points out that sport and tourism are rated as the world’s most popular leisure activities, with the power of attracting extensive media coverage and of shaping destinations through the development of facilities. Weed and Bull (2012), therefore, underscore that such a relationship should be viewed with caution and objectively, and in terms of the benefits that they bring.

Ritchie and Adair (2004) and Swart and Bob (2007) postulate that tourism, in itself, assists in the development of such sport facilities as stadiums and fan parks, whereas tourism benefits from the sport tourists’ spending on transportation, accommodation, attractions, and food and beverages during the sporting event. Horne (2007) argues that tourism encompasses sporting

events, considering that these events involve an influx of tourists to the host destination, and the activities in which they engage. In contrast, Weed and Bull (2004) state that tourism benefits from sporting events, as the trips that are taken by sport tourists tend to include at least one overnight stay at the host destination, thereby benefiting tourism, through the spending in which the tourists engage. Hudson (2012) states that the individuals or the groups of people who travel for the primary purpose of attending, or of participating in, sporting events also tend to engage in various tourism activities such as shopping or visiting tourist attractions. Elsewhere, Preuss (2007), Cornelissen (2009) and Hall *et al.* (2010) advise that the relationship that exists between sport and tourism lies in the fact that both concepts are significant in terms of the economic and commercial sectors of the host community, and the tendency to attract extensive media coverage.

According to Swart (2005), a good example of the relationship between sport and tourism is that to which the 1998 South African Golf Championship gave rise in attracting a television audience of approximately 300 million, with the two concepts concerned also leading to regionalisation and globalisation. The benefit of the association between the two concepts is observed in their potential to revive economies, to purify the environment and to benefit society as a whole as well as most importantly, to solve some of the political issues that are related to the economies involved (Cornelissen, 2004a; Cornelissen and Maennig, 2010; Bob and Swart, 2010). Said benefits may differ according to the importance, the size and the scale of the event. Intercontinental and global events are perceived as generating substantial benefits (Bjelac and Radovanovic, 2003). Cornelissen (2008a) analyses such global events and emphasise that, from a broader perspective, such mega-events can easily be seen as a special case or exception, or even as a diversion from normal processes, in which the cause-effect relationship begins with the events and their immediate impacts, and ends with clearly identified outcomes.

According to Hinch and Higham (2004), understanding of the sport tourism markets is a crucial element in securing a firm basis for sport tourism development in any context. Sport fans and consumers are the backbone of sport tourism recognition (Smith and Stewart, 2007). Despite this, an understanding of the classification of sport tourists, especially fans, has generally been a neglected area in research (Getz, 2003; Weed and Bull, 2004). African soccer fans are the primary subject under investigation in this thesis. Consequently, the following sub-section provides a discussion that focuses on sport fans in general.

3.3 Typology and identification of sport fans

The available literature on sport fans suggests that their classification is diverse in nature, considering that fans include independent adults, school parties, families and groups of friends (Bouchet *et al.* 2011; Weed and Bull, 2004). Therefore, sport fans classification can be viewed in relation to their characteristics and their consumption, and in terms of their expenditure patterns, their length of stay and the services that they seek (Spronk and Fourie, 2010). Based on these features, the classification of sport fans can be better understood through ascertaining their participation levels, in terms of their attendance and their sport tourism demand (Giulianotti, 2002).

According to Smith and Stewart (2007), sport fans can be described as those individuals who are enthusiastic about, and devoted to a particular sport. Horne (2007) suggests that such sport fans are considered to be important, because they can propel the development of a particular sport and raise its prominence. As Smith and Stewart (2007) note, fans are involved in a host of activities that promote sport such as watching it on television, listening to radio commentary on it, reading sport sections in magazines and newspapers, calling into sport programmes and buying sport merchandise but, more significantly, they also tend to be willing to travel to attend sporting events (Horne, 2007; Smith and Stewart, 2007). Therefore, sport fans invest much time and other resources in sport, engaging in frequent and distant excursions in order to participate in events (Smith and Stewart, 2007).

Table 3.1 below identifies and describes the type of sport fan and their intensity of involvement in a specific sport. As the table shows, based on the degree of motivation and behaviour noticed in respect of different typologies of fans, Hunt *et al.* (1999) developed five different categories of sport fans: temporary fans, local fans, devoted fans, fanatical fans and dysfunctional fans. What Hunt *et al.* (1999) attempted to show was that the fanatic or avid fans are bound to their teams and to sport in general by an emotional attachment that helps to ensure that they remain faithful to their team, irrespective of the latter's performance. Furthermore, when fans identify with players of a team sport or of a certain sport the potential for them to identify with the team is strong. As a corollary to this finding is the low level of involvement noted with fans who have a passive relationship with a sport/ team. Such fans are attracted to the sport for its perceived entertainment value, social interaction opportunities and the perceived stress-relieving qualities that are associated with sport (Gwinner and Swanson, 2003; Izzo *et al.*, 2011).

However, some studies have challenged the appropriateness of categorising fans, as seen in Table 3.1. For example, Smith and Stewart (2007: 156) remain critical in this regard arguing that “sport fandom cannot be reduced to a few basic drives and needs, and, although sometimes revealing, simply slotting fans into groupings based on a single factor that drives sport-related behaviour is an inadequate method of categorisation”. They further note that although a few studies have attempted to drive a single set of variables as influencing fan behaviour, more informative studies have managed to reflect the importance of multifactorial analysis (Smith and Stewart, 2007).

Table 3.1: Categories of sport fans

TYPE OF FAN		DESCRIPTION
PASSIVE PARTICIPATION IN SPORT	Temporary fan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The temporary fan's interest in the phenomenon of sport is time-limited. - The temporary fan is a fan for a specific, time-bound event. - The time boundary may be as short as a few hours, or as long as a few years, with the sport fan becoming a non-fan once the time period has expired.
	Local fan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The local fan is not bound by time constraints, as is the temporary fan. - This fan is bound by geographic limitations. - They exhibit fanlike behaviour, due to their identification with a geographic area (where they were born, or where they live). - Movement from the locality of the fan results in diminishing devotion to the team/ player/ sport remaining in the previous locality.
ACTIVE PARTICIPATION IN SPORT	Devoted fan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The devoted fan probably starts off as a local or temporary fan. - They become devoted fans due to an increase in attachment, thereby breaking the boundaries of time and location. - They become loyal to the team/ player, even if the specific short-term event that initially attracted their temporary attention has come to an end, or if they move from the context of the original geographical location. - This fan also remains fanatical, even if the team does not experience a winning record.
	Fanatical fan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The fanatical fan is very similar to the devoted fan. - Their attachment is not bound by time or distance. - The fanatical fan uses being a fan as a very important part of self-identification, although at least one aspect of their lives, such as work or family, exerts a stronger influence on them than being a fan. - They engage in behaviour beyond that of the normal devoted fan, but which is yet acceptable to the majority of people, because it is deemed supportive of the target (sport/ team/ player).
	Dysfunctional fan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The dysfunctional fan uses being a fan as the primary method of self-identification. - Instead of supportive behaviour, the dysfunctional fan engages in disruptive behaviour, disrupting social exchanges surrounding the event. - They are ready to engage in violent behaviour under the illusion that it is justified by virtue of being a fan (that is, they can act as hooligans). - Such a fan identifies self so strongly with being a fan that doing so interferes with their ability to perform any normal human role other than being a fan.

Source: Adapted from Hunt et al. (1999)

In their study conducted into the creation and fostering of fan identification in professional sports, Sutton *et al.* (1997: 17) agree with the view “that not all fans have the same level of fervour about, as well as devotion and commitment to, their favourite team”. Contrary to the categorisation of sport fans, Taks *et al.* (2009) develop and suggest a conceptual framework consisting of three discernible levels of fan identification, which evince certain key characteristics, as discussed later.

According to Sutton *et al.* (1997), and as can be seen in Figure 3.3, the first level of fans consists of those with a low level of identification. Such fans are considered to be social, in that they have a relatively passive long-term relationship with the sport. Reeves (2000) asserts that such fans as incidental sport tourists, who do not consider sport or where they participate in sporting activities as an important aspect of their lifestyle, they tend to regard their participation in sport tourism as rather being for fun or to fulfill duties relating to other family members or friends (Reeves, 2000). The sporting event, in such cases, tends to be viewed as a tertiary and incidental activity, as they are usually not aware of its existence prior to their travel to the host destination (Jones, 2008).

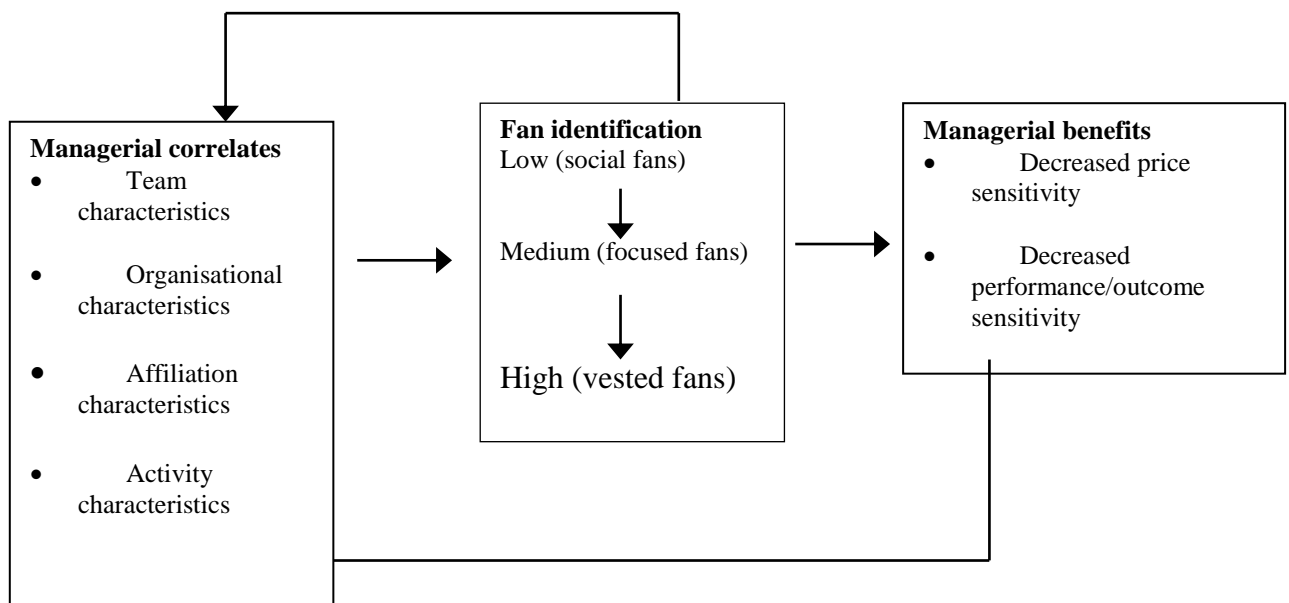


Figure 3.3: A conceptual framework for fan identification

Source: Sutton et al. (1997)

According to Sutton *et al.* (1997), such fans can be characterised by them being attracted purely by the entertainment value of the product; by their initial lack of emotional attachment, to either a team or to a particular sporting event; and by them being attracted to the sport for its pleasure and stress-relieving qualities as well as for the opportunities for social interaction within communities that it provides. Such fans tend to follow sport for its entertainment value, rather than for the sense of support that they feel towards a particular team. They regard the outcome of any sporting event to be less significant than is the general value of the entertainment opportunity that is provided. However, the initial attraction to a sport for its entertainment value, or for opportunities for social interaction, might ultimately lead to a greater degree of liking for, and identification with, a particular team. Such an initial attraction might also serve as the introductory phase of a relationship that develops and

intensifies, until it forms part of a much stronger level of involvement, including meeting the players, attending a team function or purchasing a ticket plan (Sutton *et al.*, 1997). According to Gibson *et al.* (2003), fans with a low identification do not usually stay for a long time at the host destination. Reeves (2000), Hinch and Higham (2004), Jones (2008) and Drury (2013) assert that the spending of such fans tends to be minimal, because their attendance at sporting events is unplanned, with it being taken as a form of duty to others. The relationship between such fans and sport is distinctive and marked by little emotional and financial commitment and involvement. Jones (2008) suggests that the development and the promotion of a particular sport tourism identity could effect an increase in the engagement of tourists with a low identification with sport tourism, although Hinch and Higham (2004) caution that those who fall into this category of sport tourists prefer less demanding recreational sports, such as skiing, and consider the status of entering into such sport as being one of their motivations for travel.

In sport fans classification debates, some studies have also recognised the existence of the occasional sport fan. Although such fans have a low level of identification with the sport concerned, Reeves (2000) stresses that they show a willingness to participate in sport as an additional activity of their tourism experience, such as sightseeing (Hinch and Higham, 2004). Taks *et al.* (2009) maintain that occasional sport tourists consist of the local residents of the host city and individuals or groups who attend a sporting event as an additional leisure activity to their experience of the host destination. Taks *et al.* (2009) acknowledge that those who fall in this classification of sport tourists attend sporting events because of their awareness of the occurrence of the event, which is derived from one or more information search engines that they use for acquiring knowledge about the destination that they are visiting, either for leisure or mercantile reasons. The information search that is conducted by such individuals is discussed in detail under the section on the factors that influence sport attendance and purchasing behaviours. Moreover, considering the sport tourism participation model, Weed and Bull (2004; 2012) emphasise that the occasional sport tourist participates in sport as a way of fulfilling their needs, such as their need to belong, with the participation levels concerned usually being moderate. Jones (2008) challenges the idea that this category of sport tourist can be described as consisting of casual attendees, since their motives for attending a sporting event are related to leisure preferences. Jones (2008) further argues that the occasional fan consists of the local residents of the host city or destination that host the sport activity. In this sense, they could also be considered to be excursionists, who might attend a sport activity as part of a day trip (Gibson *et al.*, 2003). Reeves (2000) and Shipway

(2012) hold the view that the sports expenditure of the occasional sport fan is high around the time of events, and highlights the fact that their failure to participate in sport tourism is influenced by many commitment preferences.

Furthermore, the second level of fans (see Figure 3.3 above) consists of those with a medium level of identification, who tend to associate themselves with a sport or a team, based upon some attributes or elements that they find to be attractive (Sutton *et al.*, 1997). In several instances, such a level of identification might be based upon fads, social factors and team performance or player personality. According to Reeves (2000), the decision that is taken by these regular sport tourists to participate in sports tourism is important, with their participation being vital to their experience. Hinch and Higham (2004) accentuate that this category of sports tourist shows an increased participation in sports tourism, with the tourist concerned considering sport to form an important part of their lifestyle. Furthermore, the regular sport tourists travel either as individuals or as groups, and their expenditure on sport is substantial (Reeves, 2000). Breitbarth (2006) and Gibson *et al.* (2013) indicate that travel by regular sport tourists consists of overnight stays, with their travel behaviours determining their classification.

Sutton *et al.* (1997) suggest that fans with a medium identification are attracted by the achievement potential of the sport, which is appreciated in terms of several of the qualities of the strongly identified fan. Although high achievement-seeking fans are likely to make significant personal and financial investments in a team, their behaviour is directly associated with team performance, so that their commitment is likely to be short-term if the team does not perform in accordance with their expectations of it. Such fans tend to purchase season tickets to support their favourite team and to wear team apparel to enhance their positive association with the team. Their involvement with the team might lead to a deeper relationship or identification with it or it might ultimately fade away, due either to poor team performance or to an identified player being traded with another team (Sutton *et al.*, 1997). According to Jones (2008), the motivation to travel by medium fans is influenced by the adventurous nature of the games and by their watching of the event.

The third, and the most fully committed, level consists of those fans who have a high level of identification with the sport. Such fans embody the strongest, the most loyal and the longest-term relationship that a fan/ participant can have with a sport or team (Sutton *et al.*, 1997). Their relationship articulates a heavy investment and commitment, either in terms of financial

or time commitments or both. Such fans tend to feel a level of ‘emotional ownership’ in the sport, to refer to their association with a specific team by using the first person ‘we’ in reference to it, and to recruit other fans and participants to it. They also devote enough time to be able to keep abreast with the team’s activities. Although such fans tend to be attracted to sports in general, their loyalty to their own team and community is, above all, unwavering and long-term (Sutton *et al.*, 1997).

Committed sport tourists consider sport as the defining part of their life, making their decision to participate in sports very important (Drury, 2013; Reeves, 2000). Similarly, the driven sport tourists’ decision to travel in order to participate in an event is essential and their participation levels in sport are high (Reeves, 2000; Weed and Bull, 2004). Gibson *et al.* (2013) point out that the committed sport tourists’ participation in sport is critical for their experience and, as such, their profiles are extremely consistent (Reeves, 2000).

Committed sport tourists invariably comprise of groups of tourists who share the same interests and who either participate in sport actively or as spectators (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2012; Weed and Bull, 2004). Also in this category of sport tourist are elite groups of people and in terms of their lifestyle, sport is considered as their profession, thus making their sport expenditure, which can be obtained through funding, extremely high and significant (Reeves, 2000). Additionally, Gibson *et al.* (2013) state that this group of participants tends to spend a great deal on accommodation and on meals, as their length of stay at the host destination tends to be longer. Hinch and Higham (2004) and Parent and Smith-Swan (2012) claim that driven sport tourists might be coaches, players or media reporters, to mention just a few. Accordingly, the same school of thought denotes that driven sport tourists require a quality infrastructure and sporting facilities to accommodate their performance needs. Reeves (2000) acknowledges that their success and participation in sport can be hindered by injury, illness or fear of illness, whereas the participation of committed sport tourists can be hindered by unpredicted restrictions.

Those fans who view the team that they support as an extension of their own community have strong emotional attachments with the team concerned. Although the success of the team is felt to reflect personally upon individual fans, such success also is regarded as being a reflection of the collective identity of the community concerned (Sutton *et al.*, 1997). According to Zhang *et al.* (2001), the degree of identification that is felt with the team elicits a comparative degree of positive expectation and confidence in the performance of the team.

The closer the degree of identification with a particular team, the greater is the degree of willingness exhibited to invest both time and money in attending the games that are played by the team.

Weed and Bull (2004; 2012) note that football fans are a good example of committed sport spectators, with many being driven participants. However, incidental football fans' characteristics are critical to sporting events, even though their participation in live football as sport tourism experience is minimal. The discussion on sport tourism market classification above, in turn, serves as a framework for critically examining and discussing the profiles of football fans, and the factors that affect their attendance and purchasing decisions. Such a discussion follows.

3.4 The profiles of sport tourist fans

In several studies that focus on sport fans and sporting events, most agree that the factors that affect the attendance and the purchasing behaviours of sport tourists are demographic ones such as their age, gender, education and income levels. Taks *et al.* (2009) assert that determining the profiles of event attendees is important information that can be used to investigate factors that affect the buying behaviours of sport tourists, which are also crucial for the success of an event and for its contribution to sustainable tourism as well as for repeat visitation for the benefit of the host destination.

According to Getz (2003; 2012), when sport fans travel to attend an away game as a spectator, their behaviour is considered to take the form of event sport tourism. Gibson *et al.* (2013) underscore that globally thousands of people travel significant distances to watch their favourite sports on a regular basis. Florek *et al.* (2008) recommend that one way for host destinations to profit from travelling fans is to understand them in terms of a tourism and sport perspective, by classifying them and by moulding attractions to the different segments. The authors argue that achieving this should result in sport being the starting point (that is, the primary motive for travel) for broader tourism-related activities that can add to the fans' overall experience. Despite this argument, few studies have attempted to profile football fans, despite the fact that the socio-cultural profile of fans affects their perceptions of issues surrounding the destination and the sport event.

3.4.1 Gender

According to Yu (2010: 116), despite the fact that “individuals have similar motivations for sport tourism importance and tourism, research has shown that different motivations influence males and females to spectate and to travel”. In those studies that have focused on sport attendance to date, a popular view exists that the vast majority of sport fans are male in terms of gender (Appelbaum *et al.*, 2012; Dietz-Uhler *et al.*, 2000; Rubin, 2009). For example, Rubin’s (2009) analysis of female participation in football shows that most fans have been found to be men. Similarly, Getz’s (2003: 58) profile of the demographics of sport event tourists in the United States found that “45% of men, compared to 31% of women, attend sports events”. Gibson (1998a) also determined the active sport tourist to be of male gender, with a high income, and most likely to travel to participate in their favourite pursuits until the time of their retirement. The argument put forward for male dominance by James and Ridinger (2002) and by Smith and Stewart (2007) is that more men tend to follow sport compared to women because sport values are based around aggression, mental toughness, externally based discipline and character-building; which are all aspects that are associated with traditional male identity. However, some authors have argued that there has been notable growth in interest from the female fans of sport, particularly of football (Chen, 2010; Donaldson and Ferreira, 2008; Mansfield, 2007; Rubin, 2009; Tichaawa and Swart, 2010). According to Ni *et al.* (2013: 175), female sport spectating has become a new and specific target market in sport fandom, stating that “not only do more women play sport in recent times, but also they are more involved as sports spectators”. According to Smith and Stewart (2007), female engagement tends to be more in the form of commitment to others, compared to that of men, who are likely to travel to a city or region for such sport-related experiences as social interaction, psychological stimulation and so on.

Some studies have focused on the behavioural differences in male and female sport fans. Chen (2010) asserts that the motives to travel to a sport event tend to differ among male and female fans. While women, on the one hand, are likely to travel for purposes of cultural experiences, family and a certain prestige motivation; on the other hand, men tend to travel for sport and adventure (Chen, 2010).

3.4.2 Age, employment and educational level

The age factor has also been noted as impacting on sport tourism participation and fandom in general. Correia and Esteves (2007) argue that the active social lifespan of a soccer fan can range from anything between 15 to 65 years in terms of age. Rubin (2009) further suggests

that the average age of the sport event traveller is 45 years old, with them, on average, being in full-time employ. Getz (2013) and Ritchie and Adair (2004) found that young to middle-aged, college-educated individuals are likely to engage in sporting activities. An Australian study of the Super 12 Rugby tournament revealed travelling fans to be sport tourists of whom, in terms of education levels, 46% were university degree graduates and 27% were college diplomates. Furthermore, Turco *et al.* (2012) profiled foreign visitors who attended the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa. They found that the average age of their respondents was 33.8 years of age, and that 64% had obtained a college diploma or an advanced degree. This, in turn, shows that most of the attendees at sporting events tend to be young to middle-aged individuals (in terms of both the male and the female gender), who have attained a college or advanced degree.

According to Snelgrove *et al.* (2008), as sport fans grow older, their focus tends progressively to shift away from sport, with them coming to consider sport as a social activity for younger consumers. Consequently, Taks *et al.* (2008) posit that older individuals might require a higher degree of motivation to attend a sport event. As Smith and Stewart (2007) note, a negative relationship exists between age and group affiliation. They postulate that older fans have a weaker affiliation for, and are less interested in, travelling long distances to attend a sport event.

3.4.3 Fan behaviour

Separate studies have been conducted into the behaviours of non-violent and violent fans. However, such studies can be seen to highlight a common element among both of the above groupings, in relation to the level of commitment that exists among those who regularly travel to watch 'their' team play. Violence aside, much of their behaviours and motivations are remarkably similar (Weed and Bull, 2004). Weed and Bull liken football fans to the 'barmy army' group of England's cricket fans, who spend vast amounts of time and money travelling the globe to watch their team. While some of cricket's 'traditional' supporters do not approve of their vocal 'carnavalesque' behaviour, what is not in doubt is their commitment to following their national team. Consequently, they can be associated with other committed football fans (Weed and Bull, 2004). The researchers further argue that such fans should be considered as 'associated experience' sport tourists, because a significant motivating factor for such fans on trips to support their team away from home is the 'whole package', involving the trip itself, associated social activities and, in some cases, the stay away from home. However, where these fans differ from other 'associated experience' sport tourists is that their

interest in the sport and in their team is deep-rooted and genuine. The sport is the central event around which the rest of the experience is organised, rather than being a convenient justification for socialising. For several committed football fans, having an identity as a sport fan is key to their lifestyle. In short, they enjoy the outdoors as well as opportunities for adventure (Weed and Bull, 2004).

According to Jones (2008), understanding the profiles of sport tourists is important for event organisers who have a responsibility to maximise the economic revenue that accrues to the host destination through establishing the means of attracting those respective tourists to it. Getz (2013) asserts that understanding the motivations and behaviours of both active and passive sport tourists assists suppliers and managers to leverage sporting events for the benefit of the tourism industry. In conjunction, Taks *et al.* (2009) point out that leveraging sporting events in the way indicated above can be done by increasing the information supply. Doing so stimulates tourist spending because it encourages visitors to participate in activities in which they would not otherwise have tended to engage in, if the information supply had been lacking in respect of knowledge about the destination and about available activities. The same school of thought states that this, in turn, helps to encourage development because the planners and the organisers are then able to offer tourism activities and practices that the respective sport fans tend to expect. Taks *et al.* (2009) denote that profiling sport tourists helps event organisers and marketers to blend the event experience with that of the destination, to confer benefits on the host destination.

3.4.4 FIFA World Cup fans

According to Kurtzman and Zauhar (2003), major sport tourism events are activities that can attract tourists, of whom a large percentage are fans. The authors argue that such events have the potential to attract non-resident media, technical personnel, athletes, coaches and other sports officials. Deery *et al.* (2004) categorise three main participants at such events, namely, attendees, competitors and officials.

Notwithstanding the findings of those studies conducted by Sutton *et al.* (1997) and Zhang *et al.* (2001) suggesting that the identification of sport fans can be generalised to the fans of various sports, other studies have attempted to pinpoint the characteristics of specifically football fans, particularly those who tend to attend such mega-sporting events as the FIFA World Cup. Walmsley (2008) advances that, as mega-events are historic in nature, they tend to generate the greatest visitor inflow. From among this flow of tourists, Swart, *et al.* (2008)

categorise three types of fans, of which the first consists of those who are normally not interested in football. Furthermore, such fans only start to take an interest in the game of football when the FIFA World Cup starts and are most likely to watch fewer than ten matches during the duration of the tournament. Swart *et al.* (2008) further determined the second kind of FIFA World Cup fan as having an average interest in football. Such fans start to show an interest in the FIFA World Cup during the qualifying stages for the tournament and they are likely to watch fewer than 20 games. The authors state that such fans are likely to watch non-live broadcasts of the games while also having an interest in games that are played by national teams other than their own. The third category of FIFA World Cup fans can be deemed to consist of true football fans, with them showing an interest in the World Cup during the qualifying stage too, and making sure that they watch more than 20 matches during the duration of any one tournament.

3.5 Fans' travel motives, constraints, expectations and attendance at mega-events

Previous research on sport fans suggests that “attendance motivations are varied and include economic, geographic and socio-demographic factors as well as accessibility, entertainment, performance, attractiveness of the game, emotions and individual preference for the product” (Hall *et al.* 2010: 329). According to McDonald *et al.* (2013: 165), “theoretical and empirical research suggests sport is a highly engaging product with attendance being a strong driver of increased attitudinal loyalty”. Spectatorship has emerged as an important aspect in tourism over the last few decades, enhanced by the fact that, “in the affluent western world, consumers are prepared to pay premium prices to engage with emotionally intense and highly memorable sport event experiences” (Emery *et al.*, 2013: 160). In their research into the mechanisms of delight in watching sport, Oshimi and Harada (2013) found that a sense of spectator delight positively affects the attendance levels at future events. However, Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005: 21) assert that “the decision to travel and participate in or attend sporting activity is intentionally engineered by external forces such as friends, family and media advertising”. As Walmsley (2008) argues, fans look for certain elements that they deem to be important to their experience at a sport tourism host destination, and they consider such elements to influence deeply their decision to travel for sporting events. Walmsley (2008) further postulates that the vast majority of sport tourists, especially mega-event tourists, focus not only on the event when at the host destination, but also seek a wider mix of support tourism facilities and attractions. Because such events are normally hosted in urban areas that are well-developed in terms of tourism and leisure facilities, the event tourists usually engage in the other activities on offer (Kaplanidou and Vogt, 2007). For example, in a study on fans’

travel motives in relation to the 2002 FIFA World Cup in Korea, Kim and Chalip (2004) found that despite the fact that the FIFA World Cup was the main motive for travel, the attractiveness of the host destination still played a key role in the decision to travel.

Similarly, in their study of the 2005 Pan American Junior Championships hosted in Canada, Taks *et al.* (2009: 138) found:

Participants and spectators who participated in tourism activities during the event had obtained information about the tourism activities prior to coming to the event, and, as such, were likely to return to the host destination, and were strongly inclined to recommend the destination to friends and relatives.

Based on the aforementioned statement, Taks *et al.* (2009) further develop and advance a conceptual framework for the visualisation of successful sustainable outcomes from one-time mega-events (see Figure 3.4 below.) According to such a framework, it is critical to ascertain the motives that are associated with sport fans attending mega-events.

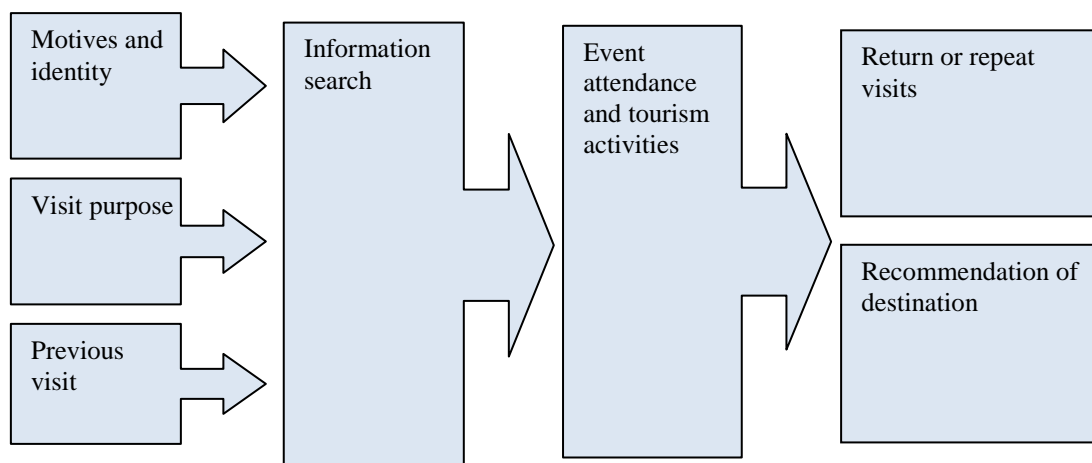


Figure 3.4: A framework for the identification of sustainable outcomes of events

Adapted from: Taks et al. (2009)

Figure 3.4 above posits that it is equally important to determine the identities of such mega-event travellers, and to become aware of the purpose of their visit, as well as whether they had previously visited the host destination. This information can eventually serve as a source of information, in turn, for the traveller about the host destination (Taks *et al.*, 2009). The information that is gathered from the three sets of enquiries then assists in the amalgamating of tourism activities that will satisfy the attendees during the event, helping to ensure that they leave the destination with a positive perception not only of the event, but also of the hosting

destination in terms of its competitiveness in respect of tourism activities. The result should be positive word-of-mouth communication about the destination, and therefore, positive recommendation of the venue as a potential tourism destination for colleagues, friends and relatives (Taks *et al.*, 2009).

According to Bouchet *et al.* (2011) although fan motivation is a multidimensional construct that is influenced by a variety of variables, avid fans are rather more concerned with the enjoyment of the event itself than with other aspects of their experience. According to Getz (2003: 55), “travel, in general, is motivated by a combination of seeking and escaping from in both personal and interpersonal contexts”. In the context of sport events such behaviour has been found potentially to have two generic dimensions. Sport events away from home tend to exert an appeal based on their uniqueness or quality which, when combined with the temptation of providing an opportunity to escape from the familiar and routine, is likely to generate personal benefits, making it worthwhile to spend both time and resources on attending them (Getz, 2012). However, Gammon and Robinson (2004: 224) argue that attempting to pinpoint sport tourism motivators is plagued with a number of difficulties, “the complexity and copious number of motives for participating in sport and tourism events are well documented”. Moreover, the fact that such motives tend to change over time, as well as to be evident in broad and contrasting areas of study, further exacerbates the problem (Gammon and Robinson, 2004).

Despite the above, several motivational theories exist that are applicable to the analysis of participation and fan behaviour in sport (McDonald *et al.*, 2013). Although different researchers have used a range of instruments in such analysis, the research that has been conducted across the board has consistently found that the motives of fans are multidimensional with the frequency, the likelihood and the amount of interest exhibited in attendance at events being influenced by and largely predicted by their motives (Kim and Chalip, 2004). Hinch and Higham (2011), Hudson (2012) and Weed and Bull (2004; 2012) acknowledge that motives are concerned with the interaction between people, activities and places, and that these motives, which can change over time, can either be shared or unique to individuals. The authors advance that these motives reflect the participants’ characteristics, interests, goals, needs and personality.

Zhang *et al.* (2001) argue that motivation is an insufficient basis to use in gaining an understanding of the drivers of sport event attendance. They found that identifying the

demographic characteristics (such as age, gender and education) of spectators facilitated the prediction of attendance frequency, in contrast to the use of motivational dimensions alone for such predictions. The level of income earned is also often argued as helping to determine the likelihood of attendance at events, as it helps to determine the amount of discretionary income that is available to the would-be spectators.

Kim and Chalip (2004) examined the effects of motives, background and interests of, as well as the constraints on, those fans who tend to travel to the FIFA World Cup events. They identified 'pull' factors, which relate to the attractions that are associated with the host destination, and 'push' factors, which are associated with intangibles relating to the motives, needs and interests of travellers. Furthermore, Yu (2010) and Bresler (2011) suggest that push factors can be referred to as the motives or as the reasons to travel whereas pull factors are related to external sources, including destination attributes. Kim and Chalip (2004) observe that there are grounds expecting 'push' factors to affect the 'pull' that an event provides. The attractiveness of an event should, at least in part, be a function of a fan's level of motivation, with the higher that a fan's motivation with reference to an event is, the more attractive the event should seem to them. Figure 3.5 below depicts a conceptual model of the degree of interest expressed in attending an event, as well as the significance of the intention of attending such an event.

Chen (2007) identifies four clear, though interrelated, antecedents of the establishment of loyalty for sports tourists, namely satisfaction, attachment, involvement and commitment. Despite sport consumers using teams and players to construct their own identities and their sense of self, they can also be fickle and critical at times. In their awareness of such a phenomenon, Smith and Stewart (2007: 156) stress that "an array of factors affects sport consumption, in general, as well as specific decisions to travel long distances to secure a special experience or to participate in a particular sport event".

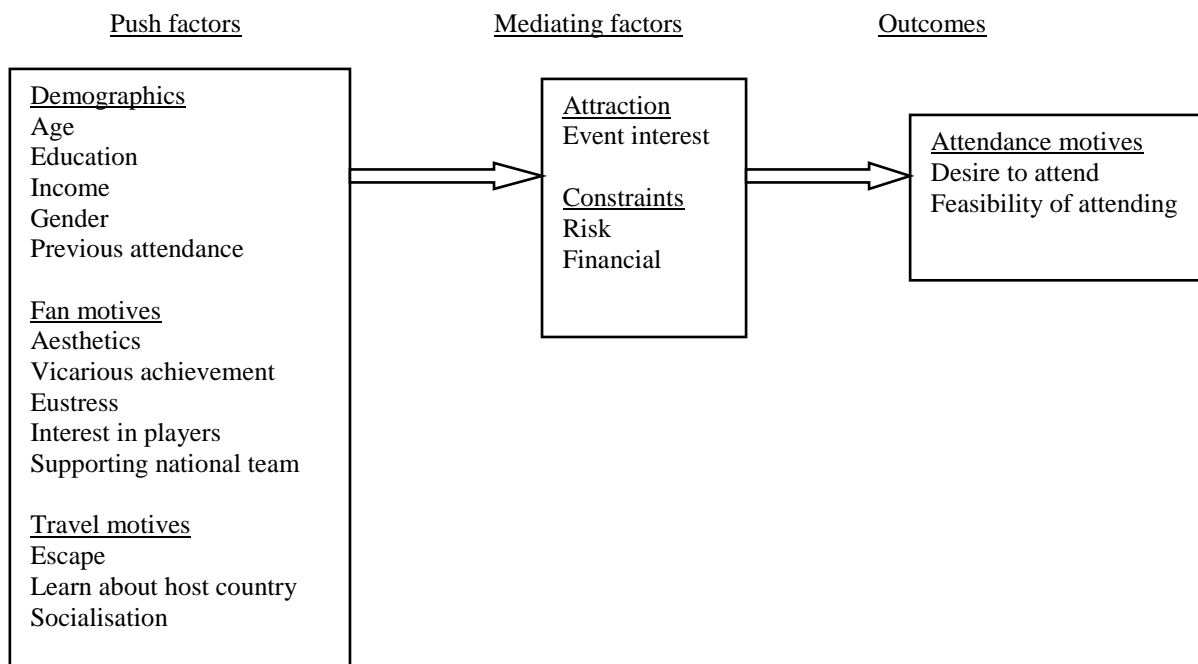


Figure 3.5: A conceptual model of event interest and intent to attend

Source: Kim and Chalip (2004)

Kim and Chalip (2004) point out that the destination development that an event stimulates is largely driven by the amount of attendance that it is expected to generate. Hall *et al.* (2010) denote that empirical understanding of the factors that influence sport event attendance is vital for the sustainability of the events, as high attendance levels tend to attract sponsor revenue, and to assist with economic and social development. Furthermore, Getz (2013) cautions that it is crucial to understand the factors that motivate sport tourist attendance at events, because sport tourists are diverse in nature and their motivations differ as far as comparing individuals to families or to groups of friends, and also according to age groups, gender and cultural groups. Additionally, Spronk and Fourie (2010) and Bladen *et al.* (2012) contend that tourists differ in their sports consumption, in their characteristics, and in their length of stay at the destination, as well as in their expenditure patterns. This is due to the factors that motivate their travel, as well as their attendance levels and their buying behaviour patterns (Giulianotti, 2002; Yoshida *et al.*, 2013).

For Turco *et al.* (2002), several factors influence the sports tourists' engagement in sporting events and indicate that motivators differ among sport tourist classifications. Hall *et al.* (2010) assert that attendance motives include economic, geographic and socio-demographic factors as well as factors relating to accessibility, entertainment, performance, the attractiveness of the game, and the emotional and individual preference of the product. Based on the motives expressed, Turco *et al.* (2002) reiterate that organisers and participants are motivated by the

need to obtain monetary benefits from sporting events, with the latter participating in the event as a way of showcasing their preparedness to enjoy the activity.

According to Wann *et al.* (2002), sport fans and spectators can be motivated by any of a number of different factors. Researchers have, however, found that eight motives are quite commonly expressed (McDonald *et al.*, 2002). Wann (1995) developed the Sport Fan Motivational Scale (SFMS) in this regard, which highlights the following motivations: eustress (positive arousal and stress release), escapism, entertainment, aesthetic pleasure (appreciation of the beauty of a sport performance), a feeling of group affiliation, the need to spend time with the family, potential economic gain (to be gained from gambling) and self-esteem (personal enhancement) issues. Similarly, Robinson and Trail (2005: 59) note Sloans' proposal when they state that "most motives for attending sporting events to fulfill related needs tend to fall within the ambit of one of the following theories: the salubrious effects theory; the stress and stimulation theories; the catharsis and aggression theories; the entertainment theory; and/ or the achievement-seeking theories". In relation to what amounted to critical incidents and emotional moments of the London 2012 Olympic spectating experience, Emery *et al.* (2013: 160) identified "five key interrelated moments in a linear sequence that ensured a highly satisfying and memorable spectator event experience were identified – to build moment, watch the moment, be in the moment, capture the moment and share the moment". These moments collectively formed the personal experience.

Exploring the key dimensions above that have tended to dominate debates regarding sport fan motives and consumption, Smith and Stewart (2007) point out that the growing number of theoretical models regarding the motivations of sport fans is apparent. As such, the authors grouped sport consumption motivations into three key dimensions, namely those of psychological, socio-cultural and social belonging; incorporating Wann's (1995) SFMS as illustrated in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2: Key dimensions of, and motives for, sport consumption behaviours

Dimension	Motive
Psychological	Eustress Escape Aesthetic pleasure Drama and entertainment
Socio-cultural	Family and social interaction Cultural connections
Social belonging	Tribal connections Vicarious achievement

Source: *Smith and Stewart (2007)*

3.5.1 Psychological motives

According to Smith and Stewart (2007), the psychological motives in sport consumption are concerned with fulfilling various emotional and intellectual needs. Turco *et al.* (2002) and Smith and Stewart (2007) denote that psychological motivations are associated with individually held reasons and with the enjoyment resulting from sporting events. The psychological motives, as are demonstrated in Table 3.2 above, comprise stress release, escape, aesthetic pleasure and entertainment. Hagen (2008) and Yu (2010) further mention that such self-esteem motivation factors are associated with the provision of opportunities to feel good about oneself.

Eustress, as a psychological motive, influences sport event attendance, according to Smith and Stewart (2007), who refer to the positive stress, excitement and psychological stimulation brought about by engaging in a sporting event. The reputation of the event, the rarity of the event and the presence of celebrities in the field, according to Getz (2003), also contribute to sport tourist attendance, as they result in excitement and psychological stimulation. Getz (2003) points out that packaging an event is important, since some of the prospective travellers seek a wide range of leisure activities. This, in turn, can increase the sport tourists' expenditure at the host destination. Moreover, Bresler (2011) asserts that football tourists attend sporting events in search of the stimulation and the arousal that are embedded within watching the respective tournament. Some sports tourists, according to Smith and Stewart (2007), travel to attend sporting events as a way of intensifying their experience by focusing on the event rather than on the concerns of daily life. According to Hall *et al.* (2010), if sport fans perceive that an event will be fun, challenging, stimulating and satisfying; then they are much more likely to want to attend another event of the same nature in future.

Turco *et al.* (2002) suggest that the escape that is involved in sport tourism refers to the escape from a perceived usual physical environment and from the daily routine, such as that which is brought about by having to conform to the expectations of a job, the home and even society itself. In its simplest form, escapism involves diversion from the mundanity of ordinary daily life (Smith and Stewart, 2007; Yu, 2010). In contrast, Weed and Bull (2004) opine that sport tourists travel to engage in sporting activities as a way of escaping from the pressures of everyday life. Smith and Stewart (2007) and Yu (2010) advise that escape, as a psychological motive, assists sport fans to engage in a world of passion, spontaneity and uncertainty. In addition, the researchers claim that since attendance at sporting events requires travel away from home, it influences the engagement of prospective travellers as a way of establishing desirable experiences.

While Getz (2003) points out that sporting events appeal to sport tourists because through escaping from familiar environments and from the daily routine, the uniqueness and quality of the event can be experienced by travellers. Such travellers can enjoy quality experiences at the host destination by generating personal and interpersonal benefits. Turco *et al.* (2002) emphasise that sport spectators' motivation lies in watching sports as a way of satisfying desires and interests. In contrast, Smith and Stewart (2007) observe that sport tourists also travel to attend sporting events as a form of escaping from an over-stimulated, rather than an under-stimulated, situation. Overall, sport tourists attend sporting events as a way of escaping from a stressful environment, and so as to capture a heightened level of stimulation.

Hagen (2008) points out that observing sporting events provides aesthetic pleasure for fans. Giulianotti (2002) claims that occasional sport fan attendance at sport events is influenced by the artistic enjoyment surrounding the event or arises from them supporting their teams. Hall *et al.* (2010) acknowledge that sporting events, in general, tend to act as a push factor for sport fans as they have the potential to offer pleasant incidents that, in turn, lead to unforgettable holiday experiences. Furthermore, Weed and Bull (2004) indicate that sport events have the potential to create memorable experiences for the attendees which can be shared with other family members and friends who did not attend the respective events. Such memories can also be the result of experiencing the host destination, the sport tourism facilities and the behaviour of the local residents or of interacting with members of the non-sporting public (Smith and Stewart, 2007). The memories can also be due to the experiences of the trip and to the presence of companionable fellow travellers. Sometimes the aesthetic pleasure involved might be the result of a sport tourist's interaction with the sport object,

rather than a passive visual reaction to it (Smith and Stewart, 2007). For example, sport fans might be excited by the design of the Moses Mabida Stadium in Durban and by its shopping complex, rather than by the football game taking place in the stadium as such.

For sport fans, watching a sporting event or visiting a sport attraction, such as a museum, tends to provide visual bliss, regardless of whether they have attended the same or a similar event before (Smith and Stewart, 2007). Bresler (2011) acknowledges that experiencing the beauty and the grace of a football event also can be aesthetic in nature. The physical skills, the good looks and the glamorous lifestyle of participants, according to Smith and Stewart (2007), can also influence attendance by sporting fans and provide aesthetic pleasure for them. Moreover, Getz (2003) denotes that the excitement of the crowd and the general atmosphere of the event also act as a motivation of the sport tourists' attendance levels and of their spending behaviours. Football tourists can be motivated to attend a tournament as a result of their interest in the players of their favourite team, and/ or their sense of commitment to the team (Bresler, 2011).

3.5.2 Socio-cultural motives

Socio-cultural motivations are generally related to interactions among sport tourists (Turco *et al.*, 2002). In contrast, Smith and Stewart (2007) contend that a sport event has a strong social dimension, whether the participants concerned play as part of a team, whether they are spectators watching others play or whether they just talk to their friends and colleagues about it. Adherents to the same school of thought point out that a sporting event acts as an interpersonal occasion to which people gravitate in units of families, supporters and state and national cheerleading squads. In this sense, spectators in particular tend to attend sporting events to express their level of commitment to the sport or to interact with others who enjoy the same sport while, in contrast, participants might engage in the sporting activity in order to interact with their companions (Turco *et al.*, 2002).

Cultural interactions and family and social interactions are considered as social motives that affect the sport tourists' decision to attend sporting events (Yu, 2010). Smith and Stewart (2007) postulate that sporting events create an opportunity for families to spend time together and that the experience can be used to help fulfill family needs in the same way as a holiday or weekend outing does. Getz (2003) indicates that some sport fans attend sporting events to fulfil their social needs such as to spend time with a group of friends or with family members. According to Giulianotti (2002), some sport tourists are likely to use their vacation time for

supporting their relatives who are participating in the sporting event with the grouping concerned comprising such family members as the parents, siblings or spouse of the participants. Turco *et al.* (2002) emphasise that some sport fans are motivated to attend sporting events as a way of improving relationships among their kin. As Bresler (2011) observes, some football tourists attend sporting events as a way of celebrating the atmosphere of an event and as a way of socialising with groups of friends, family members and/ or other sport fans who support the same team.

The possibility of making cultural connections has also been discussed as another type of social motive for attending sport events. According to Smith and Stewart (2007), the making of cultural connections through sport can encourage nation-building as well as extend to the development of racial and ethnic cultural heritage. Bresler (2011) states that football tourists attend football tournaments in order to celebrate their shared and valued identities. Smith and Stewart (2007) emphasise that sport fans attend sporting events as a form of cultural celebration. Elsewhere, Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005) indicate that socially oriented consumers are primarily motivated by a cooperative spirit and by the sense of affiliation and rapport that can be obtained by attending sporting events.

3.5.3 Social belonging motives

Sport tourists' engagement in sports is influenced by the sense of social belonging surrounding the event. Turco *et al.* (2002) highlight that novelty motivation encourages first-time sport fans to travel to and attend sporting events for new and exciting experiences, making them likely to visit the same destination in the following year. Smith and Stewart (2007) assert that belonging motives refer to the strength of sport object identification and are external to individuals, involving the sport consumers' interaction with a sport object that is associated with the sport experience. Turco *et al.* (2002) point out that the idea of meeting new people acts as a motivation for travel for sport tourists, especially in the case of solo travellers who are likely to interact with residents of the host community.

Furthermore, Giulianotti (2002) claims that sport consumers who seek social belonging are market-centred and that this motive acts as a way of boosting the individual's self-esteem and emotional attachment to the sporting team that they support. Some sport fans' attendance at sporting events is motivated by the potential for advancing their prestige among peers through being associated with the status of the host destination, the rarity of the event and social desirability (Turco *et al.*, 2002). Additionally, Weed and Bull (2004) reiterate that sport

tourists are motivated to attend sporting events by the desire to enhance their status and prestige through goal achievement, praise, the encouragement that they receive from others and/ or the sense of satisfaction that is derived from the sport tourism experience.

Weed and Bull (2004) emphasise that status and prestige motives are vital, as they reflect the identity that the participants wish to showcase to their peers on their return from a sport tourism trip. Furthermore, Smith and Stewart (2007) point out that tribal connection is one of the forms of social belonging that is used to revive or to capture the essence of ancient ceremonies and primordial social practices. In conjunction with the above, Weed and Bull (2004) and Joseph (2011) reiterate that sport tourists attend sporting events in their desire for a sense of affiliation, involving the need to belong to a society in order to meet their social needs. Sport teams with distinct football codes provide strong tribal connections that allow sports tourists to play out a variety of traditional roles and practices, thereby acting as a travel motive for the potential event attendees (Smith and Stewart, 2007).

Another crucial social belong motive that encourages high attendance levels at sporting events is vicarious achievement (Jones, 2008; Smith and Stewart, 2007). Smith and Stewart (2007) assert that a sense of vicarious achievement results from the sense of belonging that is felt by fans which is derived from the success of a player or from the achievement of a team that the fan supports. The authors argue that associating with a successful team enables the individual to obtain a feeling of accomplishment, thereby boosting one's sense of self-esteem. Taks *et al.* (2009) postulate that besides the motives for socialising for escape for learning about the destination, for learning about sport and for identifying with the event and social identity. The information search that is taken in relation to an event is another vital element that affects the attendance and the buying behaviours of sport tourists, which are discussed below.

Taks *et al.* (2009) point out that the availability of information search tools also affects sport tourists' attendance and buying decisions. They accentuate that information availability is crucial in influencing significant attendance levels at sporting events, especially in the case of one-time events. The reason for this is that the availability of such tools has the potential to result in repeat visitation and to create positive word of mouth (by encouraging the attendees to recommend the destination to friends, other family members or colleagues), which can result in the attracting of new attendees. According to Turco *et al.* (2012), for example, about 89% of the visitors surveyed during the 2010 FIFA World Cup revealed that they would definitely advise their friends and their other family members to visit South Africa in future.

Other studies have examined the social factors that have been found to affect spectator attendance at sporting events. For example, Zhang *et al.* (2001: 43) examined “the relationship between five socio-motivational factors, namely stress and entertainment, achievement seeking, catharsis and aggression, salubrious effects and community image, at league hockey games”. The authors contend that sport game attendance can be used as an escape from work and from other tedious aspects of life. They also found that hockey spectators were attracted to the game as a way of fulfilling their needs for stress, risk, arousal and stimulation in socially acceptable ways. Kim and Chalip (2004: 697) state:

Since attendance at events also requires travel, it is reasonable to expect that higher levels of travel motivation are likely to affect the degree to which an event is seen to be attractive, even when attendance at the event is impossible. As following the event via its coverage in the media provides a vicarious experience, for a fan to be motivated to travel to an event, the event should be made to appear attractive, whether or not the possibility of travelling to attend the event is feasible.

According to Smith and Stewart (2007), motivational differences are also a result of the setting in which an event occurs. Football games, for example, might occur in a number of non-professional as well as professional settings, as is discussed below.

3.5.4 Sport context

According to Smith and Stewart (2007: 169), “when deciding whether or not to attend a particular game, travelling fans and football tourists are influenced by the closeness of the contest”. For example, the 2010 FIFA World Cup, which was the first ever to be hosted on the African continent, was envisaged as attracting more African fans than the other World Cup events have done in the past.

Smith and Stewart (2007) assert that the degree of anticipation that is associated with the holding of a high-quality event will be reflected in a relatively high level of fan arousal, which should serve to boost the associated crowd size. Generally, the closer in score the expected result of the match or event is likely to be, the more fans tend to be prepared to travel to see it. Conversely, fans are likely to be less enthusiastic about a game in which the outcome is seen as a foregone conclusion. Games played between clubs with low-loss ratios have been found to be less attractive to fans than are those that are played between less evenly matched clubs, even when such games are expected to be close contests (Bouchet *et al.*, 2011; Izzo *et al.*, 2011; Yoshida *et al.*, 2013). When a good team plays a poor team, the former is likely to

attract substantially more attendance than is the latter. When a good team does well, the attendance figures are also likely to be high, regardless of who the opponent is (Smith and Stewart, 2007). Fans tend not only to achieve satisfaction from identifying with the winning team, but they are also likely to attend games frequently if they believe that their team has a strong chance of winning. The predisposition to commit more strongly to teams when they are winning is a result of wanting to bask in the reflected glory to be gained from their success (Smith and Stewart, 2007). The FIFA World Cup consists of games that are played by many different national teams, which are selected from various FIFA confederations after they have participated in a rigorous qualifying tournament (FIFA, 2013). Most of the world's famous football nations usually qualify for the tournament. As such, the event is regarded as a 'must see' event by many football fans globally.

3.5.5 Physical environment

Sport venue features and facilities can have a strong impact on the decision of fans to attend a sport event. A facility is attractive to fans if it provides an attractive setting, a convenient layout, good directional signage, a visually appealing and watchable scoreboard, comfort, a relatively good and proximate view of the contest and easy access (Smith and Stewart, 2007). Facilities that are linked to sport events have been found to be a significant predictor of attendance. Smith and Stewart (2007) suggest that other factors determining attendance at a sporting event include the parking facilities, the quality of food and beverages available, the stadium, the ticketing, the children's facilities, the ease of access and other auxiliary entertainment options. Not only can such factors, if they are efficiently run, provide a drawcard for fans, but they can also detract from attendance when they are seen as inadequate. Fans clearly want a comfortable and safe sport watching experience and are usually prepared to pay for such (Smith and Stewart, 2007). Developing the facilities previously mentioned will enhance the sport fans' intention to attend sport events in future (Hall *et al.*, 2010).

According to Haferburg *et al.* (2009: 174), Public Viewing Areas (PVAs) are facilities that provide a live broadcast of any major sporting event (such as, in the present instance, the FIFA World Cup), and that offer sufficient space for several people to watch the game. The authors distinguish between the FIFA fan park (that area which adjoins the stadium in the city centre), the official municipal PVAs, other formal places of public viewing (such as shopping malls) and informal public viewing places (such as where viewers congregate around a television set that is located in the street). Haferburg *et al.* (2009) contend that all such places are public, in the sense that there is no general restriction to access and no registration

formality, although in some cases, a fee might be charged. Fan parks, according to Swart *et al.* (2009), are aimed at accommodating those members of the public who are not able to purchase tickets or to travel to the match venues. Weed (2010: 103) asserts that “the 2006 Football World Cup in Germany was the first football tournament in which the host actively welcomed fans without tickets”. Weed (2010: 103) argues that “the Germans were keen to provide a welcoming environment for all fan groups to consume the World Cup experience through Fan Fests”.

The Cape Town and the Western Cape Business Plan for the 2010 FIFA World Cup (City of Cape Town, 2006) states that for the FIFA World Cup fan parks/ PVAs were required to accommodate football tourists, and were to function daily in certain instances throughout the tournament. Such fan parks were properly planned, taking into account the arrangements that needed to be made regarding their location, their safety and security management, their disaster management and the traders involved, in accordance with the set FIFA guidelines.

3.5.6 Weather conditions

According to Higham and Hinch (2003: 181), “the atmosphere and entertainment value of an event are influenced by the weather, with such a factor being considered as attracting ‘new’ spectators to an event”. Zhang (2007: 48) notes that the “weather can strongly influence the timing and success of an event, even if it is staged indoors”. Smith and Stewart (2007) concur that weather can affect match attendance by influencing both the conditions under which the spectators watch games, as well as the quality of the games itself. They also noted that the climate might, in fact, create a narrow window of opportunity. As was previously mentioned, the FIFA World Cup traditionally takes place between the months of June and July, once in every four years. Consequently, the 2010 FIFA World Cup took place during South Africa’s winter, which tends to be characterised by cold and, in parts, rainy weather conditions. However, such weather is milder than that which is experienced during the European winter. Therefore, the teams and their fans who came from overseas might not have been adversely affected by the weather during the event.

A typical illustration of how weather conditions raise debates that might affect the decision of sport fans to attend sport events was, at the time of the current study, the discussions surrounding the complexities of the 2022 FIFA World Cup, which is to be held in Qatar. According to the UK Daily Mail (2011), football fans heading to the Middle East to watch the World Cup in 2022 will be in for an exceedingly hot time. This, they posit, is due to the

coming event being held in Qatar during the June and July of that year – which is a time when temperatures in the desert state can reach 50°C (122° Fahrenheit). Such high temperatures have been a major concern for football stakeholders globally. In a British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) (2013) interview, FIFA’s President Sepp Blatter acknowledged the concerns involved and iterated that FIFA might have made a ‘mistake’ in awarding the 2022 World Cup to Qatar. In the same interview, the England Football Association chairman, Greg Dyke, said that it would be ‘impossible’ to play in such conditions. Dyke further noted that, FIFA reported that they wanted the 2022 event moved to the winter, when the temperatures are bound to be much cooler, and when it will be much easier to accommodate both the participating teams and the visiting fans. Walmsley (2008) argues that the weather patterns (that is, the climate) is also an important element for the fans who attend sporting events, in that they can be key determinants of the quality of the experience for them.

3.5.7 Economic conditions

Sport fans are economically oriented, as they are increasingly seeking to gain knowledge about sport-related events and the travel consequences thereof (Kurtzman and Zauhar, 2005). According to Smith and Stewart (2007), the total attendances at sport events have been found to be only marginally influenced by the admission prices charged, with the demand for spectator sport being generally unaffected by price. The strong feelings of identity with those involved and the loyalty of ardent fans tend to reduce the significance of the price that they have to pay to attend such events. An increase in admission prices and the cost of attending is not, therefore, likely to reduce fan attendance to any marked degree (Smith and Stewart, 2007). However, Kim and Chalip (2004) argue that financial constraints and risk are two of the constraints that inhibit travel.

