



Cape Peninsula  
University of Technology

**CAMEROONIAN FANS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD  
CUP: A CASE STUDY OF BUEA AND LIMBE**

by

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**in the Faculty of Business**

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## **DECLARATION**

I, Tembi Maloney Tichaawa, declare that the content of this thesis represents my own unaided work, and that the thesis 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.

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**Signed**

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**Date**



## **ABSTRACT**

Football is considered one of the most important sports in several of the 53 countries in Africa, with the largest viewership and participation. By hosting the 2010 Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup, South Africa will be placing Africa on the global sporting stage. The event has been widely promoted by the host nation as an 'African Cup', with socio-economic and environmental legacies projected for the African continent. Given the limited knowledge that exists of the profile of African football tourists who attend World Cup events, a case study of Cameroon is undertaken in the current thesis. The thesis focuses on South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, and on whether the country, indeed, views the event as an 'African World Cup'. The target population in the study includes soccer fans and football stakeholders in Cameroon. A total of 728 questionnaires were administered to soccer fans in Buea and Limbe during a soccer match using the systematic stratified random sampling method. Key informant interviews were conducted with 10 football stakeholders using a convenience sampling method.

The key findings of the study reveal the profile of those African fans who intend to travel to attend the event to be male, of approximately 31 years in age, in full-time employ or self-employed, and earning a monthly income of R3201.75. Additionally, the 2010 event is likely to witness an increase in the participation of African fans, particularly those from Cameroon, at FIFA World Cup events. Furthermore, Cameroonian fans were found to have a generally positive perception of the 2010 FIFA World Cup event and the associated African legacy. However, the view that the event is regarded as an "African World Cup" is in contention, as is the idea that it will improve the life of African people after the event.

The current study recommends that, in order to justify the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the realisation of legacy benefits for Africa as a whole, including South Africa, the organisers should be mindful of the source of investments, as well as where such investments should be distributed in the form of economic infrastructure development. For effective distribution of investments to occur, innovative planning and organisation are required to ensure that identifiable legacy benefits are attained. In addition, although the perceptions of South Africa held by African fans as a whole were found to be positive, the presence of issues of crime and xenophobia were noted, albeit acknowledged as having minimal effect. The 2010

event, through its ability to reach millions of Africans and the rest of the world through the media, presents an opportunity to change such perceptions. However, the organisers should ensure the management and provision of adequate pragmatic-based information to the media, which should help to reduce negative perceptions regarding the event.

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## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to my late parents: Pa Tichaawa Isaiah Muki, who was a true academic in his own right, and Mercy Bii Tichaawa.



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## ACRONYMS

ALP	African Legacy Programme
AsgiSA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa
AU	African Union
CAF	Confederation of African Football
CAI	Consultancy Africa Intelligence
CCTV	Closed-Circuit Television
CWC	Cricket World Cup
DEAT	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
FC	Football Club
FECAFOOT	Fédération Camerounaise de Football
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
HIV/AIDS	Human Immune Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
IRB	International Rugby Board
ISS	Institute for Safety and Security
LOC	Local Organising Committee
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MTN	Mobile Telephone Network
NBC	National Broadcasting Corporation
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
PAPI	Paper and Pencil Interviews
PVA	Public Viewing Area
RWC	Rugby World Cup
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAFA	South African Football Association
SAHRC	South African Human Rights Commission
SAPS	South African Police Services
SAST	South Africa Sport Tourism
SAT	South African Tourism
SFMS	Sport Fan Motivation Scale
SMMEs	Small, Medium and Macro Enterprises
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UEFA	Union of European Football Associations
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	United Nations Joint Programme on HIV/AIDS
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WTO	World Tourism Organisation
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO STUDY

#### 1.1 Introduction

Sport mega-events have increasingly become the subject of research in tourism and event literature (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004; Kim & Chalip, 2004; Kim & Morrison, 2005). The pursuit of sport mega-events has become increasingly popular in terms of developmental strategies for a wide range of urban, regional, and national governments, along with their social and economic allies (Black, 2007). Cornelissen and Swart (2006:100) refer to mega-events as “complex affairs, which originate from a specific set of economic objectives, but which have political and social corollaries that usually extend far beyond”. They further contend that sport mega-events are generally initiated and driven by cadres of societal (political and corporate) elites, and that they are aimed at satisfying development goals or ambitions around projection, competitiveness or growth targets. Emery (2002:316) adds that cities around the world are increasingly choosing to host high-profile sporting events as a potential growth strategy, and as a means for achieving strategic corporate objectives.

Kim, Gursoy and Lee (2004:86) assert that “international sporting events such as the summer and winter Olympics and the Federation Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup are categorised as hallmark or mega-events”. Ritchie (1984:2) refers to hallmark events as “major one time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short-term or long-term. Such events rely on their success, uniqueness, status, or timely significance to create interest and attract attention.” A review of literature based on the triple (economic, social and environmental) bottom-line approach suggests that economic benefits are put forward as prime motives for the development and hosting of mega-events (Allmers & Maennig, 2008; Black, 2007; Bohlmann, 2006; Cornelissen & Swart, 2006; Kim *et al.*, 2004; Kim & Chalip, 2004). Positive impact on employment, additional spending in the host community, increased spectator and tourist numbers, and extended media coverage, are some of the claims that are made for hosting mega-events (Kim *et al.*, 2004). Due to the touted wide range of publicised benefits that can accrue as a result of hosting mega-events, understandably, intense rivalry and competition exist in regards to the hosting



of such events (Cornelissen, 2006). Alegi (2001:2) corroborates the above assertion, stating that the World Cup “delivers a rationale for revitalising the communication and civic infrastructures.... It provides a forum for the articulation and celebration of national pride, and could deliver huge profits.”

South Africa's post-apartheid era has seen the country become a popular tourist destination. Nationally, the sports and leisure industry has also grown significantly since South Africa's readmission into the arena of international sport. Increasingly, South African teams have come to participate internationally and, in so doing, enhance sport tourism, as well as related, business opportunities (Bohlmann, 2006). Alegi (2001:1) points to landmark events, including the 1995 Rugby World Cup (RWC), the African Cup of Nations in 1996 and the 2003 Cricket World Cup (CWC), which have been held in post-apartheid South Africa.

During the 1998 Africa Cup of Nations which was held in Burkina Faso, the South African Football Association (SAFA) indicated its intention to launch a bid to host the 2006 FIFA World Cup. The most significant quality of the bid was its pan-Africanist basis, which was embodied in its logo and slogan: “It's Africa's turn!” The slogan was aimed at conveying a message to the rest of the world that Africa had never before been given an opportunity to host a major spectacle of this magnitude, and was also intended to garner as much African support for South Africa's bid as possible (Cornelissen, 2004). South Africa's efforts to canvas for African votes in its 2006 bid were contentious, given Morocco's entrance to the race, and the fact that both the South African and the Moroccan bids had similar foundations (Alegi, 2001).

The extensive politicking and diplomatic courtship saw both South Africa and Morocco lose the 2006 bid to the eventual winner, Germany (Alegi, 2007; Cornelissen, 2006). The decision led to a general outcry of marginalisation from the African countries, which resulted in a continental rotational bidding system being introduced by FIFA, leading to the bids for the 2010 event being limited to countries from the African continent (Cornelissen, 2006).

The 2010 bidding process rekindled South Africa's rivalry with Morocco during the final bidding stage, with both countries submitting strong bids (Cornelissen, 2007).

During the early stages of the bid process, the South African government wholeheartedly supported preparations that were being made for the event. The emphasis was placed on showcasing the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an African event (in the form of an African World Cup). Such an event was envisaged as promoting a sense of confidence and prosperity across the entire continent (South Africa, 2008). In the 2003 bid book, the then South Africa's, Thabo Mbeki, underscored the foundation of the country's bid for the event in "a resolve to ensure that the twenty first century unfolds as a century of growth and development in Africa" (South Africa, 2008:1). He further asserted that:

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

In May 2004, South Africa was granted a key opportunity and honour when it was nominated as the first African nation to host the FIFA World Cup in 2010. Consequently, the country is presently busy preparing for the successful staging of the event (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007).

According to Darby (2000:883), the development of African football in the international playing arena during the last 25 years has been such that several noted commentators have predicted that the name of an African nation will soon appear on the FIFA World Cup trophy. Pannenberg (2008:8) contends that football is the most important sport in several of the 53 countries in Africa, attracting the most viewers and participants.

Darby (2000:2) alleges that, since the independence movements surfaced during the late 1950s and 1960s, most African nations have remained firmly rooted at the base of the world economic and political order; however, in the global sport arena, Africa has made its presence felt, and it is perhaps in international football that the continent's sports stars have made their most important impact. Darby further observes that both the FIFA World Cup events and the Olympic football tournaments have been enriched by the presence of African nations.



Pannenberg (2008) notes Cameroon's achievements at the 1990 FIFA World Cup in Italy, when they became the first African nation to qualify for the quarter-finals of the tournament. They also won a gold medal at the Olympic Games in Sydney in 2000. Nicknamed the 'Indomitable Lions' by their fans, the national football team has won four Confederation of African Football (CAF) Nations Cups, and has represented Africa on five occasions at the FIFA World Cup. During the 1980s and 1990s, the team boasted of such football stars and icons as the African player of the century, Roger Albert Mila, and Patrick Mboma, as well as, currently, three times CAF footballer of the year and former Barcelona and current Inter Milan football club centre forward Samuel Eto'o Fils (Pannenberg, 2008).

Nkwi and Vidacs (1997), in their research into football, politics and power in Cameroon, concluded that it is perhaps the national football team's performances, coupled with their fans' colourful and patriotic support, which has placed the nation on the map, rather than the country's good governance and democratic history.

With South Africa showcasing the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an 'African World Cup', and Cameroon being considered as a great football nation, the current study is of key importance in determining the perceptions of its fans in relation to the World Cup. The study should also help to determine and enhance the quality and amount of knowledge that contributes to the establishment of the profiles of African soccer fans. Such profiling should facilitate the proper planning and management of the event.

This chapter provides a brief introduction to the study, including definitions of key terms and concepts which are used in the research, outlining the problem statement; the research questions; the aims and objectives of the study; the research methodology; and the structure of the study.

## **1.2 Clarification of basic terms and concepts**

### **1.2.1 FIFA World Cup**

The FIFA World Cup is a football tournament owned by FIFA, which is held once every four years. The tournament comprises 64 matches, involving 32 teams, which compete over a period of a month in the host nation(s) (South Africa, 2008). The tournament consists of two stages: a group stage, in which teams compete in eight groups of four teams each, and the knockout stage, which is a single-elimination tournament, in which teams play each other in once-off matches, with extra time and penalty shootouts used to decide the winner if necessary (South Africa, 2008).

### **1.2.2 Football**

Football is a game played by two teams, which try to kick an inflated leather ball into their opponent's goal. The game is also referred to as soccer (South Africa, 2008).

### **1.2.3 Hallmark events**

Ritchie (1984:2) defines a hallmark event as "major one time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short-term or long-term. Such events rely on their success, uniqueness, status, or timely significance to create interest and attract attention." Hall (1989:263) refers to hallmark events as those major international fairs, expositions, cultural and sporting event of international status which are held on either a regular or a one-off basis.

### **1.2.4 Legacy**

Mann (2008:2) refers to sport mega-event's legacy as "ensuring that as many long-term benefits are generated for the host city, region and nation – well before, during and long after the event".



### **1.2.5 Mega-events**

Mega-events are large-scale cultural (including commercial and sporting) events, which have a dramatic character, mass popular appeal and international significance (Roche 2000:1).

### **1.2.6 Perception**

Perception is a process by which an individual selects, organises and interprets information inputs to create a meaningful picture of the world (George, 2003).

### **1.2.7 Soccer fans**

Soccer fans (also referred to as football fans) and consumers are the fulcrums upon which sport leverages its popularity (Smith & Stewart, 2007). The fans watch live television broadcasts, listen to radio commentaries, read the sports pages of daily newspapers, dial into sport websites, buy sport-branded merchandise, and travel extensively to attend events (Horne, 2004).

### **1.2.8 Tourism**

Bennett (2005:5) defines tourism as "any activity concerned with the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, and activities during their stay at these destinations".

According to the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (2003), tourism is defined as "... activities of persons travelling to and outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes that are not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited".

### **1.2.9 Sport tourism**

Standeven and De Knop (1999:12) refer to 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 and commercial reasons that necessitate travel away from home and work locality”.

#### **1.2.10 Sport events tourism**

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

### **1.3 Statement of the research problem**

The FIFA World Cup, which will be hosted by South Africa in 2010, will be the first event of its kind to be held on the African continent. The event has been widely promoted by the host nation as an ‘African Cup’, with socio-economic and environmental legacies projected for the African continent (South Africa, 2008). Football is considered as one of the most popular sporting disciplines in Africa (Pannenberg, 2008). Cameroon, having won the CAF African Nations Cup on four occasions, and an Olympic gold medal in Sydney 2000, as well as having represented the African continent at five different FIFA World Cups, is considered as one of the giants of African football (Nkwi & Vidacs, 1997). Given the promotion of this event as an African World Cup, and the limited knowledge of the profile of an African football tourist to World Cup events, it was felt necessary to conduct a case study of Cameroon, in order to determine the perceptions of its soccer fans with regard to South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and whether the country views the event as an African World Cup.

### **1.4 Research questions**

The research questions that are dealt with in the current study consist of the following:

- What is the level of support for South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup among African, particularly Cameroonian, fans?
- Will Cameroonian fans travel to South Africa in order to attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup event?
- What is the profile of those Cameroonian fans who will travel to South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup?



- Will the Cameroonian fans travel to the 2010 FIFA World Cup as ticketed or non-ticketed fans?
- Where will the Cameroonian fans base themselves during the 2010 FIFA World Cup?
- What are the current perceptions of the image of South Africa among soccer fans from across Africa in general and from Cameroon in particular?
- What tourism potential exists for South Africa from other African countries and Cameroon in particular?
- Do the Cameroonian fans agree that socio-economic and environmental benefits will filter through to other African countries as a result of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

### **1.5 Research objectives**

The specific research objectives of this study are:

- to determine the level of support for South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup among Cameroonian fans, given that the country has only recently been re-admitted to FIFA as a member;
- to ascertain whether Cameroonian soccer fans would travel to South Africa to attend the 2010 event;
- to determine the profiles of those Cameroonian fans who intend to attend the 2010 event, as well as their travel patterns during the tournament;
- to ascertain whether Cameroonian fans would travel to South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup as either ticketed or non-ticketed fans;
- to determine where in South Africa Cameroonian fans would base themselves;
- to ascertain current perceptions of South Africa's image among Cameroonian soccer fans and to identify those factors that are likely to influence their participation;
- to identify tourism potential for South Africa emanating from the rest of Africa, and from Cameroon in particular, as a result of the hosting of the 2010 event; and
- to determine Cameroonian soccer fans' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the associated African legacy.

## **1.6 Methodology**

This study involves the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection.

### **1.6.1 Survey population**

The survey population includes football fans, match officials, coaches and team managers, as well as officials from the Fédération Camerounaise de Football (FECAFOOT).

### **1.6.2 Methods and tools for data collection**

#### **1.6.2.1 Secondary data sources**

Secondary data regarding tourism, sport tourism, mega-events in general, and South Africa, in particular, were sourced from books, journal articles, government publications, monographs, discourse papers, newspapers and the Internet.

Sources that were consulted for secondary data included:

- books dealing with topics relating to sport tourism event management; tourism marketing; tourism development; and tourist perceptions;
- the following journals, among others:
  - *Journal of Travel Research*;
  - *Politikon*;
  - *Journal of Sport Management*;
  - *Journal of Tourism Management*;
  - *Journal of Tourism Marketing*;
  - *Annals of Tourism Research*;
  - *Journal of Sport and Mega-events*; and
  - *Journal of Economic Development*;
- newspapers, including the *Cape Times*, the *Cape Argus* and the *Sunday Times*, among others;
- various Internet websites, such as those of FIFA ([www.fifa.com](http://www.fifa.com)), CAF ([www.cafonline.com](http://www.cafonline.com)), and FECAFOOT ([www.fecafootonline.com](http://www.fecafootonline.com)) were also assessed; and



- relevant theses and dissertations.

#### **1.6.2.2 Primary data sources**

Primary data sources that were employed in this investigation comprised questionnaires, which were designed and administered face-to-face.

##### **1.6.2.2.1 Questionnaires**

Questionnaire surveys are regarded as a commonly used method for gathering data about the population (Clark, Riley, Wilkie, & Wood, 1998). Such surveys are, more often than not, directed towards specific individuals and, in the case of this study, include football fans, stakeholders and key informants. Typically, such surveys include closed-ended questions, which are known to be useful for obtaining information that can be easily quantified. The open-ended questions included in the survey used in the current study were designed to gather additional information from fans and officials.

#### **1.6.3 Method of data analysis**

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to analyse the quantitative data in the current study. Such software describes and summarises data by using descriptive statistics, tables, bar charts, and graphic presentations. The qualitative data were analysed into conceptual categories, which were based on the constant comparative method.

#### **1.6.4 Sample selection**

The target population in the current study involves soccer fans and football stakeholders in Cameroon. A total of 738 questionnaires were administered, of which 728 questionnaires were administered to soccer fans. The 728 questionnaires were divided into those to be administered in two separate areas, namely Buea (367) and Limbe (361). The two case study areas are discussed in the next section. The questionnaires were administered during a soccer match, using the systematic stratified random sampling method. Additionally, key informant interviews were

conducted with 10 different football stakeholders, such as club presidents and owners, team managers, coaches, and officials, of the South Western branch of FECAFOOT, using a convenience sampling method. The sample was chosen based on the respective capacity (6 000 and 8 000) of the two different venues. The detailed methodology and sampling approach employed is presented in the methodology chapter (Chapter Four). The designated study areas are outlined in the next section of the thesis.

#### **1.6.4.1 Identification of study areas**

In order to collect the data required, questionnaire surveys were conducted in the following two designated areas of the South West Province in Cameroon: Limbe (in the Municipal Stadium) and Buea (in the Stade de Molyko).

Details relating to the selection of the above study areas are provided in Chapter Four, which deals with the research methodology adopted for the current study. The study areas were selected for those reasons, which are outlined below.

Limbe Municipal Stadium, with a seating capacity of over 6 000 spectators, is the home ground of Cameroonian premiere division club Tiko United.

Stade de Molyko is home to Cameroon's premiere division club, Mount Cameroon Football Club. The stadium has a seating capacity of 8 000.

#### **1.7 Delineation of the study**

The study is limited to investigating Cameroonian fans' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The focus is restricted to football fans and stakeholders between the ages of 18 and older who attend football games in the South West towns of Buea and Limbe.



## **1.8 Significance and contribution of the study**

A review of literature indicates that numerous studies have been conducted with regard to the socio-economic and environmental impacts of hosting mega-events internationally. Similarly, the body of knowledge that comprises analyses of the implications that South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup holds is growing. However, only limited research has been conducted so far with regard to South Africa's positioning of the 2010 event as an 'African World Cup'.

The current study aims to ascertain the profile of football tourists, particularly in relation to the identities of African football tourists, specifically those who will attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The study will also identify African opportunities relating to, and the support granted to South Africa in positioning the 2010 event as an 'African World Cup'.

Recommendations made in the study could be shared with the 2010 Local Organising Committee (LOC) and stakeholders, who might use findings of the study to ensure better planning (in relation to transportation, accommodation and fan parks) and marketing of the event, thereby taking a further step towards ensuring that the government achieve its objective of the event being perceived as an 'African World Cup'.

## **1.9 Format and style of the thesis**

The theoretical synopsis of literature in this study reflects practical development of the research, which is presented in six chapters, as discussed below.

### **1.9.1 Chapter One: Outline**

The introductory chapter provides a background to the research problem and a general overview of mega-events, with particular focus on the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The chapter also focuses on the aims and objectives of the study, as well as on the research approach and methods used to collect both primary and secondary data.

### **1.9.2 Chapter Two: Outline**

Chapter Two presents a literature review that provides a conceptual framework and theoretical overview of sport tourism and mega-events in relation to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Emphasis is placed on South Africa's positioning of the 2010 event as an 'African World Cup'. An overview of the political economy of sport mega-events is analysed in order to establish possible support for South Africa's hosting of the event, among the claims made by other African countries. The chapter also discusses the current perceptions of South Africa's image among other African countries. The intention is to determine and accentuate factors that might influence or hinder soccer fans' participation and attendance at the 2010 World Cup, as well as the consequences that such factors hold for the tourism sector.

### **1.9.3 Chapter Three: Outline**

Chapter Three reviews literature on the profiles of football fans and their motivation for travel. The chapter also covers the related requirements for such events as the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

### **1.9.4 Chapter Four: Outline**

Chapter Four discusses the methodology employed in the current study. It also documents the questionnaire design, the instruments used for collecting data, the sample size, and the survey population.

### **1.9.5 Chapter Five: Outline**

Chapter Five summarises the findings that were obtained from the survey questionnaires, in relation to the theoretical overview provided.



#### **1.9.6 Chapter Six: Outline**

Chapter Six, which is the final chapter of the thesis, provides the conclusions and limitations of the study, as well as the possibilities for further research. The chapter finishes with relevant recommendations.

## CHAPTER TWO

### AN OVERVIEW OF SPORT TOURISM, MEGA-EVENTS AND BACKGROUND TO THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP

#### 2.1 Introduction

One of the most noteworthy developments in tourism studies over the past decade has been that the spectrum of activities, which has been incorporated into the analysis of tourism economies, has significantly broadened (Cornelissen, 2006). Sport tourism is regarded as a niche sector for the tourism industry, resulting in its prominence over the last few years, both as an academic field of study and as an increasingly popular tourism product (Gibson, 1998b). Countries around the world are progressively choosing to host high-profile sport events as a potential growth strategy, to fast track development and as a means to achieve strategic corporate objectives (Emery, 2002). After years of political boycotts and international sanctions, post-apartheid South Africa has become a popular tourism destination (Bohlmann, 2006), which attracted over 9.5 million visitors in 2008 (SAT, 2008). Since hosting the RWC in 1995, the African Cup of Nations in 1996, and the CWC in 2003, South Africa clearly has come to recognise that sport tourism events have the potential to generate socio-economic benefits for the country's communities.

South Africa will host the next FIFA World Cup, to be held from June to July 2010 (South Africa, 2007). Together with the Olympic Games, the Cup is categorised as a hallmark or mega-event, due to its magnitude, uniqueness, and characteristics (Kim *et al.*, 2004). The current study determines perceptions of Cameroonian fans with regards to South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

Chapter Two provides an overview of sport tourism and mega-events in general, as well as in South Africa in particular. The chapter also examines the background to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The emphasis of the chapter is on South Africa's positioning of the 2010 event as an 'African World Cup'. The chapter also presents an overview of the political economy of sport mega-events, prior to an analysis of the current perceptions of South Africa's image that are held by other African countries.



## **2.2 Overview of sport tourism**

As mentioned previously, the concept of sport-related tourism has become more prominent in the last few years, both as an academic field of study and as an increasingly popular tourism product (Gibson, 1998b). The WTO, in 2001, projected world tourism arrivals to be growing at 4.3% per year, leading to their reaching 1.6 billion by 2020. Worldwide, tourist spending is expected to grow at 6.7% per year, reaching US\$2 trillion in the same period. According to Neirotti (2003:1), one of the fastest-growing areas that contributes to such statistics, is sport tourism. She explains that, although the sport tourism concept is relatively new in terms of modern parlance, its scope of activity is far from that of a recent phenomenon. Weed and Bull (2004:1) note the earliest documented example of sport tourism to be the original Olympic Games, which took place in 776 BC.

### **2.2.1 Growth of sport tourism**

Weed and Bull (2004:10) attribute the growth of sport tourism in the 20th century to a continuation of developments, which had already begun to have an effect in the previous century – such as increasing wealth and leisure time, improving transport, changing attitudes and values, globalisation, corporate capitalism and the development of mass media. Similarly, Kurtzman (2005a:50) indicates primary factors evidenced in the New Millennium, which have contributed to a major impetus within tourism, and which have benefited the sport tourism industry. Such factors include:

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

All the above-mentioned factors are known to contribute to sport tourism. Although the recent global economic meltdown may have impacted on the above mentioned

factors and subsequently the actual visitor number during the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa.

Swart and Bob (2007:374) assert that sport and tourism have become significant economic activities for both the developed and the developing world. They indicate that sport and tourism have been identified as playing significant roles in the economic and social regeneration of both urban and rural communities. Such activities are regarded as vehicles for improving the quality of life for residents by attracting visitors, boosting the economic well-being of local communities (Swart & Bob, 2007). The challenge that remains for a country like South Africa and the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup is the extent to which regeneration can occur, given its wider geographical landscape. Besides regeneration is vastly uneven between regions.

The development of sport mega-events has played a significant role in the growth of sport tourism, in terms of both commercialisation and globalisation (Weed & Bull, 2004). Sport participation and attendance have become global phenomena, while international sport competitions have fuelled an ever-increasing world tourism market. An increase in demand for sport programming from television broadcasters, and the significant amounts of money spent by corporations on sponsoring teams and events, have also contributed to such growth (Turco *et al.*, 2002). In order to understand the confluence of sport tourism, an articulation of its parent disciplines (sport and tourism) is warranted. Accordingly, such an articulation is presented next.

### **2.2.2 Definition of 'sport'**

According to Hinch and Higham (2003:47), defining sport has proven to be a difficult task. A typical dictionary definition of sport describes it as an individual or group activity, which is pursued for exercise or pleasure, and which often takes a competitive form. Widely differing views are held as to which activities can be classified as sport, one of which is that it is often thought of as being highly competitive and organised. Neirotti (2003:2) argues that sport itself is defined in various ways and from different perspectives. American definitions characterise sport as a quest that requires complexity of physical skill and energetic physical effort; that involves some form of rule-governed competition; and that is organised and



structured in terms of its relationships, despite retaining a sense of freedom and spontaneity (Coakley, 1990).

Conversely, European definitions are usually looser, acknowledging that "traditional value patterns of the sports system have lost its formerly rather homogenous structure" (Coakley, 1990). Emery (2002:317) advocates the 1993 definition of sport provided by the Council of Europe in its Sport Charter. The Charter suggests that sport "... means all forms of physical activity which, through casual or organised participation, is aimed at expressing or improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social or obtaining results in competition at all levels". Guttman (2004) provided an analysis of what sport constitutes and defines it simply as an autotelic physical contest.

Neirotti (2003:2) concludes that, although escape for diversion purposes might still be a motivation for a sport activity, sport presently employs a far more engaging concept, accommodating both spectators and participants seeking fulfilment of a wide variety of human needs and wants.

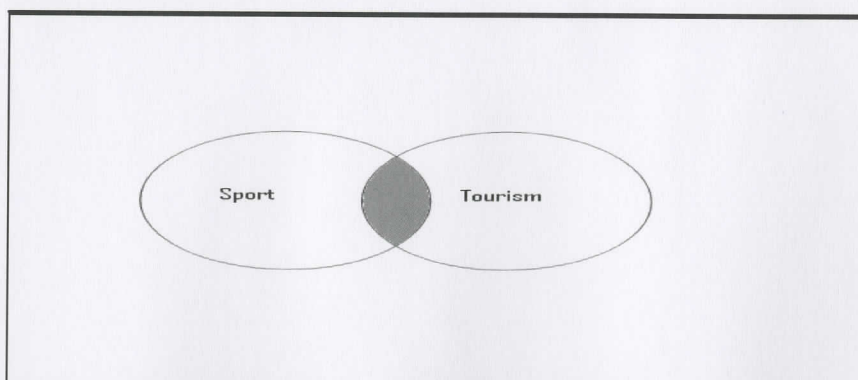
### **2.2.3 Definition of 'tourism'**

Tourism, like sport, lacks a common definition. International bodies such as the WTO, and the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), together with leading academics, have long laboured to develop a definition for tourism (Neirotti, 2003). According to Bennett (2005:5), tourism is "any activity concerned with the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, and activities during their stay at these destinations". The WTO (2003) defines 'tourism' as "... activities of persons travelling to and outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes that are not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited".

Hinch and Higham (2003:47) provide three key dimensions that both of the above-mentioned definitions share. The most ubiquitous dimension is spatial, in terms of which tourism is said to involve the 'travel of non-residents'. In terms of such a definition, in order to be considered a tourist, an individual must leave and then

eventually return to their original home. Although travel of an individual does not constitute tourism in and of itself, it is a necessary condition for such an activity to take place. The second dimension involves those temporary characteristics which are linked to tourism. Fundamental to such a dimension is the requirement that the trip should be characterised by a "temporary stay away from home of at least one night" (Hinch & Higham, 2003). Statistical definitions frequently differentiate between excursionists who visit a destination for less than 24 hours, and tourists who visit a destination for 24 hours or more. However, both such groups are referred to as 'visitors'. The third dimension concerns those purposes or activities, with which engagement takes place during travel. Within such a dimension several tourism subfields, such as eco-tourism, adventure tourism, urban tourism, heritage tourism and sport tourism, originate (Hinch & Higham, 2003).

De Knop (2004:304) contends that the relationship between sport and tourism in the modern world is symbiotic. He stresses that, not only does sport act on tourism, producing an ever-increasing range of valued visitor experiences, but that tourism also acts on sport. In addition to tourism influencing participation in sport, sport infrastructure has also followed case models in the tourism industry. He explains still further that, in order to complement the beach as a recreational source, resorts and communities have constructed indoor leisure swimming-pool complexes, to provide an alternate attraction during periods of inclement weather, leading to an extension of the holiday season. Sport and tourism can, therefore, be seen to be inextricably linked. As globalisation advances, new and exciting possibilities are emerging to enrich tourist experiences through sport, and to enhance sport development through tourism (De Knop, 2004). Figure 2.1 below illustrates the convergence of the fields of sport and tourism.



