THE MEDIA IMPACT OF THE 2014 FIFA WORLD CUP™ IN SELECTED KEY MARKETS

by

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Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

Master of Technology: Tourism and Hospitality Management

in the Faculty of Business and Management Sciences

at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology

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Cape Town
April 2017

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DECLARATION

I, Gift Muresherwa, 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

18 April 2017

Date
ABSTRACT

The hosting of 2014 FIFA World Cup™ was an ideal opportunity for Brazil to enhance its international image. The aim of this study is to investigate the impact on Brazil and on Rio de Janeiro (as a host city and major tourist destination) of mainstream media reporting on the hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. It provides a picture of how Brazil and Rio de Janeiro were reported in selected newspapers at different stages of the event: pre-, lead-up, during, and post- the 2014 World Cup. The study also seeks to ascertain whether the major objectives of the Brazil World Cup bid were met in the hosting of this mega-event. A media content analysis was conducted in four key tourism markets: Argentina, USA, Germany and Portugal. These countries were chosen because they represent Brazil’s main tourism markets and reported significant numbers of ticket sales for the event. The methodology used was qualitative analysis, including content sourcing, content identification and the use of Leximancer, an analytic tool for large amounts of textual data. The study examined online newspapers with the largest readership and circulation numbers in the selected markets. In total, 1961 online newspaper articles relevant to Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ were analysed.

The findings revealed both positive and negative sentiments associated with Brazil’s hosting of the event. A key finding from the analysis was that for all markets, there was a shift from relatively positive sentiment in the pre-World Cup period, to more negative sentiment in the lead-up, followed by a return to positive sentiment during and after the World Cup. Having shifted to a more negative view leading up to and during the event, the USA market was dominated by media attention to social unrest and corruption. The period immediately prior to the tournament recorded an increase in both positive and negative media coverage in the US, German and Portuguese markets, but became more positive in the Argentinian market. Thus, the lead-up period was particularly significant in all markets. Safety and security concerns expressed in the lead-up period decreased significantly during the hosting and post- periods, and a positive image of the country was noticeable in the international media. Therefore, while the positive sentiments emerging during the event should be capitalised on, Brazil should also address the lurking concerns and negative perceptions that continue despite its successful hosting of the mega-event. By doing this the nation can consolidate its brand’s position in a sustained and positive way. As different reporting tones were noticed in the different markets across the time periods, it becomes important to consider these changes in the future event marketing and positioning of Rio de Janeiro as the leading tourism destination and events capital for Brazil, especially in relation to Rio de Janeiro’s hosting of future events.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank:

- the Almighty God, through whom all things are possible;
- Professor Kamilla Swart, the dissertation supervisor for her continued guidance in this academic journey. Prof Swart was also very instrumental in providing critical insights on this dissertation to its final end;
- Ms Tracy Daniels, the dissertation co-supervisor for her insights, thorough guidance, continuous motivation and everlasting patience throughout the research process;
- Mr Michael Linley of BrandCapital International, Melbourne, Australia for his assistance on how to use Leximancer, the data analytical tool used in this study;
- Mr Roberto Martins Gonzalez, a Ph.D. candidate from University of Malaga, Spain who tirelessly helped me each time I asked for help on this study;
- my family, for their support and encouragement; and
- everyone who has played a role in the completion of this study, your valuable contribution in this dissertation is greatly appreciated.
DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents, Darlington and Lillian Muresherwa, who have always loved me unconditionally and whose good examples have taught me to work hard for the things that I aspire to achieve. I am truly thankful for having you in life.
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<td>DE</td>
<td>Germany or Deutschland</td>
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<tr>
<td>F.C</td>
<td>Football Club</td>
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<td>FBI</td>
<td>Federal Bureau of Investigation</td>
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<td>FIFA</td>
<td>Fédération Internationale de Football Association</td>
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<td>FPP</td>
<td>Favela Pacification Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>G-20</td>
<td>Group of Twenty</td>
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<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
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<tr>
<td>IBA</td>
<td>International Bar Association</td>
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<tr>
<td>IBGE</td>
<td>Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (Brazil acronym)</td>
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<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<td>I-O</td>
<td>Input-Output</td>
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<td>ISO</td>
<td>International Standard Organisation</td>
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<td>LOC</td>
<td>Local Organising Committee</td>
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<td>New York times</td>
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<td>United Nations Environment Programme</td>
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<td>UNWTO</td>
<td>United Nations World Tourism Organisation</td>
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<td>UPP</td>
<td>Urban Pacification Programme, Pacifying Police Units</td>
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<td>US</td>
<td>United States</td>
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<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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<td>WTTC</td>
<td>World Travel &amp; Tourism Council</td>
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CHAPTER ONE
STUDY ORIENTATION

1.1 Introduction and background to the study

Brazil is the largest country in South America, renowned for a football tradition rooted in its culture (Famous Wonders, 2011:1). In October 2007 Brazil secured the rights to host the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup™ in 2014. Brazil had hosted the FIFA World Cup™ in 1950 and participated in many international football competitions (Brazilian Football, 2014). The awarding of this mega-event shifted attention to Brazilian cities and their ability and readiness to cope with the event, thus attracting much media attention (Punch, 2014). Several issues continue to be debated in academia and in the media relating to how ready and committed Brazil was to stage this world competition. For example, the Americas Quarterly’s (n.d.) website questioned Brazil’s capability to develop infrastructure for the World Cup and the 2016 Olympic Games which the city of Rio de Janeiro was also awarded. Events of this nature – more precisely, mega-events – bring with them impacts which can be either negative or positive (Robinson et al., 2011:155).

Soccer is the world’s most popular sport and one of the globe’s best-known cultural practices (Dunmore, 2011:5). The FIFA World Cup™ is the pinnacle of sport worldwide. It is held every four years and brings together soccer teams from around the globe looking to be crowned the world champions (Monks & Husch, 2009:391). The first World Cup was held in Uruguay in 1930, where Uruguay beat Argentina in the final game to become the world champions (Tomlinson, 2014:19). From then on, this international tournament has become quadrennial, with breaks for war-time disruption in 1942 and 1946 (Kahane & Shmanske, 2012:449).

Football is the long-standing favourite sport in Latin America (Flaherty & Nammour, 2015). It is deeply ingrained in the culture of Brazil, to the extent that “much of world sees the nation through the lens of the Brazilian National Football Team” (Levine & King, 2015). Despite losing the 20th edition of the FIFA World Cup™ in the year 2014, Brazil still has one of the best national teams. It is undeniably the most successful football nation, having won five World Cups (more than any other country) and participated in every single World Cup tournament (Woods, 2010:63; Dunmore, 2011:267; Conchas, 2014:168). Consequently, Brazil has forged a national identity that resonates well with international sport. In this regard, Conchas (2014:168) notes that this Latin American country put a great deal of investment and effort into providing enough infrastructure and resources to properly host the 2014 World Cup and the 2016 Olympic Games.

The 2014 World Cup presented itself as the best platform to analyse various meanings driving the political, commercial, social and global importance of mega-events (Ronquillo,
Ronquilo (2012:2) notes that Brazil's history with football and the sport's links to politics and racial identity provide an interesting context in which to dissect this information and place it in a broader perspective within the values of the World Cup. It is contended that sport mega-events offer opportunities for every type of entrepreneur and investor to make a healthy return (Brazil Land of the Future, 2012:1). Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup was seen as an important moment, since countless opportunities were expected to be created for economic development, job creation, infrastructure development and increase in status as a country with the ability to manage events smoothly (Tomlinson et al., 2011:44).

Since the second half of the 20th century, sport mega-events have surpassed other types of hallmark events in terms of attracting financial investment and media attention (Malfas et al., 2004:210). As the 2014 FIFA World Cup™-hosting and football-loving nation, Brazil attracted significant positive and negative media coverage. Moreover, in respect of mega-event hosting cities such as Rio de Janeiro, the media have continued to take a negative angle, as there have been ongoing issues of violence (Tomlinson et al., 2011:45). A year before the 2014 World Cup was held, the Brazilian people in different cities took to the streets in one of the largest protests in sport history to express dissatisfaction over government spending on the World Cup (Reuters, 2013). The Brazilian government was criticised for seeking global prominence by hosting the World Cup at the expense of its population's social concerns (Conchas, 2014:168). Poverty and slums continue to be a serious issue, requiring state intervention. This, together with the inadequacy of infrastructure and education for the marginalised, resulted in an ‘anti-World Cup’ attitude among large numbers of the Brazilian people (Conchas, 2014:168).

Swart et al. (2013:1977) argue that the desire to host a mega-event is associated with destination profiling in the media. The media can profile a destination as a safe or an unsafe one to visit. Brazil is a developing country faced with social challenges, for example organised crime rings and drug dealers who at times clash with the police (Brazil, 2012). The social issues that a mega-event destination faces can be used by the media to profile the destination to outsiders, thus influencing perceptions of the country. Tomlinson et al. (2011:46) view crime as the most prominent aspect in the media. The majority of media reports tend to focus on the negative side of the picture and give a partial overview of the positive side, which is why the plight of disadvantaged groups within the host community often receives media attention (Jago et al., 2010:229). Jago et al. (2010:229) thus conclude that “bad news sells”.

Sport mega-events are presented in mainstream (global) and local or national media outlets (Pelli, 2013:33). The mainstream media outlets, it has been noted, offer a range of rationales that justify the hosting of sporting mega-events (de Almeida et al., 2013:266). These
rationales then become rhetoric supporting the country’s expenditure of public finances. The hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ by Brazil was guised under the theme of sustainable development that would have significant impact on a large section of society (Ernst & Young, 2011:3; Whipp, 2014). Various strategic documents were drafted on how Brazil was to stage a successful event, for example, the Strategic Brazil 2014 document, the Strategic Plan for Rio de Janeiro 2013-2016, and the Brazil Bid Inspection Report for the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ (Whipp, 2014). It is in those documents that the objectives for hosting the World Cup are highlighted. At a seminar hosted in Manaus, Brazil, the goals and objectives for the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ were discussed (FIFA, 2011a). Below is a summary of the objectives that Brazil needed to achieve by hosting the World Cup as stated by FIFA (2011a):

- Being remembered as a great football competition;
- Staging a sustainable World Cup and showing the way forward for future hosts of the world’s greatest football tournament;
- The World Cup as an opportunity for social mobility and changing values;
- Creation of legacies that will endure long after the competition has ended;
- Innovative solutions for host cities;
- Maximising positive impact and minimising any negative ones
- Advance urban development by bringing forward infrastructure and real estate projects to support national, regional and urban economic development strategies;
- Promote sport participation and the benefit of exercise and healthy living;
- Political reasons such as demonstrating modernity, transparency and asserting a regional and international role; and
- Raise the country’s profile including strategic ‘place branding’ and marketing of the country and individual cities.

The expectations from the 2014 World Cup were spelled out in the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ bid document and amongst them included; achieving long lasting benefits for the entire country, improvement to the economy, transport, communication, public services and facilities, safety and improvement of sporting facilities (Bid Inspection Report, 2007:9). Brazil’s commitment to host the 2014 World Cup had attracted political support from all levels of government (Ernst & Young, 2011). This commitment to host the Cup rested on meeting FIFA requirement as spelled out in the bid book for the 2014 World Cup (FIFA, 2011b). Even though, the exact contents of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ bid document were not available for public view (Gaffney, 2010), these featured in other various strategic documents such as the Bid Inspection Report (2007), the 2014 Strategic Brazil Report (2012), the Strategic Plan for Rio de Janeiro 2013-2016 and many more. As Gaffney (2010) indicated that the 2014 World Cup bid book for Brazil’s hosting of the World Cup was not accessible to the general public. However, what surfaced to the public since FIFA awarded Brazil the bid was the government preparations and the FIFA-related public spending and projects (Kennis, 2014:2).
Brazil is renowned as one of the best tourist destinations to visit for its diverse attractions and has been known to host the best parties in the world (Brazil Land of the Future. 2012). It was anticipated that hosting the 2014 World Cup would improve Brazil’s image and increase tourism (Harvard Business Review, 2014). The aim of this research study was to show how this discourse on Brazil was reported by the media during the following phases of the event:

- Pre-2014 FIFA World Cup™ – two years to one year prior
- Lead-up to the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ – one year prior
- During the 2014 FIFA World Cup™
- Post-2014 FIFA World Cup™ – one year post.

Moreover, the research study was aimed at understanding whether the major objectives of Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ were met, insofar as these were reported by the international media. This was done also to allow for comparative analysis of media coverage of Brazil’s and South Africa’s World Cups. Therefore, a detailed analysis of media in selected key markets was undertaken during the above-mentioned phases of the event.

The impact of sport mega-events on international tourism is partially as a consequence of their ability to attract an international audience through the messages they obtain from the media (Valente-Junior & Tur, n.d.). While researchers have examined the effects of images of the event and their broadcast on the destination image and interest in travel to the host country, there is limited research examining the effects of organic images during the pre-event period (Green et al., 2010). The media is credited with a central role in influencing how people perceive destinations (Swart et al., 2012:132).

As McQuail (2000:59) points out, a topic often broached in media literature is the view that the media institution deals primarily with the production and distribution of knowledge. The knowledge produced by media allows people to endow their experience of the social world with particular meanings (Baú, 2009:1). It is argued that the information offered to people by media in the form of graphics and sound helps individuals to identify themselves (McQuail, 2000:60-62). Thus, as Baú (2009:2) notes, the media’s main aim or objective is to develop perceptions and social reality.

O’Shaughnessy and Stadler (2008:34) declare that the media have the power to enable people to make sense of the world. They identify three central processes for which the media are responsible:

- Representation – they present the primary source through which people become aware of the world
- Interpretation – in their presentation, they provide an understanding of the events occurring
- Evaluation – they value and de-value different issues and identities, thus offering an evaluative framework.
The media contribute a great deal to a society: because they have direct access to people, they have a lot of power and can establish and change opinions (India-Forums, 2010; Rosell, 1992:80). India-Forums (2010) observe that the strength of the media can be used in two ways: constructively by educating people, or destructively by misleading innocent people. The most important use of media is to educate people and provide information that is truthful and not destructive. Dwivedi and Pandey (2013:67) state that an important role played by the media is that of increasing public awareness. They further contend that the media collect and disseminate views, information and attitudes on a certain issue.

Swart et al. (2013:1977) identify four roles played by the media: agenda setting, informing audiences, framing and persuading the public. The agenda setting function of the media is viewed as a type of social learning (Wanta, 1997:2). Wanta (1997:2) also notes that individuals learn about the relative importance of issues in society through the amount of coverage that issues receive in the news media. Thus, the more coverage the issue receives, the more concern individuals will have with the issue. The media are there to inform the audience on issues and thus act as a ‘link’ to the world (Alasuutari, 1999:90). The public is informed on what is going on through different media channels. The framing function of the media refers to the viewpoint or perspective that is employed by the media when covering certain issues, for example politics or sport (Ott & Mack, 2010:42). Ott and Mack (2010:42) also note that the media create a frame through which the audience views issues, thus creating or influencing perceptions. According to Swart et al. (2013:1977), the persuading role of media refers to the media’s ability to persuade the public regarding the issues they represent.

Several researchers agree that the media play a very important role in the dissemination of information bearing a strong potential for tourism interest (Alasuutari, 1999:90; Jago et al., 2010:229; Swart et al., 2013:1977). For sporting mega-events such as the Olympics or the FIFA World Cup™, the media contingent at the event is substantial, often involving several hundred people (Jago et al., 2010:229). The 2010 World Cup in South Africa was expected to be viewed by 32 billion people (Jago et al., 2010:229) but reached an actual audience of close to 26 billion people (Ferdinand & Kitchin, 2012:225). For the 2014 FIFA World Cup™, the cumulative number of viewers for Brazil did reach 32 billion (Naili, 2014).

Maguire (2011:682) notes that the media’s role is not only to report on mega-events but to frame and interpret how these events, and the countries that stage them, are viewed, both nationally and internationally. The media play an important role in shaping people’s perceptions and images about a destination. The images projected for potential visitors by media agents (journalists) could be genuine or false and tendentious (Ferreira & Donaldson, 2014:255).
The 2014 FIFA World Cup™ represented an opportunity for Brazil to build, expand and transform its infrastructure and services in various sectors associated with the event. Westerbeek et al. (2002:313-316) identify eight key success factors in bidding for sport mega-events. These eight key factors are: political support, accountability, relationship marketing ability, bid team composition, infrastructure, communication and exposure and the existing facilities (Westerbeek et al., 2002:313). Infrastructure as one of the success factors to successfully host mega-events is key in the current study since it forms part of the strategic imperatives which are examined in the study. The investment in infrastructure was seen as central to the hosting of the 2014 World Cup (de Almeida et al., 2013:11). A study by the University of Sao Paulo revealed that the 2014 World Cup and Olympics together would cost Brazil about US$33 billion in terms of infrastructural development (Carrion, 2013:27). The Brazilian government assured its people that the infrastructure would benefit them through “long-term indirect benefits from tourism and foreign investment” (Carrion, 2013:27).

Bob and Swart (2009:48) agree that the hosting of mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™ offer tangible long-term legacies to nations, such as the development of infrastructure. The investment in a host city can also influence the adjacent areas, producing economic growth and development. However, social challenges such as forced evictions and associated public resistance can result from the proposed development in support of sport mega-events.

The hosting of mega-events contributes immensely to tourism and in the case of the World Cup, both national and international visitors are attracted (Getz, 2012:16). Several researchers agree that events help to reduce seasonal fluctuations in visitation levels; in fact, they tend to extend the tourist season (Tassiopoulos, 2010:5; Getz, 2012:16; Pernecky & Lück, 2013:136). The huge investments in the sport and tourism industries justifies the attendance of tourists, promoting the country’s image and profile and creating a sustainable basis for the use of equipment built for the event.

The hosting of the 2014 World Cup by Brazil was considered a worthwhile investment to showcase the country’s beauty, efficiency and suitability as a tourist destination (Brazil, 2014). As a country with one of the fastest-growing economies in the world, the hosting of the 2014 World Cup put Brazil in the spotlight and attracted a great deal of media attention (Conchas, 2014:168).

The next section clarifies the basic terms and concepts used in this study. The clarification of key terms will help the reader to understand the field of investigation (Mehu et al., 2012:179-181).
1.2 Clarification of basic terms and concepts

1.2.1 Media
The online Business Dictionary (2014) defines media as all communication channels through which news, entertainment, education, data, or promotional messages are disseminated. Gunter (2000:191) notes that the media represent sources of information that is relevant to people’s knowledge and understanding of events and issues. Trehan and Trehan (2010:108) identify various types of media, which include print media, broadcast media, direct-mail, internet and outdoor media. The objective of media is to get a message to the intended audience (Trehan & Trehan, 2010:109). In this study, the term media is used to refer to mainstream online newspaper content.

1.2.2 Sport mega-event
Roche (2000:1) provides a definition of sport mega-events as large-scale cultural events “which have a dramatic character, mass popular appeal and international significance”. Santos (2014:1312) identifies the Olympic Games and the Football World Cup as the most important sport mega-events in the world.

1.2.3 Sport tourism
In defining sport tourism, Gibson (1998:45) distinguishes three categories: active sport, event sport and nostalgia. These three categories will be explained in subsequent chapters. Standeven and De Knop (1999:12) offer a useful comprehensive definition of sport tourism as “all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organised way for non-commercial or business/commercial reasons, that necessitates travel away from the home and work locality”.

1.2.4 Sport tourism events
Sport tourism events are those events in which the primary purpose for travel is participating in, or viewing, sport (Turco et al., 2002:74).

1.2.5 FIFA World Cup™
FIFA is the international governing body of soccer and is the organising body for the World Cup (Monks & Husch, 2009:392). This body decides which country or countries earn the privilege of hosting the World Cup. The FIFA World Cup™ is one of the biggest sporting events in the world, involving 32 teams competing over a period of one month in the host nation(s) every four years (SportsNet, 2014).

1.2.6 Hallmark events
According to Ritchie (1984:2) hallmark events are “major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a
tourist destination in the short and/or long term”. The success of hallmark events depends on their uniqueness, status and their ability to attract attention.

1.2.7 Legacy
Chappelet (2012:77) offers a definition of legacy as “all that remains and may be considered as consequences of the event in its environment”. The concept of legacy relates to the potential long-lasting effects that an event can have on a region (Cashman, 2005:34-35).

1.2.8 Tourism
Sharply and Telfer (2014:16-17) note that tourism remains a term subject to diverse interpretation, with a wide variety of definitions and descriptions proposed in the literature. Sharma (2004:163) views tourism primarily as a social activity involving people travelling from one place to another. He further posits that tourism is an activity involving individuals who travel within their country or internationally and who interact with other people and places.

According to the World Bank (2005:369) tourism is defined as the “activities of people travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for no more than one year for leisure, business, and other purposes not related to an activity remunerated from within the place visited”.

1.2.9 Content analysis
Neuman (1997:272) considers content analysis a key non-reactive research methodology. He describes it as a technique for gathering and analysing the content of text. The ‘content’ refers to words, meanings, pictures, symbols, ideas, themes, or any message that can be communicated whereas ‘text’ is anything written, visual, or spoken that serves as a medium for communication (Neuman,1997:273).

1.3 Statement of the research problem
Brazil hosted the FIFA World Cup™ for the second time in 2014, an event that projected the country into the international arena and the receipt of mixed coverage from the media (Giulianotti, 2011:3295; George & Swart, 2012). The media are seen as significant for their key role in informing perceptions and framing debates. Swart et al. (2010:226) maintain that the media influence the image of travel destinations, as news reports (for example, of crime) tend to magnify the danger of crime at any destination. South Africa and Brazil experienced similar instances of negative reporting during the lead-up to their respective World Cups. Potential tourists may consequently have been influenced not to participate in the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ or visit the host cities or Brazil, thus reducing the economic impact of the event. On the other hand, the 2014 World Cup was positioned to reinforce positive images of Brazil and the host cities (Rio de Janeiro in particular, as the most popular tourist destination in
Brazil), as well as to showcase new aspects of the host destination (Hudson & Ritchie, 2009:218; Buarque, 2015:1300). It is not clear to what extent this was achieved.

There has been very limited research on media impact in relation to sport mega-events (Swart et al., 2012:139). It is therefore appropriate to conduct a media impact study of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ in selected tourism markets. The study will also allow for a comparative analysis with the 2010 media impact study on South Africa and Cape Town, as host city, in particular (Swart et al., 2012). The study will add to the understudied aspect of mega-events, media impact analysis, and also contribute to the burgeoning literature on the impact of sport mega-events in developing contexts.

1.4 Research aim and questions
The aim of this study is to investigate the impact of the media on the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ in Rio de Janeiro as a host city and major tourist destination in Brazil, in selected tourism markets. In addition, the study provides an understanding of how Rio de Janeiro and Brazil as a whole have been reported in the media at different stages of the event in Brazil’s key tourism markets, viz. Argentina, USA, Germany and Portugal. It examines media reports (major online newspapers) of sentiments expressed at various periods of time: pre-2014, lead-up to, during and post-2014 FIFA World Cup™. The aim is to determine, via a detailed analysis of the media in key markets at different stages of the event, what changed in the perceptions of Rio de Janeiro and Brazil as a result of their hosting the event, and whether the major objectives of Brazil’s bid to host the event were met.

The following are typical questions that need to be asked in trying to understand the impact of media on the hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. These questions guided the research:

- How were the major objectives of Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ reported by the media in key international markets?
- How were Brazil (hosting nation) and specifically Rio de Janeiro (hosting city) profiled at different time periods of the event; pre-, lead-up to, during and post-World Cup?
- How were Brazil and Rio de Janeiro profiled in key international markets; and
- What were the similarities and differences in media coverage of Brazil and South Africa as developing countries hosting sequential editions of the same event?

1.5 Research objectives
The current research is aimed at investigating the media impact of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ in key Brazilian tourist markets. It assesses online newspaper media reports to find out how Brazil and Rio de Janeiro were perceived and profiled as hosting nation and city of a major international football competition.

The objectives of this study were as follows:
• To ascertain how the major objectives of Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup were reported by the media in key international markets;
• To assess how Brazil (host nation) and specifically Rio de Janeiro (host city) were profiled across the time periods of the event; pre-, lead-up to, during and post-World Cup;
• To assess how Brazil (host nation) and Rio de Janeiro (host city) were profiled in key international markets; and
• To compare the media coverage over time periods for Brazil and South Africa as developing countries hosting sequential editions of the same event.

1.6 **Significance of the study**

This study contributes a new angle to an existing body of research by focusing on the impact of the media in profiling a mega-event destination or host country, and on the relationship between the media and sport mega-events. The significance of this study lies in its addressing an under-studied aspect of mega-events in general and in particular the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. The current study will allow for comparative analysis with the 2010 World Cup media impact study conducted in markets that are key for South Africa and Cape Town in particular (Swart et al., 2012).

In addition, the study contributes to the knowledge base pertaining to the international media’s impact by identifying particular frames commonly found in journalistic rhetoric regarding Rio de Janeiro and Brazil at large. A media impact study provides relevant information for destination event marketing and positioning strategies that need to be taken into consideration when analysing the impacts of sport mega-events.

1.7 **Methodology**

The methodologies adopted in this study were similar to the ones used in the 2010 World Cup media impact study on South Africa, to allow for comparative analysis (Swart et al., 2012; Swart et al., 2013). The study employed qualitative research methods to conduct a media analysis of the 2014 World Cup in selected key markets. According to Banks (2007:8), qualitative research is intended to approach the world “out there” and to understand, describe and explain social phenomena “from the inside” in a number of different ways. In this study, the qualitative analysis included content sourcing, content identification and the use of Leximancer as an analytical tool for the textual data collected. Jackson (2009:86) notes that in most cases academics adopt a qualitative research approach to understand phenomena that occur in natural settings. In this case, this involved obtaining meaning from natural language, in the form of text data sourced from newspaper media articles.

In conducting this study, the researcher reviewed the relevant 2014 World Cup planning documentation (see Appendix A) to come up with key imperatives and objectives to be analysed in the media study in selected markets.
The study required the sourcing of online newspapers from selected major international media websites, magazines, newspaper articles and journals. The specific news sources used in each market was determined by:

- Reach, for example online newspapers with a large circulation in the selected market
- Ability to search by subject and date online
- The articles needed to be accessed with no or limited costs for viewing or downloading them.

The content sources were selected on the basis of their having the highest online news access usage among the major original content news services in each market (Swart et al., 2012). The sources used for each market are as follows:

- USA – New York Times, USA Today, CNN and the Los Angeles Times;
- Germany – Zeit Online (www.zeit.de), Speigel Online (www.speigel.de), Die Welt (www.welt.de) and Frankfurter Rundschau (www.fr-online.de); and
- Portugal – Dario de Noticias (www.dn.pt), Record (www.record.xl.pt), Correio Da Manha (www.cmjornal.xl.pt) and Jornal de Noticias (www.jn.pt).

1.7.1 Media analysis
Media sources provide a wealth of information about a wide range of topics (Hucker, 2001:86). They usually provide the most recent thinking on an issue and are therefore a valuable resource for research. The huge extent of material available requires researchers to be selective in what they use. It requires them to identify a sample of sources that are most relevant to the research area. Hucker (2001:86) notes that the analysis of media material requires time and planning to ensure validity and reliability.

In analysing the material, the researcher sought to get to the essence of what was being reported about Rio de Janeiro and Brazil. Important aspects relevant to answering the research questions and meeting the objectives of the study were then considered. Media content was analysed with the help of Leximancer software, which enabled the identification of themes and concepts for analysis.

1.7.2 Media tracking
The sample base for analysis was between 100 and 200 articles per stage or period of time, with an overall target of 400 – 500 articles per market and 1600 – 2000 articles in total over the four markets. The media content analysed in this study was from the periods 24 to 12 months pre-event, one year prior to the event for the lead-up, the time of the event itself, and the period to one year post-event.

1.7.3 Thematic analysis
Given that media reports have various messages to convey and objectives to meet, it is important for the researcher to understand the exact meaning of the transmitted message. In
trying to get truthful meaning from the message, thematic analysis was employed and supported by the use of Leximancer. Braun and Clarke (2006:79) define thematic analysis as a method of identifying and analysing reporting patterns or themes within the data.

The researcher captured the themes that emerged from media articles that were useful in answering the research questions. Thematic analysis in this study was based on identifying the strategic imperatives for hosting the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. To complete the analysis process, the researcher followed the six phases of thematic analysis developed by the University of Auckland (n.d.). These phases are:

- familiarisation with the data;
- coding;
- searching for themes;
- reviewing themes;
- refining and naming themes; and
- writing up.

1.8 Secondary data sources
Secondary data regarding mega-events, media impacts, and sport tourism was sourced from books, journal articles, government publications, theses, newspapers and the Internet. Below is a brief description of the sources that were consulted in this study.

1.8.1 Journal articles

1.8.2 Internet websites
Various websites were accessed, for example: the FIFA website (www.fifa.com), World Soccer Talk (www.worldsoccertalk.com), Brazilian Football (www.brazilian-football.com) and many others.

1.8.3 Theses and dissertations
The researcher consulted a number of completed and work-in-progress theses and dissertations in the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT) library and online. These provided guidance and background information for the study.

1.8.4 Books
A number of books were reviewed, especially those with relevant information for the study. Books with topics covering sport mega-events, sport tourism, media impact studies, bidding for sport mega-events, media and sport provided useful information to compile the literature
review for the study. In addition to the above, books with information relating to writing up a dissertation, research methods, and research writing techniques were also consulted.

1.8.5 International media articles
Online media articles were sourced and analysed. From each of the key markets, media articles were tracked and analysed.

1.8.6 Government publications
Government publications and policy documents highlighting plans to host, the hosting of sport mega-events and the objectives for the bids to host events were examined. Examples are: the Strategic Plan for Rio de Janeiro 2013-2016, the Sustainable Brazil 2014 Document and the Brazil Bid Inspection Report for the 2014 FIFA World Cup™.

1.9 Method of data analysis
The collected data was analysed through the use of Leximancer, ‘text mining’ software useful when examining the content of textual documents. It helps by clearly displaying the extracted information in the browser (Pacific Transcription, 2014). The Leximancer system performs a style of automatic content analysis (Smith & Humphreys, 2006:262). Smith and Humphreys (2006:262) further note that “Leximancer goes beyond keyword searching by discovering and extracting thesaurus-based concepts from a body of text, with no requirement for a prior dictionary, although one can be used if desired”. Leximancer was used for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ media impact study, thus allowing for comparative analysis with the current study (Swart et al., 2012).

1.10 Delineation of the study
The study was limited to investigating the impact of media on Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. The focus was therefore restricted to media content published from Brazil’s key tourist source markets: Argentina, USA, Germany and Portugal. The media content for this study excluded the social media and focused on mainstream international newspapers that are accessible online. The study was not intended to examine media reports on teams playing the game and predictions about which country would take the Cup. Therefore, articles covering the actual soccer matches were excluded from the analysis.

1.11 Ethical considerations
Ethics form the basis of conducting meaningful research and need to be observed from the initial stages of a research project. Cooper and Schindler (1998:108) define ethics as norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about individuals’ behaviours and their relations. In research, ethical issues deal with the way the researcher conducts the study, the ‘rights’ and ‘wrongs’ of it (Heffernan, 2005:87). Most studies observe the following research ethics: informed consent, right to anonymity and confidentiality, and voluntary participation
(Heffernan, 2005:89; Research Methods, 2006). The overall goal of ethics in research is to ensure that no one suffers adverse consequences from research activities.

Because this study is qualitative in nature, involving judgements on real-world phenomena, ethical considerations are important. The study observed all ethical requirements, presenting information without misleading people and providing references for all sources consulted. Permission was sought from CPUT and clearance obtained from the ethics committee (see Appendix B).

1.12 Structure of the dissertation
1.12.1 Chapter One: Introduction
Chapter One introduces the research and highlights important issues such as the importance of Brazil's hosting the FIFA World Cup™ for the second time and reasons for bidding to host the event. It provides a brief explanation of the relationship between media and sport mega-events. The chapter presents the problem statement, research questions, and the aim and objectives of the study. It also suggests the significance of the study and clarifies some of the terms that are used.

1.12.2 Chapter Two: Conceptual framework and literature review
Chapter Two starts off by laying out the theoretical framework which guides the study. It goes on to review various sources of secondary information regarding the impact of media on mega-events. The sources of data reviewed include journal articles, newspaper articles, government publications and books.

1.12.3 Chapter Three: Research design and methodology
Chapter Three focuses on the research methodology applied in gathering data for the study. It explains the methods and tools used to gather data, in this case, the tracking of media articles. The sampling procedure and media content analysis are also elaborated on.

1.12.4 Chapter Four: Data analysis
In Chapter Four, the researcher provides an analysis and interpretation of the data sourced from various online international media sources. The results will be presented through word-clouds, tables, pie and bar charts, and histograms, as well as text.

1.12.5 Chapter Five: Conclusions and recommendations
The final chapter presents the key findings of the research study, makes recommendations, outlines the limitations of the study, and proposes directions that future research might take.
1.13 Chapter summary

The current chapter started off by introducing the study, clarified the basic concepts and terms that are used throughout the study. In addition, the problem statement was presented which led to the researcher highlighting the research questions and objectives for the study. The study methodology was briefly explained together with the sources for the data and the methods employed to analyse the data. The chapter ends with a highlight of how the dissertation is structured by briefly presenting what every chapter entails.
CHAPTER TWO

AN OVERVIEW OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS AS MEDIA CONSTRUCTS AND BRAZIL’S HOSTING OF THE 2014 FIFA WORLD CUP™

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided an introduction and some background to the current study. The research questions and objectives that were identified to address the research problem were also highlighted. In addition, an overview of the research methods was presented together with proposed methods of data analysis. The delineation of the study, its significance and relevant ethical considerations were also briefly discussed.

The aim of the current chapter is to provide an overview of the concepts of sport tourism and sport mega-events in relation to the media. The chapter offers a discussion of the media impact of the World Cup tournament on Brazil, with emphasis on the selected markets of Argentina, USA, Germany and Portugal. A number of issues are introduced to establish a theoretical framework for the study. In addition, some of the key concepts and theories informing the study are included, suggesting why the study is considered valuable. As understanding the media impact of sport mega-events is critical to destination branding and marketing through events, the following section starts off by providing the conceptual framework used to analyse media impacts.

2.2 Conceptual framework

A conceptual framework is an important component of a research project, providing a central structure of ideas that serves as a foundation for the study (Jabareen, 2009:51). The conceptual framework of a study comprises a network of interlinked concepts that provide a complete understanding of a phenomenon (Jabareen, 2009:51). According to Lester (2005:460), the conceptual framework of a study is there to provide the justification that shapes the study by putting relevant arguments together and discussing them critically. Veal (2006:54) notes that a conceptual framework involves the concepts used in a research project and the relationships between them. The conceptual framework enables the researcher to ask and answer the research questions. In this study, the conceptual framework forms the basis for understanding the impact of the media in relation to the hosting of a sport mega-event.

2.2.1 Content analysis

Content analysis is a research method that is used to make inferences from textual information. Krippendorff (2004) has done considerable research on content analysis as a methodology. He defines content analysis as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from text …to the contexts of their use” (Krippendorff, 2004:18). Content
analysis increases researchers’ understanding of particular phenomena. This methodology can be used to develop an understanding of the meaning of communication – in this case, media content – about Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. Cavanagh (1997:6) agrees that content analysis can lead to possible answers to research questions, hypothesis testing and the development of theory.

Krippendorff (2004:29) offers a conceptual framework for content analysis by identifying three purposes:

- Prescriptive purpose: to guide the conceptualisation and design of practical content analysis research
- Analytical purpose: to facilitate critical examination and comparison of the published content analysis
- Methodological purpose: for performance criteria and precautionary standards to evaluate on-going research (Krippendorff, 2004:29).

The current study employs the content analysis framework as a simple and general conceptual framework for a media impact analysis of a sport mega-event. The model was borrowed from Krippendorff’s work on content analysis. It has the following six conceptual components:

- Body of text – this is the data that is available to commence an analytical work, in this case, the media content or media articles
- Research questions – these are the sets of questions which the researcher seeks to answer by examining the body of text (the media content)
- Context of the analyst’s choice within which to make sense of the body of text
- Analytical construct – this informs what is already known about the context, which is a comprehensive literature review
- Inferences that are intended to answer the research questions – including a basic accomplishment of the content analysis
- Validating evidence – which is the justification for the content analysis (Krippendorff, 2004:29).

The content for analysis, usually referred to as text, is the starting point for any empirical research. Markus and Lin (2010:235) agree that in most cases content analysis starts with the available text that, on careful reading, poses scientific research questions. They further note that content analysis can also begin with research questions that lead the researcher to search for texts capable of providing answers (Markus & Lin, 2010:235). Indeed, most content analyses start with data in the form of text that could be available, but was not intended to be used, for research purposes. Krippendorff (2004:30) notes that such data or texts are available “to be read, interpreted and understood by people other than the analysts”. Texts are interpreted differently, depending on who is doing the interpreting.

Sport mega-events such as the World Cup and the Olympic Games draw much media attention which puts the hosting nations or cities in the spotlight. News generated both within the hosting destination of sport mega-events and beyond is usually mixed (positive and
negative) and provides the texts that researchers might be interested in exploring (Jones, 2001:248).

Figure 2.1 below illustrates the basic framework for content analysis and its components.

![Figure 2.1: A framework for Content Analysis](image)

Source: Krippendorff (2004:30)

As depicted in Figure 2.1, research questions form one of the conceptual components of the content analysis framework. Research questions are the targets of the researcher’s extrapolations from the available textual data. Krippendorff (2004:31) maintains that the answers to the research questions indeed must be derived from the textual data. In this study, the researcher examined the extracted media content about Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup to answer the identified research questions. Whenever research is motivated by specific questions, researchers are able to focus on the relevant texts that deliver answers to those questions. The media impact study on Brazil for the current research delineated the content for analysis by only focusing on news articles mentioning Brazil or Rio de Janeiro with reference to the hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. Content analysis is especially useful if the researcher’s is unable to observe the phenomena first-hand (Krippendorff, 2004:31). In content analysis, the research questions have the following four characteristics:

- They are believed to be answerable by examining the body of text (In Figure 2.1, this is shown by the bold dashed arrow)
- They delineate a set of possible answers among which analysts select (In Figure 2.1, it is indicated by the unlabelled diamond)
- They concern currently inaccessible phenomena
- They allow for validation by substantiating the occurrence of the inferred phenomena (In Figure 2.1, this is shown by the thin dashed arrow from the worlds of others)
The other component of content analysis is ‘context’, which is all the knowledge that the researcher brings to bear on the given textual data, whether in the form of scientific theories or an extensive review of relevant literature. Analytical constructs usually operationalise what the researcher knows about the context. Validating evidence is another component of the content analysis framework. Krippendorff (2004:39) argues that any content analysis “should be validatable in principle”. This allows researchers to produce empirically validated results and conclusions.

The next section shifts the discussion from content analysis to focus on a theory widely used in the social sciences, the political economy theory. Bramwell (2011:465) views the political economy theory as useful in understanding the various aspects of a society. This theory contextualises global issues and raises aspects relating to economic obligations, for example in this study, the main reasons for hosting sport mega-events. This theory also spells out what benefits are derived from hosting sport mega-events and which parties benefit from such events.

2.2.2 Political economy theory in media studies
Political economy is a theoretical perspective that seeks to understand the interrelationships of wealth, power, the media and cultural systems within a society. Political economy has its roots in ancient Greek, where it was used in reference to the management of domestic resources (Mosco, 1996:24). Mosco points out that political economy is about “survival and control”, or how societies are structured to produce what is required to survive, and the ways of maintaining order to meet societal goals (Mosco, 1996:25). According to Graham (2007:227), the phenomenon of political economy started featuring in the academic literature as early as the mid-nineteenth century onwards. Graham (2007:227) goes on to define political economy as the study of how values of all types are produced, distributed, and consumed, how power is produced, distributed, exchanged, and exercised; and how the features of social life are organised at any given place and time. The political economy can also be described as structures of power within societies emanating from a process of social change (Bianchi, 2002:266). In relation to the media, the political economy theory is dedicated to understanding the roles of the media in societies, for example whether the media fulfil their mandate by encouraging social justice, open governance and effective participatory democracy (McChesney, 2008:491).

The use of political economy in media studies can be divided into two areas. First, as exemplified by Golding and Murdock (2005:66), it can be concerned with the power structures that create, and are created, by media structures and messages. This perspective is preoccupied with the role of media within democratic debate, and the effect that particular types of ownership can have on public debate. Private ownership of media is viewed as
being a danger to the accountability of the producers of media messages, which can lead to
the imposition of ideological control from certain political perspectives (Golding & Murdock,
2005:66). Secondly, the mass media are also viewed as an important source of political
information and a platform for political debates. Political scientists cannot underestimate the
power and role of mass media in societies. According to Negrine (1996:107), the media
perform various functions in society, including acting as:

- an important link between the public, and the opinion of the public and the decision-
  making processes of government;
- a key player in the construction or creation of ‘the public’ and of public opinion; and
- a means by which the public can come to play a direct and indirect part in the
democratic process.

Particularly within democratic societies, the media are expected to perform various functions
(Islam, 2002:4-8). The primary function entails the creation of public space. Mass media
include the public space that is the direct basis for their secondary and the indirect basis for
their tertiary functions. The secondary functions encompass information and control. Starting
with information, Iyengar and McGrady (2007:19) assert that the media provide a platform for
political players and parties to argue their qualifications for public office before an audience.
This assists in ensuring that citizens are provided with vital information and various
perspectives on daily affairs. The controlling function is aimed at monitoring office bearers
(politicians, government officials, government agencies and other authorities) by serving as
“public watchdog”, thus assisting in exposing mismanagement, abuse of power and
corruption (Islam, 2002:194). In this case, the media serves in holding the government
accountable to the public. Moving on to the tertiary function as explained by Islam (2002:10),
this includes political socialisation and integration aimed at propagating the shared values
and rules of a society. The tertiary functions also include political education, which functions
to ensure that basic knowledge about political processes is provided. Another tertiary
function of the media entails the formation of public opinion, which means that they act as
‘gate keepers’ and shape the public debate (Iyengar, 1997:214).

The following sub-section examines the role and power of the media. It is important to
examine the role played by the media in relation to sport events.

2.2.2.1 The role and power of media

Social scientists have been interested in mass media from the early 20th century, starting with
Max Weber who viewed media content as a means of monitoring the “cultural temperature”
of society (Hansen et al., 1998:92). The power of the media is not restricted to their influence
on their audience alone, but affects a broader framework of social, cultural, political, and
economic power structures in society (Dijk, 1992:11).
The media are an important agent of society and serve the public by providing basic knowledge and information, including updates on various subjects and happenings (Sadaf, 2011:228). In addition to being sources of information, the media also influence the audience in a number of ways. Collins et al. (2006:89) identify the commonly cited effects of media on their audience as informing, agenda setting, framing and persuading. Collins et al. (2006:90) also view the media as the link between the public and policy agendas, thus helping to shape public opinion and expectations about policies.

The major sources of event information are the news media, which enable the public/consumers to “become more informed about the issues and events of the day” (Iyengar, 1997:212). The accuracy of this notion however rests on the way the messages are decoded by media consumers. Although it is difficult to control how news consumers receive media messages, Collins et al. (2006:90) affirm that media producers have some control over presentation quality. News editors devote considerable time to ensuring that balanced and accurate news is produced, news which is at the same time a sellable product (Seale, 2003:515). The sport event media discourse is dominated by issues that include terrorism, corruption, stadium readiness, white elephants, crime, safety and security, government policy and many other pressing issues (Grix & Lee, 2013; Henderson, 2016). In addition to its merely informative role, the news media work as agenda-setters. Swart et al. (2013:1977) note that agenda-setting is related to the media’s ability to raise the salience of novel or existing issues and the corresponding level of importance the public assigns to these issues. These issues are then identified as important by the national government responsible for formulating the sports policy for the country, which then informs the media agenda, and in turn the public agenda (Collins et al., 2006:91). The framing function of the media is mediated by how the issues are presented in the news. Dearing and Rogers (1996:64) define framing as, “the subtle selection of certain aspects of an issue by the media to make them more important and thus to emphasise a particular cause of some phenomenon”. There are two types of news framing, episodic and thematic (Iyengar, 1997:214). The former represents issues in terms of specific instances while the latter represents political issues more broadly and abstractly (Iyengar, 1997:214). Episodic framing often “shields public officials and institutions from responsibility”, and thereby preserves the status quo, whilst thematic framing promotes societal attributions of responsibility that challenge the status quo (Iyengar, 1997:214; Aarøe, 2011:207). The fourth effect of the media is their function as persuaders, their ability to persuade the public regarding the issues they present (Iyengar, 1997; Swart et al., 2013:1977). Iyengar (1997:215-216) identifies three components in the act of persuasion, the message, the source and the audience. The message is the issue that is presented, the source is the media agent (like a daily newspaper), and the audience, the consumers of the media content, for example a Brazilian citizen reading the daily newspaper.
The fact that the media help to build the tourist destination’s brand has an intuitive appeal. The publicity that events obtain and their presence in advertising messages should raise the profile of the hosting nation, thus adding salience to its brand (Knott et al., 2015). This assumes, of course, that event publicity supports the destination’s association with the event. Higham (2005:165) notes that in order for event publicity to promote the destination, the destination must be shown or mentioned. This also assumes that event publicity and event advertising will convey messages that are consistent with the destination’s desired brand (Higham, 2005:165). In order for the destination’s brand to be promoted, the messages that are delivered must foster a brand image that is consistent with the image that the destination seeks (Chalip, 2005:165).

The coverage of the host destination, whether via publicity or advertising, is not built from the targeted message controlled by destination marketers. In the case of event advertising, marketers are promoting the attributes and benefits that they expect will bring people to the event. In the case of publicity, the images and messages that audiences obtain form a haphazard collage, selected and edited by broadcasters and journalists.

The following section draws attention to media impact models in relation to the hosting of sport mega-events. The section provides a discussion of selected media impact theories.

2.2.3 Media impact theories
The study of mass media or communication has grown so large and become so fragmented that it is difficult for scholars to comprehend. Thus at times researchers find it useful to use theory to classify and explain relationships between variables (Indiana.edu, 2001). The study of mass media has given rise to the formation of many theories. Suresh (2003) distinguishes various types: structural and functional; cognitive and behavioural; interactionist; interpretive; and critical theories. The following subsections describe six media impact theories: media dependency theory; agenda-setting theory; hypodermic needle theory; uses and gratifications theory; symbolic interactionism; and cultivation analysis.

2.2.3.1 Media dependency theory
Media dependency theory is built on the uses and gratifications theory and is associated with agenda setting theory (Uky.edu, n.d.). Uses and gratifications identifies how people use and become dependent upon the media (Suresh, 2003). People use the media for many reasons, including for information, entertainment, and parasocial relationships. Dependency theory says the more a person becomes dependent on the media to fulfil these needs, the more important the media will become to that individual (Uky.edu, n.d.). More precisely, media dependency theory relies heavily on the internal linkages between media, audience, and a large social system (Suresh, 2003:1). The media also have considerable influence and power over individuals. Agenda setting is usually much easier and possible when individuals
are dependent on only one medium for information (Brossard, 2013). However, dependency theory has been criticised as incomplete (Matunhu, 2011:69). Matunhu (2011:67-70) argues that it does not clearly describe the power of media dependency, thus rendering it difficult to prove scientifically.

2.2.3.2 Agenda-setting theory
The agenda-setting theory of the media states that the mass media determine the issues that concern the public rather than the views of the public (Muin, 2011:1). In terms of this theory, the issues that receive the most attention from the media become the issues that the public discusses, debates, and demands action on. This means that the media are determining what issues and stories the public thinks about (Groshek, 2008:53-56). Therefore, when the media fail to address a particular issue, it becomes disregarded in the minds of the public (Hanson, 2009:92).

Lule (2014:1) asserts that when critics claim that the media have an agenda, they are drawing on this theory of agenda setting. He notes that “agendas can range from a perceived liberal bias in the news media to the propagation of cut-throat capitalist ethics in films”. For example, the agenda-setting theory explains such phenomena as the publicity given to the misappropriation of public funds for planning and hosting sport mega-events. Another interesting example pertains to public opinion and smoking, as explained by Lule (2014).

Before the mass media began taking an anti-smoking stance, smoking was considered a personal health issue (Lule, 2014). By promoting anti-smoking sentiments through advertisements, public relations campaigns, and a variety of media outlets, the mass media moved smoking into the public arena, making it a public health issue rather than a personal health issue (Dearing & Rogers, 1996:4). More recently, in relation to mega-events bids, coverage of corruption and scandals has been prominent in the news (Bayle, 2015:1; Shahin et al., 2016). However, as news coverage decreases, so does the general public’s interest.

Media researchers who specialise in agenda-setting research study the salience, or relative importance, of an issue, and then attempt to understand what causes it to be important (Lule, 2014). The relative salience of an issue determines its place within the public agenda, which in turn influences public policy creation. Dearing and Rogers (1996:8) note that the research on agenda-setting traces public policy from its roots as an agenda through its promotion in the mass media, to its final form as a law or policy.

2.2.3.3 Hypodermic needle theory
The hypodermic needle theory claims that the mass media has a direct and powerful effect on its audiences. This theory was widely applied in the 1940s and 1950s, when the power of the media to influence behavioural change was first realised (Suresh, 2003). According to Bunby (2013:1), the hypodermic needle theory assumes that the media have a direct and
immediate effect on the audience. It is also known as the magic bullet theory, to the extent that it assumes there is a direct flow of information from the sender to the receiver (Proust, 2010:1). Messages received through newspaper content and are wholly accepted by its readers. The powerful influence of the media is entirely controlled by the sender of media content.

The propaganda model also recognises the power of the sender, who communicates a message to an audience that is seen as completely passive, entirely submissive to the content they read, regardless of whether the message is true or not, powerless to resist being persuaded (Proust, 2010:1). The decisions made by the audience are thus conditioned by the media content received, for example, a sport tourist’s decision to visit a particular destination may be based on messages received (McCoy & Hargie, 2003:305).

2.2.3.4 Uses and gratifications theory
Proponents of the uses and gratifications theory focus on the ways in which the public consumes media. The theory maintains that consumers use the media to fulfil specific needs (Ruggiero, 2000:3; Lule, 2014). These needs can be social or psychological; for example, a sport enthusiast may enjoy reading about sport events in other destinations while simultaneously sharing views with friends on social media sites (Lule, 2014). The internet is now widely used for sharing events-related information. In the uses and gratifications approach, the audience is regarded as active, willingly seeking out specific media and content to achieve certain results or ‘gratifications’ that satisfy their personal needs (Shin, 2014). Some of these aspects include travel destinations to visit, cultures of a specific group of people, and different kinds of sport (Ruggiero, 2000:3).

2.2.3.5 Symbolic Interactionism
Another commonly used media theory in sociology is symbolic interactionism, which explains social behaviour in terms of how people interact with each other using symbols (Communication Studies, 2015). It suggests that societies and humans may only exist in relation to one another and that they “create a reality that encompasses their morals, ethics, values, beliefs, attitudes and perceptions through social interaction with each other” (Tuenge, 2010). The way individuals act towards things or people is based on the meaning they have for each other (Communication Studies, 2015). To effectively communicate, people use symbols with shared cultural meanings. Symbols can be constructed from just about anything, including material goods, education, or even the way people talk. Consequentially, these symbols are instrumental in the development of the self (Communication Studies, 2015).
2.2.3.6 Cultivation analysis

Cultivation analysis theory or the cultivation hypothesis states that heavy exposure to the media causes people to develop some illusory perception of reality (Chandler, 1995:1). This theory is most commonly invoked in analyses of television because of its universal nature. Chandler (1995:1) notes that cultivation research theory looks at the mass media as a socialising agent. It also examines whether television viewers come to believe the television version of reality the more they watch it. The central thesis underlying cultivation theory is the repetition of exposure to media (Matei, 2012:1). Consistent exposure to the media, specifically to crime and violence, causes individuals to develop mental formations that inform their perceptions.

Having launched the theoretical framework for the study, it is necessary now to provide an overview, defining terms that will be used prominently in the study. The sections that follow therefore deal with sport, tourism and sport tourism.

2.3 Sport

Researchers and experts have apparently found it quite difficult to agree on a definition for the term sport. According to Standeven and De Knop (1999:7), there is no universally accepted definition. A number of definitions have been proposed, but some academics contend that a general definition that incorporates all aspects of sport is an impossibility. This is because “sport is a socially constructed activity that has varied across historical eras, societies and culture” (Ritchie & Adair, 2004:3). According to Hornby (2005:1425), as cited by Achu (2011:15), sport is “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”. This may be a bit reductive in that it suggests that sport is an organised and competitive activity. Some experts regard bull fighting as a sport, while others argue that bull fighting is not a sporting contest since it is not competitive (Ritchie & Adair, 2004:3).

A widely accepted definition of sport is that of Weed (2008), who describes sport as “some form of activity, be it formal or informal, competitive or recreational, or actively, passively or vicariously participated in, which also involves other people as competitors or co-participants” (Weed, 2008:27). Active participation obviously involves being physically active in sport, whereas passive participation includes those who watch live or televised performances of sport, and those who read about sport (Standeven & De Knop, 1999).

According to Hinch and Higham (2011:18), clear-cut governing rules and regulations have to exist in sporting activities.

In more general terms, Weed (2008:28) characterises sport as a social, economic and cultural phenomenon which results from the interactions of activities, people and places.
2.4 Tourism

Sharply and Telfer (2014:21) note that tourism remains a term subject to diverse interpretation, with a wide variety of definitions and descriptions proposed in the literature. Like sport, coming up with a comprehensive definition for tourism has proved to be challenging. This is because definitions vary according to society, social group and historical context (Urry, 1990:1). Sharma (2004:163) views tourism primarily as a social activity involving people travelling from one place to another. He posits that tourism is an activity involving individuals who travel within their country or internationally and who interact with other people and places. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), tourism is defined simply as “the movement of people to countries and places outside their usual environment” (UNWTO, 2010). Hinch and Higham (2011:19) add that for a person to be considered a tourist, he or she must return home after a certain period. They also stress that sport is an important part of tourism (Hinch & Higham, 2011:20).

The definition provided by the World Bank stipulates the length of time for the travel as well as delineating the activities pursued at the visited places. World Bank (2005:369) defines tourism as “activities of people travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for no more than one year for leisure, business, and other purposes not related to an activity remunerated from within the place visited”.

2.5 Sport tourism

Sport tourism is recognised as one of the fastest growing segments within the tourism industry (Getz, 2005). Various definitions have been proposed for sport tourism that successfully integrate its different components (Gibson, 1998:46; Standeven & De Knop, 1999; Turco et al., 2002). These definitions enable a distinction to be drawn between usual tourists and sport tourists.

Hinch and Higham (2011:17) define sport tourism as two merged concepts, sport and tourism, thus including travel away from one’s primary place of residence to participate in a sport activity, for purposes of recreation or competition. Weed and Bull (2004) agree that sport tourism is a synergistic phenomenon but the link is more than a simple combination of sport and tourism. The authors view this type of tourism as a social, economic, and cultural phenomenon emanating from a unique interaction among activity, people, and place.

A more comprehensive definition of sport tourism is provided by Standeven and De Knop (1999:12): “all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organised way for non-commercial or business/commercial reasons that necessitate travel away from the home and work locality”. This definition encompasses all the necessary components and has been used by many researchers. Standeven and De
Knop state that the sport activity can range from a mega-event (such as the FIFA World Cup™ or the Olympic Games) to a local or community event.

Turco et al. (2002:3) provide a simple and concise definition which “includes travel to and participation in or attendance at a predetermined sport activity”. The sport activity as defined by Turco et al. (2002) can be competitive, for entertainment, educational or recreational. There is general agreement that sport tourists are either actively participating in or watching sporting activities (Gibson, 1998; Standeven & De Knop, 1999; Turco et al., 2002).

Descriptions of sport tourism commonly include the types of activities sport tourists engage in. Specifically, researchers have attempted to distinguish active from passive sport tourism so that stakeholders can target the experiences that tourists seek while on holiday (Gibson, 1998; Gibson et al., 2003; Ritchie & Adair, 2002). In view of the fact that sport tourism has a huge base market, tourism stakeholders within the hosting nations and cities have developed a desire to use sporting events as a tool for developing and promoting tourism (Gammon & Ramshaw, 2013). For instance, Brazil hosted the 2014 FIFA World Cup™, and – at the time of writing – is set to host yet another mega-event, the 2016 Olympic Games. The Brazilian Tourism Board, Embratur, had anticipated a boom in the economy as a result of hosting global events (Scott, 2014). However, despite Brazil’s successful hosting of the 2014 World Cup, the economic spinoffs from the event seemed to be less than what was imagined (Morpurgo, 2015). Therefore, it has become increasingly clear that the scale and complexity of sport tourism demands that academic expertise be directed towards the field. Today, sport tourism has become one of the world’s preferred leisure experiences. Despite being a growing tourism product, as well as an academic field of study, there is still the need for a better understanding of the nature, impacts and linkages between sport and tourism (Gibson, 2002:22).

Sport tourism has developed over many years to what it is today. The tourism potential of sport events has featured in several studies. In most cases, the events have been well-known to appeal to tourists as well as the relevant sport community. Sporting events often increase tourism numbers in the form of spectators, medical staff, media personnel, officials as well as the participants (Nauright & Parrish, 2012:67). Many countries have resorted to using sport to promote their destinations and at the same time grow tourism. Notable examples, as suggested by Nauright and Parrish (2012:68), are Australia and South Africa, which are promoted internationally as destinations that offer an excellent climate, value for money, and as having a sport culture.

A distinction is also made between hard and soft definitions of sport tourism (Gammon & Robinson, 1997:16). The hard definition is based on the active or passive participation at a competitive sporting event, meaning that a sport tourist is someone who travels to be
involved in sport either actively or passively (Nauright & Parrish, 2012:68). For such tourists, academics agree that the main motivation for travel is to witness sporting events such as the Olympic Games and Football World Cup (Gammon & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Gammon, 2004; Nauright & Parrish, 2012). The soft definition of sport tourism refers to those tourists who travel to be actively involved, and to participate recreationally in sport, for example skiing and walking or cycling holidays (Gammon & Robinson, 1997:5; Gammon & Robinson, 2003:23). The distinguishing factor for hard sport tourism is the competitive nature of the event, whereas for soft sport tourism it is the recreational aspect (Robinson & Gammon, 2004:226).

The following section examines the relationship between sport and tourism. The two are believed to have had a long association.

2.6 The relationship between sport and tourism

The study of sport tourism development offers numerous important insights into the ways that sport tourism has changed and will continue to change over time (Hinch & Higham, 2011:215). Sport tourism development studies require a foundation that includes a number of aspects. Hinch and Higham (2011:215) identify three elements that shape the foundation of sport tourism development, and these are;

- underlying framework highlighting the relationship between sport and tourism;
- appreciation of sport tourism markets; and
- understanding of fundamental development concepts and issues.

The first connection between sport and tourism occurred in the early to mid-nineteenth century. Standeven (1994:137) dates it to the year 1827, though he allows that forms of sport tourism may be dated back to the times of the ancient Greeks. Pigeassou et al. (2003:28) locate the connection between tourism and sport in the emergence of Alpine winter sports in the nineteenth century, but date the emerging dominance of the sport tourism domain to the 1950s. Standeven and de Knop (1999:14-28) provide an overview of the historical developments and the relationship between sport and tourism. They explain that for the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, this relationship is distinguished by the level of the individual sport types. Zauhar provides an interesting overview of the different eras and the relationships between sport and tourism (Zauhar, 2003, 2004).

Zauhar (2003:48) notes that throughout history, sport and tourism have been great motivators for travel. From the early years of sport development, the sport phenomenon has grown into a recognised tourism framework. History shows that sport tourism has always been a cultural characteristic. From the ancient times to the recent years, sport participants, spectators, and travel are always associated in varying degrees with sport tourism (Zauhar, 2003:48).
The nineteenth century was characterised by the Industrial Revolution and social unrest in many nations (Zauhar, 2003:39). Despite these wild years, sport tourism thrived. The period witnessed a tremendous growth of sports clubs, associations and federations throughout the world. It helped increase both active and passive participation in sport tourism. The development of railway lines in this era improved transportation and hence impacted directly on the sport tourism movement (Zauhar, 2003:39).

The nineteenth century saw sport gaining more recognition and for Zauhar (2004:82), the period could be considered, “explosive, expansive, diverse and colourful”. This was when sport became more popular and spectator interest and followership intensified. The media played a significant role in this, encouraging fans to appreciate sport.

The twentieth century saw sport tourism gaining an added importance through the thriving of specific events catering to athletes and sports enthusiasts (Zauhar, 2003:44). In this regard, Zauhar identifies the Olympic Games, halls of fame, sport cruises, sport resorts and sport tours. With the passage of time, event organisers gained experience of administration, thus rendering sport events more efficiently run.

Recently Saayman (2012:3) has agreed that the relationship between sport and tourism dates back to ancient times. He explains that sport tourism started when people competed against each other in trying to show who was strongest, could run the fastest, throw the furthest or jump the highest (Saayman, 2012:3). This then led to the development of Ancient Games which have significantly evolved over time, as revealed by Zauhar’s studies. Travel and sport are argued to be inter-connected activities which depend on each other; perhaps more importantly nowadays, sport relies on the existence of tourism through what Zauhar (2004:13) calls “sport as a touristic endeavour”. As Saayman (2012:3) explains it, tourism offers food and beverages, accommodation, transport as well as services such as tour operators and travel agents to host events. On the other hand, sport can be used by cities and nations to develop and grow tourism (Chalip & Costa, 2005:218).

Standeven and De Knop (1999:5) describe the relationship between sport and tourism as symbiotic, since sport influences tourism by offering a range of visitor experiences, and tourism helps sport by drawing sport spectators and participants to sporting activities. The synergistic link between sport and tourism is illustrated in Figure 2.2, in which sport is identified as a special segment of the tourism industry. The relationship is depicted as a model of sport tourism, both elements depending on infrastructure and participants via a two-way interactive link.
The model above illustrates the relationship between sport and tourism in terms of sport interacting with tourism, which, in turn, influences sport participation and infrastructure. As globalisation advances, new possibilities are opening up for enriching touristic experiences through sport and enhancing sport development through tourism (Standeven & De Knop, 1999).

2.7 Categorising sport tourism

One of the most commonly accepted classifications of sport tourism is that of Gibson, who distinguished three forms. These are event, active and nostalgia sport tourism (Gibson, 2002:30). These are explained below.

2.7.1 Event sport tourism

Event sport tourism involves individuals or tourists who undertake trips with the main aim of viewing sport events (Gammon & Ramshaw, 2013:54). A number of studies have been carried out in this field of tourism, especially on sport mega-events such as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup™. These kinds of events powerfully attract people to visit the places where they are hosted, which tend to result in their neglecting smaller events which also have huge potential to attract tourists. But studies have shown that the hosting of such sport events can have widely varying impacts on the hosting community (Gibson, 2002:30). For instance, Gibson notes that about 70% of the tourists and spectators who participate in sport mega-events come from areas where the event is hosted, making researchers doubt if professional sport is actually a form of sport tourism (Gibson 2002:30).

2.7.2 Active sport tourism

Active sport tourism refers to those who participate physically in sporting activities, either competitive or non-competitive, while they are travelling. Despite recent work in this field, Gibson (1998:53) notes that research in active sport tourism is “scarce, usually descriptive and typically theoretical”. Gibson (1998:49) uses the term ‘sportlover’ to describe those people who want to physically participate in sporting activities even while on business trips or leisure trips. Some participants are motivated to travel to certain places so as to take part in...
sporting activity to enhance their sporting ability, compete against rivals or just for passion (Hinch & Higham, 2009:42). Examples of active sport tourism include skiing, bicycle touring, adventure tourism, and active participation in events such as the Master’s Game, Football World Cup or other sporting tournaments (Hinch & Higham, 2009:42).

2.7.3 Nostalgia sport tourism

According to Gibson’s (1998:64) classification framework, the least researched branch of sport tourism is nostalgia sport tourism. This form of sport tourism involves people who visit famous sporting places, sporting halls of fame, sport museums, or who meet with famous sport people, or take a sport-themed vacation on cruise ships, or play alongside top sport stars at fantasy camps (Gibson, 2002:31). This form of sport tourism has experienced notable growth in recent years, with many people showing interest in visiting famous clubs in Europe such as Manchester United, Football Club (F.C.) Barcelona, Chelsea F.C. and Real Madrid F.C. With the increasing interest in nostalgia sport tourism, there has been a rise in the establishment of museums, such as the national football museum in Preston, Wimbledon tennis museum, the Newmarket horseracing museum and the British Golf museum opened at St Andrews in 1990. These places are among the top places of interest for nostalgia sport tourists (Hinch & Higham, 2009:58).

Subsequent to Gibson’s (2002) taxonomy, Weed and Bull (2012:123) have re-thought the classification of sport tourism, distinguishing five different types:

- Tourism with sport content;
- Sport participation tourism;
- Sport training;
- Sport event; and
- Luxury sport tourism.

They describe tourism with sport content as that type of tourism whereby sport is not the main reason for the trip (Weed & Bull, 2012:12). For instance, the tourist might just find out that there is a sporting activity taking place at the destination where he is and so decide to attend it, or he might just decide to visit a famous sporting stadium or facility at the destination.

Contrary to tourism with sport content, in sport participation tourism, sport is the main reason for the trip (Weed & Bull, 2012:127), for instance travelling to a destination to play golf or football, or to ski. Weed (2008:15) notes that sport can be a means of transport, for example when tourists decide they will be riding their bikes to the destination or go to the destination by kayaking, they are actively participating in sport relating to tourism.

Sport training refers to holidays where the main reason for the trip is to acquire knowledge or training in a certain aspect or field of sports (Weed & Bull, 2012:130). Weed (2008) has
subdivided this category in three. The first in his list is travelling somewhere to learn about
sport, for example, a trip to Lahti during the winter to learn how to ski, or a trip to Australia to
learn how to dive. The second category comprises those groups of tourists who already have
skills in a particular sport but are interested in acquiring yet more skills in that sport – for
instance, a tourist who already knows how to swim but takes part in a tourist swimming
course so as to improve his swimming skills. The last in his category is luxury sports tourism,
which pays more attention to the quality of the facilities where the sport is played than on the
participants or how the sport is played (Weed, 2008:21). This form of tourism has features
such as high quality facilities, luxurious accommodation and high quality services (Weed,
2008:21).

To conclude this section, it can be said that sport is a structured, competitive or recreational
physical activity that has rules and that can be done either alone or in groups. Sport tourism
is a form of tourism where sport usually has an active part when it comes to planning and
making a trip. A sport tourist is a person who takes part in sport by being either a participant
or a spectator. Furthermore, sport tourism can be divided into different types according to its
importance among the reasons of travelling. In this research project, sport tourism is
understood to include competitive sport and events as well as leisure and recreational sport.
Having described and categorised the phenomenon of sport tourism, it makes sense to
identify the individuals and parties affected by it. The following section examines the role-
players involved in sport tourism.

2.8 The role players in sport tourism
The events industry like the sport tourism industry is highly complex, comprising of various
role-players who perform an intimate role in researching and producing events for
consumption by an audience (Tassiopoulos, 2010:85). Each role-player plays a different yet
significant part in carrying out event strategies (Smit, 2012:492). Some role-players are able
to provide the full range of services necessary for an event. Figure 2.3, adapted from
Saayman (2012:18), illustrates the key role-players in sport tourism. Descriptions for each of
these follows.

2.8.1 Media
The media promote the event activity and give it the necessary publicity, which can either be
positive or negative. The role of the media in sport tourism should not be underestimated,
regardless of the size of the event. Higham (2005:289) speculates that the media will
continue to perform an important role relating to the profile and image of a tourism
destination. He further notes that the influential role of the media is relevant to “participation
and pleasure” sport which places an emphasis on healthy lifestyles, fun, individual
expression, social relations, and the creation of an all-inclusive environment.
2.8.2 Support services
Sport tourism involves more than just an event or activity; there are a number of additional role-players who contribute massively to the success of sport tourism. According to Saayman (2012:20), these are referred to as support services. These are however not illustrated on Figure 2.3 like other role-players despite them playing a significant role in the production and consumption of events. They include accommodation, transport, travel agents, tour operators, banking and foreign exchange services, and food and beverages services. Saayman (2012:20) stresses that if support services are inadequate the event will be unsuccessful. Therefore, it is crucial for an event organiser to ensure that support services are adequate and properly offered so that a positive image about the event destination is created (Turco et al., 2002).

2.8.3 Medical staff
The medical fraternity is also an important role-player in sport tourism. In today’s world, sporting competitions require medical support, for example, doctors, physiotherapists and first aid workers need to be on standby to offer help when required (South Africa, 2015).

2.8.4 Organisers
Sport tourism organisers can be classified into different groups in local, national and international committees, bodies, organisations and federations, depending on the type and scope of the activity or event. Event organisers are the people who assume responsibility for hosting an event or league and ensuring that it succeeds. The organisers plan the event, market it and execute the plans. Saayman (2012:19) notes that event organisers have huge responsibilities, since much of the success of the event rests on their abilities.

2.8.5 Officials
Officials are the role-players who ensure that the competition is played according to the rules and that the participants are ready to participate; for example, security personnel, coaches, referees, managers, judges, sport psychologists, registration and support staff. Officials for sport mega-events are divided into two groups, private and public (Matheson & Baade,
2004:1093). The public officials are the ones involved with major decisions, including ensuring that the required infrastructure is set up for the mega-event (Matheson & Baade, 2004:1093). Conversely, private officials work closely with the public officials to ensure that the event is successful, for example, private coaches, security personnel, judges and many others. According to Gaffney (2010:12), government officials, particularly politicians, use sport mega-event infrastructure and facilities including stadiums to promulgate national policies and consolidate power. Since there is a growing association between sporting facilities and politics, government officials tend to craft their political agendas around sport mega-events.

2.8.6 Volunteers
Sport events regardless of size need individuals who are able to volunteer to work in various segments of the event. Saayman (2012:19) calls these individuals “the unsung heroes of sport tourism”, since without them; major events would not be successful. Many studies on sport mega-events have shown that event volunteers play an important, even key role in ensuring a successful event (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006; Baum & Lockstone, 2007; Giannoulakis et al., 2007). In fact Baum and Lockstone (2007:29) note that the most significant contribution to mega-events in sports in terms of work is provided by the very large numbers of volunteers who undertake tasks across the range of opportunities afforded by such events.

2.8.7 Sponsors
The success of events now depends on the presence of sponsorship, since they require large capital investments. This can be for sport development, hosting of the event or participating in the league competition. Many sportswear companies invest by sponsoring sport mega-events such as the Football World Cup, the Olympic Games, and popular sport games. Becoming an official sponsor of a sport mega-event involves a huge financial investment, which is expected to create favourable results such as increased profit, improved stock returns, and positive advertising effect (Kim, 2010:2). The 2014 FIFA World Cup™ involved more than 20 global and Brazilian businesses as official sponsors of FIFA. Those companies are granted the opportunity to use official FIFA trademarks and most importantly, use ‘World Cup’ and similar phrasing in their marketing (O’Brien, 2014:2).

In most cases event sponsors such as soccer sponsors launch campaigns aimed at emphasising soccer as a global game and its unifying attributes. Some sponsors encourage fans to create and share content, and many offer ways to win trips to the actual matches. The following were some of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ sponsors; Coca-Cola, Adidas, Budweiser, Hyundai/Kia, Sony, McDonald's, Johnson & Johnson, Castrol and Continental (O’Brien, 2014:2).
The way the entity being sponsored (for example, FIFA) conducts business influences the willingness of the sponsor to invest in it. Recently FIFA has been plunged in corruption scandals, which have drawn criticism from its main sponsors (O’Reilly, 2014:1). Trying to show their transparency and tough stance on corruption, the sponsors have released statements regretting and reviling the corruption charges levelled at FIFA (O’Reilly, 2014:1).

2.8.8 Communities

Communities as role-players pay taxes that are used by the government to fulfil its function. In this context, it is also the community that endures all the inconveniences that come as a result of sport events. According to Saayman (2012:19), the community is seen as a significant role-player since it is they who have to maintain facilities long after the event. The willingness of community members (local residents/citizens) to support the hosting of sport mega-events is important for the success of the event. This is because the local residents have the power to impose sanctions which could be detrimental to the success of the event (Turco et al., 2003:227). Such sanctions might include:

- Loss of local support for the organisations and authorities promoting the event
- Unwillingness to take part in the event or in the tourism industry
- Lack of word-of-mouth promotion of the event
- Hostility towards visitors, manifested in respect of overcharging, rudeness and indifference displayed towards them. (Crompton & Ap, 1994)

It is therefore important that governments of sport mega-event hosting nations come up with strategies which ensure that these events enhance lives to avoid possible hostilities. The community impacts are understood in terms of anticipated benefits and costs by individuals within a society (Ap, 1992). The social exchange theory explained later in the current chapter offers an interesting discussion on how community members perceive tourism impacts in their area from the Brazil 2014 FIFA World Cup™.

2.8.9 Government

The government at all levels, local, provincial and national, plays an extremely important role in sport tourism. They are responsible for developing sport tourism policies, developing and maintaining the required infrastructure, marketing the event and the destination to sponsors, teams and individuals, as well as standing as guarantor for major events (Jennings, 2013:13).

2.8.10 Spectators

Spectators are an important role-player since many sport events would not take place in the absence of fans. Fans/spectators invest their time by being at the event, buy souvenirs, and travel with the team or sport participants (Hall, 2006:61). Spectators are responsible for most of the economic impact of events and therefore of paramount importance. These avail themselves to watch the sporting competition and it is a crucial group whose attendance can
be influenced by media. The ever increasing broadcasting of sports events, along with media reporting usually affects visitor numbers in two ways. Firstly, the media has managed to make it easier for people to follow events from their homes without needing to travel to the event venues. This has an advantage of making it possible to enhance the experience through inclusion of highlights, replays, commentary, statistics and analysis of the event. On the other hand, the media may profile the event in a positive way which influences attendance or paint the event negative which overall discourages attendance.

2.8.11 Participants
Saayman (2012:18) views the participants as the central attraction that spectators come to see. They can be members of a specific team or individuals.

2.9 Sport mega-events in emerging economies
2.9.1 Sport mega-events
With the term sport having been defined and its fundamentals laid out in previous sections, the current section starts off by addressing the term ‘mega-event’. A variety of definitions have been proposed in the literature to describe large-scale sport events (Schuessler, 2011:5). Muller (2015:627) notes that there is much discussion of mega-events which rarely includes a definition for them. The major difference between an event and a mega-event is essentially one of size, mega-events being larger than regular events (Muller, 2015:627). In trying to come up with a complete definition for mega-events, Muller (2015:629) reviewed the most prominent existing definitions of mega-events. His final definition comprises four elements that are rooted in Ritchie (1984:6)’s concept of hallmark events;

- Tourist attraction;
- Mediated reach;
- Cost and
- Transformation.

The use of the term mega-event became prominent in the last decade and has been used to indicate a ‘mega’ version of hallmark events (Kang & Perdue, 2012:206). The foundation for defining mega-events was established by Ritchie (1984:2), who offered a comprehensive definition for hallmark events:

Major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourist destination in the short and/or long term. Such events rely for their success on uniqueness, status, or timely significance to create interest and attract attention.

Roche (1994:1-2) then offered a better definition that included mediated reach, cost and transformation. But because it ignores visitor attraction, for Muller (2015) it was not comprehensive. Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:2) agree that a mega-event is supposed to attract considerable media coverage and be significant to its host nation or city. They view
the Football World Cup as a huge media event (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006:5). A definition by Jago and Shaw (1998:29) covers most aspects that describe mega-events such as media attraction, visitor attraction, high costs involved and prestige. Mills and Rosentraub (2013:239) offer a definition for mega-events covering aspects such as large media coverage, large public investments, infrastructure development and global competition. However, for Muller (2015:629), the above definition does not reflect that mega-events attract visitors or tourists. After reviewing previous definitions for mega-events, Muller (2015:638) concludes by providing this consolidated definition “Mega-events are ambulatory occasions of a fixed duration that attract a large number of visitors, have a large mediated reach, come with large costs and have large impacts on the built environment and the population”.

Although hallmark events may become mega-events, the latter are defined primarily by their size and economic value rather than their status or significance (Muller (2015:638). Mega-events have been described as having a range of impacts, negative and/or positive. Destination managers need to come up with strategies that seek to minimise negative impacts and enhance positive ones (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:122).

Sport mega-events are of international importance and usually involve political decisions by the national governments hosting them. More precisely, these events include events such as the Cricket and Rugby World Cups, FIFA World Cup™, Olympic and Paralympic Games, and the Commonwealth Games (Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011:1364). As agreed by many scholars, sport mega-events attract massive media coverage, with implications for broadcasting rights and major television audiences (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006:2). For Roberts (2004:108), mega-events which he calls ‘megas’ have the ability to transmit promotional messages to billions of people world-wide through television. The 2006 FIFA World Cup™ in Germany had a cumulative total of 26.29 billion viewers, the 2010 World FIFA Cup™ in South Africa had a total of more than 26 billion viewers and the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ in Brazil was viewed by 32 billion people in 214 countries (Naili, 2014). These figures confirm how powerful sport mega-events are in terms of attracting media coverage.

The participation of developing nations in hosting global mega-events has recently grown. In 2008, China hosted the Beijing Olympics, the Commonwealth Games was hosted by India in 2010, South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the World Expo was held in China also in 2010, and Russia hosted the Sochi Winter Olympics in 2014. Brazil hosted the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ and is set to host yet another global event in 2016, the Olympic and Paralympic Games in Rio de Janeiro. The International Bar Association (IBA) reported on Brazil’s involvement in the hosting of global sport events. Brazil has hosted a number of major sporting events, such as the Pan American Games in 2007, the 2011 Military Games and the 2013 FIFA Confederations Cup (IBA [International Bar Association], n.d.). The
emerging powers popularly referred to as the BRICs countries (Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) have all shown interest in staging sport mega-events for their various perceived benefits. Numerous business opportunities for stadiums, transportation, urban renewal, associated infrastructure, investment and job creation are some of the reasons why countries and cities bid to host mega-events (Malfas et al., 2004; Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006; Gaffney, 2010). The hosting of sport mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™ and the Olympic Games has hitherto been the privilege of developed countries, thus preventing emerging economies from also reaping the monetary rewards (Matheson & Baade, 2004; Bohlmann & van Heerden, 2005; Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011). However, this trend has changed in the recent years, with developing nations becoming increasingly involved in bidding to host these international competitions (Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011:1369). (Table 2.1, below, illustrates the participation of emerging countries in staging global events).

Table 2.1: Participation of emerging nations in global sporting events
Source: Adapted from Grix and Lee (2013:15)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Olympic Games</td>
<td>China (Beijing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>Commonwealth Games</td>
<td>India (Delhi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>FIFA World Cup™</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>FIFA World Cup™</td>
<td>Brazil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>Winter Olympics</td>
<td>Russia (Sochi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Olympic Games</td>
<td>Brazil (Rio de Janeiro)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2018</td>
<td>FIFA World Cup™</td>
<td>Russia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2022</td>
<td>FIFA World Cup™</td>
<td>Qatar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In trying to encourage equal opportunities and football across the globe, the football governing board, FIFA, came up with a rotational policy in 2000, thus designating hosting rights to countries which had not previously hosted sport mega-events (Turco & Swart, 2012:456). Under the rotation system, Africa got the opportunity to host the 2010 World Cup for the first time in South Africa, whereas Brazil became the sole bidder for the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ (Turco & Swart, 2012:456). The rotation system will however end in 2018 after Russia, a BRICs member state, hosts this prestigious competition (FIFA, 2007).

Steinbrink (2013:129) notes that the economies of the BRICs countries have seen large growth rates in the recent past, but that they are still characterised by “grave internal socio-economic disparities”. Therefore, bidding to host events of an international scale is seen as a strategy to enhance destination image and reduce societal inequalities (Allen et al., 2013:2001). By hosting the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ event, Brazil had an opportunity to showcase its strength as a regional leader and a BRICs member state. The event also sought to ‘correct’ Brazil’s traditional image as a nation with high rates of violence and great inequalities. In his acceptance speech, the then president of Brazil, Lula da Silva, clearly stated the nation’s intention to host the World Cup:
Here we are assuming responsibility as a nation, as the Brazilian State, to prove to the world that we have a stable, growing economy, that we are a country that has reached stability. We are a country that has many problems, yes, but the people in our country are determined to solve these problems. (da Silva, 2007:1)

The 2014 FIFA World Cup™ was to be funded almost entirely from private funds, yet as the World Cup drew closer, news emerged that large sums of public funds were being spent on the event (Petrowski, 2014:1). This fuelled anger among Brazilians, to the extent that thousands of them went onto the streets to protest. They felt that money that was supposed to be used to improve the health and education systems as well as the lives of the Brazilian people in general was being misappropriated (Attewill, 2013). Another reason for rising criticism of the Brazilian government was a flood of reports on human-rights violations, including evictions and unfair forced removals in the context of World Cup-related infrastructure upgrades and construction (Petrowski, 2014:1).

Sport mega-events have been analysed extensively and most studies have directed attention to the impact of events on the economy. There have been very few empirical studies of the impact of media on the hosting of sport mega-events, despite the fact that the media are of huge importance from the time the event is planned, during its hosting, and even beyond. The media constitute a significant vehicle for reporting a mega-event, framing and interpreting how the competition and the hosting country or city is perceived, both internally and internationally (Maguire, 2011:682). By examining the media one can ascertain the sentiments that emerge from media narratives, as these are of key importance to event marketers. The following section will examine the impact of sport mega-events in greater detail to set up a theoretical understanding of the current media-impact study of events.

2.10 The impacts of sport mega-events

Over the past decade, academics have examined the various impacts associated with hosting sports mega-events, with most attention being brought to bear on the Summer Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup (Szymanski, 2002; Waitt, 2003; Cho & Bairner, 2012). The impacts of sport mega-events on the host city or nation can be huge and diverse, positive and negative. Many researchers have started to critically examine the impacts of sport events (Brebbia & Pineda, 2006:127). These impacts can be divided into four main categories: economic, social, environmental and cultural (Mieczkowski, 1995:4). Cultural impacts can at times be merged with social impacts resulting in a socio-cultural category of impacts.

The impacts of sport events are recognised at different times of the event – before, during and after the event actually takes place (Getz, 2013). The impacts are felt by a variety of stakeholders, including the participants, local businesses, and the host nation or city. It is usually the long-term developmental expectations that influence cities’ and nations’
endeavours to host sport tourism events, regardless of the associated costs (Elendu, 2013:144). Particularly in the context of developing regions, it is highly advisable to analyse the impacts of such events as the failure to do so could lead to unsustainable tourism development (Hinch & Higham, 2009:213). In order to arrive at a better analysis of sport tourism impacts than there has been in the past, there is a need to identify how such impacts occur. Table 2.2, adapted from Swart et al. (2008:124), illustrates the different categories of sport events impacts as well as the positive and negative impacts for each category.

**Table 2.2: The impacts of sport events**

*Source: Adapted from Swart et al. (2008:124)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact category</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>• Job creation</td>
<td>• Loss of authenticity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Destination promotion and increase in visitor numbers</td>
<td>• Develops community resistance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Extends visitor length of stay at destinations</td>
<td>• Damage of reputation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Increased tax revenue</td>
<td>• Exploitation i.e. cheap labour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Creation of business opportunities</td>
<td>• Price increases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Commercial activity</td>
<td>• Opportunity costs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Enhances higher yields</td>
<td>• Financial mismanagement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Financial loss</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Socio-cultural</td>
<td>• Sharing of experiences</td>
<td>• Alienation of the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Revitalising of traditions</td>
<td>• Manipulation of the community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Building of community pride</td>
<td>• Negative community image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Increase in community participation</td>
<td>• Bad behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Introducing of new challenges and challenging ideas</td>
<td>• Substance abuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Expansion of cultural perspective</td>
<td>• Social dislocation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• media coverage</td>
<td>• Loss of dedicated amenity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical and</td>
<td>• Showcasing of the environment</td>
<td>• Environmental damage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>environmental</td>
<td>• Providing of a model for best practice</td>
<td>• Pollution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Increased environmental awareness</td>
<td>• Destruction of heritage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Infrastructural legacy</td>
<td>• Noise disturbance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Improvement of transport and communication</td>
<td>• Traffic congestion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Urban transformation and renewal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political</td>
<td>• International prestige</td>
<td>• Risk of event failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Improvement of profile</td>
<td>• Misallocation of funds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Promotion of investment</td>
<td>• Lack of accountability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Social cohesion</td>
<td>• Propaganda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Development of administrative skills</td>
<td>• Loss of community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Ownership and control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Legitimisation of ideology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Several studies have focused on the economic spinoffs of hosting events (Pizam, 1978:8; Barclay, 2009:62). It is only recently that a more balanced approach to sport mega-events has emerged, with academics covering the socio-cultural and environmental impacts as well.
In assessing the impacts of tourism (sporting events included), three interrelated sets of guiding principles have been identified and these are organised around the triple-bottom line of social, economic and environmental responsibility (Ivanovic et al., 2009). In light of the above, the following subsections provide a discussion of the impacts of sport mega-events with reference to Table 2.2.

2.10.1 Economic impacts
The economic impacts of sport events have been widely researched. The economic benefits of large sporting events are extremely difficult to assess accurately and are often exaggerated (Barclay, 2009:62; Holmes et al., 2015:65). In most instances, governments attempt to gain support from taxpayers for what could otherwise be viewed as an expensive exercise in national pride.

Economic impact refers to the net change in a host economy that can be directly attributed to a sporting event (Turco et al., 2002:53). Crompton (1995:15) views economic impacts as “the net economic change in a host community as a result of spending attributed to a sport event or facility”. Turco et al. (2002:53) identify four primary factors to assess:

- The extent to which sport stimulates new spending within the economy;
- The extent to which sport retains local income;
- The costs to produce the sport for example infrastructural set-up costs; and
- The extent to which the economy internalises spending that is attributed to the sport.

According to Ntloko and Swart (2008:81), events need to be assessed from an economic point of view so that governments can justify their hosting by pointing to its profitable contribution to the host economy. The importance of measuring the economic impacts has also been noted by many scholars (Barclay, 2009; Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011; Andersson & Lundberg, 2013; Taks et al., 2015). In addition to emphasising the economic impacts, governments justify their spending according to a political agenda focusing on the mega-event’s promotional aspects (Rose & Spiegel, 2011:662).

In their discussion of the economic impacts of events, Holmes et al. (2015:65-66) identify both positive and negative impacts. Mega-events are in most cases perceived to generate many new jobs due to investment in venue construction, urban renewal and event tourism expenditure (Holmes et al., 2015:65). However, the jobs generated by sport mega-events are not sustainable, being in most cases temporary in nature and voluntary (Pillay & Bass, 2008:342). Usually, such events bring about a temporary increase in construction jobs and low-paying service sector employment (Gaffney, 2010:17).

Related to employment creation is income generation, in the form of government grants, investment, sponsorship and visitor spending associated with an event. This injects funds into the local economy, thus creating additional employment and income (Holmes et al.,
However, at every stage of the event production some of the income is lost from the economy through leakages in the form of expenditure on imports and taxes (Holmes et al., 2015:65). Another recognised impact of events is inflation, an increase of prices due to increased demand and other factors. Events tend to increase the demand for products and services, hence causing an increase in prices (Matheson, 2006:9). For example, accommodation units and other businesses in the hospitality industry tend to charge high prices during an event period. This would discourage ordinary visitors from visiting during the mega-event period, thus negatively affecting tourism and the economy.

Holmes et al. (2015:65) identify opportunity costs as one of the negative economic impacts of events. They define opportunity cost in the context of sport events as “the cost of forgoing the alternative uses of those funds such as building hospitals, schools or police stations”. Public funds are often utilised to create the necessary infrastructure (whether upgraded or new) to host the sport event (Varrel & Kennedy, 2011:2). The other negative economic impact of events is related ‘externalities’ such as traffic congestion, littering, noise and the cost of environmental ‘clean-ups’ (Holmes et al., 2015:66).

Another economic impact of sport mega-events is the media coverage which is attained by the hosting destination and will be discussed in greater detail in the subsequent sections. A hosting city or nation benefits from the effects related to the media coverage of the event. Green, Costa and Fitzgerald (2003), for example, have examined the ways that cities can benefit from the media coverage related to the events that they host. They further indicated that the media coverage given to events increases awareness of the host city (Green et al., 2003:335). The media attention given to the host destination is expected to result in an improved profile or positive destination image and the international reputation of the host (Turco et al., 2002). Turco et al. (2002:135) add that media coverage could act as a form of indirect advertising for a region. Some authors argue that this form of advertising results in longer term tourism benefits for the hosting region (Kasimati 2003:438; Jago et al., 2010:229).

2.10.1.1 Destination image

Sport mega-events have the ability to reposition or strengthen the image of a city or nation. Elendu (2013:146) argues that sport events, particularly of the mega type, improve the host city or country’s image and reputation. Indeed, if successfully hosted, mega-events have the ability to project a new image and identity for cities (Gratton et al., 2006:244). Yet the image created as a result of hosting sport mega-events can be positive or negative. Preuss (2006:8) points out that events have the potential to create a positive image, which is why politicians want to use them to create stronger brands for their cities or nations. Conversely, the worldwide exposure of the event and hosting city or nation depends on media
representation (Higham, 2005:154). The media rather than the event organisers control this representation. The image of a hosting destination can easily be influenced by negative incidents and factors such as bomb attacks, hooligans, crime, exaggerated behaviour, poverty and even bad weather (Preuss, 2006:8).

Sports events have the power to change negative images that countries might have. A notable example is Germany, which used the 2006 FIFA World Cup™ for the political purpose of changing the image of the country (FIFA, 2008). Germany utilised a public diplomacy strategy for the 2006 World Cup to shape its international image (Grix, 2012:309). Specifically, it made use of a number of leveraging strategies to ensure its success, and these included vigorous planned campaigns that were fan-centred (Grix, 2012:309). Grix (2012) concludes that this approach was successful, as reports on Germany’s external image and of fans’ experience of the event attest. Moving on to South Africa’s hosting of the first World Cup on the African continent in 2010, the country intended to “improve Africa’s global image and combat afro-pessimism”, as highlighted in the African Legacy Programme for the World Cup (Maharaj, 2011:52). South Africa’s international image was boosted as a result of hosting the 2010 World Cup, as reported by the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ country report (Sport & Recreation South Africa, 2013:75). In 2014, Brazil hosted the FIFA World Cup™ for the second time, with one of its objectives being to improve the image of the country abroad as an emerging nation with a great deal of soft power (Soares e Castro, 2013).

The understanding of destination image is important in destination marketing. Gartner (2000:295) as cited by Cooper and Hall (2008) affirms that the image of a sport tourism destination is created by the attitude, perceptions and ideas which people have regarding a specific geographic area. Chen and Funk (2010:242) define destination image as “an interactive system of objective knowledge, subjective impressions, prejudices, imaginations and emotional thoughts toward a destination held by individuals or groups”. Brazil, for example, is imagined as a football-loving nation with beautiful beaches and happy party-people (Buarque, 2015:1302). Cooper and Hall (2008:217) assert that the image of a destination is a simplified version of reality, a way of making sense of the many destination stimuli that are received and processed by the visitor or potential visitor. They add that destination image has the power to influence individuals’ perceptions when it comes to choice of destinations (Cooper & Hall, 2008:218). The selection of information sources by tourists usually shapes their image of a destination. In this regard, the media plays a key role in setting up frames in people’s minds which in the end influence the way they view destinations (Maguire, 2011:682). The advent of technology has not only promoted efficiency in sport tourism but plays a significant role in destination image. Most recently, it has been
claimed that social media such as blogs play an important role in creating images for making travel decisions (Tseng et al., 2014:350).

The image of a destination plays an important role in destination marketing as well as branding. For Cooper and Hall (2008:220), the image of a destination has a profound effect on visitor decision-making and behaviour. Destination marketers are therefore careful to come up with approaches that result in positive image generation through promotion. In this sense, Cooper and Hall (2008:219) note that images are used to achieve the following:

- Communicate messages about destination;
- Redefine and reposition destination;
- Counter negative, and enhance positive perceptions about destination; and
- Target key market areas.

Furthermore, marketers attempt to manage the image through conducting perception studies in respect of the destination, segmenting and targeting image audiences and positioning destination benefits to support the image (Cooper & Hall, 2008:219). The image of a destination can only be fully understood and managed when the marketer fully knows the attributes of a destination. This is dealt with in the following section.

2.10.1.1a Components of destination image

The theoretical foundations of a destination image are divided into two categories. The first one indicates that the destination image can be disaggregated into many attributes. The second one views destination image as a holistic concept that cannot be disaggregated. Gartner (1994) offered a framework for understanding destination image and its link to destination branding. The elements of destination image are components, formation and characteristics. These elements are briefly explained in the following subsections.

Components - There are three components of image: cognitive, affective and conative. The cognitive category comprises the tourist’s beliefs about and attitudes towards the destination and usually leads to internal evaluation of the destination’s attributes (Nassar et al., 2015:39). In most cases, the tourist’s perceived image becomes a reality. The affective component represents the value of the destination in terms of what the tourist is looking for, based on personal feelings or motives. Finally, the conative component is the ‘action component’, the actual decision to visit, obviously based on the first two components (Pike & Ryan, 2004:334).

Formations – Formation of the destination image is based upon information that is obtained by the tourist from three sources:
- Induced agents – these are generally controlled by sources external to the individual for example advertisements;
- Organic agents – are the sources acquired through personal experience and are normally the most trusted sources of information; and
- Autonomous agents – these are the media sources or popular culture and are very powerful since they can quickly change a tourist’s image of a destination (Mercille, 2005:1039).

Characteristics - The destination image is characterised by certain features such as the distance. Distance blurs the image of a place, for example a distant destination may have a more uncertain image than a closer destination. Images change continuously, though at a slow pace. The larger the image, the more slowly it changes (Nassar et al., 2015:40).

As sport events occur within a society, the socio-cultural impacts are contextualised and presented in the following subsection of the current dissertation.

2.10.2 The socio-cultural impacts
Generally speaking, events regardless of type affect people who live in the host city. The effects of events on the local inhabitants can either be positive or negative, long-term or short-term, and minor or more troublesome (Holmes et al., 2015:99). On a more global scale, Roche (2000:21) acknowledges the role played by sport mega-events in shaping international public culture. The term ‘socio-cultural impact’ as used in academic discourse relates to any “outcomes (planned or otherwise)” which change the “quality of life” or perceived cultural values for the event’s host community and its participants (Fredline et al., 2003:26; Wood, 2009:175). It is important to note that sport events have socially beneficial effects, and can be used as a means of acquainting citizens with other parts of their country and building appreciation for their homeland (Saayman, 2004). Fredline (2006:136) notes that the hosting of sport mega-events instils a sense of pride in the citizens of a country, creating an opportunity for entertainment and the expression of a feeling of unity oneness. She suggests that sporting events be used to promote sport among the local community, thus leading to long-term benefits for health and fitness.

Mega-events are often regarded as catalysts for social change and for promoting cultural understanding and tolerance (Bob & Swart, 2009:49). Mitchell and Stewart (2015:1556) claim that the hosting of mega-events generally makes people ‘happy’ and in most cases politicians use this opportunity to garner electorate support. Several studies refer to the ‘feel good effects’ of hosting mega-events (Turco et al., 2002; Maennig, 2007:15; Allmers & Maennig 2009:500; Schlenkorf & Edwards, 2012:385). Saayman and Rossouw (2008:2) observe that sport events have the capacity to enhance local residents’ national pride and confidence, hence serving to increase corporate involvement and generate public support.
Bob and Swart (2009:56) mention skills development and training as a positive socio-cultural result of events. This includes development of skills related to the type of event being hosted, for example, organisational and marketing skills, and building capability for local event organisers as well as event volunteers.

The other socio-cultural impact of sport mega-events is the media coverage that the host city obtains. Green et al. (2003) have examined ways in which cities can benefit from the media coverage relating to the events that they host. Media coverage increases (global) awareness of the host city (Green et al., 2003:335), hopefully improving its profile or positive destination image and international reputation (Turco et al., 2002). Turco et al. (2002:135) add that media coverage could act as a form of indirect advertising for a region. Some authors argue that this form of advertising results in longer-term tourism benefits for the hosting region (Kasimati 2003:438; Jago et al., 2010:229).

Bad tourist behaviour is another noted negative socio-cultural impact associated with sport tourism. Tourists are often inclined to discard many of the social norms which regulate their behaviour in their daily lives when they travel away from home (Kibicho, 2012:106). For example, some sport tourists tend to relax their dress code; they manifest loose sexual morals or indulge in illegal drug consumption and heavy drinking. These behaviours may bring them into direct conflict with the host population, or it may undermine the local traditions or customs of the host country. The negative impacts, if not addressed directly, could lead to increased negative perceptions of sport event tourism hence the residents would not support the hosting of events as well as the related development programmes (Sharma & Dyer, 2012:39).

Related to bad behaviour is prostitution which is another noted negative socio-cultural impact of sport mega-events. Sex tourism has recently grown with destinations such as Thailand being perceived as a “sex tourism destination” (Kelley, 2015:5). Sport mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™ and Olympic Games have become business opportunities for those involved in sex tourism. However, the greatest concern in this area is that children are being trafficked and used as child prostitutes (Arias, 2014). In trying to combat the growing problem of child prostitution, there is a need for governments to come up with more restrictive policies and strategies. Brazil, for example, prior to the 2014 World Cup set aside a budget of US$ 3.3 million to fund advertisements that inform tourists of the repercussions of having sex with minors (Arias, 2014). In most cases, it is poverty that causes people to engage in prostitution. Nagle (1999:125) notes that most people who become prostitutes are poorly educated hence resort to prostitution to survive. Keyser (2002:150) argues that local women and men are exploited, though in return they get some of the wealth of the tourists.
Related to the social impacts of sport events is a theoretical framework relevant to the current study, the social exchange theory that underpins most social science studies. This theory has been used in several studies as a theoretical foundation to explain and interpret residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts (Kim et al., 2006; Ohmann et al., 2006; Turco et al., 2002). Social exchange theory operates in a situation of interaction, where individuals and groups exchange resources. According to John Ap, who developed this theory to facilitate understanding of residents’ perceptions of tourism, the actors in the exchange seek mutual benefits from the exchange (Ap, 1992:669). Residents’ perceptions play an important role in shaping their behaviour towards any form of tourism. Social exchange theory is presented in Figure 2.4, below.

Andereck et al. (2005:1061) agree that a number of studies are based on social exchange theory. In most cases, people engage in an interaction process in which they seek something of value, be it material, social, or psychological. Individuals choose to engage in an exchange once they have judged the rewards and the costs of such an exchange (Andereck et al., 2005:1061).

Perceptions of the exchange can be different, in that an individual who perceives a positive outcome would evaluate the exchange in a different way from one who perceives it negatively. People’s satisfaction with an exchange interaction is obtained by the assessment
of outcomes, which can be both economic and social, and the interaction itself (Brida et al., 2011:5).

From a tourism standpoint, social exchange theory means examining the costs and benefits of tourism for residents. Andereck et al. (2005:1061) maintain that for tourism to take place in a community, exchanges need to take place. Residents must develop and promote tourism, and then serve the needs of the tourists. Some residents obtain benefits, while others may be negatively impacted and this of course influences how they perceive tourism development.

In relation to the hosting of sport mega-events, the residents of the hosting city or nation are more likely to support the event when the perceived benefits exceed the expected costs (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006:608). But due to the intense competition to host these large-scale events, political leaders and the national government, even the organisers, tend to exaggerate the benefits, going so far as to ignore the negative impacts and ‘glorify’ the positive ones (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006:608).

In the case of Brazil, the construction of sports stadiums, upgrading of accommodation facilities for tourists and national delegations, and the creation of urban transportation facilities came at immense social cost to Brazilian citizens (Mitra, 2014). The most affected people were the poor who were displaced by the evacuation of *favelas* and other public housing facilities. Aljazeera (2014) reported that between 250,000 and 1.5 million people were forced to abandon their residences to make way for the 2014 World Cup infrastructure. Very few of these people received adequate relocation assistance, with some getting only 20 to 40 percent of the value of their houses in compensation, in what has been termed “a programme of mass eviction of the lower classes set out in order to put on a glossy show for the rest of the world” (Burn-Murdoch, 2012).

As mentioned previously, sport tourism events do not only benefit their organisers but a number of stakeholders. The infrastructure created to support sport tourism events can also be used for non-sport tourism activities. Also, as mentioned previously, sport and tourism are interlinked and they influence each other in a number of ways. Weed and Bull (2004:17) identify the ways in which local sport participants can reap benefits from tourism through the opening of facilities that serve a dual function (can be used by both tourists and sport participants) and the contribution to the development of sport participation and healthy lifestyles.

As highlighted in the preceding sections, another type of impact of sport events relates to the setting where the event occurs, the physical and environmental. Accordingly, the following subsection offers an overview of these.
2.10.3 Environmental and physical impacts

It is widely acknowledged that large sporting events have “ecological footprints” that are even larger than the arenas in which the sport is played (Daily News, 2005). They occur in a variety of settings, including those that are nature-based, some that are dependent on human-built structures and some that are heritage-based (Orams, 2005:248). Environmental concerns have become increasingly important in recent years due to the increasing need to host events in a sustainable manner (Collins et al., 2009:828). Meanwhile, Spanne (2014a) notes that from the time Sydney hosted the 2000 Olympic Games, most international sporting mega-events have tried to market themselves as “environmentally sustainable”. However, Spanne (2014a, 2014b) notes that none of these events, with their massive carbon footprints and huge infrastructure needs, have lived up to that claim in the long term. It is important to note, as explained by Swart and Bob (2012b:443), that the level of environmental impact increases with the size of the event. Event planners need to develop strategies for managing events from their initial planning phases until after the event is staged. These strategies would be aimed at minimising the negative environmental impacts that the event might have and maximising the positive environmental benefits.

Like all the other impacts, environmental impacts can be both positive and negative. The positive elements of the environmental impacts of sport mega-events usually relate to the new physical infrastructure such as stadiums, transport infrastructure, airport capacity and upgrades in water and sewage services that might not have been possible without the event (Dodouras & James, 2004:5). Mega-events work as catalysts to advance development in infrastructure and sustainable environmental management programs.

Sport tourism can usually thrive when it is supported by infrastructure, but a great ecological threat is created in setting this up (Davenport & Davenport, 2006:281). Transport systems needed to support infrastructure such as buses, taxis, trains, aircrafts and cars contribute to large volumes of emissions which pollute the environment. Pollution in the form of air (gaseous emissions and toxic substances in the atmosphere and the noise from moving vehicles), land (litter which can be either recyclable or non-recyclable waste), water (raw sewage or a bursting sewer system) and visual (graffiti) are among the negative environmental impacts of sport mega-events that are cited (Ediger, 2004:13; White & Heckenberg, 2014:157; Rieuwerts, 2015:298).

Sport mega-events are seen as enablers for the sustainable management of these events and can also lead to initiatives aimed at conserving the environment or the green economy (Preuss, 2013:3581). The 2014 FIFA World Cup™ was intended to offset greenhouse gas emission in Brazil (Business Green, 2013). In showing commitment to offsetting carbon footprints from events, the secretary general of FIFA, Jérôme Valcke, indicated that FIFA and
the LOC would compensate for their emissions through “verified carbon offsetting projects” and also encourage stakeholders to lower their carbon footprint (Ernst & Young, 2011:18; FIFA, 2014). All the venues for the 2014 World Cup were to be managed in a sustainable way through the offering of training courses to all stadium operators (Business Green, 2013). This was aimed at strengthening participants’ knowledge of sustainable operations at football stadiums and all sport facilities.

2.10.4 Political impacts
The political impacts of hosting sport mega-events have received limited attention (Hall, 2014:190). This has been attributed to the fact that event tourism studies have been built around the management framework and is more aligned with serving the interests of event associations and the event market (Enteman, 1993:154).

There is generally a close relationship between politics and events. This connection is two-sided: events can have political impacts that influence the economic, socio-cultural and the physical environment; at the same time, events usually interact with the political circumstances and environment (Heitmann & David, 2010:182). The decision to host events, especially the large-scale ones, is essentially a political one. Sport mega-events raise the profiles of the hosting destinations through media coverage, and so national governments are keen to host them. The attraction of sport mega-events is illustrated by the strong competition amongst countries that bid to host them.

Exposure of the host city through worldwide media coverage contributes to a country’s entry onto the global stage. The media in most cases describe the hosting of an event as positive when the event seems to benefit the local communities (Roberts, 2011:155). More important, though, is the political message that the host nation conveys both locally and internationally. The message portrayed to the rest of the world could be centred on national stability, thus used by politicians to attract business.

Mega-event hosting periods are a prime time for the emergence of protests and even terrorism (Giulianotti & Klauser, 2012:307). This can be attributed to the fact that the potential for sport mega-events to be used for political protest has grown as sport mega-events gain greater importance on the international stage. Arguably the most negative impact of hosting a sport mega-event occurs when the event fails to deliver the anticipated legacies but instead generates huge public debts.

The United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) (UNEP, n.d.) posits that if managed well, sport tourism can play a positive role in the socio-cultural, economic, environmental and political development of a destination. But they warn that unchecked tourism activities
(including sporting events) can have unfortunate consequences for local residents, in terms of problems with accessing facilities, crime, pollution and overcrowding (UNEP, n.d.).

Sport mega-events are in most cases staged for political reasons – to improve the status of a host nation and city as well as the status of the people in positions of power (Smith, 2014:16). Smith (2014:16-17) notes that sport mega-events projects may be used to help justify large capital investment projects, to help placate opposition and to improve public relations. An example is the 2014 World Cup, which was hosted in the same year that Brazil was to conduct its general election. Political decisions made during this period could have had significant implications for the election outcome (Badkar, 2014). This gave political players an opportunity to integrate development associated with the World Cup into their campaign strategies.

The following section offers an overview of the Football World Cup, its history and the recent developments in international football.

2.11 The Football World Cup
FIFA is the international soccer governing body that is responsible for organising the World Cup. It was founded on 21 May 1904 in France and has its headquarters in Zurich (FIFA, 2015). FIFA created an international football competition and named it the Football World Cup. The tournament has been played every four years since the inaugural tournament in 1930, except in 1942 and 1946 when it was not held because of the Second World War. It has attained a truly global dimension and become the biggest single-event sporting competition in the world (FIFA, 2015). Nowadays the FIFA World Cup™ is a trade mark, contested by the senior men's national teams from the 208 Member Associations of FIFA. The FIFA World Cup™ reaches a worldwide audience, operates on a huge budget, and attracts a pool of high-calibre sponsors. The World Cup competition also requires vast investments by the host nation (FIFA, 2015). Table 2.3 shows the previous FIFA World Cup™ host nations. It is evident from the table that the competition alternated between Europe and the Americas until 2002, when the Cup was co-hosted by Japan and South Korea. In 2010, the tournament was hosted in Africa for the first time, and for Berger (2010:175) the “event constituted a belated but deserved recognition of the worth of a vast hitherto neglected and exploited place”. FIFA’s rotational strategy of allowing equal status to all regions of the world has enabled less prominent places to host the event, including developing nations. South Africa became the first beneficiary of the rotation system, winning the rights to the 2010 World Cup and hosting an “event that was widely lauded – infrastructure projects were completed on time, the tournament attracted more than 300,000 tourists, and the wave of crime predicted by naysayers never materialised” (van der Linde, 2014:1). The 2018 World Cup will be in Russia while the 2022 FIFA tournament will be
hosted by Qatar, an Asian country (Preuss & Schnitzer, 2015). In supporting this strategy of affording hosting rights to the “once neglected nations”, FIFA President Joseph Blatter was quoted saying, “for 2018 and 2022 we go to new lands, because the FIFA World Cup™ has never been in Eastern Europe or the Middle East” (FIFA, 2015).

Table 2.3: Previous FIFA World Cup™ host nations
Source: Adapted from FIFA (2015); WorldCup-History.Com (2014)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Host nation and continent</th>
<th>Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Uruguay – South America</td>
<td>1930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Italy - Europe</td>
<td>1934</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>France - Europe</td>
<td>1938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Brazil – South America</td>
<td>1950</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Switzerland - Europe</td>
<td>1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Sweden - Europe</td>
<td>1958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Chile – South America</td>
<td>1962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>England - Europe</td>
<td>1966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Mexico - North America</td>
<td>1970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Germany - Europe</td>
<td>1974</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Argentina – South America</td>
<td>1978</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Spain - Europe</td>
<td>1982</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Mexico – North America</td>
<td>1986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Italy - Europe</td>
<td>1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>USA - North America</td>
<td>1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>France – Europe</td>
<td>1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Japan and South Korea - Asia</td>
<td>2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Germany - Europe</td>
<td>2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>South Africa - Africa</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Brazil - South America</td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 2014 FIFA World Cup™ tournament featured a total of 32 national teams which competed over a one-month period (12 June–13 July). The selection of the hosting nation by FIFA has recently become a controversial issue: for example, it is suspected that the original process for awarding the 2022 FIFA World Cup™ was ‘radically flawed’ due to bribery and corruption (The Guardian, 2015). Equally, the awarding of the 2006 World Cup to Germany is regarded as lacking transparency (Marsden, 2000). The decision was the result of a controversial vote by the sports ruling body, FIFA, in which a German victory by 12 votes to 11 over rival South Africa was made possible by the abstention of the Oceania Football Confederation.

Many nations have recently realised the benefits associated with hosting sport mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™. This has been evidenced by the number of bids to which nations commit their time and resources in order to obtain the hosting rights. As nations bid to host mega-events, they are also become aware of the costs involved. Initially three South American countries, Argentina, Brazil and Columbia had shown interest in staging the tournament (The Telegraph, 2015). Unfortunately, the Argentinian bid never materialised. In December 2006, Columbia declared its candidacy to stage the Cup but had to withdraw its
bid in the early months of 2007, thereby leaving Brazil as the sole candidate to host the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ event.

The Football World Cup is attended by hundreds of thousands of fans from all over the world, and is watched by millions live on television. During this time, almost every television in the world is tuned in to one game or another. Sport mega-events such as the World Cup are global events that attract much media attention; they have universal appeal and international significance (Getz, 2012:49; Juniro & Tur, 2013). Staging these events usually puts nations and cities in the spotlight because of the media coverage (Maguire, 2011:682). Having the right to host a mega-event is considered to be an enormous privilege.

Brazil obtained the hosting rights on 30 October 2007, although the tournament was only to be held seven years later. This allowed this Latin American country the time to prepare itself fully for the big competition. The 2014 Football World Cup™ represented an opportunity for Brazil to build, expand and modernise its infrastructure and services in different sectors related to the event. Indeed, the investments in a host nation or city can influence or benefit geographically adjacent nations or municipalities, thus generating a cycle of economic growth and development. An example would be the 2010 World Cup in South Africa, which benefited some African countries and put Africa as a whole in the limelight (Swart & Bob, 2007:373). The 2014 World Cup was therefore meant to benefit Latin America. And indeed, the UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organisation) (2014) reported that the hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ by Brazil led to a growth in tourism in the sub-region.

2.11.1 Brazil and the FIFA World Cup™
By hosting the 2014 World Cup, Brazil had an opportunity to show to the world that it had the capacity to handle events of such magnitude. As an emerging nation and a member state of BRICs, Brazil wanted to prove that it was indeed a global power and could stage a successful World Cup. Furthermore, the event was meant to improve Brazil’s traditional image as a nation with high rates of violence and enormous social inequalities. Mega-events such as the World Cup and the Olympic Games have given Brazil the chance to present itself as a powerful, safe and modern country (Pflüger et al., 2014:5).

Brazil hosted the 20th World Cup tournament for the second time in 2014. The first time was in 1950, a time Brazilians remember as “one of the biggest upsets in football history” (WorldCup-History.Com, 2014). Brazil was defeated at home by Uruguay and this became a historical catastrophe in Brazilian football. The 1950 World Cup was hosted in Brazil in the arena built specifically for the mega-event purpose, the Maracanã Stadium in Rio de Janeiro. Following the tragic defeat of Brazil in the final match against Uruguay at Maracanã Stadium, it has been nicknamed ‘Maracanâzo’ (Casaqui & Peres-Neto, 2013). The 2014 FIFA World
The 2014 World Cup drew large numbers of overseas visitors. The Brazilian tourism board reported that the number of international visitors “surpassed all expectations” (Embratur, n.d.). More than one million visitors flowed into various Brazilian cities to watch the world’s renowned sporting competition, surpassing the predicted 600,000 by almost 70% (Mirror, 2014). Likewise, the 2016 Olympic Games was expected to draw a huge number of overseas visitors, thus bringing foreign currency to the country. The World Cup and Olympic Games command worldwide media attention that is helping Brazil (and more broadly, Latin America) brand itself on the global stage as vibrant and culturally rich.

The hosting of the 2014 World Cup event meant that Brazil had to be fully prepared by setting up the required infrastructure for the event. According to Brazil’s government portal, Portal Transparência (Transparency Portal), the 2014 World Cup cost Brazil US$13.3 billion in public funding. Table 2.4 illustrates the total cost of the 2014 World Cup to Brazil.

Table 2.4: Cost for the 2014 FIFA World Cup
Source: Brazil Gov (2014a)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Total budget (in BRL 1,000)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Airports</td>
<td>6,281,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication tools</td>
<td>6,600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourist developments</td>
<td>180,221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stadiums</td>
<td>8,005,206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporary structures (Confederations Cup)</td>
<td>208,800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public transport</td>
<td>8,025,093</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other services (monitoring and volunteer programs)</td>
<td>41,443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harbours</td>
<td>608,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public security</td>
<td>1,879,100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommunications</td>
<td>404,602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Brazilian Real (BRL)</td>
<td>25,640,765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total in United States Dollar (USD)</td>
<td>13,354,565</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Federal Government objective was to use the 2014 FIFA World Cup as a platform to advance the country’s development and to overcome inequalities, create jobs and improve the quality of life for its citizens (Buarque, 2015:10). For Brazil, this was a unique opportunity to change its world image and to accelerate investments in projects and services that would remain as a legacy (Boland & Matheson, 2014:22). The Federal Government was mandated to transform this spectacular opportunity into a great legacy for Brazil and Brazilians (Buarque, 2015:15).

The 2014 World Cup saw the participation of 32 teams from six confederacies. Each of the twelve host cities around Brazil hosted a number of the tournament matches. The usual number of host cities selected by FIFA is ten but because of Brazil’s extensive size, twelve cities were used (Brazil Gov, 2014a). The host cities chosen for the tournament were:
Brasília, Cuiabá, Manaus, Recife, Fortaleza, Natal, Salvador, Curitiba, Porto Alegre, Belo Horizonte, Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo (FIFA, 2009). Figure 2.5 features a map of Brazil with the host cities indicated alongside the attendance figures per host city.

![Map of Brazil with host cities and attendance figures](image)

**Figure 2.5: Brazil 2014 World Cup attendance per city**  
Source: Table adapted from FIFA (2015:7)

Each of the host cities needed to have proper infrastructure such as a stadium big enough and of a sufficiently high standard to host the games. Six of the cities needed a brand new stadium to be built whilst five renovated their existing facilities; one (Brasilia) had its existing stadium demolished and rebuilt. The final match was played in the Maracanã Stadium in Rio de Janeiro. This stadium was inaugurated at the FIFA World Cup™ of 1950 and is, therefore, historically important.

The logo for the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ has been called 'Inspiration' and depicts three hands reaching up and holding the desired World Cup trophy. The colours used were yellow and green, the colours of the Brazilian flag (Brazil, n.d.).

2.11.2 FIFA’s involvement in sport mega-events  
As mentioned previously, FIFA is the soccer governing association which aims to continuously improve football. FIFA is involved with sport to achieve the following objectives as set out in the FIFA Statute document of 2016.

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>City</th>
<th>Attendance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Rio de Janeiro</td>
<td>937,330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>São Paulo</td>
<td>806,226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fortaleza</td>
<td>781,602</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Manaus</td>
<td>504,108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Porto Alegre</td>
<td>497,893</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Brasilia</td>
<td>369,480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Cuiaba</td>
<td>306,896</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Belo Horizonte</td>
<td>255,403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Salvador</td>
<td>255,040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Natal</td>
<td>195,062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Recife</td>
<td>132,510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Curitiba</td>
<td>112,836</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To constantly improve the game of football and promote it globally in the light of its unifying, educational, cultural and humanitarian values, particularly through youth and development programmes;

To organise its own international competitions;

To draw up regulations and provisions governing the game of football and related matters and to ensure their enforcement;

To control every type of association football by taking appropriate steps to prevent infringements of the Statutes, regulations or decisions of FIFA or of the Laws of the Game;

To use its efforts to ensure that the game of football is available to and resourced for all who wish to participate, regardless of gender or age;

To promote the development of women’s football and the full participation of women at all levels of football governance; and

To promote integrity, ethics and fair play with a view to preventing all methods or practices, such as corruption, doping or match manipulation, which might jeopardise the integrity of matches, competitions, players, officials and member associations or give rise to abuse of association football (FIFA Statutes, 2016:6).

FIFA acknowledges that football has the power to unite people and to break down barriers and therefore uses the game to achieve that in the world. The sport gives FIFA a platform to improve the standards of life across the world, enhance sustainability, improve and advance development in education, health, communication and transport infrastructure in the hosting nations (FIFA, 2014a). Most national government plans converge with FIFA’s mandate and therefore government decisions are prone to be influenced by FIFA’s requirement to award hosting rights. Every aspiring host nation needs to meet the requirement by FIFA for it to be granted the hosting rights and this is where government plans are influenced resulting in some government projects to be postponed or halted altogether to try and fulfil requirement to secure the hosting right (Brazil Portal, 2009; de Aragao, 2015:9). Governments commit large sums of money for various projects related to the event and this could lead some national ministries receiving inadequate budget since the priority would be on meeting FIFA requirement (Atkins, 2013). The programmes that the aspiring nation would need to undertake include the upgrading of facilities, stadiums and precincts, the improvement of transportation infrastructure, communications, health, safety and security which altogether restrain national budgets (Atkins, 2013). On stadiums, FIFA usually requires that the host nation have between 8 and 10 stadiums (FIFA, n.d.). In trying to meet the stadium requirement, governments spend huge budgets and it is here that corrupt activities could be seen involving some government officials paying bribes (Sports24, 2015). The budget for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ amounted to US$3.5 billion (FIFA, 2011:18) whereas the 2014 FIFA World Cup™’s cost to the Brazilian government was US$15 billion (FIFA, n.d.). FIFA officials have also been under investigation for corruption involving its top executives and some have likened it to a ‘mafia’ organisation (BBC News, 2014; Ampuero, Raszewski & Lough, 2015).

The media as a watchdog monitors the conduct of government decisions which is crucial in any democratic society (Francke, 1995:109). It is in this role that the government decision
regarding the hosting of the event is put in the spotlight by the media as it watches whether national budgets are spent responsibly on the projects.

2.12 Brazil: An overview

According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), Brazil is the seventh-largest economy in the world, with an estimated gross domestic product (GDP) of 2,523 trillion US dollars [International Monetary Fund (IMF), 2015]. In addition, Brazil is the fifth-biggest country in the world in terms of its surface area and population. However, in terms of the economy, the World Bank reports that Brazil’s GDP growth has slackened from 4.5% in 2006–2010 to 2.1% over the period 2011–2014 and 0.1% in 2014 (World Bank, 2015). It further reports that the country’s inflation rate remains high, ending 2014 at 6.4% (World Bank, 2015).

According to Trading Economics (2015), the GDP per capita for Brazil was last recorded in 2014 at 5969.68 US dollars. This equates to the 47 percentile in the world. Per capita GDP is measured by dividing the GDP by the country’s population (World Bank, 2003:17). The per capita GDP is particularly useful when comparing countries as it shows their relative performance. The World Bank (2003:17) observes that a rise in per capita GDP indicates growth in the economy as a result of an increase in productivity. Brazil has seen a steady rise in per capita GDP in the past decade, from 4792.60 US dollars in 2006 to 5969.68 US dollars in 2014 (see Figure 2.6).

![Per Capita GDP for Brazil US$](image)

**Figure 2.6: Per Capita GDP for Brazil US$**

*Source: Trading Economics (2015)*

Yet the country still has much to be done in many areas, particularly on the welfare side and in the quality of its institutions (Berenberg, 2014:12). Brazil hoped to capitalise on the World Cup tournament by improving its institutions and at the same enhancing its image as one of the fastest growing economies and a “vibrant, rich, diverse and sophisticated country” on the global stage (Zimbalist, 2011:2). Hosting a successful tournament would have generated international awareness of Brazil’s economic development. It would also have indicated
world-class management and organisational capabilities and a thriving business sector. In other words, the brand image of the country would have been significantly strengthened. However, numerous instances of delays in delivering the needed infrastructure (for example, stadium construction), allegations of corruption and increases in construction costs tainted the reputation of the country’s bureaucracy and infrastructural capabilities (Zimbalist, 2011; Levy, 2016). Therefore, the anticipated objective of putting Brazil on the map can be argued to have not been achieved to the extent desired and anticipated.

As one of the key emerging markets in the world, Brazil enjoyed strong economic growth for many years. However, in recent years, Brazil’s unexpressed problems have become more apparent. Even if the level of development has improved constantly, massive protests have erupted against corruption, mismanagement and social inequality (Mitra, 2014). Some of these protests targeted the World Cup, seen to some extent as a symbol for policies contrary to the interests of the majority of the population. The protests and riots reached their peak before and during the FIFA Confederations Cup and became pronounced as the opening ceremony of the 2014 World Cup tournament drew closer. These protests were centred on public demands for increased expenditure on healthcare, education and public transport (Mitra, 2014).

2.12.1 Tourism and crime in Brazil
Brazil is a country of continental proportions where a wide range of tourism activities can be undertaken. The country hosts tourists seeking all kinds of holiday experiences, from cultural tours and adventure tours to beach holidays. Brazil has a number of cities in various states that are favourites among tourists and locals. Rio de Janeiro is the country’s top tourist destination and has over the years lived up to its nickname of “the Marvellous City”; it is closely followed by Sao Paulo (Rio, 2015:1). These cities welcome the highest numbers of tourists (Brazil, 2014).

The new strategy of Embratur, the Brazilian Institute of Tourism, includes taking part in as many international tourism-related trade fairs as possible, as well as competing in the international market for events such as conventions and meetings (Ministerio do Turismo, n.d.).

In 2013, Brazil reached a historic record of 6.3 million international arrivals, as recorded by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (WTTC, 2014:5). Brazil receives most visitors from the neighbouring country of Argentina: in 2013, for instance, Argentina accounted for 30% of the total arrivals (Euromonitor, 2015). The 2014 FIFA World Cup™ saw Brazil receiving one million visitors from various places, thereby underscoring that sport mega-events have the power to draw visitors to where they are staged.
As illustrated on Figure 2.7, the number of tourist arrivals in Brazil was 5,161,000 as of 2010 and by 2014, the figure had risen to 6,430,000 (Knoema, 2015a). This figure is projected to rise to 14,200,000 by 2024 (WTTC, 2014:5). The number of departures from Brazil in 2010 was 6,430,000, and comparing this with figures for 2000 reveals that the numbers have doubled, an indication that Brazilians are increasingly engaging in international travel. By 2014, the number of departures had risen sharply by more than 2 million to total 9,048,000 (Knoema, 2015a).

![Figure 2.7: International arrivals and departures (2000 – 2014)](chart)

Source: Index Mundi (2014); Knoema (2015a)

The terrorist attack in 2001 popularly known as the 9/11 attack severely affected tourism and caused a sharp decline in international travel (TourMaG.Com, 2015). Brazil’s experience was no different, probably exacerbated by economic recession.

“Peace, safety and security are primary requirements for growth, attractiveness and competitiveness of tourism destinations” (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009:15). While Brazil has great potential for tourism, the country’s high crime rates have raised concern among potential international visitors (OSAC, 2015). Murray et al. (2013:479) assert that there has been an enormous rise in homicides in Brazil over the last three decades. They further argue that Brazil has the highest number of years of life lost to violence out of any World Health Organisation (WHO) member state. Murray et al. (2013:479) observe that the victims of homicide in Brazil are most likely to be young men. This situation has a negative impact on tourism (Perry et al., 2012:124).

Crime and safety remain one of the key issues in developing nations and were a main concern in the build-up to and during South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™
Crime and safety issues dominate media narratives as well as political debates (Perry et al., 2012:123). These media discussions are centred on whether the hosting nation will be able to successfully host the event or not. Despite its role of informing people about issues, the media also play a major role in “informing perceptions and framing debates”. The media influence the image of destinations since news reports of crime tend to magnify the danger of crime at the host destination (Swart et al., 2010:226).

Brazil like many other developing countries is faced with challenges related to crime. According to Merriam-Webster (2015:1), crime is defined as:

> An act or the commission of an act that is forbidden or the omission of a duty that is commanded by a public law and that makes the offender liable to punishment by that law; especially: a gross violation of law.

There are many categories of crime that are experienced in most countries. The common categories include homicide, assault, kidnapping, robbery, rape, burglary or housebreaking and vehicle breaking. Research has shown that crime and tourism have a relationship and this relationship is positive mainly for property crimes (Campaniello, 2013:150). High crime rates make destinations unsafe and risky to visit. Campaniello (2013:150) notes that the perceived riskiness of a city influences tourists to choose alternative and less dangerous destinations. George (2003:580) adds that the negative perceptions associated with crime can hinder tourism in different ways. Prospective tourists may decide not to visit the destination because it has a reputation for having a high crime rate; if tourists feel unsafe at a destination, they are not likely to take part in activities outside their accommodation facility; tourists who have felt threatened or unsafe are not likely to return to the destination, and they are not likely to recommend the destination to others. It is thus acknowledged that crime has a major impact on tourism and meaningful strategies to reduce crime need to be adopted (Perry et al., 2012:123). Campaniello (2013:166) describes crime categories qualitatively, as represented in Table 2.5 below.

**Table 2.5: Crime categories**  
**Source: Campaniello (2013:167)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rape</td>
<td>To compel a person through physical force or duress to have sexual intercourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intentional personal injuries:</td>
<td>To commit physical injuries with guilty mind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pick-pocketing:</td>
<td>To steal from the pockets of others in public places</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bag-snatching:</td>
<td>To take an item the victim is wearing or carrying from the victim using (slight) force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoplifting:</td>
<td>To steal items from shops excluding theft by employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burglary:</td>
<td>To enter any building or part of a building as a trespasser with the intention to steal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theft ex car:</td>
<td>To commit the theft of property from vehicles, such as wheels and stereos, along with personal items like bags, briefcases, laptops, mobile phones, CDs, wallets and sunglasses, and so on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theft on the railways:</td>
<td>To commit a theft on the railways</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Car theft: To commit the theft or attempted theft of a motor vehicle
Fraud: To deceive someone to damage him usually to obtain property or services unjustly (examples are false advertising, identity theft, false billing, forgery of documents or signatures, false insurance claim, investment frauds, and so on)
Drugs: To produce and trade any drug product

While Brazil is well-known for its carnivals, beaches, festivals and vibrant nightlife, safety and security remain a concern (Passport Health, 2015). Like other developing nations such as South Africa, Brazil continues to experience social inequality and poverty (Borraz et al., 2013:219). The unfortunate consequence of this has been continuously high crime rates. Figure 2.8 illustrates the crime statistics of Brazil from 2008 until 2012. It is evident that the main crime categories are robbery followed by assault, recording more than 330 cases per 100,000 people in each year. Clearly, with these high crime rates, safety and security becomes a reality which cannot be ignored when it comes to visiting Brazil. In relation to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa, Swart et al. (2010:227) note that the key media issue became the high crime rate. They claim that media reporters talk about crime and violence in society in simplistic and misleading ways, and this influences travel decision-making. The Expat Arrivals website (2014) notes the high levels of crime in Brazilian cities, and this no doubt instilled fear in some potential visitors to the 2014 World Cup. Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo experience the highest incidents of pickpocketing, robbery, murder, assault and burglary. It further notes the slightly lower crime rates in cities such as Brasilia and Recife which also participated as host cities for the 2014 World Cup.

![Brazil crime statistics (2008-2012)](image)

**Figure 2.8: Brazil crime statistics 2008 – 2012**
*Source: Knoema (2015b)*

With the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ and the 2016 Olympics in mind, Brazilian local authorities have been working hard to address the issue of crime in the country. In particular, Brazil
launched an initiative in 2008 called the *Favela* Pacification Programme (FPP), whereby police would enter Rio’s slum areas commonly referred to as *favelas* to expel drug gang members (Freeman, 2012:95). This initiative was also aimed at prising out other armed criminal elements and promoting security for residents in the long term (Expat Arrivals, 2014). The programme has yielded some positive results, but crime rates have grown in some areas of Brazil, particularly Sao Paulo, which has seen a wave of violence in recent years (Expat Arrivals, 2014).

Having presented a discussion of Brazil and its overview above, the next section dwells on sport mega-events legacy. It starts off by giving a general overview of event legacy with regards to sport tourism.

### 2.13 Sport mega-event legacy

The need to maximise the long-term impacts of sport events has led to the emergence of event legacy, which has become a focus area for research (Jones, 2001; Preuss, 2007; Doherty, 2009; Kassens-Noor et al., 2015). Despite this interest, it seems there is no consensus on the meaning of the term ‘legacy’ (Preuss, 2007:207). Cashman (2005:35) categorises legacy into six aspects: economic; built and physical environment; information and education; public life, politics and culture; sport and symbols; and memory and history. Preuss (2007:211) conceptualises legacy in terms of three aspects: planned or unplanned, positive or negative, tangible or intangible, which he illustrated by means of a cube (see Figure 2.9, below). Preuss (2007:211) proposes the following as a definition for legacy:

> Irrespective of the time of production and space, legacy is all planned and unplanned, positive and negative, tangible and intangible structures created for and by a sport event that remain longer than the event itself.

![Figure 2.9: Legacy concept cube](image)

*Source: Preuss (2007:211)*
Preuss’s (2007) definition is very similar to that of Chappelet and Junod (2006:84), who described legacy as “the material and non-material effects produced directly or indirectly by the sport event, whether planned or not, that durably transform the host region in an objectively and subjectively positive or negative way”. Holmes et al. (2015:163) define legacy more simply as the longer-term outcomes or impacts associated with hosting any event. They may include physical change to the destination and psychological change to the local population (such as greater community pride) (Holmes et al., 2015:163).

The research on sport mega-event legacies has been described as discriminatory, placing more emphasis on economic and infrastructural impacts and overlooking social, political and environmental legacies (Cornelissen et al., 2011a:307). Such research should rather be multidimensional and consider all facets of event legacy. Legacy has played a significant role in the evolution of sport mega-events such as the Olympics as they have grown in size and scope over the past three decades (Agha et al., 2012:125).

Sporting mega-events have the ability to transform cities, which is one of the reasons why cities bid to host them (Lienhard et al., 2014:27). Destinations get needed transformations such as developments in infrastructure, transport systems, health, service delivery and job creation. Lienhard et al. (2014:27) agree that sport mega-events change the ‘location factor’ and transform a city into a better space for living, tourism and industry. Cities and nations that successfully host sport mega-events and manage them well can expect an increase in tourism, creation of jobs, improvement in infrastructure and a boost in demand for products and services (AT Kearney, 2005:1). Lienhard et al. (2014:27) note that the potential economic returns for hosting mega-events are enormous, but host nations need to assess accurately what their real impacts are and find ways to benefit from them. Host nations typically have little idea of the longer lasting, less tangible benefits from sport mega-events. There is therefore a need for standardised methodologies to measure these impacts (AT Kearney, 2005:1).

Sport mega-events present opportunities for debates about the sustainable use of resources. These allow governments and organising committees to undertake programmes and initiatives to help protect the environment; for example, massive clean-up efforts help curb smog and pollution. The period prior to the hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ saw Brazil conducting workshops aimed at finding ways of addressing environmental issues (FIFA, 2014). The topics covered during these workshops included encouraging the use of renewable energy, wise use of fresh water, waste management and engagement with the locals to address their concerns (FIFA, 2014b:7).

The importance of developing nations’ involvement in hosting sport mega-events such as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup™ cannot be overemphasised. Tichaawa and Swart

63
(2009:178) suggest that the post-event should act as a catalyst for socio-economic development, especially for the developing nations. Bohlmann (2006:383) and Swart and Bob (2007:374) believe that mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™ have the potential to accelerate socio-economic development. Hosting nations and cities can build a strong legacy by using a five-component programme, which is initiated at the bidding stage and refined at every subsequent stage in the event’s life cycle (AT Kearney, 2005:5). The five components of the legacy programme that may be adopted to build a positive legacy for any hosting nation or city are illustrated in Figure 2.10, below.

![Figure 2.10: The five components of a legacy programme](source AT Kearney (2005:6)

AT Kearney (2005:6) identifies the three areas that hosts should consider when building an event legacy. These are presented in Table 2.6 and are; society, sport and the environment. The three areas are briefly explained in the following subsections.

2.13.1 Building a sport legacy

The most noticeable outcome of sport mega-events is the sport legacy. Sports contribute to national identity, pride and stimulate national unity, which is important in any foreign policy framework (Jaksa, 2011:39). International sporting competitions such as the World Cup bring together athletes, heads of states and their representatives, creating a platform that assists in the “development of understanding and cooperation” (Jaksa, 2011:39). In the case of Brazil, the 1950 World Cup enabled the consolidation of national identity and the 2014 World Cup event helped improve the global influence of Brazil as a country (Buarque, 2015:1303). In building a sport legacy, host nations and cities should create an enabling environment for sport to thrive. By doing so, local residents will be encouraged to participate in sport and hence improve brand image and commercial value (AT Kearney, 2005:5).
The sport legacy can also sharpen competitive skills. For instance, England’s Department for Culture, Media and Sport (DCMS) in partnership with Sport England Strategy 2012–2017, came up with a five-year youth and community sport strategy designed to increase participation and transform sport into a ‘habit’ in life (David, 2014:90). One of the key elements of this strategy is to invest in sport facilities, especially at schools (David, 2014:90).

### 2.13.2 Environmental legacy

Environmental considerations have recently become a major issue in the selection of host cities for sport mega-events (Hall, 2012:119). This is related to the concept of sustainability, which in recent times has been prominent in tourism and events literature (Hall, 2012:120; Melo et al., 2014:257). The organising committees for sport mega-events like the Olympic Games and the football World Cup are conscious of the environment and the need to protect it. For the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ in Brazil, FIFA stressed the importance of protecting and promoting the environment, hence the development of the Sustainability Strategy document aimed at delivering a sustainable event (Brazil Sustainability, 2012:2; Melo et al., 2014:257). The Sustainability Strategy was developed with reference to the lessons learnt from previous tournaments, and 2014 saw this ISO 26000 standard for environmental conservation and social responsibility being used for the first time (FIFA, 2015b).

With regard to the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ event, FIFA and the local organising committee (LOC) had to work with various stakeholders to reduce the negative environmental impacts. The focus areas were waste management, water, energy, transportation, procurement, climate change and using the tournament to raise awareness about the environment (FIFA Sustainable Strategy, 2013:7). In addition, the FIFA and LOC aimed to provide green stadiums, enhance community support and offset carbon emissions (Go Green, n.d.).

### 2.13.3 Social legacy

Sport mega-events can do a world of social good. Hosting a sport mega-event provides opportunities to influence the pattern of urban development (AT Kearney, 2005:2). The former president of Brazil Lula da Silva declared that the tournament was to trigger development and modernise Brazil to benefit its citizens (Boadle, 2014). A number of projects were proposed, including stadium construction and renovation; urban mobility projects; upgrades at airports; public security and military defence forces; port infrastructure; tourism and infrastructure projects (Statista, n.d.). Some of the above projects were funded...
by FIFA’s social programmes such as the Football for Hope initiative. The Brazilian Football Association (CBF) president, José Maria Marin, indicated that Brazil had a responsibility to use the legacy fund to promote development (FIFA, 2015b). He went on to comment,

"The 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil has left us with memories of great football, but also a great responsibility. We took on a commitment with the states that did not host the event to make sure the benefits of the World Cup will reach places where, although the love for football is huge, the structure offered to the community still cannot be compared to that which we see in the bigger cities. We will also focus on youth and women’s football, which need support and investment to grow. Brazilian female players do not lack talent and the Legacy Fund will be essential for further development. (FIFA, 2015b)"

In addition to enhancing development, sport mega-events have the ability to promote cultural values. Cultural values are upheld as behaviours treasured in sports, for example, hard work, discipline, teamwork, fairness and respect (AT Kearney, 2005:3).

2.13.4 Reasons why event legacies fail to deliver
The planning of sport mega-events is in most cases underwritten by the government. It is therefore more likely that when the legacy plan fails, the government is blamed by the public and may lose political support. The government is usually held accountable for any failure, and this leads to damaging media images, especially in the post-event period (Holmes et al., 2015:165). Unfavourable media coverage post-event generates a poor image for the destination.

There are a number of reasons why at times event legacies fail to deliver. Holmes et al. (2015:165-168) identified eight reasons for this: The focus is on staging the event

- There is a lack of long-term legacy planning
- After the event the funding disappears
- The benefits are over-inflated before the event
- The intended benefits (and legacy) are vague
- Unexpected changes in the global environment
- Methods of measuring legacies are flawed

As mentioned previously, legacies are long-term, yet they are criticised for failing to deliver the anticipated benefits immediately. Large amounts of money are spent to plan and manage sport mega-events, and after the initial euphoria about the event has faded, the media and residents want to see additional outcomes for the destination. Holmes et al. (2015:169) note that failed legacies usually make sellable news, and they conclude, “failed legacies make good headlines…”

2.14. Leveraging of sport mega-event impacts
The concept of sport mega-event legacy was pioneered by Chalip (2000) in his examination of the strategies used by Australia to enhance the Olympic Games from the perspective of tourism. In his later studies on event leveraging, Chalip (2000; 2005) notes that a strategic
approach to sport events should result in both short- and long-term benefits. Chalip (2004:229) developed a model for the economic leverage of sport mega-events which is centered on presenting opportunities for host communities. This model is illustrated in Figure 2.11, and will be explained.

Sport mega-events are seen as opportunities for stakeholders to “leverage” the legacy associated with these events (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013:299). More broadly, event leverage refers to activities which seek to maximise the long-term benefits from events (Chalip, 2004:228). Leveraging may also refer to all “strategic approaches” to the management of events, to derive maximum benefits (economic, social and environmental) for a destination at various stages of the event (before, during, and after) (Beesley & Chalip, 2011:324). Event leveraging can also be defined as an approach which views mega-events as resources. Smith (2014:16) notes, “mega-events are reconceived as windows of opportunity within which to undertake initiatives”. Key stakeholders in sport mega-events are encouraged to be more proactive in terms of planning and managing these events. Holmes et al. (2015:66) identify some of the longer-term benefits associated with event leveraging, which include:

- Enhanced image and branding of the host destination;
- Increased business, trade and investment from outside of the host destination;
- Increased tourism arrivals and expenditure;
- Increased pride amongst the host community; and
- Perpetual scholarship and funds to support on-going community and sporting development.

![Figure 2.11: Model for host community event leverage](source: Chalip (2004:229)).

The event leveraging model comprises four components: the leverageable resources, opportunities, strategic objectives, and means (Chalip, 2004:229). Beesley and Chalip
(2011:324) note that leveraging contributes positively in economic terms by extending visitors' length of stay at the destination, retaining local spending and contributing towards the positioning of the destination, which eventually results in an enhanced market position. Socially, event leveraging advocates the provision of additional attractions that leads to more interaction among residents and visitors, thus promoting cross-cultural exchange (Beesley & Chalip, 2011:324). Social leveraging is aimed at using the event to showcase social issues via media advertising and reporting (Chalip, 2004). Like most sport mega-events, the 2014 World Cup was covered in the international media, and social issues including social inequalities (life in favelas) were part of the media discourse. An event usually generates two forms of media: advertising that is aimed at building consumer interest in the event, and reporting about the event itself (Chalip, 2004:239). Chalip (2004:241) notes that events attract reporters, and the larger the event, the more reporters are attracted, in both print and broadcast media. Sport mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™ and the Olympic Games undoubtedly draw huge media coverage because of their appeal. It is however a concern for the hosts that the bulk of the reporting is centred on the event and gives comparatively little coverage to the destination itself (Chalip, 2004:241). Nevertheless, careful planning makes it possible to improve the destination image through media coverage. Chalip (2004:241) identifies strategies to use in trying to improve destination coverage at various stages of the event (pre-, during and post-), and these include the use of public relations techniques, deliberately building the image of the host destination, and the use of destination images as logos, among others.

2.15 Chapter summary

The current chapter has provided a conceptual framework for the study through a review of the research literature relating to the study of sport mega-events. It has also presented discussion on the impacts of mega-events in relation to Brazil's hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ tournament and conveyed insights into sport tourism in general. The impacts of sporting events, legacy and event leveraging have also been covered. Chapter Three explains the methodology that was adopted for this study, highlighting what research approach was used and how the data was analysed.
CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
This chapter revisits the research objectives of the study and describes its research methodology, demonstrating the appropriateness of the research design and the procedures followed. It also provides an account of the methods used to collect and analyse the data (media content). The chapter concludes with a consideration of ethical issues, challenges faced by the study, and its limitations.

3.2 The research objectives revisited
As stated in Chapter One, the main objective of this study is to investigate the media impact of Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ in selected tourism markets (Argentina, USA, Germany and Portugal). The study seeks to provide an understanding of how Rio de Janeiro and Brazil as a whole were reported in the media at different times of the event in these markets. More specifically, the study seeks to determine what has changed with regard to perceptions of Rio de Janeiro and Brazil as a result of their hosting the 2014 World FIFA Cup™. The study’s specific objectives are:

- To ascertain how the major objectives of Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup were reported by the media in key international markets;
- To assess how Brazil (host nation) and specifically Rio de Janeiro (host city) were profiled across the time periods of the event; pre-, lead-up to, during and post-World Cup;
- To assess how Brazil (host nation) and Rio de Janeiro (host city) were profiled in key international markets; and
- To compare the media coverage over time periods for Brazil and South Africa as developing countries hosting sequential editions of the same event.

In order to fulfil the above objectives, the researcher followed a qualitative content analysis framework developed by Krippendorff (2004:31). The content analysis framework involves the following conceptual components:

- Body of text which is the data (media content) available for analysis;
- Research questions that need to be answered by examining the body of text;
- An analytical construct that operationalises what is known about the context;
- Inferences that are intended to answer the research questions; and
- Validating evidence, which is the ultimate justification of the content analysis. (Krippendorff, 2004:29-30).

3.3 Content sourcing for the study
The content sourcing for this study involved the analysis of international news resources. The study models its methodology on the media impact study that was commissioned by the City of Cape Town for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (Swart et al., 2012:133-135). The reason for
this is to allow for a comparative analysis of the results for the two countries, since they are both emerging, have seen high economic growth rates in the recent past and are member states of the BRICs countries (Steinbrink, 2013:129). In the initial analysis in their study, Swart et al. (2012:133) noted that there was a general increase in the number of articles referencing the World Cup throughout the 12 months prior to the hosting of the event, which meant that their study had to be extended to a starting-point 24 months prior to the event. To permit consistency with the 2010 media impact study on South Africa’s hosting, this timing for coverage has been adhered to. The four target time-periods for analysis in this study were as below:

- Pre-2014 FIFA World Cup™—two years to one year prior
- Lead-up to the 2014 FIFA World Cup™—one year prior
- During the 2014 FIFA World Cup™—hosting period
- Post-2014 FIFA World Cup™—one year post

The study analysed articles from major online newspapers with the highest readership and circulation numbers in the selected markets. Four hundred to five hundred articles were extracted per market over the four time periods to produce the media content for analysis. In extracting the news articles, the researcher had to be careful with the use of search terms to avoid extracting on-field media reports, match fixtures and game strategies (Swart et al., 2012). The following search terms/words were used to extract the media content for this study; ‘2014 World Cup’, ‘Brazil World Cup 2014’, ‘Rio de Janeiro World Cup 2014’, ‘Brazil World Cup’, ‘Brazil 2014 FIFA World Cup’, ‘Brazil safety and security’, ‘Brazil culture and heritage’, ‘Rio de Janeiro’, ‘Brazil’, and ‘Brazil World Cup infrastructure’. Search terms are the exact words or set of words/phrases a researcher enters when searching on a browser page of the internet or any search engine (Gabbert, 2016:1). These are also termed keywords and they help a researcher to extract information that is relevant to his or her research objectives. The keywords used in this study are parallel to those employed in the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ media impact study on South Africa (Swart et al., 2012; Swart et al., 2013). When these words and phrases were tested in the preliminary stages, it was found that they yielded information that would assist in achieving the study’s objectives. Google Translate and Bing Translator were used to help translate some of the articles into English.

The articles that met the defined search criteria were copied onto an excel spread-sheet with different named columns. The spread-sheet was divided into two parts; the content and audit variables (Swart et al., 2013:1981). The content variables included the following columns; Market, Search Period, Search Term, Category, Article Source, Access, Article Date, Article Headline, Article Text, and Commentary. The audit variables composed of the following fields/columns; Extractor Name, Extract Date and Limitations/comments from the extractor.
The study is aimed at understanding how the media represented the event and its host country in the key markets at different stages. In determining the objectives for hosting the event, the researcher sourced the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ Organising Committee and City of Rio de Janeiro’s planning documents, speeches by key stakeholders and reports relevant to the 2014 World Cup. These were reviewed to identify the major strategic imperatives that were to be achieved as a result of hosting the FIFA World Cup™. Appendix A provides a summary of the strategic imperatives identified, with the source documents as support.

After reviewing the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ planning documents and relevant reports for Brazil and Rio de Janeiro (including speeches by key government officials and industry stakeholders), the following were identified as key strategic imperatives for hosting the Cup. The study uses these to analyse the content from selected media sources and determine what concepts are clustered in each imperative for the different time-frames. These strategic imperatives are similar to the ones identified in the 2010 World Cup media impact study (Swart et al., 2012).

- **Hosting capability** – readiness to host the event including sufficient infrastructure, stadia, transport system, ticket distribution system, and sponsorship. This also includes compliance with FIFA requirements for hosting the Cup. The current study examines the media narratives in the identified markets to see if Brazil and Rio de Janeiro were considered ready to host the World Cup.
- **Safety and security** – the study needed to understand if the views on the safety and security of Rio de Janeiro and more generally Brazil changed as a result of hosting the 2014 FIFA World Cup™.
- **Destination image** – the current study was also aimed at understanding if there was a change of image of Brazil and Rio de Janeiro in the identified international markets. The aspects examined included: natural beauty, the environment, people, lifestyle, culture, heritage and history (Brazil, 2012).

The current research uses the strategic imperatives (hosting capability or readiness, concerns of safety & security and destination image) to analyse the media content for this study and to determine what concepts are placed in each imperative for the identified time periods. The core imperatives were decoded through the use of semantic cluster analysis to place themes and concepts into categories that allow for comparative analysis. By definition, semantic cluster analysis is a practice that is grounded on Latent Semantic Indexing and clustering to group pieces of information or articles that use vocabulary that is similar (Kuhn et al., 2007:230). These “data chunks” are called “groups semantic clusters” and are interpreted as linguistic topics that reveal the intention of the code that is used (Kuhn et al., 2007:230). Semantic cluster analysis allows the topics to be compared to each other with the
aim of identifying the links between them; it provides auto-retrieved labels and also enables the use of visuals to illustrate how they are distributed. This was enabled by the use of Leximancer software Version 4.

Swart et al. (2012) posit that the imperatives for hosting mega-events should be considered in two parts, those targeted externally (how the host is represented to the world) and those focussed internally (local stakeholders and residents). Because of constraints of time and finance, the current study focusses on the views on Brazil and Rio de Janeiro internationally. The identified markets for this study represent Brazil’s major tourism markets and had a high ticket representation at the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ event (Argentina, USA, Germany and Portugal).

The selection of strategic markets can be a challenging exercise since they vary according to destination (Swart et al., 2012). To make it easier to select the markets for analysis, Swart et al. (2012:133) identified two dimensions that relate to events and their host destinations, and these are inbound tourism and distribution of tickets. Swart et al. (2012:133) argue that the significance of a market can be judged by the influx of visitors to the event and the media representation in that market. In terms of Brazil’s visitor arrival statistics, Argentina tops with 29.3% market participation (Brazil Business, 2014). This is followed by the USA which has a market participation of 10.95%; Germany is in fourth position with 4.45% market participation (Brazil Business, 2014). In terms of market participation, Portugal is number ten with 3.38%, but because of its historical ties with Brazil, it was thought important to include it as a market for analysis (Property Brazil, 2013). According to the Statistics Portal, Statista (n.d.), FIFA had sold close to 3 million tickets by 5 June 2014. The market with the greatest share of the tickets was the USA with 196,838; Argentina second with 61,021 while the German market was third, with 58,778 tickets sold to its fans.

As mentioned earlier, the content sources for this study were selected on the basis of being the busiest online news access channels in each of the selected markets rather than the highest print circulation numbers (Swart et al., 2013). In accessing the media resources for the current study, websites of the major news channels for the identified markets had to be accessed.

The USA has several online newspapers which offer information targeted at different consumer groups. For this study, four news channels for the US market were selected; NYTimes, USA Today, CNN and the Los Angeles Times. The New York Times is the top American daily newspaper which is published in New York City. This newspaper outlet has won more Pulitzer Prizes, awards for achievements in newspaper and online journalism than any other news organisation and remains “No. 1 in overall reach of U.S. opinion leaders” (NYTMediaKit, 2015). USA Today and the Los Angeles Times are also widely accessed
online newspapers in the US market. They are among the top media brands in the USA and featured in the top twelve media, based on coverage in 2014 (Erdos & Morgan, 2014). CNN is among the world's leaders in online news and information delivery and has high circulation numbers, as indicated in Table 3.1.

### Table 3.1: Article sources for each market and circulation numbers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Market</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Circulation number(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>New York Times</td>
<td>1,133,923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>USA Today</td>
<td>249,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CNN</td>
<td>543,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Los Angeles Times</td>
<td>177,720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source: Alliance for Audited Media (2014)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Zeit Online: <a href="http://www.zeit.de">www.zeit.de</a></td>
<td>475,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spiegel Online: <a href="http://www.spiegel.de">www.spiegel.de</a></td>
<td>1,000,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Die Welt: <a href="http://www.welt.de">www.welt.de</a></td>
<td>250,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frankfurter Rundschau: <a href="http://www.fr-online.de">www.fr-online.de</a></td>
<td>190,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source: Alliance for Audited Media (2014); University of Chicago (n.d.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>Dario de Noticias: <a href="http://www.dn.pt">www.dn.pt</a></td>
<td>36,234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Record: <a href="http://www.record.xl.pt">www.record.xl.pt</a></td>
<td>86,964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correio Da Manha: <a href="http://www.cmjornal.xl.pt">www.cmjornal.xl.pt</a></td>
<td>119,431</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jornal de Noticias: <a href="http://www.jn.pt">www.jn.pt</a></td>
<td>109,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source: Press Reference (2014b); Gradim (n.d.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>Clarin: <a href="http://www.clarin.com">www.clarin.com</a></td>
<td>800,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>La Nacion: <a href="http://www.lanacion.com.ar">www.lanacion.com.ar</a></td>
<td>500,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Diario Popular: <a href="http://www.diariopopular.com.ar">www.diariopopular.com.ar</a></td>
<td>300,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ole: <a href="http://www.ole.com.ar">www.ole.com.ar</a></td>
<td>100,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source: Press Reference (2014a); Gradim (n.d.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Spiegel online and Zeit online (Der Spiegel and Die Zeit) for the German market are both weekly newspapers and their performance according to InterNations (n.d.) appears better than the daily newspapers. They play an active role in discussion in the society and are among the most widely-read publications in the country. Frankfurter Rundschau is a weekly liberal newspaper based in Frankfurt. Die Welt is a socially conservative and economically liberal daily newspaper produced in Hamburg (Global Britannica, 2015).*

For Portugal, the *Dario de Noticias* is considered the country's most prestigious publication, as it is an official newspaper of record (Gradim, n.d.). The newspaper, *Correio Da Manha* has the largest circulation in the southern part of the country and has the largest circulation numbers overall. The *Record* is Portugal’s largest sport newspaper, hence its selection for analysis (Press Reference, 2014b).

According to Woodward (2015), the *Clarin* and *La Nacion* newspapers are the most influential national papers in Argentina. *Clarin* has the highest circulation in the country and is considered the most widely read newspaper in Latin America (Press Reference, 2014a). The second largest paper is the *La Nacion*, which has been one of the most influential newspapers in the country's history. The newspaper *Ole* is dedicated to daily sport news and
publishes supplements on culture, sport, economics and world affairs, as well as a Sunday magazine and occasional books on specific topics. The newspaper *Diario Popular* is a left-leaning paper that emphasises crime and catastrophic news and includes supplements for the suburbs of Buenos Aires, where it is published (Press Reference, 2014a).

The following section shifts attention from content sourcing to content analysis.

### 3.4 Content analysis

Whitehead and Saville (2008:2) define content analysis as a research tool used to analyse the content of communication. More precisely, Weber (1990:117) views content analysis as a research method that uses a pre-defined procedure to make inferences from textual data. Content analysis allows for the objective, systematic description of written, spoken or visual communication (Macnamara, 2005:1). According to Tench and Yeomans (2009:211) content analysis allows researchers to analyse verbal and visual media output, for instance, the content of newspapers, radio, television and websites, which leads to inferences about the communicators and audiences of these contents. For this study, content analysis was used to analyse the content of newspapers pertaining to Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. Content analysis has been used in many studies, including work on the media’s reporting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (Ferreira & Donaldson, 2014). Developed mainly from the work of Weber (1990), content analysis has grown to be a recognisable qualitative research method. Weber (1990:117) compared content analyses with other data analysis techniques and identified several advantages to using content analysis. The current study used content analysis since it a text-based study, and the method allows for both qualitative and quantitative operations on text (Weber, 1990:117). The following are among the advantages of using content analysis as claimed by Weber (1990:117).

- Content analytic procedures operate directly on text or transcripts of human communications.
- Use both qualitative and quantitative operations on text. Thus content analysis methods combine what are usually thought to be antithetical modes of analysis.
- Documents of various kinds exist over long periods of time. Culture indicators generated from such series of documents constitute reliable data and may span even centuries.
- In more recent times, when reliable data of other kinds exist, culture indicators can be used to assess quantitatively the relationships among economic, social, political, and cultural change.
- Content analysis usually yields unobtrusive measures in which neither the sender nor the receiver of the message is aware that it is being analysed. Hence, there is little danger that the act of measurement itself will act as a force for change that confounds the data.

#### 3.4.1 Media content analysis – an overview

Media content analysis is a ‘specialised’ subset of content analysis and a formalised research methodology (Macnamara, 2005:1). Bryant (2012:1) describes media content
analysis as the de-construction of pieces of media with a tendency towards qualitative research methods.

Media content analysis can accommodate both quantitative and qualitative analysis methods. Quantitative methods within media content analysis involve a structured form of gathering information through media extracts (Bryant, 2012:1), while qualitative methods involve the viewing and analysis of an extract accompanied by open discussion and debate on the themes from media narratives. According to Bryant (2012:1), media content analysis was introduced as a systematic method to study mass media and propaganda. The method assists in defining and understanding the media profile by evaluating issues, messages, critics, media and journalists, and giving qualitative ratings to print and broadcasts.

Media content analysis was arguably introduced as a systematic method to study mass media by Harold Lasswell, a leading American political scientist and communication theorist in 1927, initially to study propaganda (Macnamara, 2005:1; Lamp, 2013). Media content analysis then became a popular research method amongst social science scholars as well as a method of communication research (Wimmer & Dominick, 1994:163). The development of media content analysis as a complete scientific method then occurred during World War II, when it was used to evaluate enemy propaganda (Robin, 2009:66-67). In the 1950s, media content analysis became a common research methodology in mass communication studies and social sciences with the arrival of television (Macnamara, 2005:1). It has recently been employed in the field of sport and tourism to understand the impact of media on sport mega-events (Swart et al., 2012; Swart et al., 2013; Ferreira & Donaldson, 2014).

Bryant (2012:1-2) lists various advantages and disadvantages of media content analysis, as outlined below.

3.4.1.1 Advantages of media content analysis

- Some parts of mass media may provide sociologists with useful information to see how society reacts to the media.
- Media content analysis can be used to analyse the ideologies of those who produce them and how they try to spread this ideology.
- Media content analysis looks directly at communication through texts or transcripts and therefore generates a central aspect of social interaction.
- It can allow for both quantitative and qualitative operations.
- It can allow closeness to the text which can alternate between specific categories and relationships and also statistically analyses the coded form of the text.
- It can be used to interpret texts for purposes such as the development of expert systems.
- Media content analysis is an unobtrusive means of analysing interactions and it provides an insight into complex models of human thought and language use.
- When carried out correctly, media content analysis is considered as a relatively ‘exact’ research method based on facts.
The advantages of media content analysis listed above were developed from Weber’s (1990) work. By adopting media content analysis as a research method, the researcher was also aware of the following disadvantages of the method, as listed by Bryant (2012:1-2).

3.4.1.2 Disadvantages of media content analysis

- Media content analysis relies heavily on the interpretation of the researcher.
- It may not always correspond with the interpretation of other researchers.
- There is an assumption that the audience is simply a passive consumer of the message supplied by the mass media, and there is no attempt made to examine how they actually interpret the message.
- Media content analysis may produce a distorted image of society which may mislead the public.
- Media content analysis can be time consuming.
- Media content analysis is often devoid of a theoretical base or attempts to draw meaningful inferences about the relationships and impacts implied in the study.

Bryant (2012:2-3) indicates that Marxists may think that media content analysis enables one to see how the media control people to prevent them from questioning what is going on; that the media are used to distract people from bigger issues of the day; and that mass media separate people from society making them feel inadequate. On the other hand, a functionalist may view mass media analysis as instilling norms and values that society can relate to; that it helps promote businesses and meritocracy, shows how well society is functioning and helps to keep individuals feeling motivated. Herring (2004:48) advocates applying traditional content analysis methods as literally as possible to new media content.

The following section will briefly explain the traditional approach to media content analysis as it is closely linked to how the data for the current study was analysed.

3.4.2 The traditional approach

Numerous authors, including Herring (2004:8), Weber (1990:117) and McQuail (2010:362), suggest a set of procedures to be followed when one is conducting a media content analysis. These “traditional” procedures may be summarised as follows:

- Formulate the research question
- Define the population
- Select a sample from the population
- Select and define a unit of analysis
- Construct the categories of content to be analysed
- Establish a quantification system
- Train coders and conduct a pilot study
- Code the content according to established definitions

The current study used these traditional procedures to analyse the data, starting with the presentation of the research questions in the first chapter. The last three steps, particularly the ‘train coders’ provision, are not needed with content analysis software because of the
ability of the software to perform the coding procedure. Computer-assisted content analysis tools, particularly Leximancer, make it easier for the content of articles to be coded and treated equally within the software – unlike with manual coding, where differences in coding and classifications may vary between coders. The procedure in this study relied on a computer-aided qualitative data analysis tool, Leximancer, which is explained in the next section of the current study (Edwards, 2010:252-254).

3.5 Method of data analysis and tools

Data analysis is a crucial stage in a research project and involves a process of systematically applying some defined techniques to evaluate the data. In qualitative studies, data analysis involves the use of raw data to learn something more abstract and general (Monette et al., 2011:432). Various tools have proved useful in analysing qualitative data, but in this study, the content analysis was facilitated using Leximancer.

After checking and excluding irrelevant and duplicated articles, the resulting content material for analysis provided a total of 1961 articles, as shown in Table 3.2. The extracted articles were then analysed by a text mining tool, Leximancer (Version 4). The theoretical foundations of Leximancer are based on content analysis. Weber (1990:118-123) provides a comprehensive introduction to content analysis as a research methodology and the various techniques used. In his explanations, he describes reliability and validity as key concepts in research and discusses their application to content analysis.

Leximancer was evaluated by Smith and Humphreys (2006) using a set of principles borrowed from content analysis, namely stability, reproducibility and correlative validity. Smith and Humphreys (2006:277) concluded that “there is an abundance of rich and complex information that can be extracted by means such as Leximancer”.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Markets</th>
<th>Number of Articles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina - AR</td>
<td>531</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal - PT</td>
<td>522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany - DE</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States of America - US</td>
<td>408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1961</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The extracted articles were uploaded into Leximancer software as a comma separated value (CSV) file. Several technical operations which will be explained in greater detail in Chapter Four of the current study were effected to obtain interpretable results. This included the removal of words such as ‘had’, ‘but’, ‘is’, ‘I’m’, ‘said’, ‘such’, ‘the’, ‘for’, ‘of’, ‘behind’, ‘on’, and other identified ‘low content value’ words. These words are called “stop words” and can be removed from the data since they have a low semantic content (Leximancer Manual, 2011:69-70; Lodhia & Martin, 2012:130; Smith & Humphreys, 2006:265). A custom
configuration and editing concept seed and thesaurus were set up for semantic information. Finally, relevant concepts were put together as a theme, and their relationships highlighted (Tseng et al., 2014:350).

Leximancer is a computer-assisted text-mining tool that “can be used to analyse the content of collections of textual documents and to visually display the selected information” (Smith & Humphreys, 2006:263). This digital software was used in the current study to mine the content of qualitative media data from online newspapers. The tool works on the documents at great speeds (Kivunja, 2013:53). Leximancer works with its own procedures to analyse the meanings within passages of text by extracting the main concepts and themes. It proved useful in giving an indication of how Brazil was profiled by applying the sentiment lens to the data. The sentiment lens provides further analysis of selected concepts by measuring the association of the learning concepts with positive or negative terms, “thus providing additional insight into the text” (Povey et al., 2013:4). Rooney (2005:409) notes that Leximancer identifies concepts from natural language and shows how they interrelate by performing conceptual and relational analyses. Leximancer builds its analysis by using frequency data and data about the co-occurrence of concepts to produce a concept co-occurrence matrix (Rooney, 2005:409). Once a concept has been identified, Leximancer builds a thesaurus of words that are closely related to the concept, thus giving the concept its semantic or definitional content. Table 3.3 below summarises how Leximancer works; its application, type of text, the output options and the possible projects in which it can be used.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Type of text</th>
<th>Output options</th>
<th>Possible projects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic text analysis</td>
<td>Any non-protected text: Word Docs;</td>
<td>Visual via the concept map; report via the insight</td>
<td>Communication research; analysis of speeches over time;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PDF; online content (html); .txt;</td>
<td>dashboard; Statistical via Leximancer data exports.</td>
<td>Blog analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>xml, etc.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Media analysis</td>
<td>Electronic media articles</td>
<td>Profile of company or issue</td>
<td>Competitor analysis; Online opinion analysis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic research</td>
<td>Any</td>
<td>Concept map; statistical output.</td>
<td>History; literature; media studies; Sociology; politic.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the Leximancer Manual (2011:10), concepts are collections of words that generally travel together in the text. The media content for analysis was qualitatively analysed through the use of Leximancer. This software is unique in that it goes beyond simple analysis by using word frequency as a base in performing the coding of terms and phrases like other content analysis software (Tseng et al., 2014:350). Leximancer software works with its own algorithms to analyse the meaning embedded in textual data by extracting the main concepts and ideas. According to Indulska et al. (2012:53), Leximancer applies a
quantitative method to perform a qualitative analysis by using different algorithms for the different stages and also requires the usage of the manual for the researcher to control the findings.

In this study, the researcher made use of quadrant reports visually to portray how the concepts are plotted. To permit further consideration of the ways in which media reports in each of the time periods changed, Leximancer enabled the production of quadrant reports which plotted the top ten concepts for each time period. The top ten concepts are identified by considering the relative frequency with which the concepts recur within the search period. The strength of occurrence is a measure of conditional probability to indicate how often the concepts appear within the period of time under consideration (Bell & Seidel, 2012:9).

In interpreting the quadrant reports, there are some important points to consider. The first is that the top right-hand quadrant is known as the ‘magic’ quadrant (Franklin et al., 2015:37). This quadrant should contain the concepts that are both the strongest and most frequently mentioned in the textual corpus. The other quadrants represent a sliding scale of strength and frequency, and it is in the clustering together of concepts that researchers would see the patterns and trends emerging regarding the kind of content within each period (Franklin et al., 2015:37).

3.6 Reliability and validity in qualitative research

Brink (1993:35) notes that most qualitative researchers avoid using the terms validity and reliability and rather use other terms when referring to evaluating the credibility of qualitative research. Examples of terms used include; consistency, reproducibility, trustworthiness, confirmability, stability, trust, value and credibility (Brink, 1993:35). The term ‘reliability’ is a concept that is often used to evaluate quantitative research (Seale, 1999:266). However, the concept also applies to any qualitative research, where it examines the trustworthiness of the research report (Seale, 1999:266). In other words, reliability refers to the ability of a research method to yield the same results if it is to be repeated several times (Brink, 1993:35). Using Leximancer enhances ‘reliability’ since the same results for each period can be applied to the same market data. This extends to coding across markets and hence allows for comparative analysis.

Atkinson (2012:227) describes validity in two ways; first, regarding whether the research is actually measuring what it was intended to measure, and secondly, whether the research design does not create bias which may result in skewed results. Venkatesh et al. (2013:32) define validity as a measure of the accuracy of the findings in representing the truth. Brink (1993:35) adds that for a study to be considered valid it should demonstrate what actually exists, and a valid instrument should actually measure what it is supposed to measure.
In the current study, an important feature of analysis via Leximancer is its reliability (Rooney, 2005:409). With content analysis, Weber (1990:120) identifies three types of reliability: stability, reproducibility and accuracy. Leximancer addresses reliability in two ways, providing both stability and reproducibility. Stability in Leximancer is equivalent to inter-coder reliability, a measure of whether the same data produces the same results (Smith & Humphreys, 2006:265). That is, the automated and deterministic machine-learning phase will be highly consistent no matter how many times a corpus is processed and re-processed by the application. It can therefore be concluded that Leximancer has a high level of coding stability (Smith & Humphreys, 2006:265). Reproducibility in the context of Leximancer is seen in its stability in classifying text given the same coding scheme. Consistent classifying manifests in a reliably constructed stochastic concept map. In other words, if the map is calculated several times, the researcher can examine each new map for its consistency with previous maps. If maps are dissimilar the researcher can alter any of the computational criteria being applied to the corpus in an endeavour to make the map consistently reproducible, thus ensuring more valid findings (Edwards, 2010:252).

Leximancer performs an automatic content analysis and has its strength and weaknesses as a qualitative data analysis tool. Sotiriadou et al. (2014:230) identify the strengths and weaknesses of Leximancer as summarised in Table 3.4, below.

Table 3.4: Strengths and weaknesses of Leximancer
Source: Sotiriadou et al. (2014:230)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths of Leximancer</th>
<th>Weaknesses of Leximancer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Suitable for exploratory and predictive study</td>
<td>- Text analysis only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Effective for large volumes of data</td>
<td>- Not able to capture the style or implied tone of voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Allows for quick identification of concepts</td>
<td>- Findings may contain unexpected or unexplained concepts and relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Objective data analysis as researcher bias coder subjectivity is removed</td>
<td>therefore the researcher should be able to interpret the concepts and relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Unlike other qualitative tools Leximancer is more reliable as there is minimal manual intervention from the researcher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Suitable for a positivistic approach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The greatest advantage of using Leximancer as an analytical tool is that it allows for a visual presentation of the data, based on patterns that the software itself finds or produced under the theoretically grounded guidance of the researcher. Kivunja (2013:53) notes that Leximancer is important since it generates much more detail on the relationships between the concepts that it uncovers. The software even allows the researcher to vary the level of detail that is reported. In short, Leximancer produces an analysis that is systematic, comprehensive and unbiased (Penn-Edwards, 2010:252).
In selecting Leximancer as a data analysis tool, the researcher had to explore what fields of study had used it and based on that determine its suitability in the field of sport tourism. It was realised that Leximancer has been useful in different fields of study including politics to explore the submissions made to a policy paper (Lodhia & Martin, 2012), education to understand e-learning adoption (Al-hawari & Al-halabi, 2010), in business to study the narratives of executive managers (Middleton, Liesch & Steen, 2011), in health to understand a patient safety incident management system (Travanglia, Westbrook & Braithwaite, 2009) and in literature to define various concepts (Dann, 2010; Indulska, Hovorka & Recker, 2012). Leximancer has also been applied in tourism research to identify event images in media reports (Scott & Smith, 2005). In addition, Leximancer has been very useful to assess management perceptions of disability service provision in the hospitality industry (Darcy & Pegg, 2011), and to analyse tourist shopping experiences in the Beijing Silk Market (Wu, Wall & Pearce, 2014).

The current study used Leximancer software to assist the researcher to conduct thematic and conceptual analyses of the extracted media content. In addition to its many other applications, the software has recently been used in the field of sport management to analyse media reports on sport mega-events within key markets (Swart et al., 2012; Swart et al., 2013). The current study used Leximancer software as a tool to help analyse media content about Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ in order to identify the main concepts from the extracted textual data. Visual concept maps and statistical outputs were generated that enhanced the insights afforded by natural language (Wu et al., 2014).

Leximancer as a content analysis tool specifies how many sentences are included in each context and these are referred to as ‘text blocks’ or blocks of text. In this study, default settings of Leximancer were used with three sentences forming one ‘text block’ (Leximancer, 2013). The researcher used concept maps to illustrate what concepts were unearthed in relation to the strategic imperatives for hosting the 2014 FIFA World Cup™, as reported by the international media. Concept maps were devised for individual international markets analysed in the current study, as well as for overall media coverage. To further understand the text behind the concepts, the study uses text excerpts in their original format after translation. In addition to the concept maps, quadrant reports made it easier to identify and show the major themes that were common within media reporting about Brazil’s hosting of the Cup.

The methodology adopted in this study was consistent with Swart et al.’s (2012; 2013) media impact study on South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 World Cup. The collected data was loaded onto a spreadsheet with tags that enabled easy analysis. As mentioned above, concept maps were used to visually present the results of this study. Semantic cluster
analysis, a technique used to group related concepts together, was applied. This analysis method enables comparisons of the concepts (how they are related) and identifies the links between them (Kuhn et al., 2007).

3.7 Ethical considerations
Ethics form the basis for conducting a meaningful research study and they need to be duly observed from the initial stages of a research project. Orb, Eisenhauer and Wynaden (2001:93) highlight that for a research study to be considered ethical, it must have a complete methodology and must meet the moral expectations of all research participants. Cooper and Schindler (1998:108) define ethics as norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about individuals' behaviours and relations. Many researchers identify the following aspects of research ethics: informed consent, right to anonymity and confidentiality, and voluntary participation (Orb et al., 2001; Heffernan, 2005:89; Research Methods, 2006).

This research study considered all the ethical requirements, presented information without misleading people and provided a reference for all sources that were consulted for the study. The researcher obtained ethical approval from the university’s ethics committee (CPUT ethics committee) (see Appendix B).

3.7.1 Plagiarism
Throughout this study, the researcher acknowledged information borrowed from other scholars. All references in this study have been properly listed using the CPUT’s Harvard referencing style. The following section will focus on delineation of the current study.

3.8 Delineation of the study
The study was limited to investigating the impact of the media on Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. The focus was restricted to online media articles published in Brazil’s key tourist source markets: Argentina, USA, Germany and Portugal. The study was not intended to examine media reports on teams playing the game and predictions about which country would take the Cup. Therefore, articles covering the actual soccer matches were excluded from the analysis. Articles were selected only from specific sources and this excluded social media.

3.9 Challenges and limitations
Like most studies, this study faced several challenges and limitations which the researcher tried to minimise. The first challenge concerned access to some of the media content. Some of the news sources allowed limited access of their content and required the researcher to subscribe in order to have full access. However, through the help of the researcher’s colleagues access was enabled. Also, the researcher’s supervisor assisted by providing
finance to subscribe temporarily to some news sources, particularly the ones that allowed limited free content.

The other challenge encountered in this study was that of language, especially with the non-English news sources in the Argentinian, German and Portuguese markets. It was found that after feeding the extracted news content through translating tools, the result would at times be meaningless. To overcome this, Google Translate and Bing Translator websites were used in combination to translate the news content into English. However, useful these translation tools might be, one cannot expect perfect grammar from automated tools. Yet because Leximancer is looking at content and distance between concepts, perfect grammar is not as critical as it might be in other content analysis. A lot of time was taken up with data collection (articles extraction). The study was also limited by time, since only one year post the event was considered; it might have yielded better results if the post period was extended.

3.10 Chapter summary
The current chapter discussed the methods of data collection and analysis employed in addressing the pre-determined research objectives for this study. The next chapter sets out the findings together with their analysis. It also offers a discussion of the results, with the aim of answering the research questions to meet the study’s objectives.
CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter Three provided a description of the methodology used in the study. The aim of this chapter is to present an analysis of the findings that were obtained after loading and analysing the media content on Leximancer Version 4 software, a qualitative data analytical tool that enabled the quick identification of concepts.

From the analysis of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ strategic planning documents (see Appendix A) and relevant World Cup reports, the following were identified as key strategic imperatives for hosting the World Cup: overcoming concerns associated with safety and security at the host destination, enhancing the positive image of the destination, and showing readiness (infrastructure and facilities) to host the event. This research uses these strategic imperatives to analyse the media content and to determine what concepts resort under the rubric of each imperative for the identified time periods. The strategic imperatives were decoded through the use of semantic cluster analysis to place themes and concepts in categories that allow for comparative analysis.

The presentation of the findings for this study was done per each identified market following the following steps:

- use of content for analysis which included media articles by source and time period;
- examination of concepts and followed by presentation of concept clouds and semantic concept maps;
- examination of the strategic imperative as reported by the media per market;
- sentiment analysis focusing on frequency weight per time period and market; and
- sentiment analysis through comparison of media coverage between Brazil and South Africa

The following section starts off by providing an overview of the source markets for media content used for this study and the article count per market.

4.2 The source market media article count

A total of 1961 articles was extracted for analysis from the identified Brazilian tourism market media. The number of articles extracted for analysis were almost similar for each market, with Argentina having a slightly higher percentage (27.08%) followed by Portugal (26.62%), Germany (25.50%) and USA (20.81%). Table 4.1 quantitatively represents the markets which were examined in this study together with the corresponding numbers of articles selected for each. Table 4.1 also indicates the percentage of the number of articles extracted per market.
Table 4.1: Media article count
Article count: (12/6/2012 – 13/7/2015)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Market</th>
<th>Number of Articles</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Argentina - AR</td>
<td>531</td>
<td>27.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal - PT</td>
<td>522</td>
<td>26.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany - DE</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>25.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States of America - US</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>20.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>1961</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The CSV file had all the extracted media content from the source markets and the data was loaded with tags for analysis. The CSV file for the extracted content of the articles was then loaded into Leximancer version 4 for the programme to sort and index concepts into groupings having common key terms or associations. Initially, the default settings on Leximancer were used for the total number of concepts, number of names and learning threshold. Leximancer was then instructed to create analogous concepts by merging some of the concepts (‘name-like’ and ‘word concepts’) which were more related, for example: city and cities, Brazil and Brazilian, stadium and stadiums, Rio and Rio de Janeiro, event and events and many more. This reduces the fragmentation of concepts and allows for stronger diagnosis of relationships between concepts. The following section therefore launches the discussion by presenting the key findings of the study.

The three strategic imperatives examined in this study were concerns about safety and security, destination image and hosting capability/readiness. With regard to the safety and security imperative, the study wanted to understand if concerns about safety and security changed as a result of hosting the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. Brazil has at times been associated with violence (Hoelscher & Norheim-Martinsen, 2014; Overseas Security Advisory Council [OSAC], 2016), so the intention was to examine whether these concerns changed as a result of the country’s hosting the event. Another area that the study wanted to explore was whether the destination image (city and country image) of Brazil and Rio de Janeiro in the selected international markets changed as a result of Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup. This is related to how Brazil was perceived in terms of its tourism resources (both natural and man-made, plus people, cultures, beliefs and heritage). The study also wanted to understand whether Brazil (the nation) and Rio (host city) were considered ready for the Cup in the selected tourism markets. Media content relating to stadium preparedness, urban transformation and infrastructural readiness was analysed. The strategic imperatives in the key tourism markets were profiled across each stage or period of time and in some instances compared with 2010 FIFA World Cup™ media impact study data on South Africa. Table 4.2, below, shows the strategic imperatives analysed in this study. These were decoded by identifying the imperative theme and concept clusters for each imperative.
Table 4.2: Decoding the imperatives for analysis – Capability, Safety & Security and Destination Image

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperative Theme</th>
<th>Concept clusters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperative 1 – Safety &amp; Security</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protest</td>
<td>Protests [protests, protesters, violence, violent, strike]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>Crime, criminal, safety [safe, safety], robbery, theft, hi-jack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>security [secure, secured, securing, security], police [police, police’s, policing], military, soldier, officer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperative 2 - Hosting Capability</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>Accommodation [hotels, home, building, motel, motels, resort, resorts], camping, camp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport &amp; infrastructure</td>
<td>Construction, airport [airport, airports], infrastructure, roads [road, roads], transport [bus, minibus, rail, train, taxi, transport]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stadiums</td>
<td>Stadium [stadiums, stadia, stadia’s, venue, venues]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost</td>
<td>cost [expensive, money, spending, spent]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsorship, ticketing</td>
<td>Tickets, sponsor, sponsee, event merchandise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperative 3 – Destination Image</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beach</td>
<td>Beach [beaches], Copacabana, Ipanema,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corruption</td>
<td>Corruption [corrupt], bribery, bribe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Powerful</td>
<td>Power, strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem</td>
<td>Problem, problems, trouble</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage</td>
<td>People, culture, history</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following sections explore the media coverage of Brazil and Rio de Janeiro in the key markets of Argentina, USA, Portugal and Germany. It starts off by presenting an overview of source material or content for analysis in this study.

4.3 2014 World Cup - Media coverage analysis

4.3.1 Source material – Argentinian market

The sources for the media content for Argentina were the major online newspapers which had the highest circulation and readership numbers in the country: Clarin, La Nacion, Diario Popular and Ole. As presented in Table 4.1, a total of 531 articles were extracted from the Argentinian market. As illustrated in Figure 4.1, the lead-up period had the highest number of articles extracted for analysis. The number of articles was almost the same for all the stages, with on average 30 articles being extracted per each news source. It is clear that the lead-up had the highest coverage, with Diario Popular leading (55 articles), followed by Clarin (44 articles), La Nacion (39 articles) and Ole (35 articles).

In Latin America, the mass media are sometimes referred to as a “fourth power” that plays a crucial role in safeguarding and reinforcing democracy (Boas, 2013:3). The media report wrongdoing as well as achievements and good governance. In this way the media assist in making politicians accountable and help the electorate to make informed decisions about their leaders. Boas (2013) further notes that by giving a voice to individuals, social movements, political parties, and interest groups, the media help determine who gets to participate in public discourse and influence the political agenda.
As reflected above, the most extensive coverage occurred in the lead-up period, with almost the same level of content coming from the pre-, hosting and post-2014 periods. It is important to note that the hosting period did not include media content covering matches and teams but rather the World Cup tournament as a whole in relation to the identified strategic imperatives.

The study also examined the text blocks (default - two sentence segments which contain a concept) to gain an overview of what the coverage for the nation (Brazil) and particular city/cities (specifically Rio de Janeiro) was like in each of the periods (Leximancer Manual, 2011:41). As illustrated in Figure 4.2, for the Argentinian market, the lead-up period had the highest coverage (2681), of which 536 were concerned with Brazil and 142 focused on Rio de Janeiro.
Fewer articles were obtained from the hosting period (1811), of which 336 related to Brazil and 90 focused on Rio. It is also important to note that despite the study’s focus on the nation (Brazil) and city (Rio), other major Brazilian cities that hosted the event emerged, for example Sao Paulo and Belo Horizonte. Despite having a higher overall coverage of the country and Brazilian cities in the post-period, the coverage on Brazil and Rio dropped to 223 and 38 respectively. This appears to indicate that after the 2014 World Cup, the attention given by the media to the hosting nation and city fell, which supports Boydstun et al.’s notion (2014:509) that media attention “rises and falls as issues come and go”. In addition, this is consistent with the tournament’s having come to an end, given that the term “World Cup” was included in the search and article identification criteria. This is also consistent with the 2010 media attention profile. The pre-period featured 2119 articles focusing on the nation and its cities, giving a breakdown of 443 articles on Brazil and 114 on Rio.

The next subsection examines the German market’s media coverage on Brazil and presents the findings.

4.3.2 Source material – German market

This section looks at Germany’s media content to understand the profile of media coverage of Brazil and Rio in relation to the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ over the four identified periods of time. The source materials for the German market were; Frankfurter Rundschau, Spiegel, Die Welt and Zeit Online. A total of 500 articles were extracted by source and period for the German market.

![Figure 4.3: Number of articles by media source for the 2014 World Cup for German market](image)

As presented in Figure 4.3, the lead-up period had the highest coverage, with 172 articles extracted, followed by the post-period (114 articles) whereas the pre-period and hosting period had 108 and 106 articles, respectively. The Zeit Online published most (67 articles) in
the lead-up period and this number dropped sharply to 14 articles in the post-period whilst in the pre-period there were 17 articles extracted. For the German market, *Die Welt* had the least (82 articles) number of articles extracted for analysis. *Spiegel Online* had a total of 128 articles extracted for analysis and of these, 48 and 31 articles appeared in the lead-up and hosting periods, respectively.

As with the other source markets analysed in this study, the highest coverage of the nation and its cities was during the lead-up period. This result is not surprising as it conforms to the 2010 media impact study on South Africa, where the lead-up period dominated the coverage of both the nation and its cities (Swart et al., 2012). The German market had a total of 3614 mentions of Brazil and its major cities in the lead-up period, followed by the post period which recorded 2754 reference to Brazil, Rio and Sao Paulo. The context of these citations was in relation to the country’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup and will be explained in subsequent sections. In the pre-period, the mention total for Brazil was 319 whilst for Rio it was 127, while in the lead-up period, the mentions of Brazil and Rio increased to 708 and 256, respectively. This finding is again not surprising since in most cases, a host nation attracts greater coverage immediately before the hosting, when the issues include its capability to successfully manage the event. It is important to note that the lead-up period was when the readiness discussion was at its most intense. Sao Paulo, one of Brazil’s major cities, was widely covered in the lead-up period, but in the post period this changed as focus shifted to the nation rather than individual cities. Rio de Janeiro as an events and tourist destination in Brazil was still covered, but in relation to both the 2014 World Cup and the Olympic Games.

As presented in Figure 4.4, the content that focused on Brazil and Rio in the pre-period was 319 and 127, followed by 708 and 256 in the lead-up period. In the hosting period, 389 mentions were for Brazil whilst 153 was for Rio and the post period had 249 and 99 content for Brazil and Rio, respectively.

![Figure 4.4: Number of text blocks analysed by period and location for the 2014 World Cup - German market](image)

As presented in Figure 4.4, the content that focused on Brazil and Rio in the pre-period was 319 and 127, followed by 708 and 256 in the lead-up period. In the hosting period, 389 mentions were for Brazil whilst 153 was for Rio and the post period had 249 and 99 content for Brazil and Rio, respectively.
4.3.3 Source material – US market

This section examines the profile of the coverage of Brazil and Rio over the four identified stages in the US market. The sources utilised for content in the US market were the *New York Times*, *USA Today*, CNN and the *Los Angeles Times*. A total number of 408 articles were extracted from the US market for analysis.

![Figure 4.5: Number of articles by media source for the 2014 World Cup for US market](image)

Figure 4.5 shows the number of articles that were extracted from the US market relating to Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. Like the previous markets, the majority of the content emerged in the lead-up period (165 articles), of which 59 came from *USA Today*, 39 the *New York Times*, 34 CNN, and 33 the *Los Angeles Times*. During the hosting period, *USA Today* published 45 articles, followed by the *New York Times* (30 articles), while CNN and the *Los Angeles Times* published 17 and 11 articles, respectively. The pre-period had the least number of publications (65 articles), and of these the bulk (43 articles) came from the *New York Times*, whereas *USA Today* and CNN had 8 and 10 articles extracted, respectively. The post-period recorded a total of 75 articles for analysis, with 32 emanating from the *New York Times* and 24 from *USA Today*. CNN and the *Los Angeles Times* had 11 and 8 articles, respectively.

The pattern for the highest rate of content about the nation (Brazil) and its cities (Rio and Sao Paulo included) was similar to that recorded for the other markets analysed in this study (Argentina, Germany and Portugal). As illustrated on Figure 4.6, the lead-up period featured by far the most coverage, 2902 text blocks. Of these, 1046 were mentions of Brazil and 322 of Rio. During the hosting period, the level of content relating to Brazil was 575, whilst Rio had 87 mentions. The pre-period received the lowest coverage, a total of 1393 text blocks, of

90
which 296 related to Brazil and 111 were about Rio. Looking at the period after the 2014 World Cup, a total of 1399 text blocks were analysed and of these, 261 mentions focused on Brazil whereas 51 concerned the city of Rio de Janeiro.

Figure 4.6: Number of text blocks analysed by period and location for the 2014 World Cup - US market

The next subsection shifts the discussion from the US market and examines Brazil's historical partner, Portugal. Brazil and Portugal share similar characteristics: in addition to the official language of Portuguese, there is political and diplomatic coordination, and economic, social, cultural, legal, technical and scientific cooperation.

4.3.4 Source material – Portuguese market
The source materials used to analyse the Portuguese market were Dario de Noticias, Correio Da Manha, Record and Jornal de Noticias.

As presented on Figure 4.7, the total number of articles extracted in the Portuguese market was 522. The period with the highest number of articles extracted was the lead-up with 154, followed by the post period with 141 articles. The pre-period and hosting period had 113 and 114 articles, respectively.

The Correio Da Manha contributed the highest content for analysis, with 44 articles in the pre-period, 61 in the lead-up period, 47 in the hosting period and 34 articles in the post period. In the pre-period, Jornal de Noticias published 27 articles, Dario de Noticias 22 articles, followed by Record with 20. The lead-up period produced the greatest content for analysis, distributed as follows; Dario de Noticias (36 articles), Record (31 articles), Correio Da Manha (61 articles) and Jornal de Noticias (26 articles). As mentioned previously, the hosting period produced a total of 114 articles, distributed as follows: 23 articles from Dario de Noticias, 24 from Record, 47 from Correio Da Manha and 20 articles from Jornal de Noticias. The post period had more articles relating to Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA
World Cup™ than the actual hosting period: 33 articles were published by Dario de Noticias, 34 came from Record, whilst 50 articles came from Correio Da Manha and 24 from Jornal de Noticias.

Looking at the numbers per text block in the Portuguese market as depicted in Figure 4.8, the post period had the highest (1505), followed by the lead-up period with a total of 1482 text blocks, whilst the pre-period and hosting period had 1059 and 986 text blocks, respectively. The lead-up period featured the most mentions of both Brazil (361 mentions) and Rio (237 mentions). This result conforms with Swart et al.'s (2012) finding that the lead-up period is key and usually has the most frequent and extensive coverage of the host nation and host cities. In the pre-period, the mentions of Brazil and Rio were almost the same, at 187 and 188 mentions respectively. The hosting period had 263 mentions of Brazil and 127 of Rio.
Finally, the post period for the Portuguese market shows that 207 text blocks were about Brazil and 175 about the host city of Rio. It can also be seen that there was some coverage of one of the biggest cities in Brazil, Sao Paulo, by the international media in the Portugal market. Since this study focused on Brazil (host nation) and Rio de Janeiro (host city), the results for Sao Paulo are for illustrative purposes only and will not be further discussed.

The current study showed that in all the selected tourism markets, there was an increase in the number of times Brazil was mentioned when compared with the number of mentions of the city, Rio de Janeiro (see Table 4.3). The lead-up period recorded the highest number of mentions for both Brazil and Rio de Janeiro (more than 40%), evidently a time when the country was under intense media scrutiny.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time period</th>
<th>Number of mentions – Brazil</th>
<th>Number of mentions - Rio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-2014 WC</td>
<td>1223 (19.5%)</td>
<td>590 (23.7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead-up</td>
<td>2547 (40.6%)</td>
<td>1026 (41.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hosting</td>
<td>1569 (25.0%)</td>
<td>493 (19.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-2014 WC</td>
<td>940 (15.0%)</td>
<td>384 (15.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All period</td>
<td>6279 (100%)</td>
<td>2493 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The percentage for all periods is rounded off to a whole number

From the foregoing, it is evident that there was increased international visibility for Brazil as well as for the city of Rio de Janeiro. This was determined by looking at the number of mentions of the nation (Brazil) and city (Rio) as generated by Leximancer software. A closer inspection of those mentions revealed that Brazil and Rio were being covered by the international media on topics including society, economy, politics, environment, technology, sports and many others.

The ratio of nation versus city mentions for Brazil seems to be consistent with those for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, when South Africa had more mentions than Cape Town. Similarly, mentions of the nation were more frequent in the lead-up period than in the other periods.

4.4 Strategic imperative analysis

This section provides a discussion and analysis of the strategic imperatives for Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. The imperatives are firstly analysed for the overall market and then for each key international market – Argentina, USA, Germany and Portugal. Imperative matrices and graphical presentations are used to visually display the profiles of each imperative in the identified markets.

Amongst the identified strategic imperatives for hosting the Cup was Brazil’s need to improve its international image and thus advance its “global status” (Soares e Castro, 2013:29). The country intended to change the way it was viewed, which is why this study examined
international news from Brazil’s key tourist markets to understand what image was projected of the country and of the city of Rio de Janeiro in relation to their hosting of the 2014 World Cup. Traditionally, Brazil has been notorious for violent crime, drug abuse, poverty, vast inequalities, poor public services and other social ills, all amounting to a negative public image (Kleijssen, 2014:17). On the positive side, Brazil is known for staging parties (Rio Carnival), for its beaches and friendly people. It is clear from this study that certain negative issues did feature in the media reporting about Brazil. Like other national governments, the Brazilian government is dedicated to addressing the challenges it faces and to projecting a positive image to ensure register its presence in international affairs. Despite the negative attributes that continue to taint Brazil’s image, the country is performing well in global affairs as a partner state in the BRICs grouping (supposedly developing nations with the fastest growing economies) (Soares e Castro, 2013:29). The country is also known for its abundant natural resources, including tropical forests and rich oil deposits that qualify it as potentially one of the world’s greatest oil producing countries, and which help to enrich its image in the international media (Leggette, 2015:1). Qualitative analysis seems to indicate that Brazil’s 2014 World Cup was a success and created a “global party”, a positive outcome despite the negative coverage prior to the event.

Figure 4.9, below, shows the count of theme mentions in all the markets for hosting capability, herewith referred to as capability themes. The themes relating to hosting capability are more closely associated with Brazil than with Rio de Janeiro since the World Cup was more of a national event. The most mentions were of ‘stadiums’ in Brazil (756 mentions). The themes ‘accommodation’, ‘infrastructure’, ‘cost’ and ‘ticketing’ were also more strongly associated with the nation than the city.

![Figure 4.9: Theme mentions for hosting capability for the overall markets](image)

Comparing Brazil and South Africa in terms of the capability and readiness imperative, the results seem consistent in that both had the highest mentions for stadiums, for both the
nation and the host city. Again, for both countries the themes ‘stadiums’, ‘transport & infrastructure’ and ‘ticketing’ were strongest after ‘stadiums’, for both nation and city. The result is not surprising, given that sport mega-events require world-class stadiums to be staged.

The safety and security imperative reveals strong differences between the two themes, ‘protests’ and ‘safety and security’ which define the safety and security imperative (see Figure 4.10). Brazil experienced unprecedented and massive national protests, particularly in the lead-up period to the Cup. These protests led people to question whether the event was going to be a success or not (Saad-Filho, 2013:659). As shown in Figure 4.10, safety and security was a bigger concern for Rio de Janeiro than for Brazil, with 738 mentions within the whole data set, whereas Brazil had 550 mentions (and the associated themes which make up the safety and security imperative). The protests which dominated the country were viewed as a national issue rather than a city issue. Many Brazilians in various cities including Rio de Janeiro went into the street to protest against the World Cup. This was a national issue, a concern on the part of the majority of Brazilians, who accused the government of prioritising funding for sport mega-events at the expense of more pressing issues, including health, education and social services. Looking at the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the mentions for the safety and security imperative were concentrated more on South Africa as the host nation ahead of any specific concerns about Cape Town (Swart et al., 2012). This is not consistent with the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ media figures, where Rio de Janeiro obtained massive coverage in relation to safety & security imperative compared to the hosting nation (see below).

Figure 4.10: Theme mentions for safety and security for the overall markets

Figure 4.11, below, graphically presents mentions of the theme of ‘destination image’ to indicate how the theme was covered in the overall markets. Like many other developing countries, Brazil has challenges or ‘problems’, and this emerged as a theme in the international media coverage of the country’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup. ‘Problems’ as a
destination image theme was viewed as a national issue rather than a city issue (141 mentions and 61 mentions for ‘problems’ for Brazil and Rio, respectively). The problems that Brazil had as reported by the international media included social problems (e.g. corruption, drugs, housing, crime, etc) and social inequalities visible in most parts of the country. These concerns were echoed in the numerous anti-World Cup protests that hit the nation of Brazil.

The theme ‘powerful’ appears to be more covered by mentions of Brazil (134 mentions) than of Rio, with 59 counts. Indeed, Brazil is a powerful state when it comes to economic development as it is seen as an emerging global power (Choudry, 2013:2). Brazil’s economic linkages have moved beyond the Latin American countries and have reached the shores of other continents such as Africa, Asia, Europe and North America (Choudry, 2013:2-3). Brazil is involved in a number of significant global alliances, for example the BRICs countries, the Group of Twenty (G-20), Argentina, Brazil and Chile (ABC), Brazil, South Africa, India and China (BASIC) – and also has bilateral and multilateral treaties with many countries, which serves to consolidate the country’s power (Choudry, 2013:5).

Corruption was viewed as a national issue rather than a city issue and hence it is recommended that Brazil continue to implement strategies aimed at addressing corruption. The mentions of corruption in relation to Brazil’s hosting of the Cup amounted to 123, whereas for Rio it was 27, an indication that Brazil as a country should try to change this by implementing firm strategies to curb corrupt activities.

Examine the theme ‘beach’, it is clear as presented in Figure 4.11 that Brazil has famous beaches, particularly in Rio de Janeiro. The number of mentions of beaches for Brazil was 42, whereas for Rio the data set gave 76 mentions in relation to the 2014 World Cup. The fact that the image imperative ‘beach’ emerged in the coverage for Brazil and Rio de Janeiro is a testament of the extent to which both the nation and city of Rio are renowned for their beaches. The ‘beach’ was covered from various angles, positively as one of the key tourist activities in Brazil.
attractions to see while in Brazil, and negatively in that crime that had been reported at beaches across the country. Brazil used its beautiful beaches as one of its draw-cards for the World Cup. The beaches which were referenced often in the media narrative were Copacabana, and Ipanema. For Rio de Janeiro, beaches was covered in relation to various aspects including serving as fan fests, place for relaxation for tourists and locals and also problems encountered at these beaches for example, the CNN report was quoted citing the below.

………………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

“Street thefts and robberies are a problem in Sao Paulo and Rio-de-Janeiro particularly around tourist spots like beaches, hotels, discos, bars and other places, the U.S. State Department says.”

USA Today 16/06/14

The study also explored how the strategic imperatives were covered in the individual markets. The findings are illustrated in Appendix F and explained in the current section. Starting off with capability imperative, stadiums were extensively covered in relation to Brazil than it was for Rio de Janeiro in all the markets. However, the degree of mention for stadiums varied with markets. There was high reference for stadiums in the Argentinian market followed by the US, German and then the Portuguese market. Stadiums were mostly referenced in relation to their readiness for the event and the construction projects that were undertaken. Accommodation was also mentioned frequently in the selected markets with higher reference in relation to Brazil than it was for Rio de Janeiro. The Argentinian market, had accommodation mentioned highly for Brazil compared with Rio de Janeiro.

Examining the safety and security imperative, the US market recorded high mentions for safety and security concepts and this was in relation to Rio de Janeiro. It is therefore clear that safety and security was considered as a city issue than being a national issue. However, protests which form part of safety and security imperative was more of a national issue than city issue as indicated by the frequency of its coverage in the US market. The Argentinian market was however slightly different from the other markets since safety and security issues were considered as a national issue rather than closely associating it with the city of Rio de Janeiro.

In the US market, the destination image imperative covered aspects such as beach, corruption, powerful and problems. This degree of the coverage however differed with corruption being mentioned most in relation to Brazil therefore suggesting that corruption is a national issue rather than a mere city issue. The concept problems had a higher mention linked to Brazil than it was with Rio de Janeiro. In the German market corruption had higher mentions for Brazil than for Rio de Janeiro and in the same market beaches were more associated with Rio de Janeiro than it was with Brazil. The Portuguese and Argentinian
market viewed corruption as national issues than a city issue as denoted with the number of mentions for the concept.

The following section presents the findings for the analysis of the selected markets.

4.5 Analysis of the markets

It is necessary to present the foundations on which the study’s findings are based, as well as the implications of using Leximancer software for the study. The next section examines the emerging concepts and themes as mined by Leximancer software. It is important to note that themes and concepts not relevant to the identified imperatives are not discussed in detail in this dissertation. However, they are retained in the visual analysis to place the imperative themes in the context of overall media coverage. In the current chapter, the researcher has used textual excerpts for illustrative purposes. It is important to point out that these quotes are extracted directly from the Leximancer dataset without being language-edited to fix grammatical and sentence construction errors. Since Leximancer examines word concepts without necessarily treating the grammar in sentence construction, it allows the researcher to analyse the context of these concepts.

Textual blocks were used to indicate the exact quotations, and these are placed within dotted lines and in italics to differentiate them from the text of the study. When Leximancer completed its learning process or internal analysis, and generated a preliminary list of concepts that are embedded in the text, and of relationships between the concepts, the information was then presented via a concept map as shown in Figure 4.12. Thick arrows have been used to indicate the movement of concepts from one time period to the next starting from the pre- to lead-up to the hosting and finally to the post event period. The concepts combine and cluster into higher level themes when the map is generated, thus aiding in the interpretation of the concepts. The themes are ‘heat-mapped’ to show the importance of the concept being analysed (Biroscak, 2013:5). This implies that the ‘hottest’ or most important theme appears in red, and the next hottest in orange, and so on according to the colour wheel (Leximancer Manual, 2011:14).

4.5.1 Overall markets analysis

All the media articles extracted for this study pertained to Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. From the 1961 articles extracted, the total number of words in the text database for all the periods was 110,281. Figure 4.12 shows the concept map that was the basis for exploring the underlying textual data for the four periods (pre-, lead up, hosting and post the event periods) agreed upon for this study.

The study revealed that within the pre- event period, the coverage of Brazil was closely related to neither the identified strategic imperatives nor the country’s hosting of the 2014
World Cup. Despite not increasing coverage of the event and the strategic imperatives, the international media was dominated by coverage of Brazilian issues including ‘women’, ‘water’, ‘company’, ‘system’ and many others. It can be seen that towards the lead-up period, greater coverage relating to the strategic imperatives was given. It is in this period that the readiness/hosting capability imperative (‘protest’, ‘construction’ etc.) was mostly covered. This was also followed by the safety and security imperative, with coverage of the anti-World Cup protests and the government’s strategies to address the situation. In addition, the lead-up period saw the image imperative emerging within the international media coverage. Moving on to the hosting period, it is clear that negative expectations set up in the lead-up period were not realised and the coverage in this period turned into labelling the 2014 World Cup a success. In the post-period, the media’s coverage changed and deviated greatly from the strategic imperatives to focus on other national issues, including the elections.

Figure 4.12: Overall concept map for the four time periods (pre-, lead up, hosting and post-)

Insights into the reporting patterns emerging within the four periods of time were revealed through the Leximancer analysis. Leximancer enabled the researcher to mine the newspaper reports and reveal the frequency of concepts emerging over the four selected periods in the identified markets. The resultant concept map (Figure 4.12) represents the main concepts
contained within the text as well as a network in terms of which of the concepts are related. As presented previously in the methodology chapter, Leximancer allows for the analysis of the textual data by applying a ‘sentiment lens’ over the text and then grouping the concepts into positive and negative (Povey et al., 2013:4). This will be discussed later in the current chapter, when the implications of using the sentiment lens will be explored.

The Leximancer exploratory analysis generated a total of 64 key concepts across the four periods for all the markets. It is important to note that of the 64 concepts identified by Leximancer, only concepts and themes linked to the strategic imperatives for hosting the Cup are discussed. In Leximancer, concepts are divided into two broad categories: word-like concepts (e.g. stadium, police, protests, match, tickets etc.) and name-like concepts (e.g. Brazil, World Cup, FIFA and Rio de Janeiro). The top ranking word-like concepts extracted by Leximancer included ‘world’, ‘stadium’, ‘team’, ‘police’, ‘security’, ‘protests’ and ‘construction’. Table 4.4 shows the word-like concepts (including seeded concepts, favourable and unfavourable) that were generated after running the data on Leximancer. To generate name-like themes, the researcher manually edited the automatically generated concepts, based on the context in which they occurred and their relevance to the objectives of the current research project. As mentioned previously, some concepts were merged whilst others were excluded by using the delete function in the concept seed editor view. This was done to ensure the meaningfulness of the concepts generated in the initial analysis.

Table 4.4: Ranked word-like concepts identified by Leximancer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word-like concepts</th>
<th>count</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unfavourable (seeded concept)</td>
<td>3355</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favourable (seeded concept)</td>
<td>3088</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stadium</td>
<td>2328</td>
<td>Hosting Capability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>police</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Safety &amp; Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>security</td>
<td>1083</td>
<td>Safety &amp; Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>protests</td>
<td>1001</td>
<td>Safety &amp; Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tickets</td>
<td>889</td>
<td>Hosting Capability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>construction</td>
<td>674</td>
<td>Hosting Capability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>money</td>
<td>605</td>
<td>Hosting Capability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>problems</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>Destination Image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corruption</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>Destination Image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beaches</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>Destination Image</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The extracted themes linked to the strategic imperatives and their related concepts were examined. Each theme was examined in relation to the concepts surrounding it to understand the underlying information behind the texts generating these concepts. Brazil’s image and particularly Rio de Janeiro has been tainted and being labelled as “…one of the most violent… in the world” (Peace Studies Group, 2012:14). Therefore, the hosting of the 2014 World Cup by Brazil was an opportunity to re-structure the country’s image especially for Rio de Janeiro as evidenced by the below quote where the police boss fired officers who were inefficient in handling cases:
“...she also fired two police officers responsible for handling rape cases. Rio has gone a long way toward cleaning up its image as one of Latin America’s most violent cities.”  

CNN 28/05/2013

The theme ‘city’ has the following associated concepts: ‘city’, ‘police’, ‘protests’, ‘public’, ‘security’, ‘government’, ‘construction’, ‘workers’ and ‘money’. Rio de Janeiro is one of the most beautiful cities in Brazil, but it has also been labelled the most ‘violent’ city in the world (Perlman, 2010:171). Thus the staging of global events such as the 2014 World Cup and the 2016 Olympic Games by the city of Rio de Janeiro was a great opportunity for Brazil and Rio to rebuild their international image. The theme ‘city’ and concept ‘police’ as used in the media reporting illustrates the commitment of the city of Rio de Janeiro to fulfilling the objective of rebuilding the city’s image. Most Brazilian cities were plagued by massive demonstrations which at times turned violent. Hallock (2013) noted that a large portion of the Brazilian people was dissatisfied with how the country was being run, especially the social welfare sector. Brazilians demanded better transportation, healthcare, education, and infrastructure to accompany the growing economy of the country. The Zeit Online on the 19th of June 2013 reported that ‘increased prices for buses and trains were an important driving reason for the mass protests.’ USA’s CNN echoed the same sentiments in the pre-2014 World Cup period:

“Protesters are outraged at what they consider lavish spending on the World-Cup as well as the 2016 Olympic Games. They have also been critical of the lack of investment in public services, schools, hospitals and transportation.”  

CNN 28/11/13

However, during the World Cup, the number of protests fell dramatically, as reported by the same German newspaper, Zeit Online, on the 11th of July 2014: ‘the protests are very small during the World-Cup, many of the protesters resigned.’ The lead-up period saw violent demonstrations being staged in most Brazilian cities and it was speculated that this was just a warm-up for what was going to happen during the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. According to USA Today:

“...protesters stopped traffic that night at the peak of rush hour by walking through one of the busiest streets in the city. While walking along, history teacher Renata Tavares said such protests were merely warm-ups for what will come during the World-Cup.”  

USA Today 09/06/14

Protests against the 2014 World Cup, corruption and forced relocation were prominent in media reports before the tournament, but, as indicated above, this soon evaporated in the course of the tournament. Public uproar around sport mega-events is not unusual in any host city or state, especially in developing countries where there is uneven development and significant social inequality (Sociales, 2001:189). Indeed, sport mega-events usually face public opposition, protests, criticism and complaints by local residents, opposition groups, business people, politicians, and other stakeholders (Giulianotti et al., 2015:2). The 2012
London Olympics and Paralympic Games, for example, provoked a diversity of public criticisms, particularly in East London, the venue for the main events. These criticisms included the cost of Olympic-related redevelopment to the economy and the lack of local impact on jobs and business. South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ saw a large number of public protests, strikes and other forms of civic campaign, particularly in the lead-up period (Swart et al. 2012; Swart et al., 2013). Cornelissen (2012:329) notes that South Africa’s 2010 World Cup event was tainted by the violent demonstrations occurring several months before the hosting. Cornelissen (2012:329) further notes that the main reason for these protests was the massive State spending on the World Cup rather than on social welfare, such as housing for local residents. In recent years residents within developing Western economies have been opposed even to bidding for mega-events because of the cost burdens.

Brazil experienced a similar, wide-spread wave of demonstrations and protests against the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ from local residents in the lead-up period. These protests were visible but remained marginal. Information, protests and complaints were spread primarily through the Internet by means of social media and the use of critical videos (de Almeida et al., 2013:275). Historically disadvantaged people, for example, citizens from deprived parts of the country, the displaced, informal workers and indigenous people were observed in the protests (De Almeida et al., 2013:275). The initial euphoria of hosting the event was replaced by dissatisfaction and resistance from those directly affected by the removals paving the way for World Cup infrastructure (Romero, 2012). The hosting period saw the number of protests falling, as evidenced by scant coverage of protest action or violence. The study also showed that the media interest in protests was very low in the post-event period compared with the preceding periods.

Across all the periods of time, when the theme of ‘protests’ was selected the resulting ‘Related Word-Like’ concepts are as shown in Table 4.5. Protests against Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup were prevalent in the lead-up period with a count of 729, which declined sharply to 177 during the World Cup period. The pre-World Cup and post-World Cup periods also recorded low counts for the concept ‘protests’. The social unrest provoked by the World Cup was mostly evident in the lead-up and during periods, resulting in highly unfavourable media coverage of Brazil and Rio de Janeiro in those time periods. The protests in Brazil were mainly fuelled by social problems and the increasing prices of basic commodities (Brazil, n.d.). USA Today reported on Brazil’s plan for dealing with the World Cup riots as follows:

“Brazil will deploy hundreds of thousands of police, soldiers and security guards around the 12 venues, and up and down its long border with 10 other South American countries.”

USA Today (14/05/2014)
Table 4.5: Concept ‘protests’ and ‘Related Word-Like’ concepts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Related Word-Like</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>police</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>Safety and Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>city</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>Destination Image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>country</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>Destination Image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stadium</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>Hosting Capability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>security</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Safety and Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>money</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>Hosting Capability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>problems</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>Destination Image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>construction</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Hosting Capability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tickets</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Hosting Capability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Related Tags</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Search-Period: Pre</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search-Period: Lead-up</td>
<td>729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search-Period: Hosting</td>
<td>177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search-Period: Post</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Count</strong></td>
<td><strong>1001</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The concept ‘protests’ was strongly bound to the concept ‘police’, presumably because each time there were protests whether violent or peaceful, the police would be dispatched to monitor the protesters. At times, the protests turned violent; for example, as reported by Germany’s Zeit Online:

“The protesters had occupied in Niteri Bridge. Some rioters tried to overthrow a bus and set on fire...police moved against the protesters with tear gas.” *Zeit Online* 20/06/13

The Frankfurter Rundschau reported that the Brazilian police were brutal in the ways they handled the protests. Below is an excerpt from one of Germany’s online newspapers:

“The militarized police is not in the best reputation in Brazil. In the mass protests during the World Cup dress rehearsal, the Confederations Cup last summer, special units often walked with brute force against protesters.” *Frankfurter Rundschau* 23/04/14

USA’s CNN reported that in trying to restore order before the World Cup, the police entered favelas, causing injuries and loss of life:

“Just hours before the protests, a battalion of special forces had entered the favela, causing nine deaths and nine injuries. Schools closed and 7,000 children were left without classes, according to the nongovernmental organization Favelas Observatory.” *CNN* 24/07/13

Brazil had to strengthen its security system in order to handle the World Cup. To achieve this, the FBI had to assist by training police officers on how to manage the riots anticipated during the World Cup. As illustrated below, Portugal’s newspaper, Correio da Manha reported:

“Special agents of the U.S. Marshals Service, the FBI, will train officers of the Brazilian city of Rio de Janeiro to face anticipated protests occur during the World Cup, held in Brazil between June 12 and July 13.” *Correio da Manha* 15/05/14
The other ‘Related Word-Like’ concepts which were mostly used in conjunction with the concept ‘protests’ were: ‘city’, ‘public’, ‘people’, ‘country’, ‘government’, ‘stadium’, and ‘tournament’. The concept ‘protests’ and its ‘Related Word-Like’ concept had 119 hits, one of the excerpts from the extracted media content showing that the main cause of the protests was the investment in costly stadiums for the World Cup, and the belief that these would not be profitable after the Cup:

“Huge street protests have been aimed at costly new stadiums being built in cities like Manaus and Brasilia, whose paltry fan bases are almost sure to leave a sea of empty seats after the World Cup events are finished, adding to concerns that even more white elephants will emerge from the tournament.”

The New York Times 12/04/14

The following subsection examines the concept maps which were generated when the media content was loaded on Leximancer per market.

4.5.2 Conceptual analysis per market

4.5.2.1 The Argentinian market

![Figure 4.13: Argentina concept cluster map](image)

Figure 4.13, shows the cluster map for the Argentinian market. The overall weight of the concept map for the Argentinian market is inclined to the lead-up period, which featured the highest coverage in relation to the key objectives for Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup.
It is clear from the map that Rio was more closely related to the safety and security and hosting capability imperatives than the country of Brazil as a whole. This is indicated by the proximity of the concepts to each other on the map (Figure 4.13).

Brazil was more associated with the destination image imperative, as denoted by concepts such as ‘history’, ‘country’ and the ‘beaches’. Rio de Janeiro enjoyed strong associations with the lead-up period whereas Brazil is more centrally located on the map for Argentina and closely linked to the mega-event. The safety and security imperative was more prominent in the lead-up period, with coverage falling towards the hosting and post-event periods. The periods are located at distant points on the concept map, showing a huge change in how the Argentinian media profiled Brazil and Rio in relation to hosting the Cup. The time periods seem to be at equidistant locations on the concept map from pre-hosting period to the post-event period. From the concept map, one can see what concepts emerged in each time period in relation to how they are distributed. Comparing the concept map for the Argentinian market to that of the US, it is clear that the sentiment varied as shown by how the periods and concepts are mapped.

4.5.2.2 The US market

The concept map for the US market is elongated, with the lead-up period positioned far away from the other periods. This is an indication that the perceptions which were held about Brazil and Rio shifted greatly over the several periods, and that the issues which were covered in
the media were not the same in these periods (pre-, lead-up, during and post-2014). As shown in Figure 4.14, the overall weight of the map was towards the lead-up period, denoting the strength of the relationship between the coverage in that time frame and many of the concepts. The pre- and post-event periods cluster closer to each other, indicating some differences in perceptions over the period of the event.

It is clear from the US’s concept map that Rio suffers from strong association with a poor image of safety and security. At the same time, government efforts in trying to address this are noted; for example, the deployment of police officers, creating a budget and making money available to secure this city even after the Cup. Organised protests and violence were also emerging issues in Rio, and more broadly, the whole country, thus rendering the perception of the country as a place unsafe to visit in the critical lead-up period.

The lead-up period was more associated with the construction concept, which is imbedded within the hosting capability imperative. As shown on the US’s concept map, there are close associations between Rio and the 2016 Olympic Games as well as huge investments that were made to set up sport mega-events infrastructure. Despite this study’s sole focus on the 2014 World Cup, the concepts unearthed by Leximancer reveals associations with the Olympic Games for Rio. The arrows indicate the change in US media reporting from the pre-World Cup period to the post-event period. Between the lead-up and hosting period is where most coverage of Brazil in relation to the strategic imperatives took place. The strongest themes emerging from the US media content were centred on aspects of stadium readiness, safety & security issues and the government spend for the event. When the latter theme was covered, the corruption theme was also present. However, these strong themes varied according to the period of time (pre-, lead up, hosting and post). Besides the few selected image themes it is apparent that there was limited specific attention given to the destination brand image of Brazil and Rio.

Examining the periods individually in relation to concepts associated with the strategic imperatives, one can clearly see the differences in media discourse. To reinforce safety and security for the 2014 World Cup, it can be seen in the reporting that Brazil was prepared to deploy police officers as well as use robots to assist. The quotations below provide evidence of a safety and security plan for Brazil as it prepared to host the Cup:

“The Brazilian government has bought 30 security robots to improve public safety during the 2014 World-Cup and the 2016 Rio-de-Janeiro Olympics. The government paid nearly $3.5 million for the small unmanned ground vehicles which can provide surveillance, bomb removal and other law-enforcement missions.”  
USA Today 15/05/13

“Brazil will use robots to help with 2014 World Cup security”  
USA Today 15/05/13
“It set aside a total budget of R1.3 billion ($150 million) for security, and said after the 2010 event it had spent R572 million ($65 million) on crowd control equipment, crime scene trainers, helicopters, water cannons, new body armour and 100 BMWs for highway patrol.”

CNN 15/12/13

“About 20,000 troops are expected to be added to reinforce security in the region. Brazil shares borders with 10 countries in South America.”

USA Today 15/05/13

“Brazil boosts World Cup security budget as crime rises”

CNN 05/12/2012

“The Brazilian Air Force will use four Israeli-made drones to help provide security during the Confederations Cup in June. The unmanned planes are also expected to help provide security during the 2014 World-Cup...The air force said the unmanned planes have been acquired to operate within Brazil’s borders and will be used extensively during the World-Cup warm-up tournament from June 15-30.”

The New York Times 22/02/13

With regard to hosting capability, most concerns were around preparedness in relation to World Cup infrastructure, and also the anti-World Cup protests that occurred in most parts of Brazil. In addition, health concerns linked to water pollution in Rio were also covered by the US media. Stadium construction remained a cause for concern, thus in the lead-up period, the US media anticipated that Brazil would not be ready. The US media also covered stories about accidents at construction sites. A number of people were injured while some lost their lives at construction sites when structures collapsed. Corruption and cost overruns were among the other aspects covered, and these too contributed to the highly negative reporting by the media. Below are quotations extracted to support this claim.

“The delays and construction accidents, some of them that resulted in fatalities, have brought a cascade of negative stories leading up to the World-Cup”

The New York Times 25/05/14

“Officials have allowed construction to resume on the south side, where the worker died, but said more had to be done to improve the safety conditions on the north end. Authorities said work should be able to resume there by Friday, following a new inspection scheduled in the next few days.”

USA Today 07/04/14

“It’s no use complaining to the International Olympic Committee, since it’s playing the role of Daddy in this family drama. He also disapproves of everything we do: He complained about construction delays, criticized the pollution in Rio-de-Janeiro’s waterways and said we were even worse than Greece, before the 2004 Summer Olympics”

The New York Times 26/05/14

“In Brazil, accusations of cost overruns and delays due to corruption are common, though no criminal charges have been filed in construction of the stadiums.”

Los Angeles Times 01/01/14

“The rush jobs are the result of a construction culture in Brazil that intentionally uses delaying tactics to earn bigger fees, said Resende, the logistics expert. And oversight often falls by the wayside because of corruption, said Ramalho, of the construction workers union.”

Los Angeles Times 01/01/14

“In Brazil, accusations of cost overruns and delays due to corruption are common, though no criminal charges have been filed in construction of the stadiums. Soccer legend Pele, an honorary ambassador for the 2014 World-Cup initially discouraged Brazilians from protesting, but later acknowledged that he thought corruption has been widespread.”

Los Angeles Times 01/01/14

“These fatal accidents are inadmissible, said Antonio Bekeredjian, the leader of a construction workers union.”

The New York Times 27/11/14
4.5.2.3 The German market

The concept map for the German market (see Figure 4.15) depicts a dramatic shift in perceptions as reported by the international media. Like the concept maps for the other markets, the lead-up period was associated with the safety and security imperative discourse as well as the country’s readiness to manage the event. This is reflected in the emergence of capability-related concepts including ‘construction’, as well as ‘protests’ and ‘police’ for the safety and security imperative. In the lead-up period on the concept map, Brazil is mostly embedded in readiness issues. Rio is closely linked to stadium construction, a capability and readiness imperative.

The German market was slightly different from the other markets in the way the concepts are clustered, leading to a z-formation movement of conceptual reporting. It is clear that the German market was quick to cover discourses from the pre-hosting period on Brazil’s hosting capability and this extended into the lead-up period. The coverage was on ‘stadiums’, ‘constructions’ (infrastructure), ‘security’ and ‘protests’, mainly in the lead-up period. Between the lead-up and hosting periods, safety & security issues were still a concern, as was the country’s ability to fully prepare itself for the World Cup.

The post-event period enjoyed less coverage in respect of the strategic imperatives (hence the wider open spaces around it). In the post period, discussion of Brazil’s ability to host the 2016 Olympic Games emerged in the German media coverage of Brazil. The post period’s media coverage also focused on Brazil’s general elections, and with the change of focus came the emergence of the concept of ‘power’. In addition, for the post period there were strong associations that centred on the political sphere of the country. It can be seen from Germany’s concept map that Rio de Janeiro was closest to capability imperative attributes (i.e. stadium). Sao Paulo was also prominent, since it was closely associated with construction, workers, security and event hosting.

Despite being one of the economically fastest developing countries, Brazil continues to suffer from negative coverage by the international media, particularly regarding violence and drug abuse in the favelas, and high crime rates. This is also experienced by Rio, a host city for the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ and the 2016 Olympic Games.
4.5.2.4 The Portuguese market

Figure 4.16, below, shows the concept cluster map for the Portuguese market. In line with previous discussion of the concepts, the map denotes the relationships among the concepts with respect to the four time periods distinguished in this study. As mentioned in the Leximancer Manual, the proximity of the concepts on the map indicates their level of relationship (Leximancer, 2011). This explains the strong concentration in the pre-period on the country’s preparation to successfully host the 2014 World Cup.

The lead-up period was strongly associated with the safety and security imperative, followed by the hosting capability imperative. The location of the time periods shows how the coverage or perception of Brazil and Rio changed as a result of their hosting the 2014 World Cup. Like the concept maps for the other markets, this one shows that most coverage of the concepts was between the lead-up and hosting period.

The lead-up period for the Portuguese market is quite similar to those for the other markets, since it is mostly associated with the safety and security imperative, featuring concepts such as ‘police’, ‘security’ and ‘military’ which are closely linked to each other. It is noted that the hosting period was mostly associated with the event itself, with the dominance of concepts such as ‘tickets’, ‘stadium’, ‘FIFA’, ‘World-Cup’, ‘host’, among others.
The following section offers an analysis of the emerging themes and concepts. The themes and concepts selected are those linked to the strategic objectives for Brazil’s hosting of the Cup, which means that the discussion dwells on those concepts that assist in answering the study’s research questions.

4.6 Brazil and Rio: Analysis of emerging themes and concepts

Leximancer identified ‘Rio de Janeiro’ as one of the major themes within the textual data for the current study. Examining the theme ‘Rio de Janeiro’ and its associated concepts, the theme ‘Rio-de-Janeiro’ and concept ‘work’ had 890 hits. This is not surprising since Rio de Janeiro, like any other sport mega-events host city, required much work to set up the relevant infrastructure to support the event. This required large investment in, for example, airports, transport and accommodation. The media reported that work on accommodation, particularly hotels, was lagging behind in (for instance) Sao Paulo, which last saw the construction of a large-scale hotel a decade previously. Below is a quote extracted by Leximancer to support this:

“But even though Brazil is pumping billions of dollars into airports as it [Brazil] prepares for the World-Cup and Olympics, work on hotels is still lagging, travel experts said. The last luxury chain to open a hotel in Sao Paulo did so 10 years ago …” 

The New York Times 19/06/13
The other concepts which assisted in defining the theme ‘Rio de Janeiro’ were ‘million’ and ‘security’. It is clear from these concepts that the safety and security imperative emerged whenever it was questioned whether or not the city would be safe and secure for the 2014 sport mega-event in Brazil. The concept ‘million’ was used in two ways, first to refer to the millions of people who went into the streets to protest against the event. Secondly, the concept ‘million’ was associated with the millions of US dollars spent in preparation for the 2014 World Cup as well as the upcoming Olympic Games. Table 4.6 shows all the themes and the concepts that combined to create the theme. The theme ‘Brazil’ had the largest number of constituent concepts, including ‘FIFA’, ‘stadium’, ‘country’, ‘tournament’, ‘soccer’ and ‘fans’.

Table 4.6: Leximancer generated thematic summary of concepts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theme</th>
<th>Concepts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Brazil, World-cup, stadium, FIFA, country, tournament, soccer, host, match, fans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>world</td>
<td>world, team, football, game, final, national</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>city</td>
<td>city, police, people, protests, public, government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rio-de-Janeiro</td>
<td>Rio-de-Janeiro, million, security, used, work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>place</td>
<td>Place, group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>day</td>
<td>day, event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Germany, players</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>system</td>
<td>system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goal</td>
<td>goal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The following subsection shows how the concepts are related through the use of selected queries. Since the government is important when it comes to the planning of sport mega-events it was felt necessary to query ‘government’ against the city and nation, ‘Brazil’ and ‘Rio de Janeiro’. The concept ‘government’ was specifically chosen since most decisions regarding the hosting of sport mega-events are taken at government level.

4.6.1 Query: Brazil and government

Events such as the World Cup and the Olympic Games are undeniably positioned as vehicles to grow tourism through increasing visitor spending (Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011:1364). By hosting the 2014 World Cup, the Brazilian government intended to grow tourism by increasing visitor numbers and spending. Despite speculation that the event would be unsuccessful due to the widespread protests, more than one million foreign visitors poured into Brazil’s 12 host cities to witness this global sporting spectacle, ‘the greatest show on earth’ (Armstrong, 2015:1). These numbers surpassed the anticipated 600,000 by more
than 70 per cent (Armstrong, 2015). In comparison, 310,000 foreign tourists visited South Africa for the 2010 World Cup, while Germany received two million foreign visitors for the 2006 tournament (Armstrong, 2015:2). One year before the 2014 World Cup, the New York Times reported that the Brazilian government intended to use the event to expand tourism spending. The news extract below provides evidence;

“...The World Tourism Organization, which ranks tourist spending in different countries, puts it [Brazil] 39th on the list, behind much smaller countries like Lebanon, Croatia and Malaysia. Next year, the government expects tourism spending in Brazil to grow by 55 percent, thanks largely to the World-Cup.”

The New York Times 08/11/13

Sporting mega-events may cause price increases since there is an anticipated increase in the demand for goods and services (Matheson, 2006:11). Such events are believed to benefit the affluent while the poor suffer their effects (Coakley & Souza, 2013:581). An example is the forced eviction of people from their homes to make way for World Cup infrastructure (Olds, 1998:2; Coakley & Souza, 2013:581; Gaffney, 2013:15). It is therefore important for the government to manage these international competitions in a more sustainable way and to compensate affected families fairly. The German newspaper Spiegel Online noted the effects that sport mega-events have on people and point to the need for the government’s intervention;

“Will the Olympics in Brazil a feast only for the rich? Rebelo: Yes. If the hotel during the Olympic demand exorbitant prices, the government will intervene.”

Spiegel Online 15/10/12

“According to the document, 'the government of Dilma Rousseff faces persistently high rates of public insecurity on the eve of World and presidential elections' in October. The text also indicated that this rise in crime occurs, even though the Brazilian government has ‘invested an amount of resources to improve levels of public safety.’”

Record 07/05/14

“The Argentinian La Nacion reported on the collapse of a bridge in Belo Horizonte which was part of the 2014 World Cup projects, thus questioning the capability of Brazil and its government to organise an international sporting competition. The newspaper report indicated the gravity of the matter since lives were lost and a number of people were injured:

“Rio-de-Janeiro for many it was a tragedy foretold. The collapse of a viaduct which was unfinished part of the works for the World-Cup in Belo Horizonte yesterday left at least two dead and 22 wounded, while again put into question the ability of the Brazilian government to the organization of the tournament.”

La Nacion 04/07/13
Query: Rio de Janeiro and government

Querying the concepts ‘Rio de Janeiro’ and ‘government’ produced 94 results. The 2014 World Cup in Brazil was tainted by one of the greatest protests in football history, with citizens demanding world-class facilities for health, education and social services (Malhado et al., 2013; Moore, 2016). In reacting to this, the Brazilian government had to assure people that the World Cup would be successful. This meant the deployment of state security such as the military to support the police in ensuring security during the World Cup. Germany’s Frankfurter Rundschau reported the following with regard to the Brazilian government’s pledge to ensure safety and security before, during and after the 2014 World Cup:

“After repeated attacks on police stations, the government of Rio-de-Janeiro had recently asked the armed forces to support. However, the long term care in Mar order for the so-called pacifying police.”

Frankfurter Rundschau 30/03/14

Another example in which ‘Rio de Janeiro’ and ‘government’ were linked was associated with the safety and security imperative, hence seemed worthy of examination. The result, as shown in an excerpt from the Los Angeles Times pointed to the concerns that sparked the nationwide protests. Portugal’s Jornal de Noticias reported that the match result where the hosting nation lost to Germany contributed to the emergence of violence in Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo. One of Brazil’s aspirations as a host country of the global sporting competition was to win the tournament (Chari, 2015:405). However, this was disappointed by the terrible moment when the Brazilian national team lost 7–1 to Germany in a semi-final game played on 8 July 2014 in Belo Horizonte. This loss seriously dented Brazil’s reputation as a football champion, “a critical component of the South American nation’s soft power strategy”, together with its intended destination image attributes such as culture, beautiful beaches, captivating music, rising economy – and sporting excellence (Chari, 2015:405).

“A rise in bus fares initially sparked the demonstrations in Rio-de-Janeiro in mid-June. Protests spread across the country and encompassed other issues, including public services, healthcare and government corruption.”

Los Angeles Times 10/07/13

“The Brazilian government decided to strengthen security at World Cup 2014 headquarters, as Belo Horizonte, Rio-de-Janeiro and Sao-Paulo, due to clashes and outbreaks of violence occurred, on Tuesday, after the defeat of Brazil against Germany.”

Jornal de Noticias 09/07/14

The next section of the study shifts the discussion to explore the media coverage of Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ by looking at sentiment (favourability and unfavourability) with regard to the news generated about Brazil and Rio de Janeiro as the host nation and city for the 2014 World Cup, and also as a tourist destination.
4.7 Sentiments analysis

It is important to review both the positive and negative aspects that emerged from the media content analysis. Sentiment analysis of the media content showed that there was a noticeable difference in sentiment within the media coverage of Brazil over the identified periods.

Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup saw media speculation that painted a miserable picture of high crime rates, widespread violence and lack of readiness for an event of such magnitude. International media channels reproduced local pessimistic stories about the World Cup. There was a notable shift in media reporting at different stages of the event, viz.: pre-, lead-up, during and post. This change is presented here as it creates an understanding of how the hosting nation was profiled across the periods and markets. Sentiment ratio was used to offer a reasonable understanding of how the event was profiled. Figure 4.17 illustrates the media sentiment profile of the overall markets; Argentina, Portugal, Germany and the US. It also displays the number of favourable and unfavourable mentions in each period of time and the sentiment ratios. The lead-up period recorded the highest unfavourable mentions about Brazil’s hosting of the Cup, whereas the other periods favoured the event. The lead-up period is where most of the media attention is, and it is where most of the negative attention lay.

Before the tournament started, specifically in the pre-period, the coverage was generally favourable. It turned unfavourable in the lead-up period and changed again to favourable in the hosting and post periods. This finding could be indicative of the fact that the media recognised the reality of a well-organised event, which led to positive coverage in the during and post periods. It is almost as if the Brazilian people began to believe in themselves as, or as a result of which, the country came to be seen in a more positive light.

The study revealed a shift in perceptions during the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ as profiled by the international media from Brazil’s key tourist markets. Although the ratio of overall sentiment of coverage across the time periods of the study showed favourable and unfavourable associations, the number of mentions increased markedly in the lead-up period (See Figure 4.17). The pre-period anticipated the event with 489 favourable mentions compared to 367 unfavourable mentions, resulting in a sentiment ratio of positive 1.3. A positive sentiment ratio in the pre-period shows favourability in that period generally. The lead-up period, considered as key, recorded the highest number (738) of favourable mentions whereas the unfavourable mentions soared to 1394 with a sentiment ratio of negative 1.9. In the hosting period, the ratio for favourable vs. unfavourable mentions became positive 1.1, with 609 positive news articles and 572 negative news reports. Finally
the post-event period was even more positive, with 735 favourable and 449 unfavourable mentions of the event.

**Brazil 2014 FIFA World Cup Media Analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Period</th>
<th>Favourable mentions</th>
<th>Unfavourable mentions</th>
<th>Sentiment Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>+1.3</td>
<td>-1.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead-up</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hosting</td>
<td>+1.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post</td>
<td>+1.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.17: 2014 FIFA World Cup™ media analysis sentiment profile**

Figure 4.19 show the overall count of favourable and unfavourable media reports in the selected tourism markets. Only the Argentinian market had a higher favourable media count about Brazil and Rio de Janeiro. The US and German markets were more negative about Brazil and Rio. Mentions of the nation, Brazil, were more numerous than of the city of Rio de Janeiro in all the media articles extracted for this study (see Figure 4.18).

**Figure 4.18: Overall count – 2014 FIFA World Cup™. Overall article sentiment by location and country/city (12/6/2012 – 13/7/2015)**

115
Overall Brazil had 1000 unfavourable and 738 favourable mentions in the international media as illustrated in Figure 4.18. For Rio de Janeiro, the coverage was more unfavourable (379 mentions) than favourable (245 mentions). The nation brand was more significant than the city brand, presumably because the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ event was a national event rather than a city event, the Olympics.

The 2014 World Cup was hosted by twelve Brazilian cities, so that when the event was named, the nation was also often referenced. Rio de Janeiro as a city was mostly associated with the 2016 Olympic Games. With regard to the 2014 World Cup, Rio de Janeiro was associated with the legendary Maracanã Stadium and the ‘anti-World Cup’ protests which rocked several Brazilian cities. From the current media impact study on Brazil, it is clear that the coverage for both the nation and city was predominantly negative, especially in the lead-up period. This could have been caused by the protests, incomplete stadiums, corruption, social inequalities, rising transport costs, displacements for World Cup infrastructure, and the use of public funds to finance the event.

Examining the overall sentiment count by location, the study found out that the US market covered the nation hosting the event most unfavourably, with 470 mentions, followed by the German market with 198 (See Figure 4.19). The Argentinian and Portuguese markets recoded 120 and 112 unfavourable mentions, respectively. Only the Argentinian market recorded a higher number of favourable mentions for both Brazil (hosting nation) and Rio (hosting city).

Leximancer extracted 5975 concepts for the pre-period, with a favourable count of 593 and an unfavourable count of 482. Table 4.7 provides a summary of the sentiment analysis for the different time periods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Selected Concept</th>
<th>Favourable count</th>
<th>Unfavourable count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Search-Period_pre - 5975</td>
<td>593</td>
<td>482</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search-Period_Lead_up - 10682</td>
<td>916</td>
<td>1591</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search-Period_During – 6802</td>
<td>723</td>
<td>691</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Search-Period_post – 7615</td>
<td>856</td>
<td>591</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data presented in Table 4.7 shows that for the selected periods, the lead-up period had the highest (1591) unfavourable count. It was also the only period to have a higher ratio of unfavourable to favourable mentions. Generally speaking, the lead-up period attracts the greatest media attention and therefore has the highest likelihood of both favourable and unfavourable coverage.
The hosting period was more or less the same when the sentiment lens was run through the data, giving 723 favourable counts and 691 unfavourable media counts. Even though all the periods are equally important to event marketers, the lead-up period represents an especially crucial time where expectations can be established, thus allowing a desired destination profile to be set (Swart et al., 2013). This finding is in agreement with the media impact study conducted on South Africa which revealed the lead-up period recording the highest unfavourable coverage (Swart et al., 2012).

Once the event is hosted, the media attention that the event destination receives falls away, and so do the budgets for media coverage (Masterman, 2010:109). The media may then divert their focus to other issues which may not be related to the destination’s hosting of the event. Looking at Table 4.7, it can be seen that the media coverage about Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup changed in the post-World Cup period to positive, with 856 favourable count and 591 unfavourable counts. This finding indicates that the most media attention occurs immediately before the hosting and it is at this time that expectations are made (Swart et al., 2013). The lead-up period is characterised by negative perceptions, but once these are not realised during the hosting period, there is a sharp change in coverage. Looking back to South Africa, the media painted South Africa as a country that was not going to be able to successfully host the 2010 World Cup event because of high safety and security issues. However, when these threats were not realised, the coverage changed and was more focused on the country’s image.

4.7.1 Sentiment by time period and market

One way to examine the sentiment profiles in newspaper media is to use the content analysis method, which relies on computer coding to identify the emotions implicit in media
stories. In the current research, the researcher used the Leximancer sentiment lens function to analyse the sentiments of the media coverage of Brazil by time period and market. Sentiment analysis has increased noticeably in the past decade. By counting how many times a word appears, the sentiment analysis approach identifies words with three polarities, positive, negative and neutral. A positive polarity is registered through expressing a favourable sentiment toward an object, a negative polarity through expressing an unfavourable sentiment toward an object, while no polarity is usually neutral (Yu & Wang, 2015:393). Yu and Wang (2015:393) further state that sentiment analysis discovers words with specific emotions such as “joy, sadness, and anger.”

As illustrated in Figure 4.20, Brazil’s coverage in the Portuguese market was positive in the pre- and post-event periods, whereas the lead-up and hosting periods were more unfavourable. The more favourable count could have been influenced by the historical ties between the two counties as well as the political linkages that exist.

![Figure 4.20: Media sentiment profile for Portuguese market by time period](image-url)

In the pre-World Cup period, the coverage of Brazil was quite positive, with a sentiment ratio of 1.2. The coverage changed in the lead-up period to a sentiment ratio of negative 4.3, denoting more unfavourable reporting by the Portuguese media. The hosting period saw the number of negative reports falling to 74, with the positive increasing to 62, though there was still a negative sentiment ratio of 1.2. Lastly the post period shifted to a positive stance, with a sentiment ratio of 1.7.

In the German market (see Figure 4.21), the sentiment lens indicated favourable coverage in the pre-, hosting and post-event periods, whereas the lead-up period was unfavourable. The large number of unfavourable articles around the safety and security imperative – for
example, about crime and violent protests – evident in the pre- and lead-up periods proved to be based on unfounded fears and expectations, and the volume of mentions of issues of safety and security fell dramatically over the hosting and post-event periods. This supports the overall upward trend toward favourable coverage as the Cup proceeded. Comparing this with the 2010 World Cup media impact study findings on Germany’s coverage of South Africa, we find that the highest number of articles appeared in the lead-up period. The sentiment ratio for the German market was positive in all time periods except for the lead-up which was negative. In all the stages of reporting, there was a mixture of positive and negative coverage.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Period</th>
<th>Sentiment Profile</th>
<th>Sentiment Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>Favourable mentions: +1.2 Unfavourable mentions: -600</td>
<td>Sentiment Ratio: +1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead-up</td>
<td>Favourable mentions: -1.7 Unfavourable mentions: -400</td>
<td>Sentiment Ratio: -1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hosting</td>
<td>Favourable mentions: +1.2 Unfavourable mentions: -200</td>
<td>Sentiment Ratio: +1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post</td>
<td>Favourable mentions: +1.6 Unfavourable mentions: 0</td>
<td>Sentiment Ratio: +1.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.21: Media sentiment profile for German market by time period

The US market media adopted a negative stance on Brazil, especially in the lead-up period (see Figure 4.22). The Western media, especially in America, have a tendency to report negatively on developing nations (Mahadeo & McKinney, 2007:14). For example, the media reporting about South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was generally negative in the lead-up period to the tournament, but particularly so in the US market (Swart et al., 2012). The change in the overall sentiment towards Brazil within the US market revealed a net positive effect from the hosting of the World Cup. The lead-up period saw a rise in mentions, both favourable and unfavourable, but in the post periods the unfavourable
mentions declined in number, resulting in an overall or legacy weighting in favour of the host nation.

Figure 4.22: Media sentiment profile for US market by time period

The US market saw several articles suggesting that the 2014 World Cup would not be a success, with reports about violence dominating coverage, especially in the period before the event. In addition, numbers of articles did not include the general public or the majority of the citizens who were benefiting from the hosting of the World Cup, but concentrated on the negative stories, for example the ‘evictions’ carried out to make way for World Cup infrastructure. In fact, it was often these types of intangible benefits that were referenced as justifications for the huge amount of ‘money’ that spent by the government, especially on stadiums and related infrastructure. Government intervention strategies to ensure a successful event were also covered from two negative angles: the violent handling of the protestors, and the entirely lawful apprehending of perpetrators of violent protest.

Figure 4.23 illustrates the sentiment lens for the Argentinian market at different stages. The findings show that the media were generally positive about Brazil, as shown by the positive sentiment ratio across the various periods. The ratio of positive to negative sentiment decreased slightly in the lead-up period, but the coverage remained positive throughout all the periods. In the Argentinian market, the large numbers of unfavourable articles about crime evident in the pre- and lead-up periods apparently proved unfounded, as the volume of
mentions for this and other issues of security fell dramatically over the hosting and post-event periods.

![Media Sentiment Profile - Argentina by time period](image)

**Figure 4.23: Media sentiment profile for Argentinian market by time period**

Analysis of the Argentinian media coverage highlights several favourable points which are repeatedly documented in the broader literature on sport mega-events. In general, the media projected a robust sense of belief in Brazil and its decision to host the 2014 World Cup. High impact concepts reflecting these sentiments formed the basis of several articles on, for instance, infrastructure development, image improvement, and safety and security enhancement, all seen as national benefits resulting from the event. An additional benefit mentioned frequently was the number of foreign “visitors expected” to enter Brazil for the World Cup, who would provide a major economic boost to the country.

Opposing the positive stories in the Argentinian market, however, was an almost equal thread of negative stories, which inclined towards a distinct sense of doubt as to the capability of Brazil and its hosting cities to successfully manage the 2014 World Cup. In particular, concerns surrounding ‘crime’, ‘violence’ and ‘safety and security’ in Brazil featured several times within the associated narrative, with a number of references to the widespread protests (which in some cases turned violent) just before the event. Examples of the variety of media conversation that expressed these views appear below:
“An indigenous group that occupies a building a mile from the Maracana was forced, by force, to clear the area. The place, which predates the construction of the stadium, will be refurbished before the start of the Brazil 2014 to become Olympic Museum. There were scenes of violence...” Ole 22/03/13

“The string of protests against the organization of the World-Cup and the Brazilian government generated concern in the weeks leading up to the Cup” Ole 30/05/14

The Argentinian media was more favourable to Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. Looking at the sentiment lens, the favourable likelihood was 29% with an 894 media count whereas the unfavourable coverage had a likelihood of 19% constituting 639 media articles. This result is not surprising given that Brazil and Argentina are neighbouring countries within the same continent and share the similar economy, trade, tourism, history, culture, education and beliefs. Brazil and Argentina share a common geographical area in Latin America.

Wrobel (1999:136) notes Brazil and Argentina’s involvement in crucial processes that helped foster the relationship between these countries. This was transformation from “rivalry into friendship” as reported by Wrobel (1999:151). The relationship between these two countries is noticeable in the way Argentinian’s major media outlets report about Brazil. The high positive media coverage about Brazil by its neighbour, Argentina could be a signal that the countries are committed to their longstanding friendship and could be attributed to the political ties between the two nations.

The next section presents the findings for the selected concepts and the sentiment lens analysis.

4.8 Sentiment analysis for selected concepts

An analysis of high impact concepts and an examination of the associated sentiments were undertaken in order to advance understanding of what was reported about the concepts. Applying the ‘sentiment lens’ increases the richness of the findings by picking up the positive and negative sentiments in the text (Leximancer Manual, 2011). According to Povey et al. (2013:4), the sentiment lens is used to measure associations of the leading concepts with positive or negative terms, thus providing additional insight into the text. Leximancer applies sentiment scoring by seeking to identify positive and negative tone in content. In this study, the sentiment terms were then used to refine the compounds further.

The coverage of the concept ‘security’, which was merged with the concept ‘safety’, was mostly negative in all the markets. This result signals the importance of enhancing safety and security for the successful preparation and hosting of the 2014 World Cup. Emerging countries such as Brazil suffer safety and security problems but are determined to address...
them (Passport Health, 2015). Similar to South Africa, Brazil’s 2014 World Cup preparation and organisation aimed at enhancing the safety and security of visitors (and its own citizens) coming for the World Cup (Wade, 2014:1-2). Significant budgets were committed to ensure that the event would be safe and secure, with the deployment of several security teams (Wade, 2014:1). That the media reported ‘security’ so negatively was strongly related to the rampant protests against the World Cup. An excerpt from Germany’s Zeit Online in the lead-up period warned that Rio de Janeiro should be prepared to deal with the anticipated demonstrations during the event.

“If during the upcoming World-Cup security situation getting out of hand, if the demonstrations over take, the drug gangs with the visitors provide a war or else something bad happens. It’s a big “If”. But Rio-de-Janeiro should be prepared.” Zeit Online 22/03/14

The US’s New York Times focused on the displacement of families to make way for FIFA security and infrastructure requirements. Below is an excerpt which indicates the impact of the 2014 World Cup on Brazilians:

“FIFA’s demands for security and infrastructure may end up displacing as many as 250,000 poor people, who live in the favelas surrounding Brazil’s urban centers. The cost of the games continues to tick upward, the latest figures climbing as high as $15 billion.” The New York Times 06/06/14

The concept ‘construction’ which is linked to the hosting capability imperative had 674 hits, mostly in reports on stadium renovation, construction and other infrastructure development. The ‘construction’ of stadiums and other relevant facilities in preparation for the 2014 World Cup was one of the key agenda items within the media dialogue. Specifically, several articles discussed the ‘construction plans’ for the World Cup stadiums on a ‘city by city’ basis. These reviews, however, for the most part tended to criticise the plans, highlighting the anticipated delays. For example, there was concern regarding the number of stadiums ‘unlikely to be completed in time’ for the opening of the tournament, and also about the high cost of managing them after the event, with the state already ‘hit by overruns in construction costs’. The concept ‘construction’ was also used mostly with the following concepts: ‘city’, ‘security’, ‘work’ and ‘stadium’. Portugal’s Correio da Manha had the following to say:

“The delay in the construction of infrastructures, which in some sports venues haven’t even started, water contamination in some installations and some “social problems” were the main problems highlighted by Coates.” Correio da Manha 29/04/14

Table 4.8 presents the favourable and unfavourable coverage of selected concepts linked to the strategic imperatives. The following concepts, ‘protests’, ‘police’, ‘stadium’, ‘problems’, and ‘country’ were mostly unfavourably treated in all the time periods. The most favoured concepts from news articles extracted included ‘country’, ‘team’, and ‘national’.

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Table 4.8: Sentiment analysis for selected concepts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperative</th>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Number of hits</th>
<th>Favourable Count</th>
<th>Unfavourable Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Readiness</td>
<td>stadium</td>
<td>2328</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety &amp; security</td>
<td>police</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination image</td>
<td>country</td>
<td>1582</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety &amp; security</td>
<td>protests</td>
<td>1001</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination image</td>
<td>national</td>
<td>1001</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readiness</td>
<td>tickets</td>
<td>889</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readiness</td>
<td>government</td>
<td>777</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Readiness</td>
<td>construction</td>
<td>674</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination image</td>
<td>problems</td>
<td>604</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>327</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.9 Quadrant reports

This section presents the quadrant reports used to visualise concepts that occurred prominently. Figure 4.24 represents the concepts as plotted against the demarcated periods. Ten high-impact concepts were mapped on a quadrant to indicate their relative frequency and strength of occurrence against the different periods established for the study. The concepts selected were: ‘protests’, ‘construction’, ‘public’, ‘government’, ‘police’, ‘stadium’, ‘security’, ‘event’, ‘tickets’ and ‘tournament’. These concepts were considered important since if examined critically they could indicate whether the host (Brazil and Rio de Janeiro) was considered ready for the 2014 World Cup by the news media. Additionally, they provide an indication of whether the host was capable of managing an international sporting competition. In short, the identified concepts constitute the strategic imperatives (hosting capability, safety and security and destination image), whose coverage by the media in selected international markets is what the study is trying to examine.

The quadrant report enabled the researcher to visually identify which concepts were more significant in the media by examining their appearance in the period under consideration. For example, in Figure 4.24, the concept that had the highest scoring strength rating of all the concepts (10 are plotted per period, and there are four periods shown) was ‘protests’, showing just how frequently it occurred within the lead-up period. But if one looks at the term ‘stadium’ (displayed in green), one can see that it is the concept that had the best relative frequency score of all the concepts plotted. This indicates that, in the lead-up to the 2014 World Cup period, the concept ‘stadium’ was most commonly mentioned.

4.9.1 A review of the quadrants produced by individual time period

The interpretation of the quadrant report as it appears in the Leximancer insight dashboard is aided by examining each stage in isolation. However, it is important to note that, regardless of the period under consideration, ‘protests’, ‘stadium’, and ‘police’ appear as the most commonly used words in the media about Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. This frequency decreases in later periods, for example, in the post-World Cup period, the same concepts (‘protests’, ‘stadium’ and ‘police’) reduced to a low strength of occurrence as well as low relative frequency. The findings show that the media focused on the hosting
capability imperative (‘stadium’) and the safety and security imperative (‘protests’ and ‘police’). The claims initially made in the media about Brazil’s inability to stage the event were not realised, and so the concepts’ occurrence decreased (Gibson, 2014:1).

4.9.1.1 Conceptual analysis of the pre-World Cup quadrant
The pre-World Cup period, denoted by a purple word listing (see Figure 4.24) had a moderately low strength of concept occurrence and low relative frequency. The concepts that occurred more frequently in the pre-period were ‘stadium’, ‘police’ and ‘security’. Most concepts for this period had relatively low strength ratings. This may indicate a focus on improving stadiums and the importance of enhancing the safety and security measures for the World Cup. In this period, the concerns regarding safety and security and the country’s ability to manage the event were still low. The pre-World Cup period was characterised by Brazil and Rio being covered as a nation and a city set to enjoy the impacts of the event, such as attracting tourists, establishing infrastructure and using the event to strengthen the country’s position as an economic power.

4.9.1.2 Conceptual analysis of the lead-up period quadrant
The lead-up period, indicated by a green word listing (see Figure 4.24), shows the most important concepts in the ‘magic’ quadrant. Only one concept, ‘tickets’ fell inside the left bottom quadrant indicating a moderately low strength and low relative frequency. In this period, most media reports were focused on the extensive ‘protests’ occurring in various parts of Brazil. This signalled the emergence of concerns for the country’s ability to manage the event and ensure its success. The protests can be linked to the high costs of stadium construction and the police’s intervention to manage the ‘anti-World Cup’ protests.

The 2010 FIFA World Cup faced similar instances of local citizens protesting against the tournament, citing the abuse of public funds. This was rampant in the lead-up period (Briedenhann, 2011:20). Similarly to Brazil, the protests in South Africa were in various cities across the country, accompanied by complaints over the rising cost of social basics such as education, health, water, sanitation and electricity (Bond, 2010:17).
Figure 4.24: Leximancer’s quadrant report of concepts in the selected time periods

4.9.1.3 Conceptual analysis of the hosting period quadrant
During the hosting period, denoted by a red word listing, the concepts most frequently used were ‘stadium’, ‘police’ and ‘ticket’. The strongest concept during this period was ‘ticket’. However, given that it has a relatively low frequency when considered against the other concepts in the period (see Figure 4.24), this may be an indicator that in this period, when the matches were being played, the little non-match coverage that there was centred on tickets, including ticket sales and combating ticket scandals. This is evidenced by the following quote from the *New York Times*:

> “Then, find out how the sport is faring among its American fans, more of whom bought tickets to the World Cup in Brazil than citizens of any other nation outside the host country.”

*The New York Times* 20/05/2014

4.9.1.4 Conceptual analysis of the post-World Cup quadrant
The post-World Cup period, illustrated by a light blue word listing (see Figure 4.24), has all the concepts falling within the left bottom quadrant showing a low relative frequency and strength. This could mean that most media reports about Brazil’s hosting of the Cup in the
post-2014 World Cup period were not closely related to the tournament. It is in this period that the 2016 Olympic Games given more coverage, with the success of the 2014 World Cup instilling confidence that Brazil and more specifically Rio de Janeiro would manage the event well.

4.9.2 Quadrant report for the selected markets

The current study used the insight dashboard to analyse the relative frequency and strength of concepts within the selected markets. The US market’s concept listing (denoted by a purple colour) had most of its concepts within the ‘magic’ quadrant. The concepts ‘government’ and ‘tournament’ had the highest strength and frequency, indicating that they occurred prominently within the US news about Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ (see Figure 4.25).

Appendix D shows the ranked concepts for categories within the markets analysed (Argentina, USA, Germany and Portugal). The following concepts occurred prominently in the US market; ‘government’ (prominence score = 2.7), ‘tournament’ (prominence score 2.3), ‘construction’ (prominence score = 1.9), ‘public’ (prominence score = 1.9), ‘event’ (prominence score = 1.9) and ‘protests’ (prominence score = 1.8) were the most important concepts. The other concepts that featured on the quadrant report in order of their prominence were ‘stadium’, ‘security’, ‘national’ and ‘police’. In the Portuguese market, the following concepts were most prominent, ‘police’ (prominence score = 1.6), ‘security’ (prominence score = 1.3), ‘international’ (prominence score = 1.1) and ‘protests’ (prominence score = 1.0). The other concepts that featured mostly in the Portuguese newspapers as shown in the quadrant report for the markets (Figure 4.25) were, ‘public’, ‘national’, ‘event’, ‘stadium’ and ‘government. For the Argentinian and German markets, the concepts were similarly treated as they are positioned closer to each other on the quadrant (see Figure 4.25). In the Argentinian market, ‘tickets’ (prominence score = 1.3), ‘security’ (prominence score = 0.8), ‘stadium’ (prominence score = 0.8) and ‘public’ (prominence score = 0.8) were quite common in the news about Brazil and the 2014 World Cup. The additional concepts that came out despite their low strength of occurrence and low relative frequency were; ‘national’, ‘event’, ‘international’, ‘police’, ‘tournament’ and ‘protests’.

For the German market, the concept ‘national’ was moderately strong and occurred relatively frequently (prominence score = 1.1). The following concepts were strong: ‘construction’ (30%), ‘protests’ (27%), ‘stadium’ (26%), ‘tournament’ (26%), ‘tickets’ (26%) and ‘police’ (26%) (see Appendix D).
Figure 4.25: Leximancer’s quadrant report of concepts in the selected markets

As one can see from Figure 4.25, the US market had higher expectations with respect to the issues covered, for example, hosting capability and safety and security. The Portuguese market’s coverage of the strategic imperatives was moderate compared with the US market, which took a negative stance on Brazil’s hosting of the Cup. The Argentinian and Portuguese markets, on the other hand, were similar in the way they covered the selected concepts relating to the strategic imperatives for hosting the Cup.

The findings of the study also showed how selected high impact concepts were covered in relation to Brazil and Rio. As represented in Figure 4.26, the concepts in red were associated with Brazil whereas the blue-coloured concepts are for Rio de Janeiro. The concept ‘police’ had a high relative frequency and occurred strongly in the magic quadrant. The concepts ‘police’ and ‘security’, both falling under the safety and security imperative, were widely covered in relation to Rio. The safety and security imperative concept ‘protests’ was intensively covered, as shown by the high strength in coverage and moderately high relative frequency. The concepts ‘stadiums’, ‘construction’ and ‘problems’ were more national
concepts, with high frequencies. Appendix E presents the categories Brazil and Rio de Janeiro by showing how these were associated with selected high impact concepts.

![Leximancer's quadrant report of Brazil and Rio](image)

**Figure 4.26: Leximancer’s quadrant report of Brazil and Rio**

In trying to present how Brazil and Rio were profiled in key international markets, the researcher conducted further sentiment analysis using quadrant report settings. The categories used for each market was ‘Brazil’ and ‘Rio de Janeiro’ and these were run with attributes considered to be the strategic imperatives for hosting World Cup (hosting capability, safety & security, and destination image). For safety and security imperatives, the following attributes were used; security, police and protests. Attributes for hosting capability included the following concepts; stadium, projects and construction whereas those for destination image were; government, people, event, money, national and tournament.

In trying to assess how Brazil and Rio de Janeiro were profiled in each of the markets, the insight dashboard settings of Leximancer enabled the researcher to see what concepts were strongly related to Brazil and Rio in the selected markets. In the Argentinian market, nearly all concepts were associated with Brazil rather than Rio de Janeiro. Safety and security imperative concepts (police, security and protests) had relatively high frequency in the Argentinian market and these were strongly associated with the nation (Brazil) rather than
the city (Rio). The concepts ‘police’ and ‘security’ denoting the safety and security imperative were strongly associated with Brazil as they occurred frequently from the data set. The instances where these concepts emerged centred on Brazil’s ability to contain the violence and ‘anti-World Cup’ protests. On the hosting capability imperative, the concept ‘stadium’ appeared prominently in media reports and this was generally associated with Brazil than rather when with Rio de Janeiro. The coverage of the concept ‘stadium’ was mainly on construction projects which were underway, security measures for the World Cup at stadiums and post-event management of the stadiums. Looking at the destination image imperative in the Argentinian market, ‘corruption’ was a concept that frequently emanated and this was more closely associated with Brazil than it was with Rio de Janeiro.

Examining the US market, the findings show that all concepts were strongly associated with Brazil rather than Rio and the degree of their association differed significantly. Safety and security imperative concepts such as ‘protests’ had relatively high frequency and moderately high strength denoting that they were covered extensively for Brazil. The widespread protests were more of a national issue as covered by the US media and this was closely linked to concepts such as ‘police’, ‘security’, ‘money’ and ‘construction’. The World Cup construction projects were among the reasons why Brazilians went into the street to protest against the event arguing that the funds could have been spend better. On the hosting capability imperative, the concepts ‘stadium’, ‘projects’, ‘construction’ and ‘money’ had strong association with Brazil compared to Rio de Janeiro. These concepts however were moderately covered in relation to Rio de Janeiro compared to how they were associated with Brazil. Looking at the destination image imperative, the concepts ‘problems’ and ‘corruption’ were prominent in the US market and they were mostly associated with Brazil in comparison to Rio de Janeiro.

In the Portuguese market, the concept ‘protests’ linked with safety and security imperative was strongly associated with Brazil rather than Rio de Janeiro. In this market, the concept ‘police’ which was a safety and security imperatives was strongly associated with Rio de Janeiro more so than it was for Brazil denoting that it was a city issue more than a national issue. ‘Stadiums’ the constituting hosting capability imperative was more of a nation issue as it was strongly associated with Brazil rather than Rio de Janeiro. On the image imperative, beaches were covered and were mostly associated with Rio de Janeiro than with Brazil. In this regard, a number of beaches in Rio were referenced by the international media. Corruption featured as a national issued than city issue.

The findings for the German market shows the concept ‘protests’ frequently covered by the media and this was associated more with Brazil rather than with Rio de Janeiro. The concepts ‘police’ and ‘security’ also linked to safety and security imperative was strongly
associated with Rio de Janeiro than Brazil. On hosting capability, the concept ‘stadiums’ was more of a national issue than a city one. The concept ‘beaches’, ‘corruption’ and ‘problems’ which are linked to destination image were strongly associated with Brazil rather than with Rio de Janeiro.

4.10 An overview of market differences

This section presents a summary of the market differences that might help Brazil (nation) and Rio de Janeiro (city) to capitalise on future communication in relation to hosting sport mega-events. It is clear from this study that when the national and city brands were compared across the markets, major differences were noticeable. The Argentinian market seemed to favour both the nation and city brands, but especially the nation. This finding is not surprising for countries that share the same borders and with governments which work together on the Latin American continent. The Argentinian media could have taken a positive stance in their reporting in part because of the diplomatic ties that these countries enjoy. In contrast, the US market was extremely negative for both the hosting nation (Brazil) and hosting city (Rio de Janeiro), with the most extreme negative coverage in the lead-up period. Both US and Germany are representative of the Western media hence they have a tendency of being negative to developing nations (Swart et al., 2012) and for the current study; it was mostly negative especially in the lead-up period. The German media were relatively negative towards both the nation and the city, whereas Portuguese media outlets were moderate in their coverage of Brazil and Rio de Janeiro. Portugal’s balanced stance on Brazil and Rio could have been influenced by their history, in terms of which Portugal still has some interests in Brazil. Table 4.9, below, provides a summary of the market differences in reporting about Brazil and Rio de Janeiro.

Table 4.9: Market differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Argentina</th>
<th>USA</th>
<th>Germany</th>
<th>Portugal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rio vs Brazil</td>
<td>More favourable to both nation and city brand, could be for political reasons – neighbours</td>
<td>Extremely negative to both Rio and Brazil and highest in the lead-up period</td>
<td>Generally negative about Brazil and Rio and very high in the lead-up period</td>
<td>Historical ties could have influenced the balanced stance by the media – fairly balanced coverage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post 2014 status</td>
<td>Building of a better city image i.e managing water pollution</td>
<td>Focus changed to Olympic Games</td>
<td>The general message showed that the World Cup was a success</td>
<td>Focus on how to have successful Olympic Games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development needs</td>
<td>More focus to successfully host the Olympics noting that the 2014 WC was a success</td>
<td>Enhance safety and security for the upcoming Olympic Games</td>
<td>Remove impediments that tarnishes the image i.e drug problems, and crime in favelas</td>
<td>Improve the image of the city of Rio through city programmes and projects</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The post-World Cup stance on the part of the international media was fairly positive, with the reporting turning toward speculation on how Brazil and Rio would manage the Olympic Games. The majority of reports indicated that the 2014 World Cup had been a success, thereby raising positive expectations for the Olympic Games. On development needs for both Brazil and Rio, the focus tended to rest on improving safety and security across the country. The removal of impediments that continue to harm the country’s image should also be looked into, such as drug abuse, crime and poverty.

It is important to note that the hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ and the media coverage at all the stages provided the pre-event media for the Olympic Games in Rio de Janeiro. Mostly the post-2014 media rhetoric covered the pre-event phase for the 2016 Olympic Games.

The next section offers a comparison between Brazil and South Africa, presenting the similarities and differences in Table 4.10.

4.11 Comparison between Brazil and South Africa

When Brazil was chosen as host country for the prestigious football competition in 2007, most Brazilians were supportive; however, the huge cost of the stadiums infuriated them a few years later, leading to extensive public uproar against the event (de Aragao, 2015:4-5). South Africa experienced something similar, but it was minimal compared to the massive Brazilian protests, where millions took to the streets. This is reflected in the differences between South Africa and Brazil media content. de Aragao (2015:4) points out that developing nations such as Brazil and South Africa are faced with the problems posed by “an inefficient and corrupt government”, and face extra challenges when it comes to investments (Transparency International, 2016). Brazil and South Africa are the leading political and economic powers on their continents, South America and Africa, respectively (de Aragao, 2015:4). They also have very similar economies, comprising a big agricultural and mining sector as well as a well-developed manufacturing division. Regarding their politics, both countries are relatively new democracies, with left-wing political parties in power – since 1994 in South Africa and since 2003 in Brazil.

Figure 4.27 illustrates the differences in media reporting for South Africa’s 2010 World Cup and Brazil’s 2014 World Cup. There was a notable shift in media reporting in each period, as shown by the variations in the sentiment ratios for South Africa and Brazil. Taking a closer look at the media coverage, firstly for South Africa, the sentiment ratio remained positive throughout, reflecting generally favourable coverage of the event – despite certain negative stories being reported in newspapers. In the case of Brazil’s 2014 World Cup, the coverage
was positive in all periods except the lead-up period, which had a notably higher number of negative stories about the hosting of the Cup.

![FIFA World Cup 2010 and 2014 Media Analysis](image)

**Figure 4.27: Comparisons between South Africa and Brazil’s sentiment profiles**

Both World Cups had the highest number of articles published in the lead-up period. Brazil also recorded the highest number of negative stories in the lead-up period (sentiment ratio of -1.9). This finding seems to suggest that the lead-up period is critical for event marketers as that is when most coverage is given. The pre-period of the 2014 World Cup also had news reports on the huge public spending on mega-event infrastructure and World Cup development, which fuelled nationwide unrest in Brazil among people who demanded better schools, hospitals, and less government corruption.

The huge spending for the 2014 World Cup ended up putting FIFA in the spotlight and precipitated the revelation of corruption scandals. The post-2014 World Cup period saw an increase in the number of articles covering issues on corruption linked to the international football governing body. FIFA faced heavy criticism over its refusal to publish key reports into allegations of corruption surrounding the World Cup bidding process for the 2018 and 2022 tournaments in Russia and Qatar. Most publications ran stories of FIFA executives being suspended as a result of corruption charges. Compared with this, in the 2010 World Cup post period the coverage of FIFA scandals, while not entirely absent, was minimal. Post-2014 World Cup, Brazil had extensive coverage pertaining to corruption, scandals, and the embezzlement of funds.
FIFA’s demands for security and infrastructure ended up displacing several thousands of poor people, particularly those who lived in the *favelas* surrounding Brazil’s urban centres. The media and in particular the US reported on the continuous rise of the cost of hosting the 2014 World Cup for Brazil and this could have been done to paint a picture to the public that Brazil was not capable of managing the event. This was however not realised as Brazil successfully hosted the 2014 World Cup. South Africa’s World Cup also involved a large budget, but it did not nearly match Brazil’s. Also the number of people displaced in South Africa as a result of the 2010 World Cup was less than that for Brazil. There is patriotic resentment at the way in which Brazil has undergone ‘capitalist exploitation’ at the hands of FIFA, who have reduced football to a pure business (Korstanje, Tzanelli & Clayton, 2014:488).

Table 4.10 presents a summary of the similarities and differences between Brazil and South Africa in relation to the international media reporting of both events. On hosting capability, one can notice that for Brazil there was considerable panic regarding stadium readiness for the Cup, whereas most South African stadiums were ready before the 2010 World Cup. Brazil experienced widespread delays in delivering stadiums and other event-related infrastructure on time. From the time Brazil was chosen as a hosting nation for the 2014 World Cup, more focus was on using the event to strengthen its international standing as one of the major economic powerhouses of the world.

For South Africa, which entered the BRICs grouping in 2011, the focus was more on improving Africa’s global image and combating Afro-pessimism. Looking at the safety and security imperative, the two countries faced similar challenges. They are however working to address safety and security challenges; for example, in Brazil, there is the pacification programme and in South Africa the city improvement district programmes.

For both Brazil and South Africa, the concerns on safety and security were highest in the period prior to World Cup (lead-up) but fell considerably during the hosting period. This could be because the fears as reported in the international media initially were not realised hence the drastic fall of coverage of safety and security issues. However, with Brazil concerns around violence remain while for South Africa, crime is still a challenge.
### Table 4.10: Similarities and differences between Brazil and South Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategic imperative</th>
<th>Brazil</th>
<th>South Africa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Hosting capability</strong>&lt;br&gt;– were these countries considered ready to host their (events) respective World Cups as reported by international media of selected markets?</td>
<td>• Stadiums and major infrastructures were not ready closer to the time of hosting the event.&lt;br&gt;• The Brazilian organisers focused on the continental dimensions of their campaign in which the country’s emerging economic power is seen as crucial in the ability to host the event. In addition, the investment in infrastructure in Brazil is central (de Almeida et al., 2015:275).</td>
<td>• Most major infrastructure was ready just before the event.&lt;br&gt;• The South African Government stated that the tournament would ‘speed up development and growth in the country’ (Cornelissen, Bob &amp; Swart, 2011b:305).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Safety and security</strong>&lt;br&gt;– were these countries reported as safe and well secured to manage the World Cup?</td>
<td>• Brazil faces security challenges particularly within the favelas and this was a concern for the 2014 World Cup.&lt;br&gt;• Lead-up period was overwhelmingly negatively covered especially on Brazil’s protests, policing, and preparedness&lt;br&gt;• UPP’s (Pacifying Police Units) – Rio.</td>
<td>• Safety and security challenges were experienced but not as pronounced as Brazil.&lt;br&gt;• On safety &amp; security imperative, the lead-up period was generally covered negatively with crime featuring prominently&lt;br&gt;• Cape Town Central City Improvement District (CCID) programme.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Image</strong> – was the image of these countries enhanced as a result of hosting the respective World Cups?</td>
<td>• The traditional image of Brazil was visible and the country was viewed as a violent nation especially from the extensive World Cup protests that erupted across the country.&lt;br&gt;• Image aspects attracting negative coverage included corruption, problems whereas on the positive light there was beaches&lt;br&gt;• Corruption, scandals, wasteful public spending, cost overruns dominated media discourse.&lt;br&gt;• Brazil has problems of housing especially noticed by the vast slums which is the ‘hive’ for crime, drugs and experience many social challenges.&lt;br&gt;• Brazil is known for its extensive beautiful beaches and great tourist attractions&lt;br&gt;• Both Brazil and South Africa are unequal societies (de Almeida, Bolsmann, Júnior &amp; de Souza, 2015).</td>
<td>• South Africa was also reported as a violent nation particularly the xenophobic attacks on foreign nationals which occurred prior to the event.&lt;br&gt;• Destination image aspects covered negatively included pricing whereas positive aspects included natural beauty, culture, people, social cohesion etc&lt;br&gt;• The protests against the 2010 World Cup were noticed but not as pronounced Brazil.&lt;br&gt;• South Africa has social challenges on housing noticed by the extensive townships/informal settlements.&lt;br&gt;• South Africa has a number of beaches beautiful beaches and a number of tourist attractions which were shown before, during and post the event.&lt;br&gt;• Negative stereotypes about Africa were noticeable in media for example poverty, diseases such as HIV and AIDS and poor service delivery amongst others.</td>
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### 4.12 Summary

This chapter has provided an analysis of the news that emerged from Brazil’s key tourist markets concerning the country’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. The study relied on a qualitative textual data mining tool called Leximancer to extract the key themes and concepts to be examined in order to achieve the study’s objectives. Interestingly, the findings
provided were quite similar to the case of South Africa 2010 World Cup, where negative sentiments dominated the lead-up period and the other periods were positively reported. The comparison of key findings in respect of South Africa and Brazil, especially on the coverage given, makes sense since both countries have emerging economies and are member states of the BRICs group.

The chapter started off by presenting the source market article count from the selected for tourist markets. It presented the sample size of the study by indicating the number of online newspaper articles which were considered for the current study. In trying to remain focused on the study’s aims, the researcher represented strategic imperatives for the study and these were; hosting capability, safety and security and destination image.

The chapter then went on to offer an analysis of the media coverage. Each market was explained with the exact media sources which were accessed for media content for analysis. Concept maps were used to provide visual presentation of the concepts that emerged in the media. In addition to this, the study used insight dashboard with quadrant reports that helped to show how Brazil and Rio de Janeiro were profiled in the selected markets. Similarities and differences between South Africa were drawn using evidence from the study.

The chapter showed that the lead-up period was critical for all the markets canvassed. During this time, both Brazil and Rio de Janeiro were prominent in the media, where apprehension about the success of the tournament dominated coverage. The sentiment lens revealed that the US market was most negative about Brazil’s hosting of the Cup, especially in the lead-up period. Only the Argentinian market was consistently positive about the event.

The findings in the current chapter have shown that although there were areas which were negatively reported about Brazil and South Africa in relation to hosting respective editions of the FIFA World Cup, specifically in the lead-up period, positive views also prevailed across the target markets in the different markets; pre-, during and post-event.

In the following and final chapter of this study, conclusions are drawn and recommendations made in relation to the research objectives. The chapter also describes the limitations of the study and highlights areas to be explored in future media impact studies.
5.1 Introduction

The hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ was an ideal opportunity for Brazil to enhance its international image. The aim of this study was to investigate the media impact of Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ on Brazil and on Rio de Janeiro, one of the host cities and a major tourist destination in Brazil. The study examined media reports in major online newspapers on Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup that appeared in its key tourism markets: Argentina, USA, Germany and Portugal. The intention was to provide an overview of how Rio de Janeiro and Brazil as a whole were reported in the media at different stages of the event; pre-, lead-up, during and post- the 2014 World Cup. An understanding of how an event destination is profiled by the media, especially in relation to its ability to successfully manage global sporting events, is seen as important by destination marketers as they seek to attract visitors to the destination (Schroeder & Pennington-Gray, 2014:227). Destination managers play a critical role in ensuring that the destination is accorded the status to which it aspires, and go to great lengths to advance the destination’s positive attributes (Roche, 2008:285). These positive attributes – which could consist of natural endowments, scenic beauty, culture or friendly people – can be used to profile the destination (Schroeder & Pennington-Gray, 2014:225; Roche, 2008:285). The current study was aimed at using media reports to arrive at an assessment of whether the major objectives of the Brazil 2014 World Cup bid were met as reported by the media through the hosting of this mega-event.

The study showed that international media reports on Brazil and Rio de Janeiro increasingly focused on concerns about whether the country would successfully host the 2014 World Cup or not. There were a number of issues in the country that raised doubts over whether the event would pass off flawlessly, leading to negative press coverage, especially in the lead-up period. The issues included the protests and rioting as well as high crime rates in major Brazilian cities like Rio de Janeiro and Sao Paulo, and delays in completing World Cup construction projects. But in spite of all this, the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ was a success as most negative expectations set up by the media’s reporting were not realised. Although there are considerable social and economic problems in Brazil, the international media tended to present concerns like that of security in an exaggerated way that could have affected attendance at the World Cup (Sierra-Rubia, 2014).

The current chapter starts off by presenting the limitations of the study, explaining these in detail. Measures taken to deal with these limitations are also highlighted. The chapter goes on to make recommendations on the basis of the findings presented in Chapter Four, before
offering a general conclusion. This addresses the question of whether the objectives of the study have been achieved, and makes suggestions for further research.

5.2 Limitations of the study

In the course of the research, several obstacles were encountered that delayed the completion of the study. It may be useful to point these out and explain the actions that were taken to negotiate them.

5.2.1 Exclusion of social media

There has been a major shift in the consumption of news over the past decade whereby social media are coming into play and traditional news via newspaper and other sources is dropping in popularity. The current study nevertheless focused on selected newspaper media in the identified markets, concentrating on those with the highest readership and coverage. And while the findings in this study are based on newspaper media only, the versions consulted were online rather than print. The main reason why social media was used is that the study intended to understand the markets where the media content originated from sourcing the content from online newspapers yielded much depth for analysis. Using content from social media such as Twitter, Facebook, Linked-in and others would have worked for this study but because of the little depth in the content, only online newspaper sources were used. The other reasons for using the traditional news channels as sources of media content instead of social media for this study is that traditional media is composed of professional content unlike social media content which is user generated and mostly uses informal language (Hausman, 2012:1).

5.2.2 Language difficulty

The study involved an analysis of media content in Brazil’s key tourist markets, Argentina, USA, Germany and Portugal. Online versions of four major newspapers were selected from each market. All the markets except for the US were non-English speaking, and the researcher had to use Google Translate and Bing Translator tools to facilitate translation. When the translated content was analysed, some of it had lost the context in which it was reported, which could have influenced how the researcher interpreted the findings. In trying to make sense of the extracted content and at the same time maintain the context of the reports, the researcher had to use online translating tools as well as try to figure out the meaning from the translations. The two online tools used are available for free and originate from Google and Microsoft, the world’s most famous technology companies (Stacey, 2015:1). They translate text instantly into various major languages (Anecsys, 2015). But despite their obvious utility, these tools cannot match professional human translations since they do not offer natural, fluently readable translations (Anecsys, 2015). Because of the high volume of the articles that needed to be analysed, the researcher opted to use the freely
available translating tools instead of professional translators who usually come at a very high cost. Leximancer software used in the study analysed text blocks therefore the limitation of foreign language translation is overcome.

5.2.3 Access to media content
The current study depended on online media sources for textual data. Some of the sources required that the user subscribe to access the media text for analysis. After liaison with the researcher’s supervisor, the necessary payment was made and access was enabled. Another hindrance to the study was Internet access. During the extraction of the articles, which depended on Internet availability and strength, there were instances when the Internet was very slow, which delayed the process. However, most article extraction had to be done and finished within December 2014/January 2015 holidays when students were on vacation. During this time, the Internet servers were faster and the targeted number of articles was reached. The study’s “post-” period was initially planned to end on 13 July 2015 but due to limited time noting that the study had to be completed by August 2015, the content sourcing exercise was stopped in December 2014. In addition, from the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ media impact study on South Africa and Cape Town, it was noted that beyond six months after the event, the media’s focus deviated markedly from the event itself. Therefore the post-period lasted for six months after the World Cup instead of the planned 12 months. Despite having a shorter post-period time, the anticipated numbers of articles for analysis was reached.

5.3 Conclusions
The results of the current study were analysed in terms of the following research objectives:

- **Research objective 1** was to ascertain how the major objectives of Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup were reported by the media in key international markets;
- **Research objective 2** was to assess how Brazil (host nation) and specifically Rio de Janeiro (host city) were profiled across the time periods of the event; pre-, lead-up to, during and post-World Cup;
- **Research objective 3** was to assess how Brazil (host nation) and Rio de Janeiro (host city) were profiled in key international markets; and
- **Research objective 4** was to compare the media coverage over time periods for Brazil and South Africa as developing countries hosting sequential editions of the same event.

The conclusions of the current study were generated together with the findings discussed in Chapter Four. Such conclusions are drawn in line with the objectives of the study and they determine whether they have been attained. Each of them will be assessed and discussed in the following subsections.

5.3.1 Conclusion regarding objective one
- **To ascertain how the major objectives [strategic imperatives] of Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup were reported by the media in key international markets;**
In terms of hosting capability, Brazil tried hard to build the necessary infrastructure for the World Cup. A number of stadiums were constructed, while others were renovated to meet FIFA requirements. There was urban regeneration, and communication systems which were set in place to prepare the country and its various cities for the event. The hosting capability imperative was reported from two angles, first, positively, in celebration of the country’s opportunity to showcase its progress in terms of world-class infrastructure; and negatively, with speculation that most infrastructural projects would not be ready in time for the event. Moreover, the reporting tone for the hosting capability imperative varied with the periods allocated to reporting the event as well as the markets. More specifically, in the pre-period, an optimistic reporting tone of the hosting capability imperative was set and this changed to a negative coverage in the lead-up period where the media reports were dominated by news of Brazil not capable to successfully host the event. The reporting tone then changed in the hosting period to moderate and it was maintained into the post-period.

The safety and security imperative was mostly covered negatively, with a large number of newspaper articles citing the violent protests that hit the various host cities in Brazil. There was high coverage, with negative reports raising questions about Brazil’s ability to manage the 2014 event. In the pre-period, coverage of the safety and security imperative was moderate, with most reports referring to Brazil’s plans to secure the event. But the lead-up period was flooded with news of police and security staff clashing with the anti-World Cup groups. Moving into the hosting period, the reporting tone changed to moderate as the number of protests fell dramatically, with the same applying to the post-period.

On destination image, Brazil intended to use the event to enhance its international image. Associated destination attributes were covered by the international media and the coverage of these varied with time periods of the event and the markets. Brazil was in most cases associated with violence, social inequalities, carnivals, beautiful beaches, and rich cultural diversity. These were covered both positively and negatively by the international media, and varied with the stages or periods. As presented in the findings section, Brazil faces challenges or ‘problems’ and this was reverberated in the international media coverage of the country’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup. The problems that Brazil had as reported by the international media in the selected markets included social problems (e.g. corruption, drugs, housing, crime, etc) and social inequalities visible in most parts of the country. These fears were echoed in the several anti-World Cup protests that hit the nation of Brazil.

Looking in detail at the capability imperative in the US market, the coverage of this imperative was somehow positive, whilst concerns with stadiums, ticketing and infrastructure saw their negative sentiment decline as the World Cup progressed. The US media also covered stories about accidents at construction sites. Corruption and cost overruns were also
among the other aspects covered, and these too contributed to the highly negative reporting by the media. Regarding the safety and security imperative for the US market, the negative coverage heightened in the lead-up period and fell in line with fewer articles being written about the issue. Besides the few selected image themes emerging from the US market, it is apparent that there was limited specific attention given to the destination brand image of Brazil and Rio. In the US market, the destination image imperative included aspects such as beach, corruption, powerful and problems. This degree of the coverage however differed with corruption being mentioned most in relation to Brazil therefore suggesting that corruption is a national issue rather than a mere city issue for Brazil.

The German market was quick to cover discourses from the pre-hosting period on Brazil’s hosting capability and this extended into the lead-up period. The coverage for infrastructure mainly featured in the lead-up period. Between the lead-up and hosting periods, safety and security issues were a concern, as was the country’s ability to fully prepare itself for the World Cup. The post-event period enjoyed less coverage in respect of the strategic imperatives. In the post period, discussion of Brazil’s ability to host the 2016 Olympic Games emerged in the German media coverage of Brazil. The post period’s media coverage also focused on Brazil’s general elections.

In the Portuguese market, the lead-up period saw the coverage for safety and security strategic imperative being strongly associated with Brazil than to Rio de Janeiro. Brazil’s reporting in the Portuguese market was generally positive in the pre- and post-event periods, whereas the lead-up and hosting periods were more unfavourable. The more favourable count in this market could have been influenced by the historical relations between the two counties as well as the political linkages that exist. Examining the Argentinian market, the study showed that the media was generally positive about Brazil and Rio de Janeiro, as shown by the positive sentiment ratio through the various time periods. In the Argentinian market, the large numbers of unfavourable articles about crime evident in the pre- and lead-up periods apparently proved baseless, as the volume of mentions for this and other issues of security fell dramatically over the hosting and post-event periods. The Argentinian market was mostly favourable to Brazil’s hosting of the Cup as supported by the findings of the study. The reason for this could be attributed to Argentina’s proximity to Brazil and as such Argentina media could understand better the context of issues happening in Brazil.

Brazil’s motives to host the event were covered by the international media from various angles. The media in the selected international markets were enthusiastic about the great opportunity for the country to successfully host the event. But they also tended to suggest that Brazil and her cities would not be ready and hence were not capable of hosting the event. Some reporting was neutral on this issue.
5.3.2 Conclusion regarding objective two

- To assess how Brazil (host nation) and specifically Rio de Janeiro (host city) were profiled across the time periods of the event; pre-, lead-up to, during and post-World Cup;

This objective sought to examine how Brazil and Rio de Janeiro were profiled at each of the identified periods of time. The Leximancer sentiment lens was applied to the media content to examine whether the reporting on Brazil and Rio de Janeiro was positive or negative in relation to its hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. A number of themes and concepts emerged from the identified periods of the event. The pre-period was more favourable toward Brazil’s hosting of the World Cup. The unfavourable reports emerging in the pre-period encompassed several issues, for example the anticipated high demand for accommodation during the event. Sporting events such as the World Cup usually push prices up because of high demand, thus affecting locals who are forced to pay higher prices. Also reported were FIFA scandals, failing World Cup projects and instances of corruption.

As indicated in the findings section, the lead-up period was crucial since it recorded the highest count of unfavourable reporting about Brazil’s in relation to hosting of the World Cup. This was the period when the coverage of most of the selected media channels was characterised by reports of widespread ‘anti-World Cup’ protests, in which Brazilians expressed anger over the construction of expensive stadiums while some key ministries received very little budgets. Most of the negative reports in this period dealt with stadium construction and the anticipation of incomplete stadiums, protests, police trying to contain the situation, FIFA scandals, corruption within government and FIFA, forced removals, police brutality, insufficient infrastructure, the rising cost of living, huge social inequalities, large budgets for the World Cup, unfair compensation to the displaced, and many more.

The hosting period witnessed a fall in the number of protests and more favourable coverage, with most news reports focusing on football itself. Brazilians were gaining confidence in their government and themselves as belief that the 2014 World Cup would be a successful event surged. The negative claims by the media that the stadiums would not be ready were not realised. Although there were still negative reports, they were largely by the evidence of Brazil’s preparedness to host a successful event.

The post-World Cup period featured favourable media coverage, the main issues pertaining to the country working harder in preparation for the 2016 Olympics. The media discourse also included political issues, as Brazil prepared for and passed through its national elections.

In the pre-period, Rio de Janeiro was profiled as a city with beautiful beaches which offer space for beach sports such as volleyball, football and relaxation area for tourists. In this
period, there was also coverage of the negative aspects such as problems in Rio de Janeiro’s *favelas* including drug abuse and violence. This then changed in the lead-up period when the coverage about Rio de Janeiro turned negative following the massive anti-World Cup protests. In this period, Rio de Janeiro was profiled a violent city amid the widespread riots that hit the city. The lead-up period was also filled with uncertainty over fears that some World Cup projects would not be completed in time thereby painting a picture of unpreparedness by Rio de Janeiro to successfully host and manage the event. The sentiment changed to positive views in the hosting period when the event was being hosted and the media coverage changed to positive despite the few negative stories that continues. The post-period showed both positive and negative coverage about Rio de Janeiro’s hosting of the World Cup. The positive stories related to the successful hosting of the Cup by the city of Rio de Janeiro whereas the negative stories centred on corruption and other issues as mentioned below.

The findings reveal an image of Rio de Janeiro as being a party city with a number of challenges, including drug abuse and violence. The violence aspect of the image was witnessed within the lead-up period, which recorded a number of violent protests against the World Cup. Overall, in all the markets, Rio de Janeiro’s coverage was unfavourable, with most media narratives centring on the protests against public spending on the 2014 World Cup. The study’s findings reveal corruption as a national issue rather than a city issue and thus recommend that Brazil continue to implement strategies aimed at addressing corruption.

5.3.3 Conclusion regarding objective three

- *To assess how Brazil (host nation) and Rio de Janeiro (host city) were profiled in key international markets;*

The study intended to assess how Brazil and Rio de Janeiro were profiled in key international markets. The US market was mostly unfavourable to both Brazil and Rio, especially so in the lead-up period. For the hosting capability imperative, the study found out that the US market covered this negatively in its discourse about stadium completion and other infrastructure. On the safety and security imperative, US media reporting was dominated by the widespread protests against the World Cup. On the subject of the country’s image, issues of corruption were noted in US media reporting about Brazil. This ranged from corruption within the national sports authorities, FIFA and on infrastructure projects tenders.

The Argentinian market gave favourable coverage to Brazil and Rio de Janeiro within all the periods, but the positive coverage of Brazil by the Argentinian market rose sharply in the lead-up period. The negative coverage was mostly centred on the protests that hit Brazilian cities. The Portuguese market profiled Brazil and Rio de Janeiro negatively although this
varied from stage to stage. The German market was also negative about both Brazil and Rio de Janeiro, as shown by the media counts of favourable vs. unfavourable mentions.

Although the visibility of Brazil increased, the country’s image continued to be attached to traditional stereotypes such as great parties, social unrest, political problems, social inequalities and crime. The international media play a critical role in creating mental formations within people and hence determining perceptions and judgements (Sadaf, 2011:228). Unsurprisingly, as shown by the current study, the Western media maintained their negative stance on Brazil, an ‘emerging’ country, by dwelling on ‘unpleasant incidents’ and portraying a negative image; much more so than neighbouring Argentina, which favoured Brazil in its coverage. Despite the tournament’s being labelled successful by Brazil, FIFA and the tournament’s organisers, the Western media (especially in the US) were not convinced and maintained its negativity through both pre- and post-event coverage.

The overall sentiment by market for Brazil revealed only the Argentinian market expressing a generally favourable media coverage, with both the USA and Germany being more unfavourable, whilst Portugal establishing a balanced view in coverage. As presented in the findings section, the more positive coverage in Argentina could be linked to their common geographical proximity, and Portugal’s balanced position could be from historical links that exists.

Although the coverage of the 2014 World Cup event did not do much to rebrand the nation, the qualitative analysis seems to show that Brazil was successful in hosting the event and creating a happy global party. Even though the image of the country was not completely altered, the 2014 World Cup appears to have increased the visibility of the country. In addition, the event helped to strengthen the international image that the country already had. The study also showed that the description of Brazil in the media sustained the notion that football is important to the country, calling Brazil ‘the country of football’. But mainly because of the widespread anti-World Cup protests, this ‘football loving nation’ was depicted by the international newspapers as a socially and politically unstable country. Given that the coverage was sometimes superficial, this was the most common stereotype in the press.

5.3.4 Conclusion regarding objective four

- To compare the media coverage over time periods for Brazil and South Africa as developing countries hosting sequential editions of the same event.

Comparisons can be made between countries that share similar characteristics or that are at the same stage of development; for example, developed countries can be evaluated together, whilst it makes sense to compare developing countries with other developing countries (The Global Economy, 2017). South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™
was compared to this study’s data for Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 World Cup. Brazil showed higher negative than positive media coverage, particularly in the lead-up period to the World Cup whilst for South Africa, there was higher positive than negative media coverage.

For both South Africa and Brazil, the lead-up was when full coverage (media content) for the host occurred across all key markets for this study. Whilst concerns about South Africa’s readiness and hosting stretched the unfavourable coverage into the lead-up period, favourable mentions anticipating the World Cup increased, thereby pushing the overall positive sentiment a bit higher. Also concerns in the lead-up period for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and South Africa’s hosting were somehow fair compared with the overwhelmingly negative reporting on Brazil’s World Cup protests and preparedness. The two editions of the World Cup (South Africa and Brazil) saw the hosting period achieving a reduction in unfavourable mentions, resulting in improved sentiment ratios for both events.

In relation to the capability imperative, stadiums, transport, and infrastructure were the most mentioned concepts in both Cups. Concerns regarding safety and security were highest in the lead-up period for both South Africa and Brazil. These concerns however fell considerably during the hosting as the worries as reported in the international media in the beginning were not realised through successful event and security management.

The findings of the study showed that the coverage of Brazil and Rio de Janeiro’s positive image was centred more on the beaches and heritage whereas on the negative side, corruption continued in the pre- and hosting periods. For South Africa and Cape Town, the coverage on image generated during the pre- and lead-up period was generally positive with great focus given to the coastline, culture, natural attractions and information about visiting the country. Examining the overall sentiment by market for Brazil showed only the Argentinian market expressed an overall favourable coverage, with both US and Germany more unfavourable, and Portugal demonstrating a balanced view. The more positive coverage in Argentina may be linked to their shared geographical proximity in the global South, and Portugal’s balanced view extending from its historical links. This association remarkably equals the positive coverage of South Africa in the Dutch market which also enjoys historical ties.

The study has shown that Brazil and South Africa faces similar safety and security challenges. However, both are committed to address these challenges through programmes such as the pacification units in Brazil and the city improvement district programs in South African cities. For Brazil, the main issue that was covered negatively in the media was related to the national protests against the Cup whereas for South Africa, there were fears about crime which was however not realised. Brazil was profiled as a violent nation with a
number of challenges including crime, drug abuse and poverty. South Africa’s safety and security fears intensified in the period before the Cup but changed in the hosting and post-event period.

5.4 Recommendations

The recommendations presented in this chapter are derived from the research findings set out in the previous chapter. The recommendations will assist mega-event organisers and marketers in developing nations such as Brazil and South Africa to improve on future events. Positive reports need to be leveraged and emphasised in the promotional coverage of events, while – still preserving their utility as pointers to areas requiring more attention – negative ones need to be reduced.

The recommendations cover the areas that Brazil needs to improve upon or focus upon to maintain its status as a global emerging power able to successfully host future sport mega-events. This would enable Brazil to host international competitions with the full support of its people, thus generating favourable coverage of the country and the event. The following section suggests methods to enhance media coverage of sport mega-events.

5.4.1 Effective crime, safety and security plan

Like most developing countries, Brazil suffers from a high incidence of crime; to contain and deal with this, there is a need for effective safety and security structures. Negative reports on crime tended to dominate newspaper coverage, which means that the government has to act decisively in order to improve the country’s image. The UPP may have helped, but such initiatives need to be expanded across the country. Large Brazilian cities such as Sao Paulo and Belo Horizonte need initiatives to help curtail all forms of crime, including drug abuse. The Brazil Strategy 2030 document indicates that more than 40 million Brazilians reside in urban favelas where the level of crime is unbearably high (Berenberg, 2014:11). It is therefore essential that Brazil improves its domestic security, which may include improving the welfare of the security officers through better salaries and working conditions. The number of police and security teams can be increased in order to curb crime but in addition to increasing the number of officers; the nation has to come up with for transformative policies and efficient mechanisms to eradicate widespread corruption (Berenberg, 2014:11).

The current study has shown that crime, safety and security were the main themes that emerged in the media coverage for Brazil from its key tourist markets, particularly in the lead-up to the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ event. This was reported mostly negatively, with news that Brazil had to strengthen its security to successfully host and manage the 2014 World Cup. In addition, the image imperative for hosting the Cup was notable for its emphasis on violence. This is a negative attribute with which a nation or city cannot afford to be associated, hence the urgent need to address the ‘root causes’ of it. Moreover, this study recommends that
Brazil and other future sport mega-event hosts should strive for a balanced approach, one that brings growth to the country, but does not marginalise vulnerable groups.

5.4.2 Infrastructure development

Infrastructure development should become an on-going government programme. Events such as the World Cup and Olympic Games should not be the only causes for development and urban regeneration projects. Government should have plans to address infrastructure development that include the transport system and railway network, quality hospitals, schools, and public service facilities.

Brazil faces structural challenges including inadequate and insufficient urban social infrastructure (e.g., water-waste management and transport systems). These challenges are more likely to attract negative coverage in the media as ‘bad news' attract an increased audience base and profit (Arango-Kure et al., 2014:199). Indeed, poor infrastructure development in destinations that aspire to host mega-events signals incompetence in managing such events and places the destination under media scrutiny. It is therefore recommended that cities and nations invest in infrastructure that can sustainably support its people. Developing nations like Brazil and South Africa face similar challenges of inadequate infrastructure, with the result that their participation in global sporting events has had a mixed reception. If the governments of such countries have on-going development plans for infrastructure, when they are selected to host a sport mega-event, the budgets specifically for the event would be considerably reduced.

5.4.3 Government support

There are several reasons why national governments bid to host sport mega-events. Previous research has shown that international sport mega-events can have positive and negative impacts (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009:1). National governments use these events as a catalyst for regional economic development and urban regeneration. They are also perceived as a way to stimulate cities or regions as tourist destinations. Governments use mega-events to advance the brand identity of a city on a global scale. As indicated in the second chapter of the current study, sport events require the development of sporting infrastructure and facilities that, with an appropriate long-term legacy strategy, may result in increased participation levels. This can only be achieved through insightful national and local government strategies. In addition, national governments bid to host sport mega-events to benefit from their capacity to build civic pride, increase community identity, and deliver social inclusion.

It is crucial to note that the operation of sport mega-events is a comprehensive process involving a number of sectors such as transportation, security, risk-management and sponsorship. This necessitates governmental support and coordination for the hosting of a
sport mega-event to be successful. In terms of event operation, objectives can be achieved more easily when there is full government support and endorsement (Liu, 2014:101).

The findings reveal that reporting in the lead-up period was mostly negative, with the majority of Brazilians expressing their discontent with the 2014 FIFA World Cup™. One of the reasons for the public uproar in response to the hosting of the 2014 World Cup were the evictions of many in Rio de Janeiro to make way for the event’s infrastructure, for example transport (de Paula, 2014:16). In preparation for the 2010 World Cup, South Africa invested over US$4 billion in infrastructure, such as stadiums and transportation (Raghavan, 2010). This was part of the ‘beautification process’ and it resulted in thousands of poor South Africans being displaced from informal settlements to temporary relocation areas (Newton, 2009:93-94). For South Africa, slum clearance mostly affected settlements that were visible to media and international visitors, and the residents of those areas were forced to move to temporary areas without consultation (Newton, 2009:93). People in those temporary areas were subjected to highly inadequate conditions in a setting far away from their social networks (Werth, 2010:2). The South African case was quite similar to Brazil’s since people residing within the favelas had to be forced out for the World Cup’s infrastructure, and most of them were inadequately compensated for this (Daibert, 2014). In light of the above, it is recommended that the national government support its people when they get affected by sport mega-event plans. This can involve timely consultations with the affected families and adequate compensation for their inconvenience. This will assist tremendously in gaining their endorsement and reducing hostility, which attracts negative media coverage.

Establishing buy-in among media representatives could be one of the most useful ways of achieving positive media coverage. The study has revealed that sport mega-events media reporting is mostly inclined to present the tangible outcomes such as stadium development and public transport infrastructure expansion. But these can still be covered negatively as well as positively, which means that event organisers together with government should undertake a much more practical and proactive role in the management of media impressions surrounding sport mega-events. Knott et al. (2012) and Knott et al. (2013) have suggested that fostering relationships between media representatives and sport mega-event organisers could be a solution of sorts to managing media reporting. This relationship can be sustained when there is political will from the government, therefore it is recommended that the government assists in fostering these linkages and make them to work. Getz and Fairley (2004) add that the media should be accommodated and treated as important stakeholders so that they can maximise their ability to promote positive impressions of a hosting nation. The government need therefore to actively be involved by fostering relationships with the media and this will translate in to more positive reporting.
5.4.4 Legacy plan

According to FIFA, the 2014 World Cup was a success (FIFA, 2015d). On the legacy aspect, FIFA created a USD 100 million Legacy Fund to support football infrastructure development projects, youth football, women’s football, in addition to public health and social programmes (FIFA, 2015). From this initiative, it is clear that legacy is now becoming an important aspect in the staging of sport mega-events. In advancing the building of legacy, Brazil as the hosting nation for the 2014 World Cup had to strengthen its competitive attributes and use the event to improve the country’s image and the commercial value of the tournament. To make legacy plans work more effectively, it is recommended that the governments of hosting nations work closely with the organising committees. In addition, national governments should come up with sound strategies to manage the legacy budgets effectively and denounce corrupt activities that might result in funds being misappropriated or used for legacy-unrelated issues such as paying salaries.

Putting in place a feasible and implementable legacy plan can make a worthwhile contribution to changing media coverage from negative to positive. This is the post-event management blueprint detailing the long-term maintenance needs of planned mega-projects. Varrel and Kennedy (2011:3) caution that the legacy plan should not strain future municipal budgets. It is detrimental when budgets are diverted from one sector of the economy to another. Brazil’s 2014 FIFA World Cup_TM provoked public discontent and protests, which were reported in the media and this attracted negative media coverage. To manage the legacy of sporting mega-events and at the same time achieve favourable media coverage, it is recommended that hosting nations develop long-term support tools and services that enhance co-operation with nations which aspire to host sport mega-events. In addition, it is recommended that corporation and coordination is fostered with organisations which could offer similar support on economic and environmental legacy issues.

International media, particularly online media, have been found to be effective in profiling destinations and shaping perceptions relating to a sport mega-event destination (Candrea & Ispas, 2010:61). More precisely, online news stories regarding a sport mega-event destination can be dominated by news conducing to perceptions of increased crime rates at the time of a sport mega-event. Therefore it is recommended that tourism planners utilise marketing and public relations measures to reduce these effects. It is also important that the host destination engage in tourism crisis management throughout the hosting process. The destination and event planners need to have specific media plans in place in case of a crisis, as not being prepared can potentially tarnish the host destination’s image. In addition, specific emphasis should be placed on fostering media relations prior to potential crises. Actively managing media activities before, during and after the event is essential and recommended not only to prevent negative coverage but to help ensure that messages are
broadcast properly and correctly. This could be adopted and considered as part of long-term legacy approach that is extended in the post-event period. It is also important to consider to leveraging benefits of the event and establish a lasting legacy from hosting mega-events.

The following section of the study directs attention to possible future research and the direction it might take.

5.5 Possible future research

Future research should consider carrying out comparative empirical studies of what the local newspapers report about their country’s hosting of sport mega-events in relation to the identified imperatives, against what the international newspapers report. One might compare the themes emerging and their prominence in each. As shown by the current study, the most prominent emerging theme in terms of the identified strategic imperatives was the country’s hosting capability, which was mostly covered unfavourably, with reports on protests, incomplete stadiums, corruption and inadequate budgets. Future research may try to test hypotheses about the international media, particularly the Western media, being more negative than the national media in a developing country. In most cases, the international media is tainted with stories about a lack of security, corruption, drug trafficking, extreme violence against women, human rights abusers, warlords, weak government, and much else that serves to produce a negative picture of a country (Azizi, n.d:1). Another interesting aspect to look at in future research, especially on Brazil, would be the media reports from Brazil’s partner countries in the BRICs bloc. Thus, the study could look at Russia, India, China and South Africa’s way of reporting about their member state (Brazil)’s involvement in the hosting of sport mega-events. The results from these could then be compared with the Western media’s, which are always assumed to be negative, especially when developing nations are being when covered (Alam, 2007:60). Alam (2007:60) adds, “the Western public sees a distorted view of the developing world – a situation for which the public in question can hardly be totally free of blame.” From the findings, similarities and differences could be drawn in relation to the identified strategic objectives of hosting the sport mega-event. Conducting comparative empirical studies of this nature would bring valuable knowledge to the understudied subject of sport mega-events.

Another interesting future research area that may be pursued would involve examining different types of mega-events, for example, the Commonwealth Games, FIFA World Cup™ and the Olympic Games. The FIFA World Cup™ is usually hosted in several cities whereas other sport mega-events such as the Olympic and Commonwealth Games are concentrated within a single city; for example, the 2016 Olympic Games was hosted by Rio de Janeiro, while the 2022 Commonwealth Games will be hosted by Durban. A single city sport mega-event puts the city more in the spotlight, whereas events such as the FIFA World Cup™
where a number of host cities are selected put the whole country into the spotlight (Law, 2002:147).

5.6 Summary

The study investigated the media impact of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ in selected tourism markets. The outcomes of the study highlight the importance of the media in profiling a destination. Positive and negative reporting about the host destination was noticed, and this varied according to the stage in the event process. As highlighted in this study and in the previous similar study on South Africa and Cape Town, the lead-up period had the highest negative media coverage especially in the US market (Swart et al., 2012) whilst Brazil had the highest overall negative coverage about the hosting of the Cup. This result cautions event marketers to come up with better strategies to manage and enhance the image of destinations. Strategies may include working closely with the media so that whenever there is unfavourable reporting about an event, counter-messages are given to correct the reporting. Event organisers can also work closely with the government so that press conferences can be held and key stakeholders can provide clarity on any reported matter. In addition, the provision of platforms where key government officials can respond to issues concerning matters reported is also important in managing media reporting. The country can use this positive coverage to strengthen its image and at the same time act on the reports that are negative and find ways to promote its destination image. In addition, the country can strengthen its understanding of how the media in different markets covers the strategic imperative of hosting the event. By doing this, it enables it to build on the positive associations and mitigate against the negative ones.

International sporting competitions such as the FIFA World Cup™ capture global attention partly because of the intense rivalry amongst countries wanting to host them. This itself attracts considerable media coverage (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006:2). The extensive media attention these events obtain is often used to support the bidding rationale and the idea of ‘putting countries on the map’. There is therefore a need to conduct media impact studies as there is scant empirical research, particularly on sport mega-events, and especially in the context of developing countries. This study examined the media content for four key tourism markets over four stages or periods of time. It found that although there was negative reporting about Brazil and Rio de Janeiro hosting the 2014 FIFA World Cup™, positive views were prevalent across countries pre-2014, during and post-2014. However, it is also important to underscore that several nuances were highlighted in the different markets across the periods which should be taken into consideration in the future event marketing and positioning of Rio de Janeiro as a major tourism and events destination for Brazil, and especially in relation to Rio de Janeiro’s hosting of future events.
The findings reveal that there were both positive and negative sentiments associated with Brazil’s hosting of the event. A key finding from the analysis was that for all the markets, there was a shift of sentiments from being relatively positive in the pre-World Cup period to mostly negative in the lead-up, and back to more positive sentiments during and post-World Cup periods respectively. Having shifted to a more negative view leading up to and during the event, the USA market was dominated by attention to social unrest and corruption. The period immediately prior to the tournament recorded an increase in both positive and negative media coverage in the US, Germany and Portuguese markets, but shifted to even more positive in the Argentinian market. Therefore, the lead-up period in particular became significant for all the markets. Swart et al. (2012) note that the lead-up period is critical, especially for setting and addressing expectations for future events. While safety and security concerns expressed in the lead-up period decreased significantly during the hosting and post periods, the positive sentiments emerging during the event should be more aggressively capitalised on. Brazil should address any lurking concerns to overcome the negative perceptions that continue despite the successful hosting of the mega-event, to consolidate the nation brand’s position in a sustained positive way.

The study has implications, particularly for the legacy of sport mega-events and the future hosting of these kinds of events. It is clear from the study that the lead-up period was crucial in all the markets, the period when the most exposure of Brazil and Rio de Janeiro occurred. The lead-up period is viewed as critical since it is the time when expectations for the event are set and the beginning of the event shows dominance of event-related communication (Cape Higher Education Consortium (CHEC), 2012:188). Safety and security concerns were highest in the period immediately prior to the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ but dropped off significantly during the hosting period, and this could be because fears were not realised. However, there remain concerns around social problems including crime, drug abuse and violence, but these are more closely associated with the nation brand than the city brand of Rio de Janeiro. Media reports highlighting and providing evidence of the City of Rio de Janeiro and the country at large investing resources to address the challenges facing them was noticed in the coverage.

The media coverage of Brazil’s hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup™ was examined in this study. The country and the event were covered positively and negatively, and this coverage was evaluated in relation to the strategic imperatives of hosting the event. The findings pointed to the importance of the media’s being utilised as a tool to rebrand nations hosting sport mega-events.
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### Appendix A: Summary of strategic imperatives and the source documents

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<tr>
<th>Key imperatives</th>
<th>Underlying imperatives</th>
<th>Source documentations</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Hosting capability</td>
<td><strong>Stadium construction and renovation/upgrade</strong></td>
<td>Bid Inspection Report (2014); Strategic Plan Rio2013-2016; Sustainable Brazil (2014);</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Maracana stadium (12 stadiums)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Fatalities during stadia construction</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Accommodation</strong></td>
<td>Strategic Plan Rio2013-2016; Bid Inspection Report (2014);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Quality &amp; Capacity</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Build accommodation i.e. hotels</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Standard accommodation</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Transport &amp; Public Mobility</strong></td>
<td>Sustainability Strategy – Concept (2012); Bid Inspection Report (2014); Strategic Plan Rio2013-2016; BR GOV Strategic Plan Rio2012-2031; Sustainable Brazil (2014); Urban Mobility Plan: Rio 2011; Country Strategy With Brazil (2012);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Upgrades of transport systems i.e. airports &amp; road</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• modernization and expansion of the transportation systems</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• investment in transport</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Conforming to FIFA standards/requirements</strong></td>
<td>Bid Inspection Report (2014); Strategic Plan Rio2013-2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• FIFA Bidding Agreement</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Service delivery</strong></td>
<td>Strategic Plan Rio2013-2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Capabilities of local skills set</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Health delivery</strong></td>
<td>Strategic Plan Rio2013-2016; Country Strategy With Brazil (2012)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Develop healthcare systems</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Equip emergency services</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Information Technology &amp; Technology Availability</strong></td>
<td>Bid Inspection Report (2014); FIFA 2014: Goal Line Technology;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Availability of Broadband for image transmission</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Ticketing</strong></td>
<td>Bid Inspection Report (2014); BR GOV: Tickets Sale; FIFA.com: Ticket Sales Regulations (2013);</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Ticket prices and distribution (access)</td>
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<td>Safety and security</td>
<td><strong>Crime, Safety &amp; Security Capabilities</strong></td>
<td>BR GOV - Aldo Rebelo (Sports Minister 2013); Bid Inspection Report (2014); Strategic Plan Rio2013-2016; BR GOV Strategic Plan Rio2012-2031; Sustainable Brazil (2014); Sérgio Cabral: UPP; Watercolor 2020; World Cup Security Plan (2014); Country Strategy With Brazil (2012);</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Perceptions of Crime, Safety &amp; Security</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Disaster management plan</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• UPP Police Pacification Units</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Tourism, Business and socio-cultural
- Heritage and history
- Culture & Arts – football loving nation
- Lifestyle
- Brazilian people etc...

### Improve perceptions of destination
- Destination branding
- Destination image/profile
- Add new attributes to country image
- Increase the knowledge of the regional attractions of Brazil
- Establish the need to have a receptive attitude (in its various dimensions: hospitality, services, culture, etc..) in the population
- Coupling the country’s image as an important agent for the economy and international politics
- Show Brazil as a multicultural country with multi-ethnic and multi-religious, and peaceful country

### Emerging economy
- Promote Brazil as an emerging economy
- Coordination of various government efforts (host cities and partners)
- Improve the tourist and hotel industry.

### Attract tourism
- Attract more tourists
- Increase knowledge of the regional attractions of Brazil
- Increase knowledge of Brazil as a tourist destination in all its diversity using pre-Cup
- Promote repeat visitation
- Maximise tourist experience
- Expand benefits of tourism to new regions

### Sustainable development
- Promote responsible tourism principles
- Sustainable jobs
- Open business opportunities i.e. increase exports
- Stimulate economic growth (GDP)
- Attach importance to the country image to the economy and international politics

### Future use of stadia
- Legacy management (sport facility)
- Entertainment facility
- Poverty alleviation
- Attract investment to various regions

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Appendix B: Ethics approval/clearance certificate to conduct the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Office of the Chairperson Research Ethics Committee</th>
<th>Faculty: BUSINESS</th>
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</thead>
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At a meeting of the Research Ethics Committee on 03 September 2014, Ethics Approval was granted to MURESHERWA, Gift (210228846) for research activities related to the MTech/DTech: MTech: TOURISM & HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

<table>
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<tr>
<td>Supervisor:</td>
<td>Prof K Swart &amp; Ms T Daniels</td>
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Comment:
Decision: APPROVED

Signed: Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee
Date: 03 September 2014

Signed: Chairperson: Faculty Research Committee
Date:
### Appendix C: Compound concepts for the search periods

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### Category: Search-Period_Hosting

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## Appendix D: Compound concepts for the markets and ranked concepts

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**Sentiment overall by time periods and imperatives**

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### Appendix E: Supporting text summary

**Category: Brazil**

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<td>SAO PAULO, Brazil SINCE early June, protests that began out of anger over public transit fare increases have spread across Brazil, filling the streets of Sao Paulo, Rio de Janeiro and dozens of other cities with hundreds of thousands of demonstrators. On June 13, the police cracked down violently and the protests mushroomed.</td>
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<td>While the protesters in Spain, Greece or Turkey have made the experience that it does not matter whether conservatives or social democrats, Kemalists or Islamists Govern them, many people in Brazil fear the neoliberal rollback. Against this background, distanced the &quot;Movement for the free transport&quot; (MPL), which had set the protests in Sao-Paulo in motion early on the movement and criticized the growing influence of rights during the protests.</td>
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<tr>
<td>problems</td>
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<td>As antigovernment protests have dwindled substantially in size, a new survey shows that Brazil is softening in its views of the World-Cup buoyed by a series of stunning matches and a lack of major problems in the hosting of the tournament itself. In the survey, conducted Tuesday and Wednesday by Datafolha, a leading Brazilian Research Company, 60 percent of respondents said they were proud of the organization of the World-Cup up from 45 percent just a month ago.</td>
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<td>It would be a presumption to think that we understand what is happening, Gilberto Carvalho, a top aide to President Dilma Rousseff, told senators on Tuesday. We need to be aware of the complexity of what is occurring. The swell of anger is a stunning change from the giddy celebrations that occurred in 2007, when Brazil was chosen by soccer's governing body to host the World-Cup At the time, dozens of climbers scaled Rio-de-Janeiro's Sugar Loaf Mountain, from which they hung an enormous jersey with the words The 2014 World-Cup is Ours.</td>
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<td>SAO PAULO With disturbing images of fans hitting each other shown across Brazil, soccer's governing body downplayed the risk of violence inside stadiums during the World-Cup. FIFA condemned the mayhem in the southern city of Joinville, where fan fighting halted a decisive Brazilian league match for more than an hour Sunday. Four people were hospitalized, including one person who was airlifted from the field.</td>
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<td>RIO-DE-JANEIRO When huge protests rocked Brazilian cities a year ago, Raphael Rabelo was among the multitudes in the streets, even joining the thousands of demonstrators enraged with political corruption and spending on lavish World-Cup stadiums who danced on the roof of the Congress building in Brasilia. But in a U-turn reflecting shifting attitudes in Brazil about the soccer tournament now that it is underway, Mr. Rabelo, 24, an editor at a video production company, finds himself glued to a television screen for the games, especially when Brazil's national team is playing, instead of protesting in Brazil's national team is playing, instead of protesting in the streets.</td>
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<td>The growing list of troubled development projects includes a $3.4 billion network of concrete canals in the drought-plagued hinterland of northeast Brazil which was supposed to be finished in 2010 as well as dozens of new wind farms idled by a lack of transmission lines and unfinished luxury hotels blighting Rio-de-Janeiro's skyline.</td>
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<td>Sipping orange juice and nibbling on cashews at a spacious circular table in her office, she defended loans from state banks for</td>
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new stadiums for the soccer tournament and insisted that Brazilians planning to shun the event were a small minority. As the start of this year's World-Cup on June 12 approaches, Ms. Rousseff is grappling with a wave of strikes, a sluggish economy and a presidential race pitting her against rivals who have climbed in public opinion polls. 

| stadium  | SÃO PAULO A construction worker fell to his death Saturday from the roof of a World-Cup stadium being built in the jungle city of Manaus, marking the latest setback to hit Brazil before it hosts football's showcase event next year. It was the second death at the Arena Amazonia this year, and the third fatality in a World-Cup stadium in less than a month. |
| Cities construction | With host Brazil opening the Confederations Cup against Japan on Saturday, Brazil minister of sports Aldo Rebelo defended the country's preparations that have been beset by construction delays and cost overruns. Six stadiums in the cities of Belo Horizonte, Brasilia, Fortaleza, Recife, Rio-de-Janeiro and Salvador will get a test run during the 17-day Confederations Cup before hosting World-Cup games next year. |
| police | The recent incidents in Rio-de-Janeiro grow the concerns: Will the FIFA World-Cup in Brazil to be sure? The Secretary of State Security in the state of Rio-de-Janeiro Jose Mariano Beltrame, refers to the massive police operation and guarantees a safe World-Cup In light of recent incidents in Endspielort Rio-de-Janeiro , Jose Mariano Beltrame, Secretary of Homeland Security in the State of Rio-de-Janeiro for the safety of the World-Cup (June 12-July 13) once again guaranteed. |
| problems | Dubai, an emirate with global ambitions to diversify, expanded its airport recently with a new terminal paved with white marble, devoted to its growing fleet of Airbus A380s double-deckers. Similarly, Beijing greets foreign travelers with a gleaming and spacious new international terminal. |
| security | It would be a presumption to think that we understand what is happening, Gilberto Carvalho, a top aide to President Dilma Rousseff, told senators on Tuesday. We need to be aware of the complexity of what is occurring. The swell of anger is a stunning change from the giddy celebrations that occurred in 2007, when Brazil was chosen by soccer s governing body to host the World-Cup At the time, dozens of climbers scaled Rio-de-Janeiro s Sugar Loaf Mountain, from which they hung an enormous jersey with the words The 2014 World-Cup is Ours. |
| safety | "In June, for the Confederations Cup, 50 thousand men were mobilized throughout the Brazil. We estimate 100 thousand the number of security professionals that will be mobilized for the World-Cup "(which will have 12 host cities), said Andrei Rao, in the Centro Integrado Regional command and control of Rio-de-Janeiro. This total includes the effective civil police (public safety), and military road and the national force, an elite force that could intervene in case of need. |
| problems | Five workers have died on World-Cup stadium construction sites, the latest the death of Marcleudo de Melo Ferreira, who fell from the roof of a stadium in the Amazonian city of Manaus in December. Many of the stadiums are behind with their construction deadlines and there have been concerns that Brazil's transport network could create major logistical problems. Preparations for the World-Cup have also been controversial in Brazil. |
| stadium construction | He is thus the fifth person who died during the construction before the 2014 World-Cup in Brazil. Only a week before the World-Cup draw two workers had died when a crane that have fallen the roof partially brought to collapse during construction of the World-Cup stadium in Sao-Paulo Previously, a person already died from an accident in Manaus and another in a stadium in the capital Brasilia. |
| construction safety | The 22-year-old's death, which followed Manaus' first fatality in March 2013, prompted his fellow construction workers to go on strike until they received assurances of improved safety conditions. These appear to still be in some doubt following the death of Martins, a Portuguese national. |
| security police | "We don't want to continue any protest during the actual World-Cup Taking police off the streets during such an event would be unacceptable blackmail," said Janio Bosco Gandra, president of the Brazilian Confederation of Civil Police Workers, which is organizing Wednesday's "paralysis" day involving civil, federal and highway police. "We want to send the message that the
government has had no strategy to improve its security forces, which has left Brazil vulnerable to violence and corruption,” said Bosco Gandra.

FIFA said it could not comment on what happened in Joinville because it was not involved in the match, but noted it is confident with its World-Cup security plans. “For the 2014 FIFA World-Cup a very comprehensive security concept is in place in an integrated operation between private and public security authorities to ensure the safety for fans, players and any other stakeholder involved in the event,” the governing body said “The concept has worked very well during the FIFA Confederations Cup and is built on models used at previous FIFA World Cups.”

“The ticket sales success is there, we have never sold so many tickets.” FIFA’s satisfaction is not shared across Brazil.

“In June, for the Confederations Cup, 50 thousand men were mobilized throughout the Brazil. We estimate 100 thousand the number of security professionals that will be mobilized for the World-Cup ”(which will have 12 host cities), said Andrei Rao, in the Centro Integrado Regional command and control of Rio-de-Janeiro, This total includes the effective civil police (public safety), and military road and the national force, an elite force that could intervene in case of need.

The Secretary of Protecci n Ciudadan Municipio of Tiger, Diego Santill n visited different areas of the capital of Brazil and inward about the safety of neighboring devices.

### Category: Rio-de-janeiro

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Related Concept</th>
<th>Supporting Text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>police</td>
<td>cities</td>
<td>One day after peaceful protests in Rio-de-Janeiro and other cities descended into chaotic street battles between protesters and the police, and tensions boiled over between factions within the demonstrations as well, a congressman who once helped Brazil win a World-Cup railed against the cost of staging next year’s tournament. Speaking in a video posted on YouTube (not yet subtitled in English), the former soccer star Rom rio threw his support behind the demonstrations and criticized what he called waste and mismanagement on an epic scale in the preparations for the 2014 World-Cup.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>protests</td>
<td>The days of mass protests in Brazil show effect: The controversial fare increases for buses and subways have been withdrawn. While thousands of protesters in Sao-Paulo celebrated the news peaceful, there was in Niter i, Rio-de-Janeiro again clashes with the police.</td>
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<tr>
<td>security</td>
<td>A gigantic security device, with 20 thousand military and police, tanks, anti-aircraft guns, rocket launchers and armed frigates, Rio-de-Janeiro, stage, starting next Wednesday, the UN Conference on sustainable development ( Rio-de-Janeiro + 20).</td>
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<tr>
<td>tickets</td>
<td>RIO-DE-JANEIRO A total of 131 World-Cup tickets, including 70 for corporate hospitality packages, was seized by Rio-de-Janeiro police in an investigation into ticket scalping. FIFA marketing director Thierry Weil on Saturday disclosed details of the investigation, in which 11 people have been arrested, saying that 60 tickets were originally issued direct to the public.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>safety</td>
<td>Worries over the safety of World-Cup construction projects were highlighted Thursday when an overpass built as part of a transit system for the World-Cup in the city of Belo Horizonte collapsed, killing at least two people and injuring at least 15, Brazilian news organizations reported. While the interactions between Brazilians and visiting fans have been generally warm and cordial, security forces have cracked down violently on some celebrating outsiders, with the police in Rio-de-Janeiro and Sao Paulo using pepper spray and a smoke bomb to disperse crowds of Argentines.</td>
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<tr>
<td>cities</td>
<td>construction</td>
<td>About the question whether the 32 teams was indeed time to get the 64 games in the various cities and stadiums - after all, are the twelve host cities - Brasilia, Sao-Paulo, Rio-de-Janeiro, Curitiba, Porto Alegre, Recife, Natal, Manaus, Salvador Bahia, Fortaleza, Belo Horizonte and Cuiab - considerably further apart than the big cities in Germany to host the 2006 World-Cup Also</td>
</tr>
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</table>
at the stadiums themselves there are delays. While Fortaleza and Belo Horizonte, whose stadium "Miner o" was composed of German architects Gerkan, Marg and Partners (gmp) rebuilt their arenas on time gave in December of FIFA, let the Maracana in Rio-de-Janeiro waiting.

protests

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security

Walk through the airport in Brasilia, capital of the country and home of the Estadio Nacional where many of the World-Cup matches will be played, and you're surrounded by construction workers securing windows. Across the street from the stadium, dozens of workers have spent the week planting grass and trees to fill the city's main plaza, where the national Congress, presidential palace and main government buildings sit.

stadium

SAO PAULO A top FIFA executive doesn't expect the World-Cup opener in Sao Paulo to be affected by the construction delays at the stadium where a crane collapse killed two workers last year. Secretary General Jerome Valcke visited the Itaquerao stadium Monday to begin the governing body's first inspection tour of the year leading to the World-Cup in June. He will visit three other host cities before meeting with local organizers in Rio-de-Janeiro on Thursday. "In a way I would say the pressure is a little bit bigger here," Valcke said at a news conference at the Itaquerao.

stadium

With host Brazil opening the Confederations Cup against Japan on Saturday, Brazil minister of sports Aldo Rebelo defended the country's preparations that have been beset by construction delays and cost overruns. Six stadiums in the cities of Belo Horizonte, Brasilia, Fortaleza, Recife, Rio-de-Janeiro and Salvador will get a test run during the 17-day Confederations Cup before hosting World-Cup games next year.

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about the direction of the country as the economic slump has persisted amid waves of antigovernment protests, reflecting demands from the growing middle class for better services. The divisions are manifesting themselves in unlikely ways; even as many Brazilians voice support for a soccer team that has long been the nation’s passion and pride, others are expressing unhappiness with the sport being placed above other priorities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>construction problems</th>
<th>The renovated Maracana Stadium in Rio-de-Janeiro will be officially opened on 24 April. Football’s world governing body FIFA was concerned by the delays and re-announced for Tuesday at a meeting with construction companies, local authorities and operators. Last Rio-de-Janeiro made headlines because the city the Estadio Olmpico Jo o Havelange had been forced to close.</th>
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<td>The nation’s civil service has grown significantly over the past decade, tax revenues are soaring and there is no shortage of laws and regulations governing the minutiae of companies large and small. Yet preventable disasters still commonly claim lives in Brazil, as illustrated by Rio-de-Janeiro’s building collapses, manhole explosions and trolley mishaps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tickets</td>
<td>Both Sao Paulo and Rio-de-Janeiro agreed to roll back the prices on bus and metro tickets. But will it be too little, too late?</td>
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<td>stadium problems</td>
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<td>stadiums</td>
<td>SAO PAULO, Brazil reaffirmed its reputation as a powerhouse of global soccer in the opening match here of the World-Cup on Thursday, setting off street parties around the country, but its widening political fissures were also on display for an international audience. Fans inside the new stadium made obscene jeers against both President Dilma Rousseff and FIFA, the organization that oversees international soccer and the World-Cup reflecting anxieties and discontents of an economic slowdown, spending on lavish stadiums and reports of corruption involving FIFA itself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>problems</td>
<td>The bad Rio-de-Janeiro stories are really quite bad; many involve tourists, and some are uncomfortably recent. You would never know from looking at the alluring Web site of the Santa Teresa Hotel, one of the loveliest and priciest establishments in the city, for example, that its guests were robbed at gunpoint in 2011.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stadiums</td>
<td>So far, the Castelo were opened, Fortaleza, and Mineiro, Belo Horizonte stadiums, and this month is expected to be handed the new Maracana, Rio-de-Janeiro, and Mane Garrincha or National, Brasilia.</td>
</tr>
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APPENDIX F: Strategic imperative analysis for individual markets

US Market
FIFA World Cup 2014
CAPABILITY themes associated with each location
[Articles from 1/6/2012 - 31/12/2014]

Number of Theme mentions
Accommodation Infrastructure Stadiums Cost Ticketing
Brazil Rio de Janeiro

Germany Market
FIFA World Cup 2014
CAPABILITY themes associated with each location
[Articles from 1/6/2012 - 31/12/2014]

Number of Theme mentions
Accommodation Infrastructure Stadiums Cost Ticketing
Brazil Rio de Janeiro

Portugal Market
FIFA World Cup 2014
CAPABILITY themes associated with each location
[Articles from 1/6/2012 - 31/12/2014]

Number of Theme mentions
Accommodation Infrastructure Stadiums Cost Ticketing
Brazil Rio de Janeiro

Argentinian Market
FIFA World Cup 2014
CAPABILITY themes associated with each location
[Articles from 1/6/2012 - 31/12/2014]

Number of Theme mentions
Accommodation Infrastructure Stadiums Cost Ticketing
Brazil Rio de Janeiro
US Market
FIFA World Cup 2014
SAFETY & SECURITY themes associated with each location
[Articles from 1/6/2012 - 31/12/2014]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Protests</th>
<th>Safety &amp; security</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>102</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rio de Janeiro</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>246</td>
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</table>

German Market
FIFA World Cup 2014
SAFETY & SECURITY themes associated with each location
[Articles from 1/6/2012 - 31/12/2014]

<table>
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<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>116</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rio de Janeiro</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>213</td>
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Portugal Market
FIFA World Cup 2014
SAFETY & SECURITY themes associated with each location
[Articles from 1/6/2012 - 31/12/2014]

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<tbody>
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<td>Brazil</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rio de Janeiro</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>177</td>
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Argentinian Market
FIFA World Cup 2014
SAFETY & SECURITY themes associated with each location
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<td>Brazil</td>
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<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rio de Janeiro</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Beach Corrupton Powerful Problem

US Market
FIFA World Cup 2014
DESTINATION IMAGE themes associated with each location
[Articles from 1/6/2012 - 31/12/2014]

Brazil  Rio de Janeiro

German Market
FIFA World Cup 2014
DESTINATION IMAGE themes associated with each location
[Articles from 1/6/2012 - 31/12/2014]

Brazil  Rio de Janeiro

Portugal Market
FIFA World Cup 2014
DESTINATION IMAGE themes associated with each location
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