3.5.8 Promotional experiences

According to Smith and Stewart (2007), special experiences generally tend to gain the attention of fans. The authors argue that such experiences might involve the participation of a star player or personality or the likelihood of a record-breaking performance. They might also involve the expectation of a dramatic, or even a violent, encounter, or the anticipation of highly skilled and aesthetically pleasing play. The appearance of a ‘personality player’ and faith in the likelihood of being able to obtain value for money, are increasingly important triggers for consumers attending sporting events. Smith and Stewart (2007) add that other ‘value-adding’ experiences include the expectation of a special occurrence, a special player match-up, the presence of a glamour player, a complementary display or event, and attractive

drinking and eating facilities. Promotional strategies (particularly when they are accompanied by admission concessions), sales vouchers and merchandising discounts are important influences on the decision that fans make to attend a game (Smith and Stewart, 2007). Event organisers of sport events should, consequently, direct resources, including those that are related to the entertainment factor, into promoting an event, meaning that the organisers should work on creating a sense of anticipation and of excitement surrounding the event (Hall *et al.*, 2010).

In conjunction with the above, Turco *et al.* (2002) emphasise that information supply, promotions and media are vital in influencing potential tourist attendance and purchasing decisions because they tend to make such tourists aware of the available options from which to choose and to catch the attention of individuals. The information supply should also provide such details as those about the duration of the event, accommodation, travel costs, available activities and the other elements of the situation that might appeal to potential tourists' needs and wants, thereby motivating their travel, spending and consumption (Turco *et al.*, 2002). Smith and Stewart (2007) denote that such promotional strategies as advertising, especially when it is accompanied by admission concessions, sales vouchers and merchandising discounts; tend to exert a major influence on the decisions of fans to attend sporting events. The promotional techniques for sport, according to Mullin *et al.* (2007), comprise the use of such media channels as newspapers, radio programmes, television as well as personal selling, among others.

Mullin *et al.* (2007) emphasise that the promotional strategies should be developed with every type of attendee in mind: first-time attendees, parents with children, season-ticket holders, price-conscious attendees, attendees not participating in any plan or package, and partial plan and miniplan holders. Such strategies should be devised as a measure to catch the attention of the event attendees, by taking their needs and wants into consideration, in order to motivate their travel. Smith and Stewart (2007) advance that promotional strategies are important in sporting events because they increase attendees' numbers. The researchers cite an example of a baseball study that revealed that promotional campaigns were effective in attracting fans to games. Such campaigns can assist in gaining the fans' attachment to an event.

3.5.9 Constraints to travel

Even a strong attraction to an event might not be sufficient inducement to generate embarking on travel to attend an event, particularly when the travel involved is of a long-haul

international nature. Both the existing constraints and the perceptions of such constraints, play a vital role in the leisure choices that individuals and families make (Kim and Chalip, 2004). According to James and Ross (2004: 18), “pricing issues (setting ticket prices that are affordable, based on a community’s average household income), promotions (giveaways and events that stimulate single game attendance) and residual preference factors (game time, weather, and accessibility) have been found to affect attendance”.

Zhang (2007: 41) summarises those stimuli and personal factors that are likely to prevent tourists from attending events, as outlined by McIntosh *et al.* (1995). The factors include the following:

- Events might be expensive to access, given the high price of entrance and accommodation fees, as well as the other expenses involved.
- The lack of time might limit the number of events that fans can attend. Often people find that they cannot visit a sport tourism event because they cannot take time away from their business or job.
- Health limitations, in terms of poor health and physical limitations, might restrict a person’s access to an event.
- Concerns relating to the stage of family development might militate against attendance at an event. Parents of young children often do not travel, owing to family obligations and to the inconveniences that are associated with travelling with children.
- Potential travellers might be discouraged from travelling to events due to their lack of knowledge about the places where the events are to be held.
- Fears about the safety of a destination might lead to tourists deciding not to visit the destinations involved.

In the context of mega-events, and specifically the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the first and final two constraints highlighted above have been found to be of concern for most fans (Tichaawa and Swart, 2010). Firstly, attending the FIFA World Cup event in South Africa was expensive for many fans, when the ticketing prices and other related travel costs were taken into consideration, seeing that the country was a long-haul destination for many (Turco *et al.*, 2012). Maharaj (2011) argues that ticket prices for the games were between R490 and R6 300 per seat, depending on the category of the ticket involved. For those African fans who had wished to attend such an event for the first time, having to contend with such costs might have proved to be problematic. Analysis of the cost implications for the 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil suggest that the event may be more expensive to attend than the 2010 event (Sulehria,

2013). According to Argan *et al.* (2013), cognitive, affective, social and behavioural factors are determinants that influence sport fans to attend sporting events. Such factors also have negative consequences on attendance levels, for example, due to the increase in prices (such as for tickets and transport), many fans might be unable to attend sport events. Instead, they might prefer to stay at home and to watch the event on a television that has been enhanced by advances in digital technology.

3.6 Mega-event impacts

In this section, the impacts that are associated with mega-events are considered, including legacy components. This includes the economic, social, environmental and political dimensions.

3.6.1 Economic impacts

The extremely high level of investments that is associated with the development and with the implementation of such events, coupled with the promise of economic return, make them a subject of much debate. Not surprisingly, several studies have focused on examining the economic consequences of hosting mega-events (Coates, 2012; Coates and Humphreys, 2003; Fourie and Santana-Gallego, 2010; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006; Kim *et al.*, 2006; Lee and Taylor, 2005; Malfas *et al.*, 2004; Maennig and du Plessis, 2007; Ohmann *et al.*, 2006; Saayman and Rossouw, 2008; Sterken, 2012; Zimbalist, 2010). Most of these studies suggest that the economic impact of mega-events is not only both positive and negative in nature, but that it is also difficult to gauge. Any economic assessment of a mega-event should begin with a comparison of the total economic costs and total economic benefits generated by the event (Humphreys and Prokopowicz, 2007; Li *et al.*, 2013), and should then lead on to a consideration of the secondary impacts involved, which are the indirect and induced effects that are brought about by the event (Kasimati, 2003; Minnaert, 2012). Economic impacts associated with mega-events are divided in positive and negative aspects. The economic impacts related to mega-events are summarised below. Specifically, aspects under consideration include tourism, local economic development and the contributions made in terms of job creation.

3.6.1.1 Tourism

According to Giampiccoli and Nauright (2010), mega-events are considered important promoters of tourism and figure prominently in the development and marketing plans of most destinations that seek to host them. Fourie and Santana-Gallego (2010) and Nicolau (2012) mention that mega-events are intended to attract tourist revenues and, more importantly,

national and international media recognition for the host city. According to Kavetos and Szymanski (2008: 5), through marketing and media exposure the host cities of mega-events might be able to attract tourists both during and after such events. As tourists are assumed to spend money in the local economy, their expenditure tends to have an economic multiplier effect. Cornelissen and Maennig (2010), Harris (2011) and Turco *et al.* (2012) found that the host expectations of the tourism returns that are linked to mega-events are usually high. For example, Chalip (2002: 5) states that “it was estimated that tourist visits induced by the Olympic Games in Australia would generate just over A\$2.9 (US\$2.7) billion of extra tourism foreign exports”. Chalip (2004; 2010) and Brown *et al.* (2004) have concluded that the Australian authorities used the hosting of the 2000 Sydney Games to develop plans to reap the benefits from long-term tourism, by means of exploiting the media opportunities presented by the event. Table 3.3 below reveals evidence of some of the long-term positive tourism growth brought about by Barcelona’s hosting of the 1992 Olympic Games. The table shows the improvements made between 1990 and 2001 in terms of improved hotel and room capacity as well as in terms of the number of tourist arrivals and overnight stays. Furthermore, Spain as a country recorded increased visitation from Europe during the time of the Games and post the Games.

Table 3.3: Legacy benefits of the Barcelona Olympic Games

Legacy benefit	1990	2001
Hotel capacity (beds)	18 567	34 303
Number of tourists	1 732 902	3 378 636
Number of overnight stays	3 795 522	7 969 496
Average room occupancy	71.0%	84.0%
Average length of stay	2.84	3.17
Tourists by origin		
Spain	51.2%	31.3%
Europe	32.0%	39.5%
Other (USA, Japan, Latin America)	16.8%	29.2%

Source: Adapted from Gratton and Preuss (2008)

In the context of Africa, tourism has been consistently and persistently used as a tool for development by many countries on the continent (Dieke, 2009; Okech, 2010). Furthermore,

Rogerson and Visser (2011) contend that African governments have been assisted in tourism-related development efforts by such external agencies as the World Bank, the International Finance Corporation, the British Department for International Development, and the Netherlands Development Organisation. More recently, the role of tourism in economic diversification in Africa has been endorsed by the Economic Commission for Africa for the AU (Rogerson and Visser, 2011).

Rogerson and Visser (2011) suggest that tourism's contribution to the economic and social upliftment of those living in Africa is highlighted in the NEPAD tourism action plan, which states that "[t]ourism is recognised as one of the sectors with the most potential to contribute to the economic regeneration of the continent, particularly through the diversification of African economies, and generation of foreign exchange earnings" (NEPAD, as cited in Rogerson and Visser, 2011: 252).

The development agenda for Africa's first mega-event (that is, the 2010 FIFA World Cup) contained a special commitment to achieving shared growth in tourism for the entire continent through South Africa's hosting of the mega-event. Tourism was identified as one of the key sectors within the African Legacy Programme. The aim was to leverage the tourism opportunity that the event presented so that the rest of the African continent benefited from it, too. However, few post-event evaluations of the tourism impact of the 2010 FIFA World Cup have been undertaken so far, specifically in terms of the analysis of the continent-wide effects of tourism.

According to Swart and Bob (2012a), the 2010 FIFA World Cup, to some extent, should be recognised for promoting South Africa successfully as a tourism destination. The authors cite the *2011 Tourism Report*, whose data suggest that 8 339 354 tourists visited the country in 2011, representing a 3.3% increase (8 073 552) in the number concerned of those who visited the country in 2010. The data recorded also show that the 2010 event exposed South Africa to increases in the number of tourist arrivals from countries including China, India and the USA. Swart and Bob (2012a) argue that the ranking of South Africa as 61st out of 133 in the *World Economic Forum Report* in 2011 indicates, however, that the event did not positively change South Africa's position in the global tourism market. Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) also found in their study that the 2002 FIFA World Cup that was co-hosted by Japan and South Korea resulted in no change occurring in the overall trends in Japanese tourism. du Plessis and Maennig (2009) observe that hotels in Berlin and Munich reported a vacancy rate of

11.1% and 14.3%, respectively, during the 2006 FIFA World Cup that was hosted in Germany. The post-event analyses referred to above reflect that a key indicator for gauging the tourism impacts of mega-events involves the monitoring of the movement of people in and out of the host destination's entry points, at various stages of the event's life cycle.

However, du Plessis and Maennig (2011) examine the effects on international tourism and awareness brought about as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup being hosted by South Africa, using high-frequency data economics. du Plessis and Maennig (2011: 351) caution that "when estimating the impacts of the tournament it is important to distinguish between 'international tourists' and 'overseas tourists', since differences are to be expected between the spending patterns of tourists from other countries in Africa and those from Europe, Asia and the Americas". du Plessis and Maennig (2011: 360) further note that the results of their study confirmed the findings of previous studies on the effects of sport mega-events, in terms of such effects being "significantly below the effects claimed *ex ante* by their organisers and sponsors and that these events generate scarcely any significant tourism, income or employment impact". On the contrary, in examining the management and the impact of the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games on tourism, Chalip (2002) found that a key economic legacy of the Games were the long-term tourism receipts involved. However, most research that has been undertaken into the tourism impacts of mega-events has cautioned that the analysis of such impacts must consider the crowding-out effects that are justifiably linked to the hosting of such events.

The concept of crowding-out effects or the displacement of tourism as a result of the hosting of a mega-event refers to where those who would ordinarily travel to the country during this period choose to avoid it due to the congestion brought about by the mega-event, including the associated costs (Harris, 2011; Matheson, 2006). This is an important aspect to consider in relation to mega-events. According to studies conducted by Preuss (2007; 2011) and Fourie *et al.* (2011), such high-profile sporting events as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup can result in various effects that can prevent or that can discourage potential tourists from visiting the area while they take place. Fourie *et al.* (2011) have distinguished between two types of crowding-out that are embedded within mega-event discourse. They posit that the first type is the supply-side crowding-out, which happens when the capacity constraints related to the tourists' infrastructure in the host cities or regions (for example, the transport facilities, the accommodation services and other amenities) limit the number of non-event tourists while the event takes place. The second type is the demand-side crowding-out, which

happens when event-related price increases, safety and security risks or a dislike of various forms of congestion put off non-event tourists from visiting the destination in question during the event.

Fourie *et al.* (2011) investigated tourist displacement at two large-scale events hosted by South Africa (the Indian Premier League cricket and the British and Irish Lions Tour). They found that “some tourists from countries that did not participate in these events were displaced; much stronger effects however was that tourists from participating countries re-arranged their visits to coincide with an event” (Fourie *et al.*, 2011: 331). Bob and Potgieter (2013: 75) provide an example of crowding-out effects in their analysis of the domestic tourism trends that occurred during the 2010 FIFA World Cup. They argue that domestic tourism that represents the mainstay of the South African tourism system “decreased by 2% in 2010 (with 29.7 million trips being undertaken compared to 30.3 million trips in 2009) and domestic spend decreased by 6%”. In addition, the domestic travel incidence among the adult population dropped to its lowest level since 2007. Preuss (2007; 2011) cautions against such tourism displacement and the crowding-out effects that often occur during mega-events. According to Fourie *et al.* (2011), the failure to identify and to consider crowding-out effects might lead to the misjudgment of tourism receipts.

In addition to the crowding-out effects discussed above, Bob and Swart (2010) argue that tourism has a range of other negative impacts that should be considered when analysing its contribution to destinations that host mega-events. Such negative impacts include loss of income through leakages, environmental impacts, price increases and the unequal distribution of benefits.

3.6.1.2 Local economic development

Burbank *et al.* (2012) suggest that mega-events are intended to spur on local economic development by attracting tourists and media recognition for the host cities concerned. According to the OECD (2010), a mega-event can be used by the hosting destination to align itself with the national developmental goals of the country involved. Furthermore, such an event can be used as a catalyst to boost existing growth strategies for the various sectors of the economy. According to Hiller and Wanner (2011) and Kavetsos and Szymanski (2010), it can also be used to create additional job opportunities and to expand on related economic activities, including tourism. According to the literature that has examined the merits and the demerits of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa’s key objectives with the event

were to use it to fast-track the attainment of its 2014 Millennium Development Goals. The Goals concerned benefited from the improvement in the national infrastructure, as well as from the creation of opportunities for investment, business growth and job creation, among others (Bob and Majola, 2011; Bohlmann and van Heerden, 2005; Cornelissen, 2007; Gibson *et al.* 2012; Rogerson, 2009; Swart and Bob, 2004). The fast-tracking of development for local communities is further emphasised by the OECD (2010: 17) in their remark that “the event provides an opportunity to accelerate the implementation and delivery of the plans, increasing the momentum behind existing projects and providing deadlines and additional funding to make progress faster”.

Employment opportunities and skills development are key aspects in relation to local economic development. According to Baum and Lockstone (2007) and Zimbalist (2010), a major component in terms of the economic impact of a mega-event is employment generation and the new jobs that are created across the host destination. Malfas *et al.* (2004: 212) state that “mega-events can generate large number of jobs, not only those directly associated with the organisation of the event itself, but also those in the tourism and retail industry, due to increased volumes of spectator/ tourists, and in the construction industry”. The significant investments made in terms of infrastructural development by the host city (Ahlfeldt *et al.*, 2012; Humphreys and Egteren, 2012) and the increased number of tourists (Jago *et al.*, 2010) have the potential to create both short- and long-term employment opportunities (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006). The research that was conducted by Allmers and Maennig (2008) reported an increase, albeit minimal, in employment figures in both France in 1998 and in Germany in 2006 due to the two countries’ hosting of the FIFA World Cup in those years. For Africa’s first-ever World Cup, Harris (2011: 410) found that “[i]n South Africa, the construction of the stadiums alone created 66 000 new jobs, equating to US\$1.05 billion (R7.4 billion), which, in turn, some argue, has valuable economic implications”. The skills gained from the employment opportunities presented by the mega-event have been noted as having contributed to local economic development. Furthermore, the hosting of a mega-event has the potential to provide significant volunteer and training opportunities (Baum and Lockstone, 2007) which, according to Jago *et al.* (2010), can improve the skills capacity of the host communities. Lee and Taylor (2005) critically reflected on the economic impact assessment of the 2002 FIFA World Cup, concluding that the most enduring legacy of the event has been that it has provided a unique opportunity for the South Korean community to build and showcase its skills and capabilities, develop business contacts, engage in partnerships and investments, and promote national awareness. In a study that was conducted by Gratton and

Preuss (2007: 1927) on the 2002 Commonwealth Games in Manchester, “50% of the 10 000 volunteers recruited for the event felt that they had acquired new skills and capabilities through their experience, 18% believed that being a volunteer had improved their chances of employment, and 46% agreed that being a volunteer had enhanced their personal development”.

Hagn and Maennig (2009) studied the effects of employment that was brought about as a result of hosting the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany. The central issue was to determine the employment contributions made by the mega-event to the host regions. The data that were collected from the 12 match venues and from across the country’s 75 largest urban districts revealed that the event did not influence unemployment in the 12 match venues to an extent that was significantly different from its pattern in the non-venue locations. Hagn and Maennig (2009: 3299) state that their “results do not only correspond with those of Baade and Matheson (2004), which were unable to prove any income effects significantly different from zero in the host cities of the 1994 Football World Cup in the USA, but also correspond with almost all *ex post* multivariate income and employment analysis of major sporting events”.

The nature of the quality of jobs created by mega-events, however, raises several debates. Notwithstanding the job opportunities that are created by mega-events, Malfas *et al.* (2004), Merkel (2013), Horne and Manzenreiter (2006), Pillay and Bass (2009) and Jago *et al.* (2010) postulate that the analysis of the jobs that are created by a mega-event should focus attention on the quality and duration of the jobs concerned, as some jobs are part-time (only lasting for the duration of the event) and low-paying in nature. These effects were experienced during the 1992 Olympic Games that were hosted by Barcelona (Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006). Such a situation posits that those who are employed during an event might return to being unemployed after the mega-event, hence leading to negative consequences. However, as Harris (2011: 410) recommends, in the context of South Africa, part of the 2010 FIFA World Cup legacy should have been the “skills and technological transfer gained during the management of the process”. It can be hoped that at least some of the skilled workers concerned were retained to build the plethora of schools, clinics and houses that are required to meet the basic needs of South Africa’s population. However, Jago *et al.* (2010: 227) note that for a developing country like South Africa, where many of the skills that are needed for developing an event, besides the unskilled positions, “are not readily available and labour is brought in from outside the country. As a consequence, the skill legacy of these events is often not great as the skilled staff leave the country after the tasks have been completed”.

Hagn and Maennig (2009) found, in relation to the 2006 FIFA World Cup that was held in Germany, that hosting the event had little or no effect on regional employment.

3.6.1.3 Use of public funds

According to Maennig and Schwarthoff (2008: 2), econometric *ex post* studies of mega-events have, so far, concluded that the impact of the hosting of mega-events is either non-significant or even negative. Similarly, Allmers and Maennig (2008: 1) maintain that previous studies that have been conducted into former FIFA World Cups have shown only “limited positive effects on local economies”. For example, Matheson and Baade (2003) examined the 1994 World Cup using metropolitan income data. The researchers concluded that “while boosters predicted a cumulative US\$4 billion positive impact on the nine host cities in which games were held, the economies of such cities experienced economic growth that was US\$4 billion less than would normally have been expected for the metropolitan areas concerned” (Matheson and Baade, 2003: 8). Instead, they found that cumulative losses ranging from US\$5.5 to US\$9.3 billion were experienced by the cities involved. Zimbalist (2010) maintains that the Olympic Games in Barcelona left the central Spanish government in debt to the tune of US\$4 billion, with the city and the provincial governments being left an additional US\$2.1 billion in debt. In addition, Zimbalist (2010) states that the Nagano Organising Committee experienced a US\$28 million surplus, while the various units of the Japanese government were left with a US\$11 billion dollar debt.

Furthermore, Saayman and Rossouw (2008), similarly, document other examples of the hosting of mega-events that have led to economic loss, rather than to gain. Such examples include “the hosting of the 1972 Olympic Games in Munich, which led to £178 million loss and the hosting of the 1976 Games in Montreal, which led to a £692 million loss” (Saayman and Rossouw, 2008: 3). However, Maennig (2007) has argued that some of the approaches used in calculating the economic effects of hosting mega-events are not reliable as most fail to consider the long-term effects of the event. Despite this, examples that have been advanced above has given rise to concerns which have been expressed by those who, in opposing the willingness of others to host such events, justify their opposition by claiming that major sporting events are not, in fact, economically viable for the host country concerned. Maennig (2007: 2) concludes that “the hopes that were held for significant positive effects, such as expanded tourism, employment and income, to be achieved from the hosting of the 2006 FIFA World Cup were not realised”.

Certain econometric studies suggest that mega-events are expensive to host and that they carry a significant amount of costs as the above discussion has shown (Ahlfeldt *et al.*, 2012; Humphreys and Egteren, 2012; Maennig and Zimbalist, 2012c). In analysing mega-event literature, two distinct broad categories of costs associated with hosting the FIFA World Cup can be seen. Such costs include those that cover the logistics that are involved with the management of the event and those costs that are related to investing in the stadiums and other infrastructure. The second set of costs relate to the infrastructure, safety and security, health services, and other undertakings to do with the hosting (Zimbalist, 2010).

Bowdin *et al.* (2006) and Matheson *et al.* (2012) indicate that expenditure on the hosting of mega-events represents an opportunity cost of resources which might have otherwise been spent on satisfying more pressing needs of the various communities involved. Likewise, Allmers and Maennig (2008) underscore that the spending on infrastructure could displace public funds, resulting in delays in the roll-out of other projects which are more directly in the interest of the general public. In the case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Cornelissen and Swart (2006) concur with such a finding, noting that opponents to the bidding for and hosting of mega-events argue that both the making of such bids, and the events themselves, are costly and that such resources, in the case of South Africa, could rather have been directed towards combating such problems as poverty and Human Immune Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS). The costs that were associated with the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup were not expected to yield a net revenue. Cornelissen (2010b: 3018) states:

Shortly before the tournament, it was projected that the event would earn the country R93bn (approximately US\$13.2bn) in revenue. The government invested more than six times that amount before the tournament (R600bn; US\$85.7). To place this in perspective, this is nearly one-tenth of South Africa's annual Gross Domestic Product, much more than what was spent by the Chinese authorities for the Beijing games.

Desai and Vahed (2010) criticise the cost of hosting the 2010 tournament when they argue that such financial resources would have sufficed to build ninety thousand houses a year between 2006 and 2010 for the local citizens. Ntloko and Swart (2012) conducted a post-2010 FIFA World Cup study that focused on the perceptions of local residents within a community in South Africa of the use of public funds. They found that almost half of the respondents (47%) expressed a concern that such funds had been misdirected and that they could have been better employed for use on other developmental initiatives. However, it remains to be

seen whether the investments might translate into positive or negative economic legacies for South Africa (Cornelissen, 2010b) despite FIFA making close to US\$3.2 billion from the 2010 FIFA World Cup in terms of revenue generated (Steinbrink *et al.*, 2011).

3.6.1.4 Increase in the price of goods and services

Researchers have identified that the hosting of mega-events might lead to an increase in the price of goods, services and property at host destinations, which might represent an economic and social burden for the local residents (Ritchie *et al.*, 2009). On this note, Saayman (2001) argues that during mega-events businesses tend to increase the price of their goods and services due to the high levels of demand that they experience as a result of the increased visitor numbers. Such an increase might have a ripple effect on the local citizens and communities. Similarly, Deccio and Baloglu (2002) also highlight the fact that the citizens of the host country have to bear the financial burden of increased taxation due to the amount of revenue that is required for developing the facilities at which the event is to be held. For example, the Maharaj (2011) draws attention to the significant rise in the construction cost estimate from what was originally anticipated in relation to the 2010 FIFA World Cup stadium development to what such costs ultimately were. According to Ritchie *et al.* (2009) and Gibson *et al.* (2012), perceptions of increased costs associated with the hosting of a mega-event might also impact upon the image of the destination from the perspective of prospective visitors. As was previously discussed in this chapter, the motives of sport tourists or travelling fans are determined by a range of factors, including costs (Smith and Fox, 2007). If such tourists perceive the destination to be expensive, this could dissuade them from making potential return visits or it might lead to word-of-mouth disparagement from such a tourist.

Linked to economic impacts are image effects, infrastructural development and urban regeneration which are discussed next.

3.6.2 Image effects of the host destination

A plethora of mega-event literature has postulated on the effects of hosting mega-events on the destination image and brand (Berger, 2010; Burton, 2003; Harris, 2011; Hiller, 1995; Kaplanidou and Vogt, 2007; Kim and Morrison, 2005; Knott *et al.*, 2012; Maguire, 2011; Malfas *et al.*, 2004; Preuss, 2002; 2007; Walker *et al.*, 2013). Most agree that a positive change in image is one of the intangible legacies that mega-events bring to a host destination. In this context, it is argued that international sport events are some of the most powerful and effective vehicles for the showcasing of place and for the creation of 'destination image'. As

Black (2007: 264) states, “beyond the incentives, there is the simple fact that sport mega-events, in conjunction with the contemporary media sports complex, provide unmatched opportunities for global visibility and exposure”. Giampiccoli and Nauright (2010: 43) assert that “the lure of large and spectacular events is an expedient way to attract media interest in a host city, which it is hoped will translate into an influx of capital through tourism and new investment”.

According to Matheson (2006), mega-event bid promoters argue that national exposure is a primary benefit of mega-events, and that, in most instances, it unquestionably brings intangible psychological value to the communities that host them. Matheson (2006: 5) further asserts that “the 1995 Rugby World Cup in South Africa represented the opportunity for the country to announce its re-emergence as a full member of not only the world’s sporting community but also its potential community”. In the life cycle of mega-events, Hiller (1995) advances that the media carry the details and progress of the bid which stimulates public interest and conveys a sense of a positive outcome as a ‘prize’ or achievement. The author further asserts that such media also transmit news of the logistical concerns of the organisers, with the sheer size of a large convention intensifying public interest in it as well as the need for cooperative public input to ensure the success of the event.

Matheson (2006) points out that the likelihood that sport fans and tourists will enjoy visiting the mega-event destinations so much that they will be likely to return there again later, thereby raising the future tourist revenues for the area. Preuss (2002) contends that when the tourists who attend mega-events return home, they will recount anecdotes of their experiences that will be likely to trigger off a multiplying effect of visitors. They can do so by way of changing the perceptions of friends or relatives about the destination concerned, which might motivate them to visit the destination(s) concerned themselves. Furthermore, Matheson (2006) adds that those who chose to watch the mega-event on television, rather than attending it in person, might decide to visit the host destination at some stage in the future based on what they witnessed during the broadcasting of the mega-event. It is for such reasons that mega-events are noted to contribute to the transforming of the image of the host city/destination concerned (Grix, 2012; Malfas *et al.*, 2004) and to raise the perceptions of such destinations to become ‘major-league’ or ‘world-class’ cities and travel destinations (Florek *et al.*, 2008; Ginsberg, 2010; Matheson, 2006).

According to Jago *et al.* (2010), some destinations use the hosting of mega-events as part of a process and strategy to reposition themselves internationally, with the extensive media contingent that is usually available during all phases leading up to the event having the power to convey such a message. In their examination of the effects of hosting the 2006 FIFA World Cup on Germany's image, Maennig and Porsche (2008) found that the international perception of the image of Germany changed positively, as a result of the event. Maennig and Porsche (2008: 14) state:

While at the start of 2006, in anticipation of a well-organised but soulless World Cup, the international press emphasised the characterising qualities of the German stereotype, such as reliability and success, the reporting during the tournament was characterised by terms such as party, pride, positively, peaceful, atmospheric and friendly.

Research conducted by Florek *et al.* (2008) tracked and analysed the destination image change among travelling New Zealand football fans, as a result of them having attended the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany. The study, which also adopted a pre- and post-event data collection methodology using questionnaire surveys and interviews, found that the direct experiences of the fans had influenced Germany's image in a positive manner. The fans noted that Germany was a friendly, cultured and inexpensive destination. Similarly, Gursoy *et al.*'s (2011) empirical study on the hosting of the 2008 Beijing Summer Olympic Games revealed that the local residents, as well as the government, viewed the Games as an opportunity to enhance China's reputation and image abroad. In this sense, and based on the above findings, the assertion by Nauright (2004) that mega sport events can yield an outstanding opportunity for re-imagining the local image is crucial to the importance of hosting prestigious sporting events. However, Allmers and Maennig (2008) and Grix (2012) contend that the quality of the impact to be obtained from projecting the image of a country hosting the World Cup largely depends on how well the country concerned is able to present itself as likeable, hospitable, progressive and capable of being an effective business location.

In terms of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the aspirations in terms of the improved image projected by the event extended well beyond the context of South Africa alone. An improved image for Africa was one of the pillars that served to underpin the 'African legacy' objectives linked to the event. The 2010 LOC, the South African government and various stakeholder groups defined the aims of the mega-event as to strengthen the African and South African image, and to promote the development of new international partnerships across the world, which would, hopefully, significantly raise the profile of Africa as a global player

(Cornelissen, 2010a; 2010b; Ginsberg, 2010; Ndlovu, 2010; Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2011). As was the case with the previous examples discussed earlier, the post-event media analysis studies that have focused on the 2010 FIFA World Cup have found that the event resulted in the projection of a positive image for South Africa (Swart *et al.*, 2012). According to Bob and Potgieter (2013), most of the visitors who attended the 2010 event reported that they were entirely pleased with the services rendered and that their overall experiences of the country as a tourism destination definitely served to recommend it to others, who expressed an intention to visit the destination in the future. However, how such a positive change in image is sustained in future, especially within the South African context, remains to be seen. South Africa has been noted globally as being a crime-infested destination that is subject to persistent negative media reporting (Donaldson and Ferreira, 2007) which has the potential to revert any positive image that might have been gained during the event.

For the African continent, Ginsberg (2010) and Tawfik-Amer (2011) postulate on the extent to which the 2010 event could have changed the image of Africa positively. They argue that, while the event was successfully hosted and while it might have altered any stereotypical and unorthodox views about the continent, many such alterations would have accrued largely to the host country, which remained the main focus of the transmission of positive images before, during and, to a lesser extent, post the event. Additionally, such acts of terrorism as were recently reported in Kenya, the persistent wars in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda and Somalia, and the ongoing political unrest in Egypt are factors that must be taken into account as having the potential to damage Africa's reputation globally. Swart *et al.* (2012) state that the 2010 FIFA World Cup was deemed to be a once-in-a-lifetime opportunity to position both South Africa and Africa as competitive tourism and investment destinations within the global context. Ginsberg (2010: 195) states:

Promoters hoped to utilise the World Cup 'to project a contemporary, reinvigorated image of Africa, through celebrating African culture and identity'. In essence, the 2010 Cup was a massive effort to create a 'common brand and identity as a continent', according to the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD).

Yet, any positive changes that have occurred in terms of the images of the African continent as a whole, due to the 2010 FIFA World Cup have, to date, not been supported by empirical data. According to Jago *et al.* (2010), the important role that is played by the media in terms of the distribution and the transfer of information, represents a strong opportunity for

attracting tourism. However, because ‘bad news sells well’, those destinations that host mega-events should ensure the designing of a media management plan to address related problems.

Another aspect related to image profiling is marketing and branding opportunities. According to van der Westhuizen and Swart (2011: 169), the marketing power of mega-events “relates to the kind of two-level games in which state elites are engaged”. They argue that, internally, marketing power “refers to attempts by state elites to shore up political legitimacy, reinforce a sense of national identity and placate those constituencies adversely affected by growing internationalisation of domestic issue area” (van der Westhuizen and Swart, 2011: 169). Black (2008: 471) suggests that, in a positive manner, the mass media exposure and the branding opportunities that are afforded by the hosting of mega-events are perceived as an extraordinary prospect for positioning the host city, the region and/ or the country concerned, so as to enable it to compete at a greater advantage in such new economy sectors as tourism, conventions and other services. Additionally, Black (2007) and Nicolau (2012) emphasise that, similarly, mega-events are often seen as a means of reshaping collective community attitudes and capacities so as to enable them to respond more effectively to competitive international pressures and opportunities than they might otherwise be able to do. Hence, Nauright (2004: 1330) suggests that mega-events can lead to a “strengthening of local cultures by re-marketing the same global product within a new niche. While the brand may be global, the sell is local”. According to Hall (2006: 59), “mega-events are therefore an extremely significant component of place promotion because they may leave behind social, economic and physical legacies which will have an impact on the host community for a far greater period than that in which the event took place”.

Lee and Taylor (2005) argue that the FIFA World Cup draws significant numbers of domestic and international tourists as well as attracting television and corporate sponsorships, as a means of showcasing the host location. Dolles and Soderman (2007) note that the viewer statistics for the 2002 FIFA World Cup in Korea/ Japan indicate a record cumulative audience of 49.2 billion people worldwide in terms of viewer hours. According to Harris (2011), the 2010 FIFA World Cup is estimated to have attracted a cumulative audience of over 40 billion people. Such viewership is seen to have presented a significant opportunity for the country to establish itself on the world stage. Allmers and Maennig (2008: 10) suggest that “World Cups are usually regarded as opportunities for self-marketing and image-building of the host nation’s enterprises”. Such opportunities are expected to produce lasting improvements in the host nation’s competitive environment.

3.6.3 *Infrastructural benefits*

The infrastructural legacies that are created by mega-events are associated with transport and telecommunication investments and buildings (Bob and Kassens-Noor, 2012). The most plausible source of long-term tangible benefits for host cities stems from the investment that is made, as a result of the mega-events, in the generic public infrastructure, in particular in terms of transportation (D'Arcy, 2006; Li *et al.*, 2013). When preparing to host mega-events, massive infrastructural development, in terms of the provision of facilities and accommodation, is a prerequisite (Dowse, 2011). Transport links and other infrastructure constructed for the event are one of the most visible legacies for a host city and can have real impact on social inclusion, if they are targeted at previously excluded groups (OECD, 2010). The impact might, however, vary among host cities and countries based on their level of development. Through accurate planning, the hosting of a large event can serve as a catalyst for the construction of modern transportation, communications and sports infrastructure (Malhado *et al.*, 2013; Swinnen and Vandemoortele, 2008; Zimbalist, 2010), which are perceived as the most significant benefits of the event by those residents who use the lasting facilities (Kim and Chalip, 2004). The possession of such facilities can boost economic growth in the long-term. Zimbalist (2010: 9) explains:

Beyond the construction period, sports-events generated infrastructure can provide the host metropolitan area or region with a continuing stream of economic benefits. The venues built for these events can be used for years or decades afterward. More important, upgrades to the transportation infrastructure can provide a significant boost to the local and regional economy, if local businesses are able to make use of the improved transportation infrastructure.

The sustainability of infrastructural investments after the hosting of a mega-event remains an important legacy issue. If they are sustainable, these investments can result in continued and long-term social and economic benefits. However, if they are unsustainable, these investments can become financial burdens and political embarrassments for the host countries and/ or cities concerned (Cornelissen *et al.*, 2011). Maennig and du Plessis (2009) and Harris (2011) argue the sustainability of such infrastructure from both a developed and a developing context. The authors argue that the experience of hosting a mega-event as a developing country is entirely different to that of hosting such an event as a developed country. They allude to the fact that while stadium construction is essential, the other infrastructural development requirements can be burdensome in terms of financial costs. The additions to the existing infrastructure, particularly in terms of satisfying any transport needs, might provide welcome relief for a developing country. However, in contrast, such additional infrastructure

may not be required by a developed country. In the context of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Maennig and Schwarthoff (2008) assert that the South African government expended £1.6 billion on improving its infrastructure in preparation for hosting the event. According to the Department of Sports and Recreation (2008), the expenditure was envisaged as overcoming existing infrastructure backlogs in roads, transport, sport facilities, telecommunication and broadcasting networks. Overall, the government pledged R400 billion between 2006 and 2010 for infrastructure development (Desai and Vahed, 2010).

Cost of stadium construction emerges as a key concern in relation to the hosting of mega-events, particularly in developing contexts. Such mega-events as the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games are large-scale events that require the development of a range of sport facilities, including large stadiums and training sites, to host them. The facilities in question are expected by the event owners (FIFA and the IOC, in terms of the above events) to meet the highest international standards (Preuss *et al.*, 2007). Stadium development that has been postulated upon in the mega-event literature is a critical component of the legacies that are associated with the hosting of mega-events (Cornelissen *et al.*, 2011). Large stadiums are a prerequisite for the hosting of mega-events, especially in the context of the FIFA World Cup, and are extremely costly affairs (Siegfried and Zimbalist, 2006). According to Desai and Vahed (2010), Jory and Boojihawon (2011), Maharaj (2011) and Tichaawa and Bama (2012), South Africa spent massive sums on building and renovating the football stadiums, with costs rising from an initial estimate of R2.5 billion to R8.4 billion by 2007 (to a projected R10 billion by 2008) (see Table 3.4 below). Given such massive investment as the table shows, increasingly, the long-term legacies and the sustainability imperatives that are associated with the hosting of mega-events are being questioned (Maennig and Zimbalist, 2012a; 2012b; Matheson *et al.*, 2012; Swart and Bob, 2009; Tomlinson, 2011; Torgler, 2004).

Table 3.4: Stadium costs associated with the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup

Project	Status	Cost in Rand
Cape Town Stadium – Cape Town	New construction	4.5bn
Nelson Mandela Bay Stadium – Port Elizabeth	New construction	2.1bn
Moses Mabhida Stadium – Durban	New construction	3.4bn
Peter Mokaba Stadium – Polokwane	New construction	1.3bn
Mbombela Stadium – Nelspruit	New construction	1.5bn
Soccer City Stadium – Johannesburg	Upgrade	3.3bn
Royal Bafokeng Stadium – Rustenburg	Upgrade	360m
Free State Stadium – Bloemfontein	Upgrade	245m
Loftus Versfeld Stadium – Pretoria	Upgrade	131m
Ellis Park Stadium – Johannesburg	Upgrade	240m

Source: Adapted from Tichaawa and Bama (2012)

While new stadiums that are constructed for mega-events give rise to novelty effects, increase in comfort, improved view and improved atmosphere (Allmers and Maennig, 2008), Cornelissen (2008a) argues that such developments might be disadvantageous to the host society if they are not used for the maximum benefit of the general populace after the mega-event has taken place. For example, Matheson and Baade (2003) and Li *et al.* (2013) assert that the underused stadiums that were built for the purpose of the 2002 FIFA World Cup in Korea/ Japan are now considered to be ‘white elephants’. Jago *et al.* (2010) argue that the maintenance of stadium facilities built for mega-events can become a serious drain on community resources, with some of the stadiums remaining unused long after the event.

Tichaawa and Bama (2012) conducted a post-2010 FIFA World Cup study on the Green Point residents’ perceptions of the event. They found that the residents expressed concerns about the increasingly high maintenance costs related to the upkeep of the Cape Town Stadium. Campbell and Phago (2008) recommend that the stadiums that are built for the purpose of hosting mega-events should be designed for multi-purpose use so as to ensure the long-term usability and sustainability of such facilities. This once more reinforces the idea that mega-events should be viewed as part of the host destination’s development strategy and that legacy issues must be embedded within the planning of such events.

3.6.4 Urban regeneration

Events may require land and building for specific purposes, but their use is only restricted by practicalities and the imagination of the designers and planners. Cityscapes can be transformed by new buildings or land reclamations that subsequently serve local communities and contribute to urban development strategies. (OECD, 2010:13)

It has been suggested in the literature that cities/ nations often bid to stage such events solely to achieve regeneration plans and to justify the need for local development projects as well as to trigger a wide range of urban improvements and restructuring (Anton *et al.*, 2011; Cottle, 2011; D'Arcy, 2006; Essex and Chalkley, 1998; Kavetos and Szymanski, 2008; Labuschagne, 2011a; Manzo, 2012; Smith, 2012; Steinbrink *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, mega-events have long been associated with the urban renewal of cities because of the opportunities to capitalise on the softer social and economic and environmental regeneration that they help to generate (Davies, 2012; Otto and Heath, 2009; Smith and Fox, 2007). For example, a key foundation of the Glasgow 2014 Commonwealth Games bid was to use the event to create significant urban regeneration of the East End, leading to the effective use of land that was considered to be rundown, and creating jobs for local Scottish citizens (Matheson, 2010). According to a report of the Culture, Media and Sport Committee in the House of Commons (2007), the London 2012 Olympic Games was expected to regenerate London and to benefit the surrounding areas through creating better linkages in terms of the long-term transport infrastructure from which citizens could benefit, post-event. Ohmann *et al.* (2006) acknowledge that besides the relatively short-term impact of collective sharing in respect of mega-events, the residents' quality of life can be augmented in a more long-term way by means of urban regeneration.

Many studies have highlighted the positive long-term urban regeneration that the city has enjoyed since then, which has led to economic growth (Smith, 2012) in sectors of the economy, including tourism (Gratton and Preuss, 2008). For example, Brunet's (2005) review of the economic impact of the Barcelona Olympic Games over the period 1986–2004 found that Barcelona's hosting of the Games was a remarkable success and that it contributed significantly to urban regeneration and to the attractiveness of the city. However, Barcelona's success has been duly attributed to the fact that the organisers integrated the event with the city's long-term developmental goals (Preuss, 2006).

As a result of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, nine South African cities (including Johannesburg, Durban, Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Bloemfontein, Nelspruit, Polokwane and Rustenburg) hosted games during the tournament. These cities devised detailed plans around stadium provision, transport, accommodation, urban renewal and security. Most also ensured that empowerment companies and small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) benefited from the 2010-related projects (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). Furthermore, McKenna and Bob (2010) assert that the new sporting facilities and the revamping of most cities in terms of the general infrastructure tend to make cities in South Africa more functional. All such plans and improvements were geared towards consolidating the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an event that would change the face of South African cities and which would leave a lasting positive legacy for the citizens concerned. Regarding the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany, Ohmann *et al.* (2006) indicate that improved road traffic conditions and reduced air pollution were some examples of socio-environmental benefits to stem from such a mega-event, resulting from the physical changes that were made to, and the transformation of, urban areas and peripheries. Such benefits have been credited with stimulating local economic development and growth (Sun and Ye, 2010). However, as Kavetos and Szymanski (2008) caution, urban regeneration requires sustained investment in facilities for day-to-day living, rather than the showcasing of specific events.

3.6.5 Social impacts of mega-events

In tourism and event discourse, the social impact and legacy dimension has received much attention from researchers (Getz, 2005; Hinch and Higham, 2011; Malfas *et al.*, 2004; Weed and Bull 2010a; 2010b). However, according to Ohmann *et al.* (2006), consensus has yet to be reached in terms of defining social impacts with reference to specific events, including large-scale and mega-events. Bull and Lovell (2007) claim that the difficulty lies in the fact that these impacts are less tangible than the former, and therefore less publicly newsworthy than are the solid facts and figures that can be gleaned after an event, as is the case with the figures that relate to economic impact. For example, Bull and Lovell (2007) further explain that such intangibles as civic pride, community cohesion and the sense of spectacle and atmosphere might be listed as benefits; while crime, prostitution, overcrowding and congestion might be listed as negatives, but that these elements are rarely evaluated and are certainly not the focus of public sector event measurement toolkits. Based on such circumstances, Ohmann *et al.* (2006: 130) describe social impacts as “changes in the structure and functioning of patterned social ordering that occur in conjunction with an environmental, technological or social innovation or alteration”, while referring to them as “the changes of quality of life or residents

of tourist destinations”. Furthermore, Ohmann *et al.* (2006) argue that while the former definition elucidates both a description of the social impacts concerned and the reasons for them taking place in terms of environmental, technological and social influences; the latter simply lay bare the relationship between social implications and tourism but fail to explain why social impacts take place.

According to Bob and Swart (2010: 48), many of the social impacts that are related to mega-events originate from economic impacts. The social impacts have the ability to improve upon or to worsen the quality of life of host community citizens. Specific positive and negative impacts are examined thematically below.

3.6.5.1 Community pride and feel-good effects

An increased sense of community pride, enhancement of the quality of life, the strengthening of cultural values and traditions and the building of national pride are some of the positive social impacts that are associated with the hosting of events and that are suggested within the relevant literature (Labuschagne, 2011b; Richards, 2013; Ritchie *et al.*, 2009; Zimbalist, 2010). According to Black (2008: 470), mega-events are seen as occasions for the promotion of a celebratory sense of national unity and pride and for the re-imagining of communities and regions as positive, forward-looking and outwardly oriented. He further argues that such events, in socio-political terms, present opportunities for promoting volunteerism, social participation and “unity and friendship among participating regions”. These statements by Black (2008) describe the phenomenon that mega-events have a strong symbolic function which invokes a sense of community, excitement and emotion for the destinations that host them (Lee and Taylor, 2005; Richards, 2013).

The positive effects of community pride and social cohesion have been widely acknowledged as being an intangible legacy in mega-event research. du Plessis and Maennig (2009; 2011) put forward the notion that the feel-good effect might be the most evident positive outcome of a sport mega-event. du Plessis and Maennig (2011) posit that while the ‘feel-good effect’ of mega-events refers most obviously to the impact that such events have on the locals, there is a related potential impact on foreigners due to an improved international perception of the host country. According to Maennig and Porsche (2008) and Kavetsos and Szymanski (2008), the interrelations between the strengthened national sense of identity and the change in the international image of the host destination coupled with the feel-good effect of those involved, are considered through multidirectional cause-and-effect chains. In contrast, the

positive national self-appraisal that is brought about among the local host citizens by an event can be interpreted, first of all, as an indicator of a distinct quality of life and, therefore, as a manifestation of the feel-good effect as well as possibly also being regarded as an initiator of a change of any local stereotype (Maennig and Porsche, 2008).

Several studies have exemplified the extent to which mega-events contribute to the sense of community and national pride in terms of the ‘feel-good’ factor. For example, in analysing the impact of the 2002 FIFA World Cup on South Korea, Kim *et al.* (2006) note the local populace excitement following the host nation’s victory over Spain in the quarter-finals of the tournament on 22 June 2002. Furthermore, Lee and Taylor (2005: 602) conclude that “the success of the South Korean football team provided the country with a sense of national pride and cohesiveness, which no economic impact assessment could match in terms of dollar value”. Correspondingly, Maennig and Porsche (2008) observe the successful performance and the demeanor of the German national football team during the 2006 FIFA World Cup which led to an increased identification of Germans with their country and team. For that reason, the World Cup is seen to have brought to Germany a sense of patriotism that had not otherwise been known for a long time. Furthermore, Gursoy *et al.* (2011) concluded that the local residents exhibited a strong sense of national pride in Beijing’s hosting of the 2008 Summer Olympic Games. Therefore, the victories that are attained through the successful hosting of mega-events by the host nations concerned often serve to boost a sense of national pride and passion. As Nauright (2004: 1330) argues:

Sporting events provide opportunities to try and force a sense of community through a collection of values that often has little to do with the people who are supposed to adopt them. Arguably, the values associated with the Olympics – humanity, peace, fair play – are easily transferable between communities.

Although the performance by the South African national team (Bafana Bafana) during the 2010 tournament was not satisfactory, Baines (2010) argues that given South Africa’s history, which is characterised by racial segregation that has led to an endemic sense of mistrust, the event served to reignite a feeling of passionate commitment to a common goal and a commitment to national healing for the country as a whole. As a means that was noted to have further helped to build the sense of national pride and passion as well as of social cohesion amongst South Africans, the Football Friday initiative was developed. Such an initiative was developed and implemented by the LOC and SAFA together with the Department of Sport and Recreation. It encouraged all South Africans to rally behind the national football team by

wearing a soccer jersey on the days in question. Such an initiative, according to Labuschagne (2011b), contributed significantly towards a sense of nation-building and social cohesion. Such a feel-good effect is the net result of the beneficial effects of personal experience and leisure leading to enhanced social cohesion and to a feeling of increased civic pride (Burbank *et al.*, 2012).

3.6.5.2 Sport for development and participation effects

The sport-for-development discourse is mostly directed towards disenfranchised collectives within the wider population such as girls and women (gender), people with disabilities (ability), ethnic minorities (race), senior citizens or children (age), people suffering from diseases of stigma (HIV/AIDS), and/ or class distinction (socio-economic vulnerability) (Burnett, 2010). The growing significance of sports mega-events in the present age and the greater attention that public authorities pay to such events as vehicles for development (Cornelissen, 2011b) has led to events having been “known to increase sport participation and provide a sense of well-being through fun and enjoyment, leading to self-fulfilment and achievement, and ... [the encouragement of] ... social interaction and cohesion for those who may feel socially excluded” (Malfas *et al.*, 2004: 214). Furthermore, events also have the potential to advance the culture of sport in host cities or countries, both through raising a sense of awareness and in the construction of state-of-the-art facilities. The increased awareness could enhance physical activities in schools and the development of youth leadership through coaching recruitment and education as well as community participation (Reis *et al.*, 2013; Shipway, 2012).

Maennig and Porsche (2008) assert that by way of adopting a number of projects, the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany was used to motivate the population (especially the young) to become involved in sporting activities and in voluntary work as well as in charity campaigns and in initiatives fostering tolerance and integration. In the same light, Shipway (2012) states that one of the main challenges for authorities in the run-up to the London 2012 Olympic Games was to use the event to develop suitable and accessible sport development programmes and to adopt initiatives that would lead to increased participation in physical activity and exercise in Britain beyond the Games. According to Burnett (2010), mega-events are, therefore, seen as drivers of social change through the development of sports, with sport being regarded as being instrumental to change. Stewart-Withers (2011: 6) states that “sport contributes to social and emotional wellbeing as participants develop feelings belonging, camaraderie, pride and a sense of achievement. It also said to be a means for promoting

inclusion, health and wellbeing for those outside of mainstream, for example, people with disabilities”.

Cornelissen (2011b) points out that the South African government’s investment in the World Cup formed part of its 2010 social legacy while for FIFA, its support for the sport and development programmes fed into a wider set of objectives around ‘international (sport) development’. Many foreign donors or international NGOs provided funding or other means of support for community-based or focused initiatives. Partnerships and funding are crucial for the development of sport, specifically regarding the game of football in Africa which suffers from structural problems, despite it being the most prominent sport on the continent (Darby *et al.*, 2007; Pannenburg, 2010; Vidacs, 2010). Hence, the formation of strategic partnerships for the delivery of sport development (identifying and nurturing athletic talent) and promoting the sport development agenda in developing countries, cannot be overemphasised (Burnett, 2010).

One of the main thrusts of the African agenda and of the African Legacy Programme linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup was to use the event and to accelerate the development of football throughout the entire continent (Alegi, 2008; Davies, 2009; Tomlinson, 2011). The AU urged member states to invest in national sport programmes and to identify AU sport ambassadors to help implement the International Year of African Football, ‘Sports for All’ programmes and the 2010 FIFA World Cup Legacy Programme. In January 2007, the AU’s Assembly of Heads of State and Government launched 2007 as the International Year of African Football, to reinforce the sense of solidarity with South Africa in its hosting of the World Cup, in commemoration of the 50th anniversary of the CAF and to celebrate the history of football in Africa. Through this initiative, the AU sought to promote sport as an instrument for sustainable economic development and poverty reduction as well as for peace, solidarity and social cohesion (Ndlovu, 2010).

Sport events are also linked to philanthropic projects that are aimed at benefiting local communities, especially those that have been classified as disadvantaged (Bob and Swart, 2010a). Several sport development initiatives were adopted and supported in Africa as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, although most were biased towards the game of football. For example, the Win in Africa with Africa programme which Walker *et al.* (2013) assert was conceptualised with the aim of developing the game of football in Africa and of using football to touch the African continent and to build a better future for Africa. Cornelissen (2011b: 520)

argues that this programme centred on the improvement of the physical and human resources for football in Africa: “thus components of the programme focused on the establishment of artificial football pitches in the 52 FIFA affiliated associations across the continent, the training of the coaches and the development of national league, the latter mainly through indirect methods of support”. Furthermore, Cornelissen (2011b) maintains that another initiative that was implemented was an offshoot of the Win in Africa programme. The health promotion and educative initiative offshoot, known as ‘The 11 for Health in Africa’, made use of football to teach youth about disease prevention (including the spread of HIV/ AIDS) and about how to maintain a healthy lifestyle. According to Cornelissen (2011b), a second international initiative that was associated with the 2010 event was the ‘1 Goal Education for All’ campaign which was a FIFA legacy project. It culminated in the Education Summit that was held just before the kick-off of the World Cup, but which had its roots in a civil society movement for the improvement of global education access and standards that was quite unconnected to the World Cup (Cornelissen, 2011b). Closely linked to the above initiatives was the Youth Development through Football (YDF) initiative which was established in July 2007. Co-funded by the European Union (EU), the YDF aimed at using the popularity of football to promote youth and community development in economically disadvantaged communities in Africa, so as to afford boys and girls the opportunity to receive an education and capacity-building skills (Burnett, 2010). The aforementioned initiatives have the potential to contribute positively to the development of African society through sport, thereby attaining social legacies for the continent.

Notwithstanding the legacy benefits that can accrue from the Sport for Development programmes, most of the initiatives that are linked to the African Legacy Programme have been criticised for various reasons. Firstly, Cornelissen (2011b) questions the motives of and the kinds of impacts resulting from FIFA’s ‘Win in Africa’ programme, in terms of using the 2010 event to create benefits for the wider African continent. She laments that the flagship ‘20 Centres for Hope’, in particular, has so far only managed to materialise in slow increments. By the end of 2010, several months after the tournament had drawn to a close, only one-fifth of the 20 envisaged centres had been completed, with construction on the remainder having been delayed. Furthermore, Bob and Swart (2010) have expressed a concern that the lifespan of the subjects are not stipulated and that due to their limited spread across Africa, it remains debatable whether such a project will continue to emerge as a long-term legacy. Secondly, Pannenberg (2010) asserts that given the poor history of sustaining football infrastructure in many African countries, such facilities might be lost in the not too

distant future. The author suggests that such initiatives aimed at developing artificial football fields to aid grassroots development are a welcome contribution to the infrastructure of any nation, but that they will do little to offset the lack of underdevelopment of the game in Africa. Lastly, Cornelissen (2011b) argues that FIFA effectively determined the context within which sports for development programmes in Africa was defined and implemented; the body was, in some instances, also the primary initiator of the programmes themselves.

3.6.5.3 *Crime, safety and security*

According to Barker (2004), Getz (2005) and Guilianotti and Klauser (2010), the risk of crime, violence and hooliganism is profound and rife during the hosting of sport events. Hence, George and Swart (2012), Perry *et al.* (2012) and Taylor and Toohey (2007) argue that security issues are a concern in the production of sport mega-events. Matheson (2004) points out that mega-events present prime targets for terrorists, as was witnessed by the bombing of the 2000 Olympic Games in Atlanta and by the Israeli athlete tragedy at the 1972 Munich Games. Ohmann *et al.* (2006) see events of such a nature as being likely to be the scene of both premeditated and opportunistic crime, with the latter largely consisting of theft, drunkenness, disorderly behaviour and vandalism.

Jago *et al.* (2010: 230) state:

As a result of the enormous international media attention that many mega-events receive, they have increasingly become targets for the activities of protest and terrorist groups. The activities of these groups can range from demonstrations and blockades through to bomb threats, bombings, kidnappings and killings.

Consequently, in terms of mega-event bids, one of the key aspects that potential candidates are required to guarantee is the ability to combat crime and to organise a secure event (Burger, 2007; Donaldson and Ferreira, 2007; Matheson, 2006). In terms of the Olympic Games, Matheson (2006) alleges that providing adequate security is now a standard requirement of the IOC. Furthermore, crime perception studies that seek to determine the motivation or the demotivation to attend mega-events have consistently found that crime is a major concern related to events and that it has featured as a negative constraint on the attending of events (Barker, 2004; Kim *et al.*, 2006; Maennig, 2007; Swart *et al.*, 2010). From an event organiser's perspective, Boo and Gu (2010) caution that risk management should be an essential part of event management, because risk can be a direct cause of a failed or

unsuccessful event. Therefore, considerations of risk management could be even more important than is the planning and the designing of events.

A major theme that has also emerged in literature on sport tourism and crime is the role that is played by the media in covering such an area of common interest. Matheson (2006) argues that negative media reporting can ruin the reputation of the host region. In the case of developing countries (Pillay and Bass, 2009) and specifically on the continent of Africa (Hammett, 2011), the media (specifically Western media) have been known to perpetuate negative images of destinations, especially when major global events are to be hosted. This was particularly true in the case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Several researchers have paid special attention to the crime levels in South Africa and to the effects on the economy and on society (Demombynes and Ozler, 2005; Donaldson and Ferreira, 2007; Ferreira and Harmse, 2000; George, 2003; Swart *et al.*, 2011; Tatalias, 2007). What was noteworthy was the general agreement that crime was rife in South Africa at the time of the World Cup. However, the media reporting (both domestically and internationally) has been shown to have been somewhat biased in terms of negative reporting, with the levels of crime reported not having been supported by the statistical data on crime related to the period in question. Such negative reporting contributed to influencing the negative perceptions about the country at the time.

To be able to host a mega-event successfully, the ability to combat crime and to guarantee the safety of visitors and citizens during the event is of paramount importance (Barker, 2004). However, such an ability is difficult to achieve as the development of an appropriate strategy or plan requires strategic implementation (Burger, 2007). A major legacy for South Africa was the investment of R666 million in state-of-the-art security and surveillance technology, including the implementation and maintenance of closed-circuit television (CCTV) cameras, national and local command centres, radio communications technology and helicopters as well as the recruitment and training of an additional 31 000 police officers for the 2010 World Cup. These investments were envisaged as making a significant contribution to the government's long-term plans for a safer South Africa (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008).