**Figure 2.1: Convergence of the fields of sport and tourism.**

Source: Hinch and Higham (2003:18).



## **Definition of 'sport tourism'**

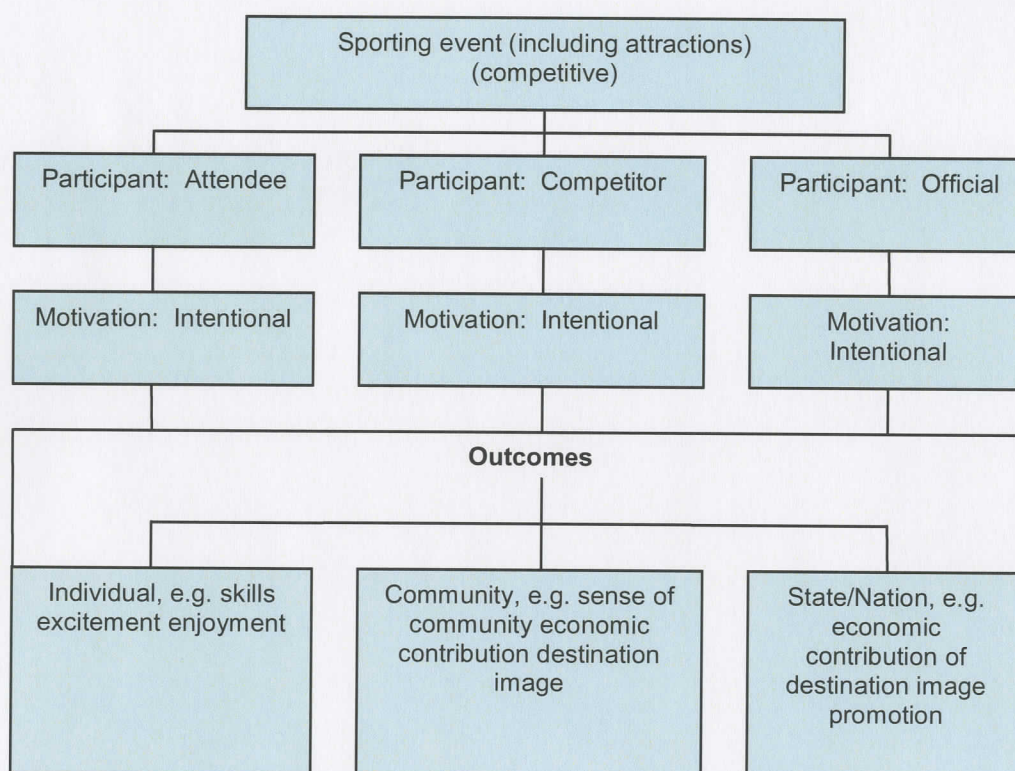
Several studies have attempted to provide a suitable definition of the concept of 'sport tourism'. A review of related literature reveals a number of definitions which are closely similar. Standeven and De Knop (1999:12) refer to sport tourism as "all forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activities, participated in casually or in an organised way for non-commercial or business and commercial reasons that necessitate travel away from home and work locality". Similarly, Gibson (1998b:49) defines sport tourism as leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside their home communities to participate in physical activities, to watch physical activities, or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities. Whereas Hinch and Higham (2003:19) define sport tourism as travel for non-commercial reasons to participate, or observe, sporting activities away from the home range, Weed and Bull (2004:49) define the concept as indicating holidays involving sporting activity, either as a spectator or participant.

Gibson (1998a:156) recognises three broad categories of sport tourism: watching sport events; visiting sport-related attractions; and active participation in sport. Gibson observes that the first category, which entails watching sport events, or participating in sport event tourism, includes attendance at events such as the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games. She cites the 1994 FIFA World Cup and the 1996 Olympic Games in Atlanta as examples of events that were actively promoted as tourist attractions.

The second category, celebrity or nostalgia sport tourism, involves visiting famous sport-related attractions. Such attractions include the basketball Hall of Fame, sport museums and famous sport venues, such as the Olympic Stadium in Barcelona (Gibson, 1998a).

The third and final category, active participation or active sport tourism, comprises travel by individuals to participate in such sports as golf, skiing, tennis, fishing, mountain biking or scuba diving (Gibson, 1998a). Gibson notes that Hall (1992) further subdivides this category into 'active participants', who engage in sport-related travel as a form of leisure, and 'hobbyists', who are amateur 'players' who travel to participate in competitions in their chosen sport.

Deery, Jago and Fredline (2004) presents a framework that further expands on the concept of 'sport tourism', in which they include the types of involvement in, and outcomes from, sport tourism which can be seen in Figure 2.2. According to their model, sporting events include participants, who are categorised in terms of different roles: attendee, competitor and official. The model further illustrates that the motivation behind participation in such events is intentional, with the outcomes being individual enjoyment, host communities reaping from socio-economic benefits or host nations benefitting from image enhancement (Deery *et al.*, 2004).



**Figure 2.2: A sport tourism framework.**

Source: Deery *et al.* (2004:242).

In the light of the above explanation of the concept of 'sport tourism', the following section of the current thesis provides an overview of tourism and sport tourism in South Africa.



#### **2.2.4 Tourism in South Africa**

The first democratically elected government in South Africa, which assumed office in 1994, faced numerous challenges, resulting from the previous apartheid regime. Among such challenges was a tainted global image of South Africa, relating to its levels of unemployment, poverty and crime (South Africa, 2003). In reversing the situation, the government identified tourism as one of the key sectors that might be instrumental in creating jobs, developing business opportunities, bringing in foreign revenue, and contributing to the economy's growth (South Africa. Department of Economic Affairs and Tourism, 1996). Such a claim is corroborated by George (2003), who indicated that the South African government viewed tourism as its most important industry because it contributed some R80 billion to the country's gross domestic product (GDP) at the time.

In 1996, the government adopted a national White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa (South Africa. Department of Economic Affairs and Tourism, 1996). Bob, Swart and Turco (2006) indicate that the White Paper strongly emphasises increasing the country's share of the world tourism market, while, at the same time, aiming to develop a sector that contributes to the country's economic development, as well as, enabling economic and social empowerment and upliftment. In order to ensure the sustainable development of tourism, responsible tourism guidelines were developed and adopted to drive the policy (South Africa. Department of Economic Affairs and Tourism, 1996).

South Africa's tourism industry is ranked 62<sup>nd</sup> amongst 124 countries in the World Economic Forum's first-ever Travel and Tourism Index (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007). In terms of the African continent, the World Tourism Organisation (2008) ranked South Africa 2<sup>nd</sup> (9.5 million tourists) below Egypt (12.2million tourists). Domestic and international tourism are central to the South African Tourism (SAT) system. Figures relating to 2003, according to SAT, show that domestic tourism witnessed more trips (49 million) in terms of tourist receipts compared to international tourism. However, in terms of spending, international tourism yielded R53.9 billion, compared with the R47 billion in domestic spending (South Africa, 2006).

With a reported 3.7 million visits in 1994 and 6.4 million in 2002 (South Africa, 2003), SAT reported that the number of visitors to South Africa grew by 10.3% in 2005, attaining the 7.5 million visitor target. Such figures clearly show that the country is preferred as a destination (South Africa, 2006). The United Kingdom, the USA, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands and France are noted as main source markets for overseas visits outside Africa (Bob *et al.*, 2006).

Tourism contributed to an estimated total direct spend by tourists of R52 billion in 2004, and created an estimated 478 630 direct jobs in 2005, as opposed to 465 710 in 2004, according to the WTTC (South Africa, 2006). It is against this backdrop that, in 2006, the government officially recognised the tourism sector as one of the two priority sectors in its Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA), with its objectives of halving the unemployment and poverty rates by 2014 and of raising the economic growth rate to 6% by 2010 (South Africa, 2006). The potential that sport tourism holds in South Africa has been well documented. Next follows a discussion of sport tourism development in South Africa.

#### **2.2.4.1 Sport tourism in South Africa**

Sport tourism has been acknowledged as a niche product (Gibson, 1998b; Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006; Neirotti, 2003; Swart & Bob, 2007; Weed & Bull, 2004). The 1996 White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa notes that, in order to further develop tourism products in South Africa, it is important to “encourage the development of sport tourism and encourage the provision of facilities, training, marketing and promotion to give emphasis to the development of this segment of the industry” (Swart & Bob, 2007). Kotze (2006:284) estimates that the sport industry contributes approximately 2% to the gross national product (GNP) of the country. He further reports that, while world tourism figures for South Africa indicated that the country had earned R53 billion in 2003, the sport tourism niche accounted for 30% of the total amount generated by tourism. South Africa Sport Tourism (SAST) was initiated by the government in 1997, with a mandate to maximise South Africa’s sport tourism potential (Swart & Bob, 2007). SAST was conceived to function as an umbrella endeavour, under which existing events may receive unified promotional support; additional sporting events and recreational activities can be developed to the greatest benefit of the tourism sector; and South



Africa's extensive recreational resources can be publicised for potential international and domestic tourists (Swart & Bob, 2007). Swart and Bob (2007:383) suggest that when one reviews sport tourism initiatives to date, it is evident that sport tourism is equated with sport events.

Notwithstanding the demise of the SAST campaign (Swart & Bob, 2007), sport tourism in South Africa has witnessed a dramatic increase in such tourism, owing to the hosting of a number of high profile sport events (Turco *et al.*, 2002). As has already been mentioned in Chapter One, since its first democratic elections in 1994, South Africa has hosted several major events, notably the 1995 International Rugby Board (IRB) RWC, the 1996 African Nations Cup, and the 2003 CWC (Alegi, 2001). In 2002, the South African government, through the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) and SAT, developed the National Events Strategy in an attempt to ascertain the extent and nature of the national impact of certain events. South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup has reignited the wish to develop sport tourism as a niche market at the national level (Swart & Bob, 2007). An overview of mega-events will be presented next, to set the context of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

### **2.3 Mega-events or hallmark events**

Gibson (1998a:156) recognises three broad categories of sport tourism: watching sporting events; visiting sports-related attractions; and active participation. She notes that, the first category, watching sporting events or sport events tourism, includes mega-events, such as the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games.

According to Hiller (1998:47), mega-events are, by definition, short-term events of a fixed duration. The high-profile nature of the event generates analyses of consequences in terms of cause-effect relationships, such as an increase in tourism activities, urban and infrastructural development and improvement, civic pride, boosting of image, and image-building. Roche (2001:1) refers to mega-events as "large scale cultural (including commercial and sporting) events, which have a dramatic character, mass popular appeal and international significance". Central to both definitions is the fact that mega-events are seen to have significant consequences for the host country and as attracting widespread media coverage. For

example, Saayman and Rossouw (2008:3) estimated that the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany attracted a cumulative television audience of 30 billion people. Projected figures of the audience of the 2010 televised event are 40 billion (South Africa, 2008). Ritchie (1984:2) defines hallmark events as "major one time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination in the short-term or long-term. Such events rely on their success, uniqueness, status, or timely significance to create interest and attract attention."

According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:2), mega-events are characterised as discontinuous, out-of-the-ordinary, international and exceptionally large. Emery (2002:317) suggests that, characteristics of mega-events include: a clear-cut starting and finishing point; fixed, absolute datelines; once-off organisation, normally superimposed on other work; substantial risks; and many opportunities. He further contends that they are considered as mega because of the quality of the sporting competition, the number of participants and spectators, their socio-economic impact, the quantity of resources involved, the degree of media coverage; and the attention paid to international appeal.

Cornelissen (2008:119) notes three different categories of mega-events. Category one events are thought to be large scale, and high in prestige, attendance levels, interest, and, particularly, publicity. Examples of such events are the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup. She explains that category two events, such as the Commonwealth Games and the RWCs, are intercontinental in scale, and in terms of the extent and level of participation in them. The third category includes such events as the African Cup of Nations and the Asian Games, which involve several countries on a particular continent, but which are, nevertheless, relatively limited in scope (Cornelissen, 2008).

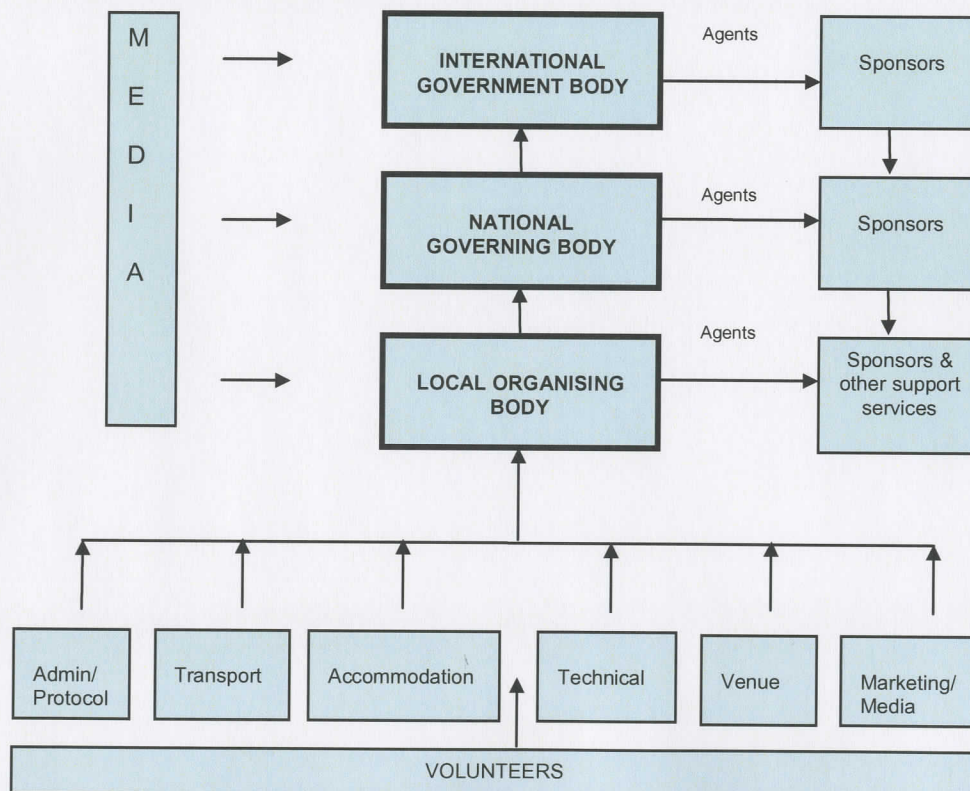
Generally, mega-events can easily be seen as a special case or exception, or even as a diversion from normal processes in which the cause-effect relationship begins with the events and their immediate impacts, and ends with clearly identified outcomes often referred to as legacies (Hiller, 1998).



Management of mega-event environments is complex, involving the following three types of project complexities:

- organisational complexities, such as the number of people, departments, organisations, and nations involved; the need to work with international stakeholders; and the need to rely on a large number of volunteers;
- resource complexities, including the volume of resources involved in the project, time, capital and processes; and
- technical complexities, involving the level of innovation in product or project processes (Emery, 2002).

Figure 2.3 below illustrates the three organisational levels involved in hosting mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup.



**Figure 2.3: Basic summary of major sports event organisation relationships and structures.**

Source: Emery (2002:319).

### **2.3.1 Growth in the number and size of mega-events**

A two-year cycle of sport mega-events has occurred since 1992, during which year both the Summer and Winter Olympic Games took place. In general, the Summer Olympic Games are held in the same year as the European Football Championship, which is organised by the Union of European Football Associations (UEFA), while the FIFA Football World Cup finals and the Commonwealth Games occur in the same year as the Winter Olympics (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006). A comparative analysis of facts and figures indicates that the size of the sport mega-events, coupled with the degree of enthusiasm shown in hosting, and participating in them, has grown significantly (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006). Such growth has occurred despite the 2005 decision by the Olympic Programme Commission to reduce the number of sport events from 28 to 26 for the 2012 Olympic Games in London (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006). Cornelissen (2008:119) attributes the growth of mega-events to globalisation, which she suggests can be typified as a process involving the closer integration, development, and interaction of economies and politics in the world. Such increased closeness has resulted in deindustrialisation, which has led to a need for more attention to be paid to new revenue sources, such as tourism. However, boosting a tourism sector requires special attractions, leading to the development of mega-events, accompanied by extensive international media exposure of the host country. Cornelissen (2008) holds the view that, globalisation has also increased flows of finance, technology, capital and people. Horne and Manzenreiter (2004:200) mention that research into the 2002 FIFA World Cup reveals a close relationship between mega-events and the globalisation process: such events are simultaneously driven by, and promote, globalisation.

Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:3) outline the following three main reasons for the growth and expansion of mega-events:

- Firstly, new developments in the technologies of mass communication, specifically in the development and advancement of satellite television, have created global audiences that are unprecedented in size for such events as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup. Due to such growth, public broadcasting networks compete on a substantial scale to 'buy' broadcasting rights. For example, the US-based National Broadcasting Corporation (NBC), paid US\$300 million to the International Olympic Committee for media rights



during the 1988 Olympic Games in Seoul, and US \$894 million for the same rights during the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006). Sales of television rights for the 1990 FIFA World Cup were estimated at US\$65.7 million, with the television rights for the 2002 and 2006 FIFA World Cups being sold for US\$1.97 billion. According to the *Cape Business News* (2009), FIFA has announced that it will earn in the region of R25 billion for broadcast rights for the 2010 tournament. The amount is more than FIFA earned from broadcast rights for the two previous World Cups combined.

- Secondly, formation of a sport-media-business alliance transformed professional sport, in general, during the late 20<sup>th</sup> century, by means of packaging the tripartite model of sponsorship and exclusive broadcasting rights with merchandising. Sponsors of the Olympics and the FIFA World Cup have been attracted by the association with the sport and the vast global audience exposure that the events achieve.
- Thirdly, the growth of mega-events can be attributed to the fact that they have become valuable promotional opportunities for both cities and regions.

The above reasons, alongside the pursuit of enhanced status by politicians and businesses, have been documented in partial explanation of the growth of mega-events (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006).

### **2.3.2 Impacts of sport mega-events**

Academic consensus regarding the impact of mega-events is that they have both positive and negative outcomes. A review of literature concerning socio-economic, socio-cultural, physical and political impacts of the Olympic Games (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004) and the FIFA World Cup (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006), concludes that economic benefits are prime motives for the degree of interest that has been expressed in hosting them (Allmers & Maennig, 2008; Black, 2007; Bohlmann, 2006; Cornelissen, 2006; Cornelissen & Swart, 2006; Getz, 2003; Kim, *et al.*, 2006; Lee & Taylor, 2005).

Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:9) suggest that the positive impact on employment or unemployment, the additional government spending undertaken in communities, the visiting tourist and spectator numbers, and the increased media coverage are some

of the claims that are made in favour of hosting mega-events. Getz (2003:53) further cites extended leisure opportunities, improved facilities, an increased feeling of pride at being able to host leading events, and a heightened interest in sport and fitness as key motivators of such hosting. Getz asserts that positive word-of-mouth recommendations from sport event tourists can also help to enhance a destination's reputation and to create a positive image of an inviting place to visit or in which to host more events. Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:11) conclude that, economically, mega-events have been viewed as an industry, around which cities can devise urban regeneration strategies. Socially, the hosting of mega-events has been viewed as a tool with which to urge the development of urban communities and a means of reducing social exclusion and crime (Swart & Bob, 2007).

Despite the above-mentioned benefits, opponents of mega-events are quick to elaborate on the negative impacts of such events. Higham's (1999) analysis of the positive and negative impacts of sport mega-events postulates that, negative impacts include major costs that are associated with the bidding process; economic benefits which are dominated by big business, rather than by host communities; social issues, such as overcrowding and infrastructural congestion; security issues; the displacement or removal of local residents; increases in rates and rents; and, finally, a legacy of under-utilised and expensive facilities, with their associated financial debt (Higham, 1999). Besides, Nauright (2004) in his assessment of global games: culture, political economy, and sport in the 21<sup>st</sup> century suggest that, more often than not, the 'negative' literature is often marginalised especially in the run-up to the hosting of the mega-event by stakeholders.

In an attempt to clarify the different impacts that mega-events may have, Hiller (1998:48) proposes that mega-events should not be viewed as isolated unique occurrences. Rather, they should be seen as part of a chain in the relationship, which is expressed through a linkage analytical model consisting of forward, backward, parallel and longitudinal linkages.

Forward linkages are based on the making of a presumption that the event is itself the cause of certain effects (Hiller, 1998). For example, the event may lead to increased tourist visits, the enhancement of tourism infrastructure, the creation of permanent and part-time employment; and the improvement of public transport



systems, such as those of rail, road and airports. From such a perspective, the event has a direct effect on host communities (Allmers & Maennig, 2008), with its impacts being clearly intended and making a clearly recognisable difference. Such forward linkages are positive. Despite any attendant negatives, therefore, the hard evidence that is provided in the form of elements of legacy, such as infrastructural development, cannot be denied (Hiller, 1998). Ohmann *et al.* (2006:16) provided a practical example for such a linkage. They cited Munich's resident's positive perceptions towards the Euro 100 million subway and road system developed to ensure the smooth and unaffected traffic and people during the 2006 FIFA World Cup in held in Germany.

Backward linkages refer to the context in which the idea for the mega-event occurs, as well as the background objectives of the event. Such linkages provide the rationale or ideology for supporting the event, and have an informal relationship with the event itself. They include factors that position the event on the agenda and, once there, such linkages remain relatively embedded and largely concealed, or seldom overtly discussed (Hiller, 1998). For example, politicians may support the staging of the event, because they seek diversions from failed policies, or the event itself may herald a new policy initiative (Cornelissen, 2006). Businesses might see the event as an opportunity for enhancing their prospects, while others might see the event as a chance to transform the image of their country and cities (Pillay & Bass, 2008). Though all such linkages are indirect to the event itself, they serve as powerful background factors in understanding the event, as they help to explain the decision to host it, as well as help to rationalise the mobilisation of resources which are required to ensure its success (Hiller, 1998).

A parallel linkage, as noted by Hiller (1998:50), refers to mega-event side-effects, which are neither anticipated nor expected, and which might not be recognised, unless they are brought into a public spotlight. They might materialise as a result of the event, or in relation to it. Event organisers are reluctant to take responsibility for such a linkage, especially when it is negative. For example, organisers of events might choose a particular site because use of such a site might not be likely to disturb the existing residents, but fail to note that neighbouring residential communities consequently will suffer from various forms of economic distortion, such as conversions, consisting of an increase in the price of goods and services (Pillay &

Bass, 2008). In general terms, Hiller (1998) concludes that the urban impacts of mega-events are often overlooked, though a positive linkage is likely to be asserted.

Lastly, according to Hiller (1998), longitudinal linkages refer to the event not as occurring at a specific point in time, but rather as being preceded by a social context, which might alter it, or of which it might be a product. The pre-event period highlighted in the backward linkage is imperative, as the examination of such a period should reveal how the event was both intrusive and transformative of a prior situation. Focus on pre-event analysis is a focus on conditions before the event, which helps to clarify what role the event played, and what effects were realised as a result of the role. The second point in time is during the event itself, an examination of which reveals how short-term impacts can be isolated from long-term ones. For example, job creation and immediate tourist revenues might be desirable immediate benefits, but increased prices or congestion might be perceived as negative, even though such factors tend to be short-term in nature (Allmers & Maennig, 2008). The third point in time is the post-event, in terms of which legacy tends not to be interpreted as lasting effects, but rather as readjustment to familiarity or an adaptation to changed conditions, which are caused by the event (Bohlmann, 2006; Hiller, 1998; South Africa, 2008).

Horne (2007:2), state that “the ‘legacies’ – whether social, cultural, environmental, political, economic or sporting – are the greatest attraction but also form part of the ‘known and unknown’, of sport mega-events”. The legacies create the “allure of global games” – perhaps especially for developing economies (Black & Van der Westhuizen, 2004). As previously mentioned, the FIFA World Cup tournament has been noted as a suitable example of a mega-event. In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the tournament, the following text summarises the history of the FIFA World Cup.

## **2.4 Summary of the FIFA World Cup history**

The FIFA World Cup is regarded as the most prestigious competition of FIFA, in keeping with its statutes (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). Alegi (2001:2) considers the World Cup to be FIFA’s most valuable asset. Since 1904, when FIFA was first founded, the tournament has grown substantially in



several respects. Between 1934 and 1978, 16 teams competed for each tournament, with most teams coming from Europe and South America, while those teams coming from North America, Africa, Asia and Oceania were relatively few in number (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). However, the tournament was extended to allow for participation by 24 teams in 1982, and then it was extended still further to include 32 teams in 1998 to allow minority teams (Africa and Asia), as indicated previously, to participate (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). Darby (2000:2) attributes such an increase to the improved performances of countries such as Cameroon, Nigeria, Senegal and Ghana at previous World Cup tournaments.

Since the second World Cup was held in 1934, qualifying tournaments have been held within FIFA's six continental zones (Africa; Asia; North and Central America, and the Caribbean; South America; Oceania; and Europe), and are overseen by their respective confederations (FIFA, 2008). Statistics provided by the South African government, in its 2007 mid-term report (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007) on the country's readiness to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup, indicated that a total of 198 nations attempted to qualify for the 2006 FIFA World Cup. That number increased to a record 204 nations for the 2010 tournament.

The current tournament features a total of 32 national teams, which compete over a period of a month in the host nation(s). The selection of the host country has remained a controversial issue, and is reviewed in the following sections of the current thesis.

## **2.5 Background to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

According to Cornelissen (2004:1293), due to the sheer magnitude and international scale of capital flows that characterise the hosting of such events as the FIFA World Cup, the pursuit of purported economic benefits to be gained from the events leads to the industrialised and developing countries increasingly contesting which country may host them. Ultimately, such events are rapidly developing into part of the global capitalist structure which, with enhanced focus on improving international competitiveness and comparative advantage, has grown in their appeal to countries as developmental targets (Cornelissen, 2004). She further suggests that an

underlying dynamic is a strong belief that a significant change in the geography of international capitalism over the past three decades has served to reduce the importance of such economic activities in national wealth creation, necessitating a shift of focus to 'new' growth sectors, such as tourism, events or sport. Place promotion, destination profiling and imaging, with the aim of luring tourists and investors, are important aspects of such a development (Cornelissen, 2004).

The above trends apply increasingly to African countries, which, over the past few years, have increasingly come to participate in mega-event enterprises. South Africa, in particular, has emerged as a virile campaigner within such a domain (Cornelissen, 2004). However, in her study of the changing political economy of global sport and the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Cornelissen (2007:242) asserts that South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup is embedded within a global political economy of sport. Such an economy is marked by a particular economic rationale and set processes of commercialisation and corporatisation, which affect the way in which an African country can define its objectives.

As previously mentioned in Chapter One of the current thesis, following in the wake of South Africa's successful hosting of the RWC in 1995 and the Africa Cup of Nations in 1996, SAFA indicated its intention to launch a bid to host the 2006 FIFA World Cup during the 1998 edition of the Africa Cup of Nations, which was held in Burkina Faso (Cornelissen, 2004). Alegi (2001:3) confirms that the idea of South Africa's bidding to host the FIFA World Cup first emerged during the course of Cape Town's bid for the 2004 Olympic Games.

Three key objectives were identified by South Africa as primary motives for hosting the 2006 FIFA World Cup, as noted by Alegi (2001:4). Firstly, the hosting of the event was seen as capable of encouraging capital construction and of heightening the country's international visibility, in terms of the development of an economic strategy that promised substantial benefits for the tourism industry. South Africa's Bid Committee argued that the World Cup is not only about soccer, but is also about tourism and marketing South Africa to the world. By using the event as a tourism and marketing exercise, the hosting of the FIFA World Cup could be used to consolidate the country's position as the top tourist destination in Africa, with an anticipated increase in overseas arrivals of nearly 30% per annum (Alegi, 2001).



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

The final objective is seen by Alegi (2001) as offering local powerbrokers an opportunity to renegotiate or consolidate their positions within the power structures of South African sport and society. Cornelissen (2006:145), in contrast, notes that the third goal for South Africa was to enhance the country's international status by promoting the country's relatively recent democratisation. What ever the case might be, stakeholders of the event should place emphasis on the long-term positive legacy of the event in order to impact on the lives of all South Africans and the entire African continent as detailed by the legacy program which will be discussed in the sections to come.

In selling the South African bid to the world market of football, the country offered a persuasive argument, which was sometimes cloaked in anti-colonial rhetoric (Cornelissen, 2004). The proponents of the bid adopted a pan-Africanist slogan, namely 'its Africa's turn', which inherently supported the concept of the international struggle still being waged against the legacy of apartheid, and boosted the appeal to FIFA's peripheral nations to help break Europe's remaining economic domination of the African continent (Alegi, 2001). Such a sentiment is echoed by Cornelissen (2004:1297), who attests that "one of the most significant qualities of the bid was its pan-Africanist basis, characterised by its logo and slogan geared to convey to the

remainder of the world the central idea that Africa, a large football region, had never had the opportunity to host a spectacle of this magnitude". She further suggests that the pan-Africanist thrust, moreover, was essentially aimed at garnering as much support for South Africa's bid as possible.

South Africa's chances of winning the bid were complicated by Morocco, which had announced its own candidature after its two failed bid attempts in 1994 and 1998, which had similar foundations to that of South Africa, using 'with Africa' as the cornerstone. Both Morocco's and South Africa's bids paradoxically challenged and reinforced predominant perceptions of the marginalisation of the African continent (Cornelissen, 2006). The bids, to win, also both depended on the degree of support granted to them by other African countries, while a large part of Morocco's legitimisation campaign was directed at the vote-carrying African members of FIFA (Cornelissen, 2006). However, Morocco's delicate geographic and political position on the African continent, and in its relationship with CAF, negated impact of its use of 'Africa', since several sub-Saharan African countries questioned whether Morocco could justly claim to be 'African'. The raising of such a question highlights the legacy of the long-standing rift between the North and sub-Saharan African states over which countries truly constitute the African continent. Such a rift often translates into tensions present in such diplomatic forums as the African Union (AU) (Cornelissen, 2006).

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



political pressures (such as the awarding of 'gifts', or the granting of trade agreements), which are used to sway or influence outcomes.

Although South Africa's 2006 bid was rated by FIFA as being superior to those of other contenders, such as Brazil and England, and as equal to that of Germany, the latter secured rights to host the tournament in a closely contested 12 to 11 votes (Baade & Matheson, 2004). Cornelissen (2004) and Alegi (2001) both examine factors that played a key role in the eventual outcome of the 2006 vote for Africa. They agree that, firstly, the dual African bid created tension within CAF, leading to the body's refusal to endorse the candidacy of one contestant over the other. South Africa's and Morocco's reluctance to compromise on the issue, leading to their continued candidacies, presented difficulties to CAF, which did not announce the name of the country that it had chosen until the day of the award (Alegi, 2001; Cornelissen, 2006). In the second instance, Cornelissen (2004) debates the crucial roles played by individual personalities within FIFA, who helped to determine the final outcome. She maintains that South Africa's chances were thwarted in the final voting round after an executive member from the Oceania confederation abstained from voting. Alegi (2001:12), remarks that such an unprecedented abstention deprived Joseph Blatter, president of FIFA, from casting his vote presumably in favour of South Africa, which meant that Germany was awarded the rights to host the 2006 FIFA World Cup.

The decision to award the 2006 FIFA World Cup to Germany was greeted with overwhelming negativity by the African countries, and by South Africa in particular, as they regarded the decision as indicating a patronising and racist international stance towards Africa as a whole (Alegi, 2001). In partial acknowledgement of the unequal structural position of developing countries within FIFA (Cornelissen, 2006), and as an attempt to attenuate the influence and factors that are enshrined in voting procedures, a rotation system was then adopted by FIFA. The system, which commences with the 2010 event, asserts the principle that the right to host the event should be granted in rotation to the six confederations. In 2002, the FIFA executive announced the decision to award the hosting of the 2010 tournament to a country in Africa (Cornelissen, 2004).

The 2010 bidding process rekindled South Africa's rivalry with Morocco during the final bidding stage, since both countries submitted strong bids (Cornelissen, 2007). Whereas Morocco had reframed its bid for the 2010 final around a national developmental strategy, namely Vision 2010, which established the implementation of an economic stimulus programme for the country (Cornelissen, 2004), South Africa emphasised its showcasing of the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an 'African World Cup', which would promote the assertion of a sense of confidence and prosperity across the entire continent. The notion of an 'African World Cup' captured the imagination of FIFA, the other African countries and the African Diaspora (South Africa, 2008).

In a letter to FIFA president Joseph Blatter, which was displayed in South Africa's Bid Book in 2003, former president Thabo Mbeki insisted that the tournament would encourage both economic growth and a sense of pride in Africa. He stated, "We want, on behalf of our continent, to stage an event that will send ripples of confidence from Cape to Cairo – an event that will create social and economic opportunities throughout Africa" (South Africa, 2008:1). He further asserted that:

We want to ensure that, one day, historians will reflect upon the 2010 World Cup as a moment when Africa stood tall and resolutely turned the tide on centuries of poverty and conflict. We want to show that Africa's time has come.

According to Cornelissen (2004:1300), prior to the announcement of the winning bid, the FIFA technical committee released its report on the capabilities of contending countries hosting the event. Egypt was evaluated as being capable; Morocco displayed potential for organising a good World Cup; whereas South Africa was designated as having the potential to host an excellent final. She went on to suggest that the difference in emphasis was more than semantic – the choice of wording was aimed at conveying not only an assessment of the contending countries' capacities, but also at creating a hierarchy that was an important portent of probable outcomes in the voting sessions.

The decision that was made on 15 May 2004 by FIFA to award South Africa the right to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup, shifted the spotlight to the country itself (Pillay & Bass, 2008), which is presently busy preparing for a successful staging of the event (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007). The government hopes that South Africa's hosting of



the event will leave a lasting legacy for the country, as well as for the rest of the African continent (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). Accordingly, the next section of the current thesis explores the concept of 'mega-event legacies'.

## **2.6 Mega-event legacy**

According to global strategic management consulting firm A.T. Kearney (2005:1):

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

Legacies can be interpreted not only as permanent effects, but also as readjustments to normality, or adaptations to changes that an event has brought (Hiller, 1998). Mann (2008:2) refers to sport mega-events' legacy as "ensuring that as many long-term benefits are generated for the host city, region and nation – well before, during and long after the event". Chalip's 2002 study of another mega-event (the Olympic Games) which is used to optimise tourism benefits, acknowledges that legacy is vital. He substantiates making such a claim by quoting the Sydney Olympic Games Review Committee (1990: 3) as follows:

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

The above quote indicates that a legacy consists of a multi-facet outcome. The legacy of such an event as the 2010 FIFA World Cup might easily serve to encompass all the different elements of the impact that it creates.

According to Preuss (2007:1), the FIFA World Cup is an exorbitantly expensive event to host. Despite the final tournament taking place within only a four-week period, the wish expressed by public authorities to invest in the World Cup is justified if the event is to create long-lasting effects. Such effects are necessary to counter the negative legacy of stadium infrastructure, which was left by the 2004 Euro tournament in Portugal, and the 2002 FIFA World Cup, which was co-hosted by Japan and Korea (Preuss, 2007).

In his study of the 2006 FIFA World Cup and its legacy for tourism, Preuss (2007:1) outlines three reasons why a positive legacy is valuable for both the host nation and FIFA. He explains the reasons in the following terms:

- A positive legacy helps to overcome complaints about FIFA and provides evidence of why the World Cup has been good for the host country.
- Such a legacy justifies using scarce public resources to construct stadia and general infrastructure, ensure that all necessary event structures for the World Cup are ready in time.
- A positive legacy also motivates other nations to bid to host future World Cups (Preuss, 2007).

Cashman (2005:111) argues that legacy is often regarded as a side issue, which is put on the back-burner until after the Games. He emphasised that because the legacy of such an event is not seen as a central issue, few cities devise a well-developed post-Games plan.

Ritchie (1984) proposes the importance of legacy planning for host destinations. He persuades and cautions that, without careful strategic planning directed towards keeping destinations and community development in mind, it might be difficult to justify making the large investments that are required to host the event. Therefore, comprehensive legacy planning should help to ensure that hosting such an event as the 2010 FIFA World Cup contributes to the development of the communities in the country concerned, as well as benefit those resident in the country for a long time to come. To ensure that the event is truly an 'African World Cup', stakeholders of the 2010 event have developed additional African legacy initiatives in an attempt to spread the benefits of hosting such an event to the entire continent. The initiatives are examined in the following section of the current thesis.



### 2.6.1 African legacy

The importance of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup cannot be overemphasised. The post-event should not merely provide positive spin-offs in terms of sport, but should also act as a catalyst for socio-economic growth and development in Africa. Researchers such as Bohlmann (2006); Chalip (2002); Cornelissen (2008); and Swart and Bob (2006) believe that mega-events of such a magnitude have the potential to act as such a catalyst. According to the South African government, the event should effectively contribute to the awakening of Africa's potential as a prosperous, united and influential global colossus (South Africa, 2008). However, according to A.T. Kearney (2005:5), the strongest legacy results are likely to be achieved by using a comprehensive programme comprising five components, which are initiated at the bidding stage and refined throughout the mega-event life cycle. The implementation of such a programme should help to ensure that the goal of masterminding the legacy is integrated into the overall vision. Figure 2.4 below illustrates the five key components of a legacy programme which could be adopted by 2010 organisers in an attempt to build a positive legacy for the African continent.



**Figure 2.4:** The five components of a legacy programme.

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

In November 2006, the African Legacy Programme (ALP), which is a joint responsibility of the South African government and the LOC, was initiated in response to the objective of making the 2010 FIFA World Cup an African event, which will leave a lasting legacy for the entire African continent. The programme aims to support the realisation of African Renaissance objectives, including those programmes, such as the New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD), devised by the AU to ensure maximum and effective African participation during the 2010 event. The programme also aims to strengthen, develop and advance African football and to improve Africa's global image, while it also aims to overcome any remaining Afro-pessimism (South Africa, 2008).

The above programme has received strong support from key stakeholders, including FIFA, CAF, the United Nations (UN) and the AU. For example, the 8<sup>th</sup> Assembly of the AU Heads of State and Government reaffirmed its undertaking to become fully and substantively involved in the preparations leading up to the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Member states also pledged all-round support, and urged the international community to provide necessary support to South Africa for the event (South Africa, 2008:87).

According to the South African government (South Africa. SAT, 2007), projects embarked upon under the ALP fall mainly within the following domains:

- Peace and nation-building: Driven by former African Heads of State and the UN, the initiatives undertaken in this domain are aimed at supporting those continental efforts that promote peace, nation-building and democratisation in Africa. The projects envisaged in terms of such initiatives include the Peace Caravan, which is a campaign that focuses on countries that have experienced social challenges for protracted periods of time, and interactions with key stakeholders. The campaign culminates on Robben Island in early 2010 with the holding of a peace festival, which will be held in Cape Town (South Africa, 2007).
- Football support and development: The domain includes initiatives directed at building football-related capacity. Such initiatives include working with other partners on the continent towards developing administrative and refereeing prowess, as well as advanced coaching and medical expertise skills (South Africa, 2007).



- Environment and tourism: In terms of this domain, the initiative, which has been dubbed 'The Greening of 2010', focuses on the following issues of concern: waste management; water and energy savings; sustainable stadium maintenance; sustainable transport solutions; and carbon savings, using funds raised to support awareness campaigns. Although the focus of the initiative is on South Africa, in particular, as the host nation, related opportunities for continental collaboration will also be investigated. The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup is expected to make a significant impact on increasing awareness about those environmental issues that affect the lives of all those living on the African continent (South Africa, 2007).
- Culture and heritage: Projects in this domain will be implemented with full and active participation from key arts and culture stakeholders, including traditional leaders. Such projects include training young curators from different parts of Africa in the field of art, culture and heritage issues; training young translators from different parts of the continent in different languages; establishing a museum dedicated to the display of contemporary African art; organising numerous pan-African arts, craft and music festivals; and arranging annual African Legacy conferences to be held on the continent (South Africa, 2007).
- Communications and information communication technology: The 2010 FIFA World Cup event provides a unique communication opportunity for African communicators to express and promote African solidarity; to market the continent and to improve international perceptions; to promote the continent to visitors; to promote values supporting peace and development; and to create a positive communication climate in which to promote development and to expand opportunities. Such an opportunity is made possible both by the intense world attention that is focused on the event, and by the continent's ability to control global news during the event (South Africa, 2007).
- Continental security co-operation: The 2010 FIFA World Cup presents a unique opportunity for the creation of a legacy, which is characterised by enhanced cooperation amongst countries. Such cooperation effectively enables the addressing of those security threats that affect the continent, such as terrorism; the cross-border smuggling of illegal substances; and human trafficking. Legacy spin-offs in this regard include the joint training of security service members to combat crime; the establishment of mechanisms

directed towards securing joint control command; the implementation of additional control and communication systems aimed at promoting cooperation in respect of peace and security in Africa; and the use of South Africa's National Security Framework, which has been devised for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, as a blueprint for future mega-events that will be hosted on the African continent (South Africa, 2008).

The potential of the 2010 FIFA World Cup to leave a lasting legacy for South Africa and the African continent cannot be denied, as is supported by previous studies mentioned earlier. Though several initiatives have already been adopted to this effect, careful planning and implementation by the stakeholders will determine how successful the programme ultimately is. Moreover, A.T. Kearney (2005) noted that, by devoting time and dedicating the resources needed for planning and implementation, host nations and regions can secure a positive future long after the event concludes. In this light, the following few sections of the current thesis analyse the impacts of mega-events that are likely to be felt in the context of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The sections cover the following areas of enterprise: economic impacts; socio-cultural impacts; and environmental impacts.

## **2.7 Economic impacts of mega-events**

In the context of sport, Crompton (1995:15) refers to economic impact as "the net economic change in a host community that results from spending attributed to a sport event or facility". Turco *et al.* (2002:53) contend that "a continuum of economic benefits and costs exists for communities that host sport tourism events". They further suggest that the benefits to be derived from expenditure by sport tourists consist of the creation of local employment opportunities, the boosting of personal income, and subsequent re-spending within the economy. In the academic arena, studies on how mega-events affect host economies tend to fall into two types, namely *ex-ante* (pre-event) and *ex-post* (post-event) (Baade & Matheson, 2004).

Four primary considerations exist in terms of the assessment of the economic impact of sport. Such considerations consist of the extent to which the different types of sports stimulate new spending within the economy; the extent to which sport supports local income levels; the costs involved in providing the necessary sport infrastructure; and, finally, the degree to which sports-related spending occurs within the economy



(Turco *et al.*, 2002). In reviewing the economic impact studies of mega-events, Matheson and Baade (2003:5) note that the hosting of both the Olympic Games and the World Cup has been found to result in significant costs, with related potentially extensive benefits. The following subsections of the current thesis present an analysis of text that follows, the economic impacts of mega-events, as well as present a breakdown of the economic benefits and costs involved. The emphasis throughout is on those benefits and costs that are associated with South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

### **2.7.1 Economic benefits**

All sporting events have, to differing extents, impacted on the communities in which they have taken place (Ohmann, Jones & Wilkes, 2006). Several studies have focused on the economic benefits of hosting a mega-event as the FIFA World Cup (Higham, 1999; Hiller, 1998; Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006; Kim *et al.*, 2006; Lee & Taylor, 2005; Ohmann *et al.*, 2006; Saayman & Rossouw, 2008). Hosting a large international sports event holds out the promise not only of the excitement of the event itself, as well as the media exposure that it allows the host nation, but also the expectation of a positive return on the considerable investment that is associated with such hosting (Maennig & du Plessis, 2007). Hiller (1998:49) confirms that mega-events lead to an increased number of tourist visits; an extension of the existing infrastructure; the creation of both short and long-term employment opportunities; an increase in the amount of media coverage; an improvement of public transport facilities; the provision of additional investment opportunities; an improvement of the image of the host nation; and the enhancement of the spirit of nation-building and national pride.

Maennig and Schwarthoff (2008:2) argue that *ex-ante* economic impact studies of the World Cups have all recognised the positive economic effects that the hosting of such events has had on the respective host economies. For example, Lee and Taylor's (2005:595) study dealing with previous World Cup events indicates that the 2002 FIFA World Cup generated US\$1.35 billion in output sales, US\$307 million in income and US\$713 million in added value for South Korea. Maennig and du Plessis' (2007:579) study indicates that FIFA earned a profit of US\$1.9 billion from the 2006 World Cup in Germany, with the country making US\$206 million in ticket sales alone.

According to Allmers and Maennig (2008:2), the tourism sector of the host country is usually expected to be one of the main beneficiaries of such an event as the World Cup. They noted that Germany projected that the 2006 FIFA World Cup which was held in their country would bring in roughly 340 000 foreign tourists, who were expected to spend about US\$1.1 billion. Furthermore, additional income and employment effects can also be expected to result from the expenditure (whether that of tourists, or of the organisers of the event, in terms of such elements as marketing, transport and security) related to the hosting of such a mega-event. Allmers and Maennig (2008) reported an increase, albeit minimal, in employment figures in both France in 1998 and in Germany in 2006, due to the two countries' hosting of the FIFA World Cup in those years.

It must be kept in mind, however, that Kim *et al.* (2006) note that, several forecasted benefits of the 2002 FIFA event in South Korea did not materialise as expected. Lee and Taylor (2005) critically reflected on the economic impact assessment of the 2002 FIFA World Cup, concluding that the most enduring legacy of the event has been that it provided a unique opportunity for the South Korean community to build and showcase its skills and capabilities, to develop business contacts, to engage in partnerships and investments, and to promote national awareness. After the FIFA World Cup was held in Germany in 2006, Maennig (2007:2) conducted a one-year reappraisal of the economics of the event, which led him to conclude that "the event was one of the greatest and economically most important events to be held in the history of Germany". In addition, he found that the citizens also benefited significantly from the feel-good effects brought about by the event, with the nation as a whole also benefitting from its enhanced international perception of its image.

As with previous hosts of the FIFA World Cup, South Africa's hosting of the 2010 event has already led to a growing number of debates in academic circles regarding the projected economic impact that is to be expected from the event. According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006), the proponents of South Africa's bidding to host mega-events claim that the hosting of such events is likely to contribute significantly to the country's rate of development and growth.



An economic impact assessment, which was projected by Grant Thornton (2004) regarding South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup Bid, highlighted the potential economic benefits to be gained from hosting such an event. They found that the event would likely create both significant direct and indirect economic benefits for South Africa, with minimal tangible and intangible costs (Bohlmann & van Heerden, 2005). Grant Thornton's updated 2007 estimate indicates that the 2010 FIFA World Cup event should contribute at least R51.1 billion to the GDP of South Africa between 2006 and 2010, should create 218 600 sustained construction jobs, and should provide additional contributions to the GDP, since 116 600 annual jobs are likely to be created by the hosting of such an event (Grant Thornton, 2007).

In terms of tourism, the already booming sector in South Africa stands to benefit from the over 400 000 estimated international visitors who are projected to attend the event, and who are anticipated being likely to spend R9.3 billion during that time (South Africa, 2008). Such projections present substantial potential for growth within the tourism sector in Africa, considering that the continent has, so far, only been able to corner 2% of the global travel market (South Africa, 2008). In addition, the spending and growth that is projected as flowing from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup is likely to attract new investments from both within and outside the country. Since the right to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup was secured in 2004, the South African private sector fixed investment has grown by 72%, while business confidence has increased by 16% (South Africa, 2008). In addition, real and meaningful benefits are likely to be realised after the event, in the form of increased asset prices, tourism and trade (South Africa, 2008).

Maennig and du Plessis (2007:578) emphasise the urgency and need for a positive net benefit to be gained by South Africa as a whole from the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. In summing up the economic scope for such hosting, Allmers and Maennig (2008:14) explore how South Africa might benefit economically even more than have previous hosts, due to the following prevailing conditions:

- Due to the likelihood that football fans will make extensive use of restaurants and other entertainment suppliers in South Africa, their levels of spending should be much higher than if they stayed at home. Such spending should boost the relevant sectors of the local economies, such as those including the

retail and hospitality industries, which might open up several short-term employment opportunities.

- The usual negative impact of mega-events, in terms of overcrowding, congestion and displacement of regular tourism, might not occur, because the 2010 event will be staged during the low season for tourism in South Africa. Such timing of the event should, therefore, rather tend to increase the potential for additional receipts from tourism, with resulting positive effects in terms of the creation of additional both short- and long-term employment opportunities in the leisure sector.
- The development of sporting facilities, has, in the past, been regarded as subject to the law of diminishing returns, largely due to such facilities being underutilised, once they have been developed. In comparison with previous hosts, South Africa does not already have a dense provision of sporting facilities, so therefore such negative effects might not apply in the present case.

### **2.7.2 Economic costs**

Despite imposing claims regarding the positive economic spin-offs, such as job creation and contribution to GDP by proponents, experienced as a result of the hosting of mega-events, such hosting is known to have negative impacts. However, the latter impacts tend either to be ignored or hidden by both the authorities and the media concerned (Hiller, 1998).

According to Maennig and Schwarthoff (2008:2), econometric *ex-post* studies of mega-events have, so far, concluded that the impact of the hosting of mega-events is either non-significant, or even negative. Similarly, Allmers and Maennig (2008:1) maintain that previous studies, which have been conducted into former FIFA World Cups, have shown only limited positive effects on local economies. For example, Matheson and Baade (2003:8) examined the 1994 World Cup using metropolitan income data. The researchers concluded that, while boosters predicted a cumulative US\$4 billion positive impact on the nine host cities in which games were held, the economies of such cities experienced economic growth that was US\$4 billion less than would normally have been expected for the metropolitan areas concerned. Instead, they found that cumulative losses ranging from US\$5.5 to US\$9.3 billion



were experienced by the cities involved. Saayman and Rossouw (2008:3), similarly, document other examples of the hosting of mega-events that have led to economic loss rather than gain. Such examples include the hosting of the 1972 Olympic Games in Munich, which led to £178 million loss and the hosting of the 1976 Games in Montreal, which led to a £692 million loss. Such examples have given rise to concerns, which have been expressed by those who, in opposing the willingness of others to host such events, justify their opposition by claiming that major sporting events are not, in fact, economically viable for the host country concerned. Maennig (2007:2) concludes that the hopes that were held for significant positive effects, such as expanded tourism, employment and income, to be achieved from the hosting of the 2006 FIFA World Cup were not realised. Such a finding is similar to those made in respect of the hosting of similar mega-events by other researchers (Kim *et al.* 2006 and Hiller, 1998).

In regards to the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Allmers and Maennig (2008:14) note additional challenges that exist for South Africa. They argue that the country has invested heavily (US\$1.38billion) in the building of stadiums. Maennig and Schwarthoff (2008:1) have also found that South Africa has already spent £1.6 billion on the development of the relevant infrastructure. To the researchers concerned, the expenditure is almost exclusively accounted for by the government, notwithstanding the likelihood of only moderate returns in terms of the anticipated post-tournament usage of the new stadiums.

Allmers and Maennig (2008) also are wary of a second challenge that is posed for South Africa, in the form of the state of the business cycle and property market which is currently being experienced in the country. Such a factor might lead to increased costs related to the hosting of the 2010 event. They further point out that, although the South African economy did, indeed, experience post-apartheid expansion, recent data suggest imbalances both domestically, in the form of rapidly increasing amounts of household debt, and externally, in the existence of a large current account deficit.

Bowdin, Allen, O'Toole, Harris and McDonnell (2006:57) insist that expenditure on the hosting of mega-events represents an opportunity cost of resources, which might have otherwise been spent on satisfying more pressing needs of the various communities. Likewise, Allmers and Maennig (2008) underscore that spending on

infrastructure could displace public funds, resulting in delays in the rollout of other projects, which are more directly in the interests of the general public. Cornelissen and Swart (2006) concur with such a finding, noting that opponents to the bidding for, and hosting of, mega-events argue that both the making of such bids, and the event itself, are costly and these resources and rather have been directed towards combatting such problems as poverty and HIV/Aids.

On another note, Saayman (2001:99) contends that sport tourism events can result in an increase in the price of goods and services, as well as in opportunity and substitution costs. He further argues that, during the 2010 FIFA World Cup, businesses might increase the price of their goods and services, due to the high levels of demand that they experience. Such an increase might have a ripple effect on local citizens and communities. Similarly, Deccio and Baloglu (2002) also highlight the fact that the citizens of the host country have to bear the financial burden of increased taxation, due to the amount of revenue that is required for developing those facilities at which the event is to be held. For example, the *Business Review* (2007) has drawn attention to the significant rise in the construction cost estimate from what was originally anticipated in regards to the 2010 FIFA World Cup stadium development. In 2002, Deccio and Baloglu already accentuated the need for the proper evaluation and management of anticipated costs and uncertainties regarding sport tourism events.

In summing up the effects that the hosting of an event such as the World Cup has on the tourism sector, which is usually expected to be one of the main beneficiaries in such a regard, Allmers and Maennig (2008:5) conclude that such hosting may lead to the displacement of regular tourism from abroad and/or lead to the experiencing of the 'carnival effect'. Those tourists who are not as interested as soccer fans are in the World Cup might choose to postpone or even cancel travel to the host nation due to the country's hosting of the event. However, for South Africa, such a situation could be averted, due to such factors as have been mentioned above.

Tilley (2006) considers displacement effects to include those that some business sectors are likely to suffer during the World Cup. Such sectors include those shops (including home supply and appliance stores) that are located close to stadiums,



which will not directly serve the fans, and might, instead, find customers staying away to avoid crowding and congestion.

As sports events occur within a society, the socio-cultural impacts of mega-events are contextualised and presented in the following section of the current thesis.

## **2.8 Socio-cultural impacts**

Page and Connell (2009:406) describe the social impacts of tourism leading to changes in societal value systems, individual behaviour, social relationships, lifestyles, modes of expression, and community structures. They (Page & Connell, 2009:407) claim that the focus of such impacts tends to be on the host community, namely those who reside at the host destination, resulting from either their direct or indirect association with the tourists concerned. Kim *et al.* (2006) note that sport tourism events have the potential for bringing about improvements in infrastructure and superstructure, which are often financed by other communities and facilities. Such improvements, which are made for the event, tend subsequently to be used by the local communities after the event. According to Hiller (1998), though destination image and the quality of life of communities can be improved by means of hosting sport tourism events, such issues as increased crime and insecurity, prostitution, displacement, overcrowding and congestion have all been documented as potential negative impacts resulting from the hosting of sport events.

### **2.8.1 Socio-cultural benefits**

Getz (1992) refers to those benefits that can be gained from sport tourism as being part of the value of a sport event in terms of its leisure or cultural occurrence. Mega-events have been noted to boost national pride and to provide opportunities for host-guest interactions (Lee & Taylor, 2005), leading to urban regeneration, marketing and the image branding of destinations (Ohmann *et al.*, 2006), and improvement in infrastructure (Kim *et al.*, 2004). Such benefits are examined and presented in the following subsections of the current thesis.

#### **2.8.1.1 National pride**

Hosting a mega-event has a strong symbolic function, which invokes a sense of community, excitement and emotion (Lee & Taylor, 2005). Victories from such an event as the 2010 FIFA World Cup often serve to boost national pride and passion. For example, in analysing the impact of the 2002 FIFA World Cup on South Korea, Kim *et al.* (2004) quote the reactions of the president of South Korea, Dae Jung Kim, following the host nation's victory over Spain in the quarter-finals of the tournament on 22 June 2002. The president remarked that "today is the happiest day in the 5 000 years of the nation's history" (Kim *et al.*, 2006:86). Lee and Taylor (2005:602) conclude that the success of the South Korean football team provided the country with a sense of national pride and cohesiveness, which no economic impact assessment could match in terms of dollar value. A similar, or better, performance by the South African national team (Bafana Bafana) during the 2010 tournament on home soil could reignite a process of passion and national healing for a society that has been characterised by racial segregation, even in the sporting arena. As a means of further helping to build national pride and passion, dedicated public viewing areas (PVAs), as witnessed in Korea/Japan (Kim *et al.*, 2006), have been planned for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, where non-ticketed fans can gather and cheer their favourite teams (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007).

#### **2.8.1.2 Cross-cultural exchange**

According to Saayman (2001:76), spectators at a sport tourism event tend to share similar enthusiastic interest, excitement and the possible trading of useful information, which increases the flexibility of casual sociability. Such events offer spectators opportunities to escape from the oppressiveness of the workplace. The 2010 FIFA World Cup provides such a platform for local residents, sport fans or tourists, and international visitors. The successful staging of the event might not only yield economic benefits to South Africa, but also help to build up both communities and a sense of national pride, creating a sense of belonging and improving the standards of living for the residents (Dolles & Soderman, 2007; Kim *et al.*, 2006; Maennig & Porsche, 2008).



#### **2.8.1.3 Urban regeneration**

Besides the relatively short-term impact of collective sharing in respect of mega-events, the residents' quality of life can be augmented in a more long-term way by means of urban regeneration (Ohmann *et al.*, 2006). Roche (2000) asserts that contemporary urban imaging strategies are typical policy responses to social and economic problems that are associated with deindustrialisation and associated economic restructuring, urban renewal, multiculturalism, social integration and control. Hall (1998:3) contends that the principal aims of urban renewal strategies are to attract tourism investors; to generate employment opportunities within the tourism industry; to foster positive images for potential investors to the region, often by re-imaging previous negative perceptions of the region; and to provide an urban environment, which will attract and retain the interest of professional and white-collar workers, particularly in industries such as tourism and communication. He went further to suggest that the hosting of mega-events, such as the Olympic Games, the FIFA World Cup and the Commonwealth Games, are typically included in urban regeneration processes.

According to the LOC, nine South African cities, including Johannesburg, Durban, Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Bloemfontein, Nelspruit, Polokwane and Rustenburg, will host games during the 2010 FIFA World Cup. All such cities have devised detailed plans around stadium provision, transport, accommodation, urban renewal and security. Most cities have also ensured that empowerment companies and small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) will benefit from 2010-related projects, and that skills transfer will take place (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). Such plans are all geared towards consolidating the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an event that will change the face of South African cities and leave a lasting positive legacy for the citizens concerned. Ohmann *et al.* (2006) note that, improved road traffic conditions and reduced air pollution are examples of socio-environmental benefits from mega-events, resulting from physical changes and the transformation of urban areas and peripheries (Ohmann *et al.*, 2006).

#### **2.8.1.4 Infrastructural benefits**

The hosting of mega-events permits improvements to be made in both the infrastructure and the superstructure, which are perceived as the most significant

benefits of the event by those residents who use the lasting facilities that are created for such events (Kim & Chalip, 2004). A study, which Consultancy Africa Intelligence (CAI) was commissioned by the Embassy of Spain in Pretoria in 2008, notes that South Africa's infrastructure networks have been historically constructed to facilitate objectives of marginalisation and separation, in terms of the policy advocated by the previous apartheid government. Since the first democratic national elections were held in South Africa in 1994, the country has struggled to upgrade its transportation infrastructure to meet the needs of all its citizens. The same report concludes that the current transportation networks are outdated and fail adequately to facilitate the movement of people throughout the country.

In 2004 the South African government, in terms of its AsgiSA programme, committed R400 billion to recapitalising and expanding the transport, telecommunications, electricity and water infrastructure of the country. Such recapitalisation and expansion were embarked upon in order to meet the needs of the rapidly growing economy and to stimulate further growth (South Africa, 2008).

According to Maennig and Schwarthoff (2008:2) South Africa has, so far, already spent £1.6 billion on the improvement of its infrastructure in preparation for hosting the FIFA World Cup. According to the South African government, such expenditure will help to overcome existing infrastructure backlogs in roads, transport, sport facilities, telecommunication and broadcasting networks (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). In addition, the major international airports (OR Tambo, Cape Town, and Durban) are being renovated to accommodate the volume of travellers to and from the country; and public transport is currently undergoing a recapitalisation process entailing the provision of a rapid bus and rail transit system (CAI, 2008; South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007).

The construction of six new state-of-the-art stadiums and the upgrading of four existing venues for multi-purpose use have been undertaken. The construction of training facilities in most provinces is intended to leave a legacy of improved sport and recreation facilities that will benefit local communities in the long-term (South Africa, 2008).



In the light of such improvements, the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup should help to fast-track the attainment of some elements of the 2014 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and AsgiSA. However, the sustainable use of such facilities as stadiums, post the event, should be properly managed in order to prevent any potential negative consequences. Although mega-events involve infrastructural and other developments, such developments might be disadvantageous to the host society if they are not used for the maximum benefit of the general populace after the mega-event has taken place (Cornelissen, 2007). For example, the under-used stadiums built for the purpose of the 2002 FIFA World Cup in Korea/Japan are now considered to be 'white elephants' (Matheson & Baade, 2003).

#### **2.8.1.5 Marketing opportunities**

Hosting a mega-event such as the World Cup might also be associated with the intangible benefits to be gained there from. Allmers and Maennig (2008:10) examined international perceptions and 'feel good' effects for the residents of host states, hypothesising that World Cup are usually regarded as opportunities for self-marketing and image-building of the host nation's enterprises. Such opportunities are expected to produce lasting improvements in the host nation's competitive environment. They assert that the successful execution of mega-events provides opportunities for demonstrating organisational and technological know-how, as well as for showcasing the hospitality and beauty of the country (Allmers & Maennig, 2008).

Lee and Taylor (2005:595) insist that the FIFA World Cup draws significant numbers of domestic and international tourists, as well as attracting television and corporate sponsorships as means of showcasing the host location. Viewer statistics for the 2002 FIFA World Cup in Korea/Japan indicate a record cumulative audience of 49.2 billion people worldwide in terms of viewer hours (Dolles & Soderman, 2007). The 2010 FIFA World Cup is estimated as likely to attract a cumulative audience of over 30 billion people, which will present a significant opportunity for the country to establish itself on the world stage, as well as to reinforce a sense of social cohesion and confidence (Makgabo, 2006). However, Allmers and Maennig (2008:11) contend that, the quality of the impact to be obtained from the projection of the image of the country hosting the World Cup largely depends on how well the country is able to

present itself as likeable, hospitable, progressive and capable of being an effective business location. The possible negative social impacts of mega-events are examined in the following subsections of this thesis.

## **2.8.2 Socio-cultural costs**

Despite the benefits that can be gained from the hosting of mega-events, the hosting of such events has also been noted to create certain societal problems. Ohmann *et al.* (2006) highlight the negative impacts of an increase in the levels of prostitution, crime and insecurity, as well as overcrowding and congestion. Such negative impacts are elaborated upon in the following subsections of the current thesis.

### **2.8.2.1 Prostitution and HIV**

Research regarding the relationship between prostitution and the hosting of mega-events has received limited attention. Quoting Hall and Selwood, Ohmann *et al.* (2006:133) note the substantial influx of prostitutes from Asia and parts of Australia experienced both prior to, and during, the holding of the 1986 America's Cup in Fremantle. Such an influx was attributed to the anticipation of a higher demand than average in the area, resulting from the number of event visitors requiring sex industry services. The authors observe that the local government responded to such a development by adjusting those laws and regulations governing public morality, by extending trading hours for hotels, pubs and nightclubs for the duration of the event (Ohmann *et al.*, 2006). Similar calls for legalisation regarding prostitution for the duration of the 2010 FIFA World Cup have been echoed by former National Police Commissioner, Jackie Selebi, who argued that such a move would make it easier to combat crime, indicating similar decisions that were taken during the Olympic Games in 2000 and 2004 (Cape Times, 2007).

Perhaps the low-key response that has been recorded to such a move is embedded in the country's HIV/Aids situation. According to UNAIDS, a large percentage of HIV-infected persons reside in South Africa. The Medical Research Council of South Africa (2001) reported that the HIV epidemic in South Africa continues to grow, with 19.9% of adults already being infected with the disease, which translates into an estimated 4.2 million people being infected. Such a statistic places the prevalence of



HIV/Aids in the country as being one of the highest on the African continent and in the world.

#### **2.8.2.2 Crime and insecurity**

According to Ferreira and Harmse (2000), South Africa's high crime levels are a cause for concern. George (2003:575) contends that South Africa has extraordinary high levels of violent crime, including murder, attempted murder, rape, theft, muggings and hijackings. As a result, the country has been labelled the 'crime capital of the world'. Louw and Shaw (1997:1) blame such high levels of crime on South Africa's segregated past, which was characterised by racial inequality, poverty and unemployment. Crime incidents involving tourists continue to occur in the country, with the media, both internationally and locally, continuing to report such incidents as headline news (Tatalias, 2007). Such negative crime reporting has had severe negative repercussions for South Africa's tourism and development efforts (Ferreira & Harmse, 2000). After being nominated as the first African country to host the FIFA World Cup, questions about the country's ability to host a mega-event began to dominate the media (Burger, 2007).

Bob, Swart and Turco (2006:193) state that the current levels of crime in South Africa, which are among the highest in the world, pose one of the leading challenges that face South Africa in post-apartheid times. The prevalence of crime in South Africa is serious, dominating the agendas of local government, national government, civil society, and the media (Burger, 2007). Prior to the first democratic elections taking place in South Africa in 1994, several foreign governments continuously discouraged their citizens from travelling to South Africa, due to the discriminatory policies that were practised by the prevailing apartheid regime (DEAT, 1996). The transition to democracy has seen the situation change, with consequent positive repercussions for the tourism industry, as indicated in the *Tourism 10 Year Review* (DEAT, 2005). Such a transition has, however, also resulted in a high rate of crime and violence among both local South Africans and tourists who visit the country (Bloom, 1996; Demombynes & Ozler, 2005).

The causes of crime in South Africa are closely related to apartheid's bitter history, as well as to prevailing socio-economic realities (Kathrada, Burger & Dohnal, 1999). Bloom (1996) asserts that high levels of violence and crime are often caused by

unfavourable social conditions and political problems. Kotze (2006) indicates that situations where people tend to have a low income, are not well educated, and are often unemployed, are conducive to the commission of crime. As a result, Standing (2003) concludes that crime and violence have become integral part of South Africa's history and society.

Irrespective of South Africa's dire crime situation, the country has managed successfully to host several major sport events, as well as a number of international conferences, such as the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007), with little or no crime reported as being specifically associated with the event. In fact, the South African Police Services (SAPS) annual report for 2003 concludes that the CWC operations recorded no serious incidents during the entire event (Burger, 2007).

The FIFA Inspection Team, in their final report on safety and security in South Africa, concluded that, although safety and security was seen to be of concern, there was evidence to suggest that the country would be able to provide adequate security for the event (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007). Ohmann *et al.* (2006) see events of such a nature as being likely to be the scene of both premeditated and opportunistic crime, with the latter largely consisting of theft, drunkenness, disorderly behaviour and vandalism.

The South African government committed itself to increasing police force member numbers to 179 000 by 2009 (Burger, 2007). SAPS also plans to compile a detailed list of safety tips, which it intends to convey through the establishment of a communication structure that is responsible for keeping all those in South Africa, including the media, informed of the latest developments regarding safety and security.

To be able to successfully host a World Cup, the ability to combat crime and to guarantee the safety of visitors and citizens is of paramount importance (Barker, 2004). However, such an ability is difficult to achieve, as the development of an appropriate strategy or plan requires strategic implementation (Burger, 2007). A R666 million investment in state-of-the-art security and surveillance technology, including the implementation and maintenance of closed-circuit television (CCTV)



cameras, national and local command centres, radio communications technology and helicopters, as well as the recruitment and training of an additional 31 000 police officers for the 2010 World Cup, will not only help to ensure that the World Cup is hosted in a safe and secure environment, but should also make a significant contribution to the government's long-term plans for a safer South Africa (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007).

#### **2.8.2.3 Xenophobia**

The *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2005:1708) defines xenophobia as a strong feeling of dislike or fear of people from other countries. Harris (2002:170) adds that, more commonly, the term is used to denote "a dislike for foreigners", which is characterised by the holding of a negative attitude, such as a dislike, fear or hatred, towards foreigners.

Landau, Ramjathan-Koegh and Singh (2004) define the concept of xenophobia as including all forms of discriminatory attitudes towards non-nationals, irrespective of their source or nationality. They see xenophobia as being based on the attitudes of black South Africans that are held towards Africans originating elsewhere on the continent.

Kersting (2007) notes that xenophobia has become an important phenomenon in South Africa, particularly in relation to migrants from the East and Horn of Africa. He supports this assertion with the 2003 survey findings of Grossberg *et al.* (2006), who indicated that 34% of their respondents stated that they generally welcomed all immigrants to South Africa; with another 34% saying that they welcomed some; and 32% saying that they did not welcome immigrants to South Africa at all (Kersting, 2007).

According to the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) and the Parliamentary Portfolio Committee of Foreign Affairs (2005), a number of research studies, including that of the University of the Witwatersrand (2004), have served to confirm that South Africa is one of the most xenophobic societies worldwide. The above assertion is corroborated by Kersting (2007), who notes that the levels of

social distancing and xenophobia shown against foreigners from other African countries are high in South Africa.

According to the SAHRC and the Parliamentary Portfolio Committee of Foreign Affairs (2005), though the causes of xenophobia are complex and varied, they are all underpinned by unfounded myths and stereotypes, which fuel negative perceptions of foreigners. Theories relating to South Africa's racist and segregationist history and extreme poverty are widely used to explain why xenophobic sentiments exist in the country. Furthermore, the causes of xenophobia are often based on the perceptions that foreigners are an economic threat; the lack of information regarding foreigners and their rights; the perceptions that foreigners are a physical threat; the perceptions that foreigners are 'taking over' South African cities; elements of racism and isolation; and the fact that foreigners are regarded as a political scapegoat for slow service delivery (Landau *et al.*, 2004).

Xenophobia is recognised by Landau *et al.* (2004) as:

- undermining social cohesion and economic development;
- undermining regional and continental cooperative initiatives, such as NEPAD, the AU, and the Southern African Development Community (SADC); and
- hindering transitional dialogue, trade, tourism and other key aspects that are necessary for the successful outcomes of the African Renaissance and NEPAD.

Xenophobic attitudes have translated into several violent attacks that have been made on foreigners in recent times (Harris, 2002). An outbreak of xenophobic attacks occurred on 11 May 2008 in Alexandria Township, which is located in the outskirts of Johannesburg. Such attacks eventually spread countrywide, leaving over 40 people dead and some 16 000 displaced (Independent Online Web, 2008). The attacks were widely condemned by the South African government, various civic societies across the country, and the UN.

The attacks, which were widely publicised by both the local and international media, fuelled perceptions of a tainted image, resulting in a negative impact on tourism, and the anticipation of low visitor attendance for the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup, particularly by soccer supporters from other African countries (*Cape Times*, 2008).



The above assertion is corroborated by CAI (2008), whose study of the state of readiness, risk and reliability of South Africa for its hosting of the World Cup tournament confirmed that the attacks had raised concerns about South Africa's high crime rate and the potential risk to foreign fans who wish to attend the tournament in 2010.

Danny Jordaan, chief executive of the LOC, quickly moved to alleviate fears of xenophobia, which might otherwise have deterred many fans. He asserted that 'the international football community understands that the xenophobic attacks that occurred in South Africa had resulted from the conduct of some "disgruntled" individuals (Cape Times, 2008).

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

#### **2.8.2.4 Overcrowding and congestion**

Higham (1999:86) argues that crowding and congestion are often associated with staging events. He also states that host community displacements, evictions, increases in rates and rents, and the disruption of daily routines owing to crowding are commonly associated with large-scale sporting events.

Ohmann *et al.* (2006) suggest that residents within communities that host mega-events feel less inclined to frequent local amenities during an event, owing to anticipated crowding by event visitors and tourists when using public and private facilities, such as buses, trains, shops and restaurants. Instead, they may avoid such places, or decide to leave the area entirely for the duration of the tournament.

As previously mentioned, another type of impact that mega-events can cause relates to the environment in which they take place. Accordingly, an overview of the environmental impacts of mega-events is presented in the following section of the current thesis.

## **2.9 Environmental impacts**

Every human activity has an impact on the environment, as does tourism and sport. Three areas of concern require analysis in terms of mega-events and the environment, namely impact on nature (of sport venues and infrastructure); problems that might occur during the event; and the post-use of sport facilities and infrastructure (Kasper, 1998).

The most visible impacts of mega-events include the amount of natural environment which is used and the degree to which it is disrupted by the construction of roads, railways and parking spaces, transport and waste management (Kasper, 1998). Although such impacts can be regarded as negative, mega-events are able to act as mechanisms that lead to greater environmental awareness and which help to focus on the need to preserve elements of the physical landscape and local heritage, which might otherwise have been ignored (Deccio & Baloglu, 2002). Kasper (1998) contends that, although environmentalists might oppose any kind of major event, many try to influence organisers to stage an eco-friendly event, while some even view a mega-event as a medium by means of which to create environmental awareness.

Kasper (1998:68) notes that organisers should carefully select areas for new construction and balance sports needs with environmental constraints, especially in protected areas. They should also implement reforestation programmes; conduct environmental impact assessments before construction; consider constructing environmentally friendly buildings; implement community-based recycling programmes; and encourage the use of bio-fuel or hybrid cars to mitigate the effects of the above-mentioned negative impacts.

For the 2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa has committed itself to, and adopted, the Green Goal initiative first devised for the 2006 FIFA World Cup host Germany (South



Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). Such a commitment was supported by the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Marthinus van Schalkwyk, in his declaration that "South Africa is committed to greening the World Cup by focusing on the basis of four pillars: conservation of water and energy, waste management, transport and mobility and carbon offset campaigns" (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007).

The Green Goal initiative uses a number of innovative techniques to reduce any impact on climate change (Maennig & Porsche, 2008). Such techniques include the use of renewable energy at stadia and the encouragement of greater use of public and non-motorised transport by fans, resulting in substantially reduced greenhouse gas emissions (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). The initiative in Germany succeeded in decreasing electricity emissions from an estimated 75 400 tons to 2 490 tons, and transport emissions from an estimated 90 000 tons to 73 000 tons (Maennig & Porsche, 2008).

According to the South African Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007, an overall Greening Plan has been established to ensure the amalgamation of environmental concerns into major 2010 event-related programmes. The plan focuses on carbon offsetting, the development of sustainable transport, waste management, energy efficiency, and water re-use and efficiency (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). The Department of Water Affairs and Forestry will further promote the greening of cities by means of distributing indigenous trees for planting by municipal offices, schools, police stations, clinics, post offices, and informal settlements (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). In order to support the broader objective of hosting an African World Cup and leaving a lasting legacy, DEAT has devised a Trans-frontier Conservation Area Strategy. The programme will directly benefit tourism sectors in such countries as Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia and Zimbabwe (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007).

## **2.10 Summary**

As has been discussed in this chapter, sport tourism has become a significant economic activity, for both the developed and developing world. Such tourism plays a

significant role in the economic and social regeneration of both urban and rural communities, and is regarded as a vehicle for improving the quality of life for residents by attracting visitors to the region, hence contributing to the economic well-being of the local communities (Swart & Bob, 2007). South Africa will be hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Academic consensus, as previously discussed in the current thesis, regarding the impacts of such events suggests that there are both positive and negative outcomes (Horn & Manzenreiter, 2004). Table 2.1 below reflects a summary of both the negative and positive impacts of events, including both sport tourism events generally, and mega-events in particular.

**Table 2.1: The impacts of events.**

SPHERE OF EVENT	POSITIVE IMPACTS	NEGATIVE IMPACTS
Social and cultural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Shared experience</li> <li>• Revitalisation of traditions</li> <li>• Building of community pride</li> <li>• Validating of community groups</li> <li>• Increased community participation</li> <li>• Introduction of new and challenging ideas</li> <li>• Expansion of cultural perspectives</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Community alienation</li> <li>• Manipulation of community</li> <li>• Negative community image</li> <li>• Bad behaviour</li> <li>• Substance abuse</li> <li>• Social dislocation</li> <li>• Loss of amenities</li> </ul>
Physical and environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Showcasing of the environment</li> <li>• Provision of models for best practice</li> <li>• Increase in levels of environmental awareness</li> <li>• Infrastructure legacy</li> <li>• Improved transport and communication</li> <li>• Urban transformation and renewal</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Environmental damage</li> <li>• Pollution</li> <li>• Destruction of heritage</li> <li>• Noise disturbance</li> <li>• Traffic congestion</li> </ul>
Political	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• International prestige</li> <li>• Improved profile</li> <li>• Promotion of investment</li> <li>• Social cohesion</li> <li>• Development of administrative skills</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Risk of event failure</li> <li>• Misallocation of funds</li> <li>• Lack of accountability</li> <li>• Propagandising</li> <li>• Loss of community ownership and control</li> <li>• Legitimation of ideology</li> </ul>
Tourism and economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Destinalational promotion and increased number of tourist visits</li> <li>• Extended length of stay</li> <li>• Higher yield</li> <li>• Increased tax revenue</li> <li>• Business opportunities</li> <li>• Commercial activity</li> <li>• Job creation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Community resistance to tourism</li> <li>• Loss of authenticity</li> <li>• Damage to reputation</li> <li>• Exploitation</li> <li>• Inflated prices</li> <li>• Opportunity costs</li> <li>• Financial mismanagement</li> <li>• Financial loss</li> </ul>

Source: Hall (1989, cited in Zhang 2007:110).



Chapter Two provided a conceptual framework and a theoretical overview of sport tourism and mega-events. The chapter presented the background to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, which was embedded within the political economy of sport mega-events, with an emphasis on South Africa's positioning of the event as an 'African World Cup', and the associated African legacy. In order to understand and accentuate those factors that might hinder the participation of soccer fans during the event, an overview of the perceptions of impacts related to such an event was also analysed.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **FAN IDENTIFICATION, EFFECTS AND MOTIVES FOR TRAVELLING TO MEGA-EVENTS, SUCH AS THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides an overview of research that was previously conducted, which is directed towards informing an understanding of the profiles of football fans, their motivation to travel, and the related requirements for such events as the 2010 FIFA World Cup. As little is known so far about the identities of African soccer fans, especially those who attend mega-events, the review uses an inductive, grounded theory approach. Rather than basing the investigation on one existing theory, which would be insufficient to illustrate the phenomenon under investigation, an array of literature is reviewed for purposes of informing the study.

Firstly, the status of the game of football in Africa, and particularly in Cameroon, is discussed. Secondly, that literature which defines and identifies the different categories and types of football fans is examined. The final part of the chapter addresses the profiles and motives of football tourists and fans, as well as the constraints governing their travel to such events as the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

#### **3.2 Football in Africa**

Most African nations have remained firmly rooted at the base of the world economic order since the resurgence of independent movements in the 1960s (Darby, 2000). Armstrong and Giulianotti (2004) argue that the African continent was completely and utterly 'neglected' before Joao Havelange assumed the FIFA presidency in 1974. African nations gained directly from Havelange's stated aim, which was to expand the game competitively. Without having a guaranteed place at the World Cup finals since 1934, African nations were represented, in turn, by Morocco, Zaire and Tunisia at successive tournaments throughout the 1970s. However, according to Darby (2000:883), the development of African football in the international arena over the last 25 years has been such that several noted commentators have predicted that the name of an African nation will soon appear on the FIFA World Cup trophy.

The continent of Africa is the second largest on earth, and is inhabited by around 900 million people, of whom the majority have watched their teams perform at the African



Cup of Nations and the FIFA World Cup (Pannenberg, 2008). The FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games have both been enriched by the presence of African nations (Darby, 2000). CAF, which was founded in 1957, was mandated to manage and develop football across the African continent. Presently, CAF is the largest continental football body in the world, with more than 50 members (Vidacs, 2004).

### **3.2.1 Football in Cameroon**

Cameroon, which is a Central African country, has an unusually varied colonial history. Being first colonised by Germany in 1884, following the First World War, when Germany lost its colonies, the country became a League of Nations Mandate, which was jointly administered by France and the United Kingdom (Vidacs, 2004). UN statistics for 2009 estimated the country's population to be 19 522 000. The population is young, with an estimated 40.9% being under 15 years of age and an estimated 96.7% being under 65 years of age. The UN statistics further reveal that Cameroon's per-capita GDP was estimated at US\$2 821 in 2008, to which agriculture was found to contribute 47.2%. Unemployment levels were estimated at 35% in 2008, with about a third of the population being estimated to be living below the international poverty threshold of US\$1.25 a day in 2009 (UN, 2009).

Football is the most important sport in most nearly all or every of the 53 African countries. Therefore, it is no surprise that football is generally known in Cameroon as the 'King Sport' or, in French, as 'le Sport Roi'. In Cameroon, people say that "Christianity is our first religion, football our second one" (Pannenberg, 2008:10). The national governing body of football in Cameroon, FECAFOOT, has evidence of the development of football dating from the early 1960s, at which stage it was played by such notable local clubs as Cannon de Yaoundé, Union and Tonnerre Kalara, of which both are in Douala. Such local clubs have dominated the local league for decades, campaigning in CAF competitions and, more recently, together with Mount Cameroon Football Club (FC), Cotton Sport and Tiko United (Vidacs, 2004). Pannenberg (2008) examines the anthropology of football in Cameroon, observing the degree and extent to which teams and their fans are willing to go in order to win a football match. He notes the dedication, commitment and passion of the fans, despite their daily economic hardships (Pannenberg, 2008). Schatzberg (2006:358) comments that teams and their fans in Cameroon, as well as in several other nations

in Africa, engage in 'black magic', or witchcraft as it is commonly referred to, in order to win games.

According to Vidacs (2004:169), the Cameroon national football team, which is commonly referred to as the 'Indomitable Lions', is one of the best known and most successful national football teams in Africa, as previously mentioned in the current thesis. In 1990, they surprised and delighted the world by reaching the quarter-finals of the World Cup in Italy – being the first African country ever to do so – and in 2000, in Sydney, they enthralled millions of television viewers when they won the football Olympic gold. As a result of such successes, players as Roger Milla, Thomas Nkono, Joseph-Antoine Bell, Francois Omam Biyick, and, more recently, Patrick Mboma, Carlos Kameni, and Samuel Eto'o have become household names among millions of football lovers. Pannenberg (2008) notes further successes of the team. He indicates that the team also won the African Nations championship four times, in 1984, 1988, 2000 and 2002. As previously highlighted in the introductory chapter to the current thesis, other authors (Armstrong & Giulianotti, 2004; Nkwi & Vidacs, 1997) affirm that Cameroon has represented Africa on five occasions at the FIFA World Cup. Since the national team was the first African team to reach the quarter-finals of the competition in 1990, they have come to be considered a giant of African football.

According to Pannenberg (2008:6), Cameroon's performance during the 1990 FIFA World Cup in Italy placed the country, as well as Africa as a whole, on the map. He further comments that, conversely to the stereotypical image that was usually held of African countries, the image of Cameroonian footballers was positive, showing them to be strong, fast and happy players. In addition, Cameroon also appeared to be an intriguing place to visit, as Cameroonians were portrayed as the 'Brazilians of Africa', who were pictured dancing in the streets in support of their team and its achievement on the field. Nkwi and Vidacs (1997), in their research into football, politics and power in Cameroon, conclude that it is perhaps the national football team's performances, coupled with their fans' colourful and patriotic support that has placed the nation on the map, as opposed to any projection of good governance and democracy. With the qualifying tournament of the 2010 FIFA World Cup successfully completed, Cameroon has earned a record six appearances by an African team at a FIFA World



Cup. Such qualification also means that the team and its fans are scheduled to travel to South Africa in 2010 for the FIFA event.

In order to gain a better understanding of those who travel abroad to support their national sport teams, the following section of the current thesis reviews the existing literature that deals with sport tourism, sport fans and the motivation of such fans to travel.

### **3.3 Categories of sport fans**

As previously mentioned in Chapter Two of the current thesis, sport tourism can be divided into three categories: active sport tourism, event sport tourism, and nostalgia sport tourism (Gibson, 2002). Standeven and De Knop (1999) describe active sport involvement as consisting of active participation in physical activity, while passive sport involvement refers to watching or attending sporting games or events. Kurtzman and Zauhar (2003:44) describe sport tourism events as sport activities that attract tourists, of whom a large percentage are spectators. They posit that such events have the potential to attract non-resident media, technical personnel, athletes, coaches and other sports officials. Kurtzman (2005b:17) concurs that sport tourism activities can either be participatory or spectator in nature. The 2010 FIFA World Cup will have both spectators and participants, with both groups being considered as sports tourists, while the 2010 event is the activity concerned. According to Deery *et al.* (2004:242), participants in sport tourism comprise three main categories, namely those of attendee, competitor and official. They also cite Zauhar's (1996) topology, which categorises participants into:

- social participants;
- business participants;
- betting participants;
- vigorous spectators;
- moderate spectators;
- mild spectators; and
- therapeutic spectators.

According to Horne (2007), sport fans and consumers are the fulcrum upon which sport leverages its popularity. Such fans and consumers watch live television

broadcasts; listen to radio commentaries; read the sports pages of daily newspapers; log on to sport websites; buy sport-branded merchandise; and travel extensively to attend sport events. Table 3.1 below summarises the different categories of sport fans, including soccer fans, who are the primary subject under investigation in the current thesis. Before reviewing profiles of football fans and sport tourists, it is necessary to identify who sport fans are.

**Table 3.1: Categories of sport fans.**

<b>Soft-touch sport fans</b>	<b>Sport fans</b>	<b>Men, TV and beer</b>	<b>Baseball lovers</b>	<b>Young, confident sport fans</b>	<b>Soccer-only fans</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interested in gymnastics, ice skating and volleyball</li> <li>• Mainly watch TV and consult the Internet</li> <li>• Watch football, in keeping with others</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interested in all sports</li> <li>• Watch TV, read newspapers and consult the Internet</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interested in football and motor racing</li> <li>• Watch TV, read newspapers and use the Internet</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Little interest in other types of sport</li> <li>• Do not tend to watch football</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Watch, and express an interest in, all types of sport</li> <li>• Make use of new media and all media sources</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Show little interest in sports other than soccer</li> <li>• Tend to read only certain newspapers</li> <li>• Eagerly look forward to the FIFA World Cup</li> <li>• Express an interest in the Olympic Games</li> <li>• Mainly live in Germany, the UK, South Africa, Mexico and Russia</li> <li>• Tend to be part of the lower middle class, or unemployed</li> <li>• Aged 45 and upwards</li> <li>• Passionately feel that the FIFA World Cup unites similar-thinking people</li> </ul>

Source: Consumer Research FIFA World Cup Germany 2006 Pre-Wave Key Findings (2005).



### 3.3.1 Identification of sport fans

Some authors have questioned the above categorisation of sport fans. For example, Smith and Stewart (2007:156) argue that sport fandom cannot be reduced to a few basic drives and needs, and, although sometimes revealing, simply slotting fans into groupings based on a single factor that drives sport-related behaviour is an inadequate method of categorisation. They further note that, although a few studies have attempted to drive a single set of variables as influencing fan behaviour, more informative studies have managed to reflect the importance of multi-factorial analysis (Smith & Stewart, 2007).

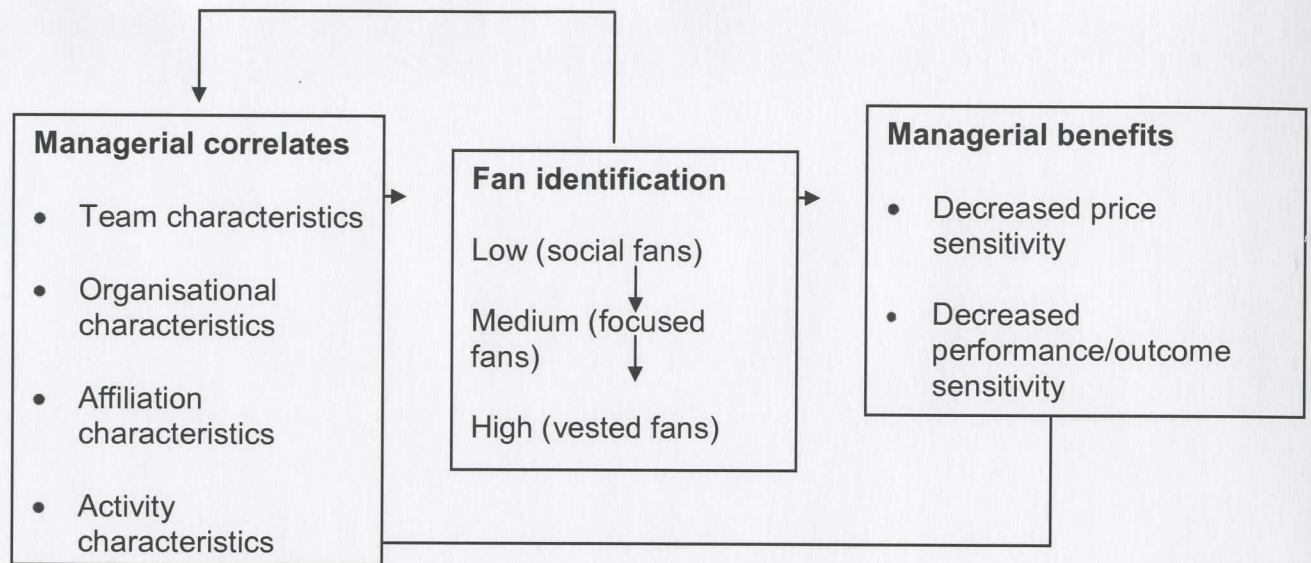
In their study conducted into the creation and fostering of fan identification in the professional sports, Sutton, McDonald, Milne and Cimperman (1997:17) argue that not all fans have the same level of fervour about, as well as devotion and commitment to, their favourite team. They suggest the following three discernable levels of fan identification that evince certain key characteristics, which are illustrated in Figure 3.1 below.

The first level of fans consists of those with a low level of identification. Such fans are social, in that they have a relatively passive long-term relationship with the sport. The relationship, though distinctive, is marked by little emotional and financial commitment and involvement. According to Sutton *et al.* (1997), such fans can be characterised by their being attracted purely by the entertainment value of the product; their initial lack of emotional attachment to either a team or a particular sporting event; and their being attracted to the sport for its pleasure and stress-relieving qualities, as well as the opportunities for social interaction within communities that it provides. Such fans follow sport for the entertainment, rather than in support of any particular team. They regard the outcome of any sporting event to be less significant than is the general value of the entertainment opportunity that is provided. However, the initial attraction to a sport for its entertainment value or for opportunities for social interaction might ultimately lead to a greater degree of liking for, and identification with, a particular team. Such an initial attraction might also serve as the introductory phase of a relationship that develops and intensifies until it forms part of a much stronger level of involvement, including meeting the players, attending a team function, or purchasing a ticket plan (Sutton *et al.*, 1997).

The second level of fans consist of those with a medium level of identification, who tend to associate themselves with a sport or team based upon some attributes or elements that they find to be attractive (Sutton *et al.*, 1997). In several instances, such a level of identification might be based upon fads, social factors, and team performance, or player personality. Level two fans are attracted by the achievement potential of the sport, which is appreciated in terms of several of the qualities of the strongly identified fan. Although high achievement-seeking fans are likely to make significant personal and financial investments in a team, their behaviour is directly associated with team performance, so that their commitment is likely to be short-term if the team does not perform in accordance with their expectations of it. Such fans tend to purchase season tickets to support their favourite team, and to wear team apparel to enhance their positive association with the team. Their involvement with the team might lead to a deeper relationship or identification with it, or might ultimately fade away, due either to poor team performance or to an identified player being traded with another team (Sutton *et al.*, 1997).

The third and most fully committed level consists of those fans who have a high level of identification with the sport. Such fans embody the strongest, most loyal and longest-term relationship that a fan/participant can have with a sport or team (Sutton *et al.*, 1997). Their relationship articulates a heavy investment and commitment, either in terms of financial or time commitments, or both. Such fans tend to feel a level of 'emotional ownership' in the sport, referring to their association with a specific team by using the first person 'we' in reference to it, and recruiting other fans and participants to it. They also devote enough time to keeping abreast with the team's activities. Although such fans tend to be attracted to sports in general, their loyalty to their own team and community is, above all, unwavering and long-term (Sutton *et al.*, 1997).





**Figure 3.1: A conceptual framework for fan identification.**

Source: Sutton *et al.* (1997).

Fans who view the team that they support as an extension of their own community have strong emotional attachments with the team concerned. Although the success of the team is felt to reflect personally upon individual fans, such success also is regarded as being a reflection of the collective identity of the community concerned (Sutton *et al.*, 1997). According to Zhang, Pease, Lam, Bellerive, Pham, Williamson and Lee (2001:44), the degree of identification that is felt with the team elicits a comparative degree of positive expectation and confidence in the performance of the team. The closer the degree of identification with a particular team, the greater is the degree of willingness exhibited to invest both time and money in attending those games that are played by the team.

### 3.3.2 Types of FIFA World Cup fans

Although the findings of those studies conducted by Sutton *et al.* (1997) and Zhang *et al.* (2001) regarding the identification of sport fans can be generalised to the fans of various sports, other studies have attempted to pinpoint the characteristics of specifically football fans, particularly those who tend to attend such mega-sporting events as the FIFA World Cup. For example, key findings of the 2005 study into consumer behaviour around the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany identified three types of FIFA World Cup fans (see Table 3.2 below).

**Table 3.2: Types of FIFA World Cup fans.**

	<b>Normally not interested in football</b>	<b>Average football interest</b>	<b>True football fans</b>
<b>Level of interest</b>	Start taking an interest in the game when the football World Cup starts	Show an interest in the World Cup during the qualifying stage	Show an interest in the World Cup during the qualifying stage
<b>Number of matches watched</b>	Less than ten matches	Less than 20 matches	More than 20 matches
<b>When watching of soccer matches takes place</b>	Only at convenient times	During non-live broadcasts too, as well as paying interest to games played by other national teams	During non-conventional times, as well as watching other national teams
<b>Reasons for event interest</b>	Look forward to the event for reasons other than the actual football played	Enjoy football both for the game and for social reasons. Enjoy seeing the world's best football stars play together in one tournament	Watch the event for football-related reasons, both to see the finest football being played, and to watch the best football stars at play
<b>Media orientation</b>	Have a low media orientation, and make use of some Internet and TV sources. Do not make use of radio, SMS or WAP	Have a strong media orientation. Make use of newspaper, TV, new media sources and radio sources	Make use of traditional media sources, such as TV and newspapers. Do not make use of the Internet, SMS or WAP

Source: Consumer Research FIFA World Cup Germany 2006 Pre-Wave Key Findings (2005).

### **3.4 Profile of football tourists**

Travel to attend an away game as a spectator is a form of event sport tourism (Getz, 2003). Around the world, thousands of people travel significant distances to watch their favourite sports on a regular basis (Gibson, Willming & Holdnak, 2003). Despite such travel, the main focus of event sport tourism research has been on the economic impact of large-scale sport events (Faulkner, 2003; Weed & Bull, 2004). For example, since securing the rights to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup, a growing body of literature (including Alegi, 2007; Allmers & Maennig, 2008; Baade & Matheson, 2004; Black, 2007; Bob, Swart & Turco, 2006; Bohlmann, 2006; Cornelissen, 2004; Kersting, 2007; Maennig & du Plessis, 2007; Pillay & Bass, 2008; Saayman & Rossouw, 2008; Swart & Bob, 2007; and others) has developed, with a focus on examining the socio-economic, environmental and political impacts of South



Africa's hosting of the event. However, little research has been undertaken to gain an understanding of the identities of those African fans who will travel to the 2010 event, despite the host nation having widely publicised the event as an 'African World Cup', with related benefits to be expected throughout Africa.

According to Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End and Jacquemotte (2000:220), the research that has been undertaken so far indicates that most people believe that sport fans are male. For example, Rubin (2009:270) asserts that most football fans have been found to be men. Similarly, Getz's (2003:58) profile of the demographics of sport event tourists in the United States concludes that 45% of men, compared to 31% of women, have been found to attend sports events. He places the average age of the sport event traveller at 45 years old, finding them, on average, to be in full-time employ. Gibson (1998a) also determined the active sport tourist to be male, with a high income, and most likely to travel to participate in their favourite pursuits until they retire.

Separate studies have been conducted into the behaviours of non-violent and violent fans. However, such studies can be seen to highlight a common element among both violent and non-violent fans, in the level of commitment that exists among those who regularly travel to watch 'their' team play. Violence aside, much of their behaviours and motivations are remarkably similar (Weed & Bull, 2004). Weed and Bull liken football fans to the 'Barmy Army' group of England's cricket fans, who spend vast amounts of time and money travelling the globe to watch their team. While some of cricket's 'traditional' supporters do not approve of their vocal 'carnavalesque' behaviour, what is not in doubt is their commitment to following their national team. Consequently, they can be associated with other committed football fans (Weed & Bull, 2004). The researchers further argue that such fans should be considered as 'associated experience' sport tourists, because a significant motivating factor for such fans on trips to support their team away from home is the 'whole package', involving the trip itself, associated social activities and, in some cases, the stay away from home. However, where these fans differ from other 'associated experience' sport tourists is that their interest in the sport and their team is deep-rooted and genuine. The sport is the central event around which the rest of the experience is organised, rather than a convenient justification for socialising. For several committed football fans, having an identity as a sport fan is key to their lifestyle. They enjoy the

outdoors, as well as opportunities for adventure (Weed & Bull, 2004). In the text that follows, the reasons for travel by sport fans are presented and analysed.

### **3.5 Reasons for travel by sport fans**

According to Getz (2003:55), travel, in general, is motivated by a combination of seeking and escaping from in both personal and interpersonal contexts. In the context of sport events, such behaviour has been found potentially to have two generic dimensions. Sport events away from home tend to exert an appeal based on their uniqueness or quality, which, when combined with the temptation of providing an opportunity to escape from the familiar and routine, is likely to generate personal benefits, making it worthwhile to spend both time and resources on attending them (Getz, 2003). However, Gammon and Robinson (2004:224) argue that attempting to pinpoint sport tourism motivators is plagued with a number of difficulties. According to the researchers, the complexity and copious number of motives for participating in sport and tourism events are well documented. Moreover, the fact that such motives tend to change over time, as well as to be evident in broad and contrasting areas of study, further exacerbates the problem (Gammon & Robinson, 2004).

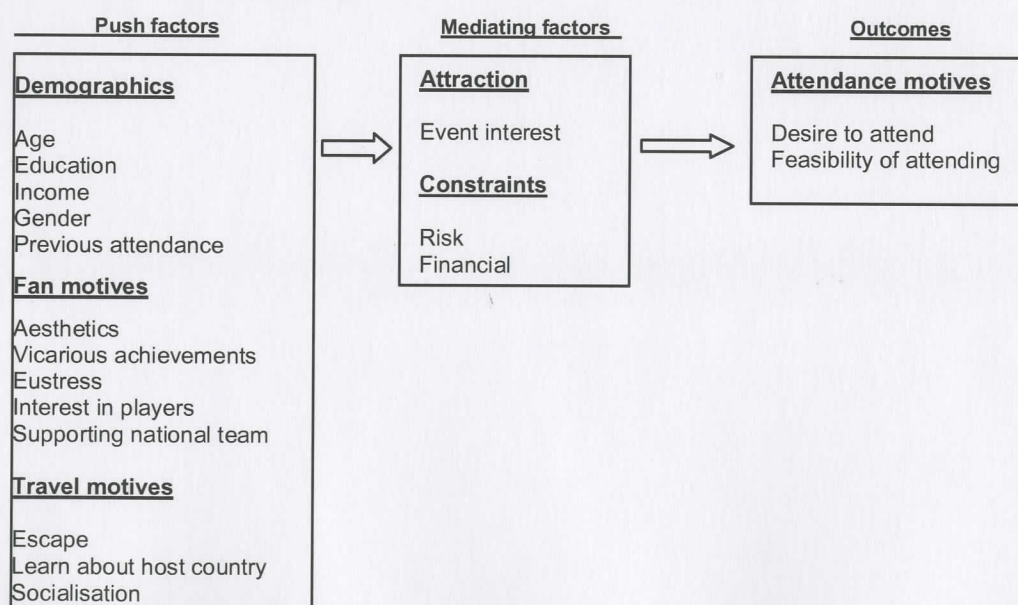
Despite the above, several motivational theories exist that are applicable in the analysis of participation and fan behaviour in sport (McDonald, Milne & Hong, 2002). Although different researchers have used a range of instruments in such analysis, the research that has been conducted across the board has consistently found that the motives of fans are multi-dimensional, with the frequency, likelihood, and interest exhibited in attendance at events can largely be predicted by their motives (Kim & Chalip, 2004).

Zhang *et al.* (2001) argue that motivation is an insufficient basis to use in gaining an understanding of the drivers of sport event attendance. They found that identifying the demographic characteristics (such as age, gender and education) of spectators facilitated the prediction of attendance frequency, in contrast to use of motivational dimensions alone for such predictions. The level of income earned is also often argued as helping to determine the likelihood of attendance at events, as it helps to determine the amount of discretionary income that is available to the spectators.



Kim and Chalip (2004) examined the effects of motives, background and interests of, as well as the constraints on, those fans who tend to travel to the FIFA World Cup events. They identified 'pull' factors, which relate to the attractions that are associated with the host destination, and 'push' factors, which are associated with intangibles relating to the motives, needs and interests of the traveller. They concluded that there are grounds expecting 'push' factors to affect the 'pull' that an event provides. The attractiveness of an event should, at least in part, be a function of a fan's level of motivation, with the higher that a fan's motivation with reference to an event is, the more attractive the event should seem (Kim & Chalip, 2004).

Chen (2007) identifies four clear, though interrelated, antecedents of the establishment of loyalty for sports tourists, namely satisfaction, attachment, involvement, and commitment. Despite sport consumers using teams and players to construct their own identities and sense of self, they can also be fickle and critical at times. In their awareness of such a phenomenon, Smith and Stewart (2007:156) stress that an array of factors affects sport consumption, in general, as well as specific decisions to travel long distances to secure a special experience, or to participate in a particular sport event. Figure 3.2 below depicts a conceptual model of the degree of interest expressed in attending an event, as well as the significance of the intention of attending.



**Figure 3.2: A conceptual model of event interest and intent to attend.**

Source: Kim & Chalip (2004).

According to Wann, Royalty and Rochelle (2002:208), sport fans and spectators can be motivated by any of a number of different factors. Researchers have found that eight motives are quite commonly expressed (McDonald *et al.*, 2002). Wann (1995) developed the Sport Fan Motivational Scale (SFMS) in this regard, which highlights the following motivations:

- eustress (positive arousal and stress release);
- escapism;
- entertainment;
- aesthetic pleasure (appreciation of the beauty of sport performances);
- a feeling of group affiliation;
- the need to spend time with the family;
- potential economic gain (to be gained from gambling); and
- self-esteem (personal enhancement) issues.

Similarly, Robinson and Trail (2005:59) note Sloans' (1989) proposal, which states that most motives for attending sporting events to fulfil related needs tend to fall within the ambit of one of the following theories: the salubrious effects theory; the stress and stimulation theories; the catharsis and aggression theories; the entertainment theory; and/or the achievement-seeking theories.

Other studies have examined those social factors that have been found to affect spectator attendance at sporting events. For example, Zhang *et al.* (2001:43) examined the relationship between five socio-motivational factors, namely stress and entertainment, achievement seeking, catharsis and aggression, salubrious effects and community image, at league hockey games. They contend that sport game attendance can be used as an escape from work and other tedious aspects of life. They also found that hockey spectators were attracted to the game as a way of fulfilling their needs for stress, risk, arousal, and stimulation in socially acceptable ways. Kim and Chalip (2004:697) contend that, since attendance at events also requires travel, it is reasonable to expect that higher levels of travel motivation are likely to affect the degree to which an event is seen to be attractive, even when attendance at the event is impossible. As following the event via its coverage in the media provides a vicarious experience, for a fan to be motivated to travel to an event, the event should be made to appear attractive, whether or not the possibility of travelling to attend the event is feasible. According to Smith and Stewart (2007),



motivational differences are also a result of the setting in which an event occurs. Football games, for example, might occur in a number of non-professional, as well as professional, settings. In order to gain a better understanding of such a phenomenon, the following subsection of the current thesis explores such settings for the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

### **3.5.1 Sport context**

According to Smith and Stewart (2007:169), when deciding whether or not to attend a particular game, travelling fans and football tourists are influenced by the closeness of the contest. As the 2010 FIFA World Cup is the first ever to be hosted on the African continent (Cornelissen, 2006) and has been widely publicised as 'an African affair' (South Africa, 2008), it is envisaged that more African fans than those who usually attend the World Cup events will be likely to attend the event.

Smith and Stewart (2007:169) assert that the degree of anticipation that is associated with the holding of a high-quality event will be reflected in a relatively high level of fan arousal, which should serve to boost the associated crowd size. Generally, the closer in score the expected result of the match or event is likely to be, the more fans tend to be prepared to travel to see it. Conversely, fans are likely to be less enthusiastic about a game in which the outcome is seen as a foregone conclusion. Games played between clubs with low-loss ratios have been found to be less attractive to fans than those played between less evenly matched clubs, even when such games are expected to be close contests. When a good team plays a poor team, the former is likely to attract substantially more attendance than the latter. When a good team does well, attendance figures are also likely to be high, regardless of who the opponent is (Smith & Stewart, 2007). Fans tend not only to achieve satisfaction from identifying with the winning team, but they are also likely to attend games frequently if they believe that their team has a strong chance of winning. The predisposition to commit more strongly to teams when they are winning is a result of wanting to bask in the reflected glory to be gained from their success (Smith & Stewart, 2007). The FIFA World Cup, which is held once every four years, comprises games played by many different national teams, which are selected from various FIFA confederations after a rigorous qualifying tournament. Most of the world's famous football nations, such as Brazil, Spain, Argentina and England, have already qualified for the upcoming 2010

FIFA World Cup. As such, the event is regarded as a 'must see' event by many football fans.

### **3.5.2 Physical environment**

Sport venue features and facilities can have a strong impact on the decision of fans to attend a sport event. A facility is attractive to fans if it provides: an attractive setting; a convenient layout; good directional signage; a visually appealing and watchable scoreboard; comfort; a relatively good and proximate view of the contest; and easy access (Smith & Stewart, 2007). For the 2010 FIFA World Cup, five new state-of-the-art stadiums have been constructed, while another five have been upgraded to meet the FIFA standards and requirements for hosting such an event (South Africa, 2008), as was mentioned in Chapter Two of the current thesis.

According to Haferburg, Golka and Selter (2009:174), PVAs are facilities that provide a live broadcast of any major sporting event (such as, in the present case, the FIFA World Cup) and which offer sufficient space for several people to watch the game. The authors distinguish between the FIFA Fan Park (that area which adjoins the stadium in the city centre); the official municipal PVAs; other formal places of public viewing (such as shopping malls); and informal public viewing places (such as where viewers congregate around a television set located in the street). Haferburg *et al.* (2009) contend that all such places are public, in the sense that there is no general restriction to access and no registration formality, although, in some cases, a fee might be charged. Fan Parks, according to Swart *et al.* (2009), are aimed at accommodating those members of the public who are not able to purchase tickets, or to travel, to the match venues.

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



Other factors determining attendance at a sporting event include: parking facilities; the quality of food and beverages; stadium design; ticketing; children's facilities; ease of access; and other auxiliary entertainment options (Smith & Stewart, 2007). Not only can such factors, if efficiently run, provide a draw-card for fans, but they can also detract from attendance when they are seen as inadequate. Fans clearly want a comfortable and safe sport watching experience, and will usually pay for such (Smith & Stewart, 2007).

### **3.5.3 Weather conditions**

According to Hinch and Higham (2003:181), the atmosphere and entertainment value of an event are influenced by the weather, with such a factor being considered as attracting 'new' spectators to an event. Zhang (2007:48) notes that weather can strongly influence the timing and success of an event, even if it is staged indoors. Smith and Stewart (2007:172) concur that weather can affect match attendance by influencing both the conditions under which the spectators watch games, as well as the quality of the games itself. They also noted that the climate might, in fact, create a narrow window of opportunity. For example, a temperate climate with a close proximity of a variety of water-based activities might tend to discourage attendance, as, too, does rain and the cold. As previously mentioned, the FIFA World Cup traditionally takes place between the months of June and July once every four years. Consequently, the 2010 FIFA World Cup will take place during South Africa's winter, which is characterised by cold and, in parts, rainy weather conditions. However, such weather is milder than that of Europe. Therefore, teams and their fans who come from overseas might not be adversely affected by the weather during the event.

### **3.5.4 Economics**

Smith and Stewart (2007:172) point out that total attendances at sport events have been found to be only marginally influenced by admission prices, with the demand for spectator sport being generally unaffected by price. The strong feelings of identity and loyalty of ardent fans reduce the significance of the price that they have to pay to attend such events. An increase in admission prices and the cost of attending is not, therefore, likely to reduce fan attendance to any marked degree (Smith & Stewart, 2007). However, Kim and Chalip (2004) argue that financial constraints and risk are

two of the constraints that inhibit travel. Although the 2010 FIFA World Cup will be hosted in Africa, attendance of the event might be influenced by travel costs, considering that, for a country like Cameroon, a third of the population lives on under \$1.25 per day (UN, 2009).

### **3.5.5 Promotional experiences**

According to Smith and Stewart (2007:173), special experiences generally tend to gain the attention of fans. Such experiences might involve the participation of a star player or personality, or the likelihood of a record-breaking performance. They might also involve an expectation of a dramatic, or even violent, encounter, or the anticipation of highly skilled and aesthetically pleasing play. The appearance of a 'personality player' and faith in the likelihood of being able to obtain value for money are increasingly important triggers for consumers attending sporting events. Smith and Stewart (2007) add that other 'value-adding' experiences include: the expectation of a special occurrence; a special player match-up; the presence of a glamour player; a complimentary display or event; and attractive drinking and eating facilities. Promotional strategies, particularly when accompanied by admission concessions, sales vouchers and merchandising discounts, are important influences on the decision that fans make to attend a game (Smith & Stewart, 2007).

Although motivational factors as to why sport fans travel have been highlighted above, several constraints or barriers have also been documented elsewhere as being factors that hinder sport fan decisions regarding the attendance of a sport event. Such constraints are summarised in the following subsection of the current thesis.

### **3.5.6 Constraints, or barriers, to travel to sport events**

Even a strong attraction to an event may not be sufficient inducement to generate embarking on travel to attend the event, particularly when the travel is of a long-haul international nature. Both existing constraints and the perceptions of such constraints play a vital role in the leisure choices that individuals and families make (Kim & Chalip, 2004). According to James and Ross (2004:18), pricing issues (setting ticket prices that are affordable, based on a community's average household income), promotions (giveaways and events that stimulate single game attendance), and



residual preference factors (game time, weather, and accessibility) have been found to affect attendance.

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

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

In the context of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the first and final two constraints highlighted above are of concern. Firstly, attending the FIFA World Cup event in South Africa will be expensive for many potential visitors, when the ticketing prices and other related travel costs are taken into consideration. Ticket prices for the games could be anywhere between R490 and R6 300 per seat, depending on the category of the ticket and which game it is (FIFA, 2009). For those African fans who wish to attend such an event for the first time, having to contend with such costs might prove to be problematic. However, as previously mentioned in the current thesis, supplementary fan parks and PVAs have been provided. Secondly, although the importance of South Africa as a destination has grown significantly since 1994, the legacy left by past policies cannot be overlooked. As discussed in Chapter Two, the crime situation in South Africa is a cause for concern, especially in the light of the wide-ranging publicity that it is given in the media. Such coverage has led to

questions surrounding the country's ability to host a mega-event, despite having successfully hosted crime-free events in the past.

### **3.6 Summary**

Sport tourism events entail the development and marketing of such events by the host country in order to obtain economic and other community-related benefits. To the participant or consumer, sport tourism consists of travel for the purpose of participating in, or viewing, a sport-related event (Getz, 2003). Sport event tourists fall into several categories, which have been discussed in the course of this chapter. Most events are spectator-oriented, with tourism benefits accruing to those who travel to view them. South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup means that fans from across the world, particularly from the rest of the African continent, have a unique opportunity to attend a FIFA World Cup for the first time.

The aim of Chapter Three, therefore, was to explain the profile of football fans, as well as what motivates them to travel to major sport events. Firstly, the subject of football as a team sport in Cameroon, as well as in the rest of Africa, was discussed in order to contextualise the study area. Secondly, the categories of sport fans, including the different types of FIFA World Cup fans, as well as the profile of football tourists, were examined and discussed. Finally, a review of the travel motivation and constraints governing the attendance of sport events was presented and analysed.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

By hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa is placing Africa firmly on the global sporting stage. The event has been widely promoted by the host nation as an 'African Cup', with both socio-economic and environmental legacies projected for the African continent as a whole (South Africa, 2008). The purpose of the current study is to determine the perceptions of Cameroonian fans in relation of South Africa's hosting of the Cup.

The present chapter describes the processes and procedures that were used in conducting the research for the current study. A detailed research methodology in terms of the research design, the research instrument, and the method of collecting and analysing data is presented below.

#### **4.2 Research questions**

As mentioned in Chapter One, the research questions outlined below, guided this study.

- What is the level of support for South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup among Africans in general, particularly Cameroonian, fans?
- Will the Cameroonian fans travel to South Africa in order to attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup?
- What are the profiles of those Cameroonian fans who will travel to South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup?
- Will the Cameroonian fans travel to the 2010 FIFA World Cup as ticketed or non-ticketed fans?
- Where will the Cameroonian fans base themselves during the 2010 FIFA World Cup?
- What are the current perceptions of the image of South Africa among soccer fans from across Africa, and from Cameroon in particular?
- What tourism potential exists for South Africa regarding those from other African countries, and from Cameroon in particular?

- Do the Cameroonian fans agree that socio-economic and environmental benefits will filter through to other African countries as a result of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

### **4.3 Validity and reliability**

Measures of validity and reliability in research relate to the instruments (questionnaires, interviews or focus group) used to collect data. The validity of the measurement procedure is the degree to which the measurement process measures the variable that it claims to measure, whereas reliability refers to the consistency of the stability of the measurement (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2006). Babbie and Mouton (2001:122) assert that the measures of criterion-related, content and construct validity should all be specifically defined for the research, while Neuman and Krueger (2003:179) suggest the use of pre-test pilot surveys and replications to ensure that the research is reliable.

The formats of questionnaire surveys and key informant interviews used in the current study were adopted from previous sport tourism and mega-event studies dealing with football fans and their perceptions. To ensure reliability, the following steps were taken by the researcher:

- Errors and problems in the questionnaire were ratified prior to the holding of the games by means of undertaking a pilot study.
- Proper training in the administration of the questionnaire was provided to the field workers concerned.

### **4.4 Selection of sample**

As was previously discussed in Chapter One, the focus of the current study is to determine the perceptions of Cameroonian fans regarding South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, as well as to determine whether such fans view the event as an 'African World Cup'. Both qualitative and quantitative techniques were used for collecting the data. The survey questionnaire included both open-ended and closed-ended questions that the soccer fans and key informants, such as the team managers, coaches, team presidents and members of FECAFOOT, were asked.



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

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

For the current study, the sample size was decided upon based on a table that was devised for the determination of how large a randomly chosen sample from a given finite population should be, as illustrated by Isaac and Michael (1981:193). The Stade de Molyko in Buea has a capacity of 8 000 spectators, while the municipal stadium in Limbe has a capacity of 6 000. Based on the table, and the capacities of the two venues, a sample of 367 and 361 was drawn, respectively. The questionnaire was administered using the systematic stratified random sampling method. According to Clark *et al.* (1998:77), such a basic form of probability sampling involves the selecting of elements from a population, in relation to which each element in the population has an equal, non-zero chance of actually being selected. De Vos *et al.* (2006:200) postulate that such a type of sampling is suitable for heterogeneous populations, because the inclusion of small subgroups percentage-wise can be guaranteed.

Another sample of 10 was reserved for the key informant interviews, and was administered by means of the convenience sampling approach. The use of such a method allows for the inclusion of any case which happens to cross the researcher's path, and has something to do with the phenomenon included in the sample until the desired number is obtained (De Vos *et al.*, 2006). In all, a total of 738 respondents were surveyed. The distribution of questionnaires is shown in Table 4.1 below.

**Table 4.1: Distribution of questionnaires.**

<b>Area</b>	<b>Sample</b>
Football fans (Buea)	367
Football fans (Limbe)	361
Total no. of football fans (Buea/Limbe)	728
Key informants	10

## **4.5 Study areas**

The current study was conducted in the two designated areas of Buea and Limbe, as previously mentioned in Chapter One. Justification of the use of both areas in the study is discussed in detail below.

### **4.5.1 Justification of study areas**

Buea is the capital of the South-West Region of Cameroon. The town is located on the eastern slopes of Mount Cameroon, and has a population of 150 000. Due to its position as a university town and the provincial capital, a significant number of different ethnic groups are resident in Buea. Mount Cameroon Football Club was named after Mount Cameroon, which is usually referred to as Mount Fako. It is the second highest mountain range in Africa, with a height of over 4 040 meters above sea level (Cameroon, 2009). The club campaigns in the Cameroon Premier League, and has represented Cameroon on two occasions in CAF continental tournaments (FECAFOOT, 2008). Although the club has a reported fan base of over 35 000, the centrally located Stade de Molyko, which has seating for only 8 000, is their home venue in Buea.

Limbe is located on a beautiful bay, set against the backdrop of a major mountain range. Its black-sand beaches make Limbe one of two coastal towns (Kribi being the other) that are popular among Western tourists. The Limbe Wildlife Centre and Limbe Botanical Gardens are notable attractions in the town. The town of Limbe is rich in oil, and is considered the economic capital of the province, with over 85 000 permanent residents (Cameroon, 2009).



Limbe Municipal Stadium, with a seating capacity of 6 000, is the home ground of the Cameroonian premier division club, Tiko United. Although the club has only relatively recently attained a place in the premier division league, the club was founded in the 1960s, and currently has a registered 16 000 fans (FECAFOOT, 2008). Figure 4.1 below is a map of Cameroon, showing the location of the study areas involved.



**Figure 4.1: Map of Cameroon and the relevant study areas.**

Source: <http://commons.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:provinces-of-Cameroon-EN.svg>.

#### **4.6 Research instruments and data collection**

The most frequently used methodology for gathering data about a survey population is that of questionnaires. The questionnaires are usually directed at individuals, who,

in the current study, include football fans, team managers, coaches, match officials and members of FECAFOOT. The following section outlines the details of the research instruments used in the present study, as well as both the primary and secondary data collected for the study.

#### **4.6.1 Secondary sources of data**

Relevant literature on soccer fans, tourism, the political economy of tourism, sport tourism, and mega-events in general, including South Africa in particular, was sourced from journal articles, books, conference papers, newspaper articles, magazines, the Internet, and theses and dissertations. The literature was critically examined for the literature review. The information gleaned during the secondary data collection enabled previous relevant studies to be linked to the current research, and facilitated the design of the questionnaire.

#### **4.6.2 Primary sources of data**

The primary sources of data used in the study include questionnaire surveys and key informant interviews, as outlined in the following section of the current thesis.

##### **4.6.2.1 Pilot survey**

According to De Vos *et al.* (2006:206), pilot studies are increasingly becoming standard practice in research. They contend that, although the researcher may plan his or her investigation in a careful and logical way, the practical situation remains an unknown factor until it is accessed in full. A pilot study is, therefore, viewed as a dress rehearsal of the main investigation, although it is done on a smaller scale to the latter. Before the researcher's planned investigation was conducted, questionnaires were administered to different people in order to identify and ratify common problems and errors, and to ensure that the chosen procedures would be suitable, valid, reliable and effective for the study concerned.



#### 4.6.2.2 Questionnaire surveys

According to De Vos *et al.* (2006:166), the basic objective of a questionnaire is to obtain facts and opinions about a phenomenon from those who are informed on the particular issue. They further indicate that questionnaires are the most commonly used technique in social science research. The questionnaire, which was used in the current study, included both open-ended and closed-ended questions. The closed-ended questions required the respondents to select from a number of preset responses presented by the researcher, while the open-ended questions required the respondents to provide their own answers to the questions asked of them.

Several means of administering questionnaire exist. Questionnaires can be mailed, administered telephonically, self-administered, or administered by trained interviewers (De Vos *et al.*, 2006). To simplify the process of data collection still further, the study was conducted face-to-face by trained interviewers from the University of Buea, using the Paper and Pencil Interviews (PAPI) method of administration. Use of the process also enabled any unclear questions to be clarified. A cover letter detailing the purpose of the study was also designed and attached to the questionnaire (see Appendix A). The data obtained in response to the questionnaire were collected in Buea during a premier league match held between Mount Cameroon FC and Panthare FC and in Limbe during a match between Tiko United and Darnay FC (see Appendix B).

The questionnaire consisted of the following four sections:

**Section 1:** The section consisted of questions aimed at determining the respondents' interest in football at three different levels: locally, in relation to their clubs; nationally, in relation to their national team; and internationally. The aim of the questions was to determine what kind of fan the respondent was. Section 1 also contained questions relating to the respondent's participation in, and attendance at, previous FIFA World Cup events.

**Section 2:** The section focused on the respondents' awareness and perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and South Africa. The respondents were asked to indicate which country would be hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, and whether they would

attend the tournament. The respondents were also asked to indicate whether they were likely to attend, the host cities at which they would like to be based, the number of days that they would like to stay, their intended use of PVAs, and which activities they would be likely to engage in. Furthermore, the respondents were asked to outline both the advantages and disadvantages for South Africa being a tourist destination.

**Section 3:** The section included questions aimed at determining the respondents' support and awareness of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Using a rating scale, the respondents were required to rate statements regarding the projected benefits and opportunities of the event for Africa as a whole, as well as for South Africa, and also whether they viewed the event as an 'African World Cup'.

**Section 4:** The last section of the questionnaire focused on the demographic profile of the respondents, with regards to their age, gender, race and employment status.

#### **4.6.2.3 Key informant interviews**

Relevant stakeholders, including club presidents and owners, match officials, team managers and coaches, as well as representatives of FECAFOOT, were surveyed using the same questionnaire as was described in 4.6.2.2 above.

#### **4.7 Procedure for analysing data**

The SPSS software was used to analyse the quantitative data. Such software enables data to be described and summarised, using descriptive statistics, tables, bar charts and graphic presentations. The qualitative data were analysed in the different conceptual categories, in terms of the constant comparative method.

#### **4.8 Summary**

In order to guide the current study and to address the set research objectives, the research methods, tools, techniques and procedures used were discussed earlier in



this chapter. The different methods of collecting and analysing information were also discussed in the chapter.

In total, 738 soccer fans, match officials, club presidents and members of FECAFOOT were surveyed. With the methodology for the study having been determined, the following chapter (Chapter Five) presents a discussion of the analysis and findings of the data collected. Efforts are made to provide suitable answers to the research objectives, which were specified in Chapter One.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **FINDINGS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter detailed the descriptive research methods that were used in the current study. Such methods involved self-administered questionnaires and face-to-face interviews conducted with soccer fans, as well as key informant interviews conducted with relevant stakeholders of football in Cameroon.

The present chapter presents the findings, analysis and discussion of the responses that were received to the questionnaires, as well as during the interviews. The discussion ensues under the headings of the respective research objectives, as determined in Chapter One. Tables and figures have been used to present and illustrate the findings in relation to the fans as clearly as possible. A thematic discussion of the findings in relation to the key informants is presented, where relevant.

#### **5.2 Responses**

As previously explained in Chapter Four, the sample size for the current study was adopted on the basis of a table, which allowed for the determination of a required size for a randomly chosen sample from a given finite population, as illustrated by Isaac and Michael (1981:193). The Stade de Molyko in Buea, as previously explained, can accommodate 8 000 spectators, while the municipal stadium in Limbe can accommodate 6 000, thus allowing for a joint capacity of 14 000. Based on the table, and the capacities of the two venues, a sample of 367 and 361 respondents was drawn respectively, making a total of 728 subjects being required for purposes of the study, additionally, 10 key informant interviews were completed, resulting in a total number of 738 respondents participating in the research.

From 12 to 17 December 2008, all 738 valid participants were surveyed, including the set number of soccer fans, players, members of FECAFOOT, club presidents and owners, as well as team managers and coaches at Buea and Limbe, respectively.



### 5.3 Demographic profile of respondents

This section of the thesis presents the key findings obtained in connection with the demographic profiles of respondents, in terms of their age, gender, race, monthly household income and employment status.

#### 5.3.1 Age

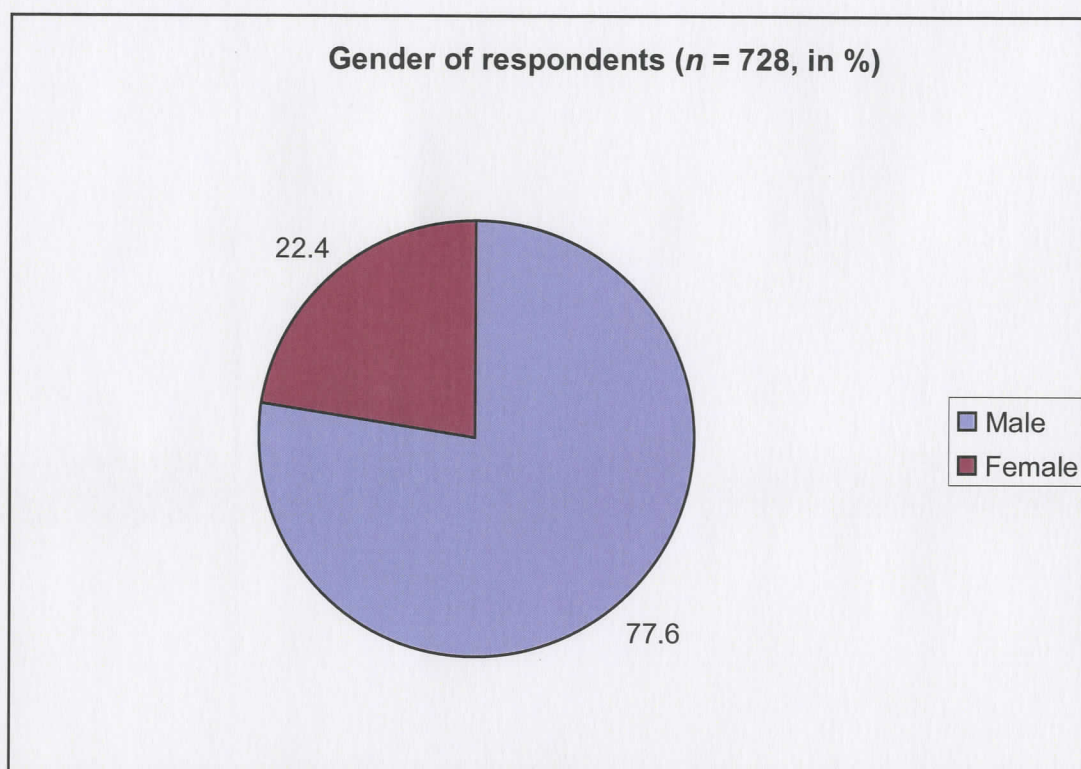
Respondents were asked to state their current age. The question was open-ended. The responses were captured and grouped into six different age categories. Table 5.1 below illustrates a breakdown of the respondents' ages, showing that 75.7% of respondents were from the two age groups of 21 to 30 years (52.1%) and 31 to 40 years (23.6%) combined. Interestingly, the results show a close similarity in those responses received from the younger age group of 18 to 20 years (9.6%), and those received from the respondents falling in the age group 41 to 50 years (9.9%). A total of 3.4% and 1.1% of the respondents were found to fall within the older age categories of 51 to 60 years and 61 years and above, respectively. Evidently, football fans in Cameroon are relatively young, tending to be between the ages of 18 to 50 years. The average age of the respondents was 30 years.

Table 5.1: Age of respondents ( <i>n</i> = 728, in %).	
AGE GROUP (YEARS)	TOTAL ( <i>n</i> =728)
18 – 20	9.6
21 – 30	52.1
31 – 40	23.6
41 – 50	9.9
51 – 60	3.4
61<	1.1

#### 5.3.2 Gender

Football events or games include both active and passive participants, as was discussed in Chapter Three. Figure 5.1 below represents the results of the respondents in terms of gender, with the highest (77.6%) percentage being found to be male, in comparison with only 22.4% female. Such a finding supports those made in previous studies by Getz (2003:58), who asserted that more males, compared to

females, attended sport events, and by Rubin (2009:270), who reported that most football fans are men.



**Figure 5.1: Gender of respondents ( $n = 728$ , in %).**

### 5.3.3 Race

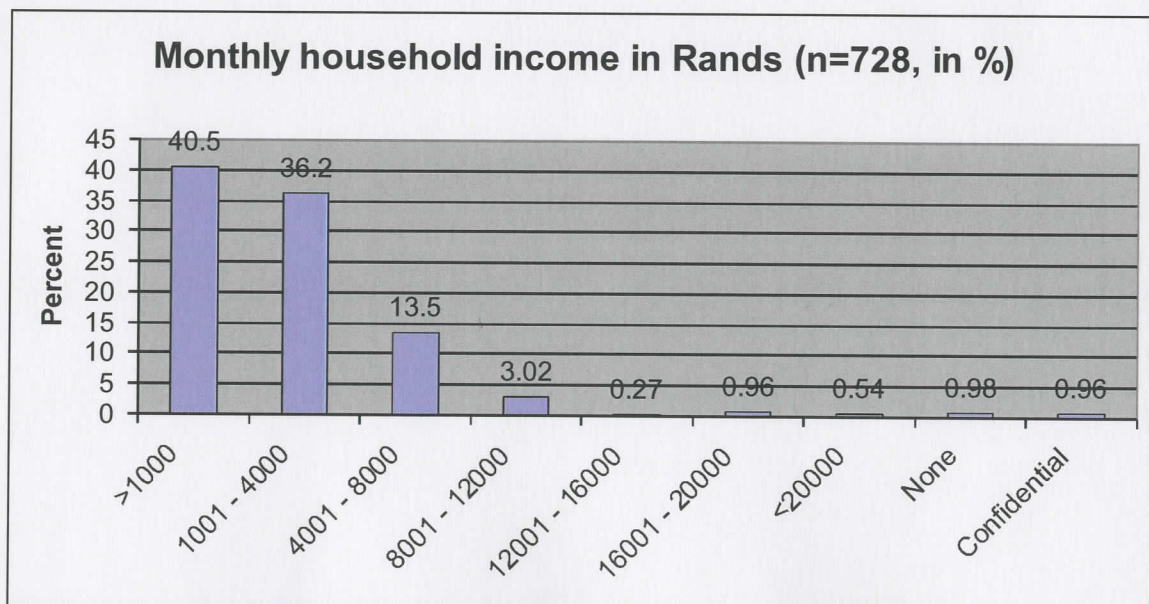
As expected, the overwhelming majority of respondents were found to be black (97.5%), as is shown in Table 5.2 below. Such a finding can be explained by the fact that approximately 98% of Cameroon's population are black (Pannenborg, 2008). A total of 2.3% of surveyed fans was found to be white, with 0.1% being found to be Indian.

Table 5.2: Race category of respondents ( $n = 728$ , in %).	
RACE GROUP	TOTAL ( $n=728$ )
Black	97.5
White	2.3
Indian	0.1



### 5.3.4 Monthly income

The respondents were asked to indicate what their monthly household income was before deductions, including taxes. The results, as illustrated in Figure 5.2, show that 40.5% of the respondents were found to live in households earning less than R1 000 a month. Such a finding is significant, and consistent with UN (2009) statistics, which state that about a third of Cameroon's population lives on under \$1.25 per day, as mentioned previously in Chapter Three of the current thesis. It is worth noting that 10% of the respondents were found to be students, while another 11.4% work on a part-time basis, as shown in Table 5.3 below. A total of 36.2% of the respondents were found to earn between R1 001 and R4 000 per month, while 13.5% earn between R4 001 and R8 000 monthly. Whereas 3.02% were found to earn between R8 001 and R12 000 per month; 0.27% were found to earn between R12 001 and R16 000 per month; 0.96% were found to earn between R16 001 and R20 000 per month; and 0.54% were found to be high income earners, earning over R20 000 per month. Most key informants also were found to fall within the high income group. However, 0.96% of the respondents declared that they regarded their income to be confidential, while the remaining 0.98% reported earning no income at all. The average income was R2656.96.



**Figure 5.2: Monthly household income of respondents before deductions and tax (n=728, in %)**

### 5.3.5 Employment status

The results reflected in Table 5.3 below represent the employment status of the respondents. Most of the respondents, as well as the key informants, were found either to work on a full-time basis (38.2%) or to be self-employed (32.7%). The results also revealed closely similar responses to have been received from those respondents who reported working part-time (11.4%), and from those who said that they were students (10%). A similar scenario is seen in regard to the number of respondents who reported being retired (1.9%), and those who declared themselves to be housewives (1.8%). However, 4% of the respondents stated that they were unemployed.

<b>Table 5.3: Employment status of respondents (<i>n</i> = 728, in %).</b>	
<b>EMPLOYMENT STATUS</b>	<b>TOTAL (<i>n</i>=728)</b>
Working full-time	38.2
Self-employed	32.7
Working part-time	11.4
Student	10.0
Unemployed	4.0
Retired	1.9
Housewife	1.8

## 5.4 Interest in football

Sutton *et al.* (1997:17) assert that not all fans display the same level of fervour and devotion about, as well as commitment, to their favourite team. They identify three levels of fans: low (social fans); medium (focused fans); and high (vested fans). In order to determine the different types of Cameroonian football fans, the respondents were asked about their involvement in football, as reflected in response to a variety of given statements. The results are detailed in the following paragraphs.

### 5.4.1 Interest in football as a spectator

When they were asked to describe their interest in football as a spectator, over half of the respondents (56.6%) said that they considered themselves to be avid fans (allowing for their categorisation as fans with high identification, or vested fans), who always try to attend games or to watch them on television, as is reflected in Table 5.4. A further 30.6% expressed an interest in football, stating that they watched it



whenever they could (allowing for their categorisation as medium fans). Relatively few (6.6%) stated that they were social fans (meaning fans with low identification), who were not particularly interested in following the game closely, but who enjoyed watching a game of football when it came to their area. However, 6.2% of the respondents stated that they were not interested in football, but watched or attended games under the influence of family or friends, who were interested in it.

<b>Table 5.4: Interest in football as a spectator (<i>n</i> = 728, in %).</b>	
<b>STATEMENT</b>	<b>TOTAL (<i>n</i>=728)</b>
I am an avid fan and always try to attend or watch it on TV.	56.6
I am interested in the sport and watch it when I can.	30.6
I am not particularly interested in the sport, but I enjoy it when it comes to our area.	6.6
I am not interested in the sport, but sometimes attend or watch it because family or friends are interested in it.	6.2

#### **5.4.2 Level of interest in local football**

Table 5.5 tabulates a breakdown of respondents according to their level of interest in local Cameroonian football. A total of 75.9% of respondents stated that they either follow their team occasionally (42.9%), or followed their team to every football match (33%). A total of 16.8% said that they watched their local team on television, while a minority (7.4%) indicated that they were not interested in local football.

<b>Table 5.5: Interest in local football (<i>n</i> = 728, in %).</b>	
<b>STATEMENT</b>	<b>TOTAL (<i>n</i>=728)</b>
Follow my team occasionally	42.9
Follow my team to every game	33.0
Watch my team play only on television	16.8
Not interested	7.4

#### 5.4.3 Level of interest in the Cameroon national team

As Table 5.6 illustrates, most (88.7%) of the fans who responded to the survey were found to follow international football on television whenever their national team (the 'Indomitable Lions') played. Such a finding is similar to other findings shown in Table 5.7, which indicates that 88.9% also claimed to follow international football on television whenever other teams than their own played. A total of 7.1% stated that they were not interested in the national team, while a minority (4.1%) of Cameroonian fans stated that they travelled to watch international football games. In contrast, most key informants indicated that they travelled to watch international games.

**Table 5.6: Level of interest in the Cameroonian national team ( $n = 728$ , in %).**

STATEMENT	TOTAL ( $n=728$ )
Follow international football on television	88.7
Not interested in national team	7.1
Travel to international football games	4.1

#### 5.4.4 Level of interest in international football as played by other teams

In terms of international football as played by other teams, most (88.9%) respondents indicated that they followed international football on television, as stated above. As shown in Table 5.7, a total of 9.3% of the respondents indicated that they were not interested in the progress of other national teams, while a minority (1.8%) indicated that they travelled to watch international football games.

**Table 5.7: Level of interest in international football in relation to other teams ( $n = 728$ , in %).**

STATEMENT	TOTAL ( $n=728$ )
Follow international football on television	88.9
Not interested	9.3
Travel to international football games	1.8



#### 5.4.5 Attendance at international matches, excluding FIFA World Cup tournaments

Figure 5.3 reveals that a majority (90.6%) of respondents stated that they had never travelled to an international football match other than a FIFA World Cup tournament, compared to 9.4% who stated that they had. Despite the fact that 56.6% of the respondents, as can be seen in Table 5.4 above, were found to consider themselves to be avid fans of the game, such figures appear significantly low. Such low levels of travel can be understood when one takes into consideration the average low monthly household income of the respondents concerned.

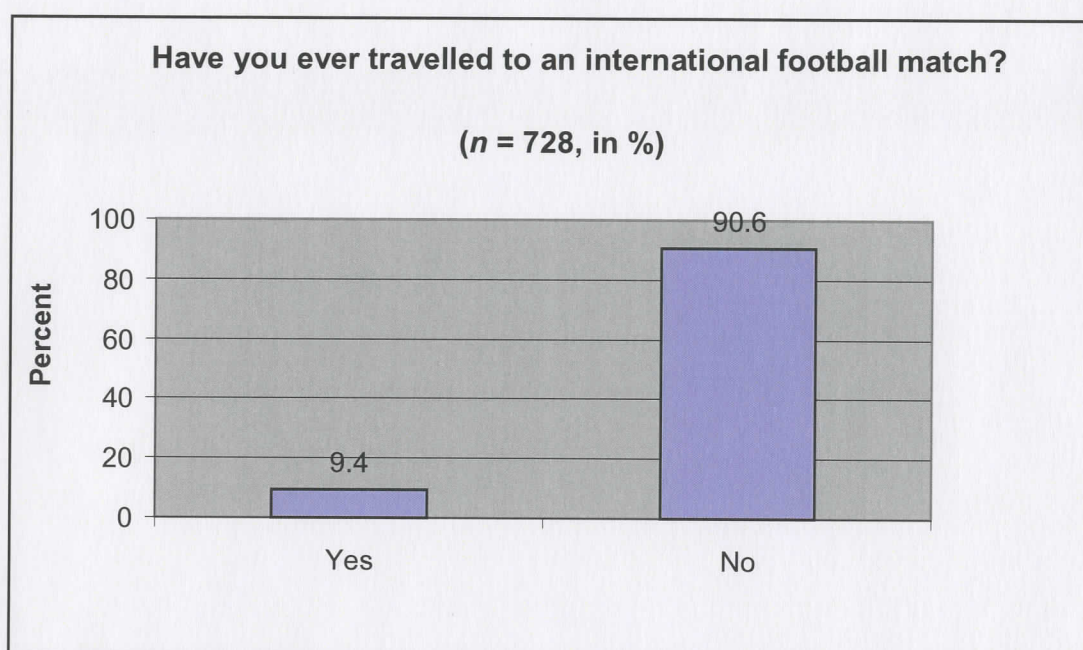


Figure 5.3: Attendance at international matches, excluding FIFA World Cup tournaments (n = 728, in %).

##### 5.4.5.1 Recent attendance at international matches

A follow-up question was asked of those respondents (the 9.4% referred to in Subsection 5.4.5 above) who stated that they had travelled to international matches other than those played during the FIFA World Cup tournament. The related findings are shown, in part, in Table 5.8 below, which indicates that most respondents have travelled to international matches across the African continent (88.3%) (for a total breakdown of the responses received, refer to Appendix C). A total of 31.4% of the respondents indicated that they had attended games in Nigeria, while 25.8% claimed to have travelled to Ghana to attend soccer games. Such results can be explained in

terms of the physical proximity of a particular contest. The related literature suggests that the fans' motive in attending sport events depends on such proximity (Kim & Chalip, 2004). Geographically, Cameroon shares a boundary to the west with Nigeria, while Ghana is located relatively nearby, and Gabon and Equatorial Guinea are south of Cameroon. In 2008, a total of 2.9% of the respondents reported travelling to South Africa.

**Table 5.8: Recent attendance at international football matches by respondents ( $n = 68$ , in %).**

HOST COUNTRY AND YEARS IN WHICH TRAVELLED	TOTAL ( $n=68$ )
Nigeria, 1985 – 2008	31.4
Ghana, 2003 – 2008	25.8
Egypt, 2006 – 2008	10
France, 1982 – 2004	4.2
South Africa, 2008	2.9

A cross-tabulation of the responses received, in terms of those respondents who reported already having attended FIFA World Cup tournaments, and those who reported having travelled to international football matches outside Cameroon, is presented in Table 5.9 below. The results show a significant relationship between the two groups, since a total of 4.5% of respondents reported having travelled to a World Cup tournament, while 3.8% reported having attended an international match outside Cameroon.

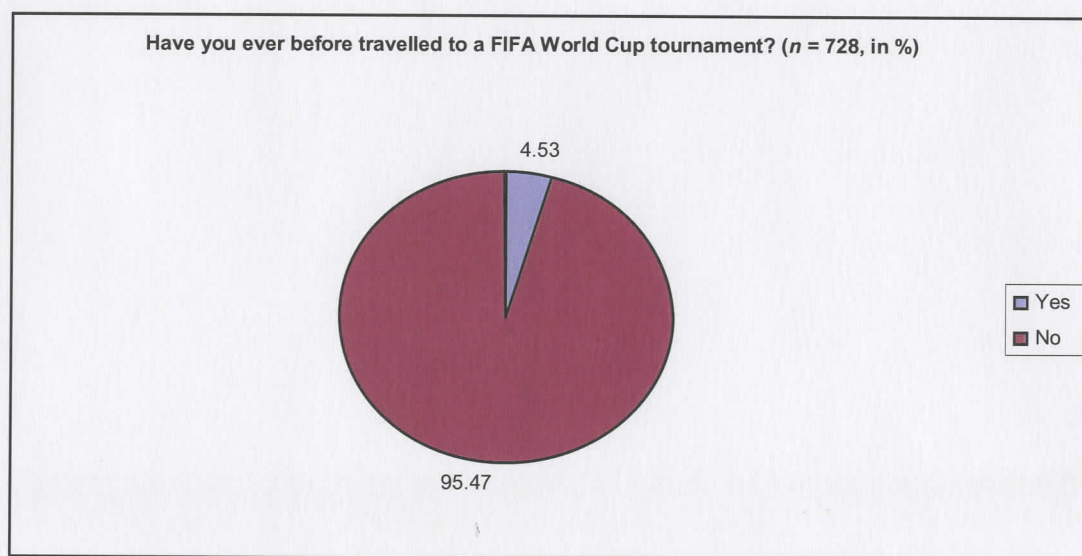
**Table 5.9: Cross-tabulation of attendance at FIFA World Cup tournaments by international football matches outside Cameroon ( $n = 728$ ).**

		Travelled to previous FIFA World Cup tournament(s)		Total (%)
		Yes (%)	No (%)	
Travelled to an international football match (other than the FIFA World Cup) outside Cameroon	Yes	3.8	5.8	9.6
	No	0.7	89.7	90.4
	Total	4.5	95.5	100.0
Pearson Chi-square ( $p = 0.0$ )				



#### 5.4.6 Previous attendance at FIFA World Cup tournaments

Given that the Cameroonian national team has represented Africa on five occasions at FIFA World Cup tournaments, as mentioned in Chapter Three, the results that are reflected in Figure 5.4 show a significant disparity between the respondents concerned, in terms of them being generally less travelled. A total of 95.47% of the respondents reported never before having travelled to a FIFA World Cup match, compared with those (4.53%) who reported having travelled to attend such a match. The results show that such a mega-event as the FIFA World Cup has not previously been a sufficient inducement to African fans to travel, which might have led to them not feeling as involved with the game as they presently are. However, such a disparity can again be explained by the constraints, including the travel costs that are experienced on such travel. In addition, mega-events are generally perceived as expensive to access, as noted by Zhang (2007).



**Figure 5.4: Previous attendance at FIFA World Cup tournaments (n = 728, in %).**

In contrast to the responses that were received from the fans participating in the study, the majority of key informants reported having travelled to at least one previous World Cup tournament. This could be explained by their monthly income and their higher level of involvement with the game, as previously discussed.

A cross-tabulation of previous World Cup attendance, according to gender, was conducted, of which the results are presented in Table 5.10. A Chi-square test was

conducted with those respondents who indicated that they had previously travelled to a FIFA World Cup tournament. The results show a significant disparity between the two responses. Significantly more males (77.6%) than females (22.4%) reported having travelled to a FIFA World Cup tournament. The results are not surprising, when they are compared with those of previous studies, as was highlighted in Subsection 5.3.2.

<b>Table: 5.10: Cross-tabulation of previous attendance at FIFA World Cup tournaments by gender (<math>n = 728</math>).</b>				
		<b>Gender</b>		<b>Total (%)</b>
		<b>Male (%)</b>	<b>Female (%)</b>	
<b>Have you ever travelled to a FIFA World Cup tournament?</b>	Yes	4.1	0.4	4.5
	No	73.5	22.0	95.5
	Total	77.6	22.4	100.0
Pearson Chi-square ( $p = 0.159$ )				

#### 5.4.6.1 Recent attendance at FIFA World Cup tournaments

Of those respondents who reported having travelled to a FIFA World Cup tournament, Table 5.11 indicates that almost half of the respondents (46.9%) were found to have attended the most recent FIFA World Cup tournament, which was held in Germany in 2006. Such attendance was found to be closely followed by that of the World Cup held in France in 1998 (37.5%), whereas only 12.5% were found to have attended the World Cup in the USA in 1994, with 3.1% attending the 2002 tournament held in Korea and Japan. The constraints on long-haul travel might have dissuaded the respondents from attending the latter tournament.

<b>Table 5.11: Most recent World Cup attended (<math>n = 33</math>, in %).</b>	
<b>HOST COUNTRY/COUNTRIES AND YEAR OF ATTENDANCE</b>	<b>TOTAL (<math>n=33</math>)</b>
Germany, 2006	46.9
France, 1998	37.5
USA, 1994	12.5
Korea and Japan, 2002	3.1



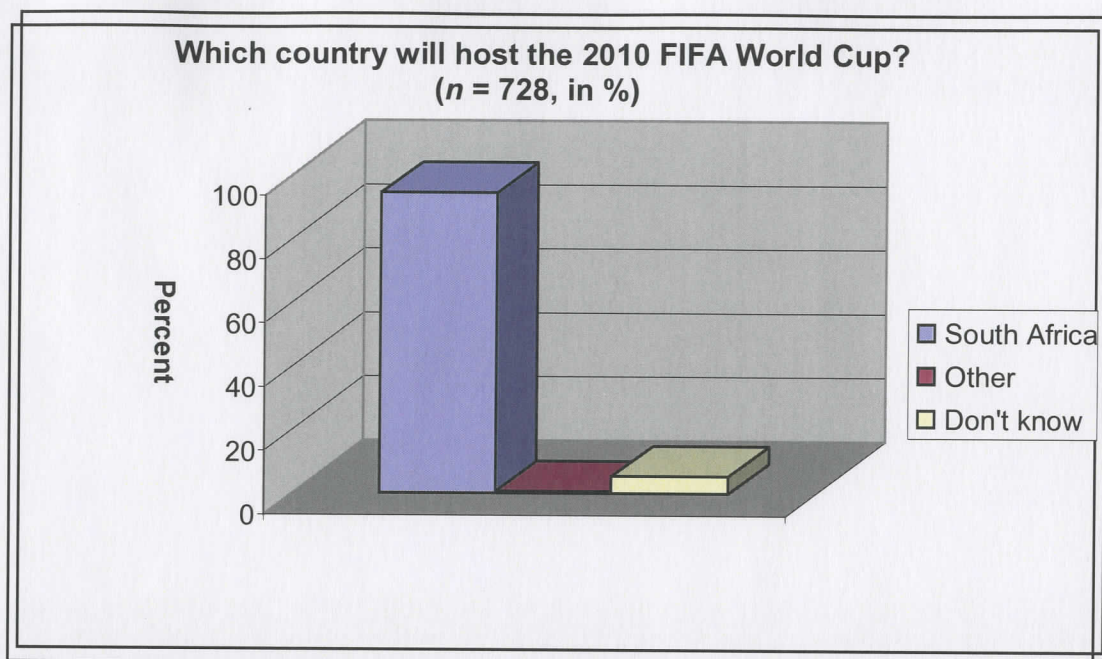
Virtually every respondent surveyed considered him/herself as a soccer fan. The evidence suggests that Cameroonian fans tend to be deeply involved with football, as a majority of fans might be classified as being highly involved in the game. Such a classification categorises them as vested or avid fans, as was previously suggested in Chapter Three of the current thesis.

## **5.5 Awareness and perceptions of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

This section presents the results of key findings with regards to the Cameroonian fans' awareness and perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. It reveals the identities of African fans, particularly of those from Cameroon who intend to attend the event, as well as their choice of base. The section also identifies those factors that will influence their participation in the mega-event, and discusses the tourism potential of the hosting of the World Cup for South Africa.

### **5.5.1 Awareness of the 2010 FIFA World Cup host**

The respondents were asked to indicate the country that will host the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The results showed a significantly high level of awareness among Cameroonian fans, since 94.1% of the respondents were able to correctly indicate that South Africa will host the World Cup. Such a high level of awareness was to be expected for two main reasons. Firstly, South Africa has robustly positioned the mega-event as an 'African World Cup', from when the country first began to bid for the tournament. Such a message seems to have been well received. Secondly, South Africa's Mobile Telephone Network (MTN), which is one of the official sponsors of the event, is one of the largest network providers in Cameroon, and has marketed the event to local citizens across the country. A total of 5.2% of the respondents did not indicate South Africa as the host, while the remaining 0.7% chose 'other' as their option, as is shown in Figure 5.5 below.

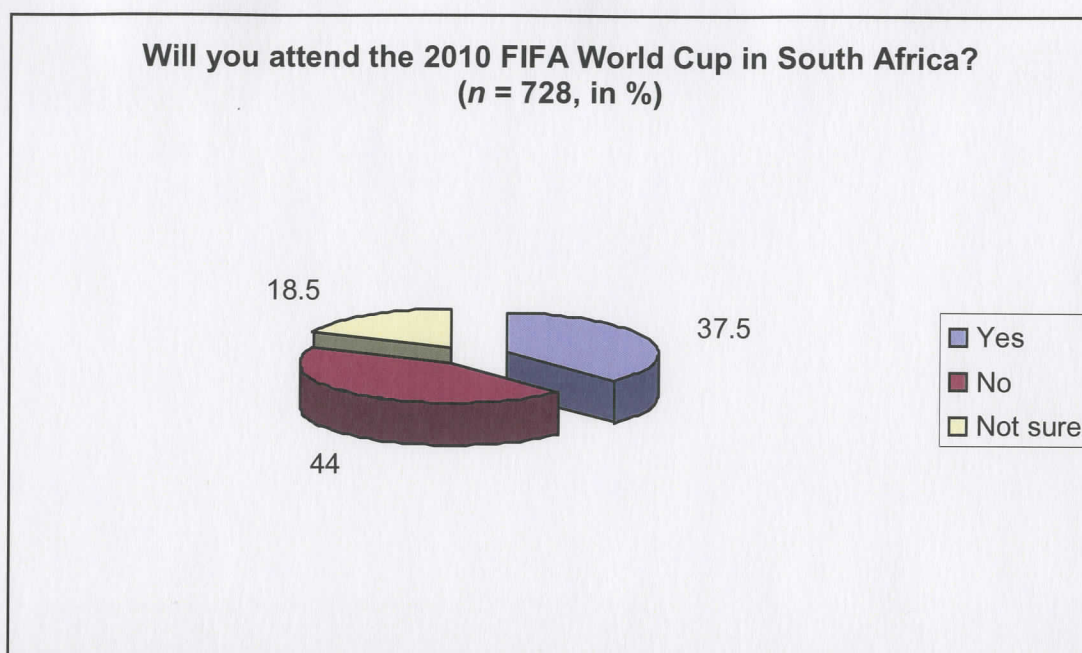


**Figure 5.5: Awareness of 2010 FIFA World Cup host (*n* = 728, in %).**

### **5.5.2 Anticipated attendance at the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

In order to ascertain whether Cameroonian fans will travel to South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they will attend the event, the responses to which question are presented in Figure 5.6. The percentages of 'yes' or 'no' responses were found to be almost equal, with 44% of the respondents indicating that they would not attend the 2010 tournament, and 37.5% indicating that they would travel to South Africa for the event. However, a significant 18.5% of the respondents indicated that they were unsure as to whether or not they would attend the event. However, it must be kept in mind that, at the time at which the data collection for the current study was taking place, Cameroon had not yet qualified for the tournament concerned. Such a finding is supported by the results, as they are represented in Table 5.14. Interestingly, all key informants indicated that they would attend the 2010 event.





**Figure 5.6: Attendance at the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa (*n* = 728, in %).**

The results of the findings from the respondents (*n* = 273) reveal that the typical Cameroonian soccer fan who will travel to South Africa to attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup is male, 31 years of age, works full-time or is self-employed, and earns a monthly income of R3201.75.

#### **5.5.2.1 Anticipated attendance at the 2010 FIFA World Cup, if Cameroon qualifies to participate in the Cup**

The question as to whether the respondent would attend the 2010 World Cup if Cameroon did not qualify to play in the tournament was asked as a follow-up question to whether the respondent would attend the tournament. The question was specifically directed at those respondents who had indicated that they would attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa. A total of 82.1% of the respondents indicated that their attendance was not subject to the Cameroon national team's qualification for the tournament, compared with 17.9%, who said that they would not attend if such was the case. Such a finding, as represented in Table 5.12, reflects a high degree of interest in attending the event, even if the national team does not qualify to play in the tournament.

<b>Table 5.12: Attendance not subject to Cameroon's qualification (<i>n</i> = 273, in %).</b>	
<b>RESPONSE</b>	<b>TOTAL (<i>n</i>=273)</b>
Yes	82.1
No	17.9

### 5.5.3 Perceptions regarding non-attendance at the 2010 FIFA World Cup

In order to determine those perceptions and factors that will prevent the fans from attending the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the respondents were required to choose from a number of different reasons, which are summarised in Table 5.13. James and Ross (2004:18) assert that ticket-pricing issues affect attendance at sport events. According to FIFA (2009), tickets for the 2010 FIFA World Cup cost between R490 to R6 300, depending on the category of ticket required. The value of tickets might prove costly to fans, especially when taking their income into account. A total of 35.3% of the respondents indicated that they would not attend the 2010 event, owing to the fact that they could not afford to pay the price asked for the game tickets. Such a result should be viewed in the same light as the number who indicated that the associated travel costs (34.1%) were too high, because of their similarities. Zhang (2007:41) further notes that the cost of events (in terms of the entrance and accommodation fees, as well as other expenses) might make them expensive to access. Furthermore, a total of 13.8% of the respondents stated that they were not interested in soccer, while 11.6% said that they preferred to follow the tournament on television, rather than to attend the event in person.

<b>Table 5.13: Perceptions regarding the non-attendance of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa (<i>n</i> = 320, in %).</b>	
<b>REASON</b>	<b>TOTAL (<i>n</i>=320)</b>
Will not be able to afford to purchase tickets	35.3
Travel costs are too high	34.1
Not interested in soccer	13.8
Prefer to watch game on TV	11.6
Xenophobia	2.2
Visa problems	1.9
Political instability	0.6
Unfriendly people	0.3
Crime	0.3



Media circles continue to raise the issue of crime and to question South Africa's ability to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup, although the country has successfully hosted other major sporting events in the past. Such negative media coverage, according to Burger (2007), is largely due to the history of crime in the country. The high crime levels in South Africa have been suggested as being likely to deter potential visitors from coming to South Africa in 2010 (Cape Times, 2007). The findings in the current research do not support the making of such an assertion, as only 0.3% of the respondents in the study indicated that fear of crime would be their main reason for not attending the mega-event.

Besides perceptions of crime, the recent spate of xenophobic attacks, which started in 2008 on African immigrants around South Africa, was widely publicised by both the local and international media. Such news coverage also fuelled perceptions of a tainted image, negative tourism impact, and low visitor attendance for the 2010 FIFA event (Cape Times, 2008). Despite the consensus that attacks of such a nature are known to have caused resentment in the past, very few (2.2%) respondents gave the fear of xenophobia as their main reason for not attending the event.

Problems with visas (1.9%), political instability (0.6%), and unfriendly people (0.3%) were given the least prominence by respondents in their listing of reasons for not attending the 2010 World Cup. Only a very few (0.4%) cited work commitments as the reason for their not being able to travel during the time that the mega-event is on.

#### 5.5.3.1 Respondents' uncertainty regarding their attendance at the 2010 FIFA World Cup

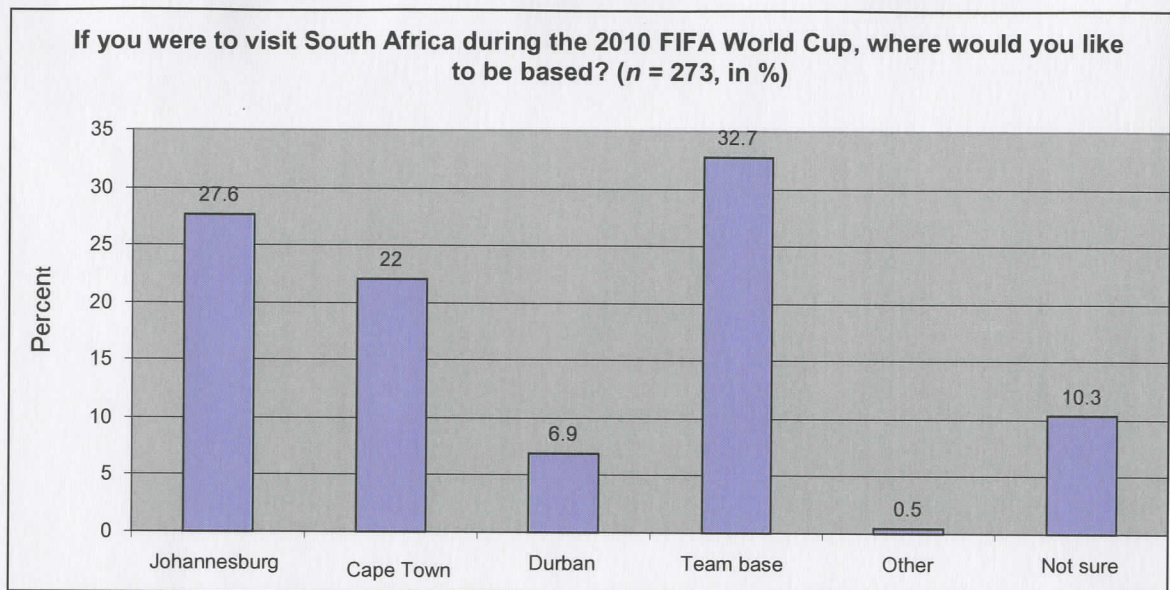
<b>Table 5.14: Respondents who are unsure about whether they will attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa (<i>n</i> = 135, in %).</b>	
<b>REASON</b>	<b>TOTAL (<i>n</i>=135)</b>
Finances	80.0
Only if Cameroon qualifies for the tournament	11.1
Obtaining a ticket regarded as problematic	5.9
Insufficient time for travel	1.5
Schooling	1.5

Table 5.14 above presents the reasons which were cited by those respondents who were unsure about whether they would attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Among the reasons stated were the following, given together with the percentages that provided such an answer: the lack of financial resources (80%); the intention only to travel if their national team qualified for the tournament (11.1%); the problem with acquiring tickets (5.9%); the insufficient amount of time available for the amount of travel required (1.5%); and schooling commitments (1.5%).

#### **5.5.4 Respondents' choice of base for the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

FIFA requires prospective host nations to provide sufficient stadia infrastructure and related facilities for the hosting of the teams and their fans. For 2010, the LOC has identified the following nine cities in South Africa for the hosting of the games: Johannesburg; Durban; Cape Town; Port Elizabeth; Bloemfontein; Nelspruit; Polokwane; Rustenburg; and Tshwane (Pretoria). To determine where in South Africa Cameroonian fans would like to be based, those respondents who had said that they intended to attend the event were asked to indicate in which host city they would like to be based. The results illustrated in Figure 5.7 below reveal that the majority of the fans (32.7%), as well as of the key informants, would most likely follow their favourite team to where it would be based in South Africa. Both Johannesburg (27.6%) and Cape Town (22%) were said to be popular host cities among the fans, compared with those who chose Durban (6.9%) or other cities (0.5%) as their base. Historically, business and media wise Johannesburg and Cape Town are regarded as popular worldwide. Johannesburg, for example, is considered to be the economic powerhouse of South Africa, while Cape Town and Durban are popular tourist destinations (SAT, 2007).





**Figure 5.7: Respondents' choice of base for the 2010 (n = 273, in %).**

#### **5.5.5 Respondents' duration of stay (in days) in South Africa**

According to Page and Connell (2009:386), the visitor length of stay and spending patterns tend to determine the economic impacts of tourism. The longer that a tourist tends to stay at a destination; the more likely it is that they will gain socio-economic benefits from their stay. As previously mentioned, mega-events entail travel by those sport tourists who either actively or passively participate in an event. The FIFA World Cup tournament takes place over a period of 32 days. Considering the number of audiences and visitors that such an event attracts, tourism is considered to be a major beneficiary of such a mega-event.

In order to determine the tourism potential for South Africa from Cameroon as a result of the World Cup, those respondents who will attend the 2010 event were asked to indicate the number of days that they would spend in the country. As is shown in Table 5.15, most (40.4%) of the respondents indicated that they would spend between 29 and 30 days, followed by those who would spend 8 to 14 days (26%), 15 to 21 days (20.1%), and less than 7 days (10.4%). Very few of the respondents (0.5%) said that would stay for over 33 days. The average number of days that the respondents said that they would spend in the country was 21 days. Such results reflect the intention of those fans who intend to stay for the duration of the tournament to support their team, based on its progress in the tournament. In addition to wanting to support their teams, those fans most likely want to stay and

experience the final game of the tournament. In contrast to the findings regarding the fans, all the key informants indicated that they would stay for the duration of the tournament.

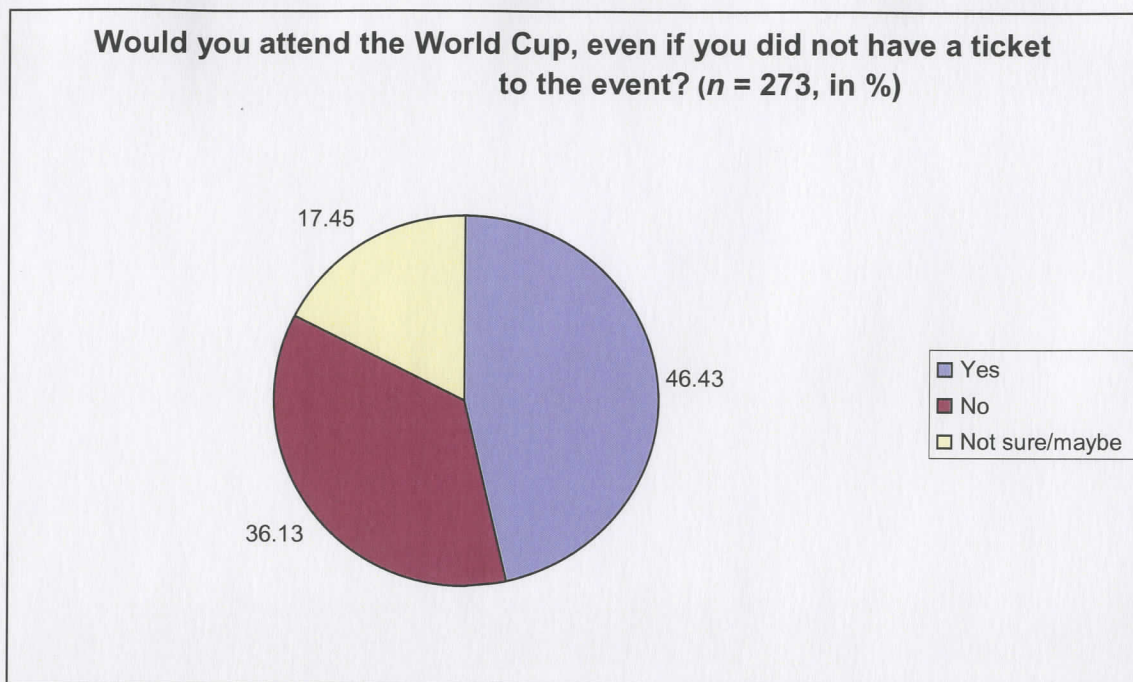
**Table 5.15: Cameroonian fans' duration of stay (*n* = 273, in %).**

<b>NUMBER OF DAYS</b>	<b>TOTAL (<i>n</i>=273)</b>
>7	10.4
8 – 14	26
15 – 21	20.1
22 – 28	2.6
29 – 32	40.4
33<	0.5

## 5.6 Travel as ticketed or non-ticketed fans

Sport fans can travel to mega-events as the FIFA World Cup as either ticketed or non-ticketed fans. Figure 5.8 reveals that the majority of the respondents (46.43%) said that they would travel to South Africa as non-ticketed fans. In addition, a significant total of 36.13% said that they would travel with the relevant game tickets, whereas the remaining 17.45% remained unsure about whether they would travel with, or without, the tickets. Such a finding indicates that the acquisition of game tickets does not serve as a motivator of Cameroonian fans attending the FIFA World Cups, besides which, it must be kept in mind that fan parks have been provided for the 2010 event. Key informants travel as part either of the FIFA family or the national team. Findings on the proposed use of PVAs by those respondents who reported that they would attend the event are presented next.

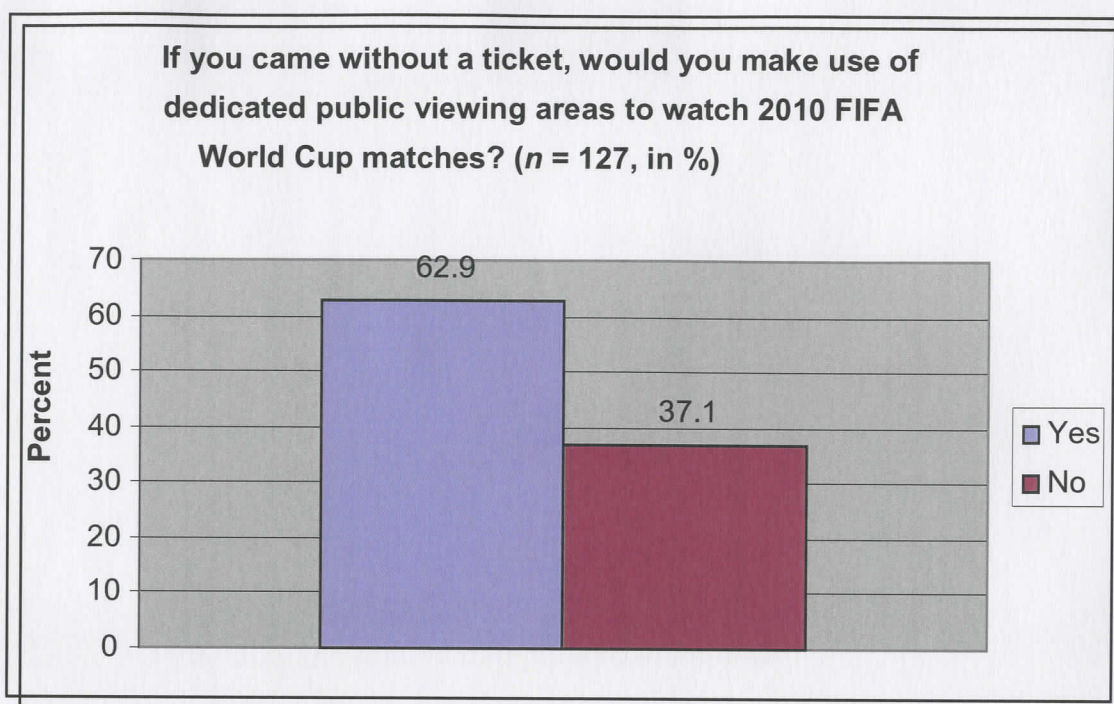




**Figure 5.8: Travel as ticketed or non-ticketed fans ( $n = 273$ , in %).**

### **5.7 Using dedicated public viewing areas to watch matches**

Sport facilities have been noted as having a strong impact on the decisions that fans make regarding whether to attend a sport event, especially if such facilities provide an attractive setting, comfort, and easy access (Smith & Stewart, 2007). For the FIFA World Cup, fan parks / PVAs are required to accommodate those football tourists and members of the public who are neither able to purchase tickets nor to travel to match venues. As a follow-up question to whether the fans would travel with or without tickets, the respondents were asked to state whether they would make use of PVAs to watch matches. The responses obtained to the question, as depicted by Figure 5.9, show that the majority of respondents (62.9%) said that they would make use of such a facility. Although 37.1% of the respondents indicated that they would not make use of PVAs, the result seems to support the fact that such facilities are growing in popularity and importance, so that they should be made available at other mega-events in future as an alternative for non-ticketed fans. For key informants, the use of PVAs for the watching of matches was not favoured for their own viewing of the event, as they stated that, as officials, they expected to be allocated tickets to the games.



**Figure 5.9: Anticipated use of dedicated PVAs at the 2010 FIFA World Cup (*n* = 127, in %).**

### 5.8 Respondents' travel group size

According to Weed and Bull (2004:63), committed football fans are more likely than other fans to travel in groups to support their favourite team at games or tournaments. As committed fans, they are attracted to the 'whole package' experience that the event offers. As summarised in Table 5.17, the majority of the respondents (60.3%) indicated that, if they should visit South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, they would choose to travel in a group comprising 1 to 3 people. Although 27.5% of the respondents indicated that they would travel alone, other group compositions included 4 to 6 people (10.3%), and 7 to 10 people (1.9%), though the latter formed the minority.

**Table 5.16: Respondents' travel group size (*n* = 273, in %).**

NUMBER OF PEOPLE IN GROUP	TOTAL ( <i>n</i> =273)
Alone	27.5
1 – 3	60.3
4 – 6	10.3
7 – 10	1.9



## 5.9 Activities with which respondents are likely to engage in South Africa

Mega-events as the FIFA World Cup can serve to boost tourism and related activities for the host nation (Allmers & Maennig, 2008), as sport tourists tend to visit other attractions at some stage during the event (Hiller, 1998). The question asked in this regard was directed at determining those tourist activities with which respondents would like to engage while they are in South Africa. As seen in Table 5.17, 33.9% of the respondents indicated a desire to explore nature-based tourism activities, a further 30% chose to engage in adventure tourism activities, while 16.4% indicated that they would like to experience activities to do with South African culture. Such results are interesting, when they are compared with the age demographics of respondents, as reflected in Table 5.1. The results concur with those described in the literature, which suggest that younger people are most likely to be attracted to nature, adventure and cultural-based tourism (Page & Connell, 2009).

Regarding shopping, 7.2% of the respondents showed an interest, with 1.2% showing an interest in dining out. However, 11.3% of the respondents indicated that they would not engage in any of the activities specified in terms of the question (4.5%), or else were unsure about whether or not they would (5.9%).

A total of 0.9% of the respondents (those who said that they would engage in other activities) reported that they would explore business opportunities, or nightlife, or would visit hospitals and health facilities in South Africa

**Table 5.17: Activities that Cameroonian fans would like to do / to see in South Africa (*n* = 273, in %).**

ACTIVITIES	TOTAL ( <i>n</i> =273)
Nature	33.9
Adventure	30.0
Culture	16.4
Shopping	7.2
Not sure	5.9
None	4.5
Dining	1.2
Other	0.9

Compared to those responses which were received from the fans, as explained above, the key informants were found to be less interested in nature, adventure and cultural activities. The majority indicated that they would not engage in any additional specified activity except for shopping and dining. Their involvement in the management of the Cameroonian team or of the delegation for the 2010 event might have contributed to their responding in the way in which they did.

#### **5.10 Respondents' perceptions regarding the positives/advantages to be gained from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

Previous research suggests that all sporting events, albeit to varying degrees, impact on those communities in which they take place (Ohmann *et al.*, 2006). The hosting of mega-events increases the number of tourist visits to the area; enhances the infrastructure; creates both short and long-term employment opportunities; increases media coverage; improves the provision of public transport; provides additional investment opportunities; boosts the image of the host nation; and serves to foster nation-building and a sense of national pride (Hiller, 1998). In this regard, the respondents were asked to indicate what they regarded as the positives/advantages of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. In order to explain the responses received in answer to this question, they were grouped into similar categories, as is shown in Tables 5.18 and 5.19 below.

##### **5.10.1 Economic benefits**

The first set of responses received was grouped together as economic benefits to do with the hosting of the tournament. Turco *et al.* (2002:53) assert that a continuum of economic benefits exists for those communities that host sport tourism events. According to Chalip (2002), the economic benefits to be gained from hosting mega-events include the expenditure of tourists, the creation of additional employment opportunities, the boosting of personal income, and the amount of re-spending that occurs within the economy. According to the results that are shown in Table 5.18, slightly more than half (52.48%) of those respondents who mentioned the economic-related benefits to be gained by South Africa from hosting the event said that they thought that the country's economy would grow. Such a result is important, as it shows that the respondents were aware of the benefits that events such as the FIFA World Cup might bring. Furthermore, a total of 21.28% of the respondents declared a



belief that the event would create job opportunities for South Africans. Another 9.58% of the respondents indicated that South Africa would have the associated advantage of being able to generate additional income. The rest of the respondents indicated that they thought that economic benefits to be gained from hosting the event would consist of the provision of additional business opportunities for residents (7.08%); the development of tourism (5.32%); and additional investment opportunities (4.26%). All of the benefits mentioned by the respondents were associated with the hosting of mega-events and correlate with the advantages forecast for both South Africa and Africa as a whole in the literature reviewed in Chapter Two.

**Table 5.18: Perceptions of economic benefits ( $n = 728$ , in %). Multiple Responses.**

TYPE	TOTAL ( $n=728$ )
Economic growth	52.48
Job creation	21.28
Income generation	9.58
Business opportunities	7.08
Development of tourism	5.32
Investment opportunities	4.26

The second category of responses with regard to the positives or advantages to be gained from hosting the World Cup consists of socio-cultural benefits, in relation to which the results are presented in Subsection 5.10.2 below.

### **5.10.2 Socio-cultural benefits**

Page and Connell (2009:405) noted that, although relatively hidden, the social and cultural benefits to be gained from the hosting of mega-events might last longer than the economic benefits accruing from such hosting. According to Kim *et al.* (2006), sport tourism events have the potential of encouraging improvements in both the infrastructure and the superstructure. As can be seen in Table 5.19, many (24.60%) of the respondents indicated that South Africa would benefit from infrastructural development in respect of its hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Such a result is even more significant when it is combined with the responses received that expressed a belief in the fact that improvements in respect of the following areas would also be likely to occur for South African residents: the standards of living of the local communities (6.35%); the security facilities (2.78%); technological advancement

(0.79%); and transport (1.19%). As mentioned previously in Chapter Two, South Africa is currently undergoing widespread infrastructural development and upgrading, in preparation for its hosting of the 2010 event.

Getz (1992:242) asserts that the cultural benefits to be gained from the hosting of sport tourism events impact both on the host community and on those who reside in the host destination. A total of 20.64% of the respondents regarded such cultural benefits as an advantage or positive to be gained from hosting the 2010 FIFA event. Furthermore, 9.13% of the respondents expressed a belief that the hosting of the event would likely enhance a feeling of national unity and pride. Such a finding supports those of Lee and Taylor (2005), who found that sport tourism events tend to have a strong symbolic function, in respect of evoking a sense of community, excitement and emotion. A total of 4.76% of the respondents also noted that the South African national team (Bafana Bafana) might perform well in the World Cup, as they would be playing at home and, therefore, would be well supported.

Regarding football, 16.27% of the respondents, as is shown in Table 5.19, indicated that South Africa has the advantage of being able to develop local football throughout the country. Such a finding supports the assertion that, post-2010, the football infrastructure and facilities developed for the mega-event is likely to be used for developing the game still further on the local front (South Africa, 2008).

Dolles and Soderman (2007) note that the hosting of such an event as the FIFA World Cup is likely to attract a viewership of over 30 billion people, which represents a significant opportunity for the country to establish itself on the world stage. However, a total of 6.75% of the respondents indicated that South Africa would have a chance to improve its global image, while 4.7% of the respondents expressed the belief that the country would benefit from the associated marketing.

However, it is important to note that 10.16% of the respondents indicated that they did not know of any advantages or positives that South Africa would gain from hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup, whereas 2.88% of the respondents indicated that South Africa would not be likely to gain any advantages or positives from hosting the event.



**Table 5.19: Perceptions of socio-cultural benefits (n = 728, in %). Multiple Responses..**

<b>TYPE</b>	<b>TOTAL (n=728)</b>
Infrastructural development	24.60
Cultural benefits	20.64
Development of South African football	16.27
National unity	9.13
Image enhancement	6.75
Improved living standards	6.35
Marketing	4.76
Possibility of good performance by host national team	4.76
Improved security facilities	2.78
Development of local football league	1.98
Development of transport	1.19
Opportunities for technological advancement	0.79

The key informants in the study also seemed to have a higher level of understanding of the socio-economic benefits that mega-events could bring. The majority indicated that South Africa would benefit from an improved infrastructure and the development of South African football. As all the informants (as was previously mentioned in Subsection 5.4.6) indicated that they had previously attended a FIFA World Cup, their experience in this regard might have contributed to their knowledge of the benefits to be gained from the hosting of such events.

#### **5.11 Cameroonian fans' perceptions regarding the negatives/disadvantages associated with South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

As much as the hosting of mega-events tends to bring about positive impacts on the host communities, the negative impacts of such hosting cannot be overlooked. Cornelissen and Swart (2006) note that the high costs associated with bidding for the hosting, as well as the hosting itself, of mega-events might have been directed at fighting more pressing issues, such as poverty and HIV/Aids, on the African continent.

In addition, Bohlmann (2006) notes that negative impacts emanating from the hosting of mega-events include the impact on traffic flow, football violence, an increase in

petty crime, and the displacement of normal tourism, among others. The respondents in the current study were asked to indicate the negatives or disadvantages associated with South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. As was done with the associated positives enumerated above, similar responses to such a question have been grouped into categories, as can be seen in Table 5.20.

According to the results, many (30.49%) of the respondents reported that they envisaged that South Africa would suffer from crime-related activities in 2010. Over all, the question relating to safety and security issues around the event received significant responses, when they were viewed holistically. For example, the issues of xenophobia (11.81%), feelings of personal insecurity (4.12%), and football violence or hooliganism (2.47%) were regarded as problematic.

Breitbarth (2006:16) asserts that safety is a natural human concern. Previous mega-events have been known to lead to an increase in the severity of crime-related issues; however, the relevant research shows that such an increase has been relatively minor (Breitbarth, 2006). For example, the holding of the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany was relatively crime-free, as was noted by Allmers and Maennig (2008). In addition, resources are usually committed by host nations to ensuring the safety of all those present at such a mega-event.

Some respondents (16.91%) also indicated the likelihood of the increased spread of HIV/Aids to be a negative for the hosting of the 2010 event. Such a negative social factor is usually viewed along with the related problem of prostitution, as indicated by 5.63% of the respondents in the current survey. As discussed in Chapter Two, the highly publicised levels of HIV/Aids in South Africa in both the local and international media could be used to justify so many respondents feeling this way. Other negative social factors that were indicated by the respondents in their answers to the question included overcrowding and congestion (5.63%); the possibility that the host national football team might be humiliated (1.51%); the increase in the prices of goods and services for local citizens (0.96%); and the possibility of illegal immigration taking place by foreign nationals into South Africa (0.82%).

In contrast to the above findings, a total of 9.48% of the respondents indicated that they did not know of any negatives that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup



would bring to South Africa, while 8.38% foresaw no negatives in such a regard. In terms of the key informant interviews, the majority of those interviewed did not see any negatives or disadvantages for South Africa in the hosting of such an event.

**Table 5.20: Perceptions of negatives/disadvantages (*n* = 728, in %). Multiple Responses.**

TYPE	TOTAL ( <i>n</i> =728)
Crime	30.49
Spread of HIV/Aids	16.91
Xenophobia	11.81
Don't know	9.48
None	8.38
Overcrowding and congestion	5.63
Prostitution	5.63
Feelings of personal insecurity	4.12
Hooliganism	2.47
Pollution	1.79
National team will be humiliated	1.51
Increase in prices of goods and services	0.96
Illegal immigration	0.82

Although environmental concerns have been noted as a negative in respect of the hosting of mega-events, 5.63% of the respondents noted issues relating to overcrowding and congestion, whereas 1.79% noted pollution, as being cause for concern. As noted previously in Chapter Two, such mega-events as the FIFA World Cup attract thousands of people to visit the host nation. Such an influx of people might lead to overcrowding in, as well as the congestion of, such facilities and services as accommodation, transport and related local attractions. However, the pollution associated in the past with the hosting of mega-events has now come to be mitigated by means of strategically incorporating and adopting elements of such programmes as Green Goal into the overall planning for such an event. The incorporation and adoption of such programmes is aimed at reducing the amount of pollution and waste, as well as making carbon, water and energy savings, providing sustainable transport solutions, and developing sustainable stadia maintenance (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007).

## 5.12 Support of, and awareness about, South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup

The responses received to questions aimed at determining the levels of awareness around, and African support for, South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, as well as for the associated African legacy, are discussed in this section of the thesis.

### 5.12.1 Respondents' support of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup

Authors such as Cornelissen (2006) and Alegi (2007) detail the extent of politicking that is involved in the process of bidding for the hosting of mega-events. Their narratives paint a picture of the divided nature of the support for South Africa and Morocco which occurred during the bidding stages of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. At the time, South Africa was considered to be a 'new' member of FIFA, compared with the relatively long record of Morocco in this regard. The respondents were asked to indicate whether they supported South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The results to such a question are illustrated in Figure 5.10, which shows a remarkably high level of support for South Africa among both the fans and the key informants, with the majority of respondents (90%) answering the question in the affirmative, whereas 7.6% responded negatively. A minority (2.4%) of the respondents stated that they were not sure about whether or not they supported South Africa's hosting of the tournament. The reasons for the responses that the respondents provided were asked in the form of a follow-up question, of which the results are explained below.

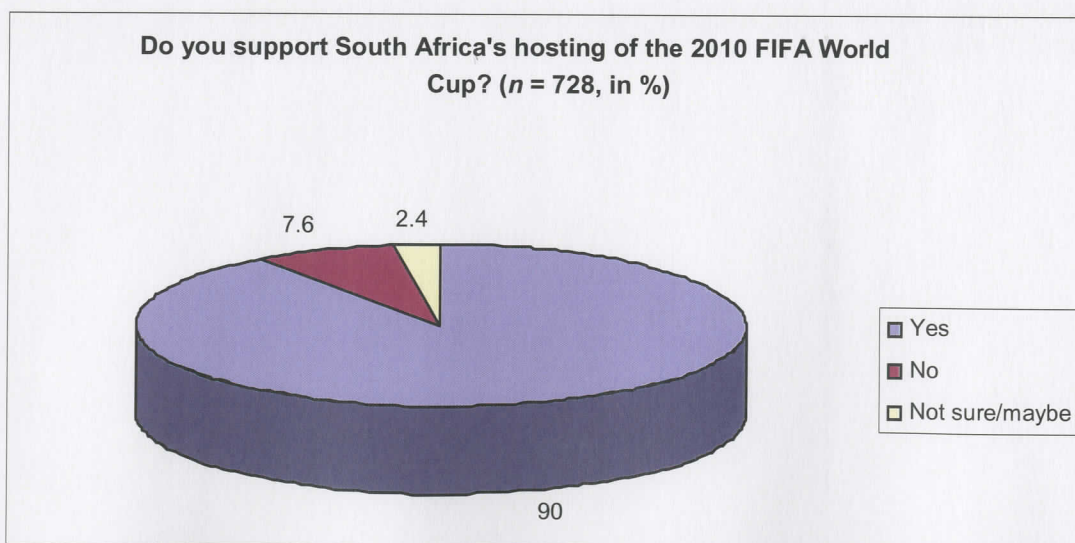


Figure 5.10: Respondents' support of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup (n = 728, in %).



### **5.12.2 Reasons for supporting South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup**

The reasons which were given by the respondents ( $n = 728$ ) for their support of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup were several. Such reasons, which are related both to Africa and South Africa, are discussed in the following subsections of the current thesis.

#### **5.12.2.1 Responses related to the African continent**

According to the results, 9.4% of the respondents who said that they supported South Africa expressed the belief that the 2010 event would lead to the 'development of football' on the African continent. A further 7.7% of the respondents stated that the event would lead to the development of Africa as a whole. In addition, 6.14% said that they felt that an African country deserved the chance to host the tournament. The provision of such a reason echoes sentiments regarding the fact that, despite its being the largest confederation within FIFA, Africa has never before been awarded the opportunity to host the World Cup. Furthermore, 5% of the respondents said that they supported such a hosting, because they believed that 'an African team will win the Cup'. Among other reasons given for supporting South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup were: 'I am an African' (4.5%); 'it is an African Cup' (2%); 'African nations will benefit' (1.5%); 'the event will improve Africa's image' (0.4%); and 'Africans will unite' (0.4%). The key informant responses, which were, surprisingly, more directly related toward the host nation, are examined next.

#### **5.12.2.2 Responses related to South Africa**

Many fans (23.26%) and key informants indicated that South Africa has 'excellent stadiums' and facilities for the hosting of matches, whereas 9.9% of those respondents who were fans indicated that their reason for supporting South Africa was because 'South Africa is part of Africa'. A total of 8.9% of the respondents did not support the hosting, due to the underperformance of the South African national team. Such respondents might have felt that the FIFA World Cup should only be allowed to be hosted by a nation on the basis of their manifested football-playing prowess. A total of 5.1% of the respondents indicated that the internationally

acknowledged repute of the former South African president Nelson Mandela was the reason for their support, while 4.8% stated that they felt that 'South Africa is closer to Cameroon', highlighting the geographic location of the two countries, which are both situated on the African continent, as the basis for their support. Other reasons cited by respondents included: 'South Africa is a beautiful country' (4.2%); and 'South Africa has the ability to host' (3.7%). A minority (1.8%) of the respondents gave no reason for their support, whereas the remaining 1.3% stated that the existence of xenophobia in South Africa was the reason for their not supporting South Africa's hosting of the tournament.

### **5.13 Perceptions regarding South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the associated African legacy**

Those nations and cities that focus on both the immediate and longer-term benefits to be gained from hosting a mega-event do not merely regard the hosting of the event as an end in itself, but, rather, focus on the building of the associated legacy (A.T. Kearney, 2005). As mentioned previously in Chapter Two of the current study, South Africa has positioned the 2010 FIFA World Cup as an 'African World Cup'. The government and LOC initiated the ALP with the intention of making 2010 a truly African event. They envisage that the hosting of the event should effectively contribute to the awakening of Africa's potential as a prosperous and united continent (South Africa, 2008). Moreover, Swart and Bob (2007) note that the after-effects of the 2010 FIFA World Cup should not only provide positive spin-offs in the domain of sport, but should also act as a catalyst for the socio-economic growth and development of Africa as a whole.

The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement (whether they strongly agreed, agreed, were neutral about, disagreed, or strongly disagreed) with a variety of given statements in relation to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup as being an 'African affair'. In order to expedite the interpretation and understanding of the responses received, in some instances they have been grouped into appropriate categories. Tables 5.21 to 5.28 present the key findings relating to the respondents' perceptions regarding the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the associated African legacy.



Previous research has shown that such mega-events as the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games have the potential to generate substantial socio-economic and environmental benefits for a host region (Bohlmann, 2006; Maennig & du Plessis, 2007; Ohmann *et al.*, 2006). According to the ALP, the benefits to be gained from the hosting of the 2010 event will be likely to filter across to other African countries (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). The majority (85.2%) of the respondents, as can be seen in Table 5.21, agree with such a statement. Only 6.9% of the respondents stated that they disagreed with the statement, whereas 8.1% stated that they were neutral in regards to the statement. Interestingly, the majority of key informants did not openly agree that other African countries would be likely to benefit from the event as well. They tended to see only South Africa as benefiting from its hosting of the tournament.

**Table 5.21: Other African countries will benefit from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup (*n* = 728, in %).**

LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH STATEMENT	TOTAL ( <i>n</i> =728)
Strongly agree	50.0
Agree	35.2
Neutral	8.1
Disagree	4.8
Strongly disagree	1.9

As was mentioned in Chapter One of the current thesis, although South Africa has, in the past successfully hosted several major international sporting events, those who are critical of its hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup question the magnitude of such events, in comparison with the size of the FIFA World Cup. Factors such as the ability to combat crime (Barker, 2004) and xenophobia (Kersting, 2007) have been openly discussed and presented as obstacles to the staging of a successful event. The respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that South Africa would successfully host the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The results, which are shown in Table 5.22, clearly reveal that the large majority (86.9%) of respondents believed that the mega-event would be hosted successfully. Once again, very few respondents (3.2%) disagreed, while 9.8% of the respondents stated that they were neutral regarding the statement. Unlike with the previous statement,

as shown in Table 5.21, all the key informants agreed with the statement in the present case.

**Table 5.22: South Africa will successfully host the 2010 FIFA World Cup  
(*n* = 728, in %).**

LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH STATEMENT	TOTAL ( <i>n</i> =728)
Strongly agree	44.5
Agree	42.4
Neutral	9.8
Strongly disagree	1.6
Disagree	1.6

Regarding the notion of an 'African World Cup', the majority (60.2%) of the respondents, albeit to a lesser extent than in their responses to the previous statements, agreed that such a notion was acceptable. However, some of the respondents disagreed with the statement, or indicated that they were neutral regarding the statement, which is an answer, in the present case, which cannot be overlooked. Table 5.23 shows that 24.6% of the respondents disagreed with the statement, whereas 15.25% of the respondents expressed their neutrality about it. Such a finding suggests that some of the respondents either did not understand what the concept of 'African World Cup' meant, or simply regarded the event as purely a South African affair. Compared to the responses that were received from the fans, all the key informants agreed that the notion of an 'African World Cup' was acceptable. Such a result can be seen as an interesting development on their previous responses to a related question, as reflected in Table 5.21 above.

**Table 5.23: The 2010 FIFA World Cup can be considered an 'African World Cup'  
(*n* = 728, in %).**

LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH STATEMENT	TOTAL ( <i>n</i> =728)
Agree	35.6
Strongly agree	24.6
Neutral	15.2
Disagree	17.2
Strongly disagree	7.4



As suggested in the literature review in the current thesis, the hosting of mega-events can lead to the transformation of the host nation, fast-tracking of urban renewal, upgrading of transport for the enhancing of mobility, and creation of sustainable jobs for a host country or region. Such effects can contribute to the improvement of living standards for all the citizens of the host country. Table 5.24 shows the results obtained in the current study regarding the levels of agreement with the statement that, after the 2010 event, African peoples' standard of living will improve. Both responses disagreeing (24.1%) with the statement should be considered, as well as those (19.9%) expressing neutrality towards it. Relatively little disagreement was expressed in relation to the statement in comparison with the 56% expressed in agreement with it. In comparison with the responses received from the fans, the majority of key informants disagreed that, after 2010, the standard of living of African people would improve.

**Table 5.24: After the 2010 FIFA World Cup, African peoples' standard of living will improve ( $n = 728$ , in %).**

LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH STATEMENT	TOTAL ( $n=728$ )
Strongly agree	19.6
Agree	36.4
Neutral	19.9
Disagree	14.3
Strongly disagree	9.8

The results reflected in Table 5.25 show that 69.9% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that the 2010 FIFA World Cup is not an 'African Cup', but a South African Cup. Such results paint an interesting, and slightly different, picture than that which is painted by the results reflected in Table 5.23 regarding the notion of an 'African World Cup', with which 60.2% of the respondents were in agreement. Close to 10% (9.7%) of the respondents displayed a change of mind in their answering of the two questions, having come, by this stage of answering the questionnaire, to consider the event as an 'African Cup'. Most (6%) of those who appeared to change their minds on the subject had disagreed with the previous related question, as is reflected in Table 5.23 above. A total of 18% of the respondents disagreed with the statement regarding the 2010 FIFA World Cup being a South African Cup, whereas 13.2% adopted a neutral stance towards the question.

**Table 5.25: The 2010 FIFA World Cup is not an 'African Cup', but a South African Cup (*n* = 728, in %).**

LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH STATEMENT	TOTAL ( <i>n</i> =728)
Agree	11.3
Strongly agree	7.7
Neutral	13.2
Disagree	38.9
Strongly disagree	29.0

Cornelissen (2006) indicates that both developed and developing nations consistently bid for the right to host mega-events, owing to the accompanying socio-economic benefits to be gained from such hosting. Before securing the rights to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa, as represented by the City of Cape Town, failed in its bid to host the 2004 Olympic Games (Swart, 1999). The respondents were next asked to indicate their level of agreement with the statement that Africa now has a better chance of hosting the Olympic Games, by virtue of its hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The results in regards to this question, as they are reflected in Table 5.26, reveal that the majority (70.9%) of the respondents openly agreed with the statement, whereas a total of 14% disagreed with it. The fans were found to express a degree of uncertainty regarding Africa's chances of hosting yet another mega-event. Such a finding appears to be even more important when the neutrality, which was expressed by 15.1% of the respondents in relation to the given statement, is brought into the equation. Similarly, most of the key informants expressed their strong agreement that South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup would enhance the chances of a future Olympic Games being hosted in Africa.

**Table 5.26: Africa has a better chance of hosting the Olympic Games, by virtue of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup (*n* = 728, in %).**

LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH STATEMENT	TOTAL ( <i>n</i> =728)
Agree	41.5
Strongly agree	29.4
Neutral	15.1
Disagree	6.2
Strongly disagree	7.8



Africa has, in the past, been perceived by many as a 'dark' continent, plagued by wars and corruption, and generally unable to solve its problems (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007). As mentioned previously in the literature review, during the bidding stage for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa's former president Thabo Mbeki, emphasised to FIFA that, in hosting the 2010 event, the host will ensure that historians will reflect upon the post event as a moment when Africa stood tall and resolutely turned the tide on centuries of poverty and conflict (South Africa. Department of Sports and Recreation, 2007).

The respondents were asked whether they felt that the hosting of the 2010 World Cup by South Africa would help to change any remaining negative perceptions of Africa as a whole. Table 5.27 shows the results that were achieved in response to the statement, with a significant majority (82%) being shown to have expressed their agreement with it, in comparison with the 14.3% who disagreed with it, and the 13.7% who remained neutral towards it.

**Table 5.27: The 2010 FIFA World Cup will change negative perceptions of Africa (*n* = 728, in %).**

<b>LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH STATEMENT</b>	<b>TOTAL (<i>n</i>=728)</b>
Agree	41.9
Strongly agree	30.1
Neutral	13.7
Disagree	8.0
Strongly disagree	6.3

The hosting of the World Cup is usually regarded as providing an opportunity for self-marketing and image-building, which is expected to produce lasting improvements in terms of the host nation's competitive environment (Allmers & Maennig, 2008; Lee & Taylor, 2005). Such events, when successfully staged, provide opportunities for demonstrating organisational and technological know-how, and for showcasing the hospitality and tourism potential of a country (Dolles & Soderman, 2007). As such, the hosting of mega-events might also be associated with the securing of intangible benefits. The breakdown of the answers received in response to such a statement, as reflected in Table 5.28, shows the level of agreement attained among the respondents with regard to the statement that the 2010 FIFA World Cup would help

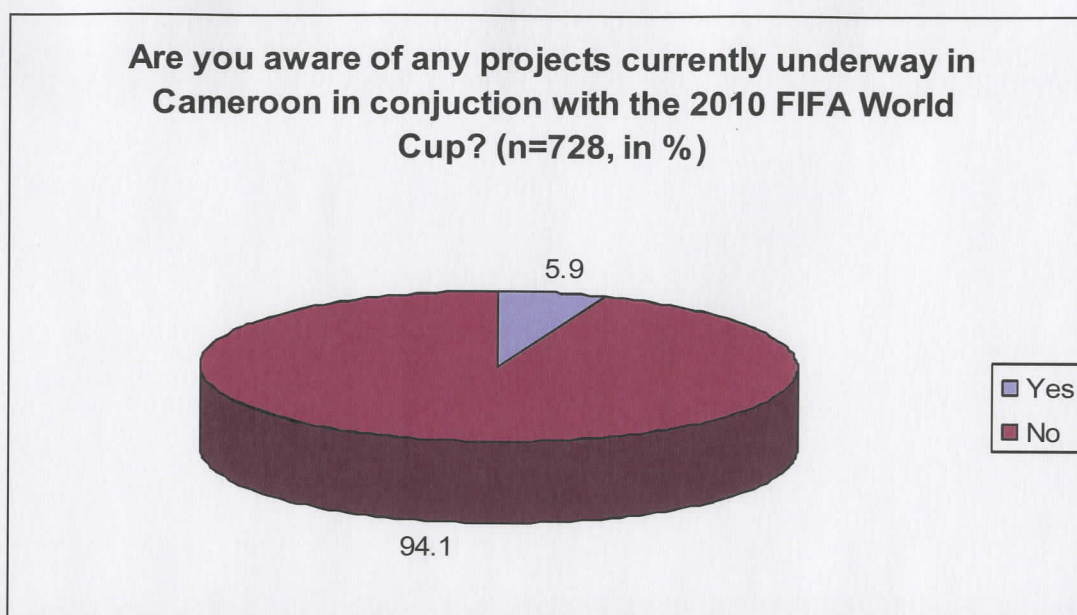
to market Africa as a tourism and investment destination. The majority (87.7%) of the respondents agreed with the statement, while a minority (5.7%) disagreed with it. The remaining 6.7% indicated that they were neutral towards the statement.

<b>Table 5.28: The 2010 FIFA World Cup will help to market Africa as a tourism and investment destination (<i>n</i> = 728, in %).</b>	
<b>LEVEL OF AGREEMENT WITH STATEMENT</b>	<b>TOTAL (<i>n</i>=728)</b>
Agree	40.7
Strongly agree	47.0
Neutral	6.7
Disagree	3.2
Strongly disagree	2.5

#### **5.14 Development of projects in preparation for the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in Cameroon**

Hosting an 'African World Cup' naturally entails that South Africa should work hand-in-hand with countries across the African continent, as well as with both FIFA and the AU. The ALP was devised for, and aimed at, supporting the realisation of African Renaissance objectives, in the form of the hosting of an effective African 2010 FIFA World Cup (South Africa, 2008). The respondents were asked to indicate whether they were aware of any projects that were currently under way in Cameroon in relation to the 2010 event. The results, as illustrated in Figure 5.11, reveal that a significant majority (94.1%) of the respondents were not aware of any projects or developments in this regard, whereas 5.9% of the respondents stated that they were aware of some related projects, as is represented in Table 5.29 below.





**Figure 5.11: Awareness of projects under way in Cameroon, in conjunction with the 2010 FIFA World Cup ( $n = 728$ , in %).**

Of those respondents ( $n = 43$ ) who indicated that they were aware of such developments, 60% mentioned the renovation and construction of two new stadiums in Cameroon, whereas the remaining 40% mentioned the ticket promotion efforts of MTN, which is an official sponsor of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The results obtained in response to this question mean that there is a general lack of awareness regarding legacy projects or that, at the time of conducting the survey, those 2010 stakeholders based in Cameroon were not engaged in any such projects.

**Table 5.29: Projects under way in Cameroon, in conjunction with the 2010 FIFA World Cup ( $n = 43$ , in %).**

PROJECT	TOTAL ( $n=43$ )
Construction and renovation of stadiums	60.0
MTN ticket bonanza	40.0

### 5.15 Summary

Chapter Five provided a descriptive analysis of the Cameroonian fans' perceptions regarding South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. A demographic profile of respondents revealed that most (77.6%) of the respondents were male, aged between the 21 and 40 years old, either working full-time (38.2%) or self-employed (32.7%), and earning an average of R2656.56 per month.

The above discussion proceeded to consider the respondents' interest in football, categorising them as avid fans of the game. They were found to engage in little travel to the international football games generally (9.4%), and to the FIFA World Cups in particular (4.53%). The results also show a high level of awareness (94.1%) that South Africa would be hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Though many (37.5%) would very much like to attend the event, the travel-related costs were identified as being an obstacle to 69.4% of them. Most of the respondents indicated that they would stay in South Africa for about 22 days, most (60.3%) would travel in groups of 1 to 3 people, and several (32.7%) would follow the Cameroonian national team to its base. However, both Johannesburg (27.6%) and Cape Town (22%) were cited as popular host cities. Most (46.43%) of the respondents stated that they would travel as non-ticketed fans, with 62.9% of the respondents stating that they would make use of PVAs to watch the games. Of those respondents who said that they intended to attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup, 33.9% noted nature and 30% noted adventure as other tourism activities of their choice.

Furthermore, most of the respondents were found to express a belief in the fact that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup would lead to South Africa reaping socio-economic benefits from such hosting for its citizens across the board. The dangers of escalating the rates of HIV infection, xenophobia, and crime in the country, as well as the possibility of disappointing performances by the national team (Bafana Bafana) were highlighted as the main disadvantages for South Africa's hosting of the 2010 event.

Most (90%) of the respondents were found to support South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, which they regard as an 'African Cup'. They were found to perceive the associated African legacy in a positive light, although there were hints of disagreement with the event being an 'African World Cup', which would be likely to improve the life of all African people after the event.

Compared with the findings made in connection with the fans, the key informants were generally found to be aware of the impacts resulting from the hosting of mega-events. All the key informants interviewed expressed their intention to attend the 2010 event, although they reported seeing South Africa benefiting more from its hosting of the event than would the rest of the African continent. In keeping with the



approach exhibited by the fans, the key informants also found to show strong support for South Africa's hosting of the 2010 tournament and reflected their high degree of involvement in the game.

In the following, and final, chapter of the current thesis, conclusions are drawn, based on the findings of the study and on the recommendations that are proposed for future research within this particular field of research.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

The previous chapter presented an analysis and discussion of the findings made in relation to the data that were generated from the soccer fans and the football stakeholders in Cameroon. The earlier chapters of the current thesis provided an overview of sport tourism and, mega-events, as well as described the background to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The relevant literature on sport fans, their motives for travel, and their requirements for attending major sport events were also reviewed. In addition, the research methodologies, which guided and informed this study, were presented, to ensure the reliability and validity of the results obtained.

This final chapter presents a summary of the study. Conclusions are drawn based on the findings made in relation to the secondary and primary data collected in the course of this study. Recommendations regarding the direction of future research, which is aimed at planning for the hosting of future mega-events in Africa, are highlighted, while the limitations of the study are also addressed.

#### **6.2 Conclusions**

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

- to determine the level of support for South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup among Cameroonian fans, given that the country has only recently been re-admitted to FIFA as a member;
- to ascertain whether Cameroonian soccer fans would travel to South Africa to attend the 2010 event;
- to determine the profiles of those Cameroonian fans who intend to attend the 2010 event, as well as their travel patterns during the tournament;
- to ascertain whether Cameroonian fans would travel to South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup as either ticketed or non-ticketed fans;
- to determine where in South Africa Cameroonian fans would base themselves;
- to ascertain current perceptions of South Africa's image among Cameroonian soccer fans and to identify those factors that are likely to influence their participation;



- to identify tourism potential for South Africa emanating from the rest of Africa, and from Cameroon in particular, as a result of the hosting of the 2010 event; and
- to determine the Cameroonian soccer fans' perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and the associated African legacy.

The conclusions of the study are presented in terms of the objectives enumerated above, in the following subsections of this chapter.

### **6.2.1 Conclusions with regards to objective one**

This study has met the objective, which was aimed at determining the level of support for South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup amongst African fans and Cameroonian fans, in particular. Results obtained from the responses of the Cameroonian fans show a high level of support for the awarding of the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup to South Africa, despite the fact that the country was only recently re-admitted to FIFA as a member, compared with other bidders of longer standing. The African fans seem to have accepted that the event will still be held on the African continent, whatever the case might be. In addition, the message conveyed by the South African government from the initial bidding stages has been that the 2010 FIFA World Cup is to be regarded as an African event, which will benefit the entire continent. Such a message has also been well publicised from the very start.

### **6.2.2 Conclusions with regards to objective two**

In the course of this study, about 40% of Cameroonian fans indicated that they would attend the 2010 event. Such a result reflects a significant increase in the potential participation of Cameroonian fans in the 2010 FIFA World Cup, when compared to previous attendance levels at such a tournament. According to Smith and Stewart (2007), when deciding whether to attend a game, both travelling and football tourists are influenced by the physical proximity of the contest. However, 60% of the fans stated that they would either not attend, or were still undecided about whether they would attend, the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Travel constraints, which are related to costs, were highlighted as being the main reason for not travelling to the 2010 event. In order to increase the amount of participation by African fans' at future events, such

constraints should be noted, so that suitable cost-effective strategies can be formulated to boost their level of participation in such events.

### **6.2.3 Conclusions with regards to objective three**

The profile of those Cameroonian fans who said that they would travel to the 2010 FIFA World Cup was found to be that of a male aged 31 years old, working full-time or self-employed, and earning an average monthly income of R3201.75. The results of the findings in this regard correlate with those of previous studies on the profiles of sport event tourists, as were discussed in Chapter Three. Although there has been a shift in the number of women participating in sport events, as noted by Robinson and Trail (2005) and Rubin (2009), such a finding indicates that further investigation is needed regarding why sport event attendance is dominated by males.

### **6.2.4 Conclusions with regards to objective four**

The majority of Cameroonian fans chose to travel to South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup as non-ticketed fans. Although such fans have the option of making use of dedicated FIFA Fan Parks to watch matches, the use of such facilities should be further investigated. In order to ensure the equitable distribution of tickets and to contend with corrupt practices when it comes to ticket sales, FIFA has divided the sale of tickets into various phases, allowing fans to apply and pay for the tickets online. However, such a process might be seen as disadvantageous for fans who are on the African continent for two reasons. Firstly, