RESIDENT AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS’ PERCEPTIONS OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP™ AND ITS ASSOCIATED AFRICAN LEGACY: A CASE STUDY OF CAPE TOWN

by

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DECLARATION

I, Frinwei Njihy Achu, declare that the contents of this dissertation represent my own unaided work, and that the dissertation has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Signed

Date
ABSTRACT

South Africa goes down in the annals of African history as the first nation on the continent to host an edition of the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup in 2010. The event has been well publicised by the host nation as an ‘African World Cup’, with a number of economic, socio-cultural and political legacies projected for all of Africa’s citizens. Such a scenario has triggered hope of anticipated benefits in the minds of such citizens. In this light, several studies in relation to mega-events and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, linked to perceptions of the event impact on relevant stakeholders, has mainly targeted local South African communities. Given that the event was designed and planned within the framework of an African affair, and with South Africa’s demographic groups being inclusive of resident African immigrants, the study attempted to determine the perceptions of such immigrants residing in Cape Town with respect to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its associated African legacy. The study was conducted before the hosting of the World Cup and the assessment was therefore prospective.

In all, 450 questionnaires were administered to respondents in different areas in Cape Town by means of the simple convenient sampling method. Of such questionnaires, 406 were deemed usable and therefore formed the sample size for the study. The key findings of the study in terms of demographic profile reveal the average age of respondents to be 30 years, with more men than women participating in the study. Although the study confirms the male domination of football in terms of participation, increased participation by women is noted in the study. Furthermore, the findings also indicate a high level of participation of resident African immigrants in Cape Town during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, as spectators, volunteers and operators of small businesses. Most respondents perceived the event as generating positive economic benefits for South Africa and the African continent as a whole. However, the respondents noted concerns regarding the issues of crime, the disruption of daily lives and the increase in the price of goods and services that could result from the hosting. Findings further revealed that a slight majority of respondents were aware of the projected African legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

The study provides the basis for future research into the perceptions of African immigrants in relation to sport mega-events in Africa. The different roles assumed by
such immigrants and the initiatives undertaken in preparation for the event warrants a post-event assessment with a view to determine any shift in perceptions and expectations that might pave the way for a comparative analysis to be done.
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First of all, I wish to thank God Almighty for giving me the strength and courage to complete this thesis.

I am much indebted to my supervisor, Professor Kamilla Swart, whose wisdom, patience and faith in me directed the writing of this thesis.

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A special thanks to all the individuals who took time out to respond to questionnaires. Without your responses, the current thesis, as the result of willpower, would not have come to completion. To all my friends, colleagues and those I have not been able to mention, but who have all been an inspiration to me, I am really grateful for all your contributions to this effort.

On a personal note, I want to thank my family members from the bottom of my heart for believing in me.

Finally, the financial assistance of CPUT towards this research is acknowledged, with the acknowledgement that the opinions expressed in this thesis, and the conclusions arrived at, are those of the author, and should not necessarily be attributed to CPUT.
DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents; Mr Achu Zacchious Mungwe and Mrs Achu Esther Nahgin for all the love you shower on me and for letting me understand the importance of education.
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<td>AsgiSA</td>
<td>Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa</td>
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CHAPTER ONE
STUDY ORIENTATION

1.1 Introduction and background to the study

In 2004 South Africa secured rights to host the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup in 2010. The event is regarded as a mega-event, owing to its magnitude, along with related socio-cultural, economic and environmental benefits that can be gained from its hosting. Such benefits, according to Hiller (1998), include job creation, infrastructural development, the building of community pride and identity, as well as economic growth. Conversely, mega-events can have negative impacts on the host community, such as prostitution, crime, the disruption of community life, and crowding (Getz, 2005; Hall, 1992; Ohmann, Jones & Wilkes, 2006). Roche (2000:1) defines the phenomenon of mega-events as large-scale cultural events, including commercial and sporting events, with a dramatic character, mass popular appeal, and international significance. In recent years, various developing countries have acknowledged the potential benefits that are associated with hosting mega-events, leading to a growing interest from developing countries in the hosting of such events. For example, Brazil will host the 2014 FIFA World Cup™, whereas the 2008 Olympic Games were held in China.

South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ resulted in a growing number of researchers highlighting the benefits that the country would accrue from the event (Cornelissen, 2004; Saayman & Rossouw, 2008). Such hosting brought joy to South Africa and the entire African continent, and has prompted research from different angles to determine the impact of the event on the African continent, and on South Africa in particular. Saayman and Rossouw (2008) acknowledge that South Africa has recognised that mega-events are an important drive in the tourism industry and can greatly contribute to the economic growth of the country.

An economic assessment conducted by Grant Thornton (2007) indicated that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would contribute R51.6 billion to South Africa’s gross domestic product (GDP), including R30.4 billion direct expenditure and the creation of 196 400 new jobs per year, some of which already existed at the time of the current study. Such figures should be seen in relation to the original 2003 projection made by Grant Thornton (2007) of R21.3 billion that stood to be injected into the
economy, with an estimated R12.7 billion of direct spending, which was envisaged as creating an estimated 159 000 new jobs.

South Africa’s infrastructural development expenditure for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was to stand in the region of R5 billion for the building and renovating of ten World Cup stadiums, R5.2 billion for the upgrading of the country’s airports, and R3.5 billion for improving the country’s road and rail networks (Burgess, 2010). Swart and Bob (2007) point out that there are enormous infrastructural benefits, as well as the creation of legacies, that are associated with hosting mega-events.

According to the Department of Sports and Recreation South Africa (DSRSA, 2007), hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would provide the government with an excellent opportunity to boost the country’s tourism and sport industries. Such hosting would also further accelerate economic development to a higher trajectory.

The then South African Minister of Sports and Recreation, Reverend Stofile, pointed out that hosting the World Cup would go a long way towards strengthening the country’s image in the world arena (DSRSA, 2007). He further indicated that, with 31 countries converging on South Africa, young South Africans would be provided with opportunities that would help to inculcate a sense of pride and of exposure to other cultures, and which would also help to instil values of good citizenship, non-discrimination and internationalism in them (DSRSA, 2007:14).

Cape Town was earmarked as one of the major host cities for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, as it was set to host a semi-final game. As one of the country’s top tourist destinations, the city was likely to experience an increase in the number of both local and international visitors to the city. Such an increase would, in all likelihood, result in some economic spin-offs for the city, as well as for the Western Cape Province as a whole. The Cape Town and Western Cape Business Plan (2006) identified different areas, including political, economic, environmental and socio-cultural, in which the City of Cape Town and the region stood to benefit from hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was also positioned as an ‘African World Cup’, due to the bidding stage having attendant socio-economic and environmental legacies that were projected for the entire African continent (Cornelissen, 2007). Oosthuizen (2007) and Erasmus (2008) acknowledge that continental and regional organisations,
such as the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the African Union (AU) developed African legacy programmes (ALPs) for 2010. Erasmus (2008) further indicates that the African legacy programme was aimed at maximising African participation in the 2010 event and at developing a fitting image of Africa and of African football. Some of the continental legacy projects focused on peace and nation building, on the environment and tourism, on culture and heritage, and on the African Diaspora (DSRSA, 2007; Erasmus, 2008).

Since its democratic elections in 1994, South Africa has opened its doors to immigrants from across the range of African states. The immigrants have come to South Africa for a variety of reasons, including the possibility of furthering their education, of securing economic prosperity, and of finding refuge from oppression (Hayward, 2008).

Apart from those who have sought to become South African residents, a large number of Africans have travelled to South Africa for tourism purposes, coming to form a vital segment of the South Africa tourist market. According to Berndsen (2007) the South African Tourism figures have been boosted by African tourists, with the figure reaching 3 million by the first half of 2006. According to the update, overseas tourists spend way below their African counterparts, since African tourists’ spending in South Africa was noted as being R8.7 billion in the first half of 2006. However, according to Blieden (2008), 67% of 9 million international tourists who came to South Africa in 2007 were from other African countries.

With approximately 400 000 foreign tourists potentially descending on South African soil for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the tourism industry stood to gain substantially from their influx (South Africa, 2008). Most international tourists for the Soccer World Cup in 2010 were expected to come from other African countries, with an estimated 148 000 visitors coming from the rest of Africa (Grant Thornton, 2007).

Despite the fact that African tourists make a major contribution towards South African tourism, African immigrants are perceived by some South Africans as criminals and consumers of scarce resources (Maharaj, 2004). Contrary to this perception, Berndsen (2007) asserts that such immigrants contribute positively to the economy of South Africa. Most African immigrants are owners of small businesses with informal
trading stores, which serve as sources of employment for some locals. In addition, African immigrants bring new food, music, crafts, clothing, and hairstyles to South African cities, hence making the country more colourful, as well as contributing to the country’s tourism benefits.

Hayward (2008) cites a study conducted by two anthropologists, Conner and Pretorius, for the Nelson Mandela Bay Municipality in the Eastern Cape, which serves as home for some 13 300 African immigrants. The study revealed that, besides usurping the Bay’s resources and doing jobs that might otherwise be done by locals, the immigrants have helped to create a city that is all the richer for being a cultural hub. They further mention that, not only are they known to work harder than the locals and to set up their own businesses, but several were also found to be highly skilled doctors, nurses, teachers, and engineers, in possession of skills that South Africa sorely needs (Hayward, 2008).

Although football on the African continent, in terms of development, lags behind that on other continents, such as Europe and North America, some African nations have made a positive impression on global football in terms of competitiveness (Pannenborg, 2008). Such countries include Cameroon and Senegal, which reached the quarter-final stages of the 1990 and 2002 FIFA World Cup™ tournaments respectively. In addition, Nigeria and Cameroon won Olympic gold medals in the men’s football competition during the Atlanta and Sydney Games, with other African countries that qualified for the FIFA World Cup™ including Tunisia, Ghana, Egypt, Togo and Angola. Such competition has produced household names in African football, including Abedi Pele of Ghana, Lucas Radebe of South Africa, Roger Mila and Samuel Eto-fils from Cameroon, and Didier Drogba from the Ivory Coast. According to Vidacs (2004), football, as it is played on the African continent, has become a culture and way of life for many. Pannenborg (2008) asserts that football is the most important sport in several of Africa’s 53 countries, in terms both of participation and spectatorship. In this light, African immigrants currently residing in Cape Town, and who have resided in South Africa for some time, can be seen as football lovers coming from great football-loving nations in Africa, such as Cameroon, Nigeria, the Ivory Coast, and Ghana.
The spate of xenophobic attacks on African immigrants residing in South Africa in May 2008 received extensive coverage in both the local and international media. Such incidents raised concern globally with regards to South Africa’s ability to combat crime and violence during the 2010 event (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007). However, some tourism stakeholders indicated that the xenophobic attacks did not, and would not, have a negative impact on tourism and on the projected visitor figures for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. However, Van Schalkwyk (2008) asserts that, despite Africans from other countries on the continent increasingly travelling to South Africa as a holiday destination, the above-mentioned xenophobic attacks negatively impact on visitor numbers in 2010, especially the African tourism market of the country. Van Schalkwyk states that “we are quite concerned about the effects of the attacks on tourism, as they have the potential to impact negatively on the African market” (Mail & Guardian, 2008).

According to Bohlmann (2006), a number of studies have examined residents’ reactions to major events in various parts of the world. Fredline and Faulkner (2002) considered the way in which events impacted upon the quality of life of local Australian residents. In the same light, Deccio and Baloglu (2002) examined non-host community residents’ perceptions of the spillover effects of the 2002 Winter Olympic Games, which were held in Salt Lake City in the United States. Similarly, in the South African context, studies have been conducted with regards to resident perceptions of sport tourism events. Such studies include those of Arrey (2008), who considered residents’ perceptions of the Berg River Canoe Marathon, and Zhang (2007), who investigated the management and socio-economic impacts of the 2006 Old Mutual Marathon. Zhang (2007) articulates the importance of community involvement and service quality in generating more economic and socio-cultural benefits for tourist destinations. Furthermore, Ntloko and Swart (2008) evaluated the local community’s involvement, perceptions and attitudes in order to provide an understanding of the costs and benefits linked with hosting the Red Bull Big Wave Africa in Hout Bay, South Africa. Swart and Bob (2009) considered the residents’ perceptions of 2010 FIFA World Cup™ stadium development in Cape Town, and Chain (2009) considered the perceptions of Green Point residents in Cape Town regarding the hosting of the 2010 event. Tichaawa and Swart (2010) contextualised the idea of an ‘African World Cup’, by conducting a case study into the perceptions of Cameroonian fans regarding the event.
Despite the above studies having taken place, little or no research has been conducted into African immigrants’ perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. People have perceptions of different issues and events that affect their lives (Cornelissen, 2005; Swart & Bob, 2007), which result from their experiences and interactions within their society. With South Africa serving as home to African immigrants, and with the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ becoming known as the ‘African Cup’, it was deemed necessary to determine the perceptions of African immigrants who reside in South Africa with regards to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Williams and Lawson (2001) stress the importance of mega-event planners and businesses taking into consideration the views of host communities for the success and sustainability of their investment. It should however be noted that, during the write-up of this thesis, the 2010 event was still in the planning phase. The study is an appraisal of immigrants’ perceptions in prospect of the event.

1.2 Clarification of concepts

1.2.1 African immigrants
African immigrants are citizens from other African nationalities who reside in Cape Town as asylum seekers, refugees, students, and economic migrants.

1.2.2 Legacy
Cashman (2005) defines the concept of legacy as being the potential long-lasting effects that an event can have on a region.

1.2.3 Mega-events
Mega-events are events that are expressly targeted at the international tourism market, and may be described as ‘mega’ due to their size in terms of attendance, target market, level of public financial involvement, political effects, extent of media coverage, construction facilities, and impact on the economic and social fabric of the host community (Hall, 1992:5). In the light of the above definition, the FIFA World Cup™ and the Olympic Games can both be seen as mega-events.

1.2.4 Perception
A perception is a process by which individuals select, organise and interpret information input to create a meaningful picture of the world (George, 2003).
1.2.5 Residents
Residents comprise groups of people who reside within a particular area at a particular time, and who are known in their neighbourhood (Arrey, 2008:4).

1.2.6 Sport tourism events
Sport tourism events are those events in which the primary purpose for travel is participating in, or viewing, sport (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002).

1.2.7 Sport tourism
Sport tourism encompasses all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organised way, for non-commercial or business and commercial reasons, which necessitate travel away from home and work locality (Standeven & De Knop, 1999:12).

1.3 Statement of the research problem
Since South Africa became a democracy in 1994, other African countries have come to view South Africa as a desirable destination in terms of political and economic stability (Maharaj, 2004). Conflicts and widespread poverty across the African continent have led to immigrants seeking to make South Africa their home. Football is considered as the most popular sport on the African continent (Pannenborg, 2008), with some of these immigrants coming from such football-loving nations as Cameroon, Nigeria, Ghana, the Ivory Coast, and Mali. Many immigrants have resided in South Africa for some time, during which they have contributed to the socio-cultural, political and economic life of the country. Considering that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ has been positioned as an ‘African World Cup’ (Cornelissen, 2007), relatively few studies have considered African immigrants’ perceptions of the event. Hence, the current study focuses on assessing the perceptions of those African immigrants who reside in Cape Town, with regards to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its associated African legacy.

1.4 Research aim and questions
The aim of the current study was to determine the perceptions of African immigrants residing in Cape Town with regards to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its associated African legacy.
The following questions guided the research:

- Are African immigrants aware of the projected African legacy?
- What are some of the expectations of African immigrants in relation to the African legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?
- What are the perceptions that African immigrants who reside Cape Town hold with regards to South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?
- What roles will African immigrants who reside in Cape Town play in the development and planning of the 2010 event?
- What initiatives have been undertaken by African immigrants in preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?

1.5 Research objectives

The objectives of the study were as follows:

- to determine whether African immigrants residing in Cape Town were aware of the African legacy associated with the 2010 FIFA World Cup™;
- to ascertain the expectations of African immigrants residing in Cape Town with respect to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™;
- to determine the perceptions of African immigrants residing in Cape Town with regards to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™;
- to identify what roles African immigrants residing in Cape Town would like to play during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™; and
- to determine what initiatives have been undertaken by African immigrants residing in Cape Town in preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

1.6 Research design and methodology

The current research employed both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods. Qualitative techniques stress the socially constructed nature of reality, focusing as they do on intimate relationships existing between what is studied, the researcher and the situational constraints that shape the inquiry (De Vous, 2002).

In contrast, quantitative studies focus on the making of measurements and on the analysis of casual relationships between the variables involved (Denzil & Lincoln, 1994). Quantitative and qualitative research further helps the researcher to see the bigger picture regarding the study conducted (Gilbert, 1993). The qualitative technique is often regarded as providing rich data about real people and situations (De Vous, 2002).
1.6.1 Survey population

The survey population comprised resident African immigrants from across the African states, other than South Africa, who reside in Cape Town, to which city the research was limited, due to it being one of the main host cities for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The study area mentioned was chosen owing to the fact that African immigrants are known to reside, or to conduct their businesses, in such locations.

The focus areas included:

- the Cape Town and Bellville train stations;
- Greenmarket Square;
- the universities; and
- other areas.

Reasons for choosing the above areas are explained below.

The study was conducted in various designated areas where African immigrants could be intercepted. The use of such areas is justified below.

1.6.1.1 Cape Town and Bellville train stations

Cape Town and Bellville train stations are two of the major train stations in Cape Town. The stations were chosen primarily because of the high number of African immigrants conducting informal business there. In addition, most immigrants use trains as a means of transportation to and from the city. Therefore, the areas in question were considered suitable for locating several of the respondents.

1.6.1.2 Greenmarket Square

Built in 1696, the Square first served as a slave and vegetable market (hence its name), and presently as an outdoor car park and a busy flea market. The flea market offers such arts and crafts as clothing, jewellery, footwear, and curios from all over Africa, including from such countries as Zimbabwe, Zambia, Mali, and Kenya, hence making it a high-traffic area for African immigrants.

1.6.1.3 The universities in Cape Town

The Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT), the University of the Western Cape (UWC) and the University of Cape Town (UCT) were included in the study, as
they have a diverse population of registered international students and academic staff from across the African continent.

1.6.1.4 Other areas
African immigrants resident in Cape Town are not confined to a single area, with their varied activities and occupations making their location difficult. As such, the respondents were intercepted at various locations, including shopping malls and churches, in Cape Town. Use of such a logistical approach contributed towards achieving the targeted sample of 450. Figure 3.1 in Chapter Three presents a map of the Cape Metropole and the study areas concerned.

1.6.2 Methods and tools of data collection
In order to meet the research objectives, both qualitative and quantitative methods of research were utilised. The research was conducted by means of consulting both primary and secondary data sources, which are described in the following text.

1.6.3 Secondary data sources
The theoretical framework of the current study was derived from a literature review, which was undertaken regarding the perceptions of immigrant residents and sport tourism. The information was obtained from the sources described below.

1.6.3.1 Journal articles
Articles were reviewed from such journals as the Journal of Sport Tourism, the Journal of Migration Study, the Journal of Travel and Research, Politikon, the Journal of Tourism Management, and the Annals of Tourism Research, amongst others.

1.6.3.2 Internet websites
Information on the FIFA World Cup™ was obtained from such Internet sites as www.fifa.com and www.southafrica.net.

1.6.3.3 Theses and dissertations
Completed dissertations and theses were consulted for technical writing guidance and in order to gather information regarding residents’ perceptions.
1.6.3.4 Books
Various books, dealing with sport tourism, events, tourism, and research, were also consulted towards compiling a critical literature review and obtaining such relevant information as concepts regarding sport tourism, resident perceptions, and tourism in general.

1.6.3.5 Newspapers
Different newspapers, including the Weekend Argus, the Cape Times, the Cape Argus, and the Sunday Times, were consulted.

1.6.3.6 Government publications
Such government publications as the Cape Town and Western Cape 2010 FIFA World Cup Business Plan (City of Cape Town, 2006), the White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa (1996), and other relevant government publications were sourced.

1.6.4 Primary data sources
The questionnaire surveys used as the source of primary data are presented below.

1.6.4.1 Questionnaires
Face-to-face surveys were conducted with the respondents involved in the current study. Rossouw (2003:129) emphasises that questionnaires “often provide irreplaceable ways of ascertaining attitudes, opinions, perceptions and reports of individual behaviour”. The questionnaires comprised both open- and closed-ended questions, with the former offering respondents the chance to elaborate on the way in which they viewed things and the latter giving respondents a chance to choose from a given set of answers (Burton, 2000). The questionnaire covered African immigrant understandings, attitudes, and expectations of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and the associated African legacy.

1.6.5 Method of data analysis
Data analysis involved the use of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), with the statistical test being used to generate tables and bar charts. The qualitative data were analysed into conceptual categories by means of the constant comparative method.
1.6.6 Sample selection
In order to arrive at the sample, a simple convenient sampling method was used. As asserted by Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:71), such a method enables the researchers to obtain a gross estimate of the results without requiring as much financial expenditure and time as random sampling does. In addition, they note that convenience sampling involves haphazardly selecting those cases that are relatively easy to obtain from the sample. Considering the fact that there are no accurate statistics on the number of African immigrants who reside in Cape Town (Boaden, 2002; Maharaj, 2004), a sample size of 450 respondents was drawn. The detailed methodology and sampling approach used towards the immigrant residents is presented in Chapter Three of the current study.

1.7 Delimitation of the study
The current study was limited to investigating Cape Town-based African immigrant residents’ perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and the associated African legacy. Due to the limited funds available at the time of the study for employing translators for those immigrants who spoke African languages, such as Lingala, the study focused only on those African immigrants who could read and speak English.

1.8 Significance of the study
A review of the literature on sport tourism indicated that an increasing number of research studies had been undertaken into the benefits emerging from, as well as the residents’ perceptions of, South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. However, no research seemed as yet to have been conducted into the perceptions of African immigrants in South Africa, despite the fact that the event was portrayed as an ‘African World Cup’, with legacy projects having been identified for the entire continent.

As a result of the above factors, the study considered resident African immigrants’ perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its associated African legacy. The expected findings and recommendations of the research were to be shared amongst stakeholders in the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, with the intention of better planning and marketing the event, and of achieving a positive African legacy.
1.9 **Structure of the thesis**
The five chapters that comprise the current thesis are briefly outlined below.

1.9.1 **Chapter One: Introduction**
Chapter One raises such crucial issues as the importance of hosting the FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa and on the African continent. The chapter presents the problem statement, aim and objectives of the study.

1.9.2 **Chapter Two: Literature review**
Chapter Two reviews different literature regarding the nature of the sport tourism industry in South Africa in relation to residents’ perceptions of, and the economic benefits for South Africa and Africa to be gained by, hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and the anticipated legacy programmes.

1.9.3 **Chapter Three: Research design and methodology**
Chapter Three provides background information on African immigrants in Cape Town. The convenience sampling technique, and the manner in which the technique was implemented, are discussed. Tools and methods of primary and secondary data collection are also discussed.

1.9.4 **Chapter Four: Data analysis**
In Chapter Four, the researcher provides an analysis and interpretation of those data that were collected from resident African immigrants in Cape Town. Such analysis is described through the use of tables, pie and bar charts, and histograms, as well as through other visual means of displaying the findings obtained.

1.9.5 **Chapter Five: Summary and conclusion**
The fifth and final chapter provides key findings of the research study, proposes recommendations, outlines the limitations of the study, and proposes the direction that future research should take.
CHAPTER TWO
AN OVERVIEW OF MEGA-EVENTS, THEIR ASSOCIATED LEGACIES, AND SOUTH AFRICA’S HOSTING OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP™

2.1 Introduction

Sport tourism has been recognised as an important tourism niche in recent years, with sport mega-events being at the centre of the growing body of research on sport tourism literature (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002; Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004; Kim & Morrison, 2005). Mega-events have gained much interest in both the developed and the developing countries, due to the social, cultural, political and economic benefits that accrue from the hosting of such events. Some scholars have noted that, once a country succeeds in hosting a mega-event, its citizens aspire to host more such events (Hiller, 1998). Such a finding holds true for countries that have hosted such events as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup™. Weed and Bull (2004) note that several past hosts of mega-events have experienced a significant transformation of their urban environment and economies. Impacts of events can also greatly affect the quality of life of the local residents (Malfas, Theodoraki & Houlihan, 2003).

According to Getz (1997), those strategies that take the social and environmental impacts of events into account when carrying out economic impact assessments of each individual event are very important. Often mega-event organisers only consider the economic implications of such events, while ignoring residents’ perceptions, which can provide an invaluable non-economic angle for measuring how events benefit, or impact on, the host community (Hall, 1992; Jeong & Faulkner, 1996). In the light of the above, the support and involvement of local residents is often very influential in the organisation and success of mega-events.

Sport tourism has been identified as a niche product for the South African tourism sector (Swart & Bob, 2007), which can be seen in the increasing number of sporting events that the country has hosted and is looking forward to hosting. A number of high-profile, including sporting, events have been hosted by South Africa since the first democratic election in 1994. Such events include the 1996 Africa Cup of Nations,

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1 It should be kept in mind that, during the write-up of this thesis, the 2010 FIFA World Cup was still in the planning phase.
the 2003 Cricket World Cup, the 1995 Rugby World Cup, and the 2009 Confederations Cup in 2009, as well as the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was labelled an ‘African Cup’ right from the start of the bidding stage by the host nation. The World Cup was positioned to make a significant contribution to job creation, the infrastructure and to social upliftment, not only for South African citizens but for the African continent as a whole (Cornelissen, 2006). Prior to South Africa’s hosting of the World Cup, the worldwide economy was negatively affected by the global recession. However, the hopes of recovery were very high, since the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ opened up the possibility of better economic prospects for the country in the future than might otherwise have been, with the result that the expectations of local residents, including those of African immigrants, were high. Some of the benefits associated with the hosting of such an event included job creation, an improved infrastructure, boosting of the national image, the fostering of peace, and improvement of the standard of living in the communities concerned (South Africa, 2006).

As was discussed in Chapter One, the current study aimed to determine Cape Town-based resident African immigrants’ perceptions of South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its associated African legacy. The literature review covers the principal conceptual issues underlying the study, including the provision of an overview of the relationship between sport and tourism (with the concepts of sport and tourism being taken as separate spheres of activity), the contribution of sport to the tourism industry, sport tourism in South Africa, and the impact of mega-events, their legacies and residents’ perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. To contextualise the study, section 2.2 below provides an overview and definition of the terms ‘sport’, ‘tourism’ and ‘sport tourism’.

2.2 Definition of sport

According to Standeven and De Knop (1999:7), universally there is no generally accepted definition of the term ‘sport’. Consequently, the two researchers contend that sport is a human activity that everyone recognises but that few can define satisfactorily. According to Hornby (2005:1425), sport is defined as “activity that one can do for pleasure and that needs physical efforts or skills, usually done in a special area and according to fixed rules”. Standeven and De Knop (1999:7) note that there are conflicting
ideas as to which activities should be categorised as sport. Often, sport, as is indicated
by the definition given above, is highly organised and competitive. Coakley (1990) cites
the North American definition of sport as a pursuit that:

- requires complexity of physical skill and vigorous physical exertion;
- involves some form of rule-governed competition; and
- has organised and structural relations, despite its retention of a sense of freedom
  and spontaneity.

From a broader perspective, attempts have been made to evolve a definition of sport
that includes both competitive and non-competitive activities and both non-professional
and professional participation. An example of such a definition of sport is given by the
Council of Europe (as cited in Standeven & De Knop, 1999:7) as: “all forms of physical
activity, which through casual or organised participation, aim at improving physical
fitness and mental well being, forming social relationships, or obtaining results in
competitions at all levels”.

Involvement in sport can take different forms, including active and passive participation.
Active participation requires the participation to be physically active in sport, whereas
passive participation involves those who are not physically involved in sport, but who
watch live and televised performances of sport, and those who read about sport
(Standeven & De Knop, 1999).

2.2.1 Definition of tourism
In addition to being the world’s biggest industry, tourism is also one of the worlds fastest
growing ones (Lubbe, 2003:46). Like the concept of sport, the definition of tourism is not
as easy as it appears to be. Firstly, it is important to recognise that tourism is just one
form of recreation, along with sport activities, hobbies and pastimes, with all the activities
being discretionary uses of our leisure time (Independent Institute of Education (IIE),
2009). The word ‘tourism’ is derived from the English word ‘tour’, meaning to journey,
whereas in French the term means a movement of going away and returning to the
starting point (Standeven & De Knop, 1999:9). The definition of tourism differs according
to society and social group, and in the context of specific historical periods (Urry,
1990:1). Lubbe (2003:47) notes that tourism is a discipline that has recently attracted the
attention of scholars and educators, and that the majority of such scholars have used
narrow operational definitions to suit the particular needs of researchers and governments.

Many definitions of tourism and tourists are based on factors such as the length of stay, the distance travelled, and the purpose of the trip. Over the years, different definitions have been proposed. Tourism has been defined by Standeven and De Knop (1999) as the movement of people away from their normal places of residence. The question that has arisen regarding such a definition, though, is just how far people must travel before they can be counted as tourists for the official records. Mill (1990:17) defines a tourist as “any person visiting a country other than that in which he usually resides, for a period of at least 24 hours”. Although such a definition refers to those travelling for pleasure, business, health and even meetings, its main weakness is that it ignores domestic tourists.

The United Nations Conference on International Travel and Tourism in 1963 ratified recommendations made by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) to use overnight stay as an important condition for distinguishing a tourist (IIE, 2009; Standeven & De Knop, 1999). Hence, the term ‘tourist’ was to be used to describe a person who takes an overnight trip, with the term ‘excursionist’ classifying a temporal visitor who stays less than 24 hours (IIE, 2009; Standeven & De Knop, 1999). Therefore, three basic characteristics of tourism can clearly be identified as travel, a temporary stay away from home, and the motivation of a particular purpose (Standeven & De Knop, 1999). As such, an all-inclusive definition of tourism, according to Standeven and De Knop (1999:10), is “the temporal movement of people beyond their own home and work locality involving experiences unlike those of everyday life. These experiences might take place as part of holidays or as an ancillary to business travel.” With the definitions of sport and tourism explained, the next section of the thesis provides an understanding of the confluence of these two spheres of activities.

2.3 The concept of sport tourism

Sport and tourism are often considered as separate ranges of activity (Glyptis, 1991). For a clearer understanding of the concept ‘sport tourism’, the link between sport and tourism requires clarification. As established by Swart (2005:38), “sport can be depicted as an attraction category within the broader industry”. Kurtzman and Zauhar (1997, as cited in Swart, 2005:39) coined the term ‘sport tourism’ to convey
their understanding of sport as a sector in the tourism industry. Before trying to understand the link between sport and tourism, it is vital to define the term 'sport tourism'. Standeven and De Knop (1999:12) define 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/commercial reasons that necessitate travel away from home and work locality”.

Standeven and De Knop (1999:5) contend that the relationship between sport and tourism in the modern world is interdependent. They add that it is not just sport that boosts tourism by contributing to an ever-increasing range of valued visitor experiences, but it is tourism that also aids the development of sport. Figure 2.1 below shows a model of sport tourism that is adapted from the research of Standeven and De Knop (1999:5). The model illustrates the relationship between sport and tourism as interacting with tourism, which, in turn, influences sport participation and infrastructure. As such, sport and tourism are said to be inextricably linked together, and, as globalisation advances, new and exciting possibilities are opening up to enrich touristic experiences through sport and the enhancing of sport development through tourism (Standeven & De Knop, 1999).

![Figure 2.1: A model of sport tourism](source: Adapted from Standeven and De Knop (1999:5).)
According to Deery, Jago and Fredline (2004), the concept of sport tourism is complex, due to the difficulties encountered in attempting to define the concept, with different authors seeking to define the concept in different ways. Deery et al. (2004) note that, in defining sport tourism, most authors refer to the definition of both ‘sport’ and ‘tourism’. They further define ‘sport’ as consisting of activities ranging from mastery of skills, through fitness, to being a mechanism for overcoming such social problems as delinquency. In the context of sport tourism, sport is seen as attracting people, with people as visitors constituting a basic element of tourism.

Sport tourism has been broadly defined as a form of leisure engagement that involves, either for competitive or non-competitive purposes, participation in, or the display or consumption of, physical activities (Standeven & De Knop, 1999). In contrast, Kurtzman (2005:49) defines sport tourism as the use of sport for touristic endeavours, regarding it as including six supply-side categories, namely sport event, sport resorts, sport cruises, sport attractions, sport adventures, and sport tours. Gibson (1998) identified three main sport tourism activities: active sport tourism, in which people travel to participate in sport; event sport tourism, in which people travel to be spectators; and nostalgia sport tourism, in which participants visit such sport-related attractions as stadia, sports monuments and museums. Gibson (1998) further notes that sport tourism comprises three main behavioural patterns: participating, watching and visiting/venerating. Weed and Bull (2004) conceptualised sport tourism as a social, economic and cultural phenomenon that arises from the unique interaction of activity, people and place. The above definitions summarise the main aspects that are elaborated on in the other definitions.

Swart and Bob (2007) postulate that there is an intuitive link between sport and tourism, while Cornelissen (2006) notes that both sport and tourism involve an element of performance and staging that attracts spectatorship. She further states that participation in, and observation of, sporting activities often involves travel, and can contribute to further demands being made on the tourism infrastructure, with sport forming an integral part of tourism. The following subsections of the current study present a brief discussion of the types of sport tourism and their growth.
2.3.1 Types of sport tourism

In the sphere of sport tourism, a distinction is drawn between those tourists who travel to take part in sport, and those who do not actively partake in sport, but who are purely spectators, with the former being active, and the latter passive, tourists (Gammon & Robinson, 2003; Standeven & De Knop, 1999). According to some authors, sport tourism, in which the visitors become the participants, exists in tandem with event tourism, in which visitors are spectators, with the latter form of tourism including nostalgia sport tourism, in which participants visit such sport-related attractions as sport museums and halls of fame (McCartney, 2005:116). However, the FIFA World Cup™ is participated in by a range of participants, such as the organising committee, sponsors, media, and teams (consisting of players and coaches). The increase in the number of people participating in the different types of sport has led to a dramatic growth of sport tourism.

2.3.2 Growth of sport tourism

In recent years, sport tourism has gained popularity across the globe, largely due to the following five basic reasons (Kurtzman, 2005):

- the increased popularity of international and national sporting events;
- the fact that world leaders and government are starting to appreciate the benefits of sport, in line with economic development and burgeoning national and international relationships;
- the broadening understanding of health-related benefits through active participation in sport;
- enhanced technology and global infrastructure, which has led to an improvement in communication amongst sport lovers; and
- the widening and careful programming of the variety of sport events on offer throughout the year.

With such increased awareness of the economic benefits to be obtained from sport tourism, as well as of the positive impacts that sport tourism has on the quality of life of local and hosting communities, the governments of several nations across the globe have identified such tourism as an important medium for fast-tracking development in their countries (Saayman & Uys, 2003:293). The result has been an increase in the number of countries engaging in sport tourism (Black, 2007; Cornelissen, 2006), which is especially true when one considers the number of developing countries, including South
Africa, Egypt and Morocco, that are presently engaging in various types of such tourism (Cornelissen, 2006). South Africa has been identified as one of the top African countries that are actively involved in the hosting of sport mega-events (Cornelissen, 2006:142). The growing importance of sport tourism is demonstrated by several researchers who have indicated it to be a fast-growing segment of the tourism industry (Saayman & Uys, 2003; Swart & Bob, 2007).

At the centre of the growth of the sport tourism niche is the concept of hosting sport mega-events, with Matheson (2006) considering them to be boosters of sport tourism. Saayman and Uys (2003) add that sport tourism not only focuses on international events, but also on local, regional and national events. They further note that sport mega-events contribute significantly to the economic attractiveness of sport tourism, as a result of the number of visitors and media coverage that they attract. This assertion is supported by Epitropoulos, Karlis, Kartakoullis, Lagopoulos and Micropantremenos (2003:318), who highlight the fact that tourism benefits tremendously from such mega sporting events as the Olympic Games, and that such benefits are believed to be more appreciable after the event than before or during it. During such events, the media tend to provide free advertising of the hosting sites, thereby increasing the amount of tourism engaged in the area (Epitropoulos et al., 2003). These pictures of the host area, consequently, remains fresh in the minds of viewers, who may, in future, be prompted to visit such areas. Section 2.3 below provides an overview of sport tourism and tourism in the South African context.

2.4 Sport tourism in South Africa

Swart and Bob (2005) assert that, as a result of apartheid policies, South Africa was almost completely isolated from international sport by 1970. However, as has been noted by several authors (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006; Swart & Bob, 2007; Weed & Bull, 2004), after the 1994 democratic elections, South Africa opened its doors to embrace sport tourism as a niche product for boosting its image and for stimulating economic growth in the country. Swart and Bob (2007:383) cite the 1996 Tourism White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa, which states that, in order to increase the extent of the tourism industry in South Africa, it is vital to “encourage the development of sport tourism and encourage the provision of facilities, training, marketing and promotion to give emphasis to the development of this segment of the industry”.
Despite the late entry of South Africa into the global sporting arena, the country is considered to be one of Africa’s top draw cards for sport fans, as a result of the country’s world-class venues and supporting infrastructure, top international events and South Africans’ passion for sport (South Africa, 2008). With the aforementioned characteristics, the country has been able successfully to host the previously mentioned series of mega sporting events.

2.4.1 Tourism in South Africa

Many less developed countries now see tourism as an important and fundamental part of their economic development strategies (Swart & Bob, 2005), as a result of the acknowledged benefits of tourism that will be further highlighted below. South Africa is one of the countries on the African continent that has branded tourism as a key sector for fostering national development and economic growth.

In 1994, the newly democratic elected government of South Africa set out to deal with some of the numerous challenges that plagued the country at the time, including such health issues as HIV/AIDS, the creation of a positive image for the country, poverty, and unemployment. Across the world, tourism has been recognised for the role that it plays in driving economic development by the generation of foreign revenue, job creation and the reimagining of the country (Jimenez & Ortuno, 2006). Accordingly, the South African government has identified the tourism industry as a tool that can be used for fighting against, or at least curbing, some of the numerous challenges identified above (South Africa, Department of Economic Affairs and Tourism, 1996).

The tourism industry currently contributes about 8.2% of South Africa’s national GDP per annum, which translates to R79 billion per year (Appel, 2007). Appel (2007) further notes that, if tourism is managed correctly in South Africa, the industry can contribute about 12% to the national GDP by 2010/11. South African Tourism, in 2006, reported that the amount of domestic travel (consisting, in total, of 49 million trips) was higher than that of international tourism in South Africa, making the country second after Egypt as the top tourist destination in Africa, and first in the Southern African region, with it receiving approximately 9.8 million international visits per year (United Nations World Tourism Organisation UNWTO, 2009).
The 1996 Tourism White Paper urges increasing South Africa’s share of the world tourism market, developing the sector that contributes to the country’s economic development, facilitating economic and social empowerment and upliftment, and ensuring the sustainable development of tourism throughout the country (South Africa Department of Economic Affairs and Tourism, 1996). The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was projected to boost several sectors of the country’s economy, including tourism. In order to clarify the concept of the ‘mega-event’, the term is defined and contextualised below.

2.5 Definition of ‘mega-event’

Matheson (2006:2) is of the opinion that certain major sport events are generally referred to as ‘mega-events’, with such events being noted as having become increasingly important to the host nations. Hiller (1998) and Persson, Andersson and Sahlberg (1998) consider a mega-event as a short-term event of fixed duration with a high profile nature. Such an event is capable of generating cause–effect relationships, such as an increase in tourism, urban infrastructural improvement, the building of the host community image at an international level, boosterism, and tangible benefits of civil pride. Roberts (2004:108) states that what leads to some events being categorised as ‘mega’ is that they are ‘discontinuous’, out of the ordinary, international, and large. Mega-events allow for the transmission of promotional messages to billions of people via television, as well as for other developments in telecommunication. An example of such development is the sport–media–business alliance that transformed professional sport generally during the late twentieth century. The wide-reaching promotional benefit that mega-events offer to the host country, region and cities is what makes them ‘mega’. An example that is cited by Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) is the 3.9 billion strong television audiences who watched part of the 2004 Athens Olympic Games. Malfas, Theodoraki and Houlihan (2004) highlight that mega-events can be distinguished from other events in two main respects; firstly, in regard to their internal characteristics, that is, their duration and scale (that is, the number of participants and spectators, the number of individual sessions, and the level of organisational complexity); and secondly, in respect of their external characteristics, taking into account their media and tourism attractiveness, and their impact on the host city.

Sociologists Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) use Maurice Roche’s definition of sport mega-events, which includes all large-scale cultural events (including commercial
and sporting ones) that have “a dramatic character, mass popular appeal and international significance”. As indicated by Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:2), the definition by Roche commands attention today. Although such events have been known about for a long time, Jones (2001) and Florek, Breitbarth and Conejo (2008:200) note that it is their scale and strategic use in modern-day society that has made them appealing to host countries, media, researchers, visitors, and others. Getz (1989:125) maintains that “although the majority of events have probably increased from non-tourist participation, there is clearly a trend to exploit them for tourism and to create new events deliberately as tourist attraction”. Some of the reasons put forward for the growth of mega-events are analysed below.

2.6 The growth of mega-events

In recent years, there has been a steady increase in the number of countries striving to host and participate in mega-events across the world, especially amongst the developing countries (Cornelissen, 2005, 2007; Cornelissen & Swart, 2006). In the light of such interest, Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:3) highlight the fact that the enthusiasm to host and participate in such sport mega-events as the Olympics and the FIFA World Cup™ has increased over the past two decades. They further illustrate that, at the 1984 Summer Olympics in Los Angeles (LA), 140 countries were represented, 6 797 athletes competed, and there were 221 events in 23 sports, whereas by the time that the Athens Games were held in 2004, the number of athletes had increased to 11 099, of sport events to 301, and of sports to 28.

Such an increase in interest stems from the benefits and legacies that have been identified as being associated with sport mega-events. In support of such a finding, Lee and Taylor (2003:596) highlight the fact that the LA Sports and Entertainment Commission in 2003 claimed that the ‘average’ economic impact on a city hosting a mega-event amounted to US$32.2 million. The Canadian Sports Tourism Alliance (2003) also noted that over US$2 billion a year was generated by the event industry in Canada in 2003.

Cornelissen (2007:246) confirms “the growth of sport mega-events as arising from different interrelated forces, such as an increase in disposable income in world industrialised economies, changes in lifestyle and consumption patterns, the growing commercial significance of sport tied to its increased consumption, the consolidation of
international televising through the emergence of large multinational broadcasting, and increased commodification of the sector, propelled by the sales of sport memorabilia and the retailing of sport celebrities”. Similarly, Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:3) indicate that there are three core factors that have boosted interest in the growing attraction of mega-events, namely:

- Firstly, the formation of the sport–media–business alliance transformed professional sport generally during the late 20th century by means of packaging, via the tripartite model of sponsorship rights, exclusive broadcasting and merchandising, and sponsors of sport mega-events.
- Secondly, sport mega-events have grown as a result of the fact that such events are seen as valuable promotional opportunities for cities and regions.
- Lastly, new developments in the technologies of mass communication, especially those concerning the development of satellite television, have created an unprecedented global audience for sport mega-events, with public broadcasting networks coming to vie to procure broadcasting rights of such events as the FIFA World Cup™. For example, Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:3) assert that “the US National Broadcasting Corporation (NBC) paid US$300 million in 1988 and US$894 in 2008 to the International Olympic committee in respect of the rights to broadcast the Seoul Summer Olympics and the Beijing Summer Olympics respectively”. The two researchers further note that the sales of television rights for the 1990 FIFA World Cup™ were estimated at US$65.7 million, with the 2002 and 2006 FIFA World Cup™ television broadcasting rights being sold for US$1.97 billion. Cape Business News (2009) reports that FIFA’s projected earnings for broadcasting rights to be about R25 billion (US$3.3 billion) for the 2010 tournament. The successive increase in the cost of purchasing the broadcasting rights of sport mega-events indicates a steady growth in sport mega-events in all domains.

In the light of the above, the hosting of sport mega-events can be seen to be of significant interest to many countries, since it potentially provides an important catalyst for growth and development. Developing countries have nurtured interest in the hosting of mega-events leading to South Africa’s staging of the forthcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup™. With such an understanding in mind, the preceding sections have provided a detailed background to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The aim of the current study, therefore, is to detail the objectives of South Africa’s decision to host
the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the projected impact of the associated legacies on the economy, and the consequent impact on residents, including immigrants.

2.7 The background to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

FIFA, which is made up of more member states than is the United Nations, was founded in 1904 to preside over all the global football business networks (Alegi, 2001); in the belief that sport’s dominant value was to generate economic development. Alegi (2001:2) acknowledges that “not only does FIFA generate an annual income of more than US$250 billion, but also that the World Cup is FIFA’s most valuable asset”. The aim of the World Cup is to determine the best soccer team in the world (Baade & Matheson, 2004). In 1930 Uruguay hosted the first tournament, in which 16 teams participated, with the majority coming from South America and Europe, and North America, Africa, Asia and Oceania forming a small minority (South African Tourism, 2007). The final tournament of the FIFA World Cup™ takes place every four years, following the completion of lengthy continental qualifying stages that are conducted across the FIFA continental zones (Africa, Asia, North and Central America, and the Caribbean, South America, Oceania, and Europe (Alegi, 2001).

Since the inception of the tournament, it has grown tremendously both in the number of teams participating and in the size of the audience (South African Tourism, 2007). Alegi (2001) provides an update on how the tournament was extended from 16 teams (32 matches) in 1978 to 24 teams in 1982, and then to 32 in 1998, in order to allow more teams from Asia, Africa and North America to participate. Alegi (2001) further notes that an increase in the number of participating teams led to an increase in the television audience of up to 40 billion people during the 1998 World Cup in France, according to FIFA’s own figures. Subsequently, such growth led to an increase in the requirements for World Cup facilities (in terms of the stadia, fields, press, accommodation, transport, and security), on which the second South African democratic president, Thabo Mbeki, sought to capitalise as a platform for fast-tracking development (Alegi, 2001). Alegi (2001) noted that, such an increase partially resulted in South Africa’s interest in bidding to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, despite the country having failed in its 2006 bid.

Alegi (2001:3) is also of the opinion that “the significant increase in the number and size of political, social and economic rewards that has grown with the holding of such
mega-events as the FIFA World Cup™ has led to the development of a keen interest in hosting such events, especially amongst the developing countries”. Post-apartheid South Africa has become a major host of mega-events on the African continent, coupling a more aggressive international self-projection based on the development of a particular image and the expansion of the tourism sector with a policy of actively pursuing the hosting of different sport and other mega-events (Alegi, 2001).

Cornelissen (2004:1294) claims that “sport mega-events are well recognised for their political usage, with analyses abounding of how urban, regional and national authorities attempt to use events to foster loyalty or legitimacy, to project certain messages to the outside world, or to attain other wider policy objectives”. In line with such thinking, Alegi (2001) asserts that, as the political and economic rewards of hosting such mega-events as the FIFA World Cup™ increases, the bidding process has become fiercer. Cornelissen (2004) concurs with Alegi, and asserts that the bidding process to host sport mega-events has been described as a sometimes intense political battle. For example, she maintains that the process that led to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was embedded within a global political economy of sport, marked by a particular economic rationale, and set processes of commercialisation and corporatisation that affect the way in which African countries define their objectives around events.

In the context of South Africa’s bid to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, Alegi (2001:4) identified three main objectives put forward by the country for such a hosting. The first objective was that the event would encourage capital construction and heighten the country’s international visibility, which was an economic strategy that promised substantial benefits for the tourism industry. The goal is supported by Cornelissen (2006:145), who highlights the fact that “South Africa wanted to enhance its international status by promoting the country’s recent democratisation”. Basically, what stands out is the fact that South Africa sought to use the World Cup to boost its own image.

The South African Bid Committee argued that the World Cup is not only about soccer, but that it is also about tourism and marketing South Africa to the world. By hosting the 2010 Soccer World Cup, football could be used to consolidate the
country’s position as a top tourist destination in Africa, with overseas arrivals increasing by nearly 30% per annum (Alegi, 2001).

The second objective proposed by South Africa, according to Alegi (2001), was to use the event to induce a sense of national pride and unity in a nation that had been plagued by racial discrimination and segregation, owing to the policies of South Africa’s previous apartheid government. The 2010 World Cup bid emphasised the importance of black economic empowerment, and further argued that the event would provide an arena in which particularly black youth, could redress any feelings of marginality and bask, however fleetingly, in the sensation of being a global force (Alegi, 2001). Black (2007) points out that the FIFA Inspection Report, which was published prior to the hosting decision, alleges that awarding the tournament to South Africa would assist in the unifying of the country.

The third and last objective of the World Cup offered local powerbrokers an opportunity to renegotiate or to consolidate their positions within the power structures of South African sport and society (Alegi, 2001). The South African football federation has been plagued with a significant power struggle over the years (Lerman, 2009), but, with the hosting of the FIFA World Cup™, opportunities were presented for certain football officials to enhance their position within the football structures. For example, post-event, Danny Jordaan, who was the chief executive officer of the Local Organising Committee (LOC) for the FIFA World Cup™, was appointed one of FIFA’s inspectors (Lewis, 2010).

During the bidding stages of the 2006 and 2010 FIFA World Cup™, South Africa had to contend with the challenge posed by Morocco, another country that had previously made two failed bids to host the World Cup in 1994 and 1998. As noted by Cornelissen (2006:145), “South Africa’s bidding committee set forth an emotive argument that the Football World Cup had never before been hosted in Africa, and that they saw the World Cup as the right vehicle for the international community to act on furthering their promises of the African Renaissance”. The 2006 FIFA World Cup™ bidding process proved to be difficult for South Africa, as a fellow competitor, Morocco, came from the same continent, and interestingly, both countries’ bids had similar foundations, in that their bids strongly rested on their invocation of African identity. Both countries also presented themselves as the true gateway to Africa,
while relying on the support of other African countries. A considerable component of Morocco’s legitimation campaign was directed towards the vote-carrying African members of FIFA (Cornelissen, 2006). As a result of the political, cultural and geographical links of Morocco to Europe, it stood a better chance to secure the vote and support of those on the European and Asian continents than did South Africa (Cornelissen, 2006). Such factors, coupled with their experience gained in the bidding process gave Morocco a better chance in the bidding process over South Africa, Cornelissen argues.

Cornelissen (2004:1297) maintains that “one of the most significant qualities of the South African bid was its pan-African basis, which was characterised by its logo and slogan: ‘It’s Africa’s turn!’ The associated marketing was geared to communicate to the world the central idea that Africa, a large football region, had never had the chance to host an event of this magnitude”. She elaborates that the pan-Africanist thrust, moreover, was essentially aimed at gathering as much support for South Africa’s bid as possible. Correspondingly, Alegi (2001) states that South Africa’s slogan supported the concept of international struggle still being waged against the legacy of apartheid, and boosted the appeal to FIFA’s peripheral nations to assist in breaking the western dominance of the African continent (Alegi, 2001).

FIFA’s selection of the winner to host the FIFA World Cup™ relied on the prospective host satisfying various conditions that had been set by FIFA’s technical committee. Firstly, the Executive Committee based its decision on the official bid proposal presented by the different countries and on the report of the existing infrastructure in the country concerned. In addition, the visit of certain FIFA delegates to the bidding countries involved (Cornelissen, 2006), coupled with the single transferable vote system, led to the view that the chances of a country’s success in the bidding process were largely determined by “personal friendships, networking and back-room” deals that existed within FIFA structures and its individual confederations (Alegi, 2001:3). As noted by Cornelissen (2004:1299), voting in the FIFA executive structures occurred around well-organised voting blocs. She alleges that the blocs developed their arguments around such personal issues as personal loyalties and other forms of indirect and direct political pressure, which inevitably influenced the outcome of the votes.
Such political influence was seen in the outcome of the 2006 bidding process to host the World Cup, with Germany securing the rights to host the event by beating South Africa by one vote, with Germany winning 12 votes and South Africa 11 (Baade & Matheson, 2004; Cornelissen, 2007). Despite South Africa’s bid having been highly rated by FIFA, its failure to secure the right to host the 2006 FIFA World Cup™ was due to two major factors (Cornelissen, 2004). Cornelissen (2004) further put forward that the tension presented by the dual African bids resulted in the Confederation of African Football (CAF) body’s refusal to support the candidacy of one over the other, hence polarising the vote for Africa, which led to CAF supporting its preferred candidate only on the day of the award. Secondly, the abstention of one of FIFA’s executive members from the Oceania Confederation from voting during the final round greatly impeded South Africa’s chances of winning, as a tied ballot would have enabled Joseph S. Blatter, president of FIFA, to cast his vote, which, in all likelihood, would have been in favour of South Africa. Germany’s eventual triumph in being allowed to host the 2006 tournament led to much dissatisfaction amongst Africans, who immediately pointed to the marginalisation of the continent by the West. Cornelissen (2004:147) records such assertions as “an unfortunate element of the bid process”. She notes that the outcome was read by many African countries, including South Africa, as part of an overwhelmingly negative, patronising, and event racist international stance towards the continent.

Cornelissen (2004, 2006) expresses that, in partial acknowledgement of the unequal structural position of the developing countries within FIFA, and with a campaign driven by Blatter, FIFA adopted a rotating nature of hosting the World Cup amongst its six regional confederations. Such a decision immediately placed Africa as the region to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Interestingly, such a system has now been rescinded, as from the 2018 tournament (FIFA, 2008). Six countries, including South Africa and Morocco, indicated their intention to bid for the 2010 event (Cornelissen, 2006). With four nations (Nigeria, Egypt, Tunisia, and Libya) withdrawing their candidacy before the final voting, South Africa was left to face Morocco once again. South Africa continued to uphold its theme for the 2006 World Cup Bid, by presenting the event as an African event that would benefit the whole continent (Cornelissen, 2004:1300).
After intense lobbying, Cornelissen (2004) states that, on the day of the final round of voting, the right to host the 2010 FIFA tournament was announced as having been awarded to South Africa, with the country obtaining 14 of the 24 votes. Morocco obtained 10 votes, while Egypt did not secure a single vote. The award was received with much joy by both South Africans and the rest of Africa. South Africa then began constructing and upgrading those of its facilities that it required for hosting the event, which it was believed would leave a lasting legacy not only in the country itself, but across the entire continent of Africa (South African Tourism, 2007). The background, including the objectives and the political economy surrounding mega-events in relation to South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, has been detailed above. With such an understanding, the section that follows analyses and presents mega-event legacies.

2.8 Mega-events legacy
The cost of hosting a major event is so considerable that it cannot often be justified in terms of the event alone; however, the success of an event and its legacy justifies the cost (Clark, 2008). Ritchie and Adair (2006) state that, without careful strategic planning focused on destinations and community development, it might be difficult to justify the large investments required to host an event. Due to the lasting benefits and legacies often left behind by mega sporting events cities and nation tend to bid to host mega-events (Ritchie & Adair, 2006). Clark (2008) further highlights the fact that legacy is a key justification both for the event itself and for the investment and the efforts made in relation to the event.

Preuss (2006:2) contends that there is no satisfactory definition for the concept ‘legacy’. However, different authors have attempted to define the concept in different ways and contexts. According to Preuss (2006), the general definition of legacy should be independent of qualitative examples, with three legacy dimensions having been identified: the degree of planned structures; the positive structure; and the quantifiable structure. Against such a backdrop, Preuss (2006:3) refers to the term as “planned and unplanned, positive and negative, intangible and tangible structures which were/will be created through sport events and remain after the event”. Another definition of legacy is that of Mann (2008:2), who defines sport legacy as “ensuring that as many long-term benefits are generated for the host city, region and nation-well before, during and long after the event”. This difficulty in definition stems from
the fact that legacy varies for different events and times, and, as Clark (2008:29) notes, different groups of benefits occur at different times and also on different scales. Cashman (2005) identified six fields of legacy: economics and infrastructure; information and education; public life; politics and culture; sport; and symbols, memory and history. Owen (2005) maintains that legacy can either be positive or negative, and that the outcome of any legacy depends on how well it is planned.

Often when events and legacy programmes are not well planned, they can actually lead to negative impacts on the host communities, such as occurred with the negative infrastructural legacy of the 2002 FIFA World Cup™ that was co-hosted by Korea and Japan (Preuss, 2006). In support of the above, Clark (2008) emphasised that a well-planned event with a well-planned legacy attracts relatively high levels of internal and external investment and, as such, legacy programmes should be integrated in the long- and short-term development plan of the host cities, region and nation concerned. Clark (2008:28) further highlights the fact that major events are tools or catalysts for implementing existing priorities, and not an alternative to doing so. Bohlmann (2006) rounds off the argument by saying, “the two most successful mega-events hosted in recent times were the Barcelona Games in 1992 and the Sydney Games in 2000”. In both cases, meticulous planning went into the legacies of these events.

Different authors have highlighted various aspects that should be taken into account for good legacy planning. Casey (2008) identified the following two main aspects:

- the extent to which existing facilities and other infrastructures could be used for the event in question, based on the legacies of investment left in the city from previous decades; and
- a range of innovative designs and management of facilities, which, in the given circumstances, should be planned in line with the needs of the community concerned, and appropriately enlarged for the demands set by the events.

Preuss (2006:6) asserts that the planning of a legacy goes through different phases (pre-event, event and post-event) for it to be successful. Figure 2.2 below illustrates the strategy for building an event legacy, as postulated by Preuss (2006:7). According to the diagram, legacy planning starts with the decision that is made regarding a specific event (1). Major sporting events differ in terms of structure
required, and cities differ in terms of the structures that they can provide. The strategy focuses on the additional structures that an event creates and on the long-term need for such structures. During the candidate phase (2), some structures (obligate measures) are required, with some optional measures being provided. During the said phase, cities aim to use the ‘optional measures’ to position themselves in the bidding competition (Preuss, 2006), so that such measures might not be sustainable. During the preparation phase (3) of the event, the obligate structures are set up. However, in order to build up a strong legacy, the ‘optional measures’ can be embedded to improve particular location factors that are needed for the city in the long run. During the event (4) all ‘event structures’ are present, whereas post-event (5) some such structures disappear or lose their intensity, with others existing for a long time after the event.

Figure 2.2: Process of erection of planned event legacy

With South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, several of the above-mentioned legacies were highlighted by the bidding committee. In addition, because the 2010 event had been labelled an ‘African Cup’ by the host, an African Legacy Programme (ALP) was adopted, in an attempt to ensure that other countries across the African continent also benefited from the event. To explain more of the above, the following subsections provide an overview of the ALP.
2.8.1 The African legacy

The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ event offered an unprecedented opportunity to portray the other face of Africa to the world, with the planned event bringing much joy to many South Africans, as well as to the citizens of other African nations (South Africa, 2008). Such commentators as Theron (2008) have argued that, although the continent might be contented that South Africa brought the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ to Africa, South Africa would have to repay its fellow nations for using the continent as a marketing tool. With such ideology in mind, South Africa committed the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ to not being a South African World Cup, but rather an ‘African Cup’. Desai and Vahed (2010:155) claim that “South Africa stands not as a country alone, but rather as a representative of Africa and as part of an African family”. With such a pledge having been made to the world and to the rest of the continent, the ALP was born.

The ALP is a pillar on which the African ownership of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was to rest (ANC, 2007). As with many mega sporting events, it was expected that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would bring benefits to the African continent. Such legacy benefits differed from the legacy discourse associated with other mega sporting events in three main respects:

- Legacy benefits were not to be confined to the host country.
- The host country itself undertook to make a continent-wide legacy of the core focus areas involved in preparing for the event.
- The AU, as an intergovernmental forum for continental integration, was actively involved in efforts that were aimed at ensuring that the 2010 legacy agenda was owned continent-wide (ANC, 2007).

In November 2006, the ALP was officially launched by the World Cup LOC, which included members of the AU and of the South African government. Such a programme aimed at supporting the realisation of African Renaissance objectives, including such programmes of the AU as the New Partnership for Africa’s Development, which ensured maximum and effective African participation in the 2010 event; at supporting efforts aimed at strengthening and promoting the development and advancement of African football; and at improving Africa’s global image (ANC, 2007; South African Tourism, 2007). The ALP gained support from four main key stakeholders: FIFA; CAF; the United Nations (UN); and the AU (South Africa, 2008).
The 8th Ordinary Summit of the AU, which was held in January 2007, saw the adoption of a declaration ushering in the 2010 World Cup as an African event. The declaration required that the AU member states commit themselves to providing all-round support to the government and people of South Africa in their efforts to organise the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Member states were further urged in the declaration to develop national legacy programmes and to work closely with the AU commission in implementing the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ ALP (South African Tourism, 2007). The responsibility for the implementation of the ALP was shared among the different African countries, including South Africa (South Africa, 2008).

Certain opportunity areas existed for individual African states to intervene at country-level to reap the fruits of the hosting of the World Cup in Africa. The areas included the branding and marketing of the country; tourism development and promotion; football development, especially in terms of infrastructure, national leagues and teams; social and economic development; the taking of initiative in the hosting of international conferences and sport events; and the promotion and development of the culture and heritage (South African Tourism, 2007).

The South African government, together with other African countries, worked on a number of projects that would help attain the African legacy, including the following:

- **Peace and nation building**: The initiative would support continental efforts aimed at promoting peace, nation building and democratisation. An example of a project for achieving such aims was that of ‘Silencing the Guns!’ which sought to facilitate the replacement of guns with radios, thus enabling a common focus throughout the continent. The 30-day coverage of the World Cup would create an opportunity to silence the guns on the African continent, while those throughout the whole continent, including even those in conflict-ridden areas, would be watching the World Cup.

- **Football support and development**: The project would look at improving the football infrastructure and facilities, as well as at improving and strengthening African football administration and governance. It would further seek to develop the African football industry, while celebrating, preserving and recording African football history, achievement and heritage.
**Environment and tourism:** The South African initiative to entrench the sustainability of the 2010 games was named ‘The Greening of the 2010’. The programme focused on waste management, water and energy savings; the sustainability of stadia maintenance and transport; and carbon savings, with the funds raised to support the ALP; and environmental awareness campaigns. The games were to be used to raise the level of environmental awareness. In the area of tourism, in August 2006 SADC heads of state decided that visa exemptions should be abolished amongst member states to increase intra-SADC tourism growth.

**Culture and heritage:** The initiative was implemented with the full and active participation of the key stakeholders in the area of arts and culture, including traditional rulers, who would seek to train young translators from across the continent in different languages. In addition, young curators on the continent in the field of arts, culture and heritage were to be trained. A museum of contemporary African arts was also to be established, an African football hero publication series created, and a pan-African arts, craft and music festival organised.

**Communication:** The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would present a unique communication opportunity for African communicators to promote African solidarity and development and to expand on opportunities, to market the continent, and to improve international perceptions. Africans could also tell their stories of the continent during that time. Communication objectives would require collaborative efforts from communicators across the many communication and creative disciplines.

**Information and communication technology:** The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would afford an opportunity for Africans generally to gain access to information in various forms during and after the event, thus contributing to bridging the digital divide.

**Continental security cooperation:** The event would allow the creation of a legacy characterised by enhanced cooperation amongst countries to address any security threats posed to the continent, such as terrorism, the cross-border smuggling of illegal substances, and human trafficking. The legacy spin-offs identified included the establishment of a mechanism for joint command. The joint training of members of the security services would, in future, be used to combat crime and other security risks. A security
framework could be used as a blueprint for future events to be hosted on the continent, and a joint plan developed for the event could be used for coping with any possible future disaster on the continent (South Africa, 2007).

The ALP would also serve as a vehicle to ensure that the required preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ took place and that the event itself was truly an African experience (South Africa, 2007). However, the programme would have to be owned continent-wide in line with the spirit of the decision of the July 2004 AU summit (South Africa, 2007). Creating a positive and lasting legacy required a deliberate effort, strong leadership, and sustained commitment and attention (South African Tourism, 2007). A positive legacy would affect the lives of the host residents in a positive manner, which would, in turn, motivate residents either to support or to oppose other future events. With the ALP having been described as set out to benefit the entire African continent as a whole, the following section of the thesis details the residents’ perceptions of such mega-events.

2.9 Residents’ perceptions of sport mega-events
All sport mega-events have, to differing extents, impacted upon their host communities (Ohmann et al., 2006; Swart, Bob & Arrey, 2008/09). According to Fredline (2006), local residents often form an influential group, and the success of events largely depends on the support and involvement of the local community. According to several researchers, though such events have only taken into consideration the economic implications of the hosting involved, residents’ perceptions have often been a neglected aspect of such events (Ohmann et al., 2006; Swart et al., 2008/09; Turco et al., 2003). A number of studies, as previously mentioned, have been undertaken into residents’ perceptions of mega-events, including those of Ap (1992); Soutar and McLeod (1993); Jeong and Faulkner (1996); Deccio and Baloglu (2002); Kim and Petrick (2005); Ohmann et al. (2006); and Kim, Gursoy and Lee (2006).

The fact that mega-event planners and stakeholders have gradually come to take the views of the local community as an important determinant of the success and sustainability of their investment has been highlighted by some commentators (Ap, 1992; Jeong & Faulkner, 1996; Ohmann et al., 2006). The importance of the role played by the perceptions of local residents in the planning and implementation of
sport mega-events originate in the fact that large-scale sport events tend to have both direct and indirect impacts (social, environmental and economic) on residents (Jeong & Faulkner, 1996). Also, Turco et al. (2003:227) note that, without resident and local business support, several sanctions may be imposed by the community. Such sanctions may include:

- the loss of local support for the organisations and authorities promoting the event;
- an unwillingness to partake in the event or in the tourism industry;
- a lack of word-of-mouth promotion of the event; and
- hostility towards visitors, manifested in respect of overcharging, rudeness and indifference displayed towards them.

In South Africa, a number of studies have considered residents’ perception regarding the hosting of mega-events in the host communities. Such studies include those of Zhang (2007); Ntloko and Swart (2008); Swart et al., (2008/2009); and Swart and Bob (2009). According to Turco et al. (2003), the hosting of events should include consideration of the perceptions of the local residents, leading to them being involved throughout the planning process of the events, in order to allay any resentment that might be expressed towards the events and tourism growth in future.

Few studies have, so far, been conducted into Cape Town residents’ perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Of the studies that have been done, one of the most notable is that of Swart and Bob (2009), who investigated residents’ perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ stadia development in Cape Town. Their study mainly focused on those residents living in the Green Point and Athlone areas. They concluded that there was considerable support of, and positive perceptions relating to, South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 World Cup. They also noted that the residents had a high level of expectation regarding the social and economic impacts that the event could bring. However, the residents also raised concerns in relation to the distribution of anticipated benefits and the impacts of the stadia on their lives. For example, residents were concerned with such issues as congestion, crime, a high level of noise pollution, and the safety of visitors.

One year prior to the event, a similar study was carried out by Chain (2009), who investigated the residents’ perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, in Green Point, a Cape Town suburb. The research was conducted in the area due to its being
in the vicinity of the Cape Town Stadium. The study focused on the level of awareness, the perceptions of, and attitudes towards, the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, and the impacts of the Cape Town Stadium on those residents living within a 1km radius of the stadium.

Chain (2009) suggests that, despite there being a high level of awareness about the event, communication and the diffusion of information by stakeholders should be improved. In common with Swart and Bob (2009), Chain’s (2009) study revealed that residents tend to have high expectations regarding the social and economic impact of mega-events. Both studies highlighted the importance of taking cognisance of the complexities of residents’ perceptions and of trying to increase the level of positivity regarding such events and the minimising of negative impacts.

Despite the above, in the study, the researcher notes the limited number of assessments made regarding residents’ perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, with no current literature being available on African immigrants’ perceptions of the event and of the African legacy, which consequently motivated the current study. As understanding the perceptions of residents is critical to the organising of mega-events, the following section provides the conceptual framework used to evaluate residents’ perceptions of tourism and mega-events.

### 2.10 Conceptual framework upon which the study is formulated

The social exchange theory, according to Dinaburgskaya and Ekner (2010), emerged from the intersection of approaches taken from the fields of economics, sociology and social psychology by four leading authors: Homans; Blau; Kelley; and Thibaut. A number of studies have employed the social exchange theory as a theoretical foundation for interpreting residents’ attitudes towards tourism (Kim et al., 2006; Ohmann et al., 2006; Turco et al., 2002). The theory focuses on the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation. The purpose of the exchange is to minimise costs and to maximise benefits, with people weighing the potential benefits and risks of social relationships (Ap, 1992).

According to Ap (1992:669), who developed the social exchange theory in the context of tourism, the social exchange process model considers that social relations involve an exchange of resources among social actors and that social actors seek to
obtain mutual benefit from the exchange relationship. In addition, the primary motive for initiating exchange, from the residents’ perspective, is to improve the community’s levels of social and economic well-being. Finally, residents’ perceptions and attitudes are predictors of their behaviour towards tourism or mega-events. The theory is illustrated in Figure 2.3 below.

![Figure 2.3: Model of Social Exchange Theory](image)


The above model explains that, in events, there is a relationship between the event’s organisers and the residents, with the relationship being examined either positively or negatively “in terms of the presence or absence of certain important conditions: rationality, satisfying benefits, reciprocity and the justice principle” (Waitt, 2003:196). According to Ap (1992), rationality is that component of a resident’s behaviour that is based on reward seeking. The concept of ‘satisfying benefits’ suggests that the residents might accept negative impacts if they feel that the benefits outweigh the costs. Reciprocity entails that, if the resources that are exchanged between the residents and the event are roughly equivalent, and then their impacts and effects will
be perceived as positive by both parties. Finally, the justice principle suggests that all exchanges should be fair, ensuring that, in return for the residents’ support and participation, they will receive equitable returns. In other words, when the relationship between the guest actors and residents is cohesive, the exchange relation is balanced.

Additionally, Dinaburgskaya and Ekner (2010) regard the above model as suggesting that the social exchange transactions between actors are evaluated in terms of actions and outcomes, with the actions referring to elements of the actors’ behaviour, such as hospitality, friendliness toward tourists and guests, and courtesy, whereas the outcomes are the actors’ feelings, as a result of their involvement in an exchange relationship.

In line with this model, Swart et al., (2008/09:125) are of the opinion that residents’ involvement in, and perception of, a sport mega-event are influenced by the extent to which an individual benefits from, or is interested in, an event. Locals interact with sport events by means of participating and watching them, volunteering for them, or engaging in income-generating activities linked to the event or tourism industry. Such opinions tie in with the assertion of Lim and Lee’s (2006) social exchange theory, which proposes that, when people participate in a certain activity, they analyse the pros and cons of the activity and choose an option that minimises their losses and that maximises their gains. In analysing social theory, Lim and Lee (2006) explain that, when the exchange of resources between community members has reached a higher level of balance, or when the degree of exchange tilts in favour of community participants, the impact of the events is seen as positive. Alternatively, when the exchange is lower on one side, or when there is an imbalance, the impact is seen as negative. Hence positive and negative impacts are assessed by host community members, based on the advantages that they enjoy from the events versus the costs that they incur. Dinaburgskaya and Ekner (2010) state that perception theories are often applied by means of a longitudinal survey, with the results tending to vary as people’s perceptions change over time.

The South African Social Attitudes Survey that was conducted into perception and attitudes towards the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ by the Human Sciences Research Council indicated that the perceptions of respondents tended to remain positive with
regards to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ from 2005, when the research first started, through to 2007. However, changes in attitudes and perceptions occurred at around the time of the World Cup, with a noticeable change taking place regarding the benefits that were expected to accrue from the event (Pillay & Bass, 2008). Conclusively, it has been noted that, post events, residents are likely to re-assess the exchange to determine whether their value did indeed match their perceptions of the event (Kim et al., 2006).

The next section of this chapter provides an overview of, and the background to, African immigrants living in South Africa.

2.11 An overview of South Africa and the migration of Africans
Shea (2008) contends that, prior to the early 1990s African migrants did not perceive South Africa as an ideal migration destination. However, the situation shifted post apartheid, with the country having witnessed a significant increase in the number of immigrants into the country, particularly those from other African countries (Shea, 2008). Such an increase has been attributed to the new political climate in South Africa, with the new migration movements being linked to increased globalisation. South Africa has recently come to be regarded as an attractive migration destination, particularly amongst professional African migrants. The migrants come from such countries as Somalia, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Angola, Mozambique, and the Cameroon, among others. Harris (1995:189) postulates that the persistence of the idea that poverty drives out unskilled migrants from developing to developed countries is extraordinary. Therefore, owing to South Africa’s economic viability and proximity to other African countries, South Africa is considered as a more reachable location than are other countries in the West.

According to such authors as Maharaj (2004), Shea (2008) and Polzer (2010), most African migrants come to South Africa to escape the poverty, destitution, civil wars and political instability in their own countries. They note that, although these countries are self-sufficient in terms of food, the push factor is the unprecedented high level of unemployment.

In the 2001 census data, according to Statistics South Africa (StatSA, 2001), indicated that there were approximately 463 003 registered non-nationals in South
Africa, of which 320 178 were from SADC (excluding South Africa) and 24 983 were from the rest of the African continent. Laher (2008) notes that the above-mentioned two groups form the largest in terms of the types of immigrants entering South Africa, in comparison to Europeans, of whom there were estimated to be around 88 761, Asians 16 305, North Americans 5 831, Central and South Americans 4 755, and Australians and New Zealanders 2 190. Keeping in mind the potential irregularities in the data, due to the inability to account for illegal immigrants or non-documented individuals, an undercount is inevitable. As in the rest of the country, a large proportion of African migrants to the Western Cape were illegal, so that it was not easy to establish the exact number of migrants living in the province at the time of the study. For the same reason, it was also not possible to establish the trend quantitatively since 1994, although it was possible to obtain some qualitative information from those who work in this field on a daily basis (Boaden, 2002).

Boaden (2002) suggested that that there were about 19 000 refugees living in the Western Cape and 69 000 living in the country as a whole in 2002 with 14 000 refugees who had applied for political asylum in the Western Cape since 1996. Boaden (2002) working from census data and other sources, also further estimated the number of refugees to be between 60 000 and 80 000 for the whole of the Western Cape. With all the disparities in records regarding the number of African immigrants living in Cape Town, Boaden (2002) concludes that there were between 30 000 to 50 000 African foreigners living in the Western Cape at the time.

Once immigrants arrive in South Africa, the majority of them tend to settle in large cities, such as Johannesburg, Cape Town, Durban and Port Elizabeth (Boaden, 2002). Large cities are centres of economic opportunity, and provide the anonymity (especially for undocumented entrants) that comes from large population size and cosmopolitan make-up, as well as the critical mass of immigrant numbers for the maintenance of networks of mutual support (Boaden, 2002; Polzer, 2010).

Demographically, StatSA (2001) has noted that the majority of immigrants coming into South Africa are single men, between the age of 20 and 40. African immigrants are further said to have a fairly good educational level, in relation to their South African counterparts. To support such a finding, a study conducted by Maharaj (2004) on African immigrants in Durban indicates that the average age of migrants was
found to be 34 years, with most (70%) being in their economic prime and between 25 and 44 years of age, 74% of whom were men.

Most African immigrants to South Africa have settled in the country, making it their home, hence coming to form part of the South African community. Some authors have noted that international experience also shows that immigrants tend to contribute to the economic development of their host countries (Bouillon, 1998; Harris, 1995; Landau, Polzer & Segatti, 2010). According to Meintjies (1998:20), studies have shown “that immigrants are, in fact, net contributors, not parasites. Immigrants are, on average, healthier, more energetic and better educated than people in the host population. Consequently, they draw comparatively less on social welfare and other social services. Many pay tax and, through their entrepreneurship, make a positive injection into local economic development.”

In the context of South Africans, Laher (2008) believes that South Africans tend to see African immigrants in a negative way. The author further provides the following reasons for such negativity:

- Due to negative beliefs and stereotyping, foreigners are perceived as endangering the existence of individuals, politically, economically, and even physically.
- They are perceived as threats to cultural homogeneity, national identity and religious doctrine.
- They are seen as competition for such scarce resources as housing, health care, and employment (Laher, 2008).

Such factors have resulted in hostility being expressed towards African immigrants in South Africa, which occasionally manifests itself in outbreaks of social violence that are usually blamed on xenophobia (Laher, 2008; Crush, 2008; Misago, Monson, Polzer & Landau, 2010).

Owing to the fact that African immigrants in South Africa tended to form the majority of the immigrant population, they were able to create jobs both for themselves and for local citizens, making a positive contribution to the national economy (Bliden, 2008; Misango et al., 2010). As they also formed part of the South African community, the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ stood to impact on their lives as well. Hence, it
was important to understand the perceptions of such African immigrants regarding the preparations made for, participation in, and the benefits to be accrued from the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its associated legacies. To gain a better understanding of residents’ perceptions, the following section contextualises the impacts of sport mega-events, with specific emphasis on the socio-cultural impacts of such events.

2.12 Impacts of mega-events

Mieczkowski (1995) asserts that the impacts of mega-events are often split up into four main categories (economic, environmental, social, and cultural [or socio-cultural]). As above-stated, mega sport event impacts can be negative or positive in nature. Event impacts refer to the effects and implications of how the events impinge on the local residents’ quality of life and their reaction to them (Fredline & Faulkner, 2002). Economic impacts are often seen as being mainly positive, yet they have also been associated with numerous economic costs. Similarly, while environmental, social and cultural impacts are associated with negative effects, certain benefits are also linked to such impacts (Buch, 2006). Table 2.1, which has been adopted from the writings of Swart et al. (2008/2009:124), provides a summary of the negative and positive impacts of sport events.

Table 2.1: Impacts of sport events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impacts of events</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Social and cultural | • Sharing of experiences  
• Revitalising of traditions  
• Building of community pride  
• Increase in community participation  
• Introducing of new challenges and challenging ideas  
• Expansion of cultural perspective | • Alienation of the community  
• Manipulation of the community  
• Negative community image  
• Bad behaviour  
• Substance abuse  
• Social dislocation  
• Loss of dedicated amenity |
| Physical and environmental | • Showcasing of the environment  
• Providing of a model for best practice  
• Increased environmental awareness  
• Infrastructural legacy  
• Improvement of transport and communication  
• Urban transformation and renewal | • Environmental damage  
• Pollution  
• Destruction of heritage  
• Noise disturbance  
• Traffic congestion |
|-----------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Political                   | • International prestige  
• Improvement of profile  
• Promotion of investment  
• Social cohesion  
• Development of administrative skills | • Risk of event failure  
• Misallocation of funds  
• Lack of accountability  
• Propaganda  
• Loss of community  
• Ownership and control  
• Legitimisation of ideology |
| Tourism and economic        | • Destination promotion and an increase in the number of tourist visits  
• Extension of length of stay  
• Higher yield than might otherwise have been the case  
• Increased tax revenue  
• Business opportunities  
• Commercial activity | • Development of community resistance to tourism  
• Loss of authenticity  
• Damage to reputation  
• Exploitation  
• Inflated prices |
2.12.1 Economic impacts

As previously mentioned, the literature on the analysis of the broader economic impact of sport events is vast. According to Turco et al. (2002:53), “economic impact is defined as the net change in a host economy directly attributed to a sport event or operation”. The economic spin-off from sport mega-events stems from the expenditure made by sport tourists and organisational spending expended in preparation for the event (Saayman & Rossouw, 2008). Such expenditure gives rise to such benefits as the creation of jobs, the boosting of income, and re-spending within the economy (Turco et al., 2002). The researchers further highlight the fact that there are four primary considerations when assessing the economic impact of a sport event. Such considerations include: the extent to which sport stimulates new spending within the economy; the extent to which sport retains local income; the cost involved in constructing the sport facilities; and the extent to which the economy internalises spending that is attributed to the sport. The study of economy impacts of mega-events on host community fall under ex-ante (pre-event) and ex-post (post-event) factors (Baade & Matheson, 2004). Subsection 2.12.1.1 below discusses the economic benefits and cost of hosting such sporting events as the FIFA World Cup™.

2.12.1.1 Economic benefits

According to Lee and Taylor (2005), it is the economic benefits to the host that are commonly used as the basis for gathering public backing for the hosting of mega-events and for justifying the huge expenditure of public funds. However, the economic success for the host cities varies. Economic benefits from hosting sport mega-events include expenditure by tourists, the creation of local employment opportunities, an expansion of personal income, and subsequent re-spending within the economy. Sport mega-events can also boost the image of the host city, region or country, which can be of long-term benefit to potential investors (Loots, 2006). Similarly, in line with the benefits provided by mega-events, Hiller (1998) indicates
that mega-events stimulate a rise in the number of tourist visits to the area where the events are held, an increase in the existing infrastructure, an increase in media coverage, improvement of the image of the area, upgrading of transport facilities in the area, and the fostering of nation building.

Crompton (1999) points out that accurately estimating the economic impact of a mega-event greatly depends upon making a reasonably accurate count of visitors to the event. Furthermore, Crompton (1999) contends that local residents, time switchers and casuals should not be included in the measurement of economic impact. In line with such a contention, Lee and Taylor (2005) argue that, unless there is a carefully structured methodology regarding the assessment of the different types of tourists, and their expenditures related to the event, the economic impact of such an event stands a chance of being overestimated.

A host of studies that have been conducted on previous mega-events, such as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup™, have identified several economic benefits accrued by the host countries. For example, Brunet’s (2005) study on the economic impact of the Barcelona Olympic Games from 1986 to 2004 and beyond reveals that the impacts felt as the result of merely nominating the city as the potential Olympic host city were immediate. Employment opportunities picked up, and there was a boom in the construction industry in the city, with the tourism sector increasing tremendously. Similarly, Bohlmann (2006) cites Richard Tibbott’s study of the Sydney Olympic Games in 2000, which has been labelled the greatest Olympic Games ever to have taken place. He states that, besides the sporting triumph, the success of the Sydney Games saw an achievement in terms of infrastructural legacy (which led to the city’s successful hosting of the 2003 Rugby World Cup and the 2006 Commonwealth Games), engineering, marketing, finance, operational management, and communication technology.

The tourism sector is one of the main sectors that benefits from the hosting of mega-events (Bohlmann, 2006). Matheson (2006) notes that the 1994 Soccer World Cup in the United States saw a total attendance of 3.6 million spectators, making the event one of the most significant tourist attractions in American history. He also further notes that the economic impact of the 1994 World Cup was US$4 billion in the United States.
In the case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, an economic impact assessment by Grant Thornton (2004) indicated that South Africa stood to significantly benefit from the influx of R21.3 billion, to create in excess of 150 000 new jobs, and to generate around R7 billion in taxes for government from hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Three years later, Grant Thornton (2007) revised the above figures and projected that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ should contribute about R51.1 billion to the South African GDP between 2006 and 2010, should sustain 218 600 construction jobs, and should provide an additional contribution to GDP, since 116 600 jobs were likely to be created annually. An updated projection of the economic impact by Grant Thornton (2010) noted that, in terms of tourism, the country stood to welcome 373 000 international visitors, with the figure being down from the 483 000 that they projected in 2007. The update also noted that the average overseas tourist spend per trip was also forecast to stand at R30 200, compared with the R22 000 previously predicted. It was further highlighted that the gross economic impact would be R93 billion, with 62% expected to be generated pre-2010 and 38% during the course of 2010.

In terms of the World Cup impact on jobs, the figures indicated by the updated projections are encouraging. The number of annual jobs sustained in total was estimated to be 695 000. Of such, 280 000 annual jobs were likely to be sustained during 2010 and 174 000 by net additional economic activity engaged in during 2010 (Grant Thornton, 2010).

Despite the economic benefits highlighted above, mega-events of the nature described are noted as being costly affairs. If they are not properly planned and managed, they could lead to significant economic costs, which are expositied in the following subsection.

2.12.1.2 Economic costs
Many sport economic impact studies have measured only the benefits accruing from such impact, and excluding production and indirect costs. Hiller (1998) notes that the negative impacts of hosting mega-events are often hidden by the authorities and media concerned. The impact analysis of sport mega-event must take into consideration both the costs and the benefits of such events (Turco et al., 2002). Costs, which are the risks and uncertainties, should be anticipated, assessed and
quantified, as well as being responded to and managed. The mismanagement of public funds by event organisers may deepen the negative impacts of hosting sport mega-events (Turco et al., 2002).

Mega-events are likely to cause the price inflation of touristic products and services, as well as opportunity costs and substitution effects (Saayman, 2001; Turco et al., 2002). In addition, the high demand for tourism goods and services during the events might affect the local citizens and communities. In line with such thinking, Knott (2007) argues that, during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, businesses would, in all likelihood, increase the prices of their goods and services as a result of high demand. Other costs include the financial costs involved in producing sporting events, which usually include the payments made to local government units for such services as construction of the sporting facilities, traffic control, and emergency medical rescue and refuse collection. Such costs account for as much as 40% of the operating budget (Turco et al., 2002), resulting in increased local taxes for the local citizens (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002).

Previous studies of sport mega-events have also revealed that, as opposed to the glorified benefits that are meant to be triggered for host communities by sport, some mega-events have not proved to be economically viable (Allmers & Maennig, 2008; Gratton, Shibli & Coleman, 2006). In this regard, Saayman and Rossouw’s (2008) study highlights some examples of previous hosts of mega-events that did not benefit economically from their hosting of such events. For instance, the 1972 Olympic Games in Munich experienced a loss of £178 million losses, and the 1976 Montreal, Olympic Games experienced one of £692 million (Blake, 2005).

The construction of mega-event facilities has, in some instance, been financially disastrous to the host countries concerned. Saayman and Rossouw (2008) and Bohlmann (2006) cite the example of the 2002 FIFA World Cup™ that was held in Japan and South Korea, where the stadiums later became ‘white elephants’, as the government were not able to sustain their upkeep. As both countries previously had lacked a sufficient football-related infrastructure, they had to build ten new stadiums, of which most had to be demolished a year post the event, because they were costing taxpayers too much to maintain (Bohlmann, 2006).
According to Venter (2010), countries that host mega-events during the high season experience high levels of crowding out, with annualised returns indicating that the net effect of such hosting possibly being negative. In comparison, those countries that host mega-events during the low season typically increase the amount of their predicted tourism by as much as 16%. As already indicated, South Africa hosted the 2010 World Cup event during the winter months of June and July, which is normally a low tourism season for the country. Hosting the event during the said period was a positive aspect for the tourism sector for South Africa, which could be used to counteract the negative effects of such seasonality (Kiyingi, 2009).

Hosting mega sporting events has been seen as an opportunity cost of resources by some authors (Kavetsos & Szymanski, 2008; Saayman, 2001), who have stated that the resources spent on hosting mega-events could have been used on more urgent needs of the communities concerned. Such a claim is backed up by Allmers and Maennig (2008), who assert that infrastructural spending on mega-events could dislocate public funds and delay the accomplishment of other projects, such as the building of hospitals and schools that are of direct profit to the communities concerned. As in the case of South Africa and the 2010 Football World Cup, the management of issues related to poverty alleviation and the fighting of HIV/Aids might have been postponed.

Lastly, it is important to underscore that, with regards to the spending of tourists, the full assessment of the economic impact of such expenditure should take into consideration other aspects, including the indirect and induced effects, leakages of expenditure from the local economy, and displacement and opportunity costs (Fletcher, 1998:130).

Sport mega-events have varying socio-cultural impacts on their host communities, with the intensity of the impact varying from one community to another. The next section of the current thesis looks at the socio-cultural impacts of sport mega-events, in relation to South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

2.13 Defining ‘social impact’
In recent times, a number of studies have been conducted pertaining to residents’ attitudes towards tourism and sport mega-events, including those of Fredline and
According to Kim et al. (2006), there has not yet been any consensus regarding how to define the term ‘social impact’. They refer to the definition of Olsen and Mervin (1977:41), who define social impacts as “changes in the structures and function of patterned social ordering that occur in conjunction with an environmental, technological or social innovation or alteration”. Matheson and Wall (1982) refer to social impacts as the changes in the quality of life of the resident of a tourist destination. The latter definition indicates the relationship between social implication and tourism, but fails to explain why social impacts take place, and does not provide details regarding those changes that occur in the residents’ quality of life. Matheson and Wall (1982) also convey both the description of social impacts and the reasons for their occurrence in terms of technological, environmental and social influences. Such incongruity in the definition of the term is tackled by Teo (1994:126), who defines the social impact of tourism as consisting of the ways in which tourism contributes to changes that take place in value systems, morals and conduct, individual behaviours, family relationships, collective lifestyles, creative expression, traditional ceremonies, and community organisation. Ohmann et al. (2006) assert that all social impacts are to be understood as short-term consequences that become apparent in the form of immediate and noticeable changes that occur in the quality of life of the host communities and in their adjustment to the presence of the tourist industry. Barker (2004) suggests that social impacts vary according to the nature, scale, location and duration of an event, while Fredline (2005) maintains that the occurrence of social impacts is subjected to influence by the host destination’s unique historical, cultural, economic, and environmental background.

According to Faulkner and Tideswell (1997, as cited in Buch, 2006:12), residents’ perception of sport mega-events are influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. They further note that the intrinsic dimension takes into account that the host community is diverse and that residents perceive impacts in different ways. Intrinsic variables include the degree of involvement in an event, proximity to the centre of the event, demographic characteristics, and community attachment, whereas extrinsic factors refer to the community as a whole, comprising those variables that affect the perceptions of residents at a macro level in regards to the way that they have a
common impact on the community as a whole. Such variables include seasonality, social-carrying capacity, stages of tourism development and age, differences in residents’ and visitors’ cultures, and the spatial concentration–distribution of tourism development. Fredline and Faulkner (2000) identify the intrinsic dimension as being the more central element in the analysis of an event, in comparison with the extrinsic.

Buch (2006:13) notes that, increasingly, a broader definition of social impacts has been accepted, incorporating social, environmental, cultural, and economic aspects. Such an approach is known as the ‘triple bottom line’, which focuses on economic prosperity, environmental quality, and social justice. Fredline (2006) asserts that government and public sector managers have come under pressure to understand and act on the approach in question. Thus, a more prominent challenge for all industries, including sport tourism, can be seen the attaining of economic, environmental and social sustainability, which requires an understanding of the social impacts of events. Such a challenge is as important as that posed by the economic impact of mega-events (Fredline et al., 2005:23).

Hosting a mega-event can bring lasting social impacts to the host community. According to Long and Sanderson (2001:189), benefits that can result from the hosting of mega sporting events by host communities can include enhanced confidence and self-esteem, the empowerment of disadvantaged groups, improved health and environment, the encouragement of a sense of community pride, increased social integration, a reduction in levels of crime, the creation of more employment opportunities, and an improvement in the capacity of the community to take the initiative. Despite the highlighted benefits, host communities risk being impacted on by such negative factors as increased crime levels, overcrowding, congestion, displacement, and insecurity, as a result of hosting such events. As such, the following subsections discuss the wider social benefits and cost of hosting mega-events.

2.13.1 Socio-cultural benefits
Social benefits of sport tourism are described by Getz (1994:247) being the value gained by a community from partaking in a sport event or sport festival, as part of a leisure or cultural phenomenon. Ntloko and Swart (2008) argue that proper planning and the taking cognisance of both management and the impacts of sport tourism
events can result in the maximisation of positive impacts. Mega-events provide a platform on which local communities and visitors can interact, which often affects the way of life of the local residents, who experience a renewed sense of community pride (Lee & Taylor, 2005), as well as allowing for an improvement in the infrastructure (Buch, 2006), urban regeneration, and the marketing of the destination brand (Ohmann et al., 2006).

2.13.1.1 Urban regeneration or transformation of cities
Cities across the world vie to host such mega-events as the FIFA World Cup™ for several different reasons. Although such events may last for only a few days, they not only provide the host city or country with a chance to be in the global spotlight for anything from a week to a month, but also act as a catalyst to boost urban development and regeneration. According to Champion cities (2008), if such events are approached strategically, they can have far-reaching positive impacts on the social, economic, physical, and cultural landscape of a city. Essex and Chalkley (1998) claim that, since 1960, the Olympic Games have increasingly been used to trigger large-scale urban improvement, so that they have had a much wider and more substantial impact on the host city’s built environment than in the past. Citing the 1992 Olympic Games, which were held in Barcelona, as an excellent example of a major investment being made in the development of a new transport system and in the rejuvenation of a run-down coastal area that now sports a new marina, leisure facilities, and attractive sandy beaches, it has been argued that the Olympic village was an opportunity for opening the city up to the sea, thus realising a long-standing aspiration of its citizens (Malfas et al., 2004).

Roche (1994) contends that contemporary urban imaging strategies are typical policy responses to social and economic problems that are associated with deindustrialisation, as well as with economic structuring, urban renewal, multiculturalism, social integration, and control. According to Malfas et al. (2004:214), the 2000 Sydney Games continued the theme of major urban change, with the organisers spending AUS$1.7 billion on the construction of sporting facilities, in addition to AUS$1.15 billion on supportive infrastructure. The latter included spending AUS$137 million on rehabilitating polluted sites in the areas of Homebush Bay, which formed a sport hub during the Games.
The benefits of South African cities being transformed as a result of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ cannot be ignored. According to the LOC, all nine cities to host matches for the duration of the World Cup events had to have detailed strategies on development, security, the stadium, urban regeneration, and transport DSRSA, (2007), with the latter including the introduction of the Rapid Bus Transport (RBT) system.

2.13.1.2 Infrastructural benefits
Mega sporting events can create opportunities for the construction of new sporting facilities, as well as for the improvement of the physical environment (transport, sporting, health, entertainment and communication facilities) of the host city. The hosting of such sporting events as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup™ involves the building of sporting and supporting facilities, or the restructuring of existing ones in order for the organisers to be able to satisfy the requirements that are made for hosting the events (Malfas et al., 2004). Pellegrino and Hancock (2010) note that, if infrastructural investments are managed correctly they can have a positive impact on the community involved. For example, the 1972 Olympics in Munich facilitated the building of a subway system that still continues to serve the public today (Malfas et al., 2004). Similarly, one of London’s main reasons for hosting the 2012 Olympics is the desire to create a new city centre on the east side of the town, anchoring the medium-term expansion of the capital eastwards (Malfas et al., 2004).

In many cases, the infrastructure for a major sporting event is already in the development plan of the host country, but might have taken longer to develop. Therefore, most host countries use mega-events to fast-track pre-designed infrastructural development plans (Malfas et al., 2004). In line with such planning, South Africa (2007:35) notes that Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA) resulted in the commitment of over R400 billion to the recapitalising and expansion of the transport, telecommunication, electricity and water infrastructure of the country in order to meet the needs of the rapidly growing economy and to stimulate further levels of growth in South Africa. The need for such development coincided with the need for investing in infrastructure and services for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.
South Africa (2008) confirms that, in order to meet future demands, major investments have to be made. The South African government announced a massive R415 billion expenditure on the infrastructure programme for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Such investment, was needed so as to provide an opportunity for the country to develop the necessary infrastructure for long-term sustainability, to accelerate economic growth, to grow job creation, and to reduce poverty (South Africa, 2008).

In South Africa, the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ provided a massive incentive to fast-track the much-needed public transport project. South Africa (2007) emphasises that a revolutionised transport system is seen as one of the most important legacies that South Africa secured from hosting the World Cup. Zille (2010:14) seconds such an opinion for the public of Cape Town was to receive R2.2 billion for the upgrading of the airport, R617 million for the upgrading of the Central Station, R1.2 billion for the purchasing of new trains, and a further R5.15 billion for the development of Cape Town’s transport system and other infrastructure from the national government. Other infrastructural benefits highlighted by Zille (2010) included upgraded and new sporting facilities to be used as practice venues in the Athlone and Philippi areas, with Fan Parks being developed in different towns in the Province for public viewing of the 2010 event and for years to come. She also highlights the fact that such investments would directly benefit citizens and would help the government to promote further economic growth and job creation as the country heads towards 2020. However, Cornelissen (2007) contends that the sustainable use of such facilities as the stadium and Fan Parks, after the event, should be properly managed, in order to prevent any potential negative consequences.

2.13.1.3 Fostering national pride

One of the benefits that accrue from hosting a mega-event is an increase in community pride, spirit, and identity (Fredline & Faulkner, 2002; Hall, 1992). Such intangible benefits arise from the fact that the community has to work and to pull its resources together to host any mega-event. According to Buch (2006), festivals and events demonstrate the popular definitions of sense of community through offering connections, as well as a sense of belonging, support, empowerment, participation, and safety. Shone and Parry (2004) argue that, if residents are integrated in the planning of an event, such integration uplifts their spirit and increases their
willingness to volunteer to help organise the event, ensuring that they take pride in being part of the ‘event crew’.

Malfas et al. (2004:214) note that the Catalans drift into mass community sporting activities was due to an increase in community spirit triggered by the 1992 Olympics. Stevens and Bevan (1999) cite the example of a survey of Georgia residents in the United States, which was undertaken by the Governor’s department. The survey indicated that the 1996 Olympic Games generated civic pride, with 93% stating that the Games enhanced the community spirit of the city. Also, with the adoption of the nostalgic theme ‘Football’s Coming Home!’ during the 1996 European Football Championship in England generated a sense of national purpose, unity and pride (Morphet, 1996). Similarly, Maennig and Porsche (2008) note that, after the World Cup in Germany in 2006, 60% of Germans identified themselves with their team (in contrast to the 31% who had done so before the World Cup), with 95% declaring that they were proud of the performance of the national team, which led to a sense of patriotism that had not been known for a long time. They also found out that, a year after the tournament, 62% of Germans expressed a lasting increase in their sense of national pride, which was directly associated with their country’s hosting of the 2006 FIFA World Cup™.

South Africa strove to foster national pride during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ by building Public Viewing Areas (PVAs) for non-ticketed fans. Haferburg, Golka and Selter (2009:176) assert that the social significance of the PVAs was very high, including in regard to nation cohesion. The researchers conclude that PVAs are linked to a number of societal interdependencies. They generate high degrees of social mobilisation and, possibly, interaction, with the potential of attracting all kinds of visitors, which endows them with a special role in contributing to overcoming social fragmentation on some levels.

To be able to get a community to benefit in terms of national pride when hosting a sporting event, it is important to align the event with the social and environmental values of the local community (Fredline et al., 2006). If the theme meets the community’s values, it facilitates the community members embracing and enhancing the event, as well as participating without resistance (Buch, 2006). Getz (1989) argues that, if such events are forced onto the communities, they can become
completely commercial, or controlled by narrow interest groups, tribulations might occur, and some benefits might be compromised by their cost. Therefore, the hosting of mega-events can provide localities with the prospect of generating world recognition and of buttressing their sense of local pride and community spirit (Malfas et al., 2004).

2.13.1.4 Increased participation in sport

According to Malfas et al. (2004), sport mega-events also provide a platform for an increase in sport participation within a community, hence contributing to the quality of life of both the individual and community. Hooper (2001) argues that an increase in the level of participation in sport provides a sense of well-being, by allowing the participants to indulge in fun and enjoyable activities, leading to self-fulfilment and achievement, and encouraging social interaction and cohesion for those who might otherwise feel socially excluded. For example, Barcelona, after hosting the 1992 Olympics Games, saw a notable increase in the amount of participation of new social sectors of the population in active sports. The number of new users of the city sports centres increased to 46 000 after the Games, with a noticeable increase in the percentage of women participating in sporting activities from 35% in 1989 to 45% in 1995 (Malfas et al., 2004:214).

With reference to the likelihood of an increasing number of young people participating across the African continent after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, FIFA aimed to construct 20 Football for Hope centres across Africa, five of which would be located in South Africa and 15 across the African continent. Each of the proposed centres would include a mini-pitch, a classroom, and health facilities, providing young people with a place to play, as well as with counselling health and educational services. The centres were also to be used during the FIFA World Cup™ to broadcast matches on giant screens, in addition to continuing to serve the local communities post 2010 (South Africa, 2007:39). According to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ Cape Town and Western Cape Business Plan (2007), building the love of the game amongst all the communities in Cape Town, starting with youngsters in schools, would be a main driver of the Western Cape Department of Cultural Affairs and Sport.
2.13.1.5 Marketing opportunities and improving the global image

Events have become an increasingly significant component of destination marketing (Getz, 1997; Hall, 1992). Sport mega-events have the power to increase visitation (Light, 1996; Pellegrino & Hancock, 2010), to reduce the seasonality of tourist flow (Higham & Hinch, 2002), and to improve destination position in the global business market (Brown, Chalip, Jago & Mules, 2002; Pellegrino & Hancock, 2010; Roche, 1994). Increased visitation and the effects of seasonality of visitation directly result from event attendance.

Such mega sporting events as the FIFA World Cup™ draw significant numbers of domestic and international tourists, as well as tend to attract television and corporate sponsorship, by means of showcasing the host location (Lee & Taylor, 2005). The host nations can use such enhancements as a medium for showcasing all the fun and exciting things that they have to offer. Pellegrino and Hancock (2010) observe that sport mega-events can position unknown destinations on the map and help destinations enhance their image. For example, although Germany has a global reputation for no-nonsense efficiency and mechanical precision, its motto for hosting of the 2006 FIFA World Cup™ was ‘Time to make friends’, which was exactly what the country did do. Taxi-drivers were trained to ensure that visitors would have a good first impression of the country. By the end of the event, most visitors and TV viewers had new perceptions of Germany (Pellegrino & Hancock, 2010).

Hosting sport mega-events also accelerates the degree of host credibility in the global marketplace (Pellegrino & Hancock, 2010). The hosting of the Beijing 2008 Olympic Games helped China cement its status as an economic superpower. The appearance on the world stage of host countries serves to attract new companies to the area and to increase the overall level of trade and commerce. The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was expected to attract about 30 billion TV viewers, which presented a good opportunity for the country to establish itself on the world stage, thus enhancing the existing positive image that investors had of South Africa, both as a country in its own right, and as a springboard for doing business on the rest of the African continent (South Africa, 2007). Kim and Chalip (2004) underscore the fact that all such outcomes depended, at least in part, on the attendance that the event generated and on how well the country presented itself. Preuss (2006:8) notes that the extent to which such issues as bomb attacks, hooliganism, organisational
shortcomings, and bad weather can create a negative image for a country should not be underestimated. In addition, both negative incidents and general weaknesses can be conveyed through a mega-event to millions of potential visitors, customers, and business partners, creating doubts about the potential of the destination concerned.

2.13.6 Model for new behaviour
Major events can provide opportunities to change how people think and behave about such evolving aspects as the environment and ‘green’ areas. Saayman (2001:76) notes that spectators at a sport tourism event tend to share similar enthusiasm, excitement and the possible trading of useful information, which increases possibilities for flexible socialising. Pellegrino and Hancock (2010:8) highlight the fact that the first ‘green Games’ were the 1994 Winter Olympic Games, which took place in Lillehammer in Norway. In the same year, Sydney, Australia, which had focused its bid on the same concept, was chosen to host the 2000 Summer Olympic Games. Since then, the majority of sport mega-event events have focused on the development of sustainable environmental education.

Preuss (2006) confirms that sport mega-events tend to produce a cultural identity and products. Opening ceremonies frequently feature artistic displays that condense the country’s culture, which is often used to educate the population as a whole about different cultural aspects of their country. Barcelona, for instance, used the Olympic Games to transform its infrastructure into that of a ‘cultural city’ (Preuss, 2006). The city’s cultural presentation educated the host population, motivating them to embrace their past.

2.13.7 Improvement of government and politics
For mega-events to be successfully staged, the government of the host country needs to work hand in hand with large multilateral corporations and the private sector (Preuss, 2006). Major sport events, therefore, create a platform for unification and cooperation across political and government boundaries. Preuss (2006:9) notes that, in general, events tend to improve political networks, including close partnerships with the central government. The Sydney 2000 Olympic Games is cited by the IOC as the prime example of collaboration between the Organising Committee, the public, businesses, and government agencies at a national, regional and local level. Malfas et al. (2004) acknowledge that what drove such collaboration was the recognition that
a shadow organisation structure was needed to ensure that every major focus area had equal representation from both the Organising Committee and from the government.

Hosting a mega-event can lead to the adoption of a more efficient way of governing (Pellegrino & Hancock, 2010). The strict requirements and deadlines allied with major events propel governments into taking critical action and into operating more effectively. Lessons and behaviours learned along the way can help a government improve on how it operates in future. For example, in preparing for the London 2012 Olympic Games, five boroughs are currently working with the Mayor of London and the greater London Authority on an integrated planning application for the development of Olympic Park (Pellegrino & Hancock, 2010).

South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ presented a platform for the government to strengthen its relationships with the private sector and other African governments, as well as intra-governmentally (on local, provincial and national levels). In addition, the government was able to learn critical lessons that enabled it to deal with the numerous service delivery crises occurring in the country at the time (South Africa, 2010). Having discussed the social benefits involved, we now move on to analysing the possible negative impacts of hosting a sport mega-event.

2.13.2 Social costs
Despite the many highlighted benefits that accompany such mega-events as the FIFA World Cup™, the number of related socio-cultural costs that are made on a community should be noted. A number of authors, including Hall (1992), Getz (2005), Fredline (2005), Higham (1999), and Ritchie (1984), have highlighted the impacts of mega-events as being both positive and negative. Hall (1992) and Getz (2005) agree on the fact that mega-events give rise to such negative impacts as crime, the disruption of local life, and congestion. In contrast, Ritchie (1984) notes that mega-events give rise solely to positive impacts, whereas Higham (1999) portrays the impacts of mega-events as being predominantly negative. In the hosting of mega-events, negative issues, including an increase in prostitution and the possible disruption of the serenity of an environment, are likely to emerge. The negative outcomes of mega sporting events are, therefore, elaborated upon next.
2.13.2.1 Crime

Some of the most serious impacts of hosting mega-events arise from increased levels of crime and adverse behaviour, according to the research conducted by a number of authors (Barker, 2004; Getz, 2005; Higham, 1999). The nature of crime at events differs widely, and can range from opportunistic to premeditated crime (Barker, 2004). Due to the expected benefits to be obtained from investing in sport mega-events, there has been an increasing need to monitor crime at sport mega-events so as to keep the anticipated crime situation under control. Barker (2004:176) notes that sporting events tend to attract criminals who engage in illegal activities, with it becoming necessary, in order to understand the types of crime that tend to be most prevalent at sport events, to consider the scale and nature of the event involved. Different types of crime associated with mega-events include football violence, hooliganism, theft, alcohol and drug abuse, drunkenness, prostitution, predation, damage to property, and terrorism (Barker, 2004; Tichaawa, 2009).

On an international scale, Barker (2004) notes that the opportunity to engage in criminal activity at sport events has increased significantly. He further highlights that the spatial and other opportunities offered for tourism-related crimes are merely enhanced during the hosting of sporting events. In confirmation of such findings, Hall and Selwood (1989) highlight the increase in robbery, sexual, and common assaults that occurred during the America’s Cup in 1987. Barker (2004) also highlights the fact that hooliganism is one of the more infamous football-related crimes, which is usually associated with drunkenness, offensive behaviour, vandalism, and violence. Such crime this has plagued football events in Europe, despite attempts being made by officials to eradicate it.

Crime at sporting events might be highly organised by groups of criminals who travel to different destinations to prey on those visitors who are attending the global sporting event. An example of such crime is that highlighted by Yandall (2001) of the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney, in which a group of Peruvian criminals notorious for perpetrating distraction crimes was apprehended by police in some of New Zealand’s most popular tourist destinations. The thieves formed part of an organised gang that had travelled to the Olympic Games to prey on tourists, with some remaining in Australia after the Games, while others travelled to New Zealand to continue their nefarious activities there (Barker, 2004:178).
With the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the prevailing situation of crime in South Africa gave rise to much concern as well as some embarrassment for the South African government (Burger, 2007). Crime poses one of the major challenges facing South Africa during the post-apartheid era, as the country has one of the highest crime levels in the world (Bob, Swart & Turco, 2006). Therefore, dealing with crime dominates the domestic agendas of both the government and civil society, and is widely covered in the daily media (Burger, 2007). Burger (2007:2) identifies rape, murder, attempted murder, robbery (both common and aggravated), hijacking and theft as some major types of crime that occur in South Africa. Such soaring levels of crime are associated with the country's history of racial discrimination in the past, with the society as a whole being plagued by poverty (Louw & Shaw, 1997:1). In addition, Kotze (2006) contends that a situation in which people are unemployed, earn only a low income, and are not properly educated is a fertile soil in which crime can grow.

According to Donaldson and Ferreira (2007), the FIFA final report on safety and security in South Africa indicated that, although crime was still a point of concern, there was enough evidence that the country would be able to offer proper security during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. To prevent the ongoing high levels of crime and violence deterring tourists from attending the World Cup, the South African government, together with the LOC, pledged to host a well-secured game (Burger, 2007).

Pellegrino and Hancock (2010:9) suggest that, for host cities and countries to effectively deal with security issues around mega-events, they should:

- foster cooperation across agencies;
- adopt suitable safety precautions;
- capitalise on the available technology;
- prepare for having to deal with the worst possible scenario; and
- ask for help from other nations.

Since the dawn of democracy in South Africa in the early 1990s, the country has successfully hosted a number of major events, as has been noted previously. During this time, police have developed effective security strategies for underpinning the
planning of mega-events, which has proven to be very successful, with no serious
incident having been recorded during any such event (Burger, 2007). Following up on
such planning, on 1 August 2006, the Minister of Safety and Security, Charles
Nqakula, outlined a detailed crime-combating strategy for the 2010 FIFA World
Cup™, which included expanding the police services to 179 000 members by 2009
(Burger, 2007). In addition, R666 million was invested in state-of-the-art security and
surveillance technology, including the implementation and maintenance of close-
circuit television cameras, national and local command centre radio communication
technology, and helicopters, as well as the employment of an additional 31 000
police recruits for the duration of the mega-event (DSRSA, 2007). The establishment
of such security systems was intended to ensure that the event was successful and
that the government’s long-term plan to create a safe South Africa was fostered
(DSRSA, 2007).

2.13.2.2  Fan behaviour and intergroup tension
Mega sporting events serve as a breeding ground for a variety of behaviour by fans,
including that which might be illegal or simply undesirable (Ohmann et al., 2006).
There is no universal definition of fan behaviour, as a result of the diverse forms of
behaviour that fans tend to display (Ohmann et al., 2006). The social misbehaviour
of visitors at events has been described as taking the form of hooliganism, unruly
behaviour, and antisocial behaviour (Barker, 2004; Getz, 2005).

As was mentioned earlier in the current thesis, one of the most common disruptive
forms of fan behaviour associated with football is hooliganism. Ohmann et al. (2006)
cite, as an example of such, the violence that occurred across England in 1996,
when the country hosted the European Football Champion League. In addition, the
riot started by English fans prior to the match between England and Germany during
the 2000 European Football Championship that took place in Charleroi in Belgium is
often cited as an instance of hooliganism Ohmann et al. (2006). The riot resulted in
the arrest of 965 English supporters, of whom 474 were deported to England.
According to Ohmann et al. (2006:133), research that was conducted into the 2006
FIFA World Cup™ on Munich residents revealed that 60% of the respondents noted
that bad fan behaviour was an issue, while drunkenness was said to be the most
common form of bad behaviour engaged in, with 27% stating vandalism, and 13%
physical abuse.
Ohmann et al. (2006:134) also postulate that nationalism and subsequent intergroup tensions may also occur as a consequence of the presence of fans from different countries. Such tensions may be reflected in offensive, xenophobic and anti-Semitic abuse directed against players and fans of opposing teams. Ohmann et al. (2006) argue that English hooligans tend to display an aggressive form of nationalism when travelling to matches abroad. They cite examples of racist incidents, such as the stabbing of three black residents in Berlin by English hooligans on their way to a match in Poland in 2000.

In a country like South Africa, which has been confirmed as being one of the most xenophobic countries in the world (Crush, 2000), incidences of xenophobic attacks should not be underplayed or undermined during the FIFA World Cup™. Kersting (2007) confirms that the levels of segregation inflicted on, and discrimination shown towards, foreigners, especially from the east and western arms of Africa, are very high in South Africa. Such levels tend to result from the perception that foreigners are seen as economic and social threats to South African citizens (Owen, 2005).

An increased number of xenophobic attacks on African immigrants have been reported across South Africa, but especially in the informal settlements, prior to 2010. In January 2006 and May 2008, South Africa witnessed some of the most horrific acts of xenophobic violence in its entire history, during which over 56 people were killed (Ayodele, 2009) and over 100 000 displaced, when mobs that were armed with knives, clubs and stones rampaged through shanty towns in Johannesburg and other parts of South Africa (Independent Online, 2008). The images on national and international media besmirched the global image of South Africa and fuelled the already existing doubts regarding the status of safety and security in the country. Such a situation raised additional concerns regarding the potential risk that foreign fans from the rest of Africa might have to face when attending the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Such fears appeared to have been dismissed by Danny Jordaan, the afore-mentioned Chief Executive Officer of the LOC, who seemed to consider the xenophobic attacks as isolated incidents perpetrated by peeved individuals (Desai & Vahed, 2010). To avoid such intergroup tension, the South African government stepped up its security system prior to the World Cup, as was earlier discussed.
2.13.2.3 Congestion and overcrowding

Crowding and congestion are two event–related issues that can have extensive impacts on the local community. Crowding theory, which has been used to explain the negative effects of high density on human beings, holds that the density of people is a critical factor in human existence (Evans & Lepore, 1992). Buch (2006) ascertained that determining the condition of crowding existing in an area is closely related to a social psychological state, as it entails the individualistic perception of whether a place is crowded or not. Fredline and Faulkner (2002) note that sporting events have tended to disrupt the lives of local residents, causing traffic congestion and even parking problems. Queuing for services and route disruption may cause residents to feel annoyed (Fredline, 2004), hence leading to those in the host communities feeling less inclined to visit local amenities during the events, due to the anticipated crowding of such public and private facilities as buses, restaurants and shops by visitors to the event. Instead, the residents may be inclined to keep away from such places, or to decide to leave the entire area, for either part or the entire event duration of the mega-event (Mules & Dwyer, 2005). Such occurred during the Germany 2006 FIFA World Cup™, when, according to Ohmann et al. (2006), 39% of the respondents stated that they felt that there was a tendency to stay away from local facilities and amenities during the event, and a further 41% indicated that they avoided public places when matches were being played, citing security and crowding as their main reasons for doing so.

Proper management can help reduce the effects of overcrowding in facilities and minimise the levels of pollution of the host community. For example, Ohmann et al. (2006:) noticed that, during the 2006 FIFA World Cup™ in Munich, the easing of traffic congestion gave rise to several positive comments being made. Such transport arrangements were due to the extension of the subway network, which allowed fans to travel to the stadiums (Allianz Arena) concerned by underground train, and also due to an increase in the number of traffic lanes from six to eight. In addition, the temporary adjustment of trading hours and transport arrangements helped in avoiding the anticipated congestion (Ohmann et al., 2006).

In South Africa, various measures were adopted to minimise the amount of overcrowding and congestion that might otherwise have been encountered during the 2010 Soccer World Cup. The measures included implementing, or improving, such
transport infrastructures as the Gautrain, encouraging people to use the Park ‘n Ride system, and extending the hours that train, taxi and bus services ran, especially on match days (South African Tourism, 2007). In Cape Town, additional lanes, including extra lanes for bus services, were added to the highways (South Africa, 2008; Zille, 2010).

2.13.2.4 Prostitution and health hazards
Studies on the relationship between prostitution and events have, so far, received only limited attention (Ohmann et al., 2006). Augustin (2010) highlights that, with the estimated 350 000 visitors that would be coming to South Africa in 2010, in the light of the fact that the country has the highest HIV infection rate in the world, surprisingly little research has yet been conducted into the demand for, and supply of, sex during mega sporting events. She opines that the commonly held notion of a link between such events, trafficking in person, and sex work is unfounded. However, there were expectations of an increased incidence of prostitution during the 2010 World Cup, resulting from the influx of tourists, combined with the number of soccer fans, who would be prepared to pay for sex (Augustin, 2010).

As a result of the increased number of prostitutes coming from Asia and other parts of Australia during the 1986 America Cup that was held in Fremantle, and due to the anticipation of higher demand by event visitors for sex industry products the local government amended the laws on public morality for the duration of the mega-event to ensure that the needs of the tourists were met (Ohmann et al., 2006). Similarly, Germany proactively amended its laws on sex work in 2002, four years before it hosted the 2006 FIFA World Cup™ (Augustin, 2010).

Despite the fact that the practice of prostitution is considered to be fostering the rising spread of HIV/Aids and other sexually transmitted diseases in South Africa, some authors have argued that prostitution actually attracts tourists and boosts the tourism industry in a country (Omondi, 2003). Consequently, prostitution was anticipated to be an activity in which some fans would engage during the 2010 event. Hence, South Africa should have considered legalising prostitution to be able to better manage it during the event (Augustin, 2010).
For over a decade, South Africa has been reviewing its sexual offences legislation and considering reform of sex work law (Richter et al., 2010). Perhaps the long outstanding response to such situations is the result of the high level of HIV/Aids in the country. Augustin (2010) notes that the FIFA World Cup™ presented a strategic opportunity for South Africa to respond to challenges posed by the sex industry appropriately. Despite it having been more prudent for the processes regarding sex work to have been concluded prior to the World Cup, the South African Law Reform Commission was only due to release its recommendations on law reform and sex work in 2011, after the conclusion of the World Cup. As anticipated, this would have led to a boom in the sex tourism industry, but contrary to this the sex industry during the 2010 FIFA World Cup was reported to not have met their expectations. This was probably as a result of the tough police and security action on the street as well as the cold weather (Anon, 2010).

2.13.2.5 Displacement of residents
The hosting of sport mega-event events entails the large-scale development of infrastructure, which is likely to generate a rapid increase in housing and real estate values, resulting in the displacement of less affluent groups of citizens (Ohmann et al., 2006:135). Hiller (1998) asserts that event advocates are so committed to the hosting of mega-events that they often overlook the impacts of such events on vulnerable populations. Numerous examples from past events confirm the effect described above. In a study that was conducted into the effects of the 1986 Vancouver Expo on low-status residents living alongside the expo site, Hall (1992) describes the forced relocation of both short- and long-term residents through rent increases and reconstruction of the area. Similarly, following the announcement that Sydney would play host to the 2000 Olympic Games in 1993, house prices and rents increased, leading to the process of gentrification, referring to the attraction of white-collar professionals to the inner suburbs of the city and the relocation of low-income earners who had lived there for generations (Hall, 1992).

According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2006), 700 000 people were estimated to have been displaced during the 1988 Seoul Olympic Games, with 300 000 being displaced during the Beijing Olympics Games, and further evictions being expected in London, prior to the city’s hosting of the Olympics in 2012. South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was no different from the above highlighted examples.
Correspondingly, according to Baatijies and Kirkby (2008), in their study of the impact of the 2010 World Cup on the scoring of local government by their communities, the quiet displacement of the inner city poor during the urban renewal process, as developers moved to reclaim valuable downtown Johannesburg buildings in anticipation of the property boom in 2010, had some negative aspects, including those related to the eviction of those without legal title from the areas in which they lived at the time. Johannesburg is not the only site of such evictions, as the Ekurhuleni Metro Council was also accused of destroying informal settlements and of removing residents in anticipation of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (Baatijies & Kirkby, 2008). Similarly, in the inner city of Cape Town, preparations for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ led to the displacement of a number of informal traders around the Cape Town train and taxi stations and the Grand Parade. Most such traders were African immigrants, who owned stalls and stands in the areas. Such a finding was supported by a report in the Irish Times (2010), which states the following:

_The street traders from the Grand Parade market in Cape Town were among the millions of South Africans who bought into the idea that hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup in their country would benefit all its citizens, but with less than a month to go to the biggest sports event the African continent has ever witnessed, long-time trader Vincent Baatjies fears that he and his 400 colleagues, who usually occupy that open space, could miss out on this once-in-a-lifetime opportunity._

The final category of impacts left by mega-events, as described in the current thesis, is that concerning the environment. Such impacts are analysed and presented in the following section of the study.

### 2.14 Environmental impacts

Buch (2006) notes that various sporting events have different degrees of environmental impacts and the location of the events and the sensitivity of the exposed ecosystem are aspects that need to be considered when assessing their potential environmental impacts. Buch (2006) further notes that the growth of sporting events increases the pressures that are exerted upon natural resources, with environmental impacts being either positive or negative. If residents perceive their natural environment as being over-used and their natural resources as being
damaged as a result of hosting events, they might tend to oppose such hosting of events in those areas in which they live (Buch, 2006).

With the rising interest in the hosting of mega-events, governments can use such events to raise levels of awareness about environmental issues (Buch, 2006). In support of such a proposition, Deccio and Baloglu (2002) note that, though the impacts of events can be negative, mega-events can be used to raise issues of environmental concern and can help focus people’s attention on the need to preserve elements of the physical landscape and local heritage that might otherwise have been overlooked. For example, the 2012 London Olympic Games are to be used as a showcase for the promotion of sustainability (Pellegrino & Hancock, 2010). To demonstrate their commitment to the environment, organisers are keeping track of the event footprint to help ensure that environmental impacts of all related activities are held within limits. The event sustainability plan also caters to, and addresses issues of, biodiversity, waste, climate change, and healthy living. Similarly, They further state that the organisers of the Beijing Olympic Games apparently put forward the idea of a ‘Green Olympics’ to take advantage of the popular appeal of the event in order to increase public awareness of the environment, and of the conservation of energy and resource efficiency.

In contrast, mega-events have been found to have negative impacts on the host environment. The large number of visitors attending mega-events is often associated with a high level of noise in the community, resulting in noise pollution. Buch (2006) suggests that some residents may like the noise, whereas others may be disturbed by it. Fredline and Faulkner (2000), however, suggest that the perception of the level of noise is individual. The amount of noise that is generated by an event could come from the event venue, or from surrounding nightclubs and pubs before, during and after the event (Buch, 2006). Residents can also become upset about other forms of pollution, including littering and the dust from construction sites, which might lead to the development of negative attitudes among the residents affected.

In hosting mega-events, event organisers should, therefore, adopt proper means of minimising negative environmental impacts by balancing sport and environmental constraints, especially in protected areas. They should implement impact assessments before constructing environmentally friendly buildings, as well as
implementing community-based programmes and encouraging the use of biofuel (Kasper, 1998).

For the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, South Africa adopted the ‘Green Goal’ experience, which it learned from the previous host of the World Cup, Germany, in 2006 (DSRSA, 2007). The overall greening plan was put in place to ensure the integration of environmental consideration into the major 2010 programmes planned for the event. The intention was to pay attention to carbon offsetting, the development of sustainable transport and mobility, waste management, energy efficiency, water re-use, and efficiency measures (DSRSA, 2007).

According to the DSRSA (2007:77), in order to minimise any impact on climate change, a number of innovative techniques by Green Goal had to be employed. The techniques included the use of renewable energy at stadia and the greater use of public and non-motorised transport by fans than might else have been the case, leading to a drastic reduction in the amount of greenhouse gas emissions. The implementers of the Green Goal succeeded in decreasing electricity emissions from an estimated 7 540 tons to 2 490 tons, and transport emissions from 90 000 tons to 73 000 tons during the 2006 FIFA World Cup™ in Germany (DSRSA, 2007). If South Africa had been able to attain the Green Goal objectives, it would have gone a long way to increasing the levels of environmental awareness amongst its citizens.

To achieve the overall Green Goal objective for the 2010 event, host cities of the event adopted and initiated various strategies aimed at implementation of the programme. For example, the former executive mayor of Cape Town Dan Plato noted that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was a catalyst for major redevelopment in Cape Town, citing several inner City transformation including the construction of new roads; investments made in public transport infrastructure notably the new RBT system. He further points to the pedestrian bridges constructed to make routes safer and more attractive. The trees and fynbos planted in an effort to green and shade the city was in line with the Green Goal objective (City of Cape Town, 2011). Through the implementation of the Green Goal programme, the adverse environmental effects that are inevitably associated with organising and hosting an event of the scale of the World Cup were kept to a minimum. To illustrate this, the City of Cape Town (2011) reported significant water and energy savings achievements, exceeding waste-
recycling target at Cape Town Stadium and other event related venues (City of Cape Town, 2011). To emphasise this success, linked to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the City of Cape Town further announced that, the Host City Cape Town Green Goal programme won the International Olympic Committee Sport and Environment Award in 2011 (City of Cape Town, 2011).

2.15 Summary

In Chapter Two, sport tourism has been highlighted as a growing niche within the tourism industry, with several nations, including developing ones, around the world seeking to host mega-events, due to the recognised economic, social, cultural, and environmental benefits that accrue from hosting such events. The events are seen by government as a means of fast-tracking development and of increasing the quality of life of the citizens of the nation.

Similarly, South Africa is a developing country that has increasingly sought to host mega-events. The successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ stood to benefit the country in ways ranging from the entrenchment of global rights through to grassroots level. Chapter Two has also suggested that, despite the fact that mega-events are often seen as developmental catalysts, they also have negative impacts that can have drastic consequences for the host communities if they are not properly planned and managed.

The road to securing the rights to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ contained many political impediments, as well as speculations that an underdeveloped country like South Africa might not be ready to host an event of such a magnitude. However, South Africa was committed to hosting an event that would not only benefit the country alone, but also the entire African continent, hence leaving behind a true African legacy.

Chapter Three that follows provides a detailed analysis of the methodology employed in the current study.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ had been publicised as an ‘African Cup’, with lasting socio-economic legacies of the events not only anticipated to remain within the borders of South Africa, but to benefit the entire African continent as well. The focus of the current study was on determining the perceptions of African immigrants, residing in Cape Town, regarding the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its associated African legacy.

The current chapter presents the research design of the study. It discusses the methodology that was used in conducting the study. The different aspects dealt with include the survey population, and the methods and tools of data collection. Furthermore, the sample size, the sampling procedures, the different types of respondents, and, lastly, the method used to analyse the data are also presented.

3.2 Research questions
As was earlier indicated in Chapter One, the research questions for the current study were aimed at determining the perceptions of those African immigrants who reside in Cape Town, with regards to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and the associated African legacy. The following questions guided the research:

- Are African immigrants aware of the projected African legacy?
- What are some of the expectations of African immigrants in relation to the African legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?
- What are the perceptions that African immigrants who reside in Cape Town hold with regards to South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?
- What roles will African immigrants who reside in Cape Town play in the development and planning of the 2010 event?
- What initiatives have been undertaken by African immigrants in preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?
3.3 Validity and reliability of the study

Measures of validity and reliability in research relate to the instruments used to collect data during the research. According to Wellman et al. (2005), validity is the extent to which the research findings accurately represent what is really happening in the situation, while reliability is concerned with the findings of the research, and relates to the credibility of the findings. Babbie and Mouton (2001:122) assert that the measures of criterion-related, content and construct validity should be specifically defined for the research, while Neuman and Krueger (2003) suggest the use of a pre-test pilot survey and replication to guarantee the reliability of the research.

In the current research, the format of the questionnaire used was adopted from previous sport tourism and mega-event studies dealing with residents’ perceptions. To ensure reliability, the following steps were taken:

- A pilot study was undertaken to allow for the identification of errors and for ratification prior to the administering of the questionnaire. Details of the pilot study are provided in subsection 3.6.2 below.
- The fieldworkers were trained in how to administer the questionnaires.

3.4 Research design

The study consisted of both a descriptive and an analytical research design. As was previously mentioned in Chapter One of the current study, quantitative research methods were used to collect facts and figures, while qualitative research methods were used to explore immigrants’ perceptions, feelings and attitudes regarding the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

3.4.1 The survey population

The survey population in the study included immigrants from different African countries who were residing in Cape Town for various reasons, including for purposes of studying economic activities and to seek refuge from persecution in their home countries.

3.4.2 Sample selection

In the study, a simple convenient sampling method was used. According to Wellman et al. (2005:70), the larger the sample size, the lower is the likely error in generalising the findings to the population as a whole. Hence, researchers carrying out probability
sampling are often compromised between the conflicting requirements of having to attain accurate findings and the amount of time and money that needs to be invested in collecting, checking and analysing the data obtained. Such a compromise is governed by the following four main factors:

- the level of confidence in the data;
- the margin of error that can be tolerated;
- the type of analysis to be undertaken; and
- the size of the total population from which the total sample is drawn.

The sample size in the current study was drawn from the table based on determining the required sizes of a randomly chosen sample from a given finite population, as determined by Isaac and Michael (1981:193). In addition, other factors were also considered in determining the sample size for the research. Firstly, the variance of the variables was essential, because the larger the variance of the variable, the larger the sample that is required. Secondly, the number of units of analysis from which usable data can eventually be drawn may be smaller than the number drawn originally, and, lastly, each stratum of a highly heterogeneous population is relatively homogenous, allowing for the use of a relatively small stratified sample, in comparison with that which is required for a random sample (Brynard & Hanekom, 2006).

As was earlier indicated in Chapter One, the exact figures of immigrants residing in South Africa were unknown at the time of the study. According to Landau and Segatti (2009), no credible statistics on international migrants were readily available in South Africa, especially in relation to the duration they had stayed, or what they did while they were in the country. Despite rapid changes in migration patterns, the South African government has largely failed to establish data collection mechanisms that can inform pragmatic migration and development policies, hence making it difficult to arrive at the exact figures of immigrants residing in the country or in the different provinces, leading to difficulties in obtaining a representative sample (Landau & Segatti, 2009).

The 2001 South African census found only 477 201 foreign-born residents out of a total population of close to 45 million, with 33 048 650 having been born in an African country. Due to sampling errors, the state statistics agency, StatSA, later revised its
estimates of foreign-born residents to between 500 000 and 850 000 (Landau & Segatti 2009). The numbers had increased since the 2001 census, because of relatively strong economic growth in South Africa, regional integration, and the ongoing crisis in Zimbabwe (Landau & Segatti, 2009). According to the 2007 Community Survey, which is a national representative survey conducted by StatSA, the total number of foreign-born residents is just over 1.2 million, or 2.79% of the total population. How much of the increase in such numbers since 2001 was due to improved sampling or to an actual increase was unclear. At the time of the study there were approximately 40 835 immigrants residing in the Western Cape (Landau & Segatti, 2009). Based on such figures, a sample size of 406 was arrived at for the study. In the case of unwillingness to participate in the survey, the next available person was approached.

3.5 Justification of study area
The study was conducted in various designated areas where African immigrants could be intercepted. The use of such areas is justified below.

3.5.1 The Cape Town and Bellville train stations
Cape Town and Bellville train stations are two of the major train stations in Cape Town. The two stations were chosen firstly because of the high number of African immigrants who can be located around such areas conducting informal business. In addition, most of the immigrants use trains as a means of transportation to and from the city. Therefore, the areas were considered suitable for locating many of the respondents.

3.5.2 Greenmarket Square
Built in 1696, the Square has since served as a slave market, a vegetable market (hence its name), and, at the time of the study, as a car park and busy flea market. The flea market offered such arts and crafts as clothing, jewellery, footwear, and curios from all over Africa, including from such countries as Zimbabwe, Zambia, Mali, and Kenya, hence making it a high traffic area for African immigrants.

3.5.3 Universities in Cape Town
The Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT), the University of the Western Cape (UWC), and the University of Cape Town (UCT) were included in the study, as
the universities have a diverse population of registered international students and academic staff from across the African continent. It is for this reason that such avenues were considered for the study.

3.5.4 Other areas
The location of those African immigrants who reside in Cape Town could not be determined, due to the fact that they were not confined to one area, with their varied activities and occupations making it even more difficult to know where they lived. As such, the respondents were also intercepted at other locations, including shopping malls and churches, in Cape Town. Making use of such interception techniques contributed towards the researcher being able to achieve the targeted sample of 406. Figure 3.1 below represents a map of the Cape Metropole and the study areas concerned.
Figure 3.1: The Cape Metropole and study areas
3.6 Methods of data collection

3.6.1 Research instruments and data collection
The main instrument of primary data collection in the study was questionnaires, which were directed, as they usually are, at the individuals who were concerned with the study. A breakdown of how the questionnaires were distributed to African immigrants residing in Cape Town is covered in subsection 3.6.3.2 below. The following subsections outline the details of the research instrument used to collect primary and secondary data.

3.6.2 Secondary sources of data
The theoretical framework of the study was derived from a literature review, which was conducted in relation to residents’ perceptions, immigrants, and sport tourism events. The information was obtained from the sources outlined below.

3.6.2.1 Journal articles
Articles from such journals as the *Journal of Sport and Tourism*, the *Journal of Migration Study*, the *Journal of Travel and Research*, *Politikon*, and the *Journal of Tourism Management* were reviewed.

3.6.2.2 Internet websites
Information on the FIFA World Cup™ was obtained from such Internet sites as the official FIFA website.

3.6.2.3 Theses and dissertations
Completed dissertations and theses were used for technical writing guidance and to gather information regarding residents’ perceptions.

3.6.2.4 Books
Various books, covering the scope of sport tourism, mega-events, tourism, and research were used to compile the literature review and to obtain relevant information, such as that regarding concepts of sport tourism, residents’ perceptions, and tourism in general.
3.6.2.5 Newspapers
Different newspapers were consulted, such as the *Weekend Argus*, the *Cape Times*, the *Cape Argus*, and the *Sunday Times*.

3.6.2.6 Government publications
Government publications, such as the *Cape Town and Western Cape 2010 FIFA World Cup business plan* (City of Cape Town, 2009), the *White Paper on development and promotion of tourism in South Africa* (DEAT, 1996), and other relevant government publications were also consulted.

3.6.3 Primary sources of data
As was previously highlighted, the primary sources of data used in the study included a questionnaire survey. A detailed outline of the questionnaire is presented in section 3.6.3.2 below.

3.6.3.1 Pilot study
Before the actual research was conducted, questionnaires were tested to ensure the validity of the study. According to Clark *et al.* (1998), any attitudinal research method has to display both reliability and validity. The researchers contend that the concept of validity indicates whether the measurement truly reflects what the researcher intends to measure. Neuman and Krueger (2003:179) suggest the use of pre-test, pilot surveys and replications to ensure the reliability and validity of a study. Accordingly, prior to the actual survey, ten piloted questionnaires were administered, allowing for the researcher to ascertain the average time that it would take to complete each questionnaire. The questionnaires were adjusted in response to a few problems that were encountered during the pilot study.

3.6.3.2 Questionnaire survey
Questionnaires are one of the most widely used instruments in data collection during social science research. They consist of questions that are used to obtain facts and opinions on a particular issue from a group of people (De Vos *et al.*, 2006:166). According to Wellman *et al.* (2005:174), the use of questionnaires in previous studies on the topic or related topic should provide input during the formulation of the questionnaire design process. A sample of questionnaires from previous residents’
perceptions studies, as indicated above, were used to design the questionnaire for the study.

The questionnaires in the study included both open- and closed-ended questions. Whereas the latter required respondents to select from a number of preset responses presented by the researcher, the former required the respondents to provide their own answers to the questions asked of them. A total of 550 questionnaires were distributed over a period of one and a half months (from June to mid-July 2009). The breakdown of how the questionnaires were distributed at the different points is shown in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Distribution of questionnaires

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Targeted sample</th>
<th>Sample received back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cape Town bus and Bellville train stations</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greenmarket Square</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities around Cape Town</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other areas (churches, clubs)</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>550</strong></td>
<td><strong>450</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Different methods were used to administer the questionnaires, due to certain instances, where the respondents did not have enough time to respond immediately, and were, consequently, given a copy of the questionnaire for completion and return at a later stage. Additionally, questionnaires were also disseminated to some respondents via email. In cases where the respondents were available to complete the questionnaire on the spot, a face-to–face interview was conducted by the trained interviewers. Although sending out the questionnaires by means of email and giving them sufficient time to fill them in and to return them at their own leisure was relatively inexpensive, certain studies have highlighted the fact that questionnaires sent via emails tend to be disadvantageous in some instances (Wellman et al., 2005). The disadvantages connected with email distribution of surveys is that the respondents might take some time to return the questionnaires and the questionnaires may also not be properly answered, hence rendering the questionnaire useless (Wellman et al., 2005). Such a scenario is particularly true in
the context of the current study, during which, despite 450 questionnaires being completed, 44 of them had to be rejected, thus reducing the sample number to 406.

Five interviewers were selected from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology and the University of Western Cape. The selection was based on merit, with the interviewers having to be currently enrolled in postgraduate study and having to have an understanding of the importance of gathering information in a timely and accurate manner. Such students were expected to be familiar with sport events, to have research expertise, and to be able to communicate fluently in English. In addition, the students were provided with training to improve their skills in data collection. The training covered such areas as basic communication skills, understanding of the questionnaire design, and quality assurance. Furthermore, a letter that indicated the purpose of the survey and the name of the University (see Annexure 1) accompanied the questionnaire for ethical reasons, the details of which are provided in section 3.8 below. Both interviewers and respondents were encouraged to write down their answers in pencils to ensure accuracy.

The nine sections of the questionnaire survey (see Annexure 2) were as follows:

- **Section 1**: This section consisted mainly of the identification of those areas in which the respondent concerned was intercepted. The section was aimed at determining and presenting an accurate figure for the number of responses obtained from each study area.
- **Section 2**: Questions that sought to ascertain the residents’ general understanding of sport tourism and mega-events were included in this section. The broader objective of the section was to determine the respondents’ levels of awareness and their understanding of the meaning of the concepts of ‘sport tourism’ and ‘mega-events’.
- **Sections 3 and 4**: Questions in these sections mainly focused on the residents’ perceptions of, and attendance at, previous FIFA World Cup™ tournaments, as well as their level of awareness regarding the forthcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup™ to be hosted by South Africa. In these sections, the respondents were asked questions about their attendance of previous FIFA tournaments, as well as whether they would attend the 2010 event. Questions about their level of awareness of the hosting and of possible problems that might occur during the events were also put forward.
- **Sections 5 and 6:** These sections of the questionnaire were aimed at establishing the respondents' levels of interest in soccer, and their projected level of involvement during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The aim of the sections was to determine the African immigrants' levels of involvement in terms of preparation for the tournament. The questions in these sections were also aimed at eliciting information regarding which matches they planned to attend, the host cities they were intending to visit, and the mode of transport that they would use, amongst other details.

- **Section 7:** The focus of this section was on determining African immigrants' perceptions and expectations emanating from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Using a rating scale in relation to a given line of statements, respondents were required to respond to questions that were developed using a framework of those socio-economic and environmental impacts that are usually associated with mega-events.

- **Section 8:** Questions in section 8 of the questionnaire were centred on the projected African legacy. Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with statements pertaining to the African legacy. The aim of the questions was to determine whether the respondents were aware of the projected African legacy, based on the predefined objectives of the study.

- **Section 9:** This final section of the questionnaire focused mainly on the demographic profile of the respondents with regards to their age, gender, and race, employment status, country of origin, monthly income, and residential status.

3.7 **Method of data analysis**

In order to determine the African immigrant residents' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its projected African legacy, SPSS software was used to analyse the quantitative data obtained. The software enables data to be described and summarised using descriptive statistics, tables, bar charts, and graphic presentations. Qualitative data were analysed into conceptual categories, based on the constant comparative method.
3.8 Ethical considerations
Different authors have highlighted the principles of ethics in research as being very important universally (Wellman et al., 2005). In research, respecting the rights of individuals and the maintenance of honesty at all times is vital. Therefore, in the current study, the following steps were carried out to make sure that the rights of those involved were respected.

- Firstly, a cover page, including the name of the university concerned and the purpose of the research, was attached to each copy of the questionnaire. The letter gave respondents the assurance that they could withdraw from the process at any level if they felt uncomfortable about the way in which the research was being conducted.
- Secondly, the assurance of confidentiality regarding the information given was provided, with no form of identification being demanded and no names being written down on the questionnaires.
- Finally, interviewers were informed of all of the above-mentioned rights, and were requested to inform each respondent accordingly.

3.9 Field challenges and experience
The number of problems that were encountered during the study is explained below. Firstly, due to the construction and renovation work going on in and around Cape Town in preparation for the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, which affected two of the interception points (Greenmarket Square and Cape Town train station), the displacement and relocation of the daily routine made it difficult to target respondents. For example, in Greenmarket Square, traders had to alternate trading days, which made it difficult to recollect surveys from those who had requested to be given a day in which to complete them. Moreover, respondents, especially traders, were reluctant to break off from their work to answer the questionnaires, especially in the light of the above-mentioned disruptions that were already taking place, as well as the already limited trading days caused by construction work and the poor winter weather. Such factors therefore prolonged the time that had been anticipated as being necessary for collecting the data. Secondly, difficulties were experienced in retrieving the questionnaires that were administered by email, resulting in some of the questionnaires not being properly completed, and therefore a reduction in the anticipated sample.
3.10 Limitation of study
A major limitation of the study was the lack of existing data on the statistics of African immigrants who were residing in the Western Cape at the time of the study, hence making it difficult to identify an accurate sample size for the research.

3.11 Summary of chapter
Chapter Three has provided an overview of how the survey used in the study was carried out. The questionnaires, which consisted of both qualitative and quantitative questions, were administered to respondents comprising a systematic stratified selected sample of 406. The area of survey included the Cape Town and Bellville bus and train stations, Greenmarket Square, universities in the Western Cape, and other areas where African immigrants could easily be found and it was convenient to administer the questionnaire. The data collected were analysed using SPSS software. In Chapter Four that follows, a detailed analysis of the results in relation to the objectives set out in Chapter One of the thesis is discussed.
CHAPTER FOUR
FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction
Chapter Three of the current study provided an analysis and synthesis of the methodology that was used to derive the intended results of the present research. The method involved using self-administered questionnaires with resident African immigrants in Cape Town, who were chosen by means of a convenient sampling method. Four hundred and six valid responses were received from the initial sample of 450. Such responses were captured and analysed by means of SPSS software.

Chapter Four presents the findings, analysis and discussions of the responses that were received from the questionnaires. To understand such responses, the results were analysed, based on the predefined objectives previously outlined in the first chapter of the study. Furthermore, in some instances, tables and figures have been used to illustrate the findings. To lay the basis for the discussion, the following section presents key findings in relation to the demographic profile of African immigrants residing in Cape Town.

4.2 Demographic profile of respondents
The following subsections of the thesis present the findings obtained regarding the demographic profile of the respondents, in terms of nationality, their reasons for moving to South Africa, as well as their gender, age, marital status, and length of stay in South Africa, and including their residential and employment status, their monthly income and level of education.

4.2.1 Country of origin
Respondents were asked to state their country of origin. The results that were received to this open-ended question are presented in Table 4.1 below. The respondents came from 30 different countries across the African continent (see a full breakdown of the countries of origin in Appendix D). The majority (25.9%) came from Cameroon, followed by those who came from Nigeria (13.5%), Zimbabwe (10.3%), the Democratic Republic of Congo (7.6%), Malawi (5.2%), and Ghana (4.2%). Relatively few respondents were from Kenya (3.2%), the Ivory Coast (3.0%), Senegal (3.0%), Zambia (2.7%), and Angola (2.0%), Swaziland (20%) and Gabon (1.7%).
Table 4.1: Country of origin of respondents (n=406, in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of origin</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zimbabwe</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Republic of Congo</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malawi</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ivory Coast</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabon</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.2 Reason for moving to South Africa

Respondents were asked to state their reasons for moving to South Africa. The purpose of the question was to ascertain the main reason why immigrants had immigrated to South Africa. In order to gain a better understanding of the result, the responses were captured in four different categories (see Table 4.2 below). The results illustrate that the majority (43.2%) of the respondents came to South Africa to further their studies, with 28.8% seeking refuge in the country, 22.7% coming for work purposes, 9.3% joining other family members who were already resident in the country, and the remaining 2.7% indicating other reasons, including business, as being the primary reason for moving to South Africa. Interestingly, such findings concur with those of Maharaj (2004), who concluded that the primary reasons for immigrants moving to South Africa were either to seek refuge, to study, or for related economic opportunities.
Table 4.2: Reasons for respondents moving to South Africa (n=406, in %) Multiple responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To further studies</td>
<td>43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For refuge</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For work</td>
<td>22.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To join other family members</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.3 Gender

In terms of the gender of the respondents, there was a vast difference between the male and female responses (see Figure 4.1 below). The significant majority were men (71.2%) rather than women (28.8%). Although questions might be raised regarding such disparity, men have been noted as having a desire to travel abroad, compared with women, who, due to the dangers of travel, the costs involved, and the fact that numerous obstacles have to be overcome on a long overland journey, tend to prefer to stay at home (Maharaj, 2004). In addition, women are often subjected to greater levels of trauma and indignity in the migration process (Maharaj, 2004). In confirmation of such findings, StatSA (2001) noted at the start of the century that there were a higher percentage of male African immigrants in South Africa than female.

![Figure 4.1: Gender of respondents](image-url)
4.2.4 Age

Respondents were asked to state their current age. The responses were captured in five different categories, as can be seen in Table 4.3 below. Slightly more than half of the respondents (53.5%) were noted to be between the ages of 21 and 30 years, while 30.0% were between 31 and 40 years. Such findings represent a fairly young group of respondents, and might also indicate that most immigrants who resided in Cape Town at the time of the study were young and comprised the age group in which most initial tertiary-level study tends to take place. Furthermore, a total of 8.7% of the respondents fell between the ages of 41 and 50 years, 5.8% between 18 and 20 years, and the remaining 2% between 51 and 60 years. The average age of the respondents was 30 years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group (years)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18–20</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21–30</td>
<td>53.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31–40</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41–50</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51–60</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.5 Marital status

Respondents were asked about their marital status. The finding that the majority (58.7%) were single was not surprising, as they were young students in the main, compared with the 37.8% who were married. A few (2.5%) of the respondents indicated that they were separated from their partners, while the remaining 1% stated that they were divorced. Figure 4.2 below illustrates the findings obtained.
Figure 4.2: Marital status (n=406)

4.2.6 Length of stay in South Africa

The responses of the respondents to being asked to indicate their duration of stay in South Africa were captured and analysed in five different categories, as is illustrated in Table 4.4 below. Half of the respondents (50.7%) stated that they had been residing in South Africa for between 1 and 5 years. The percentage of respondents who had stayed for less than 1 year (19.6%) and those who had stayed between 6 and 10 years (19.1%) was similar. A few (7.9%) had stayed for between 11 and 15 years, with the remaining 2.7% having stayed for longer than 15 years, so that the latter would have been in South Africa at the start of democratic governance in the country. Many African immigrants were reported to have arrived in South Africa at the time, as was earlier mentioned in the literature review, which the finding corroborated. The average length of stay of the respondents 4 years and 7 months, a period which was also noted by Maharaj (2004), showing that, during the period in question, the country saw a dramatic increase in the number of African immigrants coming into the country in search of greener pastures than might otherwise have been available to them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length (in years)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;1</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1–5</td>
<td>50.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6–10</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11–15</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;15</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.7 Residential status
According to the South African Department of Home Affairs (DHA), all non-citizens resident in South Africa must have a valid residential status that is determined by their purpose of stay. In the current study, the respondents were asked to state their residential status. The responses that are given in Table 4.5 below illustrate that the majority of the respondents had come to the country to seek refuge, with 18.8% being asylum seekers and 19.3% having applied for refugee status, making a total of 38.1%, providing the key reason for most African immigrants having travelled to South Africa. A total of 23.8% stated that they held various categories of study permit, with a further 12.9% having acquired a permanent resident permit, and 11.1% various categories of work permit. Not surprisingly, 14.1% were not prepared to reveal their residential status and declared it to be confidential.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Study permit</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refugee status</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asylum seeker</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permanent resident</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidential</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work permit</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.8 Employment status
In terms of employment status, most of the immigrants surveyed (27.8%) indicated that they were students, closely followed by those who stated that they were self-employed (23.6%). However, 19.5% indicated that they had no form of employment. Those who were employed in a professional capacity made up 14% of the respondents, while 6.8% were business people. The remaining immigrants were engaged either in sales and marketing (4.7%), or in the hospitality sector (1.9%). Such findings reflect that a fairly high number of African immigrants in South Africa contribute towards economic growth in the country. Evidently, the 14% employed as professionals could be seen in relation to the results obtained for those with academic qualifications (see Figure 4.6 below).
Table 4.6: Employment status of respondents (n=406, in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profession</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unemployed</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Businessperson</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales/Marketing</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Artisan/Technician</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labourer/Unskilled</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retired</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.9 Monthly income
The respondents were asked to indicate their monthly income before deductions, including tax. The results are represented in Figure 4.3 below. Such a figure reveals that most (26%) respondents did not earn an income, which was consistent with those who reported being unemployed (19.5%), as illustrated in Figure 4.3 above. Those who earned a monthly income of between R1 001 and R3 000 made up 19.7% of the respondents, followed by those who earned between R3 001 and R5 000 a month (11.5%), while a similar percentage (11%) earned between R5 001 and R7 000 a month. Relatively few (7.8%) respondents were found to earn between R7 001 and R11 000 a month, with 3.9% earning R11 001 and above a month. The remaining 10.3% of the respondents declared that their income was confidential. The monthly average household income of respondents was calculated as being R3 584.80, which was relatively low. Such results were not surprising, given the large number of students who participated in the study.
4.2.10 Level of education

The results of the responses that were obtained from the respondents in response to being asked to indicate their highest level of education are shown in Figure 4.4 below. The findings reveal that 28.9% of the respondents surveyed were holders of an undergraduate degree, closely followed by those with a certificate or diploma (27.7%). Those who had completed secondary school education (21.8%) were closely matched with those who had a postgraduate degree (20.8%). Very few of the respondents had only completed primary school (0.5%) or had only a partial primary school education (0.3%). Such findings reflect a group of highly educated respondents, with 76.9% having a post-secondary education.
4.2.11 Place of residence in Cape Town

In order to determine precisely where African immigrants reside in Cape Town, respondents were asked to indicate their suburb of residence in the city. The responses were captured based on the seven different suburbs (www.tourismcapetown.co.za) represented in Table 4.8 below. Nearly half (49.2%) of respondents indicated that they were residing in the Northern Suburbs of Cape Town, compared with the 21.4% in the Southern Suburbs. Some (10.3%) indicated the Cape Flats as their area of residence, followed by the 6.9% who stated that they resided in the City Bowl. The remaining percentages of the respondents stated that they resided on the West Coast (6.4%), or on the Atlantic Seaboard (5.8%). Interestingly, none of the respondents resided in the South Peninsula.

A closer analysis of the data also indicated that, in all the suburbs listed in Table 4.7 below, African immigrants tended to concentrate in particular areas within a suburb. For example, of the 48% of the respondents who stated that they resided in the Northern Suburbs, 15% resided in the Parow area, 9.3% in Bellville, and 8.1% in Maitland. Similar trends could be noted in the Southern Suburbs, with 11% residing in the Mowbray/Rondebosch area, and 7.1% in the Woodstock area. Such findings led to the conclusion that immigrants tended to prefer such areas either due to the availability of more affordable housing in the area of their choice, or due to them having found such areas to be both comfortable and safe. Additionally, economic opportunities and the desire to live with friends and relatives might, in this case, have progressively led to the construction of networks based on friendship or family, on village of origin, or on professional relations (Takougang & Tidjani, 2009).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suburbs</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Northern Suburbs</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Southern Suburbs</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Flats</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>City Bowl</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Coast</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atlantic Seaboard</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above discussion entails key findings in relation to the demographic profile of resident African immigrants residing in Cape Town. Section 4.3 below presents their understanding of the concepts of ‘sport tourism’ and ‘mega-events’ in general.

4.3 Understanding of ‘sport tourism’ and ‘mega-event’

The current study has alluded to the difficulties encountered in defining the concept of ‘sport tourism’, with several sport tourism models having been used to provide a well-rounded explanation of the phenomenon. Determining such a phenomenon, as understood by the sample population involved in the study, was therefore regarded as important.

4.3.1 Sport tourism

Respondents were asked to provide their understanding of the concept ‘sport tourism’. As the question was open-ended, the responses were arranged in four main conceptual categories, with three of the categories being based on those provided by Gibson (1998:156), as was previously mentioned in Chapter Two of the current study. According to Gibson (1998:156), there are three broad categories of sport tourist: the active participant; the passive participant (a watcher of sport events); and the nostalgia sport tourist (a visitor to sport-related attractions). Table 4.8 below explores the responses received from the respondents. Interestingly, the results are characterised by a split between those respondents who consider sport tourism as being passive involvement in sport (52.7%), and those who regard it as being active involvement (51.7%). The finding reflects a significantly high level of understanding of the concept ‘sport tourism’ among the respondents. The remaining 5.4% of the respondents gave responses that were in no way related to the above three categories or that were not considered to relate to sport tourism, or left the question blank, and were hence classified as having no understanding of the concept in general. A few (9.2%) indicated responses which were closely related to nostalgia sport tourism, which is centred on travelling to sport halls of fame and stadia, and on taking related cruises.
Table 4.8: Understanding of sport tourism ($n=406$, in %). Multiple responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Passive</td>
<td>52.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nostalgia</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.2 Mega-events

Recently, mega-events have gained prominence on the global stage, with many developing countries increasingly using them as a tool for fostering their economic growth (Alegi, 2001). Cornelissen (2006) has identified South Africa in particular as an avid campaigner in this domain. As was the case with sport tourism above, the respondents were asked to provide their understanding of a ‘mega-event’. The results are represented in Table 4.9 below. Most of the respondents (70.1%) understood a mega-event to be a very ‘big’ event, closely followed by those who saw it as a very popular event (64.2%). Some (18.2%) indicated that they did not know what a mega-event was. While 16.3% described it as an international event, or as one that accrued benefits to the host (12.3%), the remaining respondents were those who saw a mega-event as an event that attracted much media coverage (7.1%). The significance of the finding is that the responses received could easily have been made in reference to mega-events, as defined by several authors (see Chapter Two). Most prominent of such authors is Roche (2000:1), who refers to mega-events as “large cultural (including commercial and sporting) events, which have a dramatic character, mass popular appeal and international significance”.

Table 4.9: Understanding of ‘mega-event’ \((n=406, \text{ in } %)\). Multiple responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A very big event</td>
<td>70.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A very popular event</td>
<td>64.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An international event</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An event that benefits the host</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An event that attracts much media coverage</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.3 Knowledge of previous sport tourism events held in South Africa

In order to ascertain whether resident African immigrants in Cape Town had any knowledge of sport tourism-related events hosted by South Africa in the past, the respondents were asked whether they were aware of any sport events that South Africa had previously hosted. According to the results seen in Figure 4.5 below, the majority of respondents (71%) answered the question in the affirmative, compared with the 23% who responded in the negative. Only 6% stated that they were not sure of whether or not this had been the case.

Figure 4.5: Knowledge of previous sport tourism events held in South Africa \((n=406 \text{ in } %)\)
4.3.4 Major events hosted by South Africa in the past

In order to further ascertain resident African immigrants’ knowledge of previous sport events hosted in South Africa, respondents were required to choose from a table of given options that permitted multiple responses. Table 4.10 below, which represents the results, reveals that over half of the respondents (57%) indicated that South Africa had previously hosted soccer tournaments. In this light, the 1995 Africa Cup of Nations and the 2009 FIFA Confederations Cup came to the fore. Another 30.3% of the respondents indicated the 1995 Rugby World Cup, 17.7% indicated the 2003 Cricket World Cup, and 3.9% indicated swimming events. Only 3.2% indicated golf tournaments, and 2.8% referred to other sport events, such as the Two Oceans and the Comrades marathons that are held annually in South Africa.

Table 4.10: Major sport tourism events previously held in South Africa (n=406 in %). Multiple responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major sport event</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soccer tournament, e.g. CAF / Confederation Cup</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995 Rugby World Cup</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003 Cricket World Cup</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming events</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf tournaments</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.5 How respondents were informed of previous sport tourism events hosted by South Africa

Media coverage influences people’s interaction with sporting activities. The level of awareness, in the form of advertisements or public relations, is relevant to the level of attachment of a community to tourism events (Arrey, 2008). Hence, the respondents were asked to state how they were informed of major sport tourism events that had previously been hosted in South Africa. The results, which are reflected in Table 4.8 below, indicate that 56.9% of the respondents were informed of previous events, as discussed above, over the television, while newspapers were the information source for 24.1%. Such a percentage was closely followed by the 21.4% of those who had heard of the event over the radio. The percentages obtained confirmed the position of television as the most influential medium, followed by the newspaper and radio...
media, which was in line with the conclusions drawn by Arrey (2008). In addition to television, newspapers and radio, 16% of the respondents stated that they had been informed by friends and family, while 14% said that they had found information on the Internet. A few were informed by posters (4.9%), Short Message Service (SMS) (2.7%), community meetings and other forms of media (0.7%) respectively, and email (0.5%).

Table 4.11: How respondents were informed of previous sport tourism events (n=406, in %). Multiple responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>56.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspapers</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends and family</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posters</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMS</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community meetings</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Attendance at previous World Cup tournaments

Direct experience of an event provides residents with more information on which to base their perceptions, with such information being more directly under the control of the individual than are other sources (Fredline, 2000). Thus, an awareness of the level of previous participation of respondents in mega-events is critical to understanding their perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ hosted by South Africa. The results regarding such attendance are analysed and presented in the following paragraphs.

4.4.1 Previous attendance at FIFA World Cup™ tournaments

In order to determine the level of attendance of resident African immigrants in Cape Town at previous FIFA World Cup™ tournaments, respondents were asked whether they had ever before attended a FIFA World Cup™ tournament. Figure 4.6 represents the results that were obtained in response to the question, which reflects
a significant disparity between responses in the affirmative and in the negative. A total of 99% of the respondents indicated that they had never before travelled to a FIFA World Cup™ tournament, compared with 1%, who reported having travelled to at least one other tournament. The result reflects a very low level of participation in FIFA World Cup™ tournaments by Africans. The finding is seen to be closely related to those noted by Tichaawa (2009) on the previous attendance of Cameroonian soccer fans at FIFA World Cup™ tournaments, which results reflected 95.47% non-attendance, with only 4.53% attendance. Such findings also brought to light the significance of hosting the FIFA World Cup™ in Africa, and in South Africa in particular, for the first time. Furthermore, the findings made raise key questions as to why attendance by African fans at previous events was found to be extremely low. In addition to the strong possibility that travel-related costs could be the main reason for non-attendance of previous World Cup tournaments, such factors as visa constraints and other social issues should not be overlooked, as are discussed further in subsection 4.4.3 below.

![Pie chart](image)

**Figure 4.6: Previous attendance at FIFA World Cup™ tournaments (n=406, in %)**

**4.4.2 Most recent attendance at FIFA World Cup™ tournaments**

Those respondents (n=4) who indicated that they had previously attended at least one FIFA World Cup™, as seen in Figure 4.6, were asked to indicate which of the tournaments they had attended. According to the analysis, all the respondents (100%) indicated that they had attended the 1990 FIFA World Cup™ in Italy.
4.4.3 Reasons for not attending previous FIFA World Cup™ tournaments

As a follow-up to the question in subsection 4.4.1, respondents were asked to state their reasons for not attending previous FIFA World Cup™ tournaments. As per the results presented in Table 4.12 below, the majority of respondents (72.4%) reported that such tournaments were too expensive, while 16.3% blamed their non-attendance on not finding the required time to attend. Some respondents (12.6%) indicated that their absence from previous events was related to the fact that they could not secure game tickets, but they did not state whether such a factor had been related to cost. Those who indicated that their sole reason for not attending previous tournaments was that they were not interested in soccer made up 3.4%, while the remaining few (0.7%) regretted that the event had not previously been hosted on the African continent. Travel-related costs and expenses were again highlighted as being the most significant reasons for their non-attendance at mega-events. Such a finding was not particularly surprising, as sport tourism events had been noted as being costly to attend by other researchers, including Zhang (2007) and Tichaawa (2009).

Table 4.12: Reasons for not attending previous events (n=406, in %). Multiple responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Too expensive</td>
<td>72.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Didn’t have time</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Couldn’t get tickets</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not interested</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.5 Awareness and perceptions of South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

The results of findings with regards to African immigrants’ awareness of South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ are presented in this section, which also details perceptions of possible problems and suggested solutions to such problems that might be employed during the event.
4.5.1 Awareness of any forthcoming major sport event to be hosted by South Africa in 2010

To determine whether the respondents were aware that South Africa would be hosting a major event, they were asked to indicate whether they were aware that South Africa would be hosting a major event during 2010. The results to this closed-ended question are illustrated in Figure 4.7 below. Almost all of the respondents (99%) asserted that they were aware of South Africa’s hosting of an event, with all 99% of the respondents identifying the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in particular as the event in question, while only 1% responded in the negative. The result reflects a significantly high level of awareness amongst resident African immigrants in Cape Town of South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

Figure 4.7: Awareness of major forthcoming sport event to be hosted by South Africa in 2010 (n=406)

4.5.1.1 Respondents’ perceptions of possible problems during the event

In order to ascertain the perceptions of any potential problems that South Africa might face during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the respondents were asked whether they foresaw any possible problems cropping up during the event. The responses were analysed and captured into the categories represented in Table 4.13 below. Nearly half of the respondents (46.9%) indicated that crime levels in South Africa, which had been noted elsewhere in other studies (Tichaawa & Swart, 2010), would be a major issue during the event. However, despite the recent spate of xenophobic attacks that have characterised part of South Africa since May 2008, which have led to subsequent negative reporting in both the local and the international media, very
few (3.3%) indicated that they thought that xenophobia would be an issue during the event.

Furthermore, other respondents (19.2%) expressed concern about the disruption of daily activities, transportation problems (10.8%), the lack of sufficient accommodation (10.4%), and the increased cost of goods and services (4.1%). Those who foresaw no problems (7.8%) were most definitely in the minority. Additionally, some respondents (3.8%) indicated that there would be a significantly low number of African fans attending the event, despite it being widely publicised as an ‘African World Cup’ by the host nation. Such low attendance figures were blamed on the high cost of game tickets and on the complicated ticketing procedures that had been adopted by FIFA. In addition, 2.6% foresaw that high levels of noise, and 2.2% that overcrowding and congestion, would be experienced during the event.

Those respondents who indicated other problems comprised 6.0% of the total. Such potential problems were seen to include poor weather conditions, since the tournament would be held during the winter months of June and July; health concerns, such as an increase in the spread of HIV; political strikes; and the inability to complete such facilities as roads and stadiums required for the event in time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.13: Any possible problems foreseen during the 2010 World Cup event (n=406, in %). Multiple responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Problem</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disruption of lives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shortage of transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shortage of accommodation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in prices of goods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ticketing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xenophobia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crowding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.5.2 Suggestions regarding how to address possible problems

The successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa depends largely on how the government anticipates potential problems and designs appropriate measures that aim to mitigate such problems. In this subsection of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to provide possible solutions to the problems suggested in subsection 4.5.1 above. The main findings, which are represented in Table 4.14, are discussed below.

Barker (2004) notes that, in order to be able to host an event like the FIFA World Cup™ successfully, there must be an ability to combat crime and to guarantee the safety of visitors and citizens. In the current study, the majority (59.5%) of respondents indicated that, in order to solve the potential problem of crime, the government should improve on its current safety and security measures. Such measures included increasing both the number of police and their visibility, upgrading security facilities, and improving crime technology. Very few (10.9%) respondents indicated that no action needed to be taken in this regard. The measures mentioned previously are in line with the police strategy to combat crime during the event. Moreover, the measures were noted as effective considering that the event recorded a relatively low level of crime rate than was anticipated (Jacobs, 2010).

In terms of solving the potential problem of insufficient accommodation, some (10.3%) respondents suggested that, besides facilitating the construction of, and upgrading, the accommodation facilities, organisers of the 2010 event had to consider making use of home stays or building low-cost houses that could be used by budget travellers during the event, and which could then be reallocated to those citizens in need of housing after the event. By so doing, the government would also be able strategically to solve, at least in part, the housing crises in the Western Cape Province. However lack of accommodation did not appear to be a problem during the World Cup event.

Of the respondents, 8.6% indicated that health facilities should be upgraded and that health checks should be carried out at entry border points during the event. Furthermore, 7.3% of those surveyed proposed that transportation problems could be solved by reducing public transport fares and by increasing the capacity of such transport. Such improvements would entail an increase in operating hours for all
forms of public transport during the event. The discounting of ticket prices was advocated by 7.2% of the respondents, in order to encourage locals to attend the games. A few (4.8%) of the respondents indicated that an efficient way of mitigating the potential increase in the prices of goods and services would be if the government were to implement strict price control measures aimed at regulating price increases for the duration of the games.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.14: Suggestions for addressing any problems experienced during the event (n=406, in %). Multiple responses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Suggestions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upgrade accommodation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upgrade health facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upgrade transport network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulate ticketing procedures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulate prices</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6 Residents' interest in football
To determine the residents’ interest in football, the respondents were required to select given statements that best described their level of interest in football. Sutton, McDonald, Milne and Cimperman (1997:17) assert that not all fans display the same level of preference for, or devotion and commitment to, their favourite team. They identify three levels of interest, namely low (social fans), medium (focused fans), and high (vested fans). Based on the above classification, the results are detailed in the following subsections.

4.6.1 Interest in football as a spectator
Respondents were asked to summarise their interest in football as a spectator (see Table 4.15 below). An almost equal amount of responses was received from those residents who considered themselves to be avid fans (39.9%), and those who expressed an interest in the sport and watched it when they could (39.4%). Another 10.5% considered themselves not to be interested in the sport as such, but as being sometimes obliged to attend, or to watch, a game, due to the influence of friends and family. Furthermore, 6.2% of the respondents stated that they considered themselves
as being not particularly interested in the sport, but as enjoying the game when it came to their area. The remaining 4% recorded no interest at all in the sport or its related festivities, even when it was hosted in their area of residence. In sum, such findings in this regard depict, in overall terms, a high level of interest in football among those African immigrants who resided in Cape Town at the time of the current study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am an avid fan of the sport, and always try to attend or watch it on TV.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am interested in the sport and watch it when I can.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not particularly interested in the sport, but enjoy watching it when it comes to our area.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not interested in the sport, but sometimes attend or watch it because family or friends are interested in it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have no interest in this sport, or in the associated festivities, even when it is held in my area.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.2 Level of interest in soccer as a recreational activity

Respondents were next asked to indicate their level of interest in football as a recreational activity (see Table 4.16 below). The majority of respondents (38.1%) noted that they occasionally participated in soccer socially, while 16.6% said that they had previously participated in soccer, but had not done in recent years. A similar number of respondents (16%) claimed to be keen participants in the sport, who were regularly involved in it, though not in any formal competition. A further 14.9% of the respondents reported having absolutely no interest in participating recreationally in soccer, with the number of those who said that they were keen participants in the sport, and regularly were involved in club competitions (14.4%) being closely similar. Other than those who said that they occasionally participated in the sport, the results were fairly mixed.
Table 4.16: Level of interest in soccer as a recreational activity (n=406, in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I occasionally participate in the sport socially.</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I used to participate in the sport, but have not done so in recent years.</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am a keen participant in the sport, who is regularly involved in it, although not in any formal competition.</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have absolutely no interest in participating recreationally in the sport.</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am a keen participant in the sport, and am regularly involved in club competitions.</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.6.3 Attendance at soccer matches in Cape Town

As indicated by Figure 4.8 below, just more than half (56.2%) of African immigrants residing in Cape Town reported that they did not attend soccer matches hosted in Cape Town at the time of the survey, compared with 43.8% who did.

Figure 4.8: Attendance at soccer matches in Cape Town (n=406, in %)
The above finding reflected that a fair number of African immigrants residing in Cape Town tend to watch soccer matches that are held in Cape Town. The reasons stated for their attendance are presented below.

### 4.6.3.1 Reasons for attendance at soccer matches in Cape Town

As a follow-up to the preceding question, the respondents were asked to give their reasons for currently attending matches in Cape Town. Their responses, chosen from a list of different reasons provided, are presented in Table 4.14 below. Of those resident African immigrants who said that they attended matches in Cape Town \((n=203)\), the majority (62.5%) reported an interest in soccer as being their main reason for attending the matches. Some (15%) noted that attending matches provided them with an opportunity to meet new friends and to socialise, while 13% related their attendance to the idea of contributing towards the development of the sport in South Africa and the rest of the African continent. Slightly fewer respondents (11%) thought that doing so was a suitable way in which to relax. Interestingly, none of the respondents attributed their attending games to them possessing complimentary tickets, or as a result of the fact that they were compelled to attend the game because it was sponsored by their company.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interested in soccer</td>
<td>62.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opportunity to make new friends</td>
<td>15.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want the sport to develop</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A way in which to relax</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complimentary tickets</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company sponsored the game, so have to attend</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4.6.4 Anticipated attendance at 2010 FIFA World Cup™ matches

In order to ascertain whether resident African immigrants in Cape Town would attend matches during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they would attend the event. Table 4.18 reveals that a large majority (77.5%) said that they intended to attend the matches, compared with 22.5% who said that they did not. The finding augured well for attendance levels at the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.
matches, reflecting the respondents’ zeal to attend Africa’s first-ever World Cup and to be part of its legacy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>22.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.18: Anticipated attendance at 2010 FIFA World Cup™ matches**

(n=406, in %)

### 4.6.4.1 Choice of host cities at which to watch matches

Organisers of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ identified the following nine host cities for the hosting of games: Johannesburg; Durban; Cape Town; Port Elizabeth; Bloemfontein; Nelspruit; Polokwane; Rustenburg; and Pretoria (FIFA, 2009a). As such, those respondents who intended to attend 2010 World Cup matches were asked to indicate the host cities that they were likely to visit in order to watch the games. As some might have been able to attend the matches in multiple host cities, it was deemed fit to allow multiple responses in this regard. The findings that are represented in Figure 4.9 below reveal that the majority (74.1%) of the respondents preferred to watch matches in Cape Town. Such a result was to have been expected, considering that the city was their base and, more importantly, that it would host one of the semi-final games. Johannesburg (13.3%) and Durban (5.4%) were also popular, highlighting their prominence as destinations of choice to both international and domestic visitors. Projected attendance levels at other host cities were noted to be low, with 2.5% choosing to attend matches in Pretoria, 1.7% each Port Elizabeth and Polokwane, 1.2% each for Bloemfontein and Rustenburg and 1% for Nelspruit.
Choice of host city to watch matches during the 2010 FIFA World Cup (n=374, in%). Multiple responses

4.6.4.2 Mode of transport

Table 4.19 below presents the result of the findings regarding the mode of transport that resident African immigrants intended to use to travel to different cities in order to watch the World Cup matches. The majority of the respondents (60%) indicated that they would travel by bus, while 24.1% intended using their own car. In addition, 18.9% indicated that they intended to fly there by aeroplane, and 8.9% said that they would use the train. A smaller percentage (5.2%) said that they preferred attending while on an organised tour, while 2% intended to hire a car to get to the matches. The remaining (2.7%) indicated other means, noting that they opted to make use of a friend’s car or to walk as a means of getting to the match.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of transport</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bus</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Own vehicle</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aeroplane</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Train</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organised tour</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hired vehicle</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.6.4.3 Amount willing to pay for World Cup tickets

The possession of a World Cup match ticket was very important to allow individuals to be able to enter the stadium and to watch matches. According to FIFA (2009b), tickets for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ cost between R490 and R6 300, depending on the category of ticket required. In the current study, respondents were asked how much they paid or were willing to pay for World Cup tickets. The amounts were captured in different categories, as are presented in Table 4.20 below. The results indicate that the majority of respondents (40.2%) were willing to pay less than R100 for a ticket, highlighting the current financial difficulties faced by African immigrants residing in Cape Town. Some respondents (15.4%) were willing to pay between R101 and R200 per ticket. Other respondents (13.2%) reported that they would be prepared to pay between R201 and R300 and 8.1% were willing to pay between R301 and R400 per ticket. The above prices are below the official ticket prices for the FIFA World Cup.

Of the respondents, 15.3% said that they were willing to pay between R401 and R500 per ticket compared with only 1% of the respondents who were willing to pay above R500 per ticket. However, 6.8% indicated other amounts, indicating that they would be prepared to pay any amounts, depending on the magnitude of the game, while others simply were willing to pay whatever it took to watch the matches. Overall, respondents indicated a high level of willingness to purchase tickets for the 2010 event and could have signified high levels of match attendance during the event, the only downside factor in this respect being that the vast majority (92.3%) of the respondents wanted to pay less than the official ticket prices for the matches, which ranged from R490.00 to R6 300.00 per ticket.
### Table 4.20: Amount willing to pay for World Cup ticket (n=264, in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount in Rands</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;100</td>
<td>40.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101–200</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>201–300</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>301–400</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>401–500</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;500</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.6.4.4 Reasons for not attending 2010 FIFA World Cup™ matches

In order to determine factors that prevented resident African immigrants in Cape Town from attending the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ matches, those respondents who indicated that they would not be attending World Cup matches were required to choose from reasons summarised in Table 4.21 below. Of the 22.5% who indicated that they would not be attending any 2010 FIFA World Cup™ matches, the majority of respondents (60%) said that their reason for not attending World Cup matches was the fact that they would not be able to afford to purchase tickets. The finding was consistent with the preceding question in relation to the respondents’ willingness to acquire such tickets, with the majority stating that they were not willing to spend more than R100 on a ticket. As has been found in the past, attendance at sporting events, as noted by James and Ross (2004:18), tends to be greatly influenced by ticket pricing issues. Furthermore, quite a few of the respondents (25%) preferred to watch matches on television, while 15% said they were not interested in soccer.

### Table 4.21: Reason for not attending 2010 World Cup matches (n=90, in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Will not be able to afford to purchase tickets</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prefer to watch game on TV</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not interested in soccer</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.6.5 Willingness to watch World Cup matches on television

The current study also determined whether the respondents would consider watching 2010 FIFA World Cup™ matches on television, with the responses being presented in Figure 4.10 below. The significant majority of the respondents (82.4%) said they
would consider watching such matches on television, compared with the 17.6% who would not. No matter which means was used to watch 2010 FIFA World Cup™ matches, viewership of the mega-event was expected to be high, as was the case with previous events of the same nature (Allmers & Maennig, 2008).

![Figure 4.10: Willingness to watch World Cup matches on television (n=406)](image)

### 4.6.6 Willingness to watch World Cup matches at PVAs

Maennig and Porsche (2008), note that the aspect of public viewing has gained ground in sport mega-events. PVAs serve as points at which football tourists and those members of the public who are not able to purchase tickets or to travel to match venues can, nevertheless, view the matches. Swart and Bob (2009:53) confirm that PVAs create opportunities for access to the matches, thereby facilitating participation in the matches and social interaction among the respondents by providing dedicated viewing areas for their use. In the current study, respondents were asked to state whether they would consider using PVAs to watch matches. The results, as depicted in Figure 4.11 below, show that the majority of the respondents (69.6%) were prepared to make use of this facility, while 30.4% were not. This result seems to support the growing popularity of PVAs, which should be made available at mega-events as an alternative way of viewing the matches for non-ticketed fans. Moreover, the fact that the 2010 event was being hosted on the African continent for the first time was of importance, due to the fact that travel costs, including the ability to purchase game tickets, have been noted as being barriers to African participation (Tichaawa & Swart, 2010).
Figure 4.11: Willingness to watch matches at PVAs ($n=406$)

4.6.6.1 Willingness to pay for access to PVAs
As a follow-up question to the one above, the respondents were asked whether they would be willing to pay to gain access to PVAs. According to the results, 67% of the respondents reported not being willing to pay for such a facility, thereby justifying making such access to such facilities for the 2010 event free of charge. Despite such a finding, the 31.8% who said that they were willing to pay to enter to PVAs is noteworthy.

4.6.6.2 Amount willing to pay for access to PVAs
Haferburg et al. (2009:175) note, in general, that there are no access restrictions for the public, and no registration required to use PVAs, although, in some cases, a fee might be charged. Those respondents ($n=129$) who indicated their willingness to pay a fee to gain entrance to 2010 PVAs were asked to indicate how much they were willing to pay for such entrance. Of the 129 respondents who responded to the question, 57% were willing to pay between R1 and R50 each, while 20.3% were willing to pay between R51 and R100. Others (2.3%) reported that they would be prepared to pay between R101 and R200 each, with a similar number (1.6%) saying that they would be willing to pay more than R200 each. However, 18.8% of the respondents did not state an amount. As previously mentioned, entrance to the PVAs for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was free. The willingness amongst respondents to
pay a minimal amount as an entrance fee indicated their readiness to support the event.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount in Rands</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1–50</td>
<td>57.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51–100</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101–200</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;200</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.22: Amount willing to pay for entrance to PVA (n=129, in %)

4.7   Level of involvement in the 2010 FIFA World Cup™
Residents’ involvement in the planning and execution of mega-events has been identified as one of the important aspects that determine the success of mega-events. This notion is underscored by Ntloko and Swart (2008:80), who assert that involving people of the host community directly or indirectly in the process is an essential part of both sport and tourism, and is important for the sustained existence of the events. Therefore, adopting and maintaining such an approach would enable event organisers to minimise the negative impacts of similar events. The following subsection of the current study presents findings in relation to the level of involvement of resident African immigrants in Cape Town and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

4.7.1 Participation in the 2010 FIFA World Cup™
Respondents were asked to indicate whether they intended to participate in the event. The result, in terms of a yes/no response, is illustrated in Figure 4.12 below. Participation levels in this regard were noted as being particularly high, as the vast majority of respondents (85.5%) responded in the affirmative to the question, with the remaining 14.5% indicating the negative.
4.7.2 Involvement in 2010 FIFA World Cup™-related activities

To determine the different types of activities that African immigrants will engage in during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, those respondents who answered the preceding question in the affirmative were asked to identify those activities in which they were likely to be involved from a list of given options, as seen in Table 4.23, which represents the results obtained to the question under consideration. According to the findings, most respondents (44.8%) said that their involvement would entail their participation as fans or spectators during matches, while 20% planned to engage in volunteering in various ways. A lesser percentage (10.8%) of respondents indicated that they were not sure about their answer. Few (8.6%) of the respondents were involved by way of hosting visitors. Those who said that they would be directly employed (6.4%) and those who remained uncertain, or did not know, about their answers (5.4%) were closely similar in number.
Table 4.23: Involvement in the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (n=406, in%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity in which involved</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>As a spectator at soccer matches</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As a volunteer</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hosting visitor/relative attending event</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directly employed</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertain / Don’t know</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7.3 Current initiatives undertaken in preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

In addition to the activities involved in by African immigrants residing in Cape Town and the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, current initiatives undertaken by respondents that were borne as a result of such hosting were also ascertained. Respondents were asked to indicate any initiatives in which they were engaged at the time of the present study, in preparation for the 2010 event. According to the findings, out of the 368 respondents who responded to the question, most (36.7%) said that they were, at the time, starting up their own small businesses, which could benefit them both during and after the event. The finding corresponds with that of Laher (2008) that African immigrants are good at creating employment opportunities for themselves and locals when the opportunity presents itself.

Furthermore, 20% of the respondents had submitted applications to the relevant authority in charge of volunteering during the event, highlighting the importance of such an activity, even to various demographic groups, including African immigrants. Moreover, Ingerson (2001) notes that the roles of volunteers is widely recognised as contributing an important economic and cultural dimension to the effective operation of mega sporting events. Public recognition of the contribution of volunteers to major sporting events is widely heralded.

Joining existing fan clubs (18.7%) and starting up a new fan club (3.7%) were other initiatives noted as being activities in which respondents were involved at the time of the study. The remaining 11.2% of respondents reported that they were engaged in other initiatives, including in saving up money to buy World Cup tickets, and conducting research for use in future investments, amongst others.
Table 4.24: Initiatives currently engaged in, in preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (n=368, in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Initiative</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Start up my own business</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apply for volunteer programme</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Join existing fan club</td>
<td>18.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Start a fan club</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7.4 Interest in receiving updates on the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and related opportunities

As noted by Arrey (2008), the media form a very informative and educative mode of communication to the public, which can influence people’s perceptions of a sporting event; consequently, their use should be encouraged by organisers of events. Communication and marketing have been identified as major driving tools of the success of mega-events. Hence, respondents were asked whether they would like to be updated on events and opportunities related to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The results shown by Figure 4.13 indicate a high level of willingness to be updated on events and related opportunities, with 88.1% of respondents answering the question in the affirmative. Only 11.9% answered the question in the negative. The willingness to be updated about the event might have highlighted the appetite to benefit socio-economically from any opportunity that arose from South Africa’s hosting of the event.
4.7.4.1 Mode of updates on 2010 events and opportunities

For local residents to be fully engaged in such mega sporting events as the FIFA World Cup™, information had to be properly communicated to them. Swart and Bob (2009:125) confirm that a multimedia approach to the dissemination of information should be adopted. Findings from their study indicate that event organisers and officials must consider a range of communication strategies, and information must be presented in a manner that is easily available to local residents. In terms of how the respondents would have liked to be updated on the events and opportunities related to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, Table 4.25 indicates that most of the respondents (48%) said that they preferred to be updated by means of television. Their answer enforces the strong nature of television as a very powerful tool for media communication, as was previously mentioned. In recent years, the use of email as a global form of communication, coupled with Internet facilities, has been identified as a more effective and faster means of reaching a wider audience. In line with such thinking, similar results were obtained from the respondents who want to be informed by email (29.6%) and from those who opted to be informed by Internet websites (28.8%). A further 25.6% wanted to be reached by SMS and 20% by newspaper. Other choices were for radio (13.8%) and posters (11.3%).

Although the use of different types of associations has been identified as a major means of settlement and integration by African immigrants in their new host
communities, as noted by Takougang and Tidjani (2009), relatively little information was found to be disseminated through such associations, with only 5.2% of the respondents preferring to be informed by community meetings, and 4.7% by friends. The split in results across the different modes of communication indicates that stakeholders should have made use of different approaches to communicating with residents about the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

Table 4.25: Modes of updates on 2010 event and related opportunities 

\( (n=406, \text{ in } \%) \text{. Multiple responses} \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode of update</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>48.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMS</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspapers</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posters</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community meetings</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7.4.2 Updates on 2010 FIFA World Cup™ stadium development

In terms of receiving updates pertaining to 2010 FIFA World Cup™ development in Cape Town, the majority of African immigrants residing in the city (81.7%) indicated that they would like to be updated on the development of the stadiums in their area, while 18.3% indicated that they would not.
4.7.4.3 Mode of updates on 2010 FIFA World Cup™ stadium development

A follow-up question was asked of those respondents who indicated that they would like to receive updates with regards to stadium development. Similarly to the question covered in subsection 4.7.4.1 above, the respondents were asked to indicate via which modes of updating they would like to receive information on stadium development in their areas. According to the results presented in Table 4.26 below, 47% said that they preferred to be informed by television, 26.8% by the Internet, 24.6% by newspapers, 19.2% by email, and 14.3% by SMS. Other responses for preferred modes of communication included posters (13.8%), the radio (8.9%) community meetings (3.7%), and friends (4.4%). The result obtained reflected similar thinking to the above, stressing the importance of using the different forms of communication indicated by the respondents.

Figure 4.14: Updates on 2010 FIFA World Cup™ stadium development (n=406)
Table 4.26: How respondents would like to be updated on stadium development in their area (n=406, in %). Multiple responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Television</td>
<td>47.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet</td>
<td>26.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newspapers</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email</td>
<td>19.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMS</td>
<td>14.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posters</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community meetings</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7.5 Suggestions from resident African immigrants on how to improve communication relating to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

In line with the discussion provided in subsections 4.7.4.1 to 4.7.4.3 above, the respondents were asked to provide possible suggestions as to how communication and the dissemination of information could be improved between 2010 stakeholders and residents. The responses, which were captured as multiple responses from the various respondents, are presented in Table 4.27 below. The results suggest that 32.4% of the respondents were satisfied with the level of communication prevalent at the time of the study. Similar results emerged from those who indicated that there should be an increase in the amount of television promotion (25.7%), and those who wanted an increase in the amount of coverage provided by the print media (25.7%). Another 22.8% of African immigrants residing in Cape Town said that stakeholders should make use of different international foreign languages when designing advertisements. Another 10.0% noted that community meetings should convey more information regarding the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ event, while 9.1% said that SMS should be used more for such a purpose. However, very few (6.7%) identified improvements through the Internet. A similar number of respondents (6.4%) indicated other means, such as door-to-door communication, and also the organising of other events or competitions, which could create awareness of such mega-events and serve as a forum for the sending out of messages.
Table 4.27: Suggestions on how to improve communication relating to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (n=224, in %). Multiple responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suggestion</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfied with the level of communication</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase television advertisement</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase the amount of print media (e.g. billboards)</td>
<td>25.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make use of different foreign languages across Africa</td>
<td>22.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use community meetings</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use SMS</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase Internet advertising</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.7.6 Respondents’ concerns about South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

To determine the possible negative impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, African immigrants residing in Cape Town were asked what their major concerns were with regards to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. As has been noted by such authors as Cornelissen and Swart (2006), stakeholders have to minimise any negative impacts that might result from the event and be able to justify the amount expended on hosting the event. Furthermore, major concerns are often associated with the negative effects of incidents occurring during the hosting of an event and might have lasting effects on the host communities afterwards (Bohlmann, 2006). Some of the negative impacts include violence, a negative image of the event among the host community, crime, and health issues (Tichaawa & Swart, 2010). Table 4.28 below represents the findings with regards to such concerns, as noted by the respondents.

The results in Table 4.28 below clearly show that an overwhelming majority of respondents (92.7%) noted increased levels of crime as one of their concerns regarding hosting of the event. The finding was not surprising when the degree of media reporting on crime levels in South Africa, both at national and international level, was brought into the equation. Such high levels of reporting, coupled with that of crime in South Africa, could have influenced the results. Furthermore, closely
related to the concern of increased crime levels due to the 2010 events was that of xenophobia. Given the spate of xenophobic attacks on African immigrants residing in South Africa, and in Cape Town in particular, prior to the study, as was previously cited in the literature review, such concern was expected to be major. However, the results of the study proved otherwise. Only 25.1% mentioned fearing xenophobic attacks. The findings of the study in relation to the two above-mentioned concerns are seen as being consistent with those unveiled by Chain (2009) and Tichaawa (2009), who both investigated residents’ perceptions of the same event, using different stakeholder groups.

Resident African immigrants were also worried about the potential increase in the cost of living as a result of hosting the 2010 event. Although fewer of the respondents (17.1%) noted such a concern, the matter should not be overlooked, because, as was explained in the discussion of secondary data presented in Chapter Two of the current study, hosting an event of this nature has the potential to lead to an increase in the cost of goods and services by those businesses that wish to profit from the event.

The percentages of those respondents who reported that they did not know whether they had any concerns (16.2%) and those who expressed concerns about increased levels of prostitution and the potential spread of HIV/Aids (16%), and about the poor performance of the South African national team (Bafana Bafana) during the tournament (15.8%) were closely similar.

Further analysis of data showed that the remaining respondents were concerned about the sustainability of the new facilities, including the stadiums (7.7%), about South Africa’s hosting the event successfully on behalf of the African continent for the first time (6.4%), and about health-related issues (4.3%). Those respondents who had absolutely no concerns made up 4.3% of the total.
### Table 4.28: Respondents’ major concerns about South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (n=229, in %). Multiple responses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concern</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increase in crime levels</td>
<td>92.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xenophobia</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in the cost of living</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prostitution</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor performance of the South African national team</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of sustainability of new facilities</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inability to host a successful event</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health problems</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## 4.8 Perceptions and expectations

In order to determine the perceptions and attitudes of African immigrants residing in Cape Town regarding the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, a range of statements was designed around the 2010 event and put forward to respondents. The traditional 5-point Likert-type scale was used, with the following options being made available as responses: SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; N = neutral; A = agree; and SA = strongly agree. Due to the close relationship between SA and A, as well as between SD and D, in certain instances the results were grouped together for greater clarity. A summary of the findings in relation to the residents’ perceptions, attitudes and reactions to the impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ are presented in Table 4.29 through to Table 4.36 in the following subsections.

### 4.8.1 Entertainment value of the event

According to Malfas et al. (2004), mega sport events can be seen as sport festivities, because they can provide socio-cultural benefits to the citizens of host communities. Respondents were asked whether they believed that South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ provided them with an opportunity to attend a landmark event. According to the data obtained (see Table 4.29 below), a large majority of the respondents (89.7%) agreed with such a statement, thereby underscoring the uniqueness of a mega-event. Besides, in the history of the FIFA World Cup™ and
African football in particular, the 2010 tournament was the first to be hosted on the African continent. Studies related to the attendance of Africans at previous events have indicated that such attendance has been low, whereas the 2010 World Cup offered the opportunity to experience such an event and to be part of history. Relatively few of the respondents (6.4%) assumed a neutral standing in regard to the statement, with the remaining 5.9% disagreeing with it.

In another statement related to the entertainment value of the event, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they thought that the 2010 event would provide an opportunity for them to have fun with family and friends. As was the case with the previous statement, the majority of respondents (86.2%) agreed with the statement. A few (11.1%) were neutral about the assertion, with 2% totally disagreeing with it. In another statement that was closely related to the above, and with an almost identical result, 89% of the respondents agreed that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would provide an opportunity to meet new people and relatives. Only 8.7% were neutral about the statement, whereas 2% disagreed with it.

<p>| Table 4.29: Entertainment value of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (n=406, in %) |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Level of agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will provide an opportunity to attend a landmark event.</td>
<td>54.5 33.2 6.4 1.2 4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will provide an opportunity to have fun with family and friends.</td>
<td>40.8 45.4 11.1 2.0 0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will provide an opportunity to meet new people and relatives.</td>
<td>45.8 43.6 8.7 2.0 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will increase entertainment opportunities for African immigrants.</td>
<td>40.3 36.4 16.3 1.7 5.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Furthermore, when they were asked whether they thought that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would increase entertainment opportunities for African immigrants specifically, 76.7% agreed with the notion. However, nuances in the answers suggested a degree of uncertainty about the statement, albeit to a minimal extent, with 16.3% taking a neutral stance on it, and 6.9% disagreeing with it. The above findings
support the previous argument put forward by Shone and Parry (2004:54) that events help to promote social interaction and to develop community cohesion in host regions. Such may be the case for African immigrants and in relation to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa, in the light of the country having a segregated past and a history of xenophobia.

4.8.2 Use of public money on the 2010 World Cup event
As previously indicated in Chapter Two of the current thesis, such researchers as Saayman (2001) and Matheson and Baade (2003) have noted that, often, the expenditure on the hosting of mega-events is seen as a waste of financial resources that could have been spent on meeting the more pressing needs of the host communities. With such a view in mind, and against the backdrop of South Africa’s history, which has been characterised by social inequality, it was felt necessary to test the level of support for the use of public money in supporting the development of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The results, which are presented in Table 4.30 below, are discussed next.

When asked if the respondents felt that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was a waste of public money, the majority of respondents (81.2%) disagreed with the statement. The result reflects the strong level of support for the government’s decision to invest in the event among African immigrants residing in Cape Town. Moreover, only 10.4% of the respondents stated that they thought that the event was a waste of public funds and 8.5% were not able to assume a position regarding the matter, and therefore remained neutral about it.

To further probe the issue of funds, a similar statement to the above-mentioned was put forward to respondents, but this time insisting that the money could be channelled towards other activities. The results paint a slightly different picture. Although the majority of the respondents (56.7%) disagreed with the statement indicating a positive support for the use of funds to host the events, with 23.3% of the respondents agreeing with it, and up to 20% expressing their neutrality about it, signifying their dissatisfaction with it, or their lack of certainty about it. The finding could have been influenced by the fact that respondents felt that the expenditure could well have been directed towards sponsoring poverty alleviation, including job
creation, programmes as well as fighting such social ills as crime and HIV/Aids, which are deemed problematic in South Africa.

The findings, therefore conflict with those of Chain’s (2009) study, in which residents of Green Point indicated that too much money was being spent on the event. The difference in findings might be as a result of the fact that most African immigrants, as was previously revealed in the current study, are interested in football, and hence did not mind the amount of money that was being spent on the event.

| Table 4.30: Use of public money on the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (n=406, in %) |
|-----------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| Statement                                  | Level of agreement |
|                                             | SA  | A   | N   | D   | SD  |
| The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ is a waste of public money. | 4.5 | 5.9 | 8.4 | 17.1| 64.1 |
| Too much money is being spent on the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ that could be spent on other activities. | 13.4| 9.9 | 20.0| 28.5| 28.2 |

4.8.3 Perceived economic benefits of the 2010 World Cup event
Saayman and Rossouw (2008) note that the forecasted economic impacts of sport mega-events are the basis on which many decisions are made in relation to how an event should benefit a host nation or destination. In order to determine the perceptions of African immigrants residing in Cape Town regarding the socio-economic benefits of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, relevant statements in this regard were put forward to such residents, as is shown in Table 4.31, which also presents the results obtained.

The respondents were asked whether they thought that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would create more business opportunities for African immigrants. A considerable number of respondents (67.3%) agreed with the statement, concurring with previous assertions that were gathered in the literature review of the current study that most African immigrants residing in South Africa were entrepreneurs who wished to capitalise on any business opportunity envisaged. A few of the respondents (19.8%) were neutral about the statement, with only 12.9% disagreeing with it. Amongst many benefits usually put forward as a result of the hosting of mega-events is job creation. As projected by Grant Thornton (2007), it was thought that
over 218,600 sustained jobs would be created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. In the light of the current and preliminary figures revealed above, the respondents in the current study were asked to indicate whether they thought that African immigrants would benefit from such job creation. The results in this regard were not straightforward, because, although the majority of respondents (59.7%) agreed with the statement, the 24.5% who assumed a neutral standing on the statement cannot be overlooked and, in addition, the 15.8% of respondents who disagreed with the statement further suggests a degree of uncertainty with such a notion.

Table 4.31: Economic benefits of the 2010 World Cup event (n=406, in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Level of agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will create more business opportunities for African immigrants.</td>
<td>SA 35.6 A 31.7 N 19.8 D 7.2 SD 5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African immigrants will benefit from jobs created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.</td>
<td>SA 24.6 A 35.1 N 24.5 D 6.9 SD 8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will only create jobs for South Africans.</td>
<td>SA 13.6 A 24.8 N 18.3 D 15.3 SD 28.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ is good for African immigrant businesses, increasing their turnover.</td>
<td>SA 27.0 A 38.4 N 17.6 D 10.6 SD 6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African immigrants will directly benefit economically from the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.</td>
<td>SA 15.1 A 32.4 N 25.5 D 21.0 SD 5.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In a similar statement to the one above, the respondents were asked whether they felt that the jobs created as a result of the 2010 event would only be made available to South African citizens. Interestingly, the results were almost halved between those respondents who disagreed with the statement (43.3%) and those who agreed with it (38.4%). The finding might have been influenced by the fact that most African immigrants think that finding work in South Africa is particularly difficult for them. Moreover, the majority of those surveyed in the current study were students, who, in any case, are not permitted to work as a given condition of them being allowed to stay in the country. The remaining 18.3% of the respondents were neutral about the statement.
When asked whether the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was good for businesses owned by African immigrants residing in Cape Town, because of the potential increase in turnover, the majority (65.4%) of respondents agreed with the statement. Considering that most immigrant businesses, especially those located around Greenmarket Square and the St Georges Mall area, sell locally made arts and crafts and souvenirs and depend largely on increased tourist volume for sales, the respondents might have seen the 2010 event, which was bound to attract a large number of visitors, in the same light. A similar percentage of responses indicated neutrality (17.6%) and disagreement with the statement (17%).

To sum up the perceptions of the respondents regarding the economic benefits to be gained from South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 World Cup, the respondents were asked whether they thought that resident African immigrants would directly benefit economically from the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Much uncertainty was expressed in this regard, despite 47.5% agreeing with the statement, many respondents (25.9%) disagreed with the statement, with a similar number (25.5%) remaining neutral on it.

4.8.4 Perceived negative social impact of the 2010 World Cup event

Mega-events have the ability to impact upon the daily lives of the residents in the communities in which they are hosted. Some such impacts include increased levels of crime, overcrowding and congestion, as well as increased noise levels (Ohmann et al., 2006). Various statements in this regard were designed and put forward to the respondents in the current study. The following paragraphs in this subsection present the findings with regards to social issues that might have affected local communities in South Africa as a result of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, as perceived by African immigrants residing in Cape Town (see Table 4.32 on pg 132).

Hall (1998) contends that the hosting of mega sporting events has often been associated with the disruption of the daily lives of locals, and that such disruptions might come in the form of the displacement of communities’ residential areas or businesses as a result of the construction of facilities prior to, or the displacement of traffic flow during, the event itself. Therefore, in the current study, the respondents were asked whether they thought that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would disrupt and inconvenience the lives of the local residents. The results, as can be seen in Table 4.32, were inconclusive because, despite nearly half of the
respondents (49.5%) disagreeing with the statement, and thereby refuting Hall’s (1998) above-mentioned findings, almost as many as (38.1%) of the respondents agreed with the statement, with 12.4% choosing to remain neutral about it. The implication of the finding is that stakeholders in the 2010 event needed to consider such concerns and to design appropriate mechanisms for minimising the effects of such concerns.

In another statement that was aimed at further gauging perceptions with regards to the social impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the respondents were asked to state their positions as to whether the 2010 event would cause significant overcrowding, traffic congestion and parking difficulties. The question was posed because, as Higham (1999:86) argues, such issues are commonly associated with large-scale sporting events. That the majority of the respondents (68.8%) in the current study agreed with the statement is, therefore, not surprising. Although major infrastructural upgrades, including road construction, were being undertaken at the time of the study, such a finding might have been influenced by the traffic congestion being simultaneously experienced in Cape Town, including, in particular, the parking difficulties being encountered in the Central Business District (CBD). A similar number of responses were received from those respondents (15.8%) who assumed a neutral standing on the issue.

Increased noise levels are clearly related to such an event and to the number of people attending it. Geared towards the preparation of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the expanded use of the ‘African trumpet’ or the ‘vuvuzela’ had been at the centre of a rising debate amongst stakeholders, with some of them calling for its ban from 2010 matches due to the noise level that it causes (Guselli, 2010). In addition, official FIFA Fan Parks, Municipal Fan Parks and other forms of PVAs had been planned for the duration of the event. Such facilities, although being designed to offer participation and entertainment opportunities during the event, also had the potential to increase noise levels during the event. Close to half (47.8%) of the respondents in the study agreed that the 2010 event would create excessive noise. Some respondents (30.2%), however, disagreed with the assertion, perhaps seeing such noise as forming part of the entertainment value or the ‘feel-good’ effect of the event. Fredline and Faulkner (2000) assert that noise is always considered as an individual
perception. Of the respondents, 22% could not assume a position on the statement, and therefore remained neutral on it.

Table 4.32: Disruption of daily lives by the 2010 World Cup event (n=406, in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Level of agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 event will disrupt the lives of local residents and create inconvenience.</td>
<td>SA 15.8 A 22.3 N 12.4 D 18.8 SD 30.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 event will cause significant overcrowding, traffic congestion and parking difficulties.</td>
<td>SA 33.9 A 34.9 N 15.8 D 9.9 SD 5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 event will create excessive noise.</td>
<td>SA 18.8 A 29.0 N 22.0 D 19.8 SD 10.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 event will lead to an increase in crime</td>
<td>SA 39.4 A 21.0 N 19.8 D 10.6 SD 9.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Barker (2004) asserts that, on an international scale, the opportunity to engage in criminal activities at sport events increases significantly. He further notes that crime tends to range from that, which is highly organised, through hooliganism, to that which is opportunistic, such as robbery and assaults. According to such researchers as Bob et al. (2006) and Tichaawa (2009), South Africa is globally recognised as a crime destination. The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ put the country under the microscope of both the local and international media that constantly questioned its ability to combat crime and, more importantly, to provide adequate security for an event on the scale of the World Cup. Understanding the perceptions of crime at host destinations, therefore, was essential to providing pragmatic information geared towards the planning and management of the event. The findings of the current study in relation to crime indicate that the majority (60.4%) of African immigrants residing in Cape Town thought that the 2010 event would lead to an increase in crime. Such findings might have been influenced by two distinct factors: firstly, by the increased levels of media reporting on crime, and, secondly, by the respondents’ experiences in relation to crime, especially as seen against the backdrop of the xenophobic attacks that took place across South Africa, and in Cape Town in particular, in 2008, as was previously discussed. The 19.8% that remained neutral on the statement, and the same percentage that disagreed with the statement, should not be overlooked.
As noted in Chapter Two, another potential negative effect that might arise from the hosting of mega-events is the potential increase in the price of goods and services during the event by those businesses that might want to capitalise on the increase in demand, of which the local residents might feel the effects. Table 4.33 below represents the perceptions of African immigrants residing in Cape Town in relation to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and the related potential increase in prices of goods and services.

The respondents were asked to respond to the statement that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would lead to an increase in the price of goods and services. According to the results, a significant number of respondents (78%) agreed with the statement, showing genuine concerns in this regard. The result justifies the previous assertions made in Chapter Two of the current study, which indicated an area of concern that required further investigation by relevant stakeholders in the 2010 event. Relatively few respondents (15.8%) were neutral about the statement, compared with the 6.2% that disagreed with it.

When the above statement was changed to reflect an increase in the overall cost of living during the event, the results largely remained the same, with 79.2% of the respondents agreeing with the statement, reflecting an increase of 1.2% over the previously obtained result. Those who were neutral on the statement made up 14.9% of the respondents, representing a drop by 1.1% compared with the percentage that expressed neutrality about the previous statement, with the remaining 6% disagreeing with the statement. In essence, the findings relative to costs in the current study concurred with those of Preuss (2006), who note that hosting mega-events can cause increases in the price of goods, services and property, hence providing an economic and social liability for the local communities involved.

| Table 4.33: Increases in price of goods and services due to the 2010 World Cup event (n=406, in %) |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Statement                        | Level of agreement |
|                                 | SA   | A     | N     | D     | SD    |
| The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will lead to an increase in the price of goods and services. | 37.2 | 40.8  | 15.8  | 4.0   | 2.2   |
| During the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the overall cost of living will increase. | 46.5 | 32.7  | 14.9  | 3.5   | 2.5   |
4.8.5 Perceived social benefits of the 2010 World Cup event

Major sporting events have been noted dramatically to improve how people in a host city or community view themselves and their community. The FIFA World Cup™ which was hosted by South Africa during June/July 2010, being the first such event to be hosted on the African continent in the history of FIFA, was widely publicised by the host nation as an ‘African World Cup’, due to its potential for benefiting and uniting the entire African continent (South African Tourism, 2007).

In the current study, the respondents were asked whether they thought that the 2010 event would make them proud of Cape Town and of South Africa in general. Despite many of the respondents (59.7%) agreeing with the statement, there were nuances to suggest otherwise, considering those who remained neutral on the issue (25.7%). Moreover, 14.6% disagreed with the statement.

Another statement related to community pride was put forward to the respondents, in which they were asked whether they believed that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would improve the relationship between local residents and the African immigrants. The findings with regards to this statement were inconclusive, as, although 45.6% of the respondents agreed with the statement, 28.4% disagreed with it, and those who remained neutral (26%) suggested otherwise. Moreover, in South Africa and the Western Cape, derogatory terms have been used by local South Africans to describe African immigrants, according to Krochmal (2000). One such negative term is ‘amakwerekwere’, which conveys the phonetic sound of foreign African languages, and which is often used in an attempt to ridicule foreigners. Use of the term has created tensions between locals and African immigrants (Makoni & Makoni, 2007). In addition, as has been previously mentioned, the recent spate of xenophobic attacks on such immigrants could not be discounted.

Despite the above results, such authors as Maennig and Porsche (2008:1) noted that, the successful hosting of mega-events could lead to the generation of a sense of well-being and serve to boost national pride, which, as the net result of beneficial effects of personal experiences and leisure, tends to lead to enhanced social cohesion and increased civic pride. As such, those African immigrants who represented the sample of the current study were asked whether they saw the hosting of the 2010 event as providing them with a sense of belonging. Interestingly,
the results reveal that the majority of African immigrants (57.4%) agreed with the statement. Although 25.2% were neutral on the statement, and 17.3% disagreed with it, the finding provides a potential basis for an investigation into the possibility of using the phenomenon of the World Cup in South Africa to further unite and integrate African immigrants residing in the country or who were the victims of xenophobic attacks. Such a study might contribute towards attaining the predefined intentions of the African legacy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Level of agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 event will make African immigrants feel more proud of the city/country in which they live.</td>
<td>28.0 31.7 25.7 4.7 9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will improve the relationship between local residents and African immigrants.</td>
<td>18.6 27.0 26.0 16.3 12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will provide African immigrants with a sense of belonging.</td>
<td>25.2 32.2 25.2 10.6 6.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.8.6 Attitude towards management and hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

Several authors of mega-event-related publications have postulated that the manner in which such events are planned, managed and executed broadly determines the host resident perceptions of the event. For example, Fredline (2006) notes that the extent to which local or host communities of mega sport events are involved in the planning and management of an event helps to determine whether they will embrace such an event. In contrast, hosting a mega-event of the magnitude of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ certainly places the host country on the global stage. Key aspects of the political economy of tourism and mega-events are seen to manifest themselves in the form of criticism and afro-pessimism vented. Most critiques of the 2010 event have pointed to South Africa’s ability to host the event and to achieve a positive legacy. In the current study, African immigrants residing in Cape Town were asked a series of questions in the form of statements with regards to the management and hosting of the event. The results obtained, which are presented in Table 4.35 below, are presented in the subsequent paragraphs.
The respondents were asked whether they thought that South Africa had the resources and potential to host a triumphant 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Despite negative perceptions in this regard, which have been noted as mainly emanating from developed nations, the perceptions of resident African immigrants in the study were noted as being highly positive, considering that a large majority of the respondents (86.9%) agreed with the above statement. Such thinking underlines the strong belief amongst communities of the country’s capabilities to host a successful event. The result might have also partly been influenced by the successful hosting of previous major events, as stated in the introductory chapter of the study. Only 8.2% of the respondents were neutral on the statement, with 4.9% disagreeing with it.

Table 4.35: Attitude towards the management and hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (n=406, in %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Level of agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa has the resources and potential to host a triumphant 2010</td>
<td>46.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIFA World Cup™.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa will attain a legendary sports event and achieve a legacy.</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residents can make a significant contribution by actively engaging in the</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management/hosting of the event.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental degradation will be given attention during the planning and</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>management phases of the event.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will influence African immigrants to engage in</td>
<td>28.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sporting activities.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to legacy, the respondents were asked whether they see the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa as achieving a legendary sports event legacy. As was the case with the previous result mentioned above, the large majority of the respondents (81.9%) agreed with the statement, compared with the 11.9% who were neutral about it, and the 6.2% that disagreed with it. Most notable of the few studies that have been undertaken into mega-event legacy are those conducted by Preuss (2007) and Swart and Bob (2009), who detail expected legacies of such events as the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The results attained in this regard might also
underline the level of understanding and expectations of post-event legacies within South African communities.

Another statement required resident African immigrants to say whether they thought that they could make a significant contribution in actively engaging in the management and hosting of the event. As was the case with the previous two statements above, several respondents (77%) agreed with the statement made in this regard, thereby signalling the importance of the involvement of local community members in the planning and management of the event. Hearing of such expectations from residents is encouraging, as it provides proof of them claiming ownership of the event. Of those surveyed, 17.6% expressed their neutrality on the statement, while only 5.4% disagreed with it.

One of the major concerns that emanates from the hosting of mega-events is issues regarding the environment. Kasper (1998) asserts that one of the most visible impacts of mega-events is the amount of natural environment that is used and the degree to which it is disrupted by the construction of roads, railways, car parks, and sport facilities. In the line of argument, the respondents of the study were asked whether they thought that the issue of environmental degradation would be given attention during the planning and management phases of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The results in this regard were not as straightforward as those discussed above. Despite the fact that 55.4% of the respondents agreed with the statement, the 31.9% who assumed a neutral standing on the statement cannot go unnoticed. Moreover, when such a result is read in line with the 12.6% of the respondents who disagreed with it, nuances emerge that point in another direction. The finding concerned is significant, as it underscores the need to adopt a comprehensive environmental initiative, such as Green Goal that takes into account preservation of the environment, and that aims to minimise potential environmental problems that might result from the event. In this way, mega-events are seen as being able to act as mechanisms that lead to greater environmental awareness and that help to focus on the need to preserve elements of the physical landscape and local heritage, which might otherwise have been ignored (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002).

The last statement covered in the present subsection relates to the influence of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ on African immigrants in regards to their engagement in
sporting activities. The majority of respondents (69.8%) agreed with the statement made in this regard, with those who were neutral on the statement comprising 21% of the total, compared with the 9.2% who disagreed with it. This finding also concurs with those made in previous studies, in which an increase in levels of participation in sport was noted as being one of the legacies of hosting such mega-events. A typical example of such a finding was that which was made in relation to the Olympic Games in Barcelona in 1992, as noted by Malfas et al. (2004).

4.9 Perceptions regarding the projected African legacy
In its bid to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the South African bidding team presented its bid as an ‘African Cup’ from the initial bidding stage onwards, giving the assurance that it would benefit the entire African continent socio-economically, in addition to leaving a valuable legacy (Cornelissen, 2004). As was previously stated in Chapter Two, the South African government, together with the LOC and the AU, adopted the ALP, which was aimed at making the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ a truly African affair (Swart & Bob, 2007). One of the key objectives of the current study was to determine resident African immigrants’ perceptions with regards to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and the associated African legacies. Such findings are discussed in the following subsection of the current study.

4.9.1 Level of awareness of ALP
To effectively gauge the perceptions of resident African immigrants regarding the African legacy to be gained from South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the departure point was first to ascertain their awareness regarding the projected legacy. Therefore, respondents were asked whether they were aware of the projected African legacy that is associated with the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ hosting. The results that are presented in Figure 4.15 indicate that the majority of respondents (61.1%) reported being aware of the ALP, while a fairly large percentage (38.9%) were not aware of the ALP.
4.9.2 Perceptions of the African legacy

Previous research that has been conducted into the mega-event legacy has shown that events like the FIFA World Cup™ and the Olympic Games have the ability to generate substantial socio-economic benefits, which are largely seen as legacies, for their host regions (Ohmann et al., 2006). Such legacies are embedded within the framework of the ALP, as detailed in Chapter Two. The current subsection presents the findings obtained from African immigrants residing in Cape Town in relation to their perceptions regarding the projected African legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. As in the case of the preceding question, the traditional Likert-type scale was used to gauge such perceptions, with the findings being represented by Table 4.36 page 141.

The respondents were asked whether the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would benefit other African countries as well. The answers received in response to the statement indicate that the majority of respondents (77.7%) agreed with the statement, compared with 12.4% of the respondents who disagreed with it, and the 9.9%, who took a neutral position on the statement. The finding in question is noted as important, particularly to those stakeholders who owned and managed the event, in that the expectations of legacy benefits remained high, with the need for comprehensive planning and execution of the legacy of the event being imperative.
Regarding the statement that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would accelerate the development of African football, the majority of respondents (79.5%) noted that such a statement was acceptable. The result obtained might have been partly influenced by the FIFA Football for Hope initiative, which aims to deliver football facilities in the form of football pitches across many African countries (FIFA, 2009b). Furthermore, the fact that the FIFA tournament and its accompanied developments was to take place on the African continent for the first time cannot be discounted. Only 11.1% of the respondents were neutral on the statement, with even fewer (9.4%) disagreeing with it.

Dolles and Soderman (2007) put forward an argument that, mega-events, when successfully hosted, provide opportunities for showcasing the tourism potential of the host region and for presenting other business-related opportunities. In the current study, the vast majority of respondents (94.1%) agreed with the statement that South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would increase the number of tourism and investment opportunities in Africa. Most of the respondents in the study might have seen an opportunity to showcase the enormous tourism potential that the continent possesses to the rest of the world, which might, in turn, increase visitor numbers to the continent, and hence the benefits to follow. The percentages of respondents who were neutral (3.5%) and of those who disagreed with the statement (2.4%) were noted as insignificant.

Bidding and securing the rights to host a mega-event is considered a monumental task, and, as Cornelissen (2006) puts it, involves processes that are embedded within politics as a whole. Before securing the rights to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, South Africa had failed in its 2006 bid (Alegi, 2001), as well as in its attempt to secure the hosting of another mega-event, the Olympic Games, in 2004 (Swart, 1999). In the light of such failure, the successful hosting of the 2010 event might, therefore, have been anticipated as giving credence to the fact that Africa could also host the Olympic Games. In the current study, the majority of respondents (72.5%) agreed that Africa stood a better chance of hosting more conferences and sporting events, due to its hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, although 17.1% were neutral on the related statement, and the remaining 10.4% disagreed with it.
Table 4.36: Perception of African legacy \( (n=406, \text{ in } \%) \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Level of agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other African countries will benefit from South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will accelerate the development of African football.</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will increase tourism and investment opportunities in Africa.</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa stands a better chance of hosting more conferences and sporting events by virtue of South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will foster relationships and lead to peace on the African continent.</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The whole African continent will benefit from South Africa hosting the 2010 World Cup.</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only countries close to South Africa will benefit from South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As was previously highlighted in Chapter Two of the current study, in an attempt to sell the idea of an ‘African World Cup’, South Africa’s former President Thabo Mbeki stressed that the event would assist with fostering peace on the African continent and would help to promote the idea of an African renaissance (Cornelissen, 2006). In adopting the ALP, one of the key objectives of African leaders was, therefore, to use the event to encourage peace and nation building (South Africa, 2007). In the current study, the respondents were asked whether they thought that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ would foster peace on the African continent. The results suggest a split in response. Although many respondents (52.7%) agreed with the statement, those who were neutral (24.5%) on it, and those who disagreed (23.2%) with it were seen suggested otherwise. The issues facing some of Africa’s war-ridden regions might be viewed as requiring more than the hosting of a mega-event to resolve. Nonetheless, with 52.7% of the respondents affirming the statement, mega-events, in the current case, are seen as a powerful tool for fostering peace.
A similar statement to that stating that other African countries would benefit from South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was again asked of the respondents. In this instance, the statement required respondents to state their positions on whether they thought that the whole African continent would benefit from the 2010 event. The result in the case of the above statement represents a significant shift in perception, compared with the responses provided to the first statement. Whereas 77.7% of the respondents agreed with the previous statement, only 44.3% of them agreed with the current statement. Several (31.1%) of the respondents disagreed with the later statement, with a notable 24.5% assuming a neutral standing on it.

Furthermore, in line with the above statement, the respondents were asked whether they thought that only those countries that were relatively close to South Africa would benefit from the hosting of the 2010 event. In this regard, many of the respondents (46.8%) agreed with the statement. Their agreement, however, must be read in context with those who disagreed (38.3%) with it, and those who were neutral (14.9%) on it.

4.10 Summary
Chapter Four provided a descriptive analysis of the perceptions of African immigrants residing in Cape Town and of South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its associated African legacy. Beyond the descriptive statistics, statistical (chi square) tests were conducted in relation to nationality, age, gender, degree of interest in football, income, previous attendance, and other factors. The results reflected no significant correlation or disparities, and were therefore not included in the discussion. The chapter was analysed based on the primary data and in line with the predefined objectives previously mentioned in Chapter One of the current study.

According to the findings, the demographic profile of the respondents indicated that most African immigrants were single (59%) men (71.2%), with an average age of 30 years. In addition for their main reason for coming to South Africa being to further their studies (43.2%), they had been resident in South Africa for between 1 to 5 years each, and earned an average income of R3 600.00 per month.

In general, 32% of the respondents considered sport tourism to be passive in nature,
while defining mega-events based on their magnitude (27.1%) and mass appeal (23.3%). Furthermore, the results also showed that over 70% of African immigrants residing in Cape Town were aware of previous events held in South Africa, with 56.6% identifying television as their main source of information about the 2010 event. The data also revealed that an overwhelming majority of African immigrants (99%) had never before attended a FIFA World Cup™ event, with 72.4% stating that the expense of travel was the main reason for them not having attended previously. Almost all the respondents 99.5% stated that they were aware that South Africa was going to be hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Increased levels of crime and xenophobia were cited as their major concerns regarding the hosting of the event.

In addition, 39.9% of the respondents indicated that they were involved in the sport of football in one way or the other, while 56.2 % stated that they did not attend soccer matches in Cape Town at the time of the study because they were not interested in soccer. Nevertheless, projected attendance at matches during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was noted as being considerably high, considering that 77.5% of the respondents specified that they would be attending such matches. Their favourite host city was Cape Town, as was expected, with 74.1% of those who planned to attend matches stating their preference for the city. Most planned to travel to the games by bus or their own car. Of the respondents, 60% also reported that their main reason for not attending World Cup matches was because they would not be able to afford to purchase game tickets. However, a significant 82.4% of such respondents said that they would consider watching matches on television, with another 69.6% reporting that they would use PVAs to watch such matches. Most of the respondents considered the World Cup to be bringing socio-economic benefits to African immigrants residing in Cape Town. Very few (10.4%) were of the view that the hosting of the event was a waste of public funds, although the perceptions of the majority (79.2%) were that the event would lead to an increase in the cost of living in their communities.

Residents also displayed a reasonably high level of awareness (59.7%) in relation to the projected African legacy forecasted for the African continent as a result of South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 event. In addition, many saw the event as a tool by means of which to foster peace in Africa, albeit to a minimal extent. However, perceptions with regards to Africa regarding the benefits to be gleaned from such
hosting remained split. Although respondents agreed that the event would bring in benefits, they were less sure of whether the benefits would be spread across the entire continent.

Having presented an analysis and discussion of the findings generated from the questionnaire survey in the current chapter, in the following and final chapter (Chapter Five) of this current study, conclusions are drawn, and recommendations made in relation to the objectives of the study. A direction for future research in this field of study is also indicated.
5.1 Introduction
A review of literature on issues related to sport tourism and mega-events, as well as a background of South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, was presented in previous chapters in the current study. In addition, the research design and methodology was also outlined to ensure that appropriate steps were taken in order to meet the objectives of the study. The primary data generated from African immigrants residing in Cape Town, regarding their perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and the associated legacies, were also analysed and discussed in the preceding chapter. The current chapter presents an overview of the study, including conclusions, recommendations, and limitations of the study. Finally, the limitations encountered in completing the study were discussed, while recommendations for event organisers and management are also provided, together with an indication of possible future research directions in the field of residents’ perceptions of sport mega-events.

5.2 Conclusion
The conclusions of the current study were generated together with the findings discussed in Chapter Four. Such conclusions are drawn in line with the predefined objectives of the study.

5.2.1 Conclusion regarding objective one
- The following conclusion is established in conjunction with objective one, namely to determine whether African immigrants residing in Cape Town are aware of the African legacy that is associated with the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

The study met the above objective. Unlike in the case of previous host nations of mega sporting events, South Africa, in the case of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ has positioned the event as a continental showcase. The government argued right from the bidding stages that such an event had the potential to make a socio-economic and political impact on the entire African continent. In the light of such a claim, the ALP detailed planned African legacies to this effect. In terms of the awareness of such projected legacies, the current study reveals a fairly high level of awareness amongst resident African immigrants in Cape Town, as 61.1% of those surveyed
were aware of the projected African legacies. Such a finding shows that the message of an African legacy has been generally well publicised and received. Despite this, the 38.9% of those who reported not being aware of such legacy projections suggests that more efforts were needed to educate the communities on the legacies that might accompany the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ hosting. A better understanding of short-term and long-term legacies, both planned and unplanned, might aid in justifying the hosting of such an event in Africa, and in South Africa in particular, in regards to both the present and the future.

5.2.2 Conclusion regarding objective two

- The following conclusion is drawn based on objective two, namely to determine the awareness and support of resident African immigrants in Cape Town with respect to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

The literature review in the current study highlighted that understanding the level of awareness of residents within a community hosting a mega-event is vital to determining their level of support for such an event (Bull & Lovell, 2007). In addition, Fredline and Faulkner (2002) acknowledge that residents are likely to support the hosting of an event within their community, should they feel that they own the event and that related benefits, as opposed to costs, will accrue to them. In the light of the above findings, the current researcher proposes that the findings with regards to the objective be read conjunction with those of Fredline and Faulkner (2002) above. Awareness levels of 99%, coupled with a significant number of resident African immigrants in Cape Town planning to attend games during the tournament, shows the existence of a good level of support for these events within South Africa’s communities.

5.2.3 Conclusion regarding objective three

- The following conclusion is based on with objective three, namely to determine the expectations and perceptions of African immigrants residing in Cape Town with regards to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

The key findings of the current study, as presented in Chapter Four, allow the researcher to conclude that the expectations and perceptions of African immigrants residing in Cape Town, and the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, could be classified as either positive or negative in nature. This conclusion ties in with the
findings presented by Hiller (1998) in his analysis of mega-event impacts on host communities.

The perceptions were largely positive, with high expectations of the hosting of the event. Many residents perceived the event as a ‘once-in-a-lifetime’ opportunity, which presented outstanding entertainment opportunities for resident African immigrants in Cape Town, and for their family and friends. Furthermore, positive legacies were noted in terms of infrastructural, economic and socio-cultural impacts. Resident African immigrants expected the event to bring spin-offs to immigrants' businesses and to create more employment opportunities for local citizens. In a boost to South Africa’s ability to host a mega-event, a significantly high number of those surveyed (94.1%) expected South Africa to host a very successful event. Such optimism was found to prevail, despite questions being raised in media circles and elsewhere about the country’s ability to host the event, although such doubts had mainly been raised in terms of safety and security. Other positive perceptions generated from resident African immigrants included the increased tourism and investment opportunities across Africa, the development of football on the African continent, the amount of community pride that would be fostered during the event, and the enhancement of the existing relationship between local South Africans and resident African immigrants in Cape Town. It is, therefore, imperative that the local government of Cape Town capitalise on the ability of the 2010 event to unite its communities, especially those affected by the recent spate of xenophobic attacks.

Notwithstanding the positive perceptions detailed above, some negative perceptions were also noted among African immigrants residing in Cape Town, albeit to a minimal extent. According to the key findings, the main concerns raised related to the potential increase in crime levels, and to the likelihood that daily life would be disrupted, the price of goods and services increased, and excessive noise levels encountered during the event. Event stakeholders, including the government, should therefore have been mindful of such concerns and should have designed appropriate measures to minimise their impact. Swart and Bob (2009) emphasise that residents’ perceptions of the impacts of hosting mega sport events have the potential to undermine public confidence in an event. Perhaps community engagement in the planning and implementation phases of the event was a noteworthy strategy, as has
been put forward by several tourism development agencies in Third World economies.

5.2.4 Conclusion regarding objective four

- The following conclusion is drawn base on objective four, namely to determine what initiatives have been undertaken by African immigrants residing in Cape Town in preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

In preparation for hosting Africa’s first mega-event in 2010, and as has been the case with previous hosts of such events, several stakeholder groups undertook initiatives aimed at maximising the socio-economic opportunities that the event presented or in order to ensure the long-term legacy of the event. In the current study, the above objective was met. Many African immigrants residing in Cape Town planned to start up a small business in the run-up to the 2010 event. Such a finding concurs with those previously stated in the literature review that most resident immigrants in South Africa are small-scale entrepreneurs. Furthermore, a few had taken up the idea of creating fan clubs for their favourite teams, with the aim of mobilising support for such teams and their players during the tournament both in the stadiums and in the PVAs.

5.2.5 Conclusion regarding objective five

- The following conclusion is drawn base on objective five, namely to identify what roles African immigrants residing in Cape Town would likely play during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

Closely linked to objective four above, the fifth and final objective of the current study considered the roles that resident African immigrants were likely to play during the 2010 event. The levels of awareness of the event, as well as the amount of support and involvement encountered, were noted as being significantly high amongst respondents, considering that 85.5% intended to participate in some form during the event. Many respondents (44.8%) intended to participate in the event as spectators during matches, as well as at the Fan Parks and other PVAs. Of those surveyed, 20% stated that they had also been attracted by the 2010 volunteer programme, which aimed to bring in individuals from across the world to assist with providing relevant services required by FIFA and the LOC during the event. A closely similar number (18.7%) planned to join an existing fan club that provided support to their favourite team or player. A few indicated that they would be hosting visiting friends
and relatives, while others stated that they had secured direct employment in relevant businesses that would provide goods and services to visitors during, and perhaps after, the hosting of the event.

5.3 Recommendations
The current study was aimed at determining the perceptions of African immigrants residing in Cape Town regarding the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Based on the arguments stated in Chapter Two and the subsequent discussions and presentation of the key findings from the questionnaire survey, the following recommendations were put forward to the relevant organisers of the event, including FIFA, the LOC, and the government.

Although the levels of involvement in the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ by resident African immigrants who were the subject under investigation in this current study were seen to be high, such involvement was mainly expressed prior to the hosting of the event. Aware that such a stakeholder group forms an integral part of South Africa’s communities, the researcher regards it as imperative to ensure such group involvement in the planning and management of the event right from the initiation phase through to future events of this nature. Such a move could ensure that a consultative process could pave the way for effective participation by all sub-groups within communities, and help to eradicate tensions caused by South Africa’s previous policy of segregation, while still upholding the current idea of a ‘rainbow nation’. Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2011a: 282) conclude that, hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ spawned different reactions, the most important of which were patriotism, nationalism and pan-Africanism.

As above-stated, immigrants, including especially African immigrants, form a vital part of South African society. The host nation showcased the event as an ‘African World Cup’. Given the spate of xenophobic attacks against African immigrants in South Africa prior to the event, and the subsequent negative image accorded to the country, the event represented a unique opportunity in two respects. Firstly, since these events have been noted to accrue positive social experiences, for example the feel-good factor, each could be used as a catalyst by the government and by relevant stakeholders to educate and to improve the relationship between local South African and resident African immigrants as postulated by Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2011b), who provided an analysis on the 2010 event and pan-Africanism. Secondly, the event’s ability to reach billions of people through
various media sources also presented an ideal opportunity to redress any negative perceptions of the event and to spread the message of goodwill about Africa in general. Hence, the appropriate strategies adopted could have included an awareness campaign that was rolled out during the event, with a message including advice on how to conquer Afro-pessimism. Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2011a: 281) has noted a number of negative events including xenophobia as threatening to tear the South Africa apart. The author conclude that, “the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ came as a blessing to those nationalists committed to continuing the project of nation building initiated by Nelson Mandela”.

A large number of African immigrants residing in Cape Town undertook several initiatives in the run-up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, these initiatives involving capitalising on business opportunities that had presented themselves prior to the study or that might have done so thereafter. As the situation set the basis for the event’s long-term legacy in the City of Cape Town, it was important that both the government and civic society should ensure that such immigrants were armed with the relevant basic entrepreneurial skills required to manage and to sustain sustainable small businesses. Furthermore, tracking and mentoring strategies and initiatives for such businesses could have been developed post-event, which could also have assisted in determining the long-term economic legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

5.4 Limitations of the study

The current study had some limitations. Firstly, important information, such as that relating to the demographics of African immigrants residing in South Africa, was neither current nor accurate. It was, therefore, difficult to determine an appropriate sample population for the current study. Secondly, although the African immigrant population in South Africa is composed of people from different countries and ethnic backgrounds, who tend to speak languages other than English, the study considered only those immigrants who could understand, speak or write the English language, which was all that both the amount of time and the financial resources that were available at the time of the study allowed. Moreover, it would have been extremely difficult for the researcher to find translators to translate the measurement instrument into all the relevant African languages concerned if other than the English language had been used for the research.
5.5 Future research direction
The present study provides the basis for future research into the perceptions of African immigrants in relation to sport mega-events in Africa. African immigrants residing in Cape Town, as informed by the key findings in the current study, were noted to have assumed several different roles and to undertake initiatives in preparation for the 2010 event. In addition, against the backdrop of planned associated legacies projected for the African continent, it has been of key importance, post-2010, to undertake research into the impact of such legacies on African communities in order to determine any shift in perceptions that might pave the way for a comparative analysis to be done. Moreover, Fredline (2004) asserts that because the perceptions of residents often change over time and are based on their experiences during an event, a pre- and post-event survey should be conducted to allow for a better comparison and for a more refined understanding of responses.

5.6 Final concluding remarks
The present study contributes towards the limited knowledge that is available regarding African immigrant perceptions of South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Perceptions regarding associated legacies that might have accrued from the event were largely found to be positive. Involvement levels in the event and related activities were found to be significantly high. The study also lay bare the roles that such immigrants would play in the event, the initiatives being undertaken at the time of the study in preparation for the hosting of Africa’s first-ever mega-event, and the continental benefits that were likely to accrue from South Africa’s hosting of the event.

Recommendations were made to the 2010 LOC and relevant stakeholders to ensure that the opinions of local residents were taken into consideration, and embedded within the strategic planning and management of the event, in order to attain a positive legacy for the African continent from South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 World Cup.

5.6.1 Coverage of the chapters
5.6.1.1 Chapter One
Chapter One provided the study orientation for the research. It detailed the background of the study, the problem statement, research aims and objectives, the significance of the study, and a brief overview of the methodology adopted. The exposition of chapters was also outlined.
5.6.1.2 Chapter Two
Chapter Two presented the conceptual framework of the study and a critical review of the existing literature, with the aim of pointing to existing gaps that exist in mega-event and legacy studies within the context of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

5.6.1.3 Chapter Three
Chapter Three of the thesis provided a detailed discussion of the research methodology adopted for the study. It documented the tools used in data collection and analysis, and explained the rationale behind the sample size and survey population.

5.6.1.4 Chapter Four
Chapter Four presented an analysis of the discussion in relation to the key findings generated from the questionnaire survey. The findings were presented systematically, based on the predefined objectives of the study, as were explained in the first chapter.

5.6.1.5 Chapter Five
Chapter Five provided a summary of the study in the form of conclusions and recommendations made in relation to the findings and objectives of the research undertaken. The chapter also considered the limitations of the study and pointed to areas that could be considered for future research, relevant to studies of such a nature.
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APPENDICES
June 2009

To Whom It May Concern:

Perceptions of African immigrants residing in Cape Town regarding the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its Associated African Legacy

I, Frinwei Njihy Achu a student at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology is currently undertaking research into the perceptions of African immigrants residing in Cape Town with regards to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

Various students enrolled for courses at the University are involved with gathering data for this particular survey. Your assistance is highly valued in completing the questionnaire. Should you wish to verify the authenticity of this project, please contact Dr Kamilla Swart on 0027 829282881.

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APPENDIX B: THE QUESTIONNAIRE

FACULTY OF BUSINESS
CAPE PENINSULA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY
QUESTIONNAIRE

Perceptions of African immigrants residing in Cape Town regarding the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its Associated African Legacy

1. PLACE OF INTERVIEW

| Greenmarket Square |   |
| Cape Town Train and Bus Station |   |
| Cape Peninsula University of Technology |   |

2. RESIDENT’S GENERAL UNDERSTANDING OF SPORT TOURISM AND MEGA-EVENTS

2.1 What is your understanding of the concept of ‘sport tourism’?
__________________________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________________________
2.2 What is your understanding of mega-events?
__________________________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________________________
2.3 Do you know of any major sport tourism events held in South Africa in the past?

Yes  No  Not sure

2.4 If yes, please indicate which major sport event South Africa hosted in the past.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1995 Rugby World Cup</th>
<th>2003 Cricket World Cup</th>
<th>Golf tournament</th>
<th>Soccer</th>
<th>Swimming</th>
<th>Other (specify)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2.4.1 If yes, please select how you were informed of the event.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Television</th>
<th>Newspaper</th>
<th>Internet</th>
<th>Posters</th>
<th>Community meetings</th>
<th>Radio</th>
<th>SMS</th>
<th>email</th>
<th>Friends</th>
<th>Other (specify)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

3. PERCEPTIONS OF, AND ATTENDANCE AT, PREVIOUS FIFA WORLD CUP™ TOURNAMENTS

3.1 Have you ever before attended a FIFA World Cup™ tournament?

Yes  No

3.1.1 If yes, which World Cup tournament did you recently attend? (Please state host Country and year.)
__________________________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________________________
3.1.2 If no, why not?

Didn’t have time
Too expensive
Couldn’t get tickets
Not interested
Other (specify)
4. RESIDENT’S AWARENESS OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP™

4.1 Are you aware of any forthcoming major sport event that South Africa is hosting?

[ ] Yes [ ] No

4.1.1 If yes, which event is it?

- 2009 Confederations Cup
- 2010 FIFA World Cup™
- Olympic Games
- Other (specify)

4.2 Do you know about South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?

[ ] Yes [ ] No

4.3 Do you foresee any possible problems during the event?

[ ] Yes [ ] No

4.3.1 If yes, explain what.

___________________________________________________________________
___________________________________________________________________

4.4 What suggestions do you have for addressing the problems experienced during the event?

__________________________________________________________________________________________
__________________________________________________________________________________________

5. RESIDENT’S INTEREST IN SOCCER

5.1 Which one of the following statements best summarises your interest in soccer as a spectator?

[ ] I am an avid fan of the sport and always try to attend or watch it on TV.
[ ] I am interested in the sport and watch it when I can.
[ ] I am not particularly interested in the sport, but enjoy watching 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.
[ ] I have no interest in the sport, or in the associated festivities, even when it is held in my area.

5.2 Which one of the following statements best summarises your interest in soccer as a recreational activity?

[ ] I am a keen participant in the sport, and am regularly involved in club competitions.
[ ] I am a keen participant in the sport, who is regularly involved in it, although not in any formal competition.
[ ] I occasionally participate in the sport socially.
[ ] I used to participate in the sport, but I have not done so in recent years.
[ ] I have absolutely no interest in participating recreationally in the sport.

5.3 Do you currently attend soccer matches in Cape Town?

[ ] Yes [ ] No

5.3.1 If yes, why? (Multiple responses allowed)
Interest in soccer
Complimentary tickets
Opportunity to make new friends
Want to support the development of the sport
A way in which to relax
Company sponsored the game, so have to attend

5.4 Will you be attending any of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ matches?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

5.4.1 If yes, where?
Durban [ ] Cape Town [ ] Port Elizabeth [ ] Johannesburg [ ] Bloemfontein [ ]
Nelspruit [ ] Polokwane [ ] Pretoria [ ] Rustenburg [ ]

5.4.1.1 If yes, how will you be travelling?
1. Aeroplane [ ] 3. Own vehicle [ ] 5. Organised tour [ ]
2. Bus [ ] 4. Hired vehicle [ ] 6. Other (specify) [ ]

5.4.1.2 If yes, how much are you willing to pay for a ticket? ___________________

5.4.1.3 If not, why not?
Not interested in soccer [ ] Will not be able to afford to purchase tickets [ ]
Prefer to watch game on TV [ ] Other (specify) [ ]

5.5 Would you consider watching the event on television?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

5.6 If you cannot afford or access tickets, would you consider watching the game on a big screen at a dedicated spectator location?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

5.7 Would you pay to do so?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

5.7.1.1 If yes, how much would you be willing to pay? ___________________________

6. LEVEL OF INVOLVEMENT DURING THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP™

6.1 Do you intend to participate in the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

6.2 Indicate involvement in the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. (Multiple responses allowed)

As a spectator at soccer matches [ ]
As a volunteer [ ]
Directly employed [ ]
As an income-generating opportunity linked to the event [ ]
Hosting visitor/relative attending event [ ]
Uncertain / Don't know [ ]
Not involved [ ]

6.3 What initiatives or activities are you engaged in, towards preparing for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?
Apply for volunteer programme
Join a fan club
Start a fan club
Starting up a business
Other (specify)

Other (specify) ________________________________________________________________

6.4. Would you like to be updated on events and opportunities related to the 2010 event?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

6.4.1 If yes, how would you like to be updated on 2010 initiatives?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Television</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>SMS</td>
<td>Email</td>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>Other (specify)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.4.2 Would you like to be updated on the stadium developments in your area related to the 2010 event?
Yes [ ] No [ ]

6.4.3 If yes, how would you like to be updated on 2010 initiatives?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Television</th>
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<td>Other (specify)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.5 Do you have any suggestions for improving the communication related to the 2010 event?
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

6.6 What are you most concerned about regarding South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 event?
_______________________________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________________________

7. PERCEPTIONS AND EXPECTATIONS

7.1 Please indicate the level of agreement with the following statements about the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. (Select one option for each variable.)

1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENTERTAINMENT</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will provide an opportunity to attend a landmark event.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will provide an opportunity to have fun with family and friends.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will provide an opportunity to meet new people and relatives.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will increase entertainment opportunities for African immigrants.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PUBLIC MONEY</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ is a waste of public money.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too much money is being spent on the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ that could be spent on other activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SOCIO-ECONOMIC BENEFITS</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The 2010 event will create more business opportunities for African immigrants.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African immigrants will benefit from jobs created by the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will only create jobs for South Africans.
The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ is good for African immigrant businesses, increasing their turnover. African immigrants will directly benefit from the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

**DISRUPTION OF LOCAL RESIDENTS**
The 2010 event will disrupt the lives of local residents and create inconvenience.
The 2010 event will cause significant overcrowding, traffic congestion and parking difficulties.
The 2010 event will create excessive noise.
The 2010 event will lead to an increase in crime.

**COMMUNITY PRIDE**
The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will make African immigrants feel more proud of the city/country in which they live.
The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will improve the relationship between local residents and African immigrants.
The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will provide African immigrants with a sense of belonging.

**PRICE**
The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will lead to an increase in the price of goods and services.
During the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the overall cost of living will increase.

**ATTITUDE TOWARD THE MANAGEMENT AND HOSTING OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP™**
South Africa has the resources and potential to host a triumphant 2010 FIFA World Cup™.
Residents can make a significant contribution by actively engaging in the management/hosting of the event.
Environmental degradation will be given attention during the planning and management phases of the event.
The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will influence African immigrants to engage in sporting activities.

### 8. AFRICAN LEGACY

8.1 Are you aware of the projected legacy for the African continent?

| Yes | No |

8.2 Please indicate the level of agreement with the following statements regarding the projected African legacy. (Select one option for each variable.)

| 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree |
| Other African countries will benefit from South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. |
| The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will accelerate the development of African football. |
| The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will increase tourism and investment opportunities in Africa. |
| Africa stands a better chance of hosting more conferences and sporting events by virtue of South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. |
| The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ will foster relationships and lead to peace on the African continent. |
| The whole African continent will benefit from South Africa hosting the 2010 World Cup. |
| Only countries close to South Africa will benefit from South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. |

### 9. AFRICAN RESIDENTS FEELING TOWARDS AN AFRICAN WORLD CUP

9.1 Do you feel that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ is an African Cup?

| Yes | No |

9.1.1 If yes, why?
10 RESIDENT’S PROFILE

10.1 What is your country of origin?

Indicate reason for moving to South Africa.

To further studies
For work
To join other family members
For refuge
Other (specify)

10.2 Gender

Male  Female

10.3 What is your age?

<20  21–30  31–40  41–50  51–60  61–70  >70  (Specify)

10.4 Marital status

Single  Married  Separated  Divorced  Widowed

10.5 How long have you been residing in South Africa?

<1 year  1–5 years  5–10 years  10–15 years  >15 years  Specify

10.6 What is your residential status?

Permanent resident  Work permit  Asylum seeker
Study permit  Refugee  Confidential

10.7 Employment status/occupation

Unemployed  Student/Scholar  Retired  Labourer/Unskilled
Sales/Marketing  Administrator/Manager  Businessperson  Professional
Artisan/Technician  Self-employed  Home executive  Other (specify)

10.8 Monthly income in ZAR

None  1–1 000  1 001–2 000  2 001–3 000  3 001–4 000  4 001–5 000  5 001–6 000
6 001–7 000  7 001–8 000  8 001–9 000  9 001–10 000  10 001–11 000  11 001–12 000  Above 12 000

10.9 Highest education level completed

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

10.10 Suburb of residence in Cape Town

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE. HAVE A NICE DAY!
### APPENDIX C: COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of origin (continue see pg 87)</th>
<th>Total (n=406, in %)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zambia</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swaziland</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabon</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Somalia</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namibia</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sudan</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Africa Republic</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Togo</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mali</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sierra Leone</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>