3.6.5.4 Xenophobia

Xenophobia is referred to as a strong feeling of dislike or fear of people from other countries (Desai and Vahed, 2010). In academic literature, most studies agree with the fact that xenophobia refers to a negative attitude towards or a 'dislike of' foreigners (Harris, 2012; Landau *et al.*, 2004). Xenophobia has become an important phenomenon in contemporary South Africa (Kersting, 2007). Some commentators have noted the high levels of social distancing and xenophobia that have been shown against foreigners from other African countries in South Africa (Crush, 2008; Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2011). Xenophobic attitudes have translated into several violent attacks that have been made on foreigners in recent times (Harris, 2012). There were serious fears that xenophobia would flare up during the hosting of Africa's first ever mega-event (Maharaj, 2011; van der Westhuizen and Swart, 2011). Besides South Africa being perceived as a destination of crime (Burger, 2007), an outbreak of xenophobic attacks that occurred on 11 May 2008 in Alexandria Township, which is located in the outskirts of Johannesburg, propelled such fears. The attacks that eventually spread across the country, left over 40 people dead and some 16 000 people displaced (Desai and Vahed, 2010).

According to Desai and Vahed (2010), the attacks which were widely publicised by both the local and international media fuelled perceptions of a tainted image resulting in a negative impact on tourism and the anticipation of low visitor attendance for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, particularly by soccer supporters from other African countries (Cape Times, 2008). The above assertion is corroborated by Consultancy Africa Intelligence (CAI) (2008) whose study of the state of readiness, risk and reliability of South Africa for its hosting of the World Cup tournament confirmed that the attacks had raised concerns about South Africa's high crime rate and about the potential risk posed to foreign fans who wished to attend the tournament in 2010. However, Tichaawa and Swart's (2010) study of the perceptions of soccer fans regarding the 2010 event in Cameroon, in terms of their expectations and intentions related to attending the event, rejected the idea that xenophobia was a determinant factor as far as travel to South Africa was concerned.

Contrary to such fears, a post-event study that was conducted by Achu and Swart (2012) on resident African immigrants in Cape Town and the 2010 FIFA World Cup found that the majority of such immigrants had not been concerned about xenophobia and had rather noted that the event had acted as a conduit to 'heal' their relationship with the local citizens.

According to Maennig and Porsche (2008: 7), mega-events have the ability to initiate feelings of ‘tolerance’ and ‘friendliness towards foreigners’.

Furthermore, Ohmann *et al.* (2006: 134) suggest that nationalism and subsequent inter-group tensions might also occur as a consequence of the presence of fans from different countries. Such feelings are reflected in offensive, xenophobic and anti-Semitic abuse against players and fans from opposing teams which might be a feature at several international and regional football tournaments. A recent example of such tensions is that which resulted in an outbreak of fan violence between English and Italian football supporters during the 2008 UEFA Champions League match between Manchester United and AS Roma (UEFA, 2008).

According to Hammett (2011: 64), South Africa was able to project positive images globally during the 2010 World Cup, which positively changed the previously media representation of Africa from one that had largely been framed by “colonial and neo-colonial power relations that often invoke paradoxes between attraction and fear of Africa”. Hammett (2011) suggests that this decline in negative reporting was witnessed in the British media. However, the recent series of xenophobic attacks that have occurred in the year of the current study (that is, 2013) alone has had the potential to undermine the positive gains that have been made so far. As Swart *et al.* (2011) observe, the challenge for destinations that create such positive intangible social legacies as improved image and crime levels is to devise ways of sustaining such legacies.

3.6.5.5 Displacement, overcrowding and congestion

According to Kim *et al.* (2006), mega-events are known to have social impacts including overcrowding and congestion, and the displacement of local citizens due to the preparations for and the hosting of the events. Smith (2012) argues that such displacement which could affect the local housing and other amenities can disrupt the lives of host community members. Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) suggest that over 300 000 people were removed from various locations because of the hosting of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. To further articulate the phenomenon of displacement, Ohmann *et al.* (2006) suggest that the residents of the communities that host mega-events events tend, on average, to feel less inclined to frequent local amenities during the event. This is due to the anticipated crowding of public and private facilities such as buses and underground trains, restaurants and shops by the event visitors. Instead, they might choose to avoid these places or they might decide to leave the area entirely.

Considering that mega-events tend to attract several thousands of sport tourists, spectators and organisers (Hinch and Higham, 2011; Preuss, 2013; Smith, 2012; 2013), the host community residents might experience overcrowding and congestion due to the potential increase in the volume of traffic flow (Ohmann *et al.*, 2006). Large-scale sport tourism events should, therefore, be carefully designed and managed to minimise the potential negative impacts at host destinations, thereby increasing the quality of the visitor and host citizen experience (Higham, 2005; Merkel, 2013; Richards, 2013).

3.6.5.6 Increase in levels of prostitution

Research regarding the relationship between prostitution and the hosting of mega-events has received limited attention (Bird and Donaldson, 2009). Ohmann *et al.* (2006: 133) note the substantial influx of prostitutes from Asia and parts of Australia experienced both prior to and during the holding of the 1986 America's Cup in Fremantle. Such an influx was attributed to the anticipation of a higher demand than average in the area, resulting from the number of event visitors requiring sex industry services. The authors observe that the local government responded to such a development by adjusting the laws and regulations governing public morality and by extending the trading hours for hotels, pubs and nightclubs for the duration of the event (Ohmann *et al.*, 2006). In the run-up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup, similar calls for legalisation regarding prostitution for the duration of the tournament were echoed by former National Police Commissioner, Jackie Selebi, who argued that making such a move would facilitate the combating of crime, indicating that similar decisions had been taken during the Olympic Games in 2000 and 2004 (Bird and Donaldson, 2009; Cape Times, 2007). In the aftermath of the event, there was little evidence to suggest that prostitution had been a major cause for concern during the event in South Africa.

3.6.6 Political impacts of mega-event

With the potential to expand soft power capacity, mega-events tend to be primarily promoted for economic-based goals, including for reasons of foreign investment and tourism, infrastructure development and urban regeneration. However, there is a secondary focus on the less tangible outcomes related to nation-building and consolidating of political legitimacy (Dowse, 2011). Mega-events provide unique opportunities for the “pursuit of symbolic politics – a chance to signal important changes of direction, to ‘reframe’ dominant narratives about the host, and/ or to reinforce key messages about what the host has become/ is becoming” (Black, 2007: 262). Mega-events are noted to have the ability to capture global attention and to elevate the levels of popular interest in the host nation as well as to provide a

platform for the raising of their profile and projection of positive messages to the international community as well as for changing their political image (Cornelissen, 2011b; Dowse, 2011; Hall, 2006). Furthermore, Clark (2008) argues that mega-events present an opportunity for host destination political actors to work on a common project and to achieve event goals. The OECD (2010) states that mega-events tend to lead to improvements in collaborative governance at the host destination. As Bob and Swart (2010: 82) state, mega-event “political legacies relate to encouraging participation, good governance and democratic principles”.

Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2011: 401) sums up the political implications of the 2010 World Cup:

The World Cup gave the political leadership of South Africa an opportunity to link the mega-event directly to the project of nation-building. Bafana Bafana immediately assumed the status of a national symbol and became a powerful signifier with a strong populist effect. A young nation working to become cohesive, South Africa took advantage of the patriotic spirit that was ignited by the World Cup to try to consolidate the nation-building project. This involved making nationalism the ‘daily life glue’ that united the people around particular symbols across racial, ethnic and generational divides. Vuvuzelas, Bafana Bafana T-shirts and the national flag were used as ever present symbols of national political renewal.

According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006) and Swart and Bob (2012b), South Africa has specifically pursued the strategy of attracting and hosting large-scale events with a view to maximising the events’ potential for nation-building and reconciliation created in opposition to previous apartheid policies. Nauright (2010) postulates that South Africa used the 1995 Rugby World Cup as an opportunity to foster national cohesion. Additionally, Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2011) argue that the 2010 FIFA World Cup was equally positioned to achieve this key political legacy. Cornelissen (2010b: 3017) underscore this capacity when she states that “given the country’s recent history of racial segregation and its negotiated path to majority rule, a distinct sense of exceptionalism shapes South Africa’s posturing towards international politics in general and the moral authority generated from the political transition to democracy to enhance its diplomatic stature”. Harris (2011) argues that Germany had also used the 2006 FIFA World Cup to change its image internationally.

A key political characteristic that emerged from the 2010 FIFA World Cup and that had never previously been associated with any mega-event hosted was the political expectation that South Africa attached to its hosting of the mega-event. As the framework in chapter two detailed, the event encompassed domestic and foreign affairs, and accentuated the implications of the event for the entire African continent. Cornelissen (2010b: 3017) argues

that, in adopting this approach, South Africa wanted to “establish itself as a leader and spokesman for issues regarding African development”. Cornelissen (2004a), Cornelissen and Swart (2006) and Black (2007) suggest that the naming of the event as ‘the Africa World Cup’ was aimed at countering the effects of Afro-pessimism on tourist arrivals and investments in the continent, which Dieke (2009) argues had largely suffered from global politico-economic forces. Cornelissen (2010b) concluded that the 2010 event enabled the country to project an African identity, in terms of its international relations, in order that it might fulfill certain diplomatic objectives in relation to Africa’s position in the international sphere. Furthermore, Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2011) emphasises that the event was used as a way of influencing a paradigm shift in Western perceptions of Africa, which also formed part of the African Renaissance agenda. According to Ndlovu (2010: 148), the fact that South Africa’s consultation with the AU and with other continental multilateral bodies such as the Southern African Development Community (SADC) showed the desire of the nation to strengthen the pan-African identity of the event and also to promote South Africa’s leadership of the overall effort exerted at this stage in the country’s problematic history.

Nevertheless, Ginsberg (2010) asserts that the 2010 event was, if anything, an ‘un-African World Cup’. Ginsberg’s thesis is that event owners FIFA, the South African government and the LOC promised the revelation of ‘Africa’ during the ‘African World Cup’, but that rather the execution was merely a global operation, adorned with African accessories. Ginsberg (2010: 201) further highlights that instead of the desired revelation, the ‘Africa’ that was tasked with invalidating Afro-pessimism and with rearticulating ‘Africa’ was restricted either to a vision of efficient competence that was not uniquely ‘African’ or to the imagery of warm hosts and indigenous soccer paraphernalia, both of which were ideally suited for neoliberal hegemony. Ginsberg’s argument is supported by Dowse (2012: 2006) who observed that amidst “a great deal of scepticism ... [there was scant possibility that] ... the 2010 event could be seen as anything like an African event”. The scepticism, she maintains, originates from the fact that there was a general failure to market the event concertedly throughout the rest of Africa. However, Cornelissen (2010b: 3022) believes:

There is a close interplay between internal and external political factors in relation to the host state, and some paradoxes often rise from the hosting of mega-events as a result of domestic political volatilities or the wider external position of the state. These significantly shape the outcomes and success of the events in term of hosts’ initial political strategies.

The OECD (2010) views the increased cooperation, in the form of the partnerships that develop between stakeholder groups, including between the public and the private sectors, and between the political groupings and elites, as a result of hosting a mega-event as a means by which to achieve developmental goals.

3.6.7 Environmental impacts

Every human activity, including tourism and sport, has an impact on the environment. The growing recognition of the rapidly increasing impacts of climate change upon tourism patterns (Frost and Liang, 2010; Govender *et al.*, 2012) has exacerbated the debates surrounding the development and the promotion of mega sport tourism events (Preuss, 2013). Environmental externalities have, in recent times, been recognised and considered by public and private agencies in terms of the adoption of international agreements by national, regional and local governments, and by their agencies announcing their commitments to behave in a more environmentally friendly manner. Additionally, even sport associations and sponsoring organisations have recognised the need to understand the environmental impacts of the activities that they sponsor, host and regulate (Collins *et al.*, 2009; Preuss, 2013).

Sport tourism events, specifically mega-events, are composite in nature and they attract large number of visitors at destinations that host them (Cornelissen *et al.*, 2011; Knott *et al.*, 2012; Lepp and Gibson, 2011; Lyck, 2006; Preuss, 2013; Smith and Fox, 2007). Due to such large number of visitors and to the scale of development that is required, such events should be considered in line with the environmental effects that they bring (Otto and Heath, 2009). In the literature that has focused on mega-events and the environment, earlier analysis by Kasper (1998) identifies three areas of concern require analysis, namely, the impact on nature (of sport venues and infrastructure); problems that might occur during the event and the post-event use of sport facilities and infrastructure. Kasper (1998) states that the most visible impacts of mega-events include the amount of natural environment that is used and the degree to which it is disrupted by the construction of roads, railways and parking spaces. According to Otto and Heath (2009), additional negative environmental consequences that are identified by the United Nations Environment Programme include the development of scarce or fragile land; noise and light pollution; the overconsumption of natural resources (such as water and wood); the creation of greenhouse gases through electricity and fuel consumption; and soil erosion during construction and as a result of the spectators' presence. Liang and Frost (2010) and Zhou *et al.* (2010) also suggest that waste management, recycling and carbon emission are of major concern to mega-event organisers. The aforementioned negative impacts are, in

part, some of the reasons that the FIFA World Cup and Olympic Games, in particular, have often attracted criticism for them being hosted at sensitive locations and due to the contribution that they have made to climate change (Bob and Naidoo, 2012; Collins *et al.*, 2009).

Notwithstanding the negative environmental impacts discussed above, mega-events can be positive for the environment as they can lead to the urban regeneration of host cities in terms of sporting facilities, upgrading of water and sewage services and event-related transport improvements that continue to benefit the host population post-event (Collins *et al.*, 2009; Davies, 2012; Smith, 2013). Hence, long-term infrastructural improvements and planning have been strongly emphasised as bringing about environmental improvements in the mega-event discourse (Coalter and Taylor, 2008). However, the development of large-scale stadiums for mega-events has been known to be controversial, with debates focusing on their sustainability (Ma *et al.*, 2011; Maharaj, 2011; Searle, 2002). Mega-events are also seen to provide the opportunity for substantial demonstration effects where sustainable actions and actions can be ‘piloted’ and their efficiency assessed for wider implementation (Collins *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, mega-events, especially those that have been staged according to eco-friendly principles, are able to act as mechanisms that lead to greater environmental awareness and which help to focus on the need to preserve elements of the physical landscape and of the local heritage (Bob and Naidoo, 2012; Deccio and Baloglu, 2002; Kasper, 1998; Preuss, 2012). The above-mentioned benefits might not have been politically or financially feasible without the hosting of the mega-event (Cornelissen *et al.*, 2011), despite the fact that environmental impacts frequently form part of the environmental strategy of a country or of a destination region within a country (Dodouras and James, 2004).

Cognisant of the negative environmental impacts that are associated with mega-events, Preuss (2013) elucidates that one of the main challenges for countries that host mega-events is finding new ways in which to improve environmental performance. Such ways should conform to the objectives to secure positive, long-term environmental legacies (Bob and Naidoo, 2012). The environmental legacies here relate to achieving sustainability objectives that entail the minimising of negative impacts of the natural resource base, the reducing and managing of waste and the decreasing of pollution (Bob and Swart, 2010a). Consequently, such environmental tactics as ‘greening’, as employed by mega-event LOCs, have largely focused on implementing sustainable ways of developing event facilities and activities. Such ways could include building energy-efficient and renewable powered accommodation and

facilities or the implementation of waste avoidance and water use minimisation measures (Collins *et al.*, 2009; Govender *et al.*, 2012). In addition, mega-event organisers tend to encourage visitors to use public transport when travelling during the event as well as the adoption of environmentally friendly building materials, and the methods of minimising any potential negative impacts (Collins *et al.*, 2009). However, the difficulty in developing a green event, according to Liang and Frost (2010: 264), “involves more than just ensuring that the operations and venue are environmentally or culturally sensitive. The event itself can be used to promote a green message through avenues such as themed displays or stalls, presentations, etc.”.

According to Death (2011), the event greening of such major spectacles as the Olympics, the World Cup and large international conferences has come to be increasingly common. The greening of mega-events has become even more important as both event tourists and local residents are increasingly being educated about the environment and about the need for its sustainability. For example, when Karadakis and Kaplanidou (2012) investigated the impacts of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games, they found that environmental legacies ranked highest in terms of importance for the local residents, suggesting that they were concerned about such legacies. Furthermore, Preuss (2013) asserts that mega-event right owners, such as FIFA and the IOC, in their awarding of the rights to host their respective events, require candidates to include in their bid documents how negative environmental consequences will be addressed and how positive environmental legacies will be advanced. Collins *et al.* (2009: 830) state:

There is also a strong desire on the part of institutions such as the International Olympic Committee and the FIFA to be seen as part of the solution and not part of the problem, for example, through their adoption of environmentally friendly bidding and planning processes.

Table 3.5 below presents an analogy of two recent major event bids, namely the Munich Olympic Winter Games 2018 and the Pyeongchang Olympic Winter Games 2018. The table illuminates the assurances given as to how the candidate cities plan to use the event to curb negative environmental concerns and to create environmental legacies.

Table 3.5: Promises of candidates bidding to stage the 2018 Olympic Winter Games

Munich Olympic Winter Games 2018	Pyeongchang Olympic Winter Games 2018
<p>The environment and sustainability programme is centred on “Flagship 18: A Concept for Sustainability Benchmarks for the Winter Games”, developed by the bid, with 18 projects in regard to climate change, protection of the natural environment, sustainable sport and regional development, and environmental education and awareness. This programme would be mostly government-funded, with a budget of US\$117 million. There would be ‘green space’ legacies, and a proposed ‘Centre for Sustainability’ would be created in Garmisch-Partenkirchen to provide a foundation for environmental and sustainability education and research in the region.</p> <p>A total of only 1.3 ha of forest would be removed for venue alteration and construction for the Games, with at least that amount of space being replanted in compensation. The bid committee stated that no protected areas would be damaged.</p> <p>The plan for a carbon-neutral Games, based on energy saving, renewable energy and carbon offsets, takes into account all Games-related air travel (including that of the spectators).</p> <p>The bid committee’s aim is for the Munich Olympic Village to achieve the Gold standard under the ‘German Sustainable Building Council’ certification system, which focuses on minimising energy consumption, and on reducing energy consumption by 30% at existing venues to be renovated (and used for different sports) for a 2018 Games.</p> <p>All major construction projects – including competition and non-competition venues – would be subject to strong German legislation in regard to energy consumption and standards for new buildings and renovations, and the use of renewable energy. The bid committee stated that all new venues would be supplied with 100% green energy from renewable sources.</p>	<p>The Environmental Management Plan focuses on six areas of action: climate change (a carbon-neutral Games and the generation of renewable energy); ecosystem protection; water conservation; the achievement of zero waste (recycling, and the minimising of waste); sustainable regional development; and the promotion of environmental awareness.</p> <p>Games plans fit into a regional energy development plan, as well as into national, regional and local environmental protection plans. There would be strong governmental involvement in the delivery of environmental actions.</p> <p>There would be an innovative Games programme in regard to energy sustainability and efficiency. All new competition venues would be designed to achieve net-zero greenhouse gas emissions and Pyeongchang 2018 aims to achieve LEED platinum-level certification (in terms of a US-based system of energy and water conservation, and waste stream management, along with the utilising of sustainable materials and methods). At some venues, the sustainable building certification objectives of LEED platinum status could be difficult to achieve.</p> <p>Of the electrical energy demands for the Games, 73% would be met by existing renewable energy facilities, and the aim is that a planned additional wind power generation plant would help to achieve 100% renewable energy for the Games. The ‘Special Act’ to be passed for the Games includes provisions in regard to carbon neutrality and renewable energy self-sufficiency. Existing competition venues will be upgraded to reduce their carbon emissions by more than 90%.</p> <p>The bid committee stated that 94 ha of forest, including 63 ha of forest area, would be removed for the development of new venues. Tree planting would compensate for this, with planting of twice the area lost. Although the development of the Jungbong venue is likely to have a significant site impact, the Commission received assurances that the forest preservation area would remain protected.</p>

Source: Preuss (2013)

Some studies have focused on evaluating the post-event environmental legacies of mega-events. Zhou *et al.* (2010: 292) examined the impact of transportation control measures that were adopted as part of the Green Goal initiative of the 2008 Olympic Games in Beijing, with specific focus on emission reductions. They found that “the co-effects of traffic flow reduction, traffic congestion improvement and banning of high-emitting vehicles helped reduce direct emissions from motor vehicles by more than one half”. For the 2006 FIFA World Cup hosted in Germany, Maennig and Porsche (2008) established that to avoid traffic

and ecological problems, the ecology project ‘Green Goal’ was operated and extensive transport infrastructure investments were realised. For example, through ecological mobility measures, the greenhouse gas emissions of the World Cup were reduced by almost a fifth. The initiative in Germany succeeded in decreasing the amount of electricity emissions from an estimated 75 400 tons to 2 490 tons, and in decreasing the amount of transport emissions from an estimated 90 000 tons to 73 000 tons (Maennig and Porsche, 2008).

As was the case with Germany, South Africa committed itself to and adopted the Green Goal initiative (Ahmed and Pretorius, 2010; Bob and Naidoo, 2012). Such a commitment was supported by the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Marthinus van Schalkwyk, in his declaration that “South Africa is committed to greening the World Cup by focusing on the basis of four pillars: conservation of water and energy, waste management, transport and mobility and carbon offsetting campaigns” (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008: 21).

In order to support the broader objective of hosting an African World Cup and leaving a lasting legacy, the former Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism had devised a Transfrontier Conservation Area Strategy. The programme was envisaged as directly benefiting tourism sectors in such countries as Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). However, the extent to which such initiatives have been successful has yet to be determined and supported by post-event research endeavours.

A study that was conducted by Death (2011) and which focused on attaining the greening objectives concerned, reported that South Africa had largely succeeded in enhancing biodiversity protection and city beautification, public transport upgrades and energy efficiency measures at stadiums. Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012: 18) propose the use of environmental legacy indicators when examining related legacies created by the event. They contend that the environmental legacy indicators are concerned with the number of environmental programmes created and the types of green requirements imposed for hosting smaller events in South Africa. Furthermore, new standards for the construction of sport infrastructure that adhere to sustainable and green principles are providing further evidence to ascertain the World Cup’s environmental legacy.

This section of the literature has addressed the impacts that are associated with hosting mega-events generally. As can be seen from the above discussion, several impacts occur when such

events are hosted. The economic consequences are dominant and are linked to social impacts. Furthermore, the discussion also supports Swart and Bob's (2012a: 5) criticism that "the nature and extent of specific impacts (short-term and long-term) tend to be neglected with the main focus being on economic as well as related infrastructural and tourism impacts". Swart and Bob (2012a) stress that it is important to have a deeper understanding of the nature of these impacts. Their notion is that overlaps and interactions exist between many of the (positive/ negative) impacts summarised in Table 3.6 below. Swart and Bob (2012a: 5) exemplify this when they state:

There are strong relations between economic, tourism and media related impacts. Furthermore, clearly a specific aspect can result in either positive or negative impacts and often can have concurrent effects. For example, while media coverage can portray components of a destination in positive light, specific incidents can generate or reinforce harmful perceptions.

Understandably, the financial implications for destinations that host mega-events has meant that the research on their economic outcome is common place (Baade and Matheson, 2004; Maennig and Zimbalist, 2012a; 2012b; Tomlinson, 2011; Torgler, 2004). Likewise, as the previous chapter has illuminated, the research that seeks to determine the rationale of such events, in terms of long-term legacy impact outcomes has also proliferated (Cashman, 2002; 2005; Gaffney, 2010; Gratton and Preuss, 2008; Gratton *et al.*, 2005; 2006; Matheson, 2010; Preuss, 2007; 2013; Swart and Bob, 2012a). However, a major criticism that can be drawn from the above impact studies is that most have focused on either host cities (in the context of the Olympic Games) or countries (in the case of the FIFA World Cup). Few have considered the broader geographical impact that such events can have in an entire region. This research aims to close this gap.

Table 3.6: Summary of the advantages/ disadvantages associated with the hosting of mega-events

	Advantages	Disadvantages
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Destination profiling • Increased tourism • Induced development and construction expenditure • Trade and business/ investment proportion • Increased property values • Employment creation • Improved image and profile of destination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exodus of residents • Interruption of normal business • Lack of accountability • Loss of community ownership and control • Increase in the cost of living/ price hikes • Increased taxes • Public debt and opportunity costs • Cost escalation (especially in terms of infrastructural projects) • Underutilisation of infrastructure • Risk of event failure
Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Destination promotion and increased number of tourist visits • Extended length of stay • Job creation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community resistance to tourism • Loss of authenticity • Damage to reputation • Inflated prices • Opportunity costs
Media	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased media coverage • Improved image of destination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative media coverage
Socio-cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National pride and unity • Community development • Civic pride • Skills enhancement and development • Shared experiences ('feel-good factor') • Increased community participation • Introduction to new and challenging ideas • Sport development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disruption of resident lifestyles • Traffic congestion • Noise • Overcrowding • Community alienation • Bad behaviour • Substance abuse • Loss of amenities • Entrenched inequalities • Limited distribution of benefits • Violation of human rights (for example, forced removal of residents)
Physical/infrastructural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sport infrastructure • Improved transport and communication facilities • Increased and improved accommodation facilities • Urban transformation and renewal • Acceleration of infrastructural plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintenance costs • Vandalism • Damage to property • Underutilised facilities
Environmental	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Greening of events • Increased environmental awareness and education • Showcasing of natural resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pollution • Increased waste • Increased use of water and energy • Degradation of the natural environment • Destruction of the natural heritage
Political	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International prestige • Social cohesion • Development of administrative and governance skills • Improved capability to bid for, and host, events • Strengthening of regional cooperation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Propaganda • Manipulation of the public • Creating of tensions within regions

Source: Adopted from Swart and Bob (2012a)

Since the legacies highlighted above also represent a barometer that the proponents of mega-events and local community stakeholder use to validate or to judge the hosting of such events, the importance of planning with a view to creating long-term legacies are important. The nature and significance of planning for mega-events and associated legacies are discussed next.

3.7 The significance and process of planning for legacies

An Olympic Games that is successfully staged and financially managed leaves a positive legacy for the host city in terms of new and upgraded sporting facilities and venues; new and improved infrastructure; enhanced international recognition; enhanced international reputation; increased tourism; new trade, investment and marketing opportunities; and increased participation in sport.

(Chalip, 2002: 3)

In acknowledgement of the potential legacies for cities that host the Olympic Games and within the broader principles of the Olympic Movement in the modern day, the above quote serves to re-emphasise the importance of achieving positive legacies, underpinned by the planning, development and execution of every aspect of the event (Chalip, 2002).

Within the context of tourism and events research, early work by Bramwell (1997) suggests that the lack of planning during and after mega-events with the view to maximising host community benefits. Cashman (1998; 2002) shares Bramwell's sentiments when he argues that too little attention has been paid to planning for post mega-event legacies. He reasons that destinations that host mega-events are rather focused on winning the mega-event bid and on planning for the staging of the event, whereas the post-event period tends to be neglected.

In their study, from 'event-led' to 'event-themed', Smith and Fox (2007) argue that the lack of strategic planning in regard to mega-events has resulted in missed opportunities for event regeneration strategies. Where such planning has been attempted, Smith and Fox (2007: 1130) suggest that "when a more strategic approach has been undertaken by host cities, it has tended to be characterised by top-down planning and there have been few instances where communities have actively participated in planning large event projects". Owing to the increased scrutiny of mega-event bids to see whether they include key aspects of securing legacies for the destinations that host mega-events, as is required by such event owners as FIFA and the IOC (Jago *et al.*, 2010), and in the light of the increased sense of loss that is experienced by community members as a result of hosting a mega-event (Gursoy *et al.*, 2011), legacy planning has recently become a buzzword in the hosting of mega-events (Bohlmann and van Heerden, 2005; Kirkup and Major, 2006; Girginov, 2012). Despite the emphasis that has been placed on the future hosts of mega-events including legacy plans in their bids, Jago *et al.* (2010) argue that the challenge of time and budget constraints has meant that such a requirement might not be properly crafted and executed. This is emphasised by Smith and Fox (2007: 1130) who state that "the frailties of event planning are perhaps explained, although

not excused, by the apparent incompatibility of short-lived events with long-term planning. The deadlines and timetables associated with staging events often result in established planning procedures being compromised”.

In terms of good practice, it has been widely acknowledged that the planning for mega-events should be done during all phases of the event (that is, prior to, during and post-event) if the sustainable legacies are to be maximised (Bramwell, 1997; Bramwell, 2011; Cashman, 1998; Girginov, 2011; Gratton and Preuss, 2008; Smith, 2013; Smith and Fox, 2007). According to Matheson (2010), the planning for mega-events should involve all stakeholder groups concerned, including local residents. Matheson (2010: 11) posits that at the city level, legacy plans may focus “upon prosperity, physical activity, community inclusion, accessibility of the city, environmental improvements and image building. Pre-event evaluations can be employed in legacy planning to outline the state of play and identify potential implementation challenges”. Andranovich *et al.* (2001) recommend that such plans should reflect the long-term development agenda for the national government concerned. This was successfully done for the 1992 Olympic Games that were organised in Barcelona. Bohlmann and van Heerden (2008: 384 citing Bunet, 2005) state:

Barcelona’s use of resources and planning was exceptional and their minimising of organisational costs and careful planning with regard to the required investment and funding thereof had led to tremendous gains for the city after the event. As a result of its triumph on all levels, the Barcelona Games have become a model from a sporting, organisational, economic, social and urban planning perspective.

However, as Andranovich *et al.* (2001: 121) observe, organising a mega-event is more than a complex logistical task, as it requires concrete decisions regarding “the physical development and use of the urban landscape, which opens the development process to contestation”. Cashman (2002) categorised Olympic legacies as comprising of the following: economics; the built and physical environment; information and education; public life, politics and culture; sport; and symbols, memory and history. If such legacies are to be obtained, a more systematic approach to planning is required (Ma *et al.*, 2011), rather than relying on optimistic forecasts of benefits and the underestimating of costs, as is emphasised by Whitson and Horne (2006).

Figure 3.6 was developed by Preuss (2007) and modified by Gratton and Preuss (2008) to explain the process of building up planned legacies for mega-event host destinations. The figure depicts that the strategy of building up event legacy starts with the decision to bid for a

specific mega-event (1). Each event differs in the structures required, with each city or country differing in the structures that are available. For example, if a strong tourism legacy is identified as being the reason for hosting an event, then the city or country concerned should pick an event with high media coverage in its tourism target group. Preuss (2007) and Gratton and Preuss (2008) further explain that strategic consideration requires focusing on the additional structures that a mega-event requires and on how the structures concerned can satisfy the city's long-term needs. During the candidature process (2), some required structure (that is, 'obligate measures'), as well as some 'optional measures', are developed. By means of the latter measures, the bidding committee tries strategically to establish the best possible position for itself in the bid competition. Therefore, some of the measures involved might indicate the presence of a valuable legacy for the sport federation, although it might not be sustainable for the city or the country involved. During the preparation stages for the event (3), the obligate infrastructure has to be completed. However, to build up a strong legacy, 'optional measures' should be embedded within the infrastructure so as to improve the location factors that are required for the city concerned in the long-term. In terms of tourism, such measures might focus on the building up of the tourism infrastructure on the fabrication of cultural goods and on extending the tourism service industry. During the event (4), the whole event structure is present. Additionally, the momentum of the mega-event creates emotions and affects the image of the host country/city. Post-event (5), some of the event structure vanishes, while most of the structures will exist, for a relatively long or short time (Preuss, 2007).

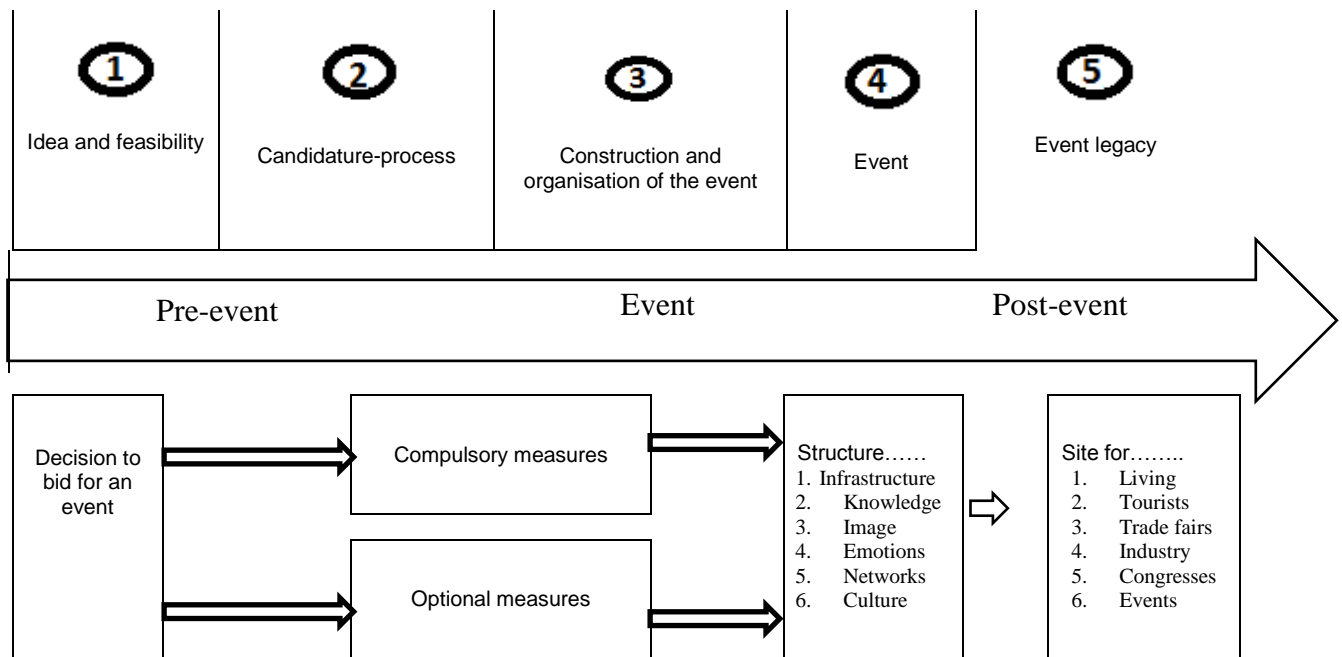


Figure 3.6: Process of building up planned event legacy

Source: Gratton and Preuss (2008)

In the above figure, Preuss (2007) and Preuss and Gratton (2008) assume that there are six types of event structures that are usually preserved after a mega-event. Four of these – infrastructure, know-how, networks, and culture – are developed, almost as a matter of course though the preparation of the event, the emotions and the image, are dependent on the momentum that the event develops. According to Preuss (2006), the pre-event brings with it investments in a number of programmes and, in the event itself, local demand is boosted. While all of this boosts the local economy in the short-term, the key to any long-term effects lies in whether and in how they leave a permanent legacy in terms of the infrastructure or in terms of industry competencies (Preuss, 2006). However, to ensure success, Gratton and Preuss (2008) emphasise the need for international sport federations, the media and political elites to cooperate, in order to stage an event successfully, with their interaction creating networks. In general, the hosting of mega-events tends to improve political networks such as the close partnerships that can be formed between the central government and the other stakeholders. Matheson (2010: 12) recommends that the “identification of stakeholders responsible for legacy planning, the funding of legacy, the constitution of legacy within the host community and ensuring legacy plans are timely and incorporate plans following the event” be done from the onset. This view is echoed by Jago *et al.* (2010: 232) when they state that, “[i]f legacies are to be realised, there needs to be a separate group to the event organising body responsible for legacies and this group must have a separate budget that cannot be transferred back into the event operations budget when funds become tight”.

According to Matheson (2010), when legacy planning is untimely and when no evaluations are performed at key stages of the mega-event (that is, from pre-event to post-event), problems are likely to occur. Bob and Swart (2010) rearticulate that the legacy concerns that have given rise to the debates in the academic literature surrounding mega-events are the massive financial investments that are required by the host countries, especially those in the developing world. Furthermore, van der Merwe (2007:68) states:

Mega-events which are hosted in the developing countries can be termed a ‘mixed blessing’ since, although they may bring promise of numerous economic benefits and the hope of uplifting the host nation in a number of ways, these events also tend to be the ‘source of much controversy’, and if not carefully planned, can lead to enormous financial losses.

Ritchie and Adair (2002) emphasise the importance of legacy planning for host destinations. They state that, without careful strategic planning that keeps the destination and community development in mind, it might be difficult to justify the large investments that are required to host the event. Bohlmann and van Heerden (2005: 393) advocate the need for comprehensive legacy planning, which could ensure that “hosting a mega-event would contribute to the development of the community, and thereby benefit residents for a long period of time”.

3.8 The 2010 FIFA World Cup African Legacy Programme objectives

South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was important, in that it was conceptualised in such a manner that the post-event should not merely provide positive spin-offs in terms of sport, but that it should also act as a catalyst for socio-economic growth and development in Africa (Tichaawa and Swart, 2010). Some authors (Bohlmann, 2006; Chalip, 2002; Cornelissen, 2010a; 2010b; Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2011; Bob and Swart 2010) believe that mega-events of such a magnitude have the potential to act as such a catalyst. According to the South African government, the event was expected to contribute effectively to the awakening of Africa’s potential as a prosperous, united and influential global colossus (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). To achieve positive legacy results, Preuss (2013) and Dickson *et al.* (2011) caution on the need for careful planning and execution at all phases of the mega-event cycle (prior to, during and post-event). According to the OECD (2010: 16), “a legacy programme should include both short-term and longer-term initiatives, and should focus on both the direct and indirect impacts of the event, and also address wider institutional co-ordination benefits”.

Figure 3.7 below illustrates the five key components of a legacy programme that are relevant to the 2010 FIFA World Cup and to the building of a positive legacy for the African continent. The figure illuminates the fact that the strongest legacy results are likely to be achieved by using a comprehensive programme comprising five components which are initiated at the bidding stage and refined throughout the mega-event life cycle. The implementation of such a programme should help to ensure that the goal of masterminding the legacy is integrated into the overall vision of the event (A.T. Kearney, 2005: 5).

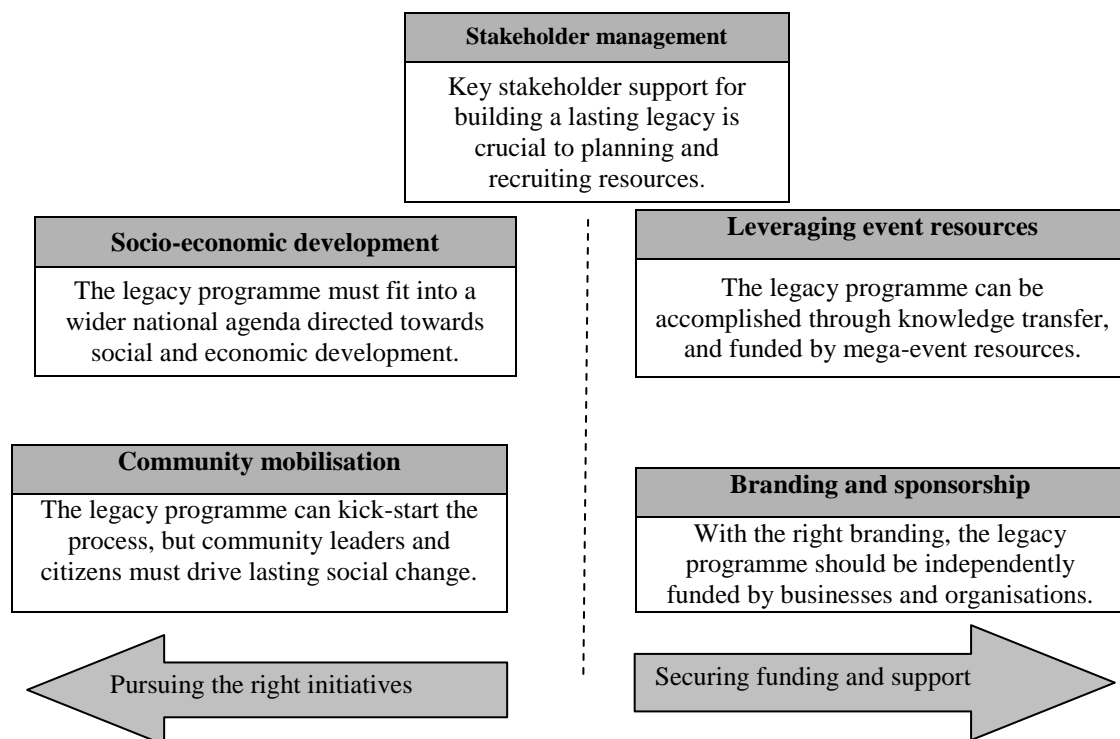


Figure 3.7: The five components of a legacy programme

Source: A.T. Kearney (2005: 6)

According to Matheson (2010: 12), venue and infrastructure improvements have ranged from housing and tourist accommodation projects, through transportation and communication developments, water system and sewage disposal plant improvements, city developments, to the creation and development of sports, entertainment and leisure facilities (Andranovich *et al.*, 2001).

As was mentioned previously, in November 2006, the African Legacy Programme, which was made the joint responsibility of the South African government and of the LOC, was initiated in response to the objective of making the 2010 FIFA World Cup an African event, which

would leave a lasting legacy for the entire African continent. Cornelissen (2011b: 514) explains:

The LOC and national government's Africa Legacy Programme had four aims: to support the achievement of the goals contained in the concept of the African Renaissance and the objectives set by continental frameworks such as the African Union and the New Economic Partnership for Africa's Development; to ensure high levels of participation in the tournament by the African Union and the New Economic Partnership for Africa's image globally as a means to counter Afro-pessimism.

The programme aimed to support the realisation of African Renaissance objectives, by means of such programmes as the NEPAD, which was devised by the AU to ensure maximum and effective African participation during the 2010 event. The programme also aimed to strengthen, develop and advance African football, as well as to improve Africa's global image, while it also aimed to overcome any remaining Afro-pessimism (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). The African Legacy Programme received strong support from key stakeholders, including FIFA, CAF, the UN and the AU. For example, the 8th Assembly of the AU Heads of State and Government reaffirmed its undertaking to become fully and substantively involved in the preparations leading up to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Member states also pledged all-round support and urged the international community to provide the necessary support to South Africa for the event (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008).

According to the South African government (South African Tourism, 2007), projects embarked upon under the African Legacy Programme fell mainly within the domains discussed below:

Peace and nation-building: Driven by former African Heads of State and the UN, the initiatives undertaken in this domain are aimed at supporting those continental efforts that promote peace, nation-building and democratisation in Africa. The projects envisaged in terms of such initiatives include the Peace Caravan, which is a campaign that focuses on countries that have experienced social challenges for protracted periods of time, and on interactions with the relevant key stakeholders (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008).

Football support and development: The domain includes initiatives that are directed at building football-related capacity. Such initiatives included working with other partners on the continent towards developing administrative and refereeing prowess as well as toward

developing advanced coaching and medical expertise skills (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2008).

Environment and tourism: In terms of this domain, the initiative, which had been dubbed ‘The Greening of 2010’, focused on the following issues of concern: waste management, water and energy savings, sustainable stadium maintenance, sustainable transport solutions and carbon savings; using the funds that were raised to support awareness campaigns. Although the focus of the initiative was on South Africa in particular as the host nation, related opportunities for continental collaboration would also be investigated. The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was expected to make a significant impact on the increasing of awareness about those environmental issues that affected the lives of all those living on the African continent (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008).

Culture and heritage: Projects in this domain were to be implemented with full and active participation from key arts and culture stakeholders, including traditional leaders. Such projects included the training of young curators from different parts of Africa in the field of art, culture and heritage issues; the training of young translators from different parts of the continent in different languages; the establishing of a museum dedicated to the display of contemporary African art; the organising of numerous pan-African arts, craft and music festivals; and the arranging of annual African Legacy conferences to be held on the continent (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008).

Communications and information communication technology: The 2010 FIFA World Cup event provided a unique communication opportunity for African communicators to express and to promote African solidarity; to market the continent and to improve international perceptions; to promote the continent to visitors; to promote values supporting peace and development; and to create a positive communication climate, in which to promote development and to expand opportunities. Such an opportunity was made possible both by the intense world attention that was focused on the event, and by the continent’s ability to control global news during the event (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2008).

Continental security cooperation: The 2010 FIFA World Cup presented a unique opportunity for the creation of a legacy which was characterised by enhanced cooperation amongst countries. Such cooperation effectively enabled the addressing of those security threats that affect the continent such as terrorism, the cross-border smuggling of illegal substances and

human trafficking. Legacy spin-offs in this regard include the joint training of security service members to combat crime, the establishment of mechanisms directed towards securing joint control command, the implementation of additional control and communication systems aimed at promoting cooperation in respect of peace and security in Africa, and the use of South Africa's National Security Framework, which had been devised for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, as a blueprint for future mega-events that would be hosted on the African continent (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008).

Though several initiatives have already been adopted in relation to the legacy objectives mentioned above, careful planning and implementation by the stakeholders was to determine how successful and sustainable the programmes concerned ultimately would be. A.T. Kearney (2005) notes that by devoting time and dedicating the resources required for planning and implementation, host nations and regions could secure a positive future long after the event concluded. In addition, the OECD (2010: 16) cautions:

A legacy programme should be driven by robust leadership and implemented with dedicated resources and skills which are distinct from the efforts required to host the event, but co-ordinated effectively with them. Much evidence suggests that the efforts required to stage the event are all consuming and the resources allocated to it cannot be expected to deliver on all of the legacy activities and wider benefits at all.

According to Smith and Fox (2007), a clearly designed and implemented legacy programme is likely to generate a number of positive benefits for the host destination community and for stakeholder groups. Although several legacy programmes had been designed and implemented for previous mega-events, the African Legacy Programme was rather unusual, simply because it aimed to achieve a continent-wide legacy as opposed to a legacy that was confined to the host country, South Africa.

However, the design of the African Legacy Programme has been criticised either for being rather overly confident, or for South Africa having advanced and strengthened its own position thereby. Tawfik-Amer (2011) argues that by using the African narratives, South Africa's aim was designed only to gain African support for its bid. Whatever the case might be, what is lacking in the analysis of the legacy impacts of the 2010 event in Africa according to the aforementioned objectives, is in relation to the extent to which the leveraging of the objectives was achieved.

3.9 Leveraging mega-event legacy impacts

As the above discussion on the nature of economic impacts has articulated, the pursuit for mega-event positive economic legacies has proven to be controversial since such legacies have, in most cases, not yet been realised. More so, the use of public funds for the development of mega-events has been equally controversial (Pillay and Bass, 2009), especially in the face of the recent global economic meltdown (Andreff, 2012) and in line with the demand for a better quality of life through the eradication of societal challenges including the inadequate education system, poverty, and HIV/AIDS (Ntloko and Swart, 2012; Swart and Bob, 2009). According to Maennig and du Plessis (2011), where the economic benefits of mega-events are evident, such benefits are often exaggerated and in most cases they do not filter through equally to the host community stakeholder groups. Sookrajh (2008) and Bijkerk *et al.* (2012) argue that the positive economic returns accruing from mega-events are still largely concentrated in the hands of a few individuals, as opposed to being shared among the host destination's population. Within these arguments, Zimbalist (2010) raises the question that if the economic gains are uncertain or even perhaps non-existent, what can host cities and regions do to maximise the benefits of hosting mega-events? Zimbalist (2010) offers a convincing argument that a careful examination of past experience suggests two important ways in which the benefits can be maximised: first, the host cities and regions need to make careful land use decisions and, second, they should maximise the post-event use of the new and renovated facilities and infrastructure. In this sense, according to Chalip and McGuirly (2004), the mega-event is leveraged. The OECD (2010) asserts that a key focus for legacy and leverage impact should be the host community, local businesses and local stakeholders.

Leveraging in the context of a mega sport event is the process whereby the benefits gained from hosting such events are maximised (Chalip, 2004; O'Brien, 2006). Furthermore, Chalip (2004) explains that leveraging could be understood in terms of both short- and long-term trajectories. He posits that the short-term leveraging strategy could be developed and achieved through the creating of activities that can be conducted around the event itself, while the long-term leveraging could be used to expose and to market the mega-event host destination in the global arena. Beesley and Chalip (2011) and Chalip (2006) assert that leveraging seeks to refocus events evaluation in a manner that is particularly useful for subsequent event bidding, planning and production. The purpose of event leverage is, therefore, to identify and to explore event implementations that can optimise desired event outcomes.

According to Beesley and Chalip (2011), the standard approach to leveraging mega-events has been to examine the impacts that such events bring. Chalip (2002: 7) states that “this approach treats the event itself as the intervention. However, the conscientious application of strategic leveraging recognises that the event itself is not the intervention, rather it is an opportunity to implement particular tactics which may foster and nurture the impacts that are desired”. For example, Chalip (2006) observes that sociability is thought to attract attendees and to encourage their spending. Event-related events, informal social opportunities and ancillary events are typically used to increase economic impact by lengthening or intensifying the period of event spending.

According to Chalip (2006), leveraging has a strategic and a tactical focus with the objective of identifying the strategies and the tactics that can be implemented prior to and during an event in order to generate particular outcomes. Consequently, the outcomes themselves are pertinent to the degree that they provide information about which leverage requires that the host destination’s assets (tourism assets, media assets, complementary events, etc.) be brought about to bear, the event is studied with reference to the efficacy with which the host destination’s product and service mix was employed to enhance the event’s impacts.

Chalip (2002) considers the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games to be an event that witnessed a paradigm shift within the extent of event leverage. He argues that although other previous host cities and countries have invested in tourism marketing and advertising campaigns, no previous host has put together a coordinated leveraging strategy on a comparable scale to that of Sydney. However, Australia’s success in leveraging was due to the leveraging of the Games country wide as opposed to the host city – Sydney. Chalip (2002; 2006) stresses that Australia’s leveraging of the Games with a view to generate positive tourism returns was developed and conceptualised around four core strategic elements: (1) the repositioning the country by capitalising on the media coverage; (2) the aggressive seeking out of convention business; (3) the minimising of the diversion effect of the Games; and (4) the promoting of pre- and post-Games touring. However, Chalip (2002) expresses the opinion that for each strategy required a number of different supporting tactics should be implemented. However, Chalip and McGuirly (2004) emphasise that mega-event organisers should market the event together with the range of attractions that the host destination has to offer to the potential event tourist.

Within the context of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, leveraging the event to the entire African continent was a major driver to securing the bid for the event (Cornelissen, 2010a; 2010b), and for mobilising continent-wide support (Desai and Vahed, 2010; Maharaj, 2011; Ndlovu, 2010) for the event. The organisers sought to use Africa's first mega-event to extend the socio-economic benefits attained to other African countries (Tichaawa and Swart, 2010), hence the designing and the adopting of an African Legacy agenda linked to the event. The leveraging attempt by South Africa and the LOC, although well supported, has received much critical attention in terms of the intentions and the success levels. Firstly, Ginsberg (2010) advances the argument that the benefits of the 2010 event were unlikely to have been widespread, and that the poorer or the disadvantaged sections of society were less likely to have leveraged opportunities created by the event. Secondly, Tawfik-Amer (2011) criticises the fact that the leveraging attempt by South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup organisers could have only benefited South Africa in terms of it asserting its economic dominance in Africa. The author relates to the challenge of the making of a concerted commitment to the African Legacy Programme, given that many African states are faced with immediate socio-economic imperatives that must be overcome. Conversely, as the discussion in chapter two has shown, a concerted effort of cooperation between the various community stakeholder groups, including the public and private sectors, could assist in leveraging the positive legacies that might have accrued in the African context.

3.10 The importance of measuring stakeholder perceptions of mega-events

Studies of the resident reactions to community tourism first emerged in the late 1980s when event tourism began to be recognised in both the industry and academia; this illustrates the recognition of the significant role that is played by local residents in the success of community tourism (Andereck and Nyaupane, 2011; Chen, 2011). Understanding perceptions of the impacts of mega-events on local stakeholders is vital for the overall success of an event (Gursoy *et al.*, 2004; Hiller and Wanner, 2011). Gursoy and Kendal (2006: 606) state that “for a mega-event to be successful, the understanding and participation of all stakeholders in the process is crucial”. Therefore, resident perception studies that focus on mega-events as the FIFA World Cup are crucial since perceptions might change over time as is noted by Ritchie *et al.* (2009). When analysing the sustainable legacies for the London 2012 Olympic Games, Shipway (2007: 120) cautions:

An awareness and understanding of host community perception associated with major events like the Olympic Games will have practical significance as event organisers, regional, county and local tourist boards, regional and country-wide sporting governing bodies, regional development agencies, regional government offices and other stakeholders try to balance the needs of sports competitors, sports fans and local residents.

According to Deccio and Baloglu (2002) and Ma *et al.* (2013), community stakeholder reactions to mega-events are largely influenced by the perceptions of the cost versus the benefits, classified in terms of the triple bottom line of tourism (economic, social and environmental). Lorde *et al.* (2011), Gursoy *et al.* (2011) and Munien and Majola (2012) hold the view that local residents' perceptions about the nature of mega-event impacts vary. Some might perceive an event as having mainly positive impacts, while others might perceive that the event is bringing about negative impacts. For example, Ritchie *et al.* (2009) conducted a non-host resident perception survey of the 2012 London Olympic Games, in which they found that resident support for the event was much stronger pre-event than it was during the implementation phase of the event. Along similar lines, Kim *et al.* (2006) examined the pre- and post-event resident perceptions of the 2002 FIFA World Cup in Korea, finding significant differences in relation to the socio-economic benefits and costs involved. In Zhou and Ap's (2009) appraisal of the post-event perceptions of residents towards the impacts of the Beijing 2008 Olympic Games, they reported a strong level of support among the residents for the hosting of the games. However, as noted previously and emphasised as the key motivation for this study, community perceptions are generally confined to local stakeholders. This study broadens the scope of what constitutes a 'community' to a continental level.

Glynn (2008) and Viviers and Slabbert (2012) mention that mega-events can forge new links among actors as when corporate sponsors interact with civic or public bodies that manage the mega-event. Such connections can configure fields, by bringing new actors into contact with one another or by strengthening or weakening the existing links among actors. For instance, cooperative sponsorship can loosen the competitive relationships between firms when those same firms cooperate to stage the mega-event. Therefore, understanding the perceptions of such actors is crucial in managing their relationships and in meeting their expectations as linked to the event.

Furthermore, Gursoy *et al.* (2011) argue that even though hosting such a mega-event as the Summer Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup requires considerable investment of human, financial and physical resources from the communities concerned; the communities

still compete against one another to host the mega-events because of the benefits that are expected to accrue for the community and the local businesses concerned. However, Maennig and Porsche (2008) suggest that such mega-events suffer in part from the criticism that they tend to raise problems in the areas of security, transport and ecology, and/ or due to them requiring excessive public funding. Such criticisms, when they are echoed in the media, can have a negative influence on public perceptions. According to Gursoy *et al.* (2011), studies also suggest that mega-events tend to create long-term and lasting benefits for various stakeholder groups through the development of infrastructure and facilities that are necessary to host such events. Such facilities are often used as a justification for the expenditures associated with the hosting of the mega-events.

According to Gursoy *et al.* (2011) and Ma *et al.* (2013), before or during the games local residents tend to have high expectations about the benefits that mega-events will be likely to bring to their communities. However, after the games, locals are likely to become increasingly concerned about the negative impacts of the games because they tend to realise that the benefits that are associated with hosting a mega-event might not be as high as they expected them to be. For these reasons, as Kim and Petrick (2005) and Prayag *et al.* (2013) note, many sports mega-event organisations tend to disregard the residents' perceptions of the event's social and cultural impacts. However, if the residents' perceptions are not examined the loss of support for tourism development, an unwillingness to work in the tourism industry and hostility towards tourists can be produced. Kim and Petrick (2005) further acknowledge that specifically there is a lack of information regarding the residents' perceptions of sports mega-events, in terms of the change of the nature of a community within a host region and non-host region that such events tend to bring about.

As the above discussion has shown, perception studies have largely focused on host stakeholders. However, research shows that stakeholders extend beyond the hosts and this was particularly relevant in the South African context (the 2010 FIFA World Cup) where a continental orientation and the African Legacy Programme was promoted.

3.11 Frameworks for evaluating mega-event legacy impacts

Given the massive investments that are made in the development and in the execution of mega-events, coupled with the planned development goals of such events, there is a need for a holistic evaluation of such events in order to assess the range of benefits and costs that are delivered by the event (Jago *et al.*, 2010). In the literature that is available on mega-event

valuations, most have tended to focus on the short-term economic impact of the events (Maennig and Zimbalist, 2012a; 2012b; 2012c), while neglecting the more intangible social impacts, such as the feel-good effects (Maennig and du Plessis, 2011). Within this context, Jago *et al.* (2010: 224) argue that “unfortunately, the economic evaluation of mega-events has often fallen short of ‘state of the art’ assessment standards”. In most of her analysis of mega-events, including the reasons for wanting to host them, Cornelissen (2004a; 2004b; 2006; 2007a; 2007b; 2008a; 2009; 2010a; 2010b) details how the economic evaluations undertaken to date have largely been criticised for having being overstated by politicians wanting to justify the hosting of the event.

Event impacts can be evaluated by means of a variety of methods. One way of evaluating the impacts of mega-events is by using the Balanced Scorecard Approach, which was developed and proposed by Gratton *et al.* (2006). The approach was developed to consider the strong evidence that had been suggested by empirically based research which shed light on the fact that, besides economic impacts, events tend to bring about a range of other socio-cultural and environment-related impacts.

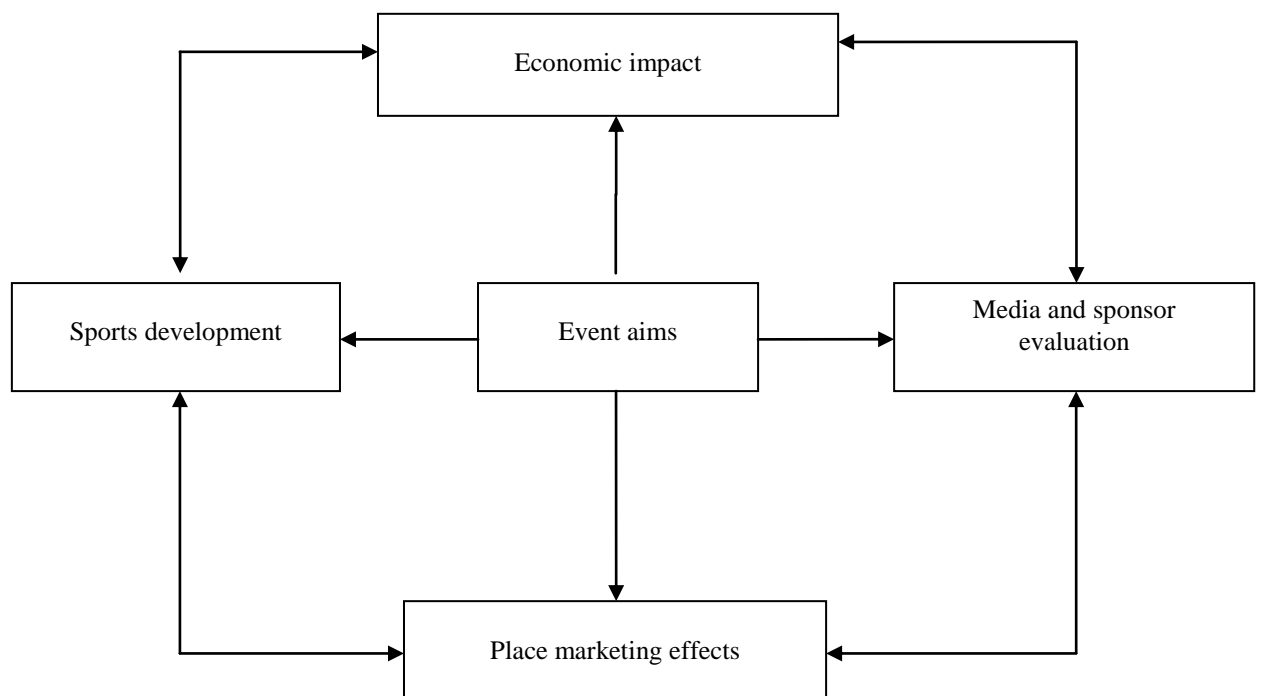


Figure 3.8: The ‘balanced scorecard’ approach to evaluating events

Source: Gratton et al. (2006)

Figure 3.8 above, which was developed by Gratton *et al.* (2006), considers that the media coverage of an event at the local and international level also adds value to the event in terms of the benefits accrued. The place marketing benefits of the event are noted as influencing the key sectors of the destination. For example, the increased media coverage would be likely to influence the tourism by increasing the number of visitors at the destination. Additionally, the public perceptions of the event host destination might also improve which, in turn, might lead to repeat tourism arrivals being buoyed up by the word-of-mouth feedback from the spectators or attendees of the event. The figure further suggests that another immediate benefit to come from the staging of a sport event might encompass some sport development impact. Such an impact might involve improved participation in sport by the local community members in the host community. “The long-term effect of any increase in participation could be tracked, although it may be difficult to prove causality” (Gratton *et al.*, 2006: 54).

Another method that has been suggested to measure mega-event legacies is that of the top-down and bottom-up approaches (Preuss, 2007). The top-down approach compares the economic variables of the city/ region that staged an event with the same variables of a city/ region not staging the event. In this approach, the event legacy is considered as the difference between the ‘event case’ and the ‘without case’ (Gratton and Preuss, 2008; Preuss, 2007). In the bottom-up approach, which is based on the long-term development plan for a city, all changes of structure due to the event are considered. Consequently, the plans for future city development represent the ‘without case’, being the city development that will take place without the event (Gratton and Preuss, 2008; Preuss, 2007).

Dickson *et al.* (2011) developed a framework for evaluating Olympic and Paralympic legacies. To demonstrate how the legacy radar framework might be applied, three scenarios of potential legacies from mega sport-tourism events are considered (see Figure 3.9 below). Dickson *et al.* (2011: 295) argue that the flexibility of the legacy radar makes it possible to “rate legacies from negative to positive with one end of the Likert scale being descriptors or measures of negative legacies and the other end positive descriptors”. Moreover, the planning dimension could range from the unplanned to the highly planned, as with venues and transport. It is also possible to expand the number of items in the scale.

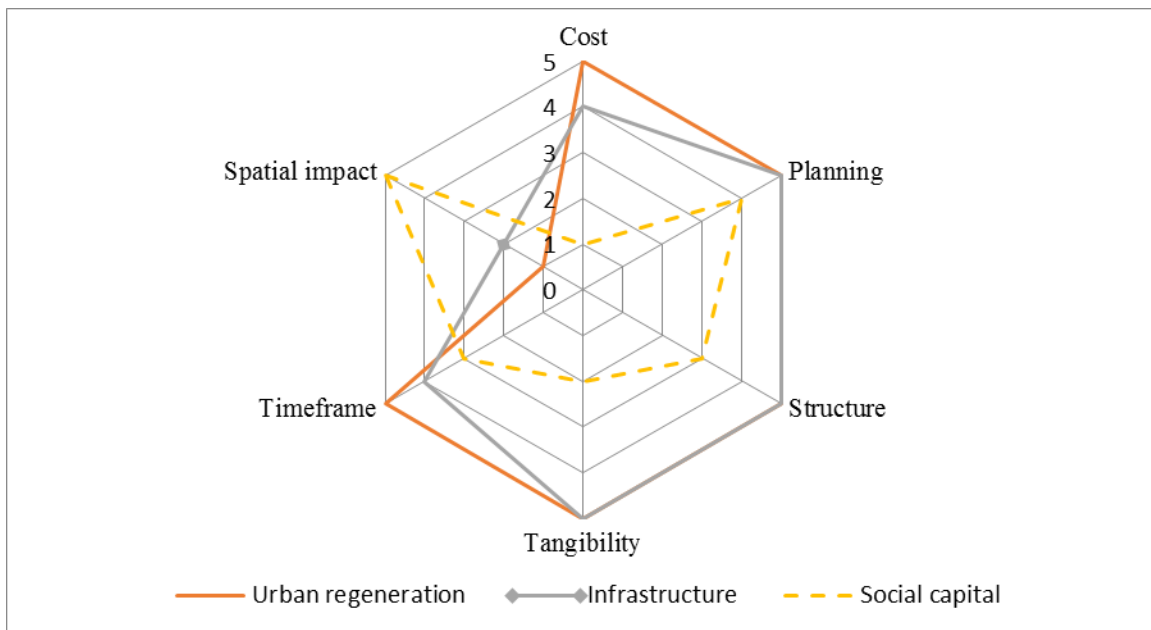


Figure 3.9: A comparison of three legacy profiles: the legacy radar diagram
 Source: Dickson *et al.* (2011)

According to Preuss *et al.* (2007: 6), “a well-known method of measuring the benefits of events is known as cost-benefits-analysis where the direct, indirect and tangible costs and benefits of an event are measured”. These cost-benefit assessments should include several sources of information about the visitors, in terms of a number of specific variables. However, it is important to note that ticket revenue and expenditures differs among the visitors. Thus, Jago *et al.* (2010: 232) caution that it is important that costs and benefits are considered, rather than simply impacts. The social return from events and their contributions towards sustainability are important factors. However, the cost-benefit analysis discourse, according to Preuss *et al.* (2007), is complex in terms of measurement, due to the fact that the contributions that are made by the visitors to a mega-event are often miscalculated.

Each of the methodologies presented above has its own strengths and limitations, but can be useful and applied based on event uniqueness and complexities, as well as on the times and the different cities/ countries involved (Preuss, 2007). However, several researchers have motivated for the evaluation of the long-term benefits and costs that are associated with the hosting of mega-events as a useful means of planning for the execution of future mega-events. Using such a methodology might serve to provide support for, and to inform, decision-making for countries that seek to attract such events in future in terms of how to maximise the opportunities presented by the event (Cornelissen *et al.*, 2011; Gratton and Preuss, 2008; Leopkey and Parent, 2012; Maennig and Zimbalist, 2012c; Preuss, 2011; 2013; Preuss *et al.*, 2007; Smith and Fox, 2007).

3.12 Sustainable development and sport events

According to Hinch and Higham (2011), the concept of sustainable development and sustainability are complex and controversial in nature, but remains appealing in contemporary terms for development of various sectors of the global economy. Dodouras and James (2004: 1) posit that “sustainability simply means acting in a way which does not undermine one’s ability to sustain one’s activity into the future”. Dodouras and James (2004) argue that, any kind of development policy must be designed to achieve sustainable development. In the context of sport tourism events, Hinch and Higham (2011) emphasise that a healthy sport tourism economy should ideally support and enhance the socio-cultural dimension of community. It should also play a similar role in the context of the natural environment, which features prominently in sport tourism activity, while socio-cultural practices should serve as positive forces in relation to the natural environment.

Swart and Bob (2007) have argued that in terms of sport mega-events, increased emphasis has been placed on achieving sustainable development goals based on the triple bottom line approach of tourism. Smith (2009: 117) states, “Although events may be a source of hope and a symbol of a new era, most of the positive social effects of events seem short-lived. New urban communities bequeathed by events may constitute longer lasting effects.” As Dodouras and James (2004: 3) observe, “the reason why the 1992 Barcelona Games were successful was the fact that the city addressed many of its serious problems and continues to enjoy the positive impacts i.e. (tourism, further economic development)”. Dodouras and James (2004) further assert that the lack of success of the previous Games was due to the massive commercialisation involved and, despite the fact that Atlanta presented details of the profits made in its budget, there were no real long-term benefits to the city after the end of the Games.

Furthermore, Smith (2009) expresses the opinion that mega-events have made a negative contribution to the social sustainability of the communities within which they take place. Having little to do with their sporting qualities, it has more to do with their status as large-scale events. Such events tend to bring about a range of negative social consequences, including the dislocation of local citizens and the inflation of prices of goods and services, as was discussed earlier in this chapter. Based on the aforementioned understanding, a holistic, comprehensive and realistic plan is essential for the sustainable development of mega-events (Hinch and Higham, 2011; van Lill and Thomas, 2012). Jago *et al.* (2010) caution that in making mega-events a reality through the planning process, a community-based long-term

approach to planning should be used, as there is a need to plan beyond the actual event. The mega-event should be seen as a milestone, and not as an end goal in itself. Dodouras and James (2004: 9) state:

Integration for sustainability can be achieved only through the specific contribution and shared responsibility for each sector. Knowledge, information, indicators and measurements that facilitate public awareness, improve implementation and provide meaning to sustainability. Integration must be achieved at local, regional, national and international level. Coordination of policy at an appropriately early stage can therefore influence decision making process in a positive way.

3.13 Conclusion

It is clear from the existing literature that was presented in this chapter that one main hurdle/gap that exists, which might make it difficult to fulfill the African Legacy Programme, is the lack of information that exists regarding the past experiences relating to the hosting of mega-events in developing countries. Moreover, leveraging the effects of 2010 FIFA World Cup into the rest of Africa, with the aim of achieving legacies for the continent further compounds the problem. However, this reinforces the importance of conducting the current post-event research. Paradoxically, most of the literature on legacies that was examined mainly focused on the Olympic Games in comparative terms to the FIFA World Cup. Concomitant to the studies that focus on the two mega-events is the idea that the development of legacy remains one of the most important issues for destinations that host such events. Furthermore, the positive benefits and the negative costs involved are wide-ranging, multidimensional and sometimes overlapping.

The fact that the forecasts of the benefits are, in most cases as the current chapter shows, nearly always wrong or overstated underscores the need for the strategic planning and the management of such mega-events so as to include all phases of the event (that is, prior to, during and after the event). However, the planning in the context of post-event implication and evaluation has not received much attention. The review has also identified the importance of creating sustainable legacies through adopting event-leveraging strategies. Furthermore, many approaches to evaluating legacies result from the hosting of mega-events. However, the undertaking of a holistic evaluation that considers the intangible and the tangible short- and long-term effects of the event on the host destination is preferred.

Whether the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the African Legacy Programme have resulted in sustainable legacies for countries outside of South Africa is still debatable, as such results are

not as yet known. The following chapter explains in detail the research processes and procedures that were employed in collecting the data from the soccer fans and from the relevant stakeholders in Cameroon and Nigeria.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

Research methods can be classified in several ways, however, the most common difference is between the qualitative and the quantitative methods which were both adopted for use in this study. This chapter presents the methods that were used to gather and analyse information from the relevant population groups, in order to address the research objectives that were previously referred to in chapter one. The overall purpose of this study was to critically examine the legacy impacts of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa, as perceived by stakeholders and soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria. Therefore, stakeholders and soccer fans in both countries formed the primary source of the data obtained. The foremost part of the chapter presents the research questions and describes the background to the case study areas. The second part underscores the research techniques employed in terms of sampling procedures, the data collection instruments, the data analysis and a synopsis of the researchers' field experiences.

4.2 Research questions

Based on the research objectives of this study, the following key questions guiding the research were developed:

- What are the awareness levels among stakeholders in Cameroon and Nigeria of the 2010 FIFA World Cup generally and the African legacy objectives specifically?
- What are the legacies of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Cameroon and Nigeria, based on the predefined 'African Legacy' intentions?
- What impacts were derived as a result of the implementation of the 2010 FIFA World Cup legacy initiatives in Cameroon and Nigeria?
- What were the legacy plans for Cameroon and Nigeria linked to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup? Did such plans materialise?
- What kinds of challenges and problems did Cameroon and Nigeria encounter with regards to maximising legacy benefits associated with the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

- What are the successful components of the ‘African Legacy’ programme that are linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup?
- What are the attitudes and perceptions of mega-event stakeholders in Cameroon and Nigeria with regards to the legacy impacts of South Africa’s hosting of Africa’s first-ever FIFA World Cup?

4.3 Background to study areas

Cameroon and Nigeria formed the two case study areas under investigation in this study. This section of the study provides an overview of the description of both areas. Their background and profiles in relation to the game of football and tourism are contextualised in the subsequent discussion, with a view to justifying the chosen case studies.

4.3.1 Overview of football in Africa

van der Merwe (2009) posits that football came to Africa through the colonialists and has since gained prominence post-colonialism. Currently, in most parts of Africa, football is considered a national sport and holds great influence over people. According to Vidacs (2006), football remains a symbolic representation of the fundamental values of modern society, because many African people invest their time, energy and scarce resources in the sport, while sometimes reaping benefits therefrom.

On the African continent, the game of football presents one of the most common ways in which local citizens, especially the youth, participate in sport and recreation (Peltz, 2010). On any given day throughout the continent, games are played on football fields (albeit they might be rundown) or in any open space that can accommodate a large-enough field for groups to play the sport. Such open space includes beach areas, parks, schools, construction sites, landfills and other convenient and available areas (Baller, 2007). As the games also attract several spectators, they can be viewed as community activities. The games are also arenas where people from different socio-economic backgrounds play together and socialise, both as participants and as spectators (Khun, 2011). Thus, the sport of football in Africa contributes significantly to the spirit of nation-building and patriotism.

Luginaah and Otiso (2010) hold the view that belonging to a football club has become an important part of contemporary African youth culture and is rapidly becoming an arena in which local African identities are constructed, asserted and contested. Sellstrom (2010: 32) states:

Football in Africa is more than just a game. On a continent where intra-state conflict and political turmoil much too often have reversed necessary progress towards socio-economic development, pitting citizens against each other and resulting in untold suffering and prolonged misery for millions, football is not only played for pleasure and as a respite from harsh daily realities, but can be used a tool for reconciliation and social development.

Pannenberg (2008) examines the anthropology of football in the African context, observing the degree and extent to which teams and their fans are willing to go in order to win a football match. He notes the dedication, commitment and passion of the fan; despite their daily economic hardships. In a similar trajectory, Schatzberg (2006) exemplifies the extent of such passion and commitment in practicality. The author attests to the fact that teams and their fans in several other nations in Africa engage in 'black magic' or witchcraft, as such practice is commonly referred to, in order to win games. Their doing so demonstrates the extent of patriotism among, and the significance of football to, African people.

The continent of Africa, which is the second largest on earth, is inhabited by around 900 million people, of whom the majority have watched their teams perform at the African Cup of Nations and at the FIFA World Cup (Pannenberg, 2008). The FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games have both been enriched by the presence of African nations (Darby, 2000; Pannenberg, 2008, 2010). The CAF, which was founded in 1957, was mandated to manage and develop football across the African continent. Presently, CAF is the largest continental football body in the world, with more than 50 members (Amenumey and Amuquandoh, 2010; Vidacs, 2004).

Thriving domestic leagues exist in many African countries; continental club championships are played on a yearly basis; and the biannual AFCON, which remains the most popular continental sporting event, pits national teams against one another (Amenumey and Amuquandoh, 2010). Under current FIFA allocation, five national teams represent the continent in the FIFA World Cup that is held every four years, with only three (that is, Cameroon, Senegal and Ghana) having reached the quarter-finals of the competition. African national teams have had even greater success in the junior world competitions and at the Olympic Games (Bolsman, 2004). However, behind such much-publicised successes lie a number of challenges that impede the development of the sport at national level. Most notable of the challenges has been the lack of adequate infrastructure, including insufficient football pitches, and the advancement of female participation in football (Darby *et al.*, 2007; Darby and Solberg, 2010).

Darby (2000; 2005), Darby *et al.* (2007) and Khun (2011) note that most African nations have remained firmly rooted at the base of the world economic order since the resurgence of independent movements in the 1960s. Armstrong and Giulianotti (2004) argue that the African continent was completely and utterly ‘neglected’ before Joao Havelange assumed the FIFA presidency in 1974. The African nations gained directly from Havelange’s stated aim, which was to expand the game competitively. Without having had a guaranteed place in the FIFA World Cup finals since 1934, African nations were represented, in turn, by Morocco, Zaire and Tunisia at successive tournaments throughout the 1970s. However, according to Darby (2000: 883), the development of African football in the international arena over the last 25 years has been such that several noted commentators predicted that the name of an African nation would soon appear on the FIFA World Cup trophy. As was discussed in previous chapters, the first- ever FIFA World Cup was hosted in Africa in 2010. This study primarily focuses on football stakeholders in Cameroon and Nigeria. Both countries are known to be prominent footballing nations on the African continent. The research data was collected from soccer fans and from relevant resource persons and organisations in Cameroon and Nigeria. Figure 4.1 below represents the geographical locations of both nations on the African continent and in relation to the 2010 FIFA World Cup host nation, South Africa.



Figure 4.1: Geographical locations of case study areas relative to the host nation, South Africa

Source: Modified from d-maps.com

4.3.2 Case study area 1 – Cameroon

The Republic of Cameroon is nestled between Central and West Africa in the Gulf of Guinea. It has an area land size of 4 775 442 km². The country is geographically split up into ten different regions, with Yaoundé being its capital city (see Figure 4.2 below). According to Vidacs (2004), Cameroon has had an unusually varied colonial history. Having first been colonised by Germany in 1884, following the First World War when Germany lost its

colonies, the country became a League of Nations Mandate, which was jointly administered by France and England.

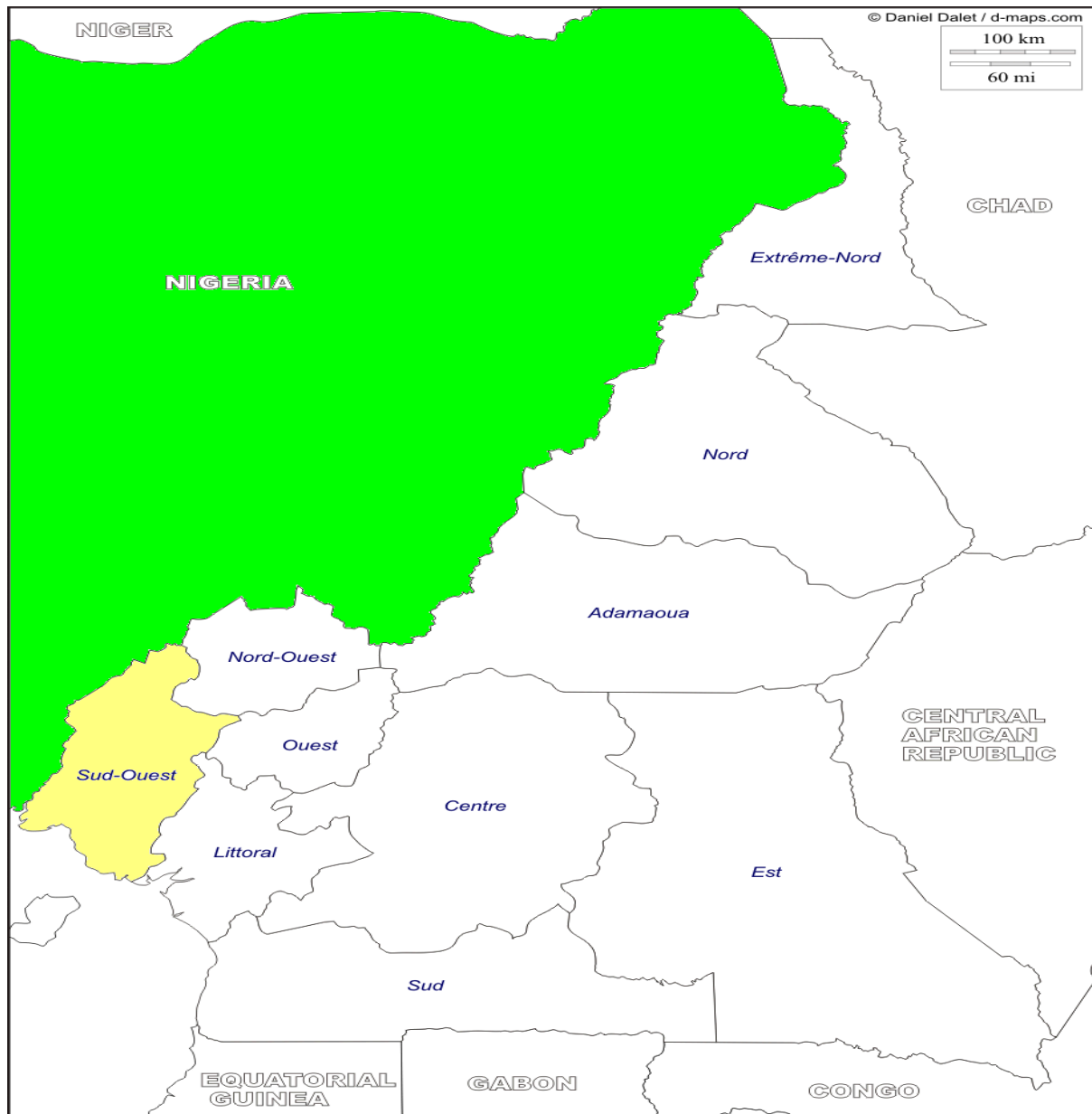


Figure 4.2: Political divisions in Cameroon

Source: Modified from d-maps.com

The Central Intelligence Agency's (CIA's) *World Fact Book* (2013) estimates the population of the country to be 20 129 878, as at 2012. The UN (2009) notes that the country's population is young, with an estimated 40.9% being under 15 years of age, an estimated 96.7% being under 65 years of age and the average age standing at 19.5 years. The UN statistics further reveal that Cameroon's per capita GDP was estimated at US\$2 821 in 2008, with the *World Fact Book* (CIA, 2013) establishing that the GDP figure rose to US\$2 200 in

2009, and to US\$2 300 in 2011, to which agriculture was found to contribute over 45%. Unemployment levels were estimated to stand at over 30% in 2012, with about a third of the population being estimated to be living below the international poverty threshold of US\$1.25 a day in 2011 (UN, 2011). The above statistics reveal that Cameroon experiences relatively high levels of poverty and several related socio-economic challenges, including unemployment, crime and violence. The *World Fact Book* (CIA, 2013) reveals that, although Cameroon has one of the best-endowed primary commodity economies in sub-Saharan Africa, it still faces numerous challenges such as a stagnant per capita income, an inequitable income distribution, endemic corruption and an uncondusive climate for business.

4.3.2.1 Tourism in Cameroon

Cameroon is a country that is gifted with cultural and natural attractions and with exceptional tourism potential (Hele, 2002). In fact, analogies in geography and tourism describe it as ‘Africa in miniature’, owing to its topography, flora and fauna and multicultural diversity. The Commonwealth Business Environment Report (2009) notes that Cameroon’s ‘Africa in miniature’ tagline is surprisingly precise, as its ecological and geographical variety, which is complemented by a mixture of people and culture, allows for visitors to understand much of Africa’s social tapestry.

Tata (2011) highlights that Cameroon, like many other countries in Africa, has identified the tourism sector as the sector that has the potential to improve the livelihoods of local communities by stimulating and creating jobs and other income-generating activities, thereby improving the standard of living of its people by reducing their level of poverty. Thus, according to Kimbu (2012), the Cameroon government is committed to prioritising the development of the tourism sector as a way of stimulating local economic development, especially in areas lacking in mineral resources. Hele (2002) accentuates the fact that the government, through the Ministry of Tourism, is in charge of the tourism policy, the development of tourist attractions, and the providing of training in, and the marketing of, tourism.

Figures that have recently been made available indicate that Cameroon received over half a million visitors (572 728) in 2010 (Ministry of Tourism, 2010). The low tourist arrival figures are indicative of the fact that the tourism sector in Cameroon still needs to be harnessed and developed. According to the WTTC (2012), the direct contribution made by tourism to Cameroon’s GDP was US\$619.1 million (2.6% of total GDP) in 2011, with the amount being

expected to fall by 1.4% in 2012. The travel and tourism sector directly supported 100 500 jobs (2.2% of total employment in 2011), and was expected to fall by 2.8% in 2012.

According to Kimbu (2012), tourism presents an opportunity that can be developed in Cameroon, with the view to alleviating poverty and to boosting environmental sustainability. For example, Kimbu (2011) postulates that Cameroon's cultural heritage, coupled with traditional architecture, dance and food, and the friendliness of the people, are factors that could easily facilitate the development of cultural tourism; thereby unlocking the country's untapped tourism potential and maximising the accompanying economic growth.

In spite of possessing the natural elements favouring the development of ecologically sustainable nature-based tourism, as Kimbu (2012) suggests, the tourism industry in Cameroon is beset by underdevelopment, with large-scale investment being required to overcome the major challenges involved. The poor quality of the ground transportation and the accommodation facilities (Hele, 2002), corruption and the country's bad image, the lack of simultaneous complementary investment as well as of support services and infrastructure, the non-implementation of management plans and policy, the shortage of qualified human and financial capital, the inefficient service infrastructure and the conflict of interest between the different stakeholder groups (Kimbu, 2012; Kimbu and Ngoasong, 2013) are all aspects that have impeded the development of a vibrant and sustainable tourism industry in Cameroon. In mitigating such challenges, the Commonwealth Business Environment Report (2009) proposes and identifies the need for private sector involvement as a precondition, considering that the Cameroonian government's current allocations for tourism development in general are currently not able to match its ambitions in this regard.

4.3.2.2 Football in Cameroon

The profile of Cameroon as a football-playing nation, both nationally and internationally, is well acknowledged. The country is the only nation in Africa to have participated in six different FIFA World Cup tournaments (1982, 1990, 1994, 1998, 2002 and 2010) and have recently qualified for the 2014 tournament in Brazil. Cameroon was the first ever African country to have reached the quarter-finals of the competition, which it did in 1990. In fact, their inspired performance during the tournament was noted as symbolising the ascendancy of African football and the socio-economic ambitions of the African continent as a whole (Peltz, 2010). To further highlight more of its footballing accolades, Cameroon has also won four

Africa Cup of Nations tournaments and an Olympic Games gold medal for their participation in football.

Therefore, it is no surprise that football is generally known in Cameroon as the ‘king sport’, and, in French, as ‘le Sport Roi’. In Cameroon, people say that “Christianity is our first religion, football our second” (Pannenberg, 2008: 10). The national governing body of football in Cameroon, Fédération Camerounaise de Football (FECAFOOT), has evidence of the development of football dating from the early 1960s, at which stage it was played by such notable local clubs as Cannon de Yaoundé, Union Sportive, and Tonnerre Kalara Club which are both situated in Douala. Such local clubs have dominated the local league for decades, campaigning in CAF competitions. More recently, the MTN Elite One (the Professional Football League), which is the highest level of football nationally, involves 16 teams competing on a home and away basis.

The game of football is strongly embedded within the everyday life of most Cameroonians. Besides playing the sport, many are involved in watching, analysing and critiquing the game in social circles, including in community meetings, bars and pubs, stadiums and even in the workplace. Furthermore, many local citizens tend to dress in replica jerseys of the national or local football team or of their favourite star player. Vidacs (2010) asserts that local football teams in Cameroon recreate local identities, with the national team having the capacity to create the imagined community of the nation and, on an even higher level, of helping to engender a pan-African consciousness. Although football is often the quintessence of both local traditional ethnic and national identity, it is simultaneously perceived as a way in which to transcend local identity and in which to change people’s reality, both individually and collectively.

4.3.3 Case study area 2 – Nigeria

The Federal Republic of Nigeria is located in West Africa, sharing borders with the Gulf of Guinea, between Benin and Cameroon, with Niger to the north. The country has a total land size area of 923 788 km². It is split up into 36 states and 1 Capital Territory – Abuja (see Figure 4.3 below). The *World Fact Book* (CIA, 2013) indicates that the country had a total population of 170 123 740 in 2012, making it by far the most populous country on the African continent.



Figure 4.3: Political divisions in Nigeria

Source: Modified from *d-maps.com*

The *World Fact Book's* (CIA, 2013) data on Nigeria encapsulates that the population is young, with the majority (55.9%) being between the ages of 15 and 64 years old, and between 0 and 14 years old (40.9%), with an average age of 17.5 years. As with Cameroon (see subsection 4.3.2 above), the UN (2011) estimated that over 70% of the population were living below the international poverty threshold of US\$1.25 per day in 2011, with the unemployment rate being estimated at 23.9% in the same year.

Nigeria is a middle income, mixed economy and emerging market, with expanding sectors in finance, communication, tourism and services, and entertainment (Nigeria, 2009). The country launched the Vision 2020 project with the view of making it one of the strongest (in the world's top 20) emerging economies by 2020, on the scale of parallel developments that have been adopted and achieved by other countries, such as India and China (Nigeria, 2009). According to the *World Fact Book* (CIA, 2013), notwithstanding its political instability,

corruption, poor infrastructure and macro-economic management; the oil-rich nation has experienced sturdy growth over the past decade, due to economic transformations. Recent numerical data indicates that GDP per capita was estimated at US\$2 600 in 2011 (with a growth rate of 7.2%), which was up from the previous US\$2 500 in 2010 and US\$2 400 in 2009. Nigeria is regarded as West Africa's economic giant, with the country estimated as contributing over 40% of the region's GDP and investment opportunities.

4.3.3.1 Tourism in Nigeria

Aniah *et al.* (2009) recognise tourism in Nigeria as a new phenomenon, and considered it one of the most profitable industries, with low investment. Dieke (2009) states that although tourism in Nigeria is in a fair state of development, it is deemed likely to become a powerful vehicle for economic growth and to contribute towards uplifting the socio-economic conditions of the local citizens. Recent statistics by the WTTC's (2012) travel and tourism economic impact assessment estimates that, in the year 2011, tourism in Nigeria directly contributed US\$ 3.8 billion (that is, 1.6% of the total GDP), and directly supported 838 500 jobs. The figures concerned have been forecast to grow by over 2% in 2012/13, given the state of investments and commitment from the Nigerian government (WTTC, 2012). According to Adebajo (2010), tourism has been recognised by the federal government as being a growth industry since it creates jobs, opens up entrepreneurial opportunities and preserves culture, heritage and the environment. Hence, the government is determined to reposition tourism to enable it to contribute more appreciably to the country's economy.

Most of Nigeria's tourism products are centred on festivals and cultural events. Akpan and Obang (2012) note that such dependence on said events is due to the large number of ethnic groups that are present in Nigeria. Esu *et al.* (2011) recognise the Calabar Carnival Festival in Cross River State (which is the case study area for the current research) as perhaps one of Nigeria's most significant tourism products, which attracts over one million spectators, albeit over 80% of such spectators being domestic and local visitors. However, natural resources including rainforests, savannah, waterfalls and other features of the landscape, are also important components of Nigeria's tourism products (Akpan and Obang, 2012).

As in the case of Cameroon, despite the potential and the current performance of the tourism sector in Nigeria, several challenges that impede its effectiveness remain. The Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan (2006), for example, highlights the inadequate capacity-building and the lack of skills-related programmes that have been embarked upon in order to

ensure the consistent delivery of quality tourism outcomes as a major challenge, despite the potential that the sheer size of the country's population represents in terms of the demand for domestic travel activity. According to Akpan and Obang (2012), despite the efforts of the federal government and the state tiers having made a significant impact on tourism development, poor energy supply and road infrastructure, religious intolerance, militancy, incessant bombings and kidnappings have inhibited tourism development. Ajake and Amalu (2012) conclude, in their study that focuses on tourism in Nigeria, that inadequate funding was, and still remains, one of the biggest obstacles to the development of the tourism industry in Nigeria. Honey and Gilpin (2009) are of the opinion that the tourism industry in Nigeria is one with unfulfilled potential, despite it, theoretically, being tailor-made for tourism.

4.3.3.2 Football in Nigeria

In Nigeria, the game of football, although first having been introduced by British colonists, has developed to the extent that it can be used to promote an authentic Nigerian identity (van der Merwe, 2009). According to Boye (2012), football has increasingly become an important part of local culture in Nigeria and is the most popular sport in the country, being cherished by youths and sport fans alike. The game is seen as a social force that is capable of bringing unity, solidarity and peaceful coexistence amongst individuals and groups (Boye, 2012). Currently, it is widely accepted that football holds a place of special importance with Nigerians. For a country that is characterised by political, religious, economic and ethnic conflict; football plays a substantial role as a rare unifier in a country that is often at war with itself (Boer, 2006). Therefore soccer in Nigeria has come to become a popular sport and is a source of significant social benefits to local citizens.

Football fandom regarding the collective fellowship has become popular in Nigeria due to the exploits of Nigerian players at home (Cates, 2010) and abroad (Adetunji, 2013). The Nigerians are football enthusiasts and are so engrossed about it that often times their discussion among their peers delves more on football clubs, football stars and football leagues. The support soccer and its stars enjoy among the Nigerian youth is so glaring that in virtually all corners of the Nigerian streets, home or groups you find soccer enthusiasts discussing soccer clubs, especially the Europe-based ones (Babikkoi *et al.*, 2012). In fact it could be said that in Nigeria the citizens know the names of the prominent international soccer stars and their clubs even more than the names of their neighbours (Babikkoi *et al.*, 2012).

From the local bonds developed at club level to the national identity established at national level, soccer is much more than a game in Nigeria (Boer, 2006; Adetunji, 2013). Local football teams allow smaller towns and cities to express their individual identities while the national team provides a collective symbol of unity (Cates, 2010; Keazor, 2012). The interest in football is not only at teams at national level but also internationally, especially in Europe as fans are seen to have jerseys and other merchandise of their favourite teams. Such fans spend late nights watching matches at public viewing areas (bars and pubs) (Dazang, 2011).

According to Jeroh (2008), Nigerians (irrespective of their level of education, occupation, tribe or religion) unite behind the national team (Super Eagles) in any major competition. Although limited, the success that Africa has enjoyed on the international football stage has largely been due to the contribution that has been made by the West African nations. Nigeria, in many instances, has come to represent the prototypical African football team. The Nigerian national team, nicknamed the Super Eagles has won three AFCON tournaments (1980, 1994 and 2013). They became the first national team to win a gold medal at the Summer Olympic Games (in Atlanta in 1996). According to Saavedra (2003), one of the success stories in the recent past of football in Nigeria has been the growth and advancement in women's soccer. The current national championship for women has resulted in country's success at continental and international levels.

Domestically, professional football has made a sluggish stride since the introduction of football in colonial times (Adetunji, 2013). Today, the Nigerian Premier League is the highest level of domestic football in the country. The tournament is contested by 20 teams across the country. The league is played on a home and away basis with the top three teams earning the chance to represent Nigeria in international football the following year.

4.4 Research design, approach and techniques

Broadly speaking, a research design aims to provide an overall structure of the processes and procedures that a researcher follows in order to collect and to analyse data in terms of a particular study (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005; Dagnino, 2013). The research approach that was adopted and tested in this study was a case study blueprint. A case study is an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context (Veal, 2011). The mode of enquiry is an in-depth examination of a specific phenomenon, dealing with a full body of evidence (including documentation and interviews). Babbie and Mouton (2002: 281) underscore the fact that case studies take multiple perspectives into account and attempt to

understand the influences of multi-level social systems on subjects' perspectives and behaviours. Pellissier (2007) puts forward the argument for case studies as being an all-encompassing method or comprehensive research strategy. He maintains that case studies are important, in that they use multiple methods that are both qualitative and quantitative in nature for data collection. Moreover, Yin (1994: 13) posits that such a "methodological approach of case studies relies on multiple sources of evidence".

The collective case studies (Cameroon and Nigeria) in the current research endeavour allowed the researcher to study the phenomenon of the perceptions pertaining to the African Legacy Programme linked to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup among different stakeholder groups in different regions under similar conditions.

4.4.1 Qualitative and quantitative approaches

Creswell (2009: 4) refers to qualitative research as "a means to explore and understand the meaning that individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem". According to Durrheim (2011: 47), "qualitative methods allow the researcher to study selected issues in depth, openness, and detail as they identify and attempt to understand the categories of information that emerged from the data, while quantitative methods in contrast, begin with a series of predetermined categories, usually embodied in standardised quantitative measures and use this data to make broad and generalisable comparisons". Creswell (2009: 18) asserts that "a qualitative research approach allows the researcher to make knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives or advocacy/ participatory perspectives, narratives, phenomenologies, ethnographies, grounded theories and case studies". The researcher collects open-ended, emerging data with the primary intent of developing themes from the data. Brynard and Hanekom (2006) underscore that, in qualitative research, such methods as case studies, the in-depth interviewing of key informants, participant observation, questionnaires and the perusal of personal documents are used.

In contrast, unlike qualitative research, quantitative research is associated with analytical research, with its purpose being to arrive at a universal statement (Brynard and Hanekom, 2006). Quantitative research should be underpinned by a distinctive theory as to what should pass as warrantable knowledge (Creswell, 2009: 18). A quantitative approach is one in which a researcher makes use of post-positivist claims for developing knowledge, employing such strategies of inquiry as experiments and surveys, and collecting data using predetermined instruments that can generate statistical data (Baggio and Klobas, 2011). Altinay and

Paraskevas (2008: 75) assert that “quantitative research aims to determine how one variable affects another in a population, by quantifying the relationship between variables (the things you measure)”. They contend that, in order to quantify the relationships between the variables, researchers use statistical methods such as relative frequencies, differences between means, correlation coefficients and other tactics.

In juxtaposition to the above, Thomas and Nelson (1996: 367) assert that qualitative research seeks to understand the meaning of an experience for the participants in a specific setting and how the components mesh to form a whole, whereas quantitative research tends to focus on analysis (that is, the taking apart and examining of components of a phenomenon). On said basis, the current study makes use of an amalgam of the two research approaches discussed above (meaning the qualitative and the quantitative methodology). The qualitative paradigm in the present study was realised by the asking of open-ended questions within the survey questionnaire, which focused on the perceptions of the respondents. In response to such questions, the respondents had an opportunity to offer their opinions with the least possible interference or bias on the part of the researcher. The quantitative paradigm was realised by the structured portions on the questionnaire survey, which led to the generation of statistical results in terms of the perceptions of the African legacy impacts of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa.

4.4.2 Sampling procedure

In the documented literature that is relevant to the field of research techniques, a population sample is often referred to as a small portion of the total set of objects, events or persons which, together, comprises the subject of a study (Dwyer *et al.*, 2012; Strydom, 2006; Veal, 2010). Therefore, sampling is simply a process of selecting participants for a piece of research. It is a means that is used to obtain a sample or a portion of the survey population (Finn *et al.*, 2000; Hammod and Wellington, 2013). Altinay and Paraskevas (2008) identify a low degree of accessibility as being a major obstacle preventing the study of all members of a targeted population. Furthermore, Lind *et al.* (2000) and Durrheim (2011) postulate additional obstacles. In terms of such a rationale, the authors highlight the significance of selecting a sample in a research endeavour of this nature. They contend that involving the entire population in a study causes it to be a costly effort, besides being a time-consuming process. However, Brynard and Hanekom (2006) place emphasis on and caution regarding the need to employ randomness and stratification techniques in selecting any given sample. Doing so, they posit, could contribute towards ensuring the representativeness of the sample, the validity

of the collected data, the reliability of the results or findings of the study and the elimination of bias.

In general terms, sample size depends on the basic characteristics of the population, the objectives of the research, the data analysis, the level of credibility assured, the time and financial constraints, the non-response factors, the degree of statistical precision as well as the basis of the judgement made (Struwig and Stead, 2001). Brynard and Hanekom (2006: 56) indicate that no fixed rules govern the determination of sample sizes – there are only guidelines that suggest what a representative percentage of the population to be studied should be. The guidelines are as follows:

- The more homogenous the population is, the smaller is the sample that is required and the more heterogeneous the population is, the larger is the sample that is required.
- The greater the probability of sample error is, the larger the sample should be, so that the conclusions drawn are as accurate as is possible.

In this study, the fieldwork involved a survey focusing on soccer fans and key informants in both Cameroon and Nigeria. In Cameroon, the research team was made up of 7 postgraduate students who travelled from South Africa (2 from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, 2 from the University of the Western Cape and 3 from the Walter Sisulu University). The students concerned all had a solid knowledge of how to administer questionnaires to soccer fans. Such students played an instrumental role in obtaining valid responses from the respondents, due to their prior experiences gained during the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, where a similar visitor and fan survey was completed. Furthermore, other local fieldworkers were appointed in both case study areas, and trained on the content of the questionnaire and the procedure of administering it. Key questions related to the survey were discussed with the fieldworkers to help clarify any misunderstandings and misinterpretations that might arise. Considering that this study was designed taking into consideration basic ethical considerations in research, such issues as conduct and consent were discussed and explained in detail.

4.4.2.1 Soccer fans

In both Cameroon and Nigeria, soccer fans were interviewed. The sample size was decided upon based on a table that was devised for determining how large a randomly chosen sample from a given finite population of n cases should be, such that the sample proportion p would

fall within .05 of the population proportion, meaning p with a 95% level of confidence (Isaac and Micheal, 1981). A typical football match in Cameroon and Nigeria can attract an average of 30 000 repeat fans. Accordingly, a total of 758 questionnaires (see Appendix A) was equally split (379 each) and administered to soccer fans in both case study areas. Such fans were chosen at specific popular stadiums (the Unification Stadium in Limbe, Cameroon, and the U.J. Esuene Stadium in Calabar, Nigeria) that had been noted as hosting international football matches on a specific game day. On each game day in question, trained fieldworkers were located throughout the stadium's entry points in order to be able to apply the systematic stratified sampling method, according to which every 79th fan was chosen in order to ensure a more representative sample of the population surveyed.

4.4.2.2 Key informants

According to Gratton and Jones (2010: 170), key informants supply or inform a study with “specialist knowledge, based upon their position or relevant experience”. Often, the key informant interviews can complement data collected from other sources. Cohen and Manion (1994: 89) refer to purposive sampling as a technique whereby “researchers handpick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgment of their typicality. In this way, they build up a sample that is satisfactory to their specific needs”. In the current study, such a technique was employed to administer semi-structured face-to-face interviews (see Appendixes B) to key resource persons, including the following:

- Relevant government departments (sports, arts, culture and tourism) in Cameroon and Nigeria supplied background information regarding any planned legacies, based on the predefined African legacy intentions regarding Africa's first mega-event and the management challenges encountered thus far.
- The NGOs linked to the FIFA Football for Hope (FFH) in Cameroon and Nigeria were also a valuable source of information. In recent times, the Football for Hope movement has become an attractive platform for the public and private sectors, civil society and multilateral development institutions to invest sustainably and to develop innovative partnerships for social development (FIFA, 2013). Today, the Football for Hope movement provides access to programmes that serve hundreds of thousands of young people all over the world. The movement is a catalyst for innovation and social investment for various sectors of society, and is increasingly gaining recognition and attracting new resources and expertise. The Football for Hope philosophy is to

maximise the potential of football by making a concrete contribution to sustainable development (FIFA, 2013).

- Football officials, including match officials, administrators, club presidents and owners of the FECAFOOT and the Nigerian Football Association (NFA), were interviewed.

To minimise the study limitations, the questionnaire was self-administered with the assistance of trained fieldworkers, who possessed basic knowledge of the relevant study areas in both Cameroon and Nigeria. In total, 10 key informants each were interviewed in Cameroon and in Nigeria.

4.5 Research data collection instruments

Data collection can be seen as a key action step in the execution of a study strategy and must, therefore, be carefully planned to ensure reliability and validity (Clarke *et al.*, 1998). A research strategy can employ the use of one or a combination of multiple, data collection technique(s) such as questionnaires, interviews and content analysis (Creswell, 2009). In the current study, a combination of methods was used, which is often referred to as triangulation (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Cohen and Manion (1994: 233) refer to triangulation in research as “the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour”. They further emphasise that such a technique can be useful where a researcher is engaged in a case study of ‘complex phenomena’.

Altinay and Paraskevas (2008) observe that mixed research paradigms help the researcher make the data collection and analysis more accurate and the inferences more useful because they can represent a plurality of interests, voices and perceptions. More so, the underlying assumption is that a research outcome is deemed stronger when data collection is triangulated, because a better understanding of human phenomena is achieved. The following section outlines the details of the research instruments used in the present study as well as both the primary and secondary data collected for the study.

4.5.1 Secondary data

The secondary data that had previously been collected, analysed and discussed by other scholars regarding tourism, sport tourism, mega-events and their related legacies was sourced by conducting an extensive literature review of relevant library books, journal articles, conferences and seminar proceedings, government publications and policies, newspaper

articles, thesis and dissertations and internet websites. The data were critically examined to construct a comprehensive literature review. The information gleaned during the secondary data collection enabled previous relevant studies to be linked to the current research and facilitated the designing of the questionnaire.

4.5.2 Primary data

As primary data often denote the collection of ‘new’ and original data, in this study, such data were collected by means of designing and administering questionnaire surveys to the relevant participants. Two primary data collection instruments were used in this study: a fan survey (See Appendix A) and key informant interviews (See Appendixes B). Both questionnaires considered the predefined objectives and research questions of the study.

4.5.2.1 Pilot survey

de Vos *et al.* (2006) posit that pilot studies are increasingly employed as a standard practice in present-day empirical research. Although a study may be planned in a careful and logical manner, practicality remains the key unknown determinant, until a full assessment is presented (Babbie and Mouton, 2002; De Vos *et al.*, 2006; Neuman and Krueger, 2003). A pilot study is generally considered to be a small-scale trail of the proposed procedures, materials and methods adopted for the main study (Mackey and Gass, 2005). In addition, according to Mackey and Gass (2005: 44), “a pilot study is an important means of assessing the feasibility and usefulness of the data collection methods and making any necessary revisions before they are used with research participants”. De Vos *et al.* (2006) further contend that, although the researcher may plan his or her investigation in a careful and logical way, the practical situation remains an unknown factor until it is accessed in full. Within such a context, a pilot study is deemed a dress rehearsal for the main investigation (Brynard and Hanekom, 2006; Maree and van der Westhuizen, 2009) and, in the case of the current study, it serves to ascertain the degree of effectiveness of the measuring instrument.

In the current study, before the researcher’s planned investigation was conducted, a total of 40 questionnaire surveys were administered to soccer fans in both case study areas. The 40 surveys were equally split (20 each) and administered during a local soccer match, using the adopted sampling technique that was previously discussed. The data were coded, captured and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) software version 19. This was done together with the researcher’s supervisor, with the aim of identifying and ratifying common problems and errors, and of ensuring that the chosen procedures would be suitable,

valid, reliable and effective for the study concerned. The findings of the piloting revealed minor grey areas or gaps that were addressed prior to the main fieldwork. In addition, the piloting revealed the need to educate chosen fieldworkers on the basic nature of the study focus, given its uniqueness.

4.5.2.2 Fan questionnaire design and development

According to de Vos *et al.* (2006: 166), the basic objective of a questionnaire is to obtain facts and opinions about a phenomenon from those who are knowledgeable about a particular issue. They further indicate that questionnaires are the most commonly used technique in social science research. The questionnaires, which were used in this study (see Appendices A and B), included open-ended questions aimed primarily at determining the level of planning, challenges and problems experienced in an attempt to maximise African legacy benefits, as perceived by the respondents. Fixed close-ended questions were further used to determine the characteristics of the respondents (their age, gender, sex, race, income, and level of education) and their general perceptions and attitudes towards the African legacy impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The instrument consisted of five parts, as discussed below:

- Section one of the questionnaire consisted mainly of closed-ended questions that were aimed at determining the respondents' interest in football at three different levels: locally, in relation to their clubs; nationally, in relation to their national team; and internationally. The aim of the questions was to determine what kind of fan the respondent was. The section also included questions relating to the respondents' participation in, and attendance at, previous FIFA World Cup events.
- In the second section of the questionnaire, the emphasis was based on the respondents' awareness and perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and South Africa. The focus was placed on measuring attendance and participation levels that were also linked to tourism activities undertaken during the hosting of the event and on comparing them across the two case study areas.
- The third section of the instrument contained six open-ended questions that were designed to encourage the respondents to express their feelings about the support for South Africa as the host nation of Africa's first mega-event and the adopted African Legacy Programme intentions/ objectives and expectations, as agreed upon by the host nation, FIFA and the AU.

- The fourth section was dominated by fixed, close-ended statements that were further designed to measure expectations linked to the objective of achieving a legacy for Africa. Clark *et al.* (1998) recommend the use of attitudinal scale in social science research, where the focus is on measuring and comparing the perceptions of specific events by the relevant stakeholders. In this sense, the traditional Likert-type scale was used to measure stakeholder perceptions, where the statement scale values (1=strongly agree; 2=agree; 3=neutral; 4=strongly disagree; and 5=disagree) were used.
- The last section of the questionnaire (section 5) focused on the demographic profile of the respondents, with regards to their age, gender, race and employment status.

Several means of administering a questionnaire exist (Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995; Dwyer *et al.*, 2012; Veal, 2011). Questionnaires can be mailed, administered telephonically, self-administered or administered by trained interviewers (de Vos *et al.*, 2006). To simplify the process of data collection in the current study, the questionnaire was administered face-to-face by trained interviewers, as was previously mentioned using the paper-and-pencil interviews (PAPI) method of administration. Use of the process also enabled any unclear questions to be clarified. A cover letter detailing the purpose of the study was also designed and attached to the questionnaire (see Appendix A and B). The data obtained in response to the questionnaire was collected in Cameroon (South West Province) and Nigeria (Cross River State).

4.5.2.3 Key informant interview schedule

The key informant interviews were administered by the researcher in a semi-structured manner and in an open-ended manner with a view to providing the respondents with the opportunity to elaborate and also to allow for freedom of expression. The key informant interviews were in-depth in nature and considered key resource persons in the government and in non-governmental organs, as listed earlier. The primary aim was to gather information on key management-related issues regarding future mega-events to be hosted on the African continent. Such information included, for example, how to leverage legacy impacts and the role that their organisations could play, how legacy impacts created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa should be managed and who and how legacy impacts should be monitored and evaluated.

4.6 Fieldwork experience

In collecting primary data for the study, the researcher encountered a few challenges, especially in the administration of surveys in the two case study areas that were widely separated in geographical location (Cameroon and Nigeria). Firstly, in Cameroon, fieldwork had to be rescheduled on two occasions, due to the postponement of the MTN Elite One league games. The drawback in this case was that the fieldworkers who had been appointed and trained mainly from the University of Buea research team had to leave on Christmas vacation, which left the researcher with a significantly reduced number of fieldworkers. However, the surveys were successfully completed. Some fieldworkers decided to withdraw from their appointment after they had been fully trained in the use of as well as equipped with the survey instrument because of various reasons.

Secondly, a major challenge was experienced with obtaining appointments for the key informant interviews. In the case where such an appointment was granted, many respondents were sceptical about answering the questions that they were asked, for fear of jeopardising their political affiliation in Cameroon. For example, many officials in senior management positions required a detailed brief of the study to allay their concerns about the study before taking part in it. However, at all times, the respondents were informed of their ability to decide whether to opt out of the study at any time.

Thirdly, in both the case study areas, some respondents (including the key informants), were of the view that the questionnaire took too long to complete. This was a major challenge during the administering of the fan survey. Many fans arrived late, and were in a hurry to gain access to the grounds for the game.

Lastly, the fieldwork in Nigeria was conducted in the second week of January 2011, which was marked by violent strikes on petrol tax. This meant that the key informant interviews were not completed as planned. The researcher then felt compelled to solicit the help of another doctoral fellow and the Head of the Tourism Department at the Cross-River State University of Technology to complete the interviews.

4.7 Data analysis

According to Seidel (1998) and Baloglu and Usakli (2011), data analysis is essentially a simple process that consists of a relationship of three activities: noticing, collecting and thinking about interesting things. He argues the need for the process to be iterative and

progressive, recursive and holographic in character. In this sense, data analysis can simply be described as a body of techniques that is used to describe actualities, to identify prototypes, to develop explanations and to test assumptions in a study (Veal, 2011). Furthermore, Jorgensen (1989: 170) states that “analysis is a breaking up, separating, or disassembling of research materials into manageable pieces, parts, elements, or units”. With the facts broken down into manageable pieces, the researcher then sorts and sifts them, searching for types, classes, sequences, processes, patterns or wholes; with the aim of assembling or reconstructing the data in a meaningful or comprehensible fashion (Jorgensen, 1989; Veal, 2011).

As was previously mentioned, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected for this study. The SPSS software was used to analyse quantitative data accumulated during the interviews. Such software enables data to be described and summarised, using descriptive and inferential statistics, cross-tabulation, tables, bar charts and other graphic representation. In the current study, where multiple responses were received based on the open-ended questions, data were presented as a percentage of the respondents providing individual responses that might, therefore, sum up to over 100%. The qualitative data were analysed into conceptual categories, in terms of the constant comparative methodology. The analysis was also conducted thematically in relation to key issues and debates emanating from the literature review and primary data. The results were then compared across the two case study areas and the stakeholder groups. The data analysis and the subsequent discussion provided informed the conclusions and the recommendations presented in the last chapter of the research, based on the predefined study objectives set out in the first chapter.

4.8 Conclusion

The methodology adopted in collecting and analysing data has been detailed in this chapter. The aim was to illustrate the scientific processes to ensure a representative sample size, and the validity and reliability of the data in relation to the answering of the research questions. Furthermore, in the chapter the researcher focused on providing a better understanding of the subject under investigation than might otherwise have been obtained by comprehensively describing both case study areas, the framework of research questions, the research instrument, the population, the sampling and data collection procedure and analysis, and finally, the researcher’s field experiences. The next chapter undertakes the data analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the researcher detailed in descriptive terms the processes and procedures that was adopted and used in collecting data. The methodologies included self-administered questionnaires and face-to-face interviews with soccer fans as well as with key informant representatives of relevant stakeholders of football in Cameroon and Nigeria. In this chapter of the thesis, the results obtained from the questionnaire surveys on stakeholder and soccer fans' perception of the legacy impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa are presented, analysed and discussed. The aforementioned discussion is done using tables and figures to illustrate and to present the results in a thematic and systematic manner, so as to allow for a better understanding of the results. In the discussion, the terminologies of soccer and football are used interchangeably, as both are often used to denote the same phenomenon in the game as it is played across the African continent.

Given the nature and uniqueness of the study focus, a comparative analysis and discussion of the key similarities and differences between the case study areas and among the respondents are presented. A thematic discussion of the findings in relation to the key informant interviews are integrated, where applicable. This is done within the framework of the research questions and the objectives of the study, as detailed in previous chapters.

5.2 Study sample

In chapter four, the researcher determined the sample size for the study using Isaac and Michael's (1981: 193) table that allows for the determination of a required size for a randomly chosen sample from a given finite population. On the basis that a typical football match in Cameroon and Nigeria can attract an average of 30 000 repeated fans and based on the calculations made in terms of the table, a total of 758 subjects, who were equally split across the two study areas, were required for the study.

A 12-week data collection period was undertaken between December 2011 and February 2012. At the end of the fieldwork, 391 and 381 completed, valid and usable questionnaires were recorded for Cameroon and Nigeria, respectively, resulting in a total of 771 respondents participating in the research. A total of 20 key informants from relevant government departments (culture, art, sport and tourism), NGOs such as those dealing with football

development, members of FECAFOOT and the NFA, as well as football managers and owners, were also interviewed.

5.3 Demographic characteristics of the sample

The demographic results provide a profile of soccer fans who attend official football matches in Cameroon and Nigeria. The demographic data collected pertained to age, gender, monthly household income, education and employment status.

The respondents were asked, in an open-ended question, to state their current age. Because age distribution usually assumes a wide range of categories, the total sample for this study was captured into seven groups, as can be seen in Figure 5.1 below. The age distribution among the respondents showed that the majority of the respondents (41% from Cameroon and 45.7% from Nigeria) were between 21 and 30 years old. Some of the respondents (26.2% from Cameroon and 30.7% from Nigeria) fell in the older age group of between 31 and 40 years old. Almost equal proportions in both age groups were from the younger age group of between 18 and 20 years old (13.1% from Cameroon and 12.3% from Nigeria). A total of 11.8% of the respondents in Cameroon and 9.7% in Nigeria were found to fall within the older age group of between 41 and 50 years old. Very few respondents said they were within the age group of between 51 and 60 years old (3.8% from Cameroon and 1.6% from Nigeria). The result further indicates that only respondents from Cameroon said that they fell in the much older age group of 61 and above. Specifically, 3.8% of the respondents from Cameroon were found to be between 61 and 70 years old, with 0.3% being above 71 years old. The average age of the respondents from Cameroon was 32 years (ranging from 18 years to 71 years) and from Nigeria was 30 years (ranging from 18 years to 60 years).

Several research endeavours have focused on age as a factor in attending sport tourism events. Correia and Esteves (2007) depart from a premise that an active social life is the time period that ranges from 15 to 65 years old. They note that attending sport events is an activity that decreases in tandem with advances in the aging process. Snelgrove *et al.* (2008) note that, as people age, their consumption away from sport is shifted increasingly towards the arts, leaving sport to be considered as a social activity that tends to be the choice of younger consumers. Subsequently, older persons may require a higher threshold of motivation and identity than do younger ones in order to attend a sport event. Furthermore, Smith and Stewart (2007) suggest that a negative correlation exists between age and group affiliation, advocating

that older fans have a weaker affiliation, and are less interested in travelling long distances to attend a sport event than are older fans.

Evidently, the results show that soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria are relatively young, tending to be between the ages of 18 and 50 years old. Their average age was calculated as being 31.32 years, with a standard deviation of 10. The results are consistent with those obtained by Tichaawa and Swart (2010) who noted that the average age of soccer fans attending football games in Cameroon was 30 years old. Research conducted in Nigeria by Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala (NOI) (2012) on the Nigerian Premier League found that most soccer fans were between the age group of 30 and 40 years. The key informants in the study were found to be slightly older than were the soccer fans. Their ages ranged between 31 and 50 years old.

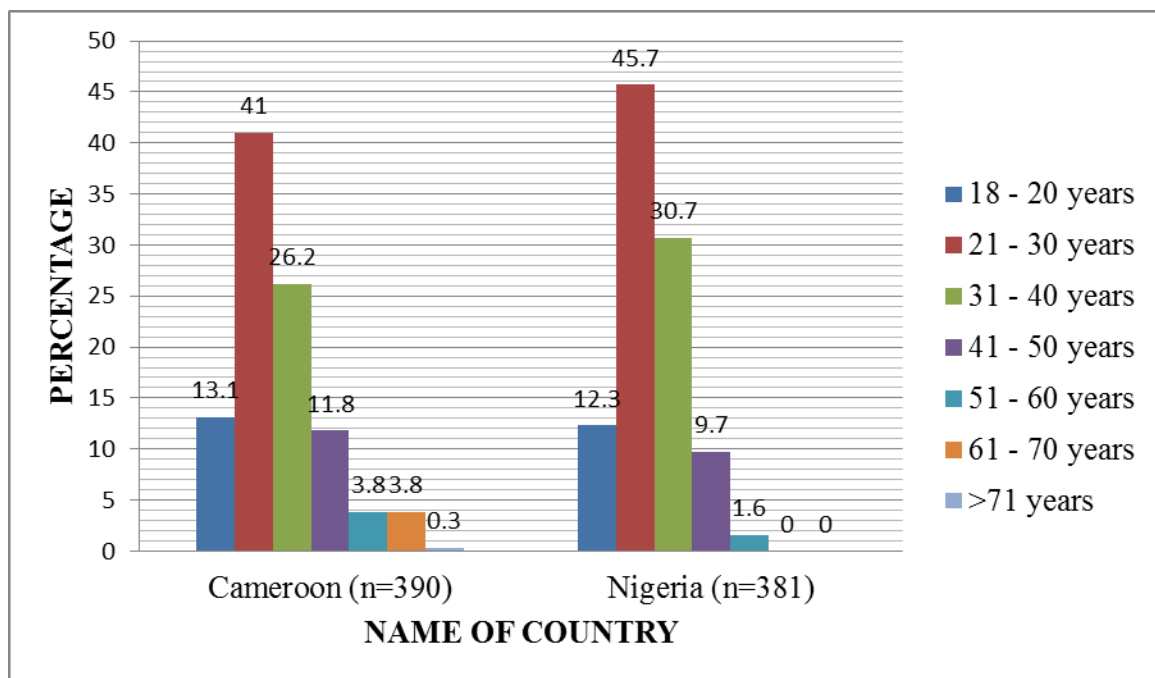


Figure 5.1: Fan respondents' age categorisation (in %)

In terms of gender distribution, there was an unequal representation in the survey across both case study areas. Figure 5.2 below illustrates that more males (64.9% from Cameroon and 74.3% from Nigeria) participated in the study than did females (35.1% from Cameroon, and 25.7% from Nigeria). Such results are reinforced by those of Tichaawa and Swart (2010) and the NOI (2012), who found that in Cameroon and Nigeria, more males than females tend to watch football. Gender issues in sport attendance and participation have received attention in recent times. According to Smith and Stewart (2007), sport appears to have a masculine gender appeal, since its values are based around aggression, mental toughness, external

discipline and character building; all of which are core dimensions of 'traditional' male identity. Nevertheless, although women frequently view sport differently to how men view it, they still perceive themselves as sport fans. For example, as Bob and Swart (2010: 94) in their empirical study that focused on women experiences during the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa assert, "women were as much fans as the men visiting the fan parks. They wore a range of soccer fan wear including t-shirts, jackets, scarves, tattoos, etc."

However, gender differences in sport consumption could be attributed to gender roles, as postulated by Robinson and Trail (2005). Sport is not deemed socially feminine, so social norms and expectations discourage women from attending matches (Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008). This factor is noted as perhaps having contributed to the findings of this study. A study on the anthropology of football in Cameroon, Ghana, Senegal and Nigeria by Guilianotti (2010) noted that the game of football, in relation to participation (active and spectator), is largely dominated by men rather than by women. Another study that was conducted by Tichaawa and Swart (2010) on the perceptions of soccer fans in Cameroon, linked to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, also yielded similar results. The findings of the study also correlated with those of Getz (2003) and Rubin (2009) who noted that more men compared to women tend to attend sport events and, specifically, that football fans tend to be men. The evidence from the documented literature highlighted, taken together with the results of this study, reinforces examples of men being more likely than women to travel between cities or regions with the aim of engaging in sport events and related experiences. In contrast, the results also reveal that female participation and involvement in football is on the rise, as Correia and Esteves (2007) reiterate that sport is no longer a 'men thing' that is a preserve of males only, as has been expressed in many sport typologies, but female attendance and spectating is increasing in number.

Unlike the disparity that has been noted in terms of male and female representation among the soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria, the key informant gender composition was much more equally balanced in the current study in terms of male and female representation. There were slightly more men (55%) than there were women (45%) involved.

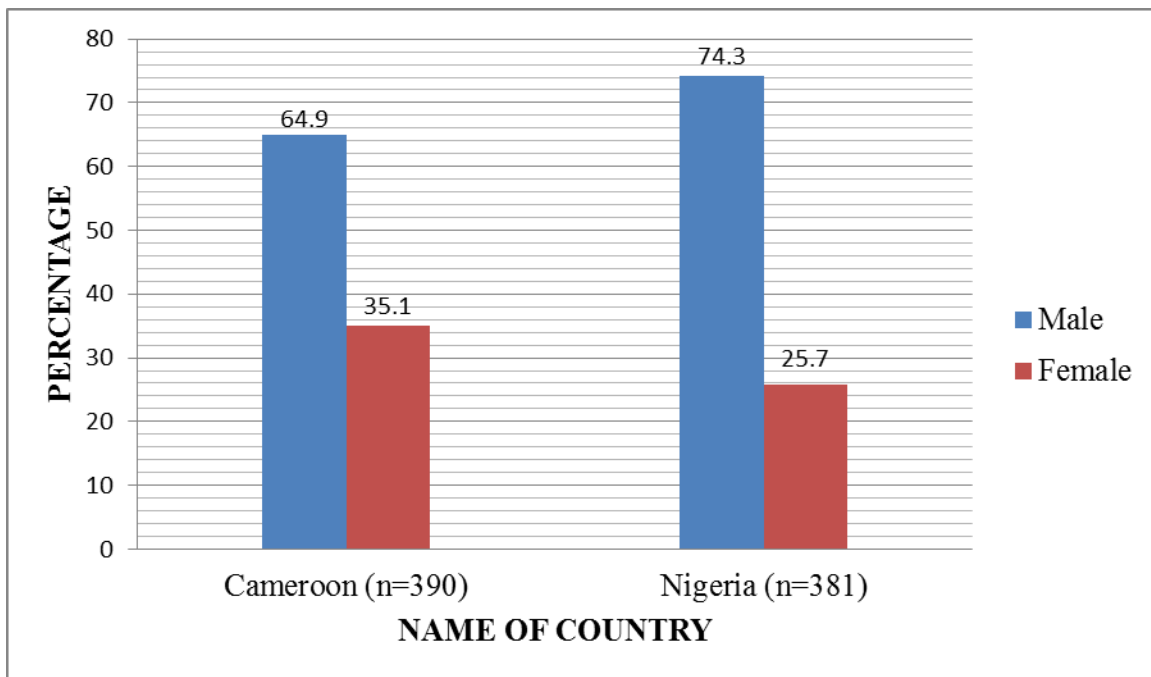


Figure 5.2: Gender of fan respondents (in %)

Level of income can have an impact on the decision to travel and attend sport mega-events. As Smith and Stewart (2007) found out, sport tourism diminishes with income, with older people on a high income being less interested in travelling long distances to attend events than are younger people. Kim and Chalip (2004) found that income is one of the push factors in terms of interest in, and constraints on, travel to attend the FIFA World Cup tournaments. Figure 5.3 below indicates that in this study the majority of the respondents (33.3% from Cameroon and 28.1% from Nigeria) lived in households earning between R1 001 and R4 000 a month. A total of 6.1% and 21.6% in Cameroon and Nigeria, respectively, earned a monthly income of between R4 001 and R8 000. Few respondents had an income of between R8 001 and R12 000 a month (1.3% in Cameroon and 7.8% in Nigeria). Very few of the respondents had either a monthly income of between R12 001 and R20 000 (0.5% from Cameroon and 0.3% from Nigeria) or above R20 001 a month (0.6% from Cameroon and none from Nigeria). Some of the respondents (21.6% from Cameroon and 4.1% from Nigeria) reported earning less than R1 000 a month. Furthermore, an almost equal number of those surveyed reported having no monthly income in Cameroon (17.3%) and Nigeria (16.8%), respectively. Nineteen percent of respondents from Cameroon and 21.5% from Nigeria did not feel comfortable to disclose their monthly income and declared it to be confidential. The average monthly household income was calculated at R2 551.74 for Cameroon and at R4 586.38 for Nigeria ranging from under R100 to R66 670. The level of income of the respondents can be described as low. This could represent that the respondents in both case study areas were

engaged in low-income jobs, or that such jobs, in themselves, did not attract high incomes. Such a low level of income could also be due to the fact that some of the respondents were unemployed, students or scholars, pensioners or that they only worked on a part-time basis (see Table 5.2 below). The data reinforces, to some extent, those of the UN (2011), which shows that about a third of the population (in both Nigeria and Cameroon) was estimated to be living below the international poverty threshold of US\$1.25 a day in 2011. The findings in this study could also mean that the ability of soccer fans in Cameroon and in Nigeria to travel to attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa could have been limited by income. Although Lee and Taylor (2005) recommend that travel and attendance motives should be viewed holistically and include demographic characteristics of potential event attendees when attempting to forecast their prospect of travel.

Unlike the soccer fans, the vast majority of the key informants in the current study could be classified as being in higher income brackets in their countries of origin. This could be justified by the fact that all of them were engaged in some form of economic activity that generated income, with most occupying senior positions in their respective organisations. This could, therefore, mean that they might have had sufficient disposable income available, resulting in their likelihood of travelling and attending the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

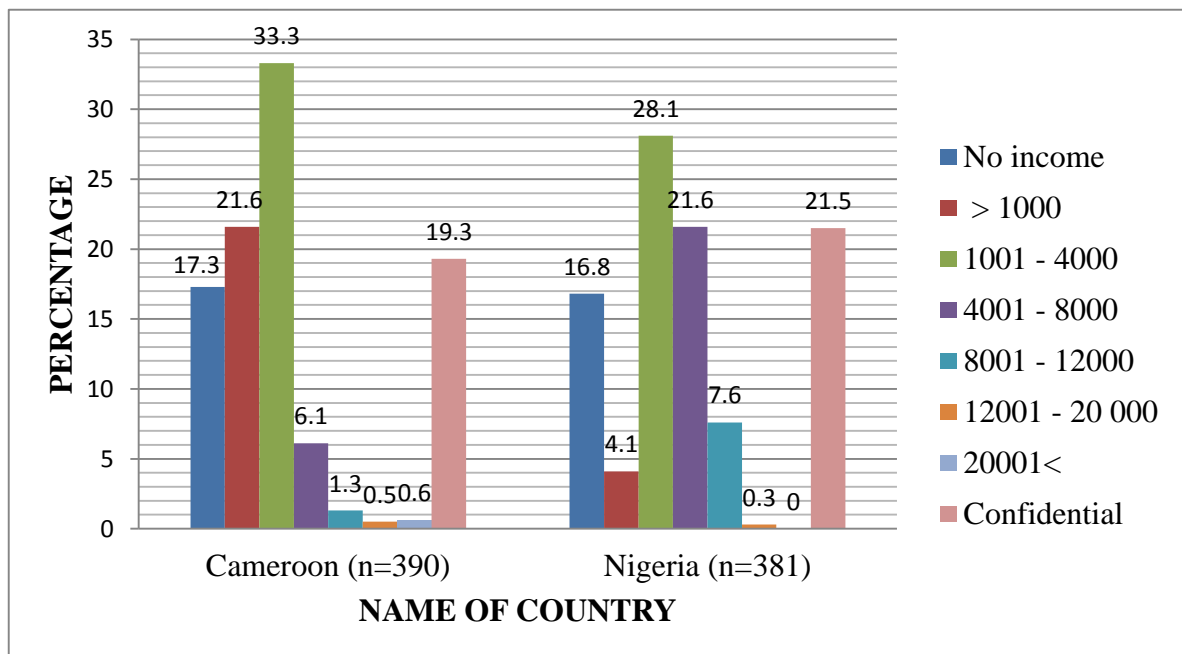


Figure 5.3: Monthly household income (in ZAR) of fan respondents (in %)

Level of education has been recognised as one of the push factors to travel and to attend sport tourism events (Kim and Chalip, 2004). Identifying the level of education in this study was important, in that it might have informed the ability of the respondents to understand and to evaluate mega-event legacy impacts. The educational levels attained by the respondents in this study are represented in Table 5.1 below. The table shows that very few respondents (1.8% from Cameroon and 1% from Nigeria) reported having no formal education. The respondents who reported having partial primary education (1% from Cameroon and 2.9% from Nigeria) were also few. Of the respondents who had completed some level of education, 6.7% in Cameroon and 1.3% in Nigeria said that they had completed primary education. In terms of secondary education completed, more respondents from Cameroon (26.7%) than from Nigeria (11.8%) had attained such a level of education. Furthermore, of those respondents who had completed some form of higher education, the results show that 22.8% of the respondents from Cameroon and 24.1% from Nigeria had obtained a certificate/ diploma or equivalent. The majority of the respondents (28.5% from Cameroon and 41.5% from Nigeria) said that they had attained an undergraduate degree. Those who reported having attained a postgraduate degree (12.5% from Cameroon and 17.4% from Nigeria) made up the rest of the sample. Evidently, soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria are largely citizens with various levels of education. The data show that the majority of such fans in both case study areas were well educated. This trend was also noted among the key informants, with a significantly high proportion having attained an undergraduate qualification.

Having most of the soccer fans and key informants attaining such a level of education could have impacted positively on their ability to make informed decisions on the legacy impacts that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup could have had beyond the borders of the host nation, South Africa, into the entire African continent.

Table 5.1: Fan respondents' highest level of education attained (in %)

Highest level of education	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
No formal education	1.8	1.0
Partial primary	1.0	2.9
Primary completed	6.7	1.3
Secondary completed	26.7	11.8
Certificate/ diploma	22.8	24.1
Undergraduate	28.5	41.5
Postgraduate	12.5	17.4

The socio-economic status of the respondents in this study can be described by their current occupational status. When asked about their occupational status, the majority of the respondents from both case study areas indicated multiple occupational status, as summarised in Table 5.2 below. Sixteen percent of the respondents in Nigeria and 13.6% in Cameroon said that they were unemployed. The finding in this regard is interesting in terms of consistency when it is read in line with those who reported having no household income in Cameroon (17.3%) and Nigeria (16.8%) (see Figure 5.3 below). In the two study areas, the majority of the respondents reported working on a full-time basis (25.9% from Cameroon and 45.7% from Nigeria) although a substantial difference in percentages is observed. Some of the respondents in Cameroon (15.4%) and in Nigeria (8.4%) noted that they were in part-time employ. A few of the respondents had either retired from service and were on pension (4.9% from Cameroon and 1.3% from Nigeria). This finding is consistent with, and reinforces, those previously noted in terms of age categorisation (see Figure 5.1), with the vast minority being over the age of 61 years. Many of the respondents in Cameroon (22.1%) and in Nigeria (19.9%) said that they were either students or scholars. Some of the respondents were self-employed (14.8% from Cameroon and 7.9% from Nigeria) in terms of running their own businesses or exploring other economic opportunities as informal traders, which is an occupation which is particularly common in West and Central African economies. The respondents who stated that they were housewives (3.7% from Cameroon and 0.8% from Nigeria) were very few, and formed the remainder of the sample. Overall, the results show that the majority of the soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria were engaged in some form of economic activity that contributed to their household income. The results could have been influenced by the respondents' level of education (previously discussed), which could have influenced their ability to provide skills required for the public/ private sectors and for self-employment creation. Furthermore, being employed could indicate that the respondents had the financial capabilities to travel to and attend sport tourism events. However, as the findings in this study show, the low levels of income generated from the various form of employment noted are of concern in this regard.

Table 5.2: Fan respondent's employment status (in %)

Employment status	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
Unemployed	13.6	16.0
Working full-time	25.9	45.7
Working part-time	15.4	8.4
Retired/ pensioner	4.9	1.3
Student/ scholar	22.1	19.9
Self-employed	14.4	7.9
Housewife	3.7	0.8

5.4 Background information on fan respondents' interest in football

Soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria who took part in this study were asked about their involvement in football as reflected in response to a variety of given statements. The focus was on their general interests and attendance at football events, both at local and international levels including previous FIFA World Cups. This section examines the responses received.

When asked to describe their interest in football as a spectator, over half of the respondents in Cameroon (57.9%) and in Nigeria (60.6%) said that they considered themselves to be avid fans, who always try to attend matches and who had watched it on television (see Table 5.3 below). A further 26.4% of the respondents in Cameroon and 24.2% in Nigeria expressed their interest in football as being interested in the sport and that they watched it whenever they could. Relatively few of the respondents in Cameroon (9.3%) and in Nigeria (10.2%) said that they were not particularly interested in following the game closely, but that they enjoyed watching a game of football when it came to their area. However, 6.4% and 5% of the respondents from Cameroon and Nigeria, respectively, stated that they were not interested in football, but watched or attended games under the influence of their family or friends, who were interested in it. The key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria described themselves as avid fans who travelled to attend football matches or who remained interested in the game of football and saw it when possible.

Sutton *et al.* (1997) noted that not all fans display the same level of fervour and devotion about, as well as commitment to, their favourite team. They identify three levels of fans: low (social fans), medium (focused fans) and high (vested fans). The result of this study, therefore, allowed for the classification of Cameroonian and Nigerian soccer fans as those with high and medium identification. The classification and the results are also consistent with documented research on the two case study areas linked to sport. Vidacs (2010) argues

that football is considered a strong social phenomenon that brings many Cameroonian citizens together. She maintains that the local citizens are highly involved in the game and show strong support for their teams in a number of ways including wearing replica jerseys and following their favourite teams to most games irrespective of them mostly earning a low income. As is the case with Cameroon, Boye (2012) asserts that football in Nigeria has in recent times become a strong element of culture that can unify people and is a source of significant social benefits for many Nigerians including the young and old.

Table 5.3: A summary of fan respondents’ interest in football as a spectator (in %)

Statements	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
I am an avid fan of the sport, and always try to attend or watch it on television.	57.9	60.6
I am interested in the sport and see it when I can.	26.4	24.2
I am not particularly interested in the sport, but I enjoy seeing it when it comes to our area.	9.3	10.2
I am not interested in the sport, but sometimes attend or watch it because family or friends are interested in it.	6.4	5.0

Table 5.4 below tabulates a breakdown of the respondents, according to their level of interest in local football in Cameroon and Nigeria. Few respondents stated that they were not interested in local football (14.4% from Cameroon and 7.3% from Nigeria). A similar number of the total sample in Cameroon (28.5%) and in Nigeria (29.7%) said that they followed their favourite local team to every game. Quite a few respondents in Cameroon (27.4%) relative to the number of respondents in Nigeria (10.5%) noted that they occasionally followed their local team to a game. The majority of the respondents said that they watched their teams on television, with fewer doing so in Cameroon (29.7%) and over half of the respondents in Nigeria (52.5%). The finding indicates that the respondents also showed a strong level of interest in local football at club level in Cameroon and Nigeria.

Table 5.4: Fan respondents’ interest in football locally/ club level (in %)

Statements	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
Not interested	14.4	7.3
Follow my team to every game	28.5	29.7
Follow my team occasionally	27.4	10.5
Watch my team on television	29.7	52.5

Table 5.5 illustrates that the vast majority of the respondents in Cameroon (87.7%) and in Nigeria (90.3%) who took part in the survey said that they followed international football on television whenever their national team (the ‘Indomitable Lions’ and the ‘Super Eagles’) played. Such a finding is consistent with those whose data are shown in Table 5.4 below in terms of local football. Very few of the respondents claimed that they had travelled to international games to watch their team play (7.9% from Cameroon, and 2.6% from Nigeria). The remainder of the sample stated that they were not interested in football played internationally by nations (4.4% from Cameroon and 7.1% from Nigeria). As was the case with the soccer fans, the key informants in the study indicated that they followed international football on television. Only one key informant from Cameroon indicated having attended the 2010 Africa Cup of Nations hosted in Angola.

Table 5.5: Fan respondents’ level of interest in football internationally in relation to the national team (in %)

Statements	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
Not interested	4.4	7.1
Follow international football on television	87.7	90.3
Travel to international football games	7.9	2.6

As had been the case with the previous findings (see Tables 5.4 and 5.5 above), the majority of the respondents in Cameroon (86.2%) and in Nigeria (89.8%) indicated that they followed international football on television whenever teams other than their own played. Those respondents who said that they were not interested (8.5% from Cameroon and 8.6% from Nigeria) were relatively few. Furthermore, the respondents who reported that they had travelled and watched international football games (5.3% from Cameroon, and 2.6% from Nigeria) were even fewer.

Table 5.6: Fan respondents’ level of interest in football in relation to other teams, excluding the Cameroonian/ Nigerian teams (in %)

Statements	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
Not interested	8.5	7.6
Follow international football on television	86.2	89.8
Travel to international football games	5.3	2.6

Previous attendance at sport events can be useful, in that it lays the basis for predicting the likelihood to travel and to attend future events (Kim and Chalip, 2004). In this study, when the respondents were asked whether they had previously travelled to watch an international football game besides a FIFA World Cup tournament, the responses received were of interest. The vast majority of the respondents (91.8% from Cameroon and all from Nigeria) stated that they had never travelled to an international football match. Only 8.2% of the respondents from Cameroon stated that they had attended an international football game. Attendance levels in this regard were noted as being significantly low, despite the fact that many of the respondents considered themselves to be avid football fans. However, the result could have been influenced by the low level of household income recorded across the two study areas.

Table 5.7: Whether fan respondents had previously travelled to an international football match other than the FIFA World Cup tournament outside Cameroon/ Nigeria (in %)

Response	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
Yes	8.2	0.0
No	91.8	100

Of those respondents (all from Cameroon) who stated that they had previously attended an international match other than a FIFA World Cup (see Table 5.7 above), the majority (28.1%) stated that they had attended one in Ghana (see Table 5.8 below), while 15.6% claimed to have travelled to Senegal. A total of 9.3% of the respondents claimed to have travelled to Angola, Egypt and Germany, 6.2% to Mali and the Democratic Republic of Congo, 3.6% to Nigeria, and 3.1% to Gabon and Mauritius. The result showed that the respondents had predominantly attended international games that were hosted on the African continent and that had been held not too far away from their home country. The result can be explained in relation to the physical proximity involved. The literature suggests that fans' motive in attending a sport tourism event depended on its proximity (Kim and Chalip, 2004). Geographically, Cameroon shares borders with Nigeria and Gabon; while the Democratic Republic of Congo, Ghana and Mali are relatively close, which means that the cost of travel might be less than it would be if the destinations were further away.

Table 5.8: If yes, recent international match attended by fan respondent (in %)

Host country	Year	Cameroon (n=32)	Nigeria (n=0)
Gabon	2011	3.1	-
Democratic Republic of Congo	2011	6.2	-
Mauritius	2010	3.1	-
Angola	2010	9.3	-
Senegal	2010	15.6	-
Ghana	2009	28.1	-
Tunisia	2008	6.2	-
Egypt	2006	9.3	-
Germany	2006	9.3	-
Mali	2002	6.2	-
Nigeria	2001	3.6	-

Given that the Cameroonian and the Nigerian national football teams have represented Africa on six and five occasions at a FIFA World Cup tournament, respectively, Figure 5.4 below shows a significant disparity between the respondents concerned in terms of them travelling to a FIFA event. A total of 99.5% of respondents from Nigeria and 91.5% from Cameroon reported never before having travelled to attend a FIFA World Cup, compared to the few (8.5% from Cameroon, and 0.5% from Nigeria) who noted that they had travelled to attend one. The results show that, prior to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa, FIFA World Cups had not previously been sufficient enticement to African soccer fans to travel, despite them having categorised themselves as typically possessing the characteristics to travel and to attend such games. However, such a disparity can again be explained by the constraints, including travel costs, involved. The result reinforces those of Zhang (2007) who notes that mega-events are generally quite expensive to access in terms of travel cost (transportation, event tickets, accommodation, meals, etc.).

The attendance at previous FIFA World Cup tournaments by the key informants in this study mirrors those of the soccer fans, in that only one key informant in Cameroon indicated having attended the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany. Their reasons for not attending such events in the past were not covered in the questionnaire survey.

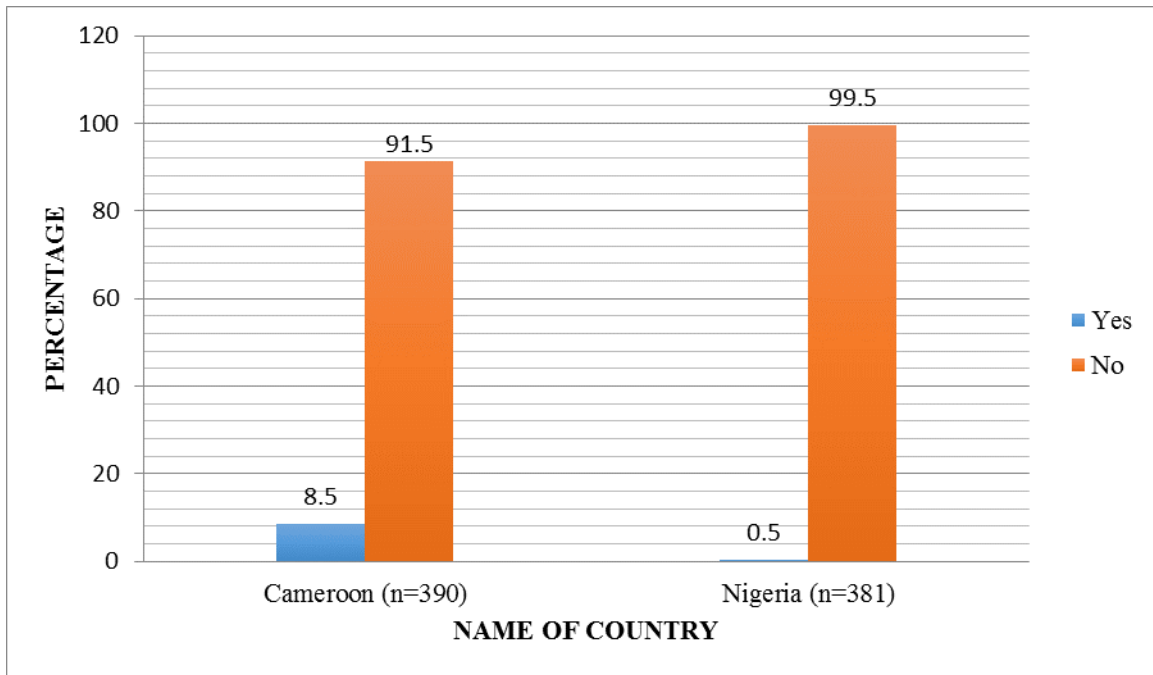


Figure 5.4: Previous attendance at FIFA World Cup tournaments, other than the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)

Table 5.9 below indicates that, of those respondents who maintained that they had attended a FIFA World Cup prior to the 2010 event in South Africa, above half of the respondents from Cameroon (52.8%) were found to have attended the 2006 FIFA World Cup hosted in Germany. This was followed by those respondents, also from Cameroon (22%), who had attended the 2002 event co-hosted by Korea/ Japan, whereas 18.2% in Cameroon had attended the event hosted by France in 1998. The event that was organised in the United States of America in 1994 attracted 3.2% of the respondents from Cameroon and all from Nigeria. The remaining 3.8% from Cameroon had attended the FIFA World Cup in Italy hosted in 1996. Although generic travel constraints could have played a role in the inability of African soccer fans to attend the mega-event, such events had never before been hosted in Africa prior to the 2010 hosting by South Africa. Said hosting could, then, have been perceived as a unique opportunity to witness increased African attendance during the event, and to represent a paradigm shift in previous attendance at such events.

Table 5.9: If yes, which FIFA World Cups attended besides the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)

Host country	Year	Cameroon (n=26)	Nigeria (n=2)
Germany	2006	52.8	-
Korea/ Japan	2002	22.0	-
France	1998	18.2	-
United States of America	1994	3.2	100
Italy	1990	3.8	-

5.5 Awareness and perceptions of, as well as attendance levels at, South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup

This section provides the background to understanding the main objective of assessing perceptions of the African legacy associated with South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, and the positioning of the event as a continental showpiece. The results presented reveal the level of awareness of the 2010 FIFA World Cup host, the identities of African fans (from Cameroon and Nigeria) who attended the event and factors that influenced their participation in the mega-event.

The respondents were asked to indicate the country that hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Table 5.10 below shows a significantly high level of awareness, as the vast majority of respondents (all from Nigeria and 99.7% from Nigeria) were able to indicate correctly that South Africa was host to the 2010 event. Only 0.3% from Cameroon reported that they did not know which country hosted the event. Such a high level of awareness was to be as expected for two main reasons in particular. Firstly, the host nation South Africa robustly positioned the mega-event as an Africa World Cup throughout, from the bidding to the implementation phases, as was previously stated in the literature review. African nations were encouraged, though the efforts exerted in terms of the AU and NEPAD objectives, to develop programmes and to capitalise on the potential benefits that the hosting of the mega-event for the first time in Africa could bring with it. Secondly, the hosting of the event itself by South Africa in June/July 2010 was widely televised and covered by other media sources, which could have filtered through to the respondents in this study where both nations, in themselves, were represented by their national teams. As was expected, due to the level of their knowledge and involvement in terms of football and related social issues, all the key informants in the study in both Cameroon and Nigeria were aware of the 2010 FIFA World Cup host country.

Table 5.10: Level of awareness of the 2010 FIFA World Cup host (in %)

Response	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
South Africa	99.7	100
Unknown	0.3	-

Table 5.11 below shows the method by which the respondents were informed of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup event in their area. The data compares favourably with those of the SAT departure survey of the impact of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, in which more than one-third of tourists mentioned ‘World Cup-associated media’ as their main source of awareness. The vast majority of the respondents in this study (89.7% from Cameroon and 89.2% from Nigeria) were informed via the television. Newspapers were the second most popular means that was used to communicate the event, as reported by 43.6% of the respondents in Cameroon and by a higher number in Nigeria (64.6%). Many respondents (57.2% from Cameroon and 58.8% from Nigeria) said that they were informed by radio. A total of 42.3% of the respondents in Cameroon and 50.1% in Nigeria were informed via the internet, while some (46.4% from Cameroon and slightly less from Nigeria, 28.3%) were informed by friends. Some of the respondents were informed by posters (25.9% from Cameroon and 15.7% from Nigeria). Twenty-one percent and 16% of the respondents from Cameroon and Nigeria, respectively, were informed via Short Message Service (SMS). Few of the respondents said that they were informed via email (13.8% from Cameroon and a slightly higher percentage from Nigeria, 16.3%). Relatively few of the respondents (6.2% from Cameroon and 2.4% from Nigeria) indicated that community meetings were the manner in which they were informed of the event. The results show that, in recent times, the accessibility and affordability of television has made it much easier for soccer fans to be informed about major football events. Moreover, radio and newspapers that have become popular and which, in the case of the latter, sometimes handed out free to the general public, has made communication easier than it was in the past and relatively cost-effective. The advancement in technology linked to IT and communication, in particular the internet, SMS and email; has provided the opportunity for the respondents to have been kept aware. Various sources normally used for communication (both electronic media and print media) were employed as a technique to inform soccer fans and key informants of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Cameroon and Nigeria. Besides, the media – both in South Africa and internationally – has been at the forefront of reporting about the 2010 event since the bid was won in 2004, throughout the implementation in 2010, and post-2010, albeit, in terms of the latter, to a lesser extent.

Table 5.11: Main sources of information about South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Multiple responses, in %)

Source of information	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
Television	89.7	89.2
Newspapers	43.6	64.6
Radio	57.2	58.8
Internet	42.3	50.1
Friends	46.4	28.3
Posters	25.9	15.7
SMS	21.0	16.0
Email	13.8	16.3
Community meetings	6.2	2.4

Tichaawa and Swart (2010) found, in their pre-event study on the 2010 FIFA World Cup and projected attendance among Cameroonian soccer fans that 37.5% of the respondents indicated that they would travel to South Africa to attend the event. The study also showed that 18.5% had said that they were not sure whether or not they would attend the event. Furthermore, all the key informants indicated that they intended to attend the event. In this study, in order to ascertain the attendance levels among the Cameroonian and Nigerian soccer fans at the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they had travelled to South Africa to attend the event. Figure 5.5 below shows that the percentages of ‘yes’ and ‘no’ responses among both countries were found to be almost equal, with the vast majority in Cameroon (87.7%) and Nigeria (97.6%) indicating that they did not attend the 2010 tournament, with very few respondents from Cameroon (12.3%) and fewer from Nigeria (2.4%) stating that they had attended the tournament. The results were unsurprising and reinforce the previous findings linked to travelling and attending international major sporting events among African fans (see Tables 5.5, 5.6 and 5.9 above). Again, travel-related costs and the respondents’ generally low-income earning power could be contributing factors. According to SAT (2010), a total of 309 554 tourists arrived in South Africa for the primary purpose of attending the 2010 FIFA World Cup, with the African land markets (mostly the SADC countries) accounting for 32% of such a number. However, those from other African countries who travelled by air were relatively low in number when compared with the number from Europe.

In terms of the key informant interviews, two (one from the local state government and one from a private tourism and investment organisation) in Nigeria said that they had attended the

2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa. None of such key informants in Cameroon said that they had personally attended the 2010 event. The findings of this study when compared with the responses of the pre-event study of Tichaawa and Swart (2010) showed that the desire expressed to attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup did not translate into actual practice. Perhaps the soccer fans underestimated the actual costs involved in travelling and attending a mega-event.

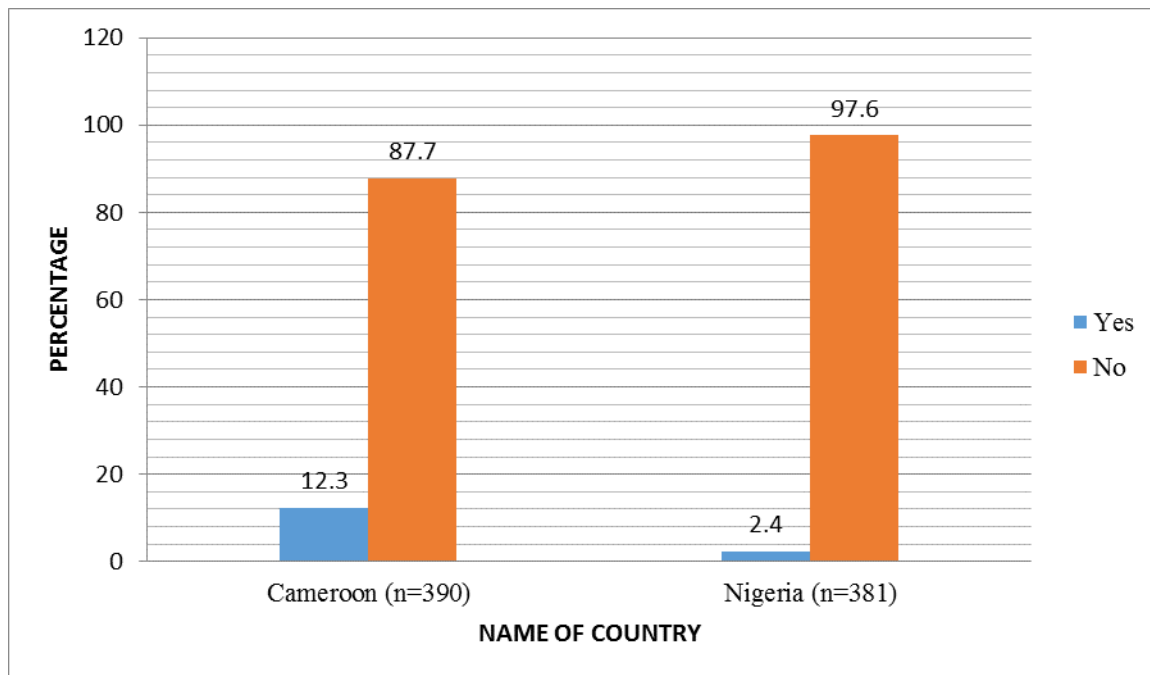


Figure 5.5: Fan attendance at 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa (in %)

The reasons provided by the soccer fans and by the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria for them not attending the FIFA World Cup are discussed below. Such reasons are important in terms of the planning and management to boost African participation at future mega-events held on the African continent. Those respondents who reported not having attended the 2010 FIFA World Cup advanced several reasons as a contributing factor to them not having done so. It is evident from Table 5.12 below that 44.1% of the respondents in Cameroon and 37.3% of those in Nigeria stated that they did not attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup because they could not afford to purchase game tickets. This finding is consistent with, and reinforces, the findings of Maharaj (2011) who found that World Cup tickets were expensive for African fans, which could have prevented their participation in the tournament. According to FIFA (2009), tickets for the 2010 event was priced to cost between R490 to R6 300 each, depending on the category of ticket required. Therefore, the value of the tickets might have proven costly to fans, especially when taking their income into account (see Figure 5.3). James and Ross

(2004) assert that ticket-pricing issues have become a central issue that affects attendance at major sporting events. This was summed up by one key informant in Nigeria, who said:

I really would have liked to travel and experience the World Cup being played in our own backyard. But there is just no way that I could justify travelling to South Africa on my current earnings. The tickets were quite expensive. I don't know why FIFA did not consider this when they were organising this event.

According to Matheson and Baade (2003), when mega-events are hosted in developing countries, it is not unusual that the majority of the population from such countries cannot afford ticket prices. Nauright (2004) advances the proposition that football remains a black sport, and that the majority of black people in Africa are less financially capable, as is evident in this study in terms of the average income (see Figure 5.3). Therefore, maximising African soccer fans' participation at future events will require robust thinking in relation to the pricing of game tickets. A key informant in Cameroon commented:

We cannot pay that much for a football ticket. In Africa, we are used to paying very little to access games, be it at local level or at international level. You will find it hard to sell football tickets in Cameroon for less than \$10. I don't think anyone bought a ticket. Many people who attended the event got sponsored tickets that were given to the Federation (FECAFOOT).

Other respondents (37.7% from Cameroon and 31.9% from Nigeria) stated that they could not attend the 2010 event, owing to the high travel cost involved. This reason should be viewed in the same light as the discussion above in relation to the inability to purchase tickets because of the close similarities between the numbers concerned. According to Zhang (2007), the cost of events in terms of their entrance fees, accommodation and transportation fees, as well as in terms of other factors, might make them expensive to access. The cost of transportation to regions hosting large-scale sporting events has been identified as a major element of travel costs for tourists as well as travelling sport fans (Fourie *et al.*, 2011). This was echoed by stakeholder groups in Cameroon and Nigeria. One key informant in Nigeria said:

When you look at the cost involved, to travel and attend the World Cup was just impossible. You need to pay for flight tickets, which are not cheap, accommodation when you get there, transport to the games, and then food. Least to say, I will need money to shop for my family, who will be expecting me to bring them gifts. It's just not feasible.

Another key informant in Cameroon equally noted:

You conduct a cost versus benefit of attending, and the first thing you realise is that it is better not to. The cost is way too much. Airlines that take you to South Africa were very expensive at that time. Although I have family and friends I could stay with, I still needed money for my upkeep. I could just watch the game on television.

According to Turco *et al.* (2012), South Africa is a long-haul destination. Therefore, for soccer fans and for those attending the 2010 FIFA World Cup, long-haul flights that are expensive were the predominant mode of transportation, especially from primary overseas source markets, of which Africa is one (Fourie *et al.*, 2011). du Plessis and Maennig (2012) concluded that, for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the factor of price crowding-out might have been at work in terms of reducing the number of arrivals. They assert that there was inflated price increases in tourism-related goods and services, where such prices were based on *ex ante* expectancy of substantial tourist influxes.

Furthermore, a total of 19.2% of respondents in Cameroon and 20.5% from Nigeria stated that they had not attended the event because they preferred watching the games on television. One factor that could have influenced this result is the cost that would have been involved in travelling to, and attending, the event. The respondents could have felt that it was more cost-effective to watch the game on television. Soccer fans indicated that they preferred to watch the 2010 games at the local pubs, which also provided the opportunity to socialise with friends. Watching games on television is common among soccer fans (Sutton *et al.*, 1997; Smith and Stewart, 2007). Such watching might have happened when sport tourists avoided the event owing to social issues, including crowding and congestion (Higham, 1999; Ohmann *et al.*, 2006), noise (Preuss, 2011) and perceptions of exaggerated increase in prices in the tourist sector (du Plessis and Maennig, 2012).

Many respondents from Cameroon (22.1%), in relation to those in Nigeria (8.1%), said that they were not able to attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup because they had visa problems. South Africa claimed it was the first country in the history of the FIFA World Cup to issue an event visa to those individuals who were able to provide evidence of a purchased FIFA match ticket, however, such fans were still subject to fulfilling normal visa requirements (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2008). The findings show that visa processing might have been a contentious issue for soccer fans, especially in Cameroon. The problem of experiencing problems with processing travel visas in many African countries is not new. Dieke (2009) postulates that one of the main challenges that inhibits international tourism arrivals in Africa is the cumbersome process of acquiring visas. Okech (2010) emphasises the

need to adopt a neo-liberal approach to travel-related policies, including to those concerning the deregulation of visas, especially at regional level, to encourage tourism arrivals within Africa.

Very few of the respondents (4.1% from Cameroon and 2.1% from Nigeria) in this study stated that they were not interested in soccer and that they saw no reason to travel to South Africa for the purpose of attending the event. Such soccer fans could have been among those who had previously described themselves as being interested in the sport, but who sometimes attended or watched it because family or friends were interested in it (see Table 5.3).

According to Maharaj (2011), the planning phase of the 2010 event witnessed a spate of xenophobic attacks that started in 2008 on African immigrants around South Africa. The attacks were widely publicised in both the local and the international media, which raised further questions surrounding the security and the ability to host a truly 'African World Cup'. In this research, very few respondents (1.3% from Cameroon and 0.5% from Nigeria) cited xenophobia as a reason for not attending the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Soccer fans and key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria did not see this as a factor that influenced their non-attendance. The findings are consistent with those of Achu and Swart (2012), who conducted a post-2010 FIFA World Cup legacy study on resident African immigrants in Cape Town. They found that no such immigrant cited xenophobia as being an issue during the tournament, but rather they stated that the tournament had enhanced their relationship with local South Africans. Desai and Vahed's (2010) views that the series of horrific xenophobic attacks across South Africa on African immigrants that received widespread media coverage internationally would prevent African fans from attending the event were, therefore, unfounded. However, Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2011: 411) stated that "the threats and realities of outbreaks of xenophobia at the end of the widely praised and celebrated World Cup served as an indictment of the spirit of pan-Africanism ignited by the tournament".

South Africa is perceived internationally as a crime-infested destination (Bob *et al.*, 2006; Tatalias, 2007; Donaldson and Ferreira, 2007; Perry *et al.*, 2012). In this study, very few soccer fans and key informants (0.8% from Cameroon and 1% from Nigeria) said that crime in South Africa was the reason that turned them away from attending the event. The findings of this research, in terms of safety and security, are of key importance for two main reasons. Firstly, they contradict the previous perceptions of South Africa as a crime-infested destination that would deter potential visitors during the 2010 event, as had been continuously

propagated by the media. In terms of such media accounts, South Africa's ability to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup had been questionable (Cape Times, 2007; Swart *et al.*, 2011), despite the country having previously successfully hosted other relatively crime-free major events (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2008).

Such reasons as crime, political instability and xenophobia are, therefore, seen to have had relatively little impact on the respondents' decision not to attend the event, although the result might also be an indicator of the positive change in image accorded to the host nation through the extensive media coverage during the hosting of the event in 2010. Knott *et al.* (2013) have argued that hosting a mega-event has the ability to positively influence the destination brand. According to Ohmann *et al.* (2006), one of the intangible legacies of hosting mega-events is the positive change that is brought about in relation to image enhancement for the entire host destination. They contend that Germany benefited to a greater extent in relation to a positive change in its perceptions as a tourism destination, as a result of hosting the 2006 FIFA World Cup. George and Swart (2012) found in their study on the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa that the vast majority of visitors expressed a positive perception of the destination. A similar change in perception was also noted by Kim *et al.* (2006) in regard to the media impact of the 2002 event on co-host nation Korea.

Furthermore, the data showed that some of the other reasons provided by the respondents for not attending the 2010 event were given minimal prominence. Very few of the respondents (0.3% from Cameroon and 0.5% from Nigeria) stated that South Africa was perceived as a country with unfriendly people. Only a few of the respondents (0.9% from Cameroon) provided other reasons, which were mainly linked to work and to study commitments that prevented them from attending. A key informant in Cameroon described the situation in this way:

I would like to think that I will be [i.e. would have been] very much interested in attending the World Cup, but, unfortunately, the event was taking place at a time when our organisation was rolling out and implementing several pre-planned projects within communities. I was very much involved in it, and could not find the time.

Table 5.12: Fan respondents' reasons for not attending the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa (Multiple responses, in %)

Reasons for not attending 2010 FIFA World Cup	Cameroon (n=346)	Nigeria (n=372)
Could not afford to purchase tickets	44.1	37.3
Travel costs were too high	37.7	31.9
Preferred to watch games on television	19.2	20.5
Visa problems	22.1	8.1
Not interested in soccer	4.1	2.1
Xenophobia	1.3	0.5
Crime	0.8	1.0
Unfriendly people	0.3	0.5
Other (occupied with work and studies)	0.9	0.0

Table 5.13 below shows the 2010 FIFA World Cup host cities where those respondents who attended the event were based. It is evident from the data contained in the table that there were disparities in percentages in terms of host cities and case study areas. Host city Johannesburg was very popular among Nigerian fans who attended the event (77.8%) compared to among Cameroonian fans (36.3%). Despite the differences, Johannesburg was the main base for Nigerian and Cameroonian fans. This result was to have been expected, as Johannesburg represented the gateway city in relation to air traffic flow from both case study areas and, therefore, was more accessible and could have been used to travel to the other host cities. Moreover, both the Cameroonian and the Nigerian national football teams had games played at the two designated stadium for the 2010 FIFA World Cup tournament (Ellis Park and Loftus Versfeld). Only respondents from Cameroon said that they had been based at the host cities of Cape Town (20.5%), Durban (18.2%) and Pretoria (13.6%). Some of the respondents in Nigeria (11.1%) and some in Cameroon (9%) noted that they were based in Bloemfontein (with both national football teams having played games in the Free State stadium), while a similar number of respondents from Nigeria (11.1%) but fewer in Cameroon (2.4%), said that they had been based in Port Elizabeth. None of the respondents in Cameroon or in Nigeria said that they had been based in any of the other 2010 FIFA World Cup host cities (Rustenburg, Nelspruit and Polokwane). This study found that Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban were popular host cities among Cameroonian and Nigerian fans. The finding reinforces those of SAT (2010), which noted that Gauteng, the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal were the most visited provinces during the event.

Table 5.13: If yes, where were the fan respondents based in South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)

2010 FIFA World Cup host city	Cameroon (n=44)	Nigeria (n=9)
Johannesburg	36.3	77.8
Cape Town	20.5	-
Durban	18.2	-
Pretoria	13.6	-
Bloemfontein	9.0	11.1
Port Elizabeth	2.4	11.1

Those respondents who said that they had attended the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa had varied their length of stay in the number of days spent, as is categorised in Figure 5.6 below. Close to a third of the respondents in Nigeria (33.3%) and in Cameroon (31.9%) indicated that they had stayed between 8 and 14 days during their hosting of the event. Some of the respondents (31.3% from Cameroon and less from Nigeria, 22.3%) said that they had stayed between 15 and 21 days. An almost identical number of the sample in Nigeria (22.2%) and in Cameroon (20.4%) reported that they stayed for 29 days and more. However, there was a disparity in the result recorded between those respondents who stated that they stayed between 1 and 7 days for the event (22.2% from Nigeria and only 4.5% from Cameroon). In terms of another disparity, only respondents from Cameroon (15.9%) said that they had stayed between 22 and 28 days. The average number of days that respondents said that they had stayed in South Africa was calculated as being 10.9 days. The 2010 FIFA World Cup took place over a period of 32 days. Against this background, the length of stay in South Africa tended to be long, and consistent with the figures given in the SAT (2010) 2010 FIFA World Cup departure survey, which had calculated the average length of stay to be 10.3 nights.

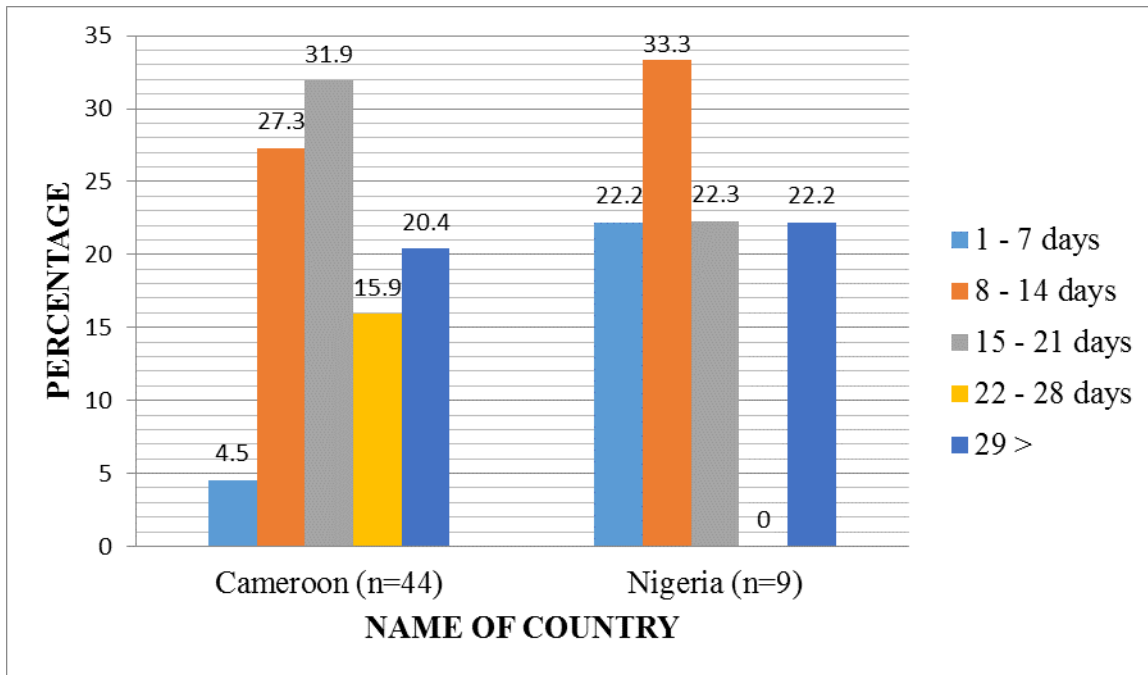


Figure 5.6: Fan respondents' duration of stay in South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)

Of the respondents who travelled to attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, Table 5.14 below illustrates that more respondents in Cameroon than in Nigeria travelled as ticketed soccer fans. A total of 52.3% of the respondents in Cameroon and 44.4% in Nigeria stated that they had travelled with a ticket. Those respondents who travelled without a ticket were classified as non-ticketed fans (55.6% from Nigerian, and 47.7% from Cameroon). In recent times, sport fans have been able to travel to mega-events as either ticketed or non-ticketed fans. The finding indicates that the acquisition of game tickets did not serve as a motivator for Cameroonian and Nigerian fans who attended the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Fan parks and public viewing areas that were initiated in Germany and that were also implemented during the 2010 FIFA World Cup catered for non-ticketed fans. However, Grant Thornton (2010) criticises the fact that, despite the 2010 event being the first ever to have been hosted on the continent, and to have been advertised as 'an African World Cup', less than 2% of the ticket-holders were from Africa. According to Maharaj (2011), the low level of ticket sales among Africans was related to the high cost of tickets that were, in addition, being purchased online on a continent where less than 6% of the population are connected to the internet and where few had access to credit card facilities. In this light, future mega-events that are organised to take place on the African continent should consider alternative ways to manage and execute ticket sales besides the internet. Suitable cost-effective strategies should be formulated to boost ticket sales and to increase African participation at such events.

Table 5.14: Whether fan respondents travelled to the 2010 FIFA World Cup with a ticket (in %)

Response	Cameroon (n=44)	Nigeria (n=9)
Yes	52.3	44.4
No	47.7	55.6

For the FIFA World Cup, fan parks and PVAs are required to accommodate those football fans/ tourists and members of the public who are unable to purchase tickets or to travel to match venues. Such PVAs were extensively designed and implemented for the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Those respondents who indicated that they had travelled to the event without a ticket were asked whether they had made use of PVAs to watch the matches. Table 5.15 below shows that the vast majority of Cameroonian fans (90.5%) and all those from Nigeria had visited a PVA or fan park during their visit. This result supports the fact that fan parks associated with FIFA World Cups have grown in popularity and importance among visitors since their inception for the 2006 event hosted by Germany.

Table 5.15: Whether the fan respondents who travelled to the 2010 FIFA World Cup without a ticket made use of fan parks or PVAs to watch matches (in %)

Response	Cameroon (n=44)	Nigeria (n=9)
Yes	90.5	100
No	9.5	0.0

According to Weed and Bull (2004), committed football fans are more likely than are other fans to travel in groups to support their favourite team at games or tournaments. As committed fans, they are attracted to the ‘whole package’ experience that such an event offers. Table 5.16 below provides insight into the travel group size of those African fans who attended the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Sizes of such immediate groups varied from 1 to 11 people. All the respondents from Nigeria compared to over half from Cameroon (63.6%) indicated that they travelled in groups of between 2 and 5 people. Furthermore, many of the respondents from Cameroon (29.5%) said that they had travelled alone, while the remaining groups, comprising 6 to 10 people and more than 11 people, constituted 4.5% and 2.5%, respectively, of the total sample.

Table 5.16: Fan respondents' travel group size for the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)

Group size	Cameroon (n=44)	Nigeria (n=9)
Travelled alone	29.5	-
2 – 5 people	63.6	100
6 – 10 people	4.5	-
11 >	2.4	-

Allmers and Maennig (2008) posit that such mega-events as the FIFA World Cup present an opportunity for visitors to experience other tourism offerings of the host destinations, including the local culture. Knowing in which activities respondents engaged while in South Africa for the World Cup is important for establishing tourism impacts that are linked to mega-events. The results in Table 5.17 below show that soccer fans and key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria engaged in a range of activities while in South Africa for the 2010 event. The majority of the respondents (63.4% from Nigeria and 52.7% from Cameroon) said that they shopped. The data further reflect that many of the respondents from Cameroon (59.9%) and Nigeria (52.1) said that they also dined. More of the respondents from Nigeria (52.1%) than those from Cameroon (40.9%) had participated in adventure-related activities. Thirty-seven percent of the respondents from Nigeria, compared to only 13.1% from Cameroon said that they had experienced some form of nature-based activity. Eleven percent of the respondents from Nigeria reported having been involved in cultural activities. Very few of the respondents from either Cameroon (6.4%) or Nigeria (4.5%) indicated that they had engaged in no activity while in South Africa or stated that they had no comment on the matter. The findings in this regard imply that, even if the main purpose of the participants' visit to South Africa was to attend a football game or to experience the World Cup, most also visited tourism destinations and attractions during their stay in the country. Shopping, dining and adventure/ leisure-based activities were prominent among those surveyed, although such a finding could be explained by their demographic profile, as the majority were found to be fairly young, making them relatively likely to engage in such activities. The finding compares favourably with, and reinforces, those of SAT (2010), which found in their analysis of the tourism impact of the 2010 FIFA World Cup that the majority of visitors who came for the purpose of the event spent their money on shopping, food and drink, and leisure.

Besides also engaging in some of the activities as the soccer fans, a key informant who attended the 2010 event stated that the primary motive of attending the event was to represent his organisation, who wanted to promote Nigeria as a tourism destination and to explore potential networking and business/ investment opportunities.

Table 5.17: Activities in which respondents engaged while in South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Multiple responses, in %)

Activities	Cameroon (n=44)	Nigeria (n=9)
Shopping	52.7	63.4
Dining	59.9	52.1
Adventure/ leisure	40.9	33.3
Nature	13.1	37.0
Culture	11.0	-
None/ no comment	6.4	4.5

5.6 Level of support for hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa

The literature review in chapter two detailed the extent of politicking that is involved in the process of bidding to host mega-events in both the developed and the developing contexts. The narratives of Cornelissen (2006) and Alegi (2007) on the bidding process of choosing the host for the 2010 FIFA World Cup paints a picture of the divided nature of the support for South Africa and Morocco. At the time, South Africa was considered a ‘new’ member of FIFA, compared with the relatively long record of Morocco in this regard, while others referred to South Africa as the ‘USA of Africa’, in an apparent reference to its economic and political influence and dominance. This section compares and discusses the level of support accorded to South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup from soccer fans and key informants beyond the borders of the host nation.

Figure 5.7 below reveals the results of the responses received from soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria, when they were asked whether they supported South Africa as host of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The figure shows that the vast majority of the respondents said that they supported the 2010 host (90% from Cameroon and slightly less from Nigeria, 79.8%), compared to the very few who did not support it (13.6% from Nigeria and 5.6% from Cameroon). The remaining percentage of the sample indicated that they were uncertain of their support for the host country (6.6% from Nigeria and 4.4% from Cameroon). Understanding the main reasons for a yes/ no response is deemed important, as it provides insight into the driving forces behind their support. The reasons for the responses that the respondents provided were asked in the form of a follow-up question, of which the results are explained below, with a view to understanding the key components of such support.

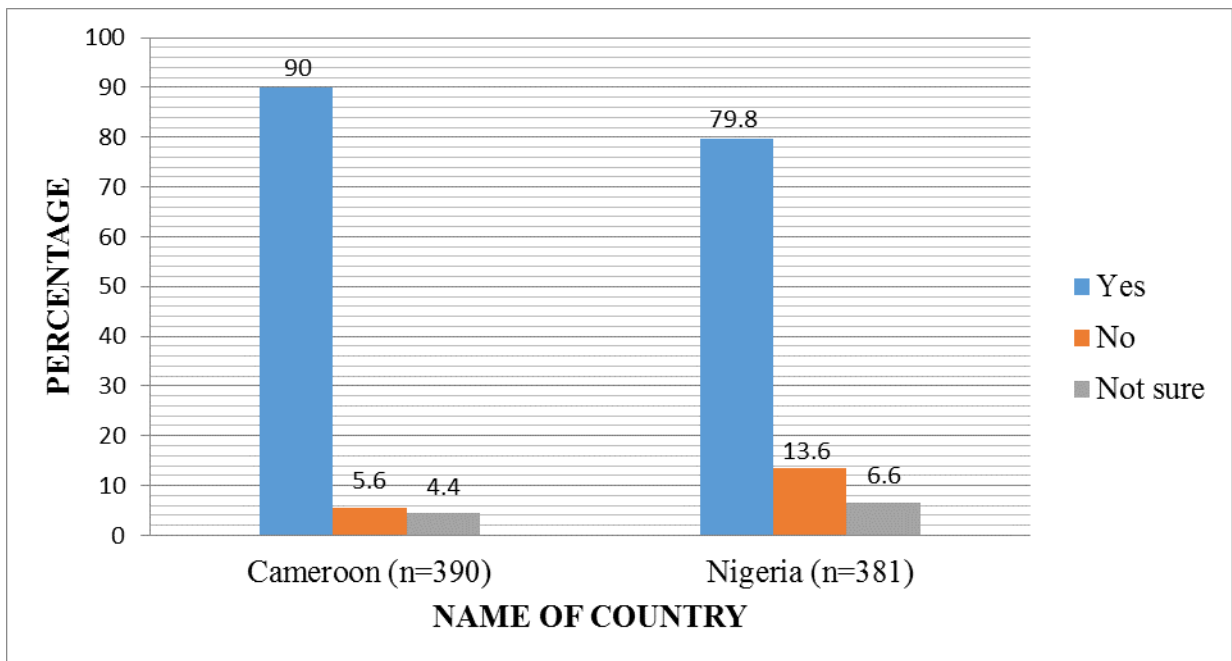


Figure 5.7: Level of support for South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)

In an open-ended question linked to the above, the respondents were asked to provide reasons for their support of the host country. Various reasons were advanced by soccer fans in both study areas. The multiple responses received were captured and grouped, based on the themes that can be seen in Table 5.18. The majority of respondents from Nigeria (62.2%) and from Cameroon (54.8%) said that their main reason for supporting South Africa as the host of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was because ‘Africa had never hosted the FIFA World Cup before’. This finding is of significance, but it is not surprising, and several reasons could be advanced in its justification. Since FIFA was founded in 1904, and despite Africa being the largest confederation within FIFA, the continent had never previously been offered the opportunity to host the FIFA World Cup prior to the 2010 tournament. Pannenberg (2008) and Vidacs (2010) have documented the success stories of the African teams (Cameroon, Nigeria, Senegal and Ghana in particular) at recent FIFA World Cup tournaments in relation to performances. Such improved performances as Pannenberg notes create the impression that an African team will soon emerge as winners of the FIFA World Cup.

Table 5.18: Fan respondents' reasons for level of support for South Africa's hosting of Africa's first ever FIFA World Cup (Multiple responses, in %)

Reason for support	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
Africa had never hosted the FIFA World Cup before	54.8	62.2
I am an African	38.9	27.8
Africans will benefit from jobs that the event brings	37.8	44.8
South Africa has good infrastructure	31.5	19.4
The opportunity to closely watch or to potentially meet world-class football stars and celebrities	21.6	26.0
Football development will improve in Africa	14.7	16.4
Hosting the World Cup will improve Africa's image	12.7	8.2
It was an African World Cup	9.2	-
The event will strengthen unity among Africans	7.6	3.6
I wanted my country to host it	2.1	10.2
I did not have confidence in South Africa's ability to host it	2.5	4.9
Security concerns	2.2	-
I have no reason	1.8	3.0
I am not interested in football	2.1	-

The respondents in this study might have felt that hosting the tournament in Africa, and specifically in South Africa, presented such an opportunity, and that it was Africa's time to host the tournament. However, besides the performance from the Ghanaian national football team, much was left to be desired from the performance of the other four teams (Cameroon, Algeria, Nigeria and South Africa) that represented Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup. One key informant from a football club in Cameroon was rather highly critical of the tournament performance. He lamented:

They called it an 'African World Cup', but the performances ... moved from bad to worse for African teams during the 2010 FIFA World Cup tournament, and after the tournament, especially [in terms of] the Cameroon team. African teams performed very poorly during the World Cup. In this sense, it was a total mess.

Another factor that could have influenced this finding was the persuasive nature of South Africa's 2006 and 2010 bids, in terms of its pan-African nature. Cornelissen (2004a) indicated that South Africa, in its bid efforts to the world market of football, had offered a persuasive argument, which had sometimes been cloaked in anti-colonial rhetoric. The bid, according to Desai and Vahed (2010), adopted a pan-Africanist slogan, 'It's Africa's turn', which inherently supported the concept of the international struggle still being waged by peripheral nations to help break Europe's remaining economic dominance of the African continent. Furthermore, as Alegi (2001) remarks, the decision to award the 2006 FIFA World Cup to Germany over South Africa was greeted with overwhelming negativity by African countries,

as they regarded the decision as indicating a patronising and racist international stance towards Africa as a whole. The overall sentiment from the soccer fans and the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria was that it was, indeed, ‘Africa’s turn’ as part of the global football community to host the tournament for the first time ever, and to accrue related benefits that had long been enjoyed by the developed world, which has largely dominated the hosting of previous FIFA World Cups (Turco *et al.*, 2012). Moreover, as one key informant, belonging to a football NGO in Cameroon, noted:

The competition is not meant only for other continents, so it was time for Africa to host the tournament for the first time. In Africa, I see that South Africa is the most capable, and is economically and financially viable to host such a tournament.

Furthermore, the data revealed a strong sense of ‘Africanness’ as a factor that influenced support for the event in both case study areas. Many respondents from Cameroon (38.9%), compared to Nigeria (27.8%) said that they had supported South Africa as host of the 2010 FIFA World Cup because ‘I am an African and South Africa is part of Africa’. The findings here could be read in line with those discussed above. Perhaps soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria accepted that South Africa is part of the African continent, contrary to the negative media sentiments echoed during the bidding stages. As stated earlier, in terms of such sentiments, South Africa was referred to as ‘the USA’, in reference to its continental economic dominance. It was also referred to as the ‘new kid on the block’, in reference to South Africa only having been readmitted as a member of FIFA in comparison to other African countries.

Most key informants were equally vocal and passionate about the issue of pan-Africanism linked to the support of the event. One key informant in Nigeria summed up this argument:

I am indeed proud of our continent Africa, and will always support Africa as a continent, irrespective. I was happy to know that the 2010 FIFA World Cup will [that is, would] be hosted in Africa for the first time, and that South Africa is [that is, was] the host nation.

The two reasons (‘Africa had never hosted the FIFA World Cup before’ and ‘I am an African and South Africa is part of Africa’) given by soccer fans and key informants as support for South Africa as host for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, as discussed above, can largely be linked to Africanism. It indicates that there was a strong desire to experience the World Cup in

Africa, and perhaps that the message widely publicised by the host nation South Africa as the event being an ‘African affair’ could have been well received beyond its borders.

Closely linked to the concept of pan-Africanism or ‘Africanness’ discussed above were, as emanated from the data in this study, sentiments cloaked in the African legacy initiatives discussed in previous chapters in this study. Some of the respondents (16.4% from Nigeria, and 14.7% from Cameroon) noted that their support was accorded to South Africa because they perceived that ‘football development will improve in Africa’ as a result of the country’s hosting of the FIFA World Cup. A key informant involved in football in Nigeria emphasised:

I was happy to learn that Africa was given the chance to host a football tournament for the first time because, somehow, I know [that is, knew] that the event was going to show the challenges that Africa football still has in terms of facilities. FIFA was going to do something to improve the situation which is [that is, that was] not good. The event was going to change the way [in which] most African government look [at] and support football.

The above statement exemplifies and portrays the level of expectations expressed by football stakeholder groups in Africa on the impact that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup would have on the development of the game of football on the continent.

Furthermore, 12.7% of respondents in Cameroon and 8.2% in Nigeria said that ‘hosting the World Cup will improve Africa’s image’. Pellegrino and Hancock (2010) note that such a mega-event as the FIFA World Cup has the potential to create a lasting legacy in terms of global image. They note that the event showcases what a destination has to offer and may put an unknown tourist destination on the map. Africa has largely been perceived as a continent that is plagued by structural problems including wars, crime and ethnic tensions, as well as dictatorships and poverty (Darby *et al.*, 2007; Darby, 2005; Ginsberg, 2010). Perhaps, soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria recognised the hegemony that mega-events have and, in the case of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, that it might assist in offsetting, in a positive manner, the aforementioned negative images of Africa.

Furthermore, a few of the respondents said that they supported South Africa because ‘the event will strengthen unity among Africans’ (7.6% from Cameroon, and 3.6% in Nigeria). Kim *et al.* (2006) and Ohmann *et al.* (2006), on analysing the impacts of the FIFA World Cups in Japan/ Korea (2002) and in Germany (2006), have demonstrated that one of the intangible positive effects that the events have left on such destinations was the unifying of

communities. However, Desai and Vahed (2010) doubted whether such a unity could be achieved in the context of Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa. The ambivalence on their part emanates from South Africa's xenophobic tendencies towards African immigrants that reside in the country. Unlike the soccer fans, the key informants were more forthcoming regarding the idea of unity. They felt that the event was able to show African unity and diversity, contrary to perceptions that were held in the global North. One key informant in Cameroon contended:

I supported South Africa in hosting the tournament, because I feel [that is, felt] that the country has got [that is, had] the necessary financial resources to portray Africa and [to] allow it to sell itself in terms of unity and diversity, and [to] prove to the world that Africa is [that is, was] able to do anything.

South Africa's positioning of the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an 'African World Cup' has not gone unchallenged in terms of motives. Gqola (2010) perceived the idea of an 'African World Cup' to be rhetorical, meaningless, condescending and opportunistic. Alegi (2010) noted that the 2010 event was rather a purely South African affair in every sense, in terms of the accrued impacts. However, 9.2% of the respondents in Cameroon and, interestingly, none in Nigeria said that their support was based on the fact that the 2010 event was positioned as an 'African World Cup', as was widely publicised by the host nation South Africa right from the initial bidding stages to host the event. Soccer fans and key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria did not base their support for South Africa on the concept. The low rate of responses received in this regard might be due to the fact that, at the time of bidding for the tournament in 2004, the concept of an 'African World Cup' might not have filtered through to soccer fans, and especially not to those in Cameroon and Nigeria. However, Table 5.32 below, which represents the perceptions of such soccer fans in terms of the Likert scale statement, and in relation to the concept, reveals a split result.

Ndlovu (2010) and Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2011) have recognised South Africa as being one of the most developed African countries in terms of its infrastructure and economic growth. This is typified by the country being a member of the BRICS nations. The country has gained prominence from being at the forefront in championing the concepts of pan-Africanism and the African Renaissance within the framework of the AU. Another theme that has emerged from the sampled data as being a reason for soccer fans and key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria supporting South Africa as the host of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was largely linked to perceptions of South Africa itself. More of the respondents from Cameroon (31.5%) than

from Nigeria (19.4%) stated that their support was based on the fact that ‘South Africa has good infrastructure’, in reference to the required stadium and transport imperatives to host mega-events. Since the democratic elections in 1994, South Africa has hosted several major sporting events, notably the RWC World Cup in 1995, the Africa Cup of Nations in 1996, and the CWC in 2003, besides the FIFA Confederation Cup in 2009. The successful hosting of such tournaments, and the exposure and the experiences gained through various media sources might have contributed to the development of such a response. Over and above that, Dieke (2009) asserts that tourism in South Africa is fairly advanced in terms of development, relative to other countries on the African continent, in terms of strategic infrastructural ambit (tourism’s 3As – access, amenities and accommodation). Achu and Swart (2012), in their study on resident African immigrants and the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, found that one of the primary reasons for such immigrants coming to South Africa was based on the perception of the country as the provider of a better socio-economic environment than they had at home. Key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria also stated that their support was based on the intention and the potential to visit/ revisit a beautiful tourism destination. As one key informant in Cameroon stated, “I love South Africa as a country, and had always wanted to visit [it]”. In Nigeria, a key informant simply stated, “I wanted to visit the country again”.

Twenty-six percent of the respondents in Nigeria, and 21.6% in Cameroon said that their support was accorded to South Africa because the World Cup provided them with ‘the opportunity to closely watch or potentially meet world-class football stars and celebrities’. This finding reinforces the notion put forward by Kim and Chalip (2004), in developing a conceptual model of event interest and in the intent to attend the event, which indicated interest in players as a key push factor. The FIFA World Cup event has traditionally been characterised by the best footballing nations boasting prominent football players/ legends (both past and present) in terms of representation. Smith and Stewart (2007) hold the view that such major sporting events provide a platform for nostalgic fans to interact with their favourite players and celebrities. However, this study found that this did not necessarily materialise, considering the very low percentages experienced in both case study areas in terms of attendance levels during the event in 2010.

The remaining five reasons that emerged from the responses received in terms of support were noted as being somewhat negative, albeit to a minimal extent. Such reasons were advanced for not supporting South Africa as the host. Interestingly, more respondents from Nigeria (10.2%), compared to those from Cameroon (2.1%), said that they did not support the

2010 event hosted in South Africa because ‘I wanted my country to host it’. Nigeria was initially in the bidding race to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup event, which was restricted to African countries only. Also, 4.9% of the respondents from Nigeria said that they ‘did not have confidence in South Africa’s ability to host it’.

Very few of the respondents in Cameroon (2.2%) said that ‘security concerns’ was the main reason for them not supporting the event being hosted in South Africa. The finding is noted as being consistent with those which have previously been discussed in Table 5.12. Three percent of respondents in Nigeria and 1.8% in Cameroon gave ‘no reason’ for their response, while 2.1% in Cameroon expressed a lack of interest in football.

The findings in this section are of key importance in relation to the level of African support garnered for South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The results show that there was a very strong level of support for South Africa as host in both Cameroon and Nigeria. The results represent a significant change or shift in perceptions, given that the conceptual framework of this study (chapter two) in terms of the political economy of mega-events showed that the pre-event was largely characterised by intense bidding, which laid bare the African divide in terms of North versus South, and a passionate justification for deserving the rights to host the event. As Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2011: 407) concluded about the event, “what was clear is that the World Cup spawned a variety of interpretations, but the nationalist and pan-Africanist ones were dominant”.

5.7 Understanding of what constitutes a ‘mega-event legacy’

Assessing the respondents’ level of understanding of the concept of ‘mega-event legacy’ is important in analysing the perceptions of the African legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. In terms of the soccer fans’ understanding of mega-event legacy, Table 5.19 below reveals that the vast majority of the respondents (88.8% from Nigeria, and 86.2% from Cameroon) stated ‘I don’t know’. Soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria, therefore, appear to possess a very low level of understanding of what constitutes such a legacy. This finding raises the question as to how the African legacy linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup was planned, communicated and implemented. The findings might represent that the element of educating, and of defining, or of providing a basic understanding of mega-event legacy, was largely missing from the agenda of many African states, despite the adoption of the African Legacy Programme by the AU. In view of the fact that Gratton and Preuss (2008) and Cornelissen *et al.* (2011) emphasise and caution that legacy impacts for destinations that host mega-events should be

measured in the long-term, providing an understanding of mega-event legacy was of essence, given that it was Africa's first ever mega-event, and that it had a continental orientation, which had never before been done with any previous mega-event hosted globally. Therefore, future large-scale or mega-events that are hosted on this scale in Africa should consider such an implication. However, the above results might be contextualised, in the light of the difficulties that prevail in defining the concept of legacy. Preuss (2007) postulates on the idea that the difficulty in understanding the concept of legacy arises from the tangible and the intangible effects that the use of the term has. Cornelissen *et al.* (2011) argue that the term 'legacy', in itself, remains controversial in terms of its understanding, constitution and definition, in relation to mega-events. In this sense, therefore, the above finding that the majority of the respondents did not know what a mega-event legacy was is not surprising.

However, a range of mega-event legacy definitions were advanced by the soccer fans from Cameroon and Nigeria. Some of the respondents from Cameroon (17.1%) and others from Nigeria (14.0%) stated 'mega-event legacies are important benefits left after a mega-event', with most citing the tangible example of infrastructure, mainly in the form of stadium. In a closely related response, a few respondents from Cameroon (6.7%) and a few others from Nigeria (1.5%) expressed their understanding of mega-event legacies as 'a term used to described the benefits that mega-events bring' to host destinations. Furthermore, some respondents (13.4% from Cameroon, and 11.2% from Nigeria) gave, as their understanding of mega-event legacy 'a very big event with opportunities for business', while other respondents (12.2% from Cameroon and 9.1% from Nigeria) said that legacy referred to 'impacts left by a mega-event on the host destination'.

The key informants were rather more circumspect and specific in their understanding of the phenomenon, although such understanding was also linked mainly to impacts. One key informant described it as "the lasting benefits of hosting a major event". Another key informant said that mega-event legacy represents "benefits that are inherited from a big event". Furthermore, a key informant understood mega-event legacy within the context of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and Africa as:

These are the benefits that the host country South Africa and other African countries will have after the 2010 FIFA World Cup tournament. In other words, it is the long-term positive effects of the tournament on the host country and the continent of Africa as a whole.

Despite the conceptual framework and the literature review chapters of this study highlighting that mega-event legacies are positive or negative in nature, the findings of this study show that both the soccer fans and the key informants from Cameroon and Nigeria rather perceived mega-event legacy as positive benefits/ impacts arising from hosting such mega-events. The findings tend to reinforce those of Junod (2006) who suggest that the term ‘legacy’ is generally understood to having only positive connotations.

Table 5.19: Fan respondents’ level of understanding of mega-event legacy (Multiple responses, in %)

Understanding of mega-event legacy	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
I don’t know	86.2	88.8
It is important benefits left after a mega-event, for example, stadium	17.1	14.0
It is a very big event, with opportunities for business	13.4	11.2
It is impacts left by a mega-event on a host destination	12.3	9.1
It is a term used to describe the benefits that a mega-event brings	6.7	1.5

5.8 Awareness and perceptions of the ‘African legacy’ intentions and projects linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup

The analysis and discussion articulated in this section relates to the results obtained from respondents regarding their level of awareness and their perceptions of the ‘African legacy’ intentions/ objectives, and related projects, implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria. The focus is on establishing the perceived benefits that have materialised from legacy projects linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

When the respondents were asked whether or not they were aware of the ‘African legacy’ intentions and objectives that were linked to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, as Figure 5.8 shows, the majority of respondents (60.8% from Cameroon and 56.4% from Nigeria) said that they were not aware of any such legacy objectives. Some of the respondents (34.1% from Nigeria, and 31.3% from Cameroon) indicated that they were aware of them. A few of the respondents (9.2% from Nigeria and 7.9% from Cameroon) said that perhaps they knew of such intentions or they were not sure about them. The findings reveal that over half of the respondents surveyed in both case study areas did not know of the African legacy intentions/ objectives of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, as had been widely publicised. This raises key questions with regards to the extent to how such legacy objectives for Africa were communicated to the stakeholder groups in both case study areas,

and perhaps in other African countries, pre-event, during the event and post-event. Given the nature and extent of the planned legacy (continental legacy) which had never before been planned, as was stated earlier, communicating such African legacy objectives/ intentions could have been important in garnering support at grassroots level for such an African agenda. Pellegrino and Hancock (2010) caution that the lack of understanding and support from all stakeholder groups including the public, the government, businesses, local sporting organisations and others, can severely undermine the objectives of hosting a mega-event in the first place. Future large-scale and mega-events that are to be hosted on the African continent should, therefore, ensure the effective communication of legacy objectives at all levels. This will assist in contributing to the creation of knowledge management which is important in terms of identifying best practice as well as lessons for future bids for sporting events (Smith and Fox, 2007). The key informants displayed a much higher level of awareness compared to the soccer fans. Specifically, all key informants in Nigeria said that they were aware of the African legacy objectives.

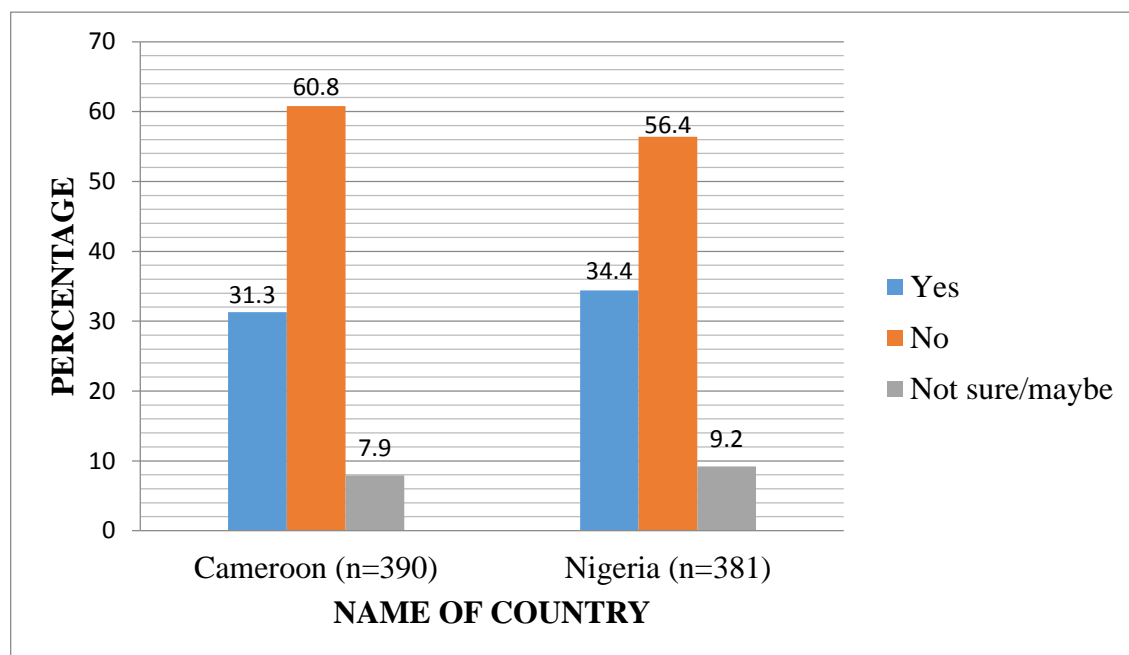


Figure 5.8: Fan respondents' level of awareness of the 'African legacy' intentions/objectives linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)

Table 5.20 below shows that those respondents who said that they were aware of 'African legacy' intentions (n=131 from Nigeria and n=122 from Cameroon) were largely aware of the aim to strengthen, develop and advance African football (86.2% from Nigeria, and 78.6% from Cameroon). Many respondents in Cameroon (68.9%) and Nigeria (63.4%) said that they were aware of the aim to improve Africa's global image and to overcome the remaining Afro-

pessimism. Some of the respondents from Nigeria (48.8%) and Cameroon (31.9%) said that they were aware of the aim to leverage socio-economic benefits that were linked to tourism. More respondents in Nigeria (26.7%) than in Cameroon (13.9%) said that they knew of the aim to improve gender and capacity building. With regards to the aim to improve climate change and national resource management, the percentages received were noted as being quite similar (10.7% in Cameroon and 10% in Nigeria). The findings show that African Legacy Programme objectives to develop and to advance African football have changed Africa's global image, and that the leveraging of socio-economic benefits has been largely popular in terms of inculcating a sense of awareness among soccer fans and key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria.

Table 5.20: The 'African legacy' intentions/ objectives of which fan respondents were aware of (Multiple responses, in %)

Legacy intentions/objectives	Cameroon (n=122)	Nigeria (n=131)
The aim to strengthen, to develop, and to advance African football	78.6	86.2
The aim to improve Africa's global image and to overcome Afro-pessimism	68.9	63.4
Leveraging of socio-economic benefits linked to tourism	31.9	48.8
Gender and capacity building	13.9	26.7
Climate change and national resource management	10.7	10.0

Mega-events can also provide opportunities for the host sporting authorities to embark on shared projects, in order to serve several purposes (Malfas *et al.*, 2004). In terms of the perceptions of legacy projects implemented as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting, soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria who were aware of the legacy programme felt that various projects were instigated. Table 5.21 below reveals that the majority of the respondents (63.1% from Cameroon and 59.5% from Nigeria) felt that most of the projects implemented were mainly associated with those involving football support and development. Forty-five percent of the respondents from Nigeria and 31.9% from Cameroon said that peace and nation-building projects were also implemented, although this was rather controversial, considering that, as can be seen in Table 5.20, soccer fans in both case study areas did not mention this specific objective. Thirty-two percent of the respondents in Nigeria and 20.4% in Cameroon indicated that communication and information technology projects were implemented in their countries. Some of the respondents (35.8% from Nigeria and 18.8% from Cameroon) also stated that environmental preservation/ conservation and tourism projects were implemented. A few respondents noted culture and heritage (19.8% from

Nigeria and 12.2% from Cameroon) and continental security cooperation (12.2% from Nigeria, and 8.1% from Cameroon) as being the other projects implemented.

The key informants (in both Cameroon and Nigeria) were unanimous in their thinking that the legacy projects implemented had only occurred in the domain of football support and development, and in terms of the environment and tourism.

Table 5.21: Fan respondents' perceptions of legacy projects implemented in Cameroon/ Nigeria (Multiple responses, in %)

Legacy projects	Cameroon (n=122)	Nigeria (n=131)
Football support and development	63.1	59.5
Peace and nation-building	31.9	45.0
Communications and information technology	20.4	32.0
Environment and tourism	18.8	35.8
Culture and heritage	12.2	19.8
Continental security cooperation	8.1	12.2

When asked about the benefits that had materialised as a result of the implemented legacy projects in Cameroon and Nigeria discussed above, Table 5.22 below clearly shows that over half of the respondents (54.3% from Cameroon, and 52.6% from Nigeria) held the view that there had been an improvement in the quality of football-playing facilities. The view was cautiously shared by one key informant in Cameroon, who suggested:

Since the announcement that the 2010 FIFA World Cup was to be hosted in South Africa, there has been some positive movement from the side of the government to improve stadiums in Cameroon. The Unification Stadium in Douala and the Amadou Ahidjo Stadium in Yaoundé have undergone some renovations. The government [has] also announce[d] the construction of stadiums in Limbe and Bafoussam. I am not sure, though, if this [that is, these] projects were because of the World Cup.

Sixteen percent of the respondents in Nigeria and 7.6% of those in Cameroon said that there has been an improvement in communication, mainly through the media and internet. Other respondents (14.7% from Cameroon and 1.5% from Nigeria) indicated that they did not know of any benefits that had materialised thus far. Some respondents (13.7% from Nigeria and 6.5% from Cameroon) reported that there had been improved environmental protection as a result of the implementation of legacy projects. Other benefits that were put forward by respondents as having materialised were the promotion of local culture (12.2% from Nigeria and 4.6% from Cameroon), improved professionalism in football, in terms of coaching and

officiating (10.9% from Cameroon and 6.1% from Nigeria), and increased tourism arrivals and awareness (6.8% from Nigeria and 4.6% from Cameroon). However, 2.4% of the respondents from Cameroon and 1.5% of those from Nigeria said that there had been no benefits so far.

While soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria perceived that a range of benefits had materialised as a result of implementing the African Legacy Programme objectives, the key informants interviewed revealed that the main benefits that had accrued were mainly in the domain of football development, specifically in relation to a focus on the youth football at grassroots level. A key informant in Nigeria said:

My organisation was lucky to be invited to a function that was represented by FIFA, CAF, NFA, and some big companies, such as MTN. This networking opportunity resulted in us getting some funding and football equipment to run our programme. Although this is not enough, there is renewed hope of having some of our young players play professional football, and even represent the national team in future.

FIFA's support of the objective of developing and advancing African football through such programmes as the 'Win in Africa with Africa' combined with a series of football coaching and administrative management workshops (FIFA, 2009) might have had a positive impact in Africa. For example, a key informant in Cameroon who attended a workshop organised by FIFA in Cameroon's capital Yaoundé, candidly stated:

Since the workshop, we have tried to change a few things with regards to how we operate our football academy. Our approach to training has changed, in that we have implemented modern techniques currently used in most European countries. We have also created an environment that encourages the players to study and be disciplined.

The above response from the key informant from Cameroon mirrors the narrative provided by Schokkaert *et al.* (2012) who conducted a study on the impact of the World Cup on football academies in Senegal and South Africa. Their findings showed that increased investments in football academies by private establishments and FIFA point towards the fact that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup might have had a positive impact on the development of such football academies. However, the authors also found that an unbalanced attentiveness in government expenditures on football infrastructure for the World Cup itself, rather than on local football institutions, tended to increase the inequality between professional football and amateur football.

Table 5.22: Fan respondents’ perceptions of the benefits that had materialised from legacy projects implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria (Multiple responses, in %)

Benefits	Cameroon (n=122)	Nigeria (n=131)
Improved football-playing facilities	54.3	52.6
Improved communication through the media and the internet	7.6	16.0
Increased tourism arrivals and awareness	4.6	6.8
Environmental protection	6.5	13.7
Promotion of local culture	4.6	12.2
Improved professionalism in football coaching and officiating	10.9	6.1
None	2.4	1.5
Don’t know	14.7	1.5

Table 5.23 below illustrates the multiple responses that were received in relation to the challenges facing the implementation of legacy projects in Cameroon and Nigeria that were mentioned by soccer fans in Table 5.22 above. The majority of respondents (69.3% from Nigeria and 64.5% from Cameroon) indicated that the lack of financial support is a major challenge in sustaining legacy projects. Financial sustainability is a key aspect that has dominated the discourse on the economic effects of large-scale events, both in the short-term and in the long-term (Maennig and Zimbalist, 2012a). A vast body of empirical studies is inclined to the basic philosophy of cost versus benefit in relation to mega-events (Maennig and du Plessis, 2011; Cartwright, 2012; Porter and Chin, 2012, Kesenne, 2012; Sussmuth, 2012). This phenomenon, one can argue, was much more applicable to South Africa, as host of the 2010 FIFA World Cup tournament. However, most of the legacy projects perceived by soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria, as shown in Table 5.22 above, are linked to various economic sectors in Africa that required considerable funding and investment for them to make a meaningful contribution to African societies. Pellegrino and Hancock (2010) underscore the need to focus on the post-event legacy and not only before and during the event. They state:

Compared to the excitement and immediacy of preparing for an event, post-event legacy issues can seem distant and uninteresting. But they are just as important to achieving the desired long-term benefits – if not more so. And if they don’t receive sufficient attention and investment throughout the life cycle of the event, it can be difficult or impossible for the host to achieve its ambitious long-term goals.

(Pellegrino and Hancock, 2010: 10)

Many soccer fans (32.9% from Cameroon and 30.8% from Nigeria) and key informants said that corruption was another challenge that threatened the sustainability of such legacy projects. Pannenberg's (2010: 14) research on football in Africa exemplifies the extent to which corruption is rife in football in Africa: "corruption goes by names: a 'little something', a 'gift', a 'motivation' or a 'dash'. Most of them refer to eating – indeed 'to eat' means people using money for private purpose". As was previously stated in chapter four of this research, the *World Fact Book* (CIA) (2013) mentions Cameroon and Nigeria prominently as Africa's most corrupt nations. Pannenberg (2010) reports that several African countries feature glaringly on Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index. Such widely publicised perceptions might have influenced the findings in this regard. Corrupt practices have the potential to ruin the sustainability of 2010 FIFA World Cup legacy projects. A key informant in Cameroon was quite vocal and flagrant about the nature of corruption:

Without a doubt, corruption is the main challenge. This malpractice is very rife within all spheres of government, and has even filtered through to communities. We know that all the money that comes from FIFA, CAF and sponsors like MTN for any development project goes to a powerful individual's pocket. FECAFOOT is full of corrupt individuals who will not let anything go through to develop football in this country, despite the talent and potential [that is available].

According to Pannenberg (2010: 16), Nigerians refer to corruption as "sharing the national cake", in an attempt to legitimise such a practice. Undeniably, corruption is entrenched in the mainstream of African countries. Cameroon's government, for instance, stays in power by allowing their civil servants to use their positions to become rich (Pannenberg, 2008; 2010). Furthermore, the data obtained in this study show that some of the soccer fans (22.2% from Nigeria and 25.8% from Cameroon) and the key informants were concerned that the poor management of implemented projects was a challenge. Schatzberg (2006), Peltz (2010) and Pannenberg (2010) recognise that the poor management of resources is rife within Africa, and specifically in football. The financial resources that are channelled through a range of African companies involved in the oil, gas and agricultural sectors have been reported as consistently contributing much money to developing African football. Pannenberg (2010) further cites funds coming from such international sporting brands as Adidas and Puma for FIFA development projects, which are meant to be reserved for the improvement of grassroots football, although scant progress has been noted to date in terms of playing facilities in Africa, insinuating that such money most likely is being spent elsewhere. A key informant in Nigeria alluded to the matter as well:

The cost of purchasing football equipment is relatively high nowadays, and this represents a challenge. We receive little or no support from [the] government and civil society, even though we know that funds are available. You have to be ‘connected’ within the government and relevant quarters to gain access to it.

The example and quote presented above show the imminent threat that such factors as poor management of financial resources can have on the projects implemented or envisaged as a consequence of the African Legacy Programme and the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa.

Each mega-event, but especially those with the scale of the FIFA World Cup, requires some sort of specific structures. Gratton and Preuss (2008) show in their study on maximising Olympic impacts for host cities that such mega-events structures that exist after an event change the quality of the host destination either positively or negatively. In this study, the soccer fans (19.2% from Cameroon and 17.4% from Nigeria) and the key informants were concerned that the lack of proper monitoring and maintenance of those projects that were implemented as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting pose a challenge. One key informant in Cameroon noted:

I think that maintaining them will be a big issue. We have seen, on many occasions, how the government fails to maintain infrastructure. Look at the national stadium in Yaoundé. It took a FIFA ban before the government upgraded it. I am very happy that the FIFA centre in Besongabang will be a good facility for the youth within a very remote and poor community, but this facility will be dilapidated in no time, because there will be no consistent maintenance [done] to it.

Pannenberg (2010) emphasises that Africa requires well-maintained training football infrastructure, especially at grassroots level, to benefit the development of the game because poor infrastructure can incite outbreaks of annoyance, intimidation and violence. In this sense, the need to maintain projects linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa is important for measuring the long-term legacy of the event continent-wide. Gratton and Preuss (2008) assert that after hosting major events each destination has different quality factors that make it more or less attractive for living there, for tourism, for industry or for hosting future sporting events. However, Smith and Fox (2007) caution that events seem to leave a more positive physical legacy when they are entrenched within broader regeneration strategies. Within this context, the consistent maintenance and monitoring of African Legacy Programme projects designed in African countries and linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup cannot be emphasised. For Africa, projects that consistently support the development of football – the dominant sport in Africa – are important. Grassroot Soccer is an NGO in Africa that uses the power of soccer

to fight HIV/ AIDS. According to the Provincial Government of the Western Cape (2011), such an organisation provides training to soccer stars, coaches, teachers and peer educators in Africa to deliver interactive prevention and life skills programmes to the youth, using soccer to increase their impact.

The key thematic issues analysed and discussed above in terms of the challenges linked to the African Legacy Programme projects in Cameroon and Nigeria are mainly linked to sustainability. Soccer fans and key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria are mainly concerned about how the projects that are envisaged, or that have been implemented, will benefit Africa's citizens in the long run, given the present status quo. For a continent like Africa, the tangible and intangible legacy projects that were created as a result of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup are important milestones for measuring the long-term effects that the event has had on the African continent. It is, therefore, important that where such projects exist, a long-term management plan that includes sustained maintenance through funding from governments and the relevant cooperative organisations is adopted as a matter of urgency. Mechanisms to counter challenges linked to corruption and poor management should equally be adopted. Furthermore, very few soccer fans (5.1% from Cameroon, and 3.8% from Nigeria) reported that they did not know, or could not think, of any challenges that the implemented projects currently experienced, due to the 2010 FIFA World Cup, in their respective countries.

Table 5.23: Fan respondents' perceptions of the key challenges facing the implementation of legacy projects in Cameroon and Nigeria (Multiple responses, in %)

Challenges	Cameroon (n=122)	Nigeria (n=131)
Lack of financial support	64.5	69.3
Corruption	32.9	30.8
Poor management	25.8	22.2
Lack of monitoring and maintenance	19.2	17.4
Don't know	5.1	3.8

Figure 5.9 below summarises the responses of the respondents who were aware of the legacy programme in terms of their rating of the overall level of effectiveness of the legacy projects implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria. Most of the respondents rated the success levels as good (55.1% from Nigeria and 49.5% from Cameroon), very good (21.6% from Cameroon and 19.5% from Nigeria) excellent (5.1% from Nigeria and 3.7% from Cameroon). Very few respondents rated the success levels as bad (18.9% from Cameroon and 19.6% from Nigeria) or very bad (6.3% from Cameroon and 1.7% from Nigeria).

The results reveal that generally a positive perception exists among the soccer fans in the case study areas that the legacy projects that have been implemented due to the 2010 FIFA World Cup have been successful, as most of the respondents have rated them as good, very good or excellent. Vidacs (2010) contends that soccer fans across a large section of Africa have been subject to various forms of socio-economic hardship, and even linked to the game of football, which remains the most popular sport on the continent. Pannenberg (2008) advances that the poor state of infrastructure and development in Africa is such that any little investment that is made by the government or by corporate society is well acknowledged in poorer societies. In this study, perhaps soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria recognise that, although the extent of the change brought about by the African Legacy Programme agenda under the auspices of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup might not be sufficient, their existence and effectiveness might have brought some much needed relief.

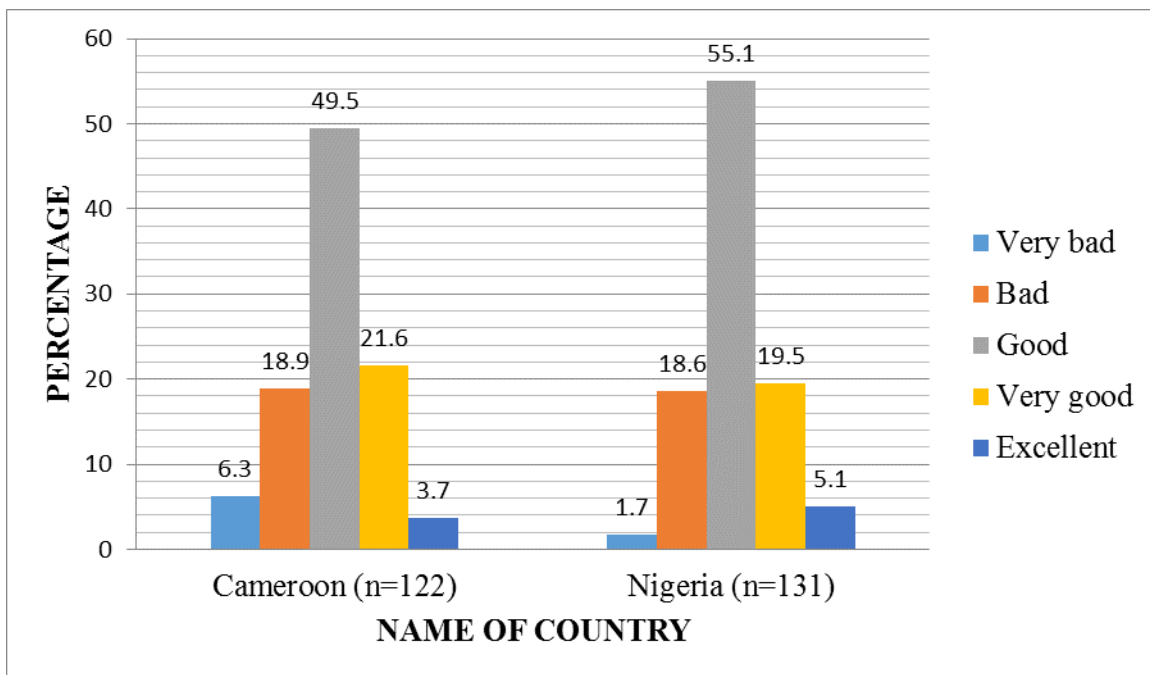


Figure 5.9: Fan respondents' rankings of the success of legacy projects implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria (in %)

When the respondents were asked to justify the rating provided in relation to the success of the legacy projects, as described above, soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria provided a diversity of views (see Figure 5.9). The majority of the respondents (37.6% from Nigeria and 19.8% from Cameroon) said that their reason for the rating was that they viewed the project as being successful. Many of the respondents (29.9% from Cameroon and 26.9% from Nigeria) considered that, to some extent, the football infrastructure had improved. Some of the

respondents (22.5% from Cameroon and 13.2% from Nigeria) said that the lack of human capital to maintain the sustainability of the projects was a reason for the rating provided. A few of the respondents (16.3% from Nigeria and 5% from Cameroon) were of the view that it was still too early to rate the success of the projects concerned. Other respondents (13.5% from Cameroon and 7.8% from Nigeria) reflected on the fact that some of the projects were still in their infancy in terms of implementation, while 11.7% of the respondents in Cameroon and 3.2% in Nigeria noted that corruption was such a problem that it affected their rating.

In terms of the key informant interviews, what was rather interesting to note was that all the informants in Cameroon said that they were unable to rate the success of the programmes which they had mentioned previously, as can be seen in Table 5.21. The main reason provided was that such projects were still in their infancy, and that they tended only to have been conceptualised or partially implemented. One key informant, a government delegate in the Ministry of Sport in Cameroon, said:

If you look at a project like the one in Besongabang [in reference to the FIFA Football for Hope (FFH) centre], there is very little that has been done since it was announced. I wonder if it will ever be completed without some interruptions. I can safely say that most of the financial support from companies such as MTN that are advertised often don't go to support local socio-economic initiatives.

On the contrary, the rating of implemented projects linked to the African Legacy Programme from key informants in Nigeria was rather positive, considering that such projects were rated as good or very good. Most of the key informants were keen on the mere existence of such projects and saw them as being 'necessary' in Nigeria for growth. One such key informant noted:

There is still a long way to go in terms of improving some of the structural problems affecting football in Nigeria. Projects that have been recently implemented, such as the professionalisation of the Nigerian Premier League, and sponsorship through international partnerships, is very much welcomed.

Table 5.24: Fan respondents' views provided in relation to their ranking of the success of the legacy projects implemented (Multiple responses, in %)

Reasons provided for ranking	Cameroon (n=122)	Nigeria (n=131)
The fact that the project was successful	19.8	37.6
To some extent, improvement in the football infrastructure	29.9	26.9
Lack of capacity to maintain the sustainability of the projects	22.5	13.2
Still too early to say	5.0	16.3
Project still in the implementation phases	13.5	7.8
Corruption problematic	11.7	3.2

5.9 Other known projects implemented as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup

The identification of other projects that were implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria and that were linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup by soccer fans provides a better understanding and insight as to the extent to which the African Legacy Programme components were achieved. The respondents were asked to indicate whether they were aware of any other projects that had been implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria as a result of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The results, as shown in Table 5.25 below, reveal that the majority of the respondents (96.3% from Nigeria and 91.3% from Cameroon) said that they did not know of any other projects. Only a few respondents (8.7% in Cameroon and 3.7% in Nigeria) said that they were aware of such projects. The results show that football fans in Cameroon and in Nigeria were generally less aware of any additional projects that were implemented due to the 2010 event.

Table 5.25: Whether respondents were aware of any other projects implemented in their country as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup (in %)

Response	Cameroon (n=390)	Nigeria (n=381)
Yes	8.7	3.7
No	91.3	96.3
Total	100	100

As discussed above, very few of the soccer fans (n=34 from Cameroon and n=14 from Nigeria) indicated that they were aware of other developmental projects linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Table 5.26 below shows that, of these few soccer fans, the majority (63.7% from Cameroon and 41.2% from Nigeria) said that they were aware of the workshop/seminars organised for local coaching and match officiating for football officials. Many more respondents from Nigeria (64.2%) than from Cameroon (11.3%) said that they were aware of the renovation taking place of the football stadium. Some respondents (27.4% from Cameroon

and 24.4% from Nigeria) said that they were aware of the One Goal project that was linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Other respondents (17.7% from Cameroon and 7.8% from Nigeria) mentioned the FIFA Goal Project. The results show that the soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria knew of mainly projects that were associated with the game of football. The ability of the fans to mention that these projects were linked to the 2010 World Cup might demonstrate the extent of their interest and involvement in the game. Moreover, such fans earlier described themselves as avid fans (see Table 5.3 above) who followed their team to the games, watched them on television, bought football merchandise and read football news items, including those in magazines.

Table 5.26: If yes, name the projects (Multiple responses, in %)

Project	Cameroon (n=34)	Nigeria (n=14)
The coaching and match officiating seminar and workshop for local football officials	63.7	41.2
The renovation of the stadium	11.3	64.2
The One Goal campaign	27.4	24.4
The FIFA Goal Project	17.7	7.8

In terms of the expectations relating to the above-mentioned projects, Table 5.27 below shows that many of the respondents (64.2% from Nigeria, and 53.9% from Cameroon) perceived that the projects (perhaps those linked to football – see Table 5.24) will provide young footballers with a better environment to develop their football skills and be educated. Some respondents (29.4% from Cameroon and 7.8% from Nigeria) stated that the projects will motivate business society to contribute towards educating the youth. Other respondents (28.5% from Nigeria and 17.7% from Cameroon) said that they anticipate the programme to encourage good football leadership and management skills. Few respondents (5.9% from Cameroon and 2.3% from Nigeria) did not identify any expectations. The findings show that the main expectations that are apparent from the fan respondents in this study linked to the projects implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria (see Table 5.27) have the potential to contribute significantly towards the social-upliftment of communities, especially poorer communities in the African context.

Table 5.27: Respondents expectations from other projects implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria (Multiple response, in %)

Expected outcome	Cameroon (n=34)	Nigeria (n=14)
To provide young footballers with a better environment to develop their skills	53.9	64.2
To motivate business society to contribute to educating the poor and the youths	29.4	7.8
To encourage good football leadership skills	17.7	28.5
I don't know	5.9	2.3

When the respondents were asked to rate the success levels of the other projects implemented and linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup discussed above, most of the respondents (72.4% from Nigeria and 49.2% from Cameroon) rated them as very successful and many respondents in Cameroon (32.3%) and in Nigeria (21.4%) rated them as successful. Very few of the respondents (8.8% from Cameroon and 8.1% from Nigeria) rated the project as not successful, while 11.7% of the respondents in Cameroon did not rate the project.

The findings are consistent with those previously discussed (see Figure 5.9) on the rating of the success levels of planned legacy projects implemented in both case study areas. Soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria remain optimistic that other projects that were also initiated as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has been successful.

Table 5.28: Respondents perceptions on the success levels of other projects implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria (Multiple response, in %)

Project success rating	Cameroon (n=34)	Nigeria (n=14)
Very successful	49.2	72.4
Successful	32.3	21.4
Not successful	8.8	8.1
I don't know	11.7	-

In both case study areas, a sizeable number of key informants (8) said that they did not know of any other project that was implemented because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. As was the case with the soccer fans, the key informant interviews revealed that there were few other projects that were implemented and equally, these projects and their objectives were mainly linked to football support and development agenda of the African Legacy Programme objectives linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

One key informant involved in Nigerian football was not sure but described a project as:

I am not certain if this was done because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, but there was this project called the 'One Game'. It was initiated by the Nigerian Police with the aim to encourage sportsmanship and curb violence in football, especially on match days.

When asked how successful such a project had been, the respondent was of the view that it has been less successful because of the less publicity it receives. Very limited publicity is accorded to such initiatives and only on certain match days.

Another key informant involved in Nigerian football mentioned:

I know of the 'Win in Africa with Africa' project which was announced by FIFA, to develop football centres across Africa that provides football training and other educational programmes for life skills such as HIV/ AIDS. Nigeria will surely benefit from this programme.

The key informant further indicated that it will be difficult to rate the success of the project considering that project is still being rolled out.

A football management workshop organised by FIFA was also noted. A key informant in Cameroon said:

Refresher courses on football officiating and coaching were conducted by FIFA resource persons, although this took place only in the major cities. The aims were to assist FECAFOOT in improving its current capacity and quality in match officiating in the national league and team management dynamics.

The key informant noted that the workshop's high level of attendance, and the quality and the number of certificates issued, were evidence that the event had been successful.

Some of the projects mentioned in the section by both key informants and fans were part of the African Legacy Programme objectives as discussed earlier. This again shows that respondents' understanding of legacy programmes are not specifically related to their knowledge of the African Legacy Programme.

5.10 Respondents' perceptions of the legacy impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa

In terms of the traditional Likert-type scale, the following codes were used to determine, and to ascertain, the different levels of agreement and disagreement that the respondents expressed

in relation to statements linked to the legacy impact of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa: SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; N=Neutral; D=Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree. In order to expedite the interpretation and understanding of the responses received, in some instances they have been grouped into appropriate categories. Specifically, in the discussion, 'strongly agree' and 'agree' was grouped into 'agreed' and 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' was grouped into 'disagreed'.

Mega-events can provide considerable economic benefits to the host region (Malfas *et al.*, 2004). When the respondents were requested to rate their level of agreement about the potential economic impact that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup had had in Africa, Table 5.29 shows that the majority of respondents (83.7% from Nigeria and 79% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement that 'the 2010 FIFA World Cup has resulted in programmes that improve the economic development of Africa'. A few of the respondents (12.3% from Cameroon and 10.5% from Nigeria) were neutral about the statement, with the remaining 8.7% in Cameroon and 5.8% in Nigeria, disagreeing with it. Furthermore, the results show that all the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria agreed with the statement. du Plessis and Venter (2010) opine that the benefits that are associated with the preparatory activity of a mega-event (including stadium development, the event in itself attracting a multitude of tourists and the long-term impact of the tournament) due to the change in the perception of the host economy and the potential for trade, investments and tourism; are dimensions of economic contributions to the host regions. According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006), associated post-event economic benefits of mega-events included the long-term effects of the prominence and the publicity involved in terms of the host region's ability to draw foreign investments and international tourists' arrivals. The result show that the vast majority of fans and key informants believe that the 2010 event resulted in economic opportunities for Africa. Rogerson (2009) emphasises that initiatives that could lead to economic growth for developing destinations that host mega-events could include the professional service required for business development, marketing and technological support, debt and equity finance, proper business planning, and others.

The literature review suggested that one of the known economic benefits of hosting a mega-event is that such events stimulate significant short-term or temporary employment and long-term or permanent employment for the local citizens of the host region (Hiller, 1998; Horne and Manzenreiter, 2006; Pillay and Bass, 2009; Miah and Garcia, 2012). When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought that

‘Africa’s citizens have benefited from jobs created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup’, the majority of the respondents (75.1% from Nigeria and 72.3% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement. Furthermore, some of the respondents were neutral (17.1% from Cameroon and 13.6% from Nigeria) about the statement that the event created jobs for Africa’s citizens. The remaining few respondents (11.5% from Nigeria, and 9.8% from Cameroon) disagreed with the notion. As was the case with the previous statement all the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria agreed with this statement. The results illustrate that the majority of the fans and key informants interviewed displayed extensive positive sentiments regarding the fact that Africa’s citizens benefited from jobs created by the event. The results are consistent with those of Achu and Swart (2012) who found in their study of African immigrants in Cape Town that 63.3% of the respondents perceived post the event that Africans had benefited from the jobs that were created by the event. Swart and Bob (2009) underscore that the main expectation that was associated with the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was that it would create job opportunities. Tichaawa and Swart (2010) note that, under the African Legacy Programme, it was expected that such jobs would be likely to spill over to other African countries. However, previous studies have shown that the much anticipated job creation figures linked to mega-events are often exaggerated and often do not materialise (Allmers and Maennig, 2008). Even where such jobs are created by mega-events, the type of job, its duration, the payment that it attracts for employees and the sustainability of the job remain controversial and questionable (Maennig and Zimbalist, 2012a; Sussmuth, 2012; Sterken, 2012; Porter and Chin, 2012). Matheson (2010: 18) advances that there is a need for “public investment in training, employability projects and the community focus within procurement contracts [to] represent a commitment to a local and community-based legacy”.

Table 5.29: Levels of agreement with statements in relation to economic issues (in %, n=390 for Cameroon and n=381 for Nigeria)

Statements	SA		A		N		SD		D	
	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has resulted in programmes that improve the economic development of Africa	19.5	26.0	59.5	57.7	12.3	10.5	3.6	3.4	5.1	2.4
Africa’s citizens have benefited from jobs created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup	23.6	16.8	48.7	58.3	17.9	13.6	4.6	5.0	5.2	6.3

C - Cameroon N – Nigeria

According to Gratton and Preuss (2008), mega-events have remarkable ability and power to form and to reposition or to enhance the image of a region or country. The pride of hosting

such event creates local identification, vision and motivation for citizens who become emotionally involved. Rose and Spiegel (2011) clearly show in their empirical study that such mega-events as the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games tend to escalate a country's openness substantively and permanently. This legacy benefit was largely envisaged for the entire continent, as Steinbrink *et al.* (2011: 17) state:

The mega-event was intended as a political vehicle to change Africa's image from the continent of crises, catastrophes and wars, and to show it in a new, positive light. The World Cup was meant to help Africa achieve greater international respect and contribute to its emergence from a long phase of global political insignificance.

Table 5.30 below reveals the responses that were received when the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement about social issues linked to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa. The vast majority of the respondents (92.1% from Nigeria, and 91.6% from Cameroon) expressed a belief that 'the successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has boosted levels of pride in, and the image of, Africa internationally'. A total of 5.6% of the respondents from Cameroon and 4.7% from Nigeria were neutral about the statement, while very few of the respondents (3.2% from Nigeria and 2.8% from Cameroon) disagreed with the statement. The findings support those of Lee and Taylor (2005) who found that sport tourism events tend to have a strong symbolic function, in respect of evoking a sense of community, excitement and emotion. According to Maennig and Porsche (2008), the 'feel good' factor is one of the intangible effects of hosting a mega-event. Maennig and Zimbalist (2012c) assert that such a feeling can be experienced, irrespective of whether or not the individual concerned travelled to the stadiums where the 2010 event took place. Furthermore, they reinforce the findings of du Plessis and Maennig (2011) who reported an increase in international awareness for the host nations South Africa and Namibia post the 2010 event.

All the key informants interviewed in Cameroon and Nigeria, strongly agreed with the fact that, South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup positively enhanced the continent's image globally. The results also raised doubts with regards to the appropriateness of Ginsberg's (2010: 201) statement that "the 2010 'African World Cup' was a missed opportunity to achieve the stated objective of exterminating Afro-pessimism". Overall, the findings indicate that the respondents were enthusiastic about a positive change in Africa's image, as a result of the hosting of the 2010 event. They served to reinforce the pre-event sentiments echoed that the post-event would be perceived and reflected upon as a moment when Africa stood tall and resolute and turned the tide of centuries of poverty, conflict and the

inability to solve its problems (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). The legacy objective of increasing confidence in Africa, and of convincing sceptics about the continent's 'capacity' to provide outstanding global events successfully in the future, could have been achieved. This is summed up by Harris (2011: 418):

Regardless of FIFA's ulterior motives, South Africa largely succeeded in presenting a new image of Africa to the world, dispelling many of the negative images and misleading perceptions of the media. Without betraying its African roots, the country hosted the most profitable World Cup to date.

The 2010 event could, therefore, have helped to instil an enthusiastic belief that the African continent has established a higher international prominence for itself and that mega-events are a potent tool for enhancing place image. Whatever the case might be, it is of vital importance that the good impression made by hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa is sustained and used to advance its position in relation to tourism and other economic development imperatives. As Gratton and Preuss (2008) caution, such negative incidents as a bomb attack might influence image. Jago *et al.* (2010) propose that because images influence perceptions globally and locally, responsive media management is of essence. Such management can be achieved by adopting a media management plan that focuses on reducing the chance of communicating wrong information. Contingency planning in this regard during all stages of the mega-event cannot be overemphasised.

Sport, specifically the game of football, has been used as a tool for addressing social and political issues, and for promoting peace in many regions. One of the objectives of the African Legacy Programme, as was previously stated, was to use the 2010 tournament and the game of football to promote peace on the African continent. When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with whether or not they thought that 'the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has helped in promoting peace on the African continent', many of the respondents agreed with the statement, with slightly more respondents from Nigeria agreeing (65.9%), compared to the number from Cameroon (58.5%). Some respondents disagreed with the statement (24.8% being the slightly greater percentage from Cameroon, compared to 17% from Nigeria), while 17.1% of the respondents from Nigeria and 16.7% of those from Cameroon were neutral. The key informants were rather cautious with this statement, considering that, most (6) of them chose to be neutral with the statement, however the remaining (4) informants agreed with the statement. The findings from the fans, reinforce those of Achu and Swart (2012) who found in their study that 53.6% of African immigrants

had indicated post the 2010 FIFA World Cup that the event had improved the relationship between such migrants and the local residents, which had been characterised by xenophobic tendencies pre-event. According to Walker *et al.* (2013), the event also created programmes that used football for human development by promoting peace on the African continent, with the help of several organisations, including the FFH movement. They state that such projects included Football for Hope that, in part, played a fundamental role in the spotting and harnessing of talent across the continent. However, the long-term sustainability of such a programme still remains to be seen. This is more so as such a project is limited in scope, as it is not spread across the entire continent.

Preuss (2007) is of the view that the populace of the host region of a mega-event gains knowledge and skills through development programmes relating to tourism, security, management and leadership, engineering, and others. With regards to the statement that ‘the 2010 FIFA World Cup has enhanced and improved skills development in Africa’, the majority of respondents in Nigeria (74.5%) and in Cameroon (68.7%) agreed with the statement. Some respondents assumed a neutral stance (24.4% from Cameroon and 17.1% from Nigeria), while very few respondents disagreed with the statement (8.4% from Nigeria and 6.9% from Cameroon). Key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria were overly enthusiastic about the statement as all of those interviewed agreed with the statement. According to Bull and Lovell (2007) and Ngonyama (2010) the hosting of global events attracts flows of skilled labour for the development of event-related infrastructure. Although the findings show some degree of uncertainty among the fans in both case study areas, many fans and key informants expressed a belief that skills had been enhanced and improved as a result of the 2010 event. The fact that volunteers for the 2010 event were largely selected from across the African continent might have influenced the response. In addition, skills development programmes (workshops and seminars) were organised and offered by civil society and organisations, including by FIFA, with the objective of leveraging legacy benefits. For example, FIFA organised a workshop in Cameroon (2009) at which local football officials were provided with management and administrative skills in football, with a view to professionalising the game in the country. However, Jago *et al.* (2010) assert that the skills legacy of mega-events in developing countries is often not great, as the specialist or skilled staff tend to leave the region after their task has been completed. They advocate that it is useful that skills training or apprenticeship programmes be adopted so that there is considerable transfer of skills from the external experts to the local workers, more especially due to the development of those workers who are in management positions.

Table 5.30: Levels of agreement expressed with statements in relation to social issues (in %)

Statements	SA		A		N		SD		D	
	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N
The successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has boosted the pride and image of Africa internationally	50.8	54.3	40.8	37.8	5.6	4.7	1.0	2.1	1.8	1.1
Hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup has helped in promoting peace on the African continent	26.2	20.2	32.3	45.7	16.7	17.1	13.1	7.3	11.7	9.7
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has enhanced and improved skills development in Africa	15.6	18.9	53.1	55.6	24.4	17.1	2.1	5.2	4.8	3.2

The tourism sector is of significant importance to many countries on the African continent, considering its potential to contribute to relevant economic benefits including job creation, foreign exchange earnings, economic growth through investment and stimulation of local economic development (Dieke, 2009). The literature review revealed that one of the primary objectives of the African Legacy Programme was to promote the African continent as a tourism destination. The host nation South Africa envisaged and leveraged tourism opportunities to other African countries (Department of Sport and Recreation, 2008), as mega-events have the ability to accrue what Atkinson (2009) describes as ‘unintended’ spill-over effects, such as an increase in the demand for tourism and for related goods or services. Table 5.31 below reveals the results with regards to statements put forward to respondents in this regard. The majority of respondents, slightly more in Nigeria (82.9%) than in Cameroon (74.6%), agreed with the statement that ‘the 2010 FIFA World Cup has increased tourism and investment opportunities in Africa’. As was the case with the previous statement discussed above, all the key informants agreed with this statement. The findings reflect those of Achu and Swart (2012) who found that 81.9% of African immigrants in Cape Town agreed with a similar statement. According to Turco *et al.* (2012), the 2010 FIFA World Cup witnessed growth in the tourism markets of African countries and contributed to the growth of African states. Hinch and Higham (2011) assert that the tourism sector is a major benefactor from mega-event hosting, and that such benefits can spill over to non-host regions. According to Malfas *et al.* (2004), the economic contribution that is made by a mega-event is predominantly understood in terms of the scenarios that it provides of the awareness of the host region or city as a tourism destination, and in terms of the knowledge that is developed concerning the potential for investment and commercial activity in the region. Furthermore, only 14.9% of the respondents in Cameroon and 10.5% of those in Nigeria were neutral about

the statement, while very few disagreed with it (10.5% from Cameroon, and 6.6% from Nigeria). In sum, the findings imply that all key informants and most of the fans in Nigeria and Cameroon were of the opinion that tourism on the African continent has improved and that investment opportunities have been enhanced post the hosting of the 2010 event. However, the long-term effects of such improvements have yet to be determined. As du Plessis and Maennig (2011) observe, the economic benefits of this nature that are linked to mega-events are often exaggerated and tend to arouse problematic expectations in terms of the growth multipliers that are adopted, as well as the irony of leakages of revenue.

Turco *et al.* (2012) found in their study on the visitor profile of the 2010 event in South Africa that few visitors who came primarily for the event planned to visit other African countries. In a correlated statement to the above, which was presented to the respondents regarding the notion of increased tourist arrivals, an interesting shift in response was noted in the two case study areas. The majority of respondents in Nigeria (61.7%) compared to Cameroon (38%) agreed with the statement that the number of tourist arrivals in their country had increased because of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Furthermore, more respondents in Cameroon (31.3%) than in Nigeria (17.8%) were neutral about the statement. Over 30% of the respondents in Cameroon (30.7%) and 20.5% in Nigeria disagreed with it. In terms of the same statement, many (7) of the key informants agreed with the statement compared to the few that rejected it. The differences that were received in response to this statement, especially from fan respondents could be explained by the fact that, although it is still in its infancy, tourism development in Nigeria has witnessed steady growth, due to the investments that have been made in relation to planning and policy, infrastructural development and efforts to position the country as a tourism destination of choice through concerted marketing efforts (Nigeria Tourism Development Master Plan, 2006), in contrast to Cameroon's reluctance to develop and to implement a comprehensive tourism development and marketing plan (Kimbu, 2012), coupled with the government's limited funding allocation to tourism (Commonwealth Business Environment Report, 2009) which cannot be overlooked. When such assertions are taken into account, the findings are, therefore, plausible. In addition, the statistics presented by the WTTC (2011) indicate that Nigeria received more arrivals than did Cameroon. The result reveals that the fans in both case study areas were optimistic that their country had increased its number of tourism arrivals, due to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Although the SAT (2010) visitor departure survey revealed that more visitors (275) indicated that they had visited Nigeria during the trip compared to the number of visitors to Cameroon (213), it is difficult to estimate the extent of the positive effect that such

visits made. Bob and Majola (2011) conducted an empirical study on the impact of the 2010 event in a non-host area, and found that there was a high expectation of the tourism positive spill-over effects pre-event, but that there was no substantial evidence that such effects were realised post the event. Dowse (2011: 12) suggests:

South African and African government stakeholders acknowledged that expected immediate tourism benefits and associated developments did not accrue to the continent: 'there were ambitions to make the event more African, to develop more in African states so that they could benefit.... This has not been possible because resources have been so stretched'.

For Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup tourism legacy, the number of tourist arrivals over a period of time, and the number of jobs created by the sector, will be important in determining the ability of the 2010 event to have created international awareness of the continent, and to have promoted tourism.

Theoretically, mega-events not only affect the destinations that host them, but they might have a significant impact on the surrounding regions (Bijerk *et al.*, 2012). Given the extent of the international media exposure that a FIFA World Cup attracts, showcasing the tourism products that the continent has was one way of enhancing awareness of Africa as a tourism destination. When the respondents were next asked to react to the statement that 'I am more aware of Africa as a tourism destination because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup exposure', the majority of the respondents (61.7% of the respondents from Nigeria compared to 49.8% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement. Conversely, more respondents from Cameroon (29%) compared to those from Nigeria (17.8%) disagreed with it. More so, 21.2% of the respondents from Cameroon and 20.5% of those from Nigeria were neutral. Although the majority of soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria expressed a belief that the 2010 event enhanced their level of awareness of the continent as a tourism destination, a degree of scepticism was noted when those who disagreed with or who remained neutral were brought into the equation.

Jago *et al.* (2010) stress that mega-events have conventionally been viewed as a component of tourism, and that they have been embedded within national and regional tourism plans and policies. According to Preuss (2007), the host regions of mega-events benefit from the large contingent of media present around the time of the event who transfer images of the destination globally. In this sense, the exposure gained from the media focus on South Africa, and on Africa in general, in the run-up to the bidding of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and during the hosting of the tournament could have influenced the findings of those who agreed with

this statement. However, Atkinson (2009) noted that, if marketed in a proper manner, non-host destinations of mega-events, especially those that are close to the host, might be visited. However, the media focus was largely on the host nation, South Africa, compared to on the entire African continent. This might have given some fans reason to think that the host nation was the main focus, compared to other nations on the continent. The importance of the continuous development of tourism as an economic sector in Africa is highly significant in terms of the growth strategy that is adopted in terms of developing economies (Dieke, 2009). To underscore the issue further, tourism's potential for contributing to economic and social upliftment in Africa was highlighted in the NEPAD's tourism action plan, which acknowledged and positioned tourism as one of the sectors with the utmost potential to contribute to the economic renaissance of the continent, mainly through the diversification of African economies, and through attracting foreign exchange earnings (Rogerson and Visser, 2011).

Table 5.31: Level of agreement with statements in relation to tourism impacts (in %)

Statements	SA		A		N		SD		D	
	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has increased tourism and investment opportunities in Africa	17.9	24.4	56.7	58.5	14.9	10.5	3.8	2.6	6.7	4.0
The number of tourist arrivals in my country has increased because of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	10.8	23.1	27.2	38.6	31.3	17.8	7.9	8.7	22.8	11.8
I am more aware of Africa as a tourism destination because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup exposure	10.3	14.7	39.5	47.0	21.2	20.5	8.5	8.1	20.5	9.7

The literature review suggested that such mega-events as the FIFA World Cup are, in themselves, embedded within the political economy of sport. Nauright (2004), Alegi (2006) and Cornelissen (2004a; 2007; 2010b) have described the degree to which politics and spectacle can be combined in a sumptuous exhibition and deployment of host resources. Culture and other facets have made sport mega-events important instruments for policy-makers and for other elites who seek to draw capital in what is seen to be an increasingly

competitive international economic atmosphere. African governments coming together under the auspices of the AU and designing objectives for the continent to achieve legacies (as was earlier discussed) exemplifies the above connotation. Table 5.32 below reveals the results that were received from the respondents in this study in relation to the political issues concerned and to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa.

Dowse (2011: 12) found that “South African political stakeholders reflected that the 2010 event had created an informal space to develop mutually co-operative relations, particularly with the diplomatic core of foreign states”. In this research, when the respondents were asked whether or not they agreed with the statement that ‘African countries can now cooperate more efficiently because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting’, a split between those who agreed, those who disagreed with it or who were neutral on it was noted. The majority of the respondents (52.3% from Nigeria and 48.7% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement. Some of the respondents were neutral on the statement (25.6% from Cameroon, and 25.2% from Nigeria), whereas others disagreed with it (25.7% from Cameroon and 22.5% in Nigeria). Several key informants (6) agreed with this statement, while the remaining (4) chose to be neutral on it. The results show that many fans and key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria believed that the 2010 World Cup created an opportunity for cooperation between African nations. Gratton and Preuss (2008: 1929) state:

International sport federations, media, politics, etc, need to cooperate in order to stage an event successfully. Their interaction creates networks. In general, events improve political networks, such as close partnership with central government. In particular, the greater knowledge of sport, networks between politicians and sport federations, the image of being a sport city increase the affiliation to sport. Grassroots coaching programmes, facilities for schools, sport for all, and additional sport events may be the result.

However, the results also portray doubt that the successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa has increased confidence in the capacity of African countries to cooperate more efficiently as a whole, given the scepticism noted from those soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria who remained neutral or who disagreed with the statement, perhaps given the huge gap between African states in terms of several critical economic determinants such as available finance for strategic investments to attain the MDGs (Tawfik-Amer, 2011). According to Malfas *et al.* (2004: 215), “mega-events can also provide opportunities to the host sporting authorities to undertake joint projects in order to serve multiple purposes”. With regards to the statement that ‘the number of joint partnership agreements and programmes to

strengthen regional cooperation has improved because of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup', over half of the respondents (51.6% from Cameroon and 50.9% from Nigeria) agreed with the statement. Many respondents were neutral (29.7% from Nigeria, and 25.9% from Cameroon), as were those who disagreed with the statement (22.5% from Cameroon and 19.4% from Nigeria). The majority of the key informants (8) in Cameroon and Nigeria were non-committal with the notion and rather chose to be neutral.

The soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria somewhat agreed that the 2010 event provided an opportunity for promoting regional integration, albeit in the domain of sport and tourism. However, as was the case with the statement analysed above, the percentages that were received in terms of those who disagreed with the statement, and in terms of those who remained neutral, were significant and cannot be overlooked as they raise concern with regards to the extent to which such joint regional cooperation has occurred in other parts of Africa.

Giampiccoli and Nauright (2010) posit that the successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa would trigger various interests in the country lobbying for another mega-event, such as the Olympic Games. When the respondents were asked to react to the statement that 'Africa now stands a better chance of hosting more conferences and large-scale sporting events by virtue of South Africa having hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup', the majority of the respondents agreed with it (66.4% from Nigeria compared to 54.4% from Cameroon). This result is consistent with post-event studies that suggest that the successful hosting of the event by South Africa has changed stereotypical views of the African continent's ability to organise world-class events (du Plessis and Maennig, 2011; Achu and Swart, 2012). However, many of the respondents in Cameroon (25.5%), in contrast to a lesser number in Nigeria (18.1%), disagreed with the statement. Furthermore, 25.1% of the respondents in Cameroon and 15.5% of those in Nigeria were not sure about the statement and were neutral. In entirety, the findings in this regard are not straightforward, as was the case with the previous two statements linked to the political legacy of the World Cup in Africa. It is well documented in the relevant literature that Africa and the developing world have largely been excluded from the hosting of large-scale sporting events compared to the extent to which such events have been held in the developed world, owing to several contentious issues (Alegi, 2001; Darby, 2005; Alegi, 2008). The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa was heralded as a 'turning point' in relation to the future, owing to several previous failed bids (Cornelissen, 2004a; Swart and Bob, 2004; Cornelissen, 2007), and due to the event helping

the African continent to establish a greater worldwide reputation (Swart and Bob, 2007). The results in this study also show that although South Africa hosted a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup, which was the first ever mega-event hosted on the continent as was previously stated, it is plausible that there is still scepticism from football fans in Cameroon and Nigeria about Africa's chances of securing the rights to host future events of this nature on the continent. Interestingly, as Turco *et al.* (2012) observe, despite two mega-events being hosted by developing nations in the near future (Brazil will host the FIFA World Cup in 2014 and the Olympic Games in 2016, and Qatar the FIFA World Cup in 2022), the perception of such events as being reserved as commodities for the developed world still persists. However, all the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria hold a strong view that, Africa can now go on to host more mega-events as a result of the successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

One key issue that might represent a stumbling block for hosting future mega-events in Africa is the high cost associated with it. Alegi (2008) contends that only a selected few countries have the capacity to host such major sporting events as the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games. In the case of the FIFA event, Alegi (2008:398) states, "FIFA's extraordinarily high technical requirements for stadiums, media facilities, accommodation, security and overall infrastructure unload the enormous financial burden on staging the competition on the host nation". Tawfik-Amer (2011) asserts that it is doubtful that hosting a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup increases the levels of confidence in the capacity of other African countries, given the huge gap in infrastructural resources between South Africa and other countries on the continent. Apart from most African nations making strides in eradicating issues of poverty alleviation and other immediate socio-economic and structural challenges that are currently evident, it is difficult to envisage the hosting of such an event in the near future. More so, as Darby (2005: 884) states, "Africa's place in the World Cup has become enmired in the intercontinental and interpersonal rivalries that have characterised the governance of world football in the second half of the twentieth century". Hence, van der Merwe (2008:31) concludes, "an African Football World Cup not only forms part of a broader drive towards a more equitable international footballing order, but also towards a more equitable realignment between Africa and the developed world more generally".

Table 5.32: Level of agreement with statements in relation to political issues (in %)

Statements	SA		A		N		SD		D	
	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N
African countries can now cooperate more efficiently because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	14.6	12.9	34.1	39.4	25.6	25.2	8.5	7.6	17.2	14.9
The number of joint partnership agreements and programmes to strengthen regional cooperation has improved because of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	9.5	14.7	42.1	36.2	25.9	29.7	7.7	13.1	14.8	6.3
Africa stands a better chance of hosting more conferences and large-scale sporting events by virtue of South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup	19.0	22.3	35.4	44.1	25.1	15.5	7.4	8.9	18.1	9.2

Football is considered the most important sport in nearly all of the 54 African countries. Despite this, the development of the game on the continent, especially the availability of playing facilities and the administration and the management of the game have been largely inadequate (Armstrong and Giulianotti, 2004; Pannenberg, 2008). Steinbrink *et al.* (2011: 18) state that “the 2010 FIFA World Cup was repeatedly proclaimed to be the motor for achieving general growth and development aims quickly”. One of the key objectives of the African legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was aimed at accelerating the development of football on the continent. The perceptions of some of the football fans in Cameroon and Nigeria on such a legacy initiative are discussed in this section.

In Achu and Swart’s (2012) study on the 2010 FIFA World Cup and African immigrants, the vast majority of the respondents (79.2%) said that the event had assisted with developing football on the continent. In this research, Table 5.33 below shows that an almost equal proportion of the respondents (68.8% from Nigeria and 68.7% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement that ‘the 2010 FIFA World Cup has accelerated the development of African football’. A few of the respondents (16.7% from Cameroon, and 14.2% from Nigeria) were neutral about the statement, while other respondents (16% from Nigeria, and 14.6% from Cameroon) disagreed with it. A substantial number of soccer fans and key informants (9) in Cameroon and Nigeria perceived that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup had enhanced and improved football in Africa in terms of development. This finding might have been

influenced by the fact that the AU, in an attempt to use the 2010 tournament to boost the importance of sport on the entire continent, declared 2007 the 'International Year of African Football', with the aim of promoting the contribution of sport to peace and reconciliation on the continent. Such an initiative was supported and well received by member states of the AU (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). Besides this, the respondents might have also been aware that several African countries had benefited from such legacy projects as the 'Win in Africa with Africa' project. Said project was initiated by FIFA and included a number of complementary and specific measures that were aimed at contributing towards improving the quality of football in Africa in the long-term. According to FIFA (2011), under this programme, 54 football pitches were being constructed and football teams in 52 African countries had already received equipment support (in the form of boots, balls and training kits), player registration, and competition management systems. The programme was envisaged as boosting African football by addressing the critical areas of limited infrastructure and the management of the game, with a view to improving its quality. However, one key concern of note is the sustainability of such initiatives across Africa. As authors such as Alegi (2007) and Vidacs (2010) caution, such football initiatives as the aforementioned which focus on grassroots development, are largely under-resourced and receive little funding. Since legacy impacts are to be measured in the long-term, the sustainability of such projects is important for determining the extent to which the 2010 FIFA World Cup advanced the game of football on the African continent.

Some individuals and societal groups continue to be marginalised in relation to the game of football in Africa. For example, according to Bob and Swart (2010b), gender inequalities remain prominent, as women rarely benefit from economic opportunities associated with football or participate in the game itself. When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought that 'relatively disadvantaged football groups have benefited from the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting', the majority of respondents in Nigeria (61.9%) compared to the smaller number from Cameroon (48.9%) agreed with the statement. Many of the respondents (27.8% from Cameroon and 17.4% from Nigeria) remained neutral about the statement, while some of the respondents (23.3% from Cameroon and 20.7% from Nigeria) disagreed with the statement. The findings suggest that there was general agreement among soccer fans and key informants in both case study areas that disadvantaged groups had benefited from the 2010 event. Swart *et al.* (2011) showed how the Football Foundation for South Africa (FFSA) used the event to accelerate social change and integration in a racially divided community in Gansbaai, South Africa. Besides the building of

new sport facilities in the community that created a 'space for sport', the community also experienced youth development, social integration, community pride and environmental education.

Consideration of how disadvantaged groups in Cameroon and Nigeria benefited specifically from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 World Cup goes beyond the scope of this study. However, whatever the football benefits brought about by the event might be, it is clearly not entirely convincing. This means that a much more concerted effort is required by football stakeholders (including such organisations as CAF and FIFA, the government, civil societies, and others) in Africa to ensure wider spread of benefits. The stakeholders involved need to invest in, develop and implement policies and strategies that will allow such marginalised groups as amateurs, youth and women more access to the game in terms of playing the sport and in terms of being able to tap into such related socio-economic opportunities as jobs and entrepreneurial openings. Pannenberg (2010) argues that Africa has several challenges in developing football, most notably in relation to the lack of adequate infrastructure, including insufficient football pitches, and the advancement of female participation in football. Swart and Bob (2012a) opine that the World Cup provided an occasion for the instituting of an assortment of sport-for-development programmes in South Africa, ranging from large-scale projects managed by FIFA to small-scale projects set up by organisations based within local communities. The authors, however, lament the life span of such projects, despite acknowledging the stimulating effect and the potential for sport-for-development in the longer-term. In order to gauge the long-term sporting legacy of the 2010 event in Africa, it is important to heed Bob and Kassens-Noor's (2012) guidance to conduct an objective assessment of the improvement in performance of African teams through rankings, and through the number of international athlete and youth programmes that they have.

Understanding how the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa has impacted on the football leagues in Africa is important when analysing the overall African Legacy Programme objective of developing and advancing African football. When confronted with the statement that 'the local football league in my country has benefited from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup', the respondents in Cameroon and Nigeria reacted differently. Most of the respondents (57% from Nigeria and 42.3% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement. This could be explained by the fact that, in the run-up to the 2010 event, several football capacity-building initiatives were orchestrated in Africa. For example, Cameroon has since benefited from such an initiative, as it has had its national league (the

MTN Elite One) evaluated and assessed. Furthermore, national technical directors, club coaches, referees, coaching instructors, and association and club presidents, as well as others, have received various forms of specific training. In this sense, it is envisaged that those who have benefited from specialised training directly would be able to transfer the knowledge and skills gained to others who are involved in football at regional and community levels. In a recent study conducted on football development in Nigeria, Adetunji (2013) expresses the significance of the advancement made in terms of the Nigerian Premier League, which has significantly influenced the development of such related facilities as equipment and the quality of human capital. Some of the respondents (35.6% from Cameroon and 23.1% from Nigeria) disagreed with the statement, whereas a notable proportion of the respondents (22.1% from Cameroon, and 19.9% from Nigeria) were neutral. Such respondents clearly hold the view that very little has changed, with more investment being required to alter the current trajectory. According to Adetunji (2013), the professionalisation of the football league in Nigeria has not influenced the funding of football, the spectator numbers, the emergence of grassroots football academies, and the improvement of security at football venues on a given match day. The result shows that, while some soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria perceive that their respective football leagues have improved as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, others were unconvinced.

According to Khun (2011), football suffers from structural problems besetting many African nations, namely a lack of resources and local infrastructure, which has resulted in the game being played under difficult conditions and in spaces that were not specifically reserved for playing the game. One of the objectives of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was to use the event to fast-track the development of football infrastructure on the continent. According to Chappelet (2012), the 2010 FIFA World Cup not only benefited South Africa, but also saw an improved status in terms of economics and infrastructural development in other African countries. The perceptions on infrastructural development were largely positive. When the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on whether or not they thought that ‘football infrastructure in Africa has improved because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup’, the majority (72% from Cameroon and 70.9% from Nigeria) agreed with the statement, compared to those who disagreed (18.3% from Nigeria, and 13.4% from Cameroon) with it. A few of the respondents (7.9% from Nigeria and 3.3% from Cameroon) were neutral. The findings reflect the fact that soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria demonstrate a strong belief that the football infrastructure has improved since the 2010 FIFA World Cup was held. Several reasons can be put forward in justification of such development. Firstly, stadium construction and upgrading

were evident during the preparatory phase of the 2010 event in Cameroon and Nigeria. The government of Cameroon commissioned the construction of two 15 000 capacity stadium in Limbe and Bafoussam (China Architecture Design and Research Group, 2011). Kazeem (2013) noted the inauguration of the new 5 000 seater Yaoundé Multi-functional Stadium by Cameroon's president in 2009. In Nigeria, the state government announced the construction of the 15 000 capacity Gombe Stadium (CGCOC Corporation, 2013). Furthermore, some African countries closer to South Africa had engaged in developing football infrastructure in the run-up to the event, hoping to attract participating teams and their football fans before and after the 2010 event (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). Secondly, as was earlier discussed, the FFH and Win in Africa with Africa created football centres to promote public health, education and football in disadvantaged communities across Africa. Although the benefits of these projects have yet to be evaluated, their development might have left a positive impression on soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria. Walker *et al.* (2013) assert that through such projects as the FFH, FIFA greatly improved the conditions for football throughout Africa. While such a development is significantly welcomed, the key question that remains is the extent to which such programmes can be sustained and whether it is enough to spur on the massive backlog in development of football infrastructure in Africa. The existing situation is contextualised by van der Merwe (2008: 19-20) who states:

African football continues to be plagued by problems carried over from the colonial era – problems which have often seen it competing on an uneven basis in terms of resources and opportunities. States have struggled to develop appropriate institutions and infrastructure necessary to compete consistently at the top level, and have also suffered from continental talent migration largely due to lack of funds.

Another reason that could have influenced such a response is the massive investments that were made by the host nation, South Africa, in constructing and upgrading ten state-of-the-art multi-purpose stadium, and other related infrastructure linked to road construction and transportation (including the Gautrain and the Rapid Bus Transport System). Such tangible facilities and their impact have the potential to influence perceptions positively.

Table 5.33: Level of agreement with statements in relation to sport (football) issues (in %)

Statements	SA		A		N		SD		D	
	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has accelerated the development of African football	20.5	20.0	48.2	48.8	16.7	14.2	6.4	8.1	8.2	7.9
More disadvantaged football groups have benefited from the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting	13.8	12.6	35.1	49.3	23.3	20.7	7.4	4.7	20.4	12.7
The local football league in my country has benefited from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	10.5	17.6	31.8	39.4	22.1	19.9	13.1	13.6	22.5	9.5
Football infrastructure in Africa has improved because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	19.7	23.4	52.3	47.5	14.6	10.8	3.3	7.9	10.1	10.4

In terms of environmental impact, Table 5.34 below shows that the majority of respondents (60.1% from Nigeria and 50.5% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement that ‘the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has resulted in improved environmental awareness in Africa’. This finding implies that most of the soccer fans in Nigeria and Cameroon were confident that hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa had improved their level of awareness of the need for environmental sustainability in Africa. It also reinforces Deccio and Baloglu’s (2002) persuasive argument that mega-events are capable of acting as a conduit that leads to greater environmental awareness. They focus on the significance of preserving elements of the physical landscape and of the indigenous heritage which, in many instances, would have otherwise been largely ignored. Swart and Bob (2012a) assert that the main environmental legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was largely linked to the Green Goal programme that was developed and implemented by the South African government Ministry of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. The spill-over effects of such programmes (greening and Green Goal) might have been well publicised and received in Cameroon and Nigeria. In addition, the results show that in Cameroon, 26.2% of the respondents and 22.8% of those in Nigeria were neutral, while the remaining proportion of respondents (23.3% from Cameroon and 17.1% from Nigeria) disagreed with it. Such a finding shows that the results were not as straightforward as they might have been, because those who disagreed with the statement and those who remained neutral cannot be ignored. Kasper (1998) asserts that one of the major

trepidations that emanate from mega-event hosting is centred on the damage to the environment. Soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria could have been sceptical with the statement because much of the media focus on the event was centred on the state of readiness of the host nation and on its ability to host the event. More so, the lack of African legacy initiatives proffered that focused on the sustainability of the environment in Cameroon and Nigeria could have been blamed for the response. Mega-events development can have a range of environmental impacts, which are felt particularly acutely in fragile ecosystems, and poorly maintained sport facilities can promote environmental degradation in the form of soil erosion and run-off. It is, therefore, important to integrate environmental education into future mega-events that are hosted on the African continent. As Death (2011) cautions, the experience of the 2010 event suggests the need to incorporate explicit environmental programmes from the bidding stage onwards as well as to devise national contrivances for organising projects at all levels. Adopting such environmental projects within the broader aim of long-term environmental/ ecological management might conform to sustainable development.

Table 5.34: Level of agreement expressed with the statement in relation to environmental impact (in %)

Statements	SA		A		N		SD		D	
	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N
The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has resulted in improved environmental awareness in Africa	11.5	18.4	39.0	41.7	26.2	22.8	6.9	9.4	16.4	7.7

What made the 2010 FIFA World Cup different from previous World Cups in relation to legacy was the continental orientation adopted that entailed extending the benefits beyond the host country (Black, 2007). Identifying the perceptions with regards to South Africa's positioning of the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an 'African World Cup' is essential in that it provides insights into further understanding the extent to which such legacy benefits materialised, and are perceived, outside South Africa.

The World Cup was envisaged as benefiting the entire African continent in a number of ways (see Table 5.21 above). Table 5.35 below shows that most of the respondents (55.9% from Nigeria and 44.6% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement that 'the whole continent has benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa'. Furthermore, all the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria agreed with the statement. Based on the results

presented in relation to the socio-economic and environmental statements (as discussed above), such a result was to be expected as it mirrors the general trend in responses. In terms of the African Legacy Programme, positive spill-over effects to non-host countries, especially in terms of socio-economic and environmental benefits were anticipated (Department of Sports and Recreation, 2008). The findings here reflect the fact that leveraging the first ever mega-event hosted in Africa were perceived to by some of the respondents to provide legacy benefits beyond the boundaries of the host country, South Africa. Although the extent of such legacy benefits was not substantial in this study, the finding challenges the conventional thinking that South Africa's positioning of the World Cup in this manner was merely yet another way of appropriating Africa to its own advantage, using it to gain leverage in the bidding process, as the country could then focus on continental, rather than on domestic, paybacks (Tawfik-Amer, 2011). It was also not only a way of scoring an advantage for South Africa's foreign policy to cement and to maintain its economic dominance and diplomacy on the continent (Ndlovu, 2010). Furthermore, the results show that some of the respondents (36.9% from Cameroon and 24.9% from Nigeria) disagreed with the statement, while a similar proportion of the respondents (19.2% from Nigeria and 18.5% from Cameroon) were neutral. Such respondents might have felt that the event had not benefited them or their countries in any way, or they might simply have lacked an appreciation of the mega-event legacy. In addition, the vast majority of those surveyed in both case study areas displayed a lack of understanding of what mega-event legacies are (see Table 5.19). In addition, very few tangible benefits were evident in Cameroon and Nigeria besides the FFH initiative by FIFA, with the projects concerned not yet having commenced by the time of data collection in 2011.

Much debate has arisen surrounding the extent of benefits that have filtered through to other African countries, as a result of hosting the World Cup in South Africa. Ostensibly, the results show that soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria generally held different views in relation to the continental benefits accumulated by the 2010 event. To further probe the positioning of the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an 'African World Cup', respondents were asked to state whether or not they agreed or disagreed with the statement that 'only those countries close to South Africa benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa'. An almost split response was noted among the respondents. A significant proportion of the respondents (47.5% from Nigeria and 39.5% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement, whereas many of the respondents (40% from Cameroon and 34.1% from Nigeria) disagreed with it. Few of the respondents (20.5% from Cameroon and 18.4% from Nigeria) were neutral. A split in response in terms of the key informants was noted across both case study

areas. Some of the key informants (3 from Cameroon and 3 from Nigeria) rejected the statement while others (4) agreed to it. The findings reveal some degree of tension in relation to which parts of Africa might have benefited from the 2010 event. Some soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria felt that only those countries that were close to South Africa benefited from the event. The findings in this regard were consistent with those of Achu and Swart (2012) who found that 88% of African immigrants interviewed in their study in South Africa shared the same sentiments regarding the statement. The findings further strengthened the idea that the event might have benefited the entire continent, although the extent of such benefits has not yet been determined.

Despite the persuasive arguments put forward by the South African government with the support of the AU and FIFA on the positioning of the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an 'African World Cup', with associated legacies, this exuberant pan-Africanist romanticism remain highly contested. Wehmhoerner (2010: 6) states:

It is very doubtful that the viewers worldwide will associate the World Cup in South Africa with the entire continent. The continent is too diverse to be associated with one single picture, even if one looked at sub-Saharan Africa alone. Neither was the World Cup in Korea and Japan conceived as an Asian event, nor the World Cup in Germany as a European one. Each country stood for itself. The media reporting before the World Cup is more South Africa than Africa with particular attention to crime.

The respondents were next asked whether or not they agreed or disagreed with the statement that 'overall, the 2010 FIFA World Cup was truly an African event'. An interesting twist in the result obtained is evident when it is read together with the previous two related statements because the majority of the respondents (69.3% from Nigeria, and 65.1% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement. Some respondents (23.4% from Cameroon, and 19.2% from Nigeria) disagreed with the statement, while an identical proportion of the respondents (11.5% each from Cameroon and Nigeria) were neutral. All the key informants in both Cameroon and Nigeria agreed with the statement. The findings in this regard somewhat refute those of Tawfik-Amer (2011) who seems inclined towards the idea that publicising and popularising the event as an 'African World Cup' rather reflected a South African appropriation of Africa to its own advantage, specifically to gain leverage during the bidding process. The results further raise questions with regards to Maharaj's (2011) assertion that punting the event as one that would benefit the entire African continent was a mere magniloquence. According to Ginsberg (2010), stakeholders in the event, including the South African government and FIFA, hailed the potentially transformative muscle of the 2010 event

in terms of the entire continent by characterising it as an ‘African World Cup’, and by persistently declaring it as an opportunity to exhibit the ‘real Africa’ and to prove Africa’s self-restraint and proficiency. However, van der Westhuizen and Swart (2011) note that although South Africa’s showcasing of the event as an African event was somewhat caught up with complexity, in terms of the intent to garner African support, it could have promoted a sense of confidence and prosperity across the entire continent. In this study, the soccer fans and the key informants from Cameroon and Nigeria revealed that the marketing of the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an ‘African World Cup’ might have been well received and acceptable across the entire continent. The fact that only 9.2% of football fans in Cameroon and none in Nigeria (see Table 5.18) indicated that their support for South Africa’s hosting of the event was based on the idea that it was ‘an African World Cup’ reinforces these findings.

Table 5.35: Level of agreement with statements in relation to South Africa’s positioning of the event as an ‘African World Cup’

Statements	SA		A		N		SD		D	
	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N
The whole continent has benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa	10.0	19.9	34.6	36.0	18.5	19.2	13.8	11.5	23.1	13.4
Only those countries close to South Africa benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa	6.7	13.9	32.8	33.6	20.5	18.4	17.9	12.1	22.1	22.0
Overall, the 2010 FIFA World Cup was truly an African event	37.2	28.9	27.9	40.4	11.5	11.5	13.6	11.0	9.8	8.2

The literature review and the conceptual framework of this study have clearly shown that mega-event legacies can be positive or negative in nature. The next two statements to be analysed, as are shown in Table 5.36 below, were aimed at summarising the perceptions of positive/ negative legacies linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa.

In terms of Table 5.36, when the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with whether or not they thought that ‘South Africa hosted a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup and achieved a legacy for Africa’, the vast majority of respondents (97.6% from Nigeria and 94.6% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement, with very few respondents (3.3% from Cameroon, and 0.8% from Nigeria) remaining neutral or disagreeing with it (2% from Cameroon and 1.6% from Nigeria). It is clear that many soccer fans and all the key

informants from Nigeria and Cameroon were convinced that the 2010 event was successfully hosted and that it left a legacy for the continent. The largely incident-free event (Steinbrink *et al.*, 2011) might have influenced the finding. The results compare favourably with the post-event assessment by event owner, FIFA, whose president, Sepp Blatter, awarded a 'summa cum laude' grade to South Africa in testament to it having hosted a successful event. Furthermore, Reeves (2010) suggest that the lack of contradiction of FIFA's assessment from a highly critical international media, given the negative pre-event reporting, reinforces the believe that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was a success. du Plessis and Maennig (2011: 351) emphasise:

The home team's strong performance, better than could reasonably have been expected, was the source of much local pride. Furthermore, the tournament was an organisational and logistical success, contributed to the cultural appreciation to the game of football, and was an advertisement for South Africa's capacity to host a global event despite the sometimes pessimistic forecasts in the international media.

However, Swart and Bob (2012a) caution that legacy cannot be measured only in the short-term, by focusing on the fact that the games that were played during the 2010 FIFA World Cup were without delays or that they were without unfounded concerns over safety and security issues. Legacy rather entails a critical long-term assessment of the effects of the event.

With regards to the statement that 'the 2010 FIFA World Cup left NO positive legacy for Africa', the majority of respondents (68.5% from Cameroon, and 52.2% from Nigeria) disagreed with the statement. Although this was predictable when the results in terms of those who agreed that the event had left a legacy (as discussed above), the percentages received from some of the respondents suggest there was notable differences. This is due to the fact that some of the respondents (36.2% from Nigeria and 21.6% from Cameroon) agreed with the statement, while other respondents (11.5% from Nigeria and 10% from Cameroon) were neutral. The results represent some degree of uncertainty on the part of the soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria regarding the positive/ negative legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa. This raises further questions with regards to their understanding of what legacy is and what it entails. This study shows that the vast majority of respondents in Cameroon and Nigeria lacked an understanding of the concept of mega-event legacies. Gratton and Preuss (2008), Bob *et al.* (2011) and Swart and Bob (2012a) have shown the complexities and the difficulties in defining, measuring and understanding the legacies of mega-events. Little evidence supports the argument that non-host areas benefited substantially during and after

the 2010 FIFA World Cup. However, as the literature has shown, legacies are both tangible and intangible in nature and remain difficult to quantify. Preuss (2007) offers the persuasive argument that the legacy effects of mega-events should not only be seen in the short-term, but that they should also be gauged in the long-term.

Table 5.36: Level of agreement with statements in relation to positive/ negative legacy issues for Africa (in %)

Statements	SA		A		N		SD		D	
	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N	C	N
South Africa hosted a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup and achieved a legacy for Africa	62.8	69.8	31.8	27.8	3.3	0.8	1.0	1.6	1.0	0.0
The 2010 FIFA World Cup left NO positive legacy for Africa	5.4	13.9	16.2	22.3	10.0	11.5	43.1	31.2	25.4	21.0

Based on the analysis and discussion of the findings in this section, it is important to underscore that while most of the respondents in Cameroon and Nigeria were not aware of specific legacy programmes associated with the 2010 FIFA World Cup, as previously discussed in section 5.8 above, this section reveals that the majority perceived the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup as having the potential to have positive impacts (many of which were considered to be longer-term) more generally. To further understand and analyse the Likert scale statements in relation to the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the associated African legacy as perceived by soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria, a cross-tabulation was done using the chi-square test (X^2) to examine the relationship between country and the level of agreement that was attained with the selected statements to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the two. Table 5.37 below show the results that were obtained in relation to p -values, where $X^2 = p < 0.05$ indicates a significant difference. No significant differences were found in relation to economic issues. However, significant differences were found in the following which are highlighted in bold in the table.

Social issues:

- Hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup has helped in promoting peace on the African continent ($p=0.026$).
- The 2010 FIFA World Cup has enhanced and improved skills development in Africa ($p=0.041$).

Tourism impacts:

- The 2010 FIFA World Cup has increased the number of tourism and investment opportunities in Africa ($p=0.017$).
- The number of tourist arrivals in my country has increased because of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup ($p=0.001$).
- I am more aware of Africa as a tourism destination because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup exposure ($p=0.001$).

Political issues:

- Africa stands a better chance of hosting more conferences and large-scale sporting events by virtue of South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup ($p=0.001$).
- South Africa hosted a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup and achieved a legacy for Africa ($p=0.040$).
- The 2010 FIFA World Cup left NO positive legacy for Africa ($p=0.000$).

Sport development:

- More disadvantaged football groups have benefited from the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting ($p=0.001$).
- The local football league in my country has benefited from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup ($p=0.000$).

Environmental impacts:

- The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has resulted in improved environmental awareness in Africa ($p=0.020$).

African World Cup:

- The whole African continent has benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa ($p=0.001$).

The possible explanations for the significant differences found in the thematic issues stated above are discussed next.

In terms of social issues, more Nigerian fans compared to the Cameroonian fans supported the statement that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has helped in promoting peace on the African continent. This could be attributed to the fact that Nigeria may have a higher level of tolerance of instability and conflicts, while in Cameroon particularly in recent years, the long

standing conflicts between political and tribal groupings that persists may have influenced Cameroonians to be more sensitive to issues around peace and security on the continent.

Furthermore, more Nigerian fans supported the statement that the 2010 FIFA World Cup has enhanced and improved skills development in Africa. It should be noted that during the course of the interviews, particularly in relation to those with the key informants, skills development in terms of this study was largely interpreted in relation to football (coaching, officiating and management). Nigeria has a much higher level of organisation around football development as compared to Cameroon and with more resources. This could be the reason that there is more support amongst Nigerians than Cameroonians.

Tourism impacts

For all three statements linked to tourism impacts related to the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Nigeria generally had a higher level of support for such statements than Cameroon. As indicated in the literature review, Nigeria is better positioned than Cameroon as a tourist destination and the results may be indicative of a populace that has more awareness about tourism benefits. Additionally, Nigeria hosts significantly more events, specifically in the context of Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions (MICE) events. This may be the reasons as to why the Nigerian respondents were much more positive.

Political issues

Nigerian fans also displayed a more positive reaction to the statement that Africa stands a better chance of hosting more conferences and large-scale sporting events by virtue of South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup. As was the case with the above discussion linked to MICE events, Nigeria's positioning and leveraging events as part of its tourism development goals may have enhanced a better level of awareness among its citizens compared to Cameroon.

In addition, the results in relation to the next two statements were interesting in that more Nigerian fans compared to Cameroonian fans perceive that South Africa hosted a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup and achieved a legacy for Africa. While on the other hand, more Cameroonian fans compared to Nigerian fans rejected the idea that the 2010 FIFA World Cup left no legacy for Africa. The dichotomy observed between fans remain unclear, and future research endeavours could focus on exploring reasons for these differences. Of particular

importance is to assess whether national team performance and country level relationships (for example, international trade and political alliances) affect perceptions.

Sport development

Nigerian fans compared to Cameroonian fans perceived that more disadvantaged football groups have benefited from the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting. It is possible that Nigeria's better position in terms of economic viability and also in football development could have influenced this result. Furthermore, more Nigerian fans expressed the opinion that the local football leagues in their country has benefitted from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Nigeria is known to have a much more professional managed football league on the African continent in terms of management, sponsorship and availability of financial resources than Cameroon. Such a factor could have influenced the results.

Environmental impacts

More Nigerian fans than Cameroonian fans expressed the opinion that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has resulted in improved environmental awareness in Africa. From the literature review presented in the previous chapters, there was no discernable reasons found as to why there are differences between Cameroonian and Nigerian fans in relation to environmental awareness. Again, it is imperative that future research should be conducted to ascertain the possible factors that may be contributing to these differences. This could link directly to environmental programmes in the country, awareness of climate change and other environmentally-related impacts.

African World Cup

As has been the case with the majority of the themes discussed above, compared to Cameroonian fans the Nigerian fans displayed a more positive perception that the whole African continent has benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa. This result could be explained by the fact that Nigerian stakeholders were more aware of the benefits that the FIFA World Cup brought to the continent. For example, the key informant interviews revealed that more Nigerian stakeholder groups were involved in leveraging opportunities linked to the hosting of the event. While no key informant group from Cameroon attended the event in South Africa, two of such informants from Nigeria stated that they attended the event with the view to represent their organisations and to maximise business and investment opportunities.

Table 5.37: Pearson chi-square results (*p*-values presented) in terms of the relationship between country and the level of agreement with selected statements

1 = Strongly agree 2 = Agree 3 = Neutral 4 = Strongly disagree 5 = Disagree	
STATEMENTS	<i>p</i> -value
ECONOMIC ISSUES	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup resulted in programmes that improve the economic development of Africa	0.184
Africa's citizens have benefited from jobs created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup	0.236
SOCIAL ISSUES	
The successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has boosted pride and image of Africa internationally	0.823
Hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup has helped in promoting peace on the African continent	0.026
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has enhanced and improved skills development in Africa	0.041
TOURISM IMPACTS	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has increased the number of tourism and investment opportunities in Africa	0.017
The number of tourist arrivals in my country has increased because of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	0.001
I am more aware of Africa as a tourism destination because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup exposure	0.001
POLITICAL ISSUES	
The number of joint partnership agreements and programmes to strengthen regional cooperation has improved because of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	0.386
African countries can now cooperate more efficiently because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	0.538
Africa stands a better chance of hosting more conferences and large-scale sporting events by virtue of South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup	0.001
South Africa hosted a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup and achieved a legacy for Africa	0.040
The 2010 FIFA World Cup left NO positive legacy for Africa	0.000
SPORT DEVELOPMENT	
Football infrastructure in Africa has improved because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	0.068
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has accelerated the development of African football	0.590
More disadvantaged football groups have benefited from the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting	0.001
The local football league in my country has benefited from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	0.000
ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS	
The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has resulted in improved environmental awareness in Africa	0.020
AFRICAN WORLD CUP	
The whole African continent has benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa	0.001
Overall, the 2010 FIFA World Cup was truly an African event	0.354
Only those countries close to South Africa benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa	0.078

5.11 Whether the 2010 FIFA World Cup was beneficial to the various key informant organisations

According to Clark (2008), mega-events can be beneficial in a number of ways to various organisations, both in the public and private sectors. A key focus during the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the African Legacy Programme was to leverage the impact of the event beyond the borders of South Africa (Bob and Swart, 2011). In this research, the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria were probed individually to ascertain whether the 2010 FIFA World Cup was beneficial to the organisation that they represent. The results generated from the data

were rather contrasting. All but one key informant from Cameroon indicated that their organisation had benefited, compared to only one key informant from Nigeria who indicated so. The main reason put forward by the key informants (1 from Cameroon and 3 from Nigeria) who perceive that the 2010 FIFA World Cup was not beneficial to their organisations mainly was that the event did not bring any direct benefits to their organisations. A key Informant from Nigeria added, “the event was rather beneficial to individuals who love the game of football”.

A follow-up open-ended question, which allowed for multiple responses, required that the key informants indicate how the 2010 event had been beneficial to them. Various benefits were advanced during the interviews, with most being linked to football development. One key informant from FECAFOOT said:

In the run-up to the World Cup (FIFA) in South Africa, we were able to work much closer with FIFA, who sent a team of experts to assist our football programme at the grassroots [level]. We benefited from the management experience gained through networking discussions and workshops.

Another key informant from a football NGO in Cameroon also echoed these sentiments:

Through the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, we were able to partner with some organisations in Europe. The discussions are still ongoing, but promising. They have indicated the desire to assist us in developing social programmes that will assist with youth development.

One other benefit that key informants in both case study areas mentioned was linked to tourism. An official from the Nigerian Tourism Cooperation was enthusiastic about the platform that the 2010 FIFA World Cup had provided in terms of advancing tourism development on the continent:

The fact is that hosting the World Cup in South Africa opened up the continent to the world. We, as an organisation, have been able to partner and attend tourism workshops and conferences with other institutions in Africa before and during the tournament. This was important, and we learned from other countries and specialists how to develop tourism to make it more vibrant and contribute to job creation.

Furthermore, a key informant in the Ministry of Tourism in Cameroon mentioned:

My organisation was able to organise a delegation that travelled to South Africa to market the country as a tourism organisation. We had marketing agents who represented us at trade fairs during the tournament. We have seen an increase in tourist numbers in Cameroon.

According to Cameroon's Ministry of Tourism (2010), the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa heightened the number of tourism arrivals in Africa generally, owing to the vast media coverage that put Africa, as a destination, on the radar of holiday-makers when it was not there before. The Ministry posits that Cameroon experienced a boom in tourism, by attracting a record of over some 500 000 visitors to the central African country.

5.12 Key informant views on the management of mega-event legacies in Africa

In addition, key informants were asked questions based on their knowledge about key phenomena linked to sport tourism and mega-events that were linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting, and the implications that the phenomena held for future events hosted on the African continent. The open-ended questions largely focused on general issues such as views on how future mega-events that are hosted in Africa could be leveraged in terms of the positive legacy impacts and how such impacts should be managed. They also aimed to generate information on the roles that stakeholder organisations could play, given the current situation. Additionally, their interpretations of who should monitor the current legacy impacts in Africa that were created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup and those that are created by any future mega-events hosted in Africa, were . The results are discussed below.

5.12.1 Key informants' views on what their organisations should do to leverage legacy impacts linked to future mega-events hosted in Africa

According to Chalip (2004), event leveraging focuses on activities that are undertaken around the event itself, with the view to taking full advantage of the benefits that the event accrues in the long-term. In the context of mega-events, Chalip (2010) posits that the leveraging effort represents a subtle, but significant, paradigm centre shift. He points to the standard approach that has been used to examine the impacts of the Olympic Games. This approach, he argues, treats the event itself as the intervention. With hindsight, Chalip (2010: 5) states, "the conscientious application of strategic leveraging recognises that the event itself is not the intervention; rather it is an opportunity to implement particular tactics which may foster and nurture the impacts that are desired". According to Smith (2012), the leverage pursued alongside any mega-event can provide different effects which might help in the sustenance of

any positive effects. Kellett *et al.* (2008) observe that one of the main challenges in leveraging an event is to identify leverageable event assets and then to formulate the necessary means to capitalise on those assets. In this research endeavour, key informants from Cameroon and Nigeria were asked to provide their opinions on what they perceived could be done by their organisations to leverage legacy impacts linked to any future mega-event hosted in Africa. They identified a variety of roles in this regard.

One main theme that emerged from the discussion was that to leverage future mega-events, the key informants professed that their organisation could play a major role in terms of supporting the event organisers and the government, specifically by implementing some of the initiatives and programmes that were based on their relevance to their organisation and which were linked to the mega-event. A key informant in the tourism sector in Nigeria explained this issue in greater detail:

We are not the organisers of this kind of event. Our business is to make profits. However, if we can be involved by the government, it will be good, because we can contribute to good ideas, based on what we do. We contribute to creating jobs for our people, so we can assist the federal government to implement its agenda. We already strive to provide effective and efficient services to tourists. Our aim is to ensure that they are satisfied and will come again.

Another key informant in an NGO in Nigeria said:

Our organisation cannot do very much. We can only continue to use sport and make a meaningful contribution in the lives of young and disadvantaged youth in poor communities, by providing them with a place where they can access basic education, life skills, play sport and be healthy.

Some key informants suggested the need to draw expertise or benchmarking parameters from other destinations that have hosted mega-events with the view to maximising the event benefits. The experiences that were gained from South Africa and the 2010 event were noted as being a major departure point. A key informant in Cameroon summarised the situation as follows:

We can learn from those destinations that have hosted the same kind of event, and look at how they managed it. Ideally, we can look at South Africa and the recent World Cup, that is, what the benefits of the event were. This will make it easier to manage any other event easily and [to] gain more benefits.

5.12.2 Key informant views on the role that their organisations should play in future mega-events hosted in Africa and how legacy impacts should be monitored

When the key informants were asked to state their views pertaining to the role that their organisations should play in future mega-events hosted on the African continent, most of the key informants in both Cameroon and Nigeria did not answer the question. For the few (4) that did, all of them said that they envisaged maintaining their current roles. Most of the key informants, especially those in the private sectors, said that they are not quite sure about the role that they should play, given that they needed first to understand how they fit into the landscape of mega-events. One key informant in Nigeria added that “it is even more difficult to say what we will have to do, if the mega-event is not hosted by our country”.

However, the key informants in government were more certain and confident of the role that they would play. One key informant from the Ministry of Tourism in Nigeria underscored the need to continue to promote the image of Africa, as was the case with the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosted by South Africa. Furthermore, they mentioned that the South African experience was a good starting point, but advocated for the need to continue to work with other stakeholder organisations and governments to develop and market tourism in Africa during future mega-events. A manager in the Ministry of Tourism in Cameroon further emphasised the need to maximise the tourism potential of any future mega-event:

Despite the tourism exposure that we had from the 2010 FIFA World Cup, I still think that there is a need to continue to promote and market Africa’s tourism. Africa has excellent resources for tourism. Cameroon is known as ‘Africa in miniature’. We still need to improve the number of people who visit our country. There is a current drive to robustly market our country. So I think we will use any future mega-event to market the country.

Cornelissen (2011b: 525) suggests that “the public sector can play an important role in facilitating or enabling partnerships or can take a lead role in directing programmes according to set development goals”. She further highlights that international sport federations can also set the overarching institutional and political framework, directly or indirectly, for the pursuit of goals and the design of projects.

5.12.3 Key informant views on how legacy impacts created by mega-events hosted in Africa should be managed

When the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria were asked to share their views on how legacy impacts that are created as a consequence of hosting any future mega-event in Africa should be managed, they responded by providing a range of proposals. The key informants in both case study areas were unanimous on the idea that a comprehensive plan was needed, but did not elaborate on how such a plan should be structured. The key informants, therefore, saw planning as an essential tool in managing future legacy impacts. Jago *et al.* (2010: 224) state that “in order to effectively plan and manage mega-events, it is crucial that they be evaluated on a regular basis as if you ‘don’t measure it, you can’t manage it’”. Jago *et al.* (2010) further suggest the importance of employing a risk reduction approach in planning. If there is a high probability of an adverse impact taking place, there is an obligation to take early action to minimise such impact. Preuss (2007; 2013) has analysed the difficulty in managing legacies created by mega-events. His thesis emanates from the fact that there is, in existence, a wide variety and diversity of legacies, and that each of such legacies should be treated and managed differently. According to Preuss (2012; 2013), while negative legacies should be identified and stopped, the positive legacies should be kept ‘alive’ by initiating new projects to bring them back on ‘fire’. This can be done through proper planning, in line with Cashman’s (2002) suggestion that greater investment and more time should be spent on legacy planning. Cashman (2002) believes that this must be supported by well-researched development plans, thus reducing any possible burdens, and that the knowledge gained in the staging of the mega-event should be developed into a valuable source for future hosting.

Furthermore, key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria expressed a sentiment that providing proper training and education with the view to enhancing knowledge on managing impacts created by the mega-event in Africa, are also important for the future. The informants said that training with specific outcomes, accompanied by recognised certification of competency, is advisable because those that have the competency can assist in knowledge production in terms of understanding and comprehending legacies.

One key informant in Cameroon was concerned about the extent that FIFA’s African long-term agenda on the 2010 FIFA World Cup legacy objective to develop and advance African football will be. He stated:

It is difficult to see how a two-day training workshop on football management can change the structural problems that beset the management of football in this country. This FIFA training was done in 2009, and it mostly focused on [the] major football league only. Since then, nothing has happened.

Assessing legacies can contribute substantially to knowledge management as well as inform the planning for future mega-events significantly (Bob and Swart, 2010). According to Jago *et al.* (2010), it is important to share with other destinations the knowledge that has been acquired by one destination that has hosted a mega-event, so as to ensure that the operation of mega-events maximises benefits and minimises costs.

According to a key informant in Nigeria, one way in which mega-event legacy impacts in Africa could be managed is by appointing a body within the structures of the AU to manage such impacts:

It will make sense for the AU to appoint a committee representative of all member states. Since the AU was already involved with the 2010 FIFA World Cup, this committee can be given the mandate to manage legacy impacts, starting with the 2010 World Cup. Their findings will be important for the future.

Jago *et al.* (2010) assert that, if legacies are to be realised, there needs to be a separate group to the organising body that is responsible for legacies. The group in question must have a separate budget that cannot be transferred back into the event operations budget when funds become tight. Cornelissen *et al.* (2011) emphasise the importance for legacies created by mega-events to be sustained for a significant period of time post-event and to have lasting effects, which should be evaluated for at least 20 years. Although the importance of legacy planning cannot be overemphasised, urgency in determining the timescales required and who will be in charge of the legacy in the long-term is equally of essence. Perhaps creating such a proposed committee in the African context is one way of managing and sustaining mega-event legacy impacts.

5.12.4 Key informant views on who should be monitoring the legacy impacts created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup and by future mega-events hosted in Africa and how such legacy impacts should be monitored

When the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria were asked to provide their opinions on who they thought should be monitoring the legacy impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, many of the key informants said that South Africa, as a country, should be responsible in this

regard, despite the event being leveraged for the entire continent. The key informants argued that the 2010 event was organised and hosted by South Africa. One key informant in Cameroon explained:

South Africa should lead the monitoring of the 2010 FIFA World Cup because she was the host nation. South Africa planned the event, they received the visitors and know the impacts better than us. It is impossible to monitor what you really don't know in detail.

Another key informant, who held the view that South Africa should be monitoring the 2010 FIFA World Cup legacy impacts, argued:

South Africa is better placed to monitor it, considering that they have the means to do it. They hosted the event and should have all the experiences around it, which makes it ethical for them to do so. Besides, the impact of the event was much more evident there.

None of the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria said that it was the role of their respective organisations to monitor said impact. The stakeholder groups interviewed therefore did not accept the responsibility of monitoring the impacts that were created as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Such a result raises concerns with regards to the long-term sustainability of such legacy impacts. Jago *et al.* (2010) advocate for “a holistic evaluation of mega-events in order to assess the range of benefits and costs that are delivered by mega-event”. Even though a mega-event might not be hosted at the destination for a significant amount of time, the knowledge gained from the evaluation can be used in the running of subsequent events to ensure that their potential is well-exploited.

Smith and Fox (2007: 1130) state that “delivering a successful event, whilst ensuring a positive legacy, requires an effective coordination between Games organisers, regeneration agencies, different levels of government, local businesses and community representatives”. Conversely, in this research endeavour and in terms of future mega-events hosted on the African continent, all the key informants in Cameroon and in Nigeria said that it was the role of the government to monitor any legacy impact. Therefore, Cameroonian and Nigerian stakeholders recognised that the government should be leading the process of monitoring, perhaps because the organisation of mega-events is, more often than not, led by government. In the case of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the idea of leveraging the event for the entire continent was adopted by AU member states (Cornelissen, 2007). This finding is consistent with Preuss's (2013) findings that governments need to monitor legacy impacts. However, he

also emphasised that stakeholder groups should also monitor legacy impacts, by focusing on those legacies that are relevant to them.

While the key informants in this study said that it was the role of South Africa to monitor 2010 FIFA World Cup African legacy, and that governments should assume the role for future mega-events hosted on the continent, all the key informants were unsure about how such legacies should be monitored. Gratton and Preuss (2008: 1925) advance that “the measurement of a legacy should start with changes event create”. Preuss (2013) argues that the approach to monitoring and evaluating legacies differs from legacy to legacy. A typical example, as the conceptual framework for this research has shown, is the issue of how stadium infrastructural legacy can be compared to security or education legacies. Preuss (2007:222) concludes that “the measurement of the legacy of mega sport events is complex”. He asserts that the bottom-up approach is the most feasible methodology to employ. However, Gratton *et al.* (2006) advocate for the balanced scorecard approach, which examines a range of impacts associated with hosting a sport event, including social aspects. In proposing an indicator framework to assess the legacy impacts created by Africa’s first ever mega-event, Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012: 20) state:

Legacy assessments of sport mega-events provide a platform for evaluating impacts and deriving lessons from a systematic cost-benefit analysis of mega-event. The long-term monitoring of legacy impacts is critically important, since the effects of mega-events are increasingly being questioned, specifically in relation to sustainability imperatives.

5.13 Conclusion

The qualitative and quantitative data analysed, discussed and presented in this chapter were collected from soccer fans, football officials, clubs, tourism organisations, NGOs and relevant government departments in Cameroon and Nigeria. The results provide insight into the ways in which a range of stakeholder groups felt about the legacy impacts of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa beyond the borders of the host nation – South Africa. Overall, there were differences as well as similarities between the two case study areas in relation to what they perceived the African legacies of the 2010 FIFA World Cup to be and the concomitant impacts. The issue to appear most saliently from the data was the very strong level of support for South Africa that prevailed mainly because of pan-Africanism. The level of awareness of the African legacy intentions/ objectives and the understanding of mega-event legacies were determined as being very low. Fans in both countries were largely sceptical about the event having improved the socio-economic, environmental and political conditions of Africa’s

citizens, although the perceptions of legacies in relation to job creation, skills development, image enhancement, infrastructural development mainly linked to sport facilities and the improvement of football in Africa were largely positive. The primary concerns regarding the sustainability of the projects already initiated were corruption and the lack of financial support.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 Introduction

This thesis presents the results of a study that aimed to investigate the soccer fans' and stakeholders' perceptions of the African legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa. To this end, two case studies were undertaken in Cameroon and Nigeria. The rationale for investigating the ways in which soccer fans and stakeholders perceived the impacts of this mega-event was threefold in nature. Firstly, the 2010 FIFA World Cup that was hosted by South Africa in 2010 was the first-ever mega-event to be hosted on the African continent. This event was showcased globally as an 'African World Cup', giving it a continental orientation that had never before been achieved by any mega-event event previously hosted. Secondly, the legacies that are usually associated with mega-event host destinations were, in this case, leveraged in a manner that would benefit the entire African continent through the designing and the adoption of the African Legacy Programme. Thirdly, no known empirically-based study has previously undertaken the examination of the legacy impacts of mega-events outside their host country.

Having consulted a wide range of sport, tourism and mega-event legacy literature, and having used a number of different methods to attain an objective and comprehensive understanding of how Africa's citizens think and feel about mega-event legacy impacts linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup, this study has addressed the formulated objectives. The key aim of the study was to contribute to the body of knowledge on this subject area by comparatively examining the perceptions, concerns and experiences of soccer fans and stakeholders. Based on the conceptual frameworks of the political economy approach, mega-event legacy and stakeholder theory; this chapter encapsulates the main results of the study. The intention is also to propose recommendations based on the key findings.

6.2 Summary of key findings

The key findings of this study are summarised and presented in relation to the study objectives, which were previously outlined in Chapter One, in an effort to address the issues raised by the research questions that guided the study. Similarities and differences were detected between the fans and the stakeholder groups across both case study areas.

6.2.1 Summary of the profile of respondents and key informants

Overall, the study revealed a higher proportion of male than female respondents with a mean age of 31.23 years, ranging between 18 and 71 years old. The findings compare favourably with those of other studies that have confirmed male domination in soccer, and in sport generally, while acknowledging the increasing female involvement globally in such pursuits (Correia and Esteves, 2007; Guilianotti, 2010; Robinson and Trail, 2005; Snelgrove *et al.*, 2008). Furthermore, the monthly household income in Nigeria was found to be substantially higher in Nigeria than it was in Cameroon. The study revealed that the respondents were engaged in low-income jobs, despite the majority of them being relatively well-educated.

In terms of participation and involvement in football, there were very close similarities observed between both the Cameroonian and the Nigerian soccer fans. The majority of the respondents indicated that they were very interested in the sport and that they tried to attend matches or to watch them on television. The data also revealed that such fans were less travelled in terms of having attended international matches hosted outside their respective countries, but that they passionately followed the game on television. The fans were, therefore, classified as those with high and medium identification levels, using the conceptual framework for fan identification that was developed by Sutton *et al.* (1997).

6.2.2 Objective One: Awareness levels among stakeholders regarding the 2010 FIFA World Cup generally and the African legacy objectives

The purpose of this objective was to focus on the awareness of, and the support for, the hosting of the ‘African World Cup’ and attendance at the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The knowledge levels in terms of the understanding of the concepts of ‘mega-event legacy’ and the African Legacy Programme were also examined.

6.2.2.1 Awareness levels of the event and the attendance at the 2010 World Cup

The soccer fans (all in Nigeria and almost all in Cameroon) and the key informants displayed a very high level of awareness that South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The findings reinforce the notion that mega-events of the nature of the FIFA World Cup tend to attract a significant amount of media attention that conveys messages about the host destination during all phases of the event (Knott *et al.*, 2012). The messages regarding South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 event was well received in both case study areas. Besides this, the profile of the respondents and the key informants displayed the characteristics of an avid football enthusiast and it was therefore not surprising that almost all respondents were aware

of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Conventional media sources were responsible for the dissemination of information about the host destination, as the vast majority of the soccer fans and key informant groups indicated that they were informed by television sources regarding the above-mentioned hosting.

The attendance levels at the event in South Africa were very low, with that the majority of the respondents indicating that they had not attended the event. Travel costs were the main reason given for not attending the event. A very high number of respondents indicated that they could not justify the travel and the ticket costs attached to the event, given their low-income earning power. This finding reinforces the conventional thinking embedded within mega-event literature that travel-related costs to such mega-events tend to be very high (Fourie *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, according to Turco *et al.* (2012), South Africa is a long-haul destination, implying that air transportation which is expensive remains the main mode of transportation. Consequently, most of the respondents chose to follow the event on television.

The findings in this study were contrary to media rhetoric during the run-up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup which emphasized issues related to safety and security, specifically in terms of the crime and xenophobia that tend to occur quite frequently in South Africa against other African nationals, that were widely publicised as being a major deterrent to attending the 2010 event. This study's finding shows that there was a close similarity in the responses that were obtained from soccer fans and key informants on the factors that influenced whether respondents travelled to attend the World Cup in South Africa. Importantly and perhaps ironically, crime and xenophobia were least cited as problems affecting event attendance.

6.2.2.2 Continental support for the 2010 FIFA World Cup

South Africa's injection of a pan-African identity into the 2010 FIFA World Cup campaign with the aim of leveraging mega-event benefits for the entire continent has been criticised for having aggravated the sense of ill feeling that was expressed by the country's African counterparts. The promotion of the World Cup-related pan-Africanist appeal was derogated as being a display of paternalism and arrogance on South Africa's part (Cornelissen, 2010b), which was aimed at gaining leverage, during the bidding process, over the other countries concerned, despite it being a relatively new member of FIFA (Alegi, 2001; Cornelissen, 2006). Alternately, such promotion was viewed as a way in which South Africa was seeking to maintain its dominance as the most powerful nation on the African continent and as a force that was capable of representing the voice of Africa on the international stage (Ndlovu, 2010;

Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2011; Tawfik-Amer, 2011). However, this study found that a very strong level of support existed for South Africa and for its hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup among the soccer fans and the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria. Such support was based on a strong feeling of accord with the principle of 'Africanism' and with African renaissance sentiments. The findings show that African support for South Africa went beyond the event, compared to the limited support previously accorded to South Africa for the hosting of a mega-event. For example, Swart and Bob's (2004) analysis of Cape Town's 2004 Olympic bid showed that the failure of the bid was, at least in part, because the country had failed to generate much African support. Perhaps the change in trend noted in this study could be used to help promote future bids for the Olympic Games to be hosted on the African continent and leveraged in the same manner as the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

Besides Africanism, the study also found that the respondents in Cameroon and Nigeria perceived South Africa to be a country with the ability to provide an adequate infrastructure and the financial muscle to host a mega-event. In addition, the 2010 event was seen as a catalyst for job creation and for the development of African football as a whole.

6.2.2.3 Understanding of mega-event legacy

This study revealed that the vast majority of soccer fans in both countries lack an understanding of what a mega-event legacy is. This findings show that despite the design and the adoption of the African Legacy Programme, the aspect of educating African communities on the importance of legacy impacts was largely missing. This absence could pose a long-term threat to the sustainability of those legacies that trickled down to the non-host countries concerned. Future mega-events that are hosted on the African continent and that are leveraged in the manner of the 2010 FIFA World Cup should consider adopting projects, programmes and initiatives that will educate local communities and stakeholder groups on the legacies that are associated with mega-events. Of the few respondents and key informants who, to some extent, knew what legacy entails; most perceived the concept to refer to the positive impacts that mega-events generate. This finding relates to of the conceptual framework of this study that has focused on the complex debates involved in defining legacy. Preuss (2006) argues that legacy is, in most cases, seen as being positive. Within this context, the element of education is further noted as being important.

6.2.3 Objective Two: The African Legacy Programme expectations/ objectives in Cameroon and Nigeria

This objective examined the legacy expectations linked to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Cameroon and Nigeria, specifically in relation to the African Legacy Programme intentions. Key informants in Nigeria displayed a much higher level of awareness of the African Legacy Programme objectives than did those in Cameroon. However, the level of awareness among soccer fans was found to be low, since the majority of the soccer fans stated that they did not know of any said objectives, which implies that they were not particularly aware of specific legacy objectives. According to Dickson *et al.* (2011), there is a need to communicate and to engage in dialogue with those who are affected by mega-event legacy impacts. Managed conversations have the potential to offer different stakeholder groups the opportunity to offer their views on legacy impacts. The findings also show that the majority of soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria were largely aware of the aim to strengthen, develop and advance African football, followed by the aim to improve Africa's global image and to overcome the feeling of Afro-pessimism.

This research found that soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria had no direct expectations that were linked to the specific African legacy components of the African Legacy Programme. This could be attributed to their low level of understanding of what constitutes mega-event legacies. Furthermore, their levels of awareness of the African legacy intentions were low and, consequently, their inability to indicate legacy expectations therefrom. However, the key informant interviews showed that some stakeholder groups, specifically in Nigeria, had expected to use the opportunity that the event presented to network and maximise business opportunities for their respective organisations.

6.2.4 Objective Three: Impact of African Legacy Programmes implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria

This objective sought to identify and critically assess the impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup Legacy programmes implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria. The findings of this study show that the main programmes that were implemented in both Cameroon and Nigeria were mostly centred on improving the quality of football-playing facilities. The respondents cited the renovation of stadiums and the provision of football equipment (for example, soccer balls, jerseys, etc.) in disadvantaged areas by corporate organisations. The interview results also showed that some degree of impetus was shown by the Cameroonian and Nigerian football federations (FECAFOOT and NFA) to use the platform created by the event to initiate

programmes that would assist in developing football in their respective countries. Both countries have, since then, benefited from the professionalisation of their local football leagues. The respondents also acknowledged that there had been an improvement in the quality of their organisation and management of football, albeit to a lesser extent than expected. Additionally, the determination to support grassroots football development has gained more support among corporate organisations. Some key informant groups have, since South Africa's hosting of the 2010 World Cup, reported that they received financial assistance to assist with the process of implementing their initiatives. This suggests that the amount of financial commitment to the game of football has increased in the interim.

Furthermore, the majority of the soccer fans and the key informants stated that the general intentions of the programmes that aided in the strengthening, development and advancement of African football were evident. These programmes were mainly implemented by FIFA through workshops that were based on the management of and officiating at football events, and providing football infrastructure and equipment with which to play the game. The majority of the respondents also acknowledged that the event portrayed Africa in a positive light and that it changed the continent's image, largely on the basis of the delivery of a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup.

6.2.5 Objective Four: Whether Cameroon and Nigeria planned for legacy benefits

The focus of this objective was to assess whether Cameroon and Nigeria planned to derive legacy benefits from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and, if so, what these were and whether they were realised. The analysis that was carried out in terms of objectives two, three and four suggest that it is plausible to conclude that the Cameroonian and Nigerian governments, including stakeholder groups, did not have a comprehensive plan that focused specifically on the key objectives of the African Legacy Programme. Although both countries were strongly in support of and in solidarity with the leveraging of the event continentally through the AU, the opportunity to develop long-term programmes and plans that spoke to the African Legacy Programme and perhaps to the country's development agenda, did not materialise. For example, the key informants in the Nigerian and the Cameroonian Ministries of Tourism said that South Africa's hosting of the 2010 Cup had presented them with the opportunity to market and to portray their country as a preferred tourism destination, but that there was no clear plan in place to capitalise on the audience who had been galvanised by the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Furthermore, the lack of finance was identified by key informants as being one of the main challenges that was experienced by the

stakeholders in relation to implementing the African Legacy Programme objectives in Cameroon and Nigeria.

6.2.6 Objective Five: Perceptions of the legacy impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Cameroon and Nigeria

The aim of this objective was to determine the perceptions of stakeholders regarding the African Legacy Programme components linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The focus was on examining the perceptions that existed in relation to the leveraging of socio-economic benefits, tourism and the environment, football support and development, and image enhancement. The objective also focused on assessing the existing perceptions of the idea of an ‘African World Cup’.

6.2.6.1 Perceptions of economic issues

No significant statistical differences were found in relation to the way in which soccer fans from Cameroon and Nigeria perceived economic issues that were linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup. There was, however, a general feeling that the 2010 FIFA World Cup resulted in programmes that helped to further the economic development of Africa. The key informants in both Cameroon and Nigeria indicated that it was plausible to conclude that the event had improved Africa’s economic development efforts. Burbank *et al.* (2012) and Agha *et al.* (2012) suggest that large-scale events can be and, in most cases, have been deployed as a tool to spur on local economic development by boosting existing growth strategies for various sectors of the economy.

No significant statistical difference was found in the way in which the respondents perceived the 2010 FIFA World Cup and job creation. The majority of the soccer fans perceived that Africa’s citizens had benefited from the jobs that were created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Although the nature of the jobs created was not revealed in this research, there seems to be a strong belief that the event created job opportunities. Certainly for the host country, South Africa, this could very much have been the case (Harris, 2011). According to Zimbalist (2010), employment and job creation is a major component of the economic benefits that are associated with mega-events.

6.2.6.2 Tourism and the environment

One key objective of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the African Legacy Programme was to use tourism and to create opportunities and initiatives that would lead to investments and to

support for the protection of the environment. In this study, significant differences were observed in the way in which the respondents and the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria perceived the impacts that the 2010 event had on tourism and the environment. Specifically, more Nigerian fans compared to Cameroonian fans perceived that the 2010 FIFA World Cup increased tourism and investment opportunities in Africa generally. However, in general terms, the respondents across both case study areas were positive with the idea. According to Giampiccoli and Nauright (2010), mega-events are considered to be important promoters of tourism for their host destinations. This study reveals that respondents felt that this can be the case for non-host areas as well.

Furthermore, a significant difference was noted between the case study areas in terms of tourism arrivals. There was more disagreement amongst Cameroon fans compared to those in Nigeria that the 2010 FIFA World Cup had led to an increase in the number of tourist arrivals in their respective countries. This finding is consistent with the SAT (2010) report on the impact of the 2010 FIFA World Cup which suggested that more tourists who came for the event in South Africa indicated that they had planned to visit Nigeria compared to Cameroon. The media exposure that mega-events attract can assist in creating an awareness of the host region's tourism potential and in stimulating the growth of tourism (Fourie and Santana-Gallego, 2010). The results of this study revealed a significant statistical difference in terms of the way in which the soccer fans perceived the increased awareness of Africa as a tourism destination. The Nigerian respondents seemed to be more inclined to favour the idea that the 2010 FIFA World Cup had increased awareness of Africa as a tourism destination. Given that the focus of the mega-event was placed on the host destination during all phases of the event, the respondents may have felt that the event had tended rather to expose South Africa's potential alone. For example, most of the images shown globally during the event and on a given match day tended to focus mainly on that particular host city. However, the key informant interviews also portrayed the sentiment that the tourism leveraging initiative, through the AU, had provided an opportunity to network with the other member states and to work towards the common goal of tourism development.

The literature review highlighted that one of the greatest challenges facing society today is finding ways of improving environmental performance. Bob and Naidoo (2012) and Smith (2013) suggest that the magnitude and the scale of mega-events and their abilities for attracting significant media and visitor numbers makes them a viable option to promote the preservation of the environment. There was a significant relationship in perceptions among

the respondents and the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria regarding whether the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup had resulted in improved environmental awareness in Africa, which they concluded it had. Govender *et al.* (2012) suggests that mega-events that are staged on the basis of eco-friendly principles are able to act as mechanisms that lead to greater environmental awareness.

6.2.6.3 Perception of the development of African football

The development of sport – specifically the game of football – on the African continent was a key component adopted under the African Legacy Programme. This study found that there were similarities and differences in relation to the manner in which the soccer fans across Nigeria and Cameroon perceived the extent to which the 2010 FIFA World Cup has aided the development of the game in Africa. The majority of the respondents and the key informants perceived that the football-related infrastructure in Africa had improved as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. According to D’Arcy (2006), when preparing to host mega-events, massive infrastructural developments in terms of providing such football facilities as stadiums and training venues, are a prerequisite. For the 2010 World Cup, South Africa constructed and upgraded ten state-of-the-art stadiums, as well as a vast number of training facilities (Maharaj, 2011).

Additionally, no statistically significant difference was found in the manner in which the respondents perceived the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the development of African football. The majority of the respondents and the key informants seemed inclined to favour the idea that the event had accelerated the development of African football generally. Pannenberg (2010) articulates that, for decades, football has suffered from chronic underdevelopment, despite it being the most prominent sport in Africa. The 2010 FIFA World Cup led to the initiation of several programmes that were aimed at targeting improvements in the game on the continent. The football development initiatives, as were discussed in the literature review, can perhaps then be seen in a positive light as contributing to the more recent developments. The results of the study also show that the respondents from both case studies reacted differently with regards to the statement that the 2010 FIFA World Cup was beneficial to disadvantaged football groups. More respondents from Nigeria compared to those from Cameroon felt that this was the case. Burnett (2010) acknowledges the role that mega-events can have in terms of driving positive social change within communities, by developing sport at grassroots level. Post the 2010 FIFA World Cup, football in most parts of Africa is still being played under the same conditions as before South Africa’s hosting of the mega-event.

Amateur football groups and the situation regarding women's football have remained relatively unchanged. Moreover, as has been noted by Cornelissen (2011b), the 52 artificial football pitches that were promised by FIFA to its affiliates, under the 'Win in African with Africa' initiative have yet to be realised. The extent of the impact of the YDF and other initiatives have, likewise, yet to be measured.

A significant statistical difference existed between the soccer fans in Cameroon and Nigeria in respect of the attitude towards the extent to which the 2010 FIFA World Cup benefited local football leagues in both countries. The Nigerian fans showed a more positive attitude towards the idea than did the Cameroonian fans. Overall, both sets of fans and key informants were unconvinced that the event had benefited the league. Pannenberg (2010) articulates that most leagues in Africa are poorly managed, having few or no resources. He suggests that despite the available talent, there has been a failure by governments in Africa to develop and to invest in local football. As part of the African Legacy Programme linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the training of coaches and the development of the local league were considered. However, Cornelissen (2011b) suggests that such training and development is an indirect method of support.

6.2.6.4 The socio-political perceptions

This research study has also found that there was no significant statistical relationship in the way in which the respondents in Cameroon and Nigeria perceived the extent to which the 2010 FIFA World Cup positively changed the image of the African continent. An overwhelming majority of the soccer fans perceived that the 2010 FIFA World Cup boosted the pride and enhanced the image of the African continent internationally. Perhaps this is the most significant intangible benefit that is associated with the hosting of mega-events, as the literature review highlighted. The current study has shown that the image effects that are associated with mega-events can trickle down to non-host countries and be seen in a positive light. Matheson (2006) suggests that mega-events bring with them unquestionably intangible psychological value to the communities that host them. However, as Gursoy *et al.* (2011) note, such positive effects tend to change with the passage of time.

Mega-event hosting can improve the skills capacity of host regions (Jago *et al.*, 2010). In this study, closely similar perceptions were found between the soccer fans and the key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria in terms of skills development and the 2010 event. The majority of the respondents perceived that the 2010 FIFA World Cup had enhanced and improved skills

development in Africa. The hosting of such events has been recognised to provide a unique opportunity to build and to showcase skills capabilities, while developing business contacts and investments (Lee and Taylor, 2005). Furthermore, the volunteer programme for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, which included Africa's citizens, could have positively influenced skills development.

Significant differences were found in the way Cameroonian and Nigerian fan respondents perceive that the 2010 FIFA World Cup assisted towards promoting peace on the African continent. Nigerian fans displayed a much more positive attitude than Cameroonian fans. However, in the overall context, most of the respondents seem to have perceived that hosting the event in Africa had helped in promoting peace on the continent. This finding is consistent with Achu and Swart's (2012) finding which showed that the event to some extent had assisted in fostering peace between the local South Africans and resident African immigrants. Walker *et al.* (2013) suggest that the 2010 event created programmes that used the playing of football for human development and that promoted peace on the continent through several NGOs and corporate organisations.

With regards to the 2010 event having enhanced the number of joint partnership agreements and initiated programmes that have strengthened regional cooperation in Africa, over half of the soccer fans and the key informants in both Cameroon and Nigeria felt that the event had such an impact. Similarly, just over half of the respondents in both the case study areas felt that African countries have come to cooperate more efficiently due to the hosting of the event. According to Malfas *et al.* (2004), mega-events provide the opportunity for a range of stakeholder groups to partner and to undertake joint projects. Govender (2011) points to SADC's joint tourism initiatives as forming part of the successful legacy of cooperation brought about by the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

The current study also found that there was a significant statistical difference in the way in which the respondents in Cameroon and Nigeria perceived Africa's potential to host future mega-events on the continent. The Nigerian fans displayed a more positive attitude compared to the Cameroonian fans that Africa now stands a better chance of hosting more conferences and other large-scale events as the result of having hosting a successful World Cup. However, a sizeable percentage of the fans remained unsure. In general, the results show that there may exist a positive reaction from African fans in relation to attracting such future mega-events as the Olympic Games, which has not yet been hosted on the African continent. According to

Maennig and du Plessis (2011), the successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup assisted in changing the negative perceptions of Africa's ability to host a mega-event.

6.2.6.5 Perceptions of the 'African World Cup' legacy

On soccer fans' attitudes towards the benefits that have been obtained in terms of a continent-wide positive legacy as a result of having hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, differences and similarities were noted. The vast majority of the respondents and the key informants were unanimous in their general perceptions that South Africa had hosted a successful event and that it had achieved a legacy for Africa. However, the fans varied widely regarding whether the event had benefited the entire continent. Specifically, the Nigerian fans were more receptive towards a continent-wide benefit than were the Cameroonian fans. However, the overall results show that a rather cautious response was exhibited by those from both the case study areas. Furthermore, in terms of whether the 2010 FIFA World Cup was beneficial only to those countries that were relatively close to South Africa geographically speaking, both sets of fans responded similarly. The results show that there was a split in response among the fan respondents in Nigeria and Cameroon. While most of the respondents perceived it to be so, a notable percentage rejected the idea. However, a few remained unsure. Generally, the majority of the respondents and the key informants perceived that the 2010 FIFA World Cup could, overall, be considered as a truly African event.

6.2.7 Objective Six: The African Legacy Programme components that were achieved

The aim of this objective was to examine critically whether the African legacy component of hosting Africa's first mega-event was achieved. The objective answered the question regarding what the successful component of the African Legacy Programme was that was linked to the World Cup.

Based on the results of this research, two components of the African Legacy Programme featured prominently in terms of the implementation of football support and development programmes in Cameroon and Nigeria. Firstly, the data showed that they were implemented to some extent through the support of NGOs. FIFA also provided basic support to local football leagues, in terms of coaching and the management of the game. However, as Tomlinson (2011: 30) suggests, although sport-related development, particularly football initiatives, aims to augment the lives of the disadvantaged in society, it is not enough solely to alter the conditions that have created such inequality. Such development is, rather, a temporary relief of a deeper social issue that requires attention. Secondly, most of the soccer

fans and the key informants noted the improved reporting on the situation in the media and the occurrence of a change in Africa's image. The media legacy that has been created for Africa is acknowledged in several post-event analyses of the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Ginsberg, 2010; Swart and Bob, 2012). The African Legacy Programme components of gender and capacity building, climate change and national resource management as well as peace and nation-building were, however, found not to have been implemented.

6.2.8 Recommendations from key informants in Cameroon and Nigeria

The key informant interview yielded some valuable information that could yet be useful in the planning and execution of future mega-events to be hosted on the African continent. Firstly, in terms of leveraging future mega-events to be hosted on the continent, the key informants stated that they saw themselves playing a supportive role compared to that which was played by the governments and by the event organisers concerned. They posited that they could be useful in implementing those programmes that speak to their area of expertise, and which are linked to the successful execution of the event and to meeting its objectives. Benchmarking was also proposed by the key informants as one way in which to leverage future events. The key informants argued that elements of previous mega-events that were successfully hosted represented a departure point. Jago *et al.* (2010: 233) suggest that “knowledge that is acquired by one destination in relation to the hosting of a mega-event needs to be shared with other destinations so that the operation of mega-events continually improves and the contribution that they bring to destinations is enhanced”.

Secondly, the key informant interviews also showed that in the context of future events to be hosted on the continent there was some desire, albeit from those in the government sector, to contribute towards enhancing Africa's image globally and to earning tourism benefits therefrom. This was perhaps in recognition of the potentially rewarding opportunity that mega-events offer in terms of the increased media and subsequent marketing opportunities. According to van der Westhuizen and Swart (2011), to optimise the tourism potential of mega-events through the media, it is important for marketers to make such events as attractive as possible to a wide range of tourism markets.

Thirdly, the key informants noted that planning is essential as part of the management of mega-event legacy impacts in Africa. They acknowledge that through proper planning, the long-term impacts that are created by mega-events can be managed. However, one drawback of the interview results was that the informants did not state how such a plan could be

structured. Further, the key informants were forthcoming with the idea that providing proper training and education to relevant stakeholders would be useful for the management of future events that are hosted on the African continent. A proposal was also made by the key informants that on the basis of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and for future mega-events to be hosted, it would be advisable to create a permanent body under the auspices of the AU, and funded by the member states, to focus on the long-term management of the legacies that such events bring. This, they posit, can lead to greater commitment and to more accountability than in the past.

Fourthly, in terms of the monitoring of the legacy impacts created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup, and for future events, the key informants perceived that it was the role of South Africa, as host of the 2010 event, to lead the process of monitoring the impacts. The key informants argued that, as South Africa had conceptualised the idea, they were better equipped to monitor such impacts. A key issue noted from the interviews was the likelihood that the key informants and their organisations were not prepared to take on such a responsibility.

6.3 Reflection on conceptual framework used

This section briefly reflects on the conceptual framework used, particularly its relevance and recommendations to advance or extend the theoretical understanding of mega-events when one looks at legacies beyond the host country. Specifically, South Africa's positioning of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has provided a unique opportunity to examine and assess continental legacies which have not been done before.

In relation to the political economy theory, this study clearly reveal the power dynamics involved in firstly choosing to bid for a mega-event and the processes of being selected and chosen which is highly contested globally as several research efforts have shown. This contestation is known globally and Cameroonian and Nigerian stakeholders have noted these issues as well. However, it is important to note that there is an assumption that within political economy and in terms of mega-events, there is a high level of contestation within regions continentally and globally to host such events. This study has shown that while this might be the case, there was tremendous support amongst Cameroonian and Nigerian soccer fans and other stakeholders for South Africa's hosting of the event, and the possibility of hosting another mega-event. In this sense, there seems to be a recognition that there are countries better positioned within the continent to successfully host the event whether it is based on historical legacies or current economic realities. Consequently, the political economy

paradigm should not only focus on power dynamics in terms of contestation and conflict, but in relation to mobilising support and aligning different interests and forces to be able to work towards a common agenda. Much more could have been achieved in relation to positive legacy impacts on the African continent and this would have perhaps resulted in leveraging more resources for investments in this regard.

In terms of mega-event legacy, the thematic evolution of the areas that constitute mega-events are extremely useful in understanding and unpacking impacts. This study has revealed that there are economic, social, environmental and political impacts associated with the hosting of mega-events. Generally, the study unearthed positive perceptions about impacts, but the potential of mega-events to actually leverage and deliver on these positive legacy impacts remains disconcerting. The respondents in the study are aware of the challenges that exist. Particularly, those respondents who are in the government sector and NGOs felt that, should there have been better planning and management, benefits could be realised in the long-term. However, one of the gaps in the current mega-event legacy framework is that it focuses on host cities. This study contributes to understanding impacts on a larger scale and at a continental level. On this basis, an assessment of the African Legacy Programme therefore calls for mega-event legacy frameworks in the future to go beyond the host cities and countries.

The stakeholder theory has been an extremely useful framework. In relation to the previous mega-event legacy framework that has been discussed, although the debate is dominated by the types of legacy, the framework fails to guide knowledge and researchers on who should be consulted and who are responsible for leveraging. The stakeholder perspective therefore helps in providing a better understanding of this critical component. However, stakeholders are often recognised as those who are directly involved as this study also does. In the future, for example, it may be important to have interviewed tourists and residents in the communities, rather than only soccer fans and key informants to determine how the African Legacy Programme and its objectives were perceived beyond those interested in football. This will include perceptions from residents who may not be football fans and attendees.

6.4 Recommendations

This study focused on two case study areas (Cameroon and Nigeria) which were assessed and compared in terms of the legacy impacts of mega-events, with an emphasis on the perceptions of stakeholders and soccer fans regarding the African legacy associated with the hosting of

the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa. The results indicate that while positive perceptions were seen to exist in terms of the impacts of the event, numerous concerns and challenges also emerged. Moreover, the legacy impacts that are evident require decisive management. This position is articulated by Preuss (2006; 2007; 2013) who asserts that negative legacies that arise as a result of mega-events should be identified and appropriate measures taken to minimise their consequences, while the positive legacies should be sustained through a range of adopted strategies that maximise their potential. This section presents recommendations that could be used to develop policies as well as institutional capacity-building and skills development programmes for future mega-events hosted in Africa. These are overall recommendations that draw on aspects already highlighted during the data analysis undertaken and in the previous sections of this chapter.

6.4.1 Planning, communication and education

The results of this study show that there are management implications in terms of the planning and the execution of future mega-events that are to be hosted in Africa, especially if such events are to be leveraged continentally as was the case with the 2010 FIFA World Cup. One of the outcomes of this study has been the identification of the fact that the understanding of mega-event legacies was found to be very low amongst the stakeholder groups. Furthermore, while most of the key informants were able to provide an understanding of what legacy impacts entail, their perceptions revealed that such legacy impacts were all positive. On this basis, it is recommended that the education of stakeholder groups should be seen as a fundamental aspect that must be incorporated and enhanced through a range of initiatives geared towards large-scale or mega-event hosting in Africa. Specific programmes could be developed around improving the level of understanding and of comprehending mega-event legacies for future events that are to be hosted in Africa. Specifically, the African Legacy Programme should place more emphasis on knowledge enhancement and on skills and capacity building. The aim should be to improve the skills and the personal development that are present within Africa's disadvantaged communities. As A.T. Kearney (2005) suggests, with a little creativity, the ability of mega-events to generate massive public interest can be used by event organisers, in conjunction with the relevant government ministries of education to create educational programmes that promote mega-event reinforcing values.

Another outcome of this research suggests that the level of awareness of the African Legacy Programme and of its key objectives was determined as being low in both case study areas. This raises questions with regard to how these legacy objectives were communicated to various stakeholder groups within African communities. It would seem that the

conceptualisation and the subsequent adaptation of the African Legacy Programme was mainly communicated at intergovernmental level. There is, therefore, a need to devise a more efficient system of communication that should take into account the ways in which such objectives are impressed upon the community stakeholder groups regionally and during all phases of the event. Smith and Fox's (2007: 1134) research on the legacy planning for the Commonwealth Games in Manchester revealed that "several mechanisms encouraged regional dissemination: it was a prerequisite at the appraisal stage for all legacy projects funded through the Legacy Programme to have a regional focus; and programme coordinators and projects made a concerted effort to market their activities". Dodouras and James (2004) recognise that there are 'win-win' circumstances that could be recognised in the way in which sustainability impacts from mega-events are identified evaluated, and managed, and in the way in which these results are communicated. "A new way of communication may bring about increased usage of certain policy directions and provisions and an adequate legislative basis for inter-sectorial policy review" linked to mega-event hosting in the developing context (Dodouras and James, 2004: 9).

It is evident from the findings that although the intentions of the African Legacy Programme were admirable, there is little evidence to suggest that its objectives were implemented in Cameroon and Nigeria or that both countries actually planned to achieve positive legacies in the first place. One drawback from the conceptualisation of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the African Legacy Programme was that there was limited involvement and buy-in from CAF. This is seen as being important, in the context of the LOC and FIFA, for future events hosted in Africa. Given the fact that FIFA has a tendency to switch its focus post-event immediately to the next host country, CAF should assume a more robust role in the management of post-African Legacy Programme initiatives. This might involve canvassing for more meaningful support and commitment from governments in support of African Legacy Programme projects. In addition, the key informants' suggestion that a future African Legacy Programme should have a separate governance structure, in terms of which an appointed senior director of legacy planning could convey the importance of legacy consistently, is underscored.

According to Smith and Fox (2007: 1130), securing legacy impacts from mega-event hosting requires not only careful planning but also organisers "who are sensitive to importance of legacy". This research has illuminated that besides the African Legacy Programme objectives of advancing and developing African football and the aim to improve on and strengthen Africa's image, there has been limited focus on the other objectives, such as those of gender

and capacity building, leveraging of socio-economic benefits and helping to mitigate climate change. These aims should be thoroughly assessed, with the intention of identifying those positive legacies that materialise. As Preuss (2013) argues, doing so could allow for consistent reinvestment in such legacies, while the negative legacies are both identified and remedied.

Since previous successful legacies associated with mega-events have emerged due to the event being incorporated into the overall long-term development agenda of the host country, as the literature review of this thesis suggests, future events hosted on the continent could embed within themselves the key objectives of the AU and NEPAD, and be linked to specific initiatives such as those that are strongly supported by African governments. For example, more specific programmes could be developed around improving the competitiveness of businesses in such sectors as tourism. This could help to ensure the long-term survival of African Legacy Programme projects and initiatives and the maximisation of the benefits to be gained therefrom. According to Smith and Fox (2007: 1141), “the hosting of the Commonwealth Games in Manchester archived regional legacy effects through effective institutional relationships created between all stakeholders in the region and by adopting a range of projects and not relying solely on the event alone”.

6.4.2 Stakeholder involvement and buy-in

On the basis of the results of this study, a more committed approach to stakeholder and community engagement in the management and in the execution of future mega-events hosted in Africa is essential. The voices of various stakeholder groups should be incorporated into the main legacy objectives, especially in terms of those that affect them directly. This is because stakeholder voices, including those of the residents, have the potential to offer insights into the successful planning of future mega-events. Ritchie *et al.* (2009: 144) argue that “assessing the perceptions of residents towards mega-events is one potential indicator within the broader social impact assessment of mega events. The concept of social impact assessment, and more broadly sustainability, stresses the importance of a long-term approach and integrating community interests into dimension making”. Besides, according to A.T. Kearney (2005), the creation of positive mega-event legacies depends on how well a nation, city or host region mobilises its citizens and stakeholders.

6.4.3 The role of the government

Traditionally, government involvement and support are essential when pursuing and hosting a major sporting event. The government generally is expected to play four distinct roles: as the

giver of financial guarantees, given the amount of money involved; as the provider of safety and security for host citizens and for event visitors or tourists; as the lead taker, in terms of galvanising stakeholder support by showing strong support as the government; and as the funder of a range of infrastructure that is required to host the event (Pellegrino and Hancock, 2010). In this research, the commitment from such African governments as those of Cameroon and Nigeria was not meaningful in terms of the African Legacy Programme. This is consistent with Dowse's (2011: 12) findings who suggested, based on interviews with stakeholders in the 2010 process, that "resource constraints in South Africa and the absence of a strategic approach to leveraging opportunities undermined a practical regional impact". Therefore, Africa Legacy Programmes should be funded during all phases of a mega-event. Hall (2006) cautions that 'legacies' tend also to be sustained through the funding that is created with the profits earned from an event.

The experiences emerging from the literature review and from the findings in this study point towards the fact that the leveraging of the African Legacy Programme was not comprehensively done, since this role was mainly assumed by the LOC, whose main role in mega-events was to focus on compliance rather than on leverage. The South African government signed the guarantees concerned, with their focus rather being biased towards preparations for the 2010 event. There was a limited focus on the internal leveraging of the event by the government and this trend was consistent within the rest of Africa. Again, the lack of coordination, which was previously discussed, was evident. A more focused approach to leveraging future mega-event legacies that are hosted in Africa is essential and should be government-led.

Corruption was identified as a major challenge affecting the sustainability of the legacy impacts that were created as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Cameroon and Nigeria. Corruption has been rife within football circles in Cameroon and Nigeria. Furthermore, the countries perform poorly in terms of eradicating corruption more generally with both featuring prominently in the Corruption Perceptions Index (Pannenburg, 2010). There is, therefore, the need to promote visionary leadership that promotes accountability in Africa and which combats corrupt practices within football.

According to Gratton and Preuss (2008), positive legacies can encourage community and stakeholder support for mega-events, especially if there are tangible outcomes in the offing. Such positive legacies can provide a return on investment and a justification for public

expenditure. This study recommends that the Cameroonian and Nigerian governments assume a central role in the long-term assessment, monitoring and evaluation of legacy impacts. Their role as such should be monitored and managed with the same rigour and conviction as the event itself, if the legacies are to be sustained in the long-term. Ritchie *et al.* (2009: 144) recommend that “a balanced appraisal of event impacts, integrating the social dimension with economic and environmental evaluation is vital, particularly for those destinations that are serious about the triple bottom line approach to event evaluation and sustainable development”. Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012) developed and propose the use of legacy indicators to evaluate legacies associated with the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Such indicators could be useful in tracking down the perceived legacies in Cameroon and Nigeria. Specifically, the perceived African legacy, in terms of image and sport, should be assessed. Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012: 19) argue that sport legacies should focus on the number of football-related development programmes that have been created due to 2010 and the African Legacy Programme, including the increase in the overall number of football participants, whether professional or recreational in nature. In terms of their argument, “[a]n objective assessment of performance improvement through ranking of national teams, number of international athletes, and youth programmes will aid in estimating the lasting impacts FIFA had on the sporting sector” in Africa. Furthermore, Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012: 18-19) propose that “media indicators intend to measure the perceptions FIFA 2010 created nationally and globally, for better or worse, short-term and long-term”. They posit that “[t]he value of media coverage, whether positive or negative, and attractiveness levels of Africa as a tourism destination among visitors, viewers and potential travelers is important”.

6.4.4 Future research direction

This study forms a departure point for the analysis of mega-events leveraging at continental level, based on empirical evidence. Specifically, the dimension of examining mega-event legacies in the developing context in relation to the hosting of Africa’s first mega-event – the 2010 FIFA World Cup. In an attempt to gain a better understanding of the post-2010 event African legacy, a systematic analysis of the key components of the African Legacy Programme should be conducted. Such studies, which should be longitudinal in nature, should consider that legacies can be short-term or long-term in nature (Agha *et al.*, 2012; Gratton and Preuss, 2008). They could, therefore, focus on the sustainability of the ‘win in Africa for Africa’ initiative and on long-term tourism impacts and on image effects. Several research questions could be addressed such as: What are the tourism legacies associated with the 2010 FIFA World Cup? Which stakeholder groups in Africa benefited most from the hosting of the

2010 FIFA World Cup? What are the lessons learned from the leveraging of Africa's first mega-event?

The research efforts should consider the long-lasting impression of the 2010 World Cup in other African countries and on a range of stakeholder groups. In addition, longitudinal research that focuses on soccer fans and the stakeholders in Cameroon and Nigeria can be undertaken with the view to monitoring changes in perceptions, considering that Gursoy *et al.* (2002) found that perceptions about mega-event legacy impacts might evolve over time. Furthermore, considering that a major limitation of this study could be attributed to the fact that the term legacy generally refers to long-term impacts, all such future research mentioned above would allow for an objective critique of the African Legacy Programme's impact continentally and whether the event truly was an 'African World Cup'.

6.5 Conclusion

The literature review on mega-event legacy impacts shows that extensive studies have been conducted with the view to determining host destination resident and stakeholders' perceptions of mega sport tourism event legacies. However, few such studies have examined the perceptions of non-host community stakeholders. According to Dowse (2011: 11), South Africa's approach to hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the first ever to be hosted on the African continent, was unique in that the event was presented as an "undertaking for the good of the African continent, an approach that was intended to support regional and international ambitions of reconciliation and recognition. The bid process itself was framed using pan-African narratives and positioned South Africa as a representative of the continent". In the context of this research, South Africa's hosting of the event and its positioning of itself as a continental showpiece presents a unique opportunity to examine legacy beyond the scope of the host country and to close the gap in mega-event studies.

Contrary to conventional thinking in mega-event discourse, Cornelissen (2010b: 3010) underscores that cognisant of dissimilar (in the main, political) aims and facing different "sets of local urban, environmental, political and economic conditions from their counterparts in the developed world, emerging powers can reshape the way in which events are viewed, planned for and commercialised and in which they impact upon stakeholder". The literature review of this study has provided some of the key reasons behind South Africa's desire to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Some of such reasons were to maximise the tangible legacies

linked to infrastructural development, boost job creation and promote tourism. The intangible aspects were mainly linked to changing the destination's image (Ginsberg, 2010).

This research endeavour has clearly shown the importance of examining legacy benefits of mega-events more broadly. This study has found that the possible regional benefits of the 2010 World Cup, besides Africa's image makeover, included tourism and infrastructure investments that were mainly linked to football facilities. Scant evidence was found to suggest that countries capitalised on the African Legacy Programme to develop further initiatives aimed at maximising the African legacy, as was predefined as being the key component that drove the African Legacy Programme. In this sense, the commitment from African nations under the auspices of the AU in the run-up to the event appears to have been rather superficial. One of the most talked-about legacies, the FFH instituted by FIFA to develop and to advance grassroots-level football, especially for the previously disadvantaged, is welcomed. However, for a continent that has suffered from decades of underdevelopment in relation to sport infrastructure, specifically in terms of the game of football, such a venture has not been sufficient to have a significant impact.

The study also revealed very strong support for South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Africa. The findings represent a shift in perceptions, given that the pre-event stage of the event was characterised by intense politicking that exposed the divided nature of the African continent, as propagated by the media and the bid (the north versus the south). This was even more so, as South Africa was seen as the 'new kid on the block', and in some ways as the 'USA of Africa'. The presence of strong support for the hosting provides a useful basis for the planning and for the organisation of future mega-events on the continent. Furthermore, the study has shown that there was a strong desire to experience the event. The fan parks and the PVAs that were available in South Africa provided numerous opportunities for social interactions besides those that could have been obtained from attending the games.

The stakeholders associated with mega-events might perceive mega-event legacy impacts similarly or differently across geographical regions. Overall, the stakeholders in Cameroon and Nigeria displayed similar, generally positive perceptions with regards to the event having changed the image of the continent globally; and also in relation to developing the game of football, job creation and skills development, as well as tourism development. However, some level of disagreement in terms of the 2010 event benefiting disadvantaged football groups on the continent, the development of the local leagues, and the increasing of joint partnership and

investment agreements in Africa were expressed between the two countries. The stakeholders in Cameroon and Nigeria perceived that the 2010 FIFA World Cup left a legacy for Africa, but were not sure whether the event had benefited the entire continent. They also posited that it is plausible to classify the 2010 event as an ‘African World Cup’.

Based on the findings, this research shows that it is not incongruous to suggest the need to incorporate the voices of other stakeholder groups in examining the long-term legacy impacts of Africa’s first mega-event. This will allow for broader conclusions on the impacts of the event in Africa, and it will also present a stronger basis for the planning of future events of this nature.

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APPENDIX A



SCHOOL OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES

FAN SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire forms part of the data as partial requirement for a PhD degree at the school of Environmental Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal Durban. The research is on the legacy impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The research is aimed at measuring the level of awareness and perceptions about the African Legacy impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by stakeholders in Cameroon and Nigeria.

You are kindly asked to participate in the study. The information you provide is strictly confidential and your personal details will remain anonymous and protected.

COUNTRY: _____

REGION: _____

Q. No.....

1. Interest in football

1.1 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 television.	
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 in it,	

1.2. Indicate your level of interest in football locally/ at club level.

Not interested	
Follow my team to every game	
Follow my team occasionally	
Watch my team only on television	

1.3 Indicate your level of interest in football internationally in relation to your national team.

Not interested	
Follow international football on television	
Travel to international football games	

1.4 Indicate your level of interest in football in relation to other teams, excluding the Cameroonian/ Nigerian team.

Not interested	
Follow international football on television	
Travel to international football games	

1.5 Have you ever travelled to an International football match (other than a FIFA World Cup tournament) outside Cameroon/ Nigeria?

Yes	
No	

1.5.1 If yes, which international match did you most recently attend? (State name of host country and year.)

1.6 Have you ever travelled to a FIFA World Cup tournament other than the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

Yes	
No	

1.6.1 If yes, which World Cup/s did you attend? (State name of host country/ies and year/s)

2 Awareness and perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and South Africa

2.1 Which country hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

South Africa	Other (Specify)	Don't know
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2.2 How did you find about South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup? (Multiple responses permitted)

Television	Newspaper	Internet	Posters	Community meetings
Radio	SMS	E-mail	Friends	Other (specify)

2.3 Did you attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.3.1 If no, why did you not attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa?

Not interested in soccer	
Could not afford to purchase tickets	
Preferred to watch games on television	
Travel costs were too high	
Xenophobia	
Political instability	
Unfriendly people	
Visa problems	
Crime	
Other (specify)	

2.3.2 If yes, where were you based?

Johannesburg	Durban	Pretoria	Cape Town	Port Elizabeth
Bloemfontein	Rustenburg	Nelspruit	Polokwane	

2.3.3 How long did you stay in South Africa (in days)? _____

2.3.4 Did you travel to South Africa with a World Cup ticket?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.3.5 If you travelled without a ticket, did you make use of dedicated public viewing areas for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, to watch the matches?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.3.6 How many people did you travel with to South Africa for the World Cup? _____

2.3.7 Which activities did you engage in while in South Africa?

None	Nature	Adventure	Culture	Shopping	Dining
No comment	Other (Specify)				

3 Support and awareness of the 2010 FIFA World Cup “African legacy”

3.1 Did you support South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

Yes	No	Not sure / maybe
-----	----	------------------

3.1.1 Please provide a reason for your response.

3.2 What is your understanding of mega-event legacy?

3.3 Are you aware of the “African Legacy” intentions/ objectives linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

Yes	No	Not sure / maybe
-----	----	------------------

3.3.1 If yes, which ones? (Multiple responses permitted)

The aim to strengthen, develop and advance African football	
The aim to improve Africa’s global image and overcoming Afropessimism	
Climate change and national resource management	
Gender and capacity building	
Leveraging socio-economic benefits linked to tourism	
Other (specify)	

3.3.1.2 If yes, which of the following programmes were implemented in your country?

Peace and nation-building	
Football support and development	
Environment and tourism	
Culture and heritage	
Communications and information technology	
Continental security co-operation	
Other (specify)	

3.3.1.2.1 In your opinion, which of the components listed above was achieved?

3.3.2 What benefits have materialised from the implemented programmes above?

3.3.2.1 What are the biggest challenge(es) facing implementing the programme/s?

3.3.2.1.1 Given a scale of 1-5 where 1 is very bad and 5 is excellent, how will you rate the success of the programme you mentioned above?

1. Very bad	2. Bad	3. Good	4. Very good	Excellent

3.3.2.1.2 Provide a reason for the rating above

4 Objectives and expectations of the 2010 FIFA World Cup “African Legacy”

4.1 Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the African legacy

1 = Strongly agree 2 = Agree 3 = Neutral 4 = Strongly disagree 5 = Disagree

South Africa hosted a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup and achieved a legacy for Africa	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup resulted in programmes that improve economic development of Africa	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has enhanced and improve skills development in Africa	
Africa’s citizens have benefited from jobs created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
Football infrastructure in Africa has improved because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
The successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has boosted the pride and image of Africa internationally	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has increased tourism and investment opportunities in Africa	
The number of tourist arrivals in my country has increased because of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
I am more aware of Africa as a tourism destination because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup exposure	
The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has resulted in improve environmental awareness in Africa	
African countries can now cooperate more efficiently because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
The number of joint partnership agreements and programmes to strengthen regional cooperation has improved because of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
Hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup has helped in promoting peace on the African continent	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has accelerated the development of African football	
More disadvantaged football groups have benefited from the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting	
The local football league in my country has benefited from South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
Africa stands a better chance of hosting more conferences and large-scale sporting events by virtue of South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
The whole African continent has benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa	
Only those countries close to South Africa benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup left NO positive legacy for Africa	
Overall the 2010 FIFA World Cup was truly an African event	

4.2 Are you aware of any other project(s) that were implemented in your country as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

Yes	No
-----	----

4.2.1 If yes, name the (se) project(s).

4.3 What were the expectations from the (se) project(s)?

4.4 How successful have the projects been?

5 Fan profile

5.1 Age of respondent.

<20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	>70 (specify)
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5.2 Gender (interviewer to note)

Male	
Female	

5.3 What is your monthly household income before deductions and tax?

5.4 Highest level of formal education.

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

5.5 What is your employment status?

Unemployed	
Working full-time	
Working part-time	
Retired/Pensioner	
Student/Scholar	
Self-employed	
Housewife	
Other (specify)	

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.

APPENDIX B



SCHOOL OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES

KEY INFORMANT SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire forms part of the data as partial requirement for a PhD degree at the school of Environmental Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal Durban. The research is on the legacy impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The research is aimed at measuring the level of awareness and perceptions about the African Legacy impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by stakeholders in Cameroon and Nigeria.

You are kindly asked to participate in the study. The information you provide is strictly confidential and your personal details will remain anonymous and protected.

COUNTRY: _____

REGION: _____

Q. No.....

2. Interest in football

1.2 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 television.	
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 in it,	

1.2. Indicate your level of interest in football locally / at club level.

Not interested	
Follow my team to every game	
Follow my team occasionally	
Watch my team only on television	

1.3 Indicate your level of interest in football internationally in relation to your national team.

Not interested	
Follow international football on television	
Travel to international football games	

1.4 Indicate your level of interest in football in relation to other teams, excluding your national team.

Not interested	
Follow international football on television	
Travel to international football games	

1.5 Have you ever travelled to an International football match (other than a FIFA World Cup tournament) outside your country?

Yes	
No	

1.5.1 If yes, which international match did you most recently attend? (State name of host country and year.)

1.6 Have you ever travelled to a FIFA World Cup tournament other than the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

Yes	
No	

1.6.1 If yes, which World Cup/s did you attend? (State name of host country/ies and year/s.)

4 Awareness and perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and South Africa

4.1 Which country hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

South Africa	Other (Specify)	Don't know
--------------	-----------------	------------

2.2 How did you find about South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup? (Multiple responses permitted)

Television	Newspaper	Internet	Posters	Community meetings
Radio	SMS	E-mail	Friends	Other (specify)

2.3 Did you attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.3.1 If no, why did you not attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa?

Not interested in soccer	
Could not to afford tickets	
Preferred to watch games on television	
Travel costs were too high	
Xenophobia	
Political instability	
Unfriendly people	
Visa problems	
Crime	
Other (specify)	

2.3.2 If yes, where were you based?

Johannesburg	Durban	Pretoria	Cape Town	Port Elizabeth
Bloemfontein	Rustenburg	Nelspruit	Polokwane	

2.3.3 If yes, were you representing your organisation?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.3.3.1 If you were representing your organisation, what did you hope to achieve?

2.4 How long did you stay in South Africa (in days)? _____

2.5 Did you travel to South Africa with a World Cup ticket?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.5.1 If you travelled without a ticket, did you make use of dedicated public viewing areas for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, to watch the matches?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.5.2 How many people did you travel with to South Africa for the World Cup? _____

2.6 What activities did you engage in while in South Africa?

Promoting my country as a tourism destination	
Promoting my organisation	
Looking for investment or business opportunities	
Networking	
Shopping	
Dinning	
Culture	
Adventure	
Nature	
None	
No comment	
Other (Specify)	

5 Support and awareness of the 2010 FIFA World Cup “African legacy”

3.1 Did you support South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

Yes	No	Not sure / maybe
-----	----	------------------

3.1.1 Please provide a reason for your response.

3.2 What is your understanding of mega-event legacy?

3.3 Are you aware of the “African Legacy” intentions/ objectives linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

Yes	No	Not sure / maybe
-----	----	------------------

3.3.1 If yes, which ones? (Multiple responses permitted)

The aim to strengthen, develop and advance African football	
The aim to improve Africa’s global image and overcoming Afropessimism	
Climate change and national resource management	
Gender and capacity building	
Leveraging socio-economic benefits linked to tourism	
Other (specify)	

3.3.1.2 If yes, did you implement any of the following programmes?

Peace and nation-building	
Football support and development	
Environment and tourism	
Culture and heritage	
Communications and information technology	
Continental security co-operation	

Other (specify)	
-----------------	--

3.3.1.2.1 If you implemented any of the programmes what benefits will have materialised from it?

3.3.1.2.2 What has been the biggest challenge(es) that you face or have faced with implementing the programme/s?

3.3.1.2.3 Given a scale of 1-5 where 1 is very bad and 5 is excellent, how will you rate the success of the programme you mentioned above?

1. Very bad	2. Bad	3. Good	4. Very good	Excellent

3.3.1.2.3.1 Provide a reason for the rating above

4 Objectives and expectations of the 2010 FIFA World Cup “African Legacy”

4.1 Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the African legacy

1 = Strongly agree	2 = Agree	3 = Neutral	4 = Strongly disagree	5 = Disagree
---------------------------	------------------	--------------------	------------------------------	---------------------

South Africa hosted a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup and achieved a legacy for Africa	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup resulted in the socio-economic development of Africa	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has enhanced and improve skills development in Africa	
Africa’s citizens have benefited from jobs created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
Football infrastructure in Africa has improved because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
The successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has boosted the image of Africa internationally	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has increased tourism and investment opportunities in Africa	
The number of tourist arrivals in my country has increased because of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
I am more aware of Africa as a tourism destination because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup exposure	
African countries can now cooperate more efficiently because of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
The number of joint partnership agreements and programmes to strengthen regional cooperation has improved because of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
Hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup has helped in promoting peace on the African continent	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup has accelerated the development of African football	
More disadvantaged football groups have benefited from the 2010 FIFA World Cup hosting	
The local football league in my country has benefited from South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
Africa stands a better chance of hosting more conferences and large-scale sporting events by virtue of South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup	
The whole African continent has benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa	
Only those countries close to South Africa benefited from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup left NO positive legacy for Africa	

Overall the 2010 FIFA World Cup was truly an African event	
--	--

4.2 Was the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup beneficial to your organisation?

Yes	No
-----	----

4.2.1 If yes, how did your organisation benefit?

4.3 Are you aware of any other project(s) that were implemented in your country as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

Yes	No
-----	----

4.3.1 If yes, name the (se) project(s).

4.4 What were the expectations from the (se) project(s)?

4.5 How successful have the project/s been?

5 Respondent's profile

5.1 How old are you?

<20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	>70 (specify)
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5.2 Gender (interviewer to note):

Male	
Female	

5.3 What is your monthly household income before deductions and tax?

5.4 Which organisation do you belong to?

5.5 What is your position in this organisation?

5.5 Highest level of formal education attained.

No formal education	
Partial primary	
Primary completed	

Secondary completed	
Certificate/Diploma	
Undergraduate degree	
Postgraduate degree	
Other (specify)	

6. GENERAL

6.1 What do you think your organisation can do to leverage legacy impacts linked to future mega-events hosted in Africa?

6.2 What role will your organisation play in future mega-events hosted in Africa?

6.3 How do you think legacy impacts created by mega-events hosted in Africa should be managed?

6.4 Who should be monitoring the legacy impacts created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup and for future mega-events hosted in Africa? How should legacy impacts be monitored?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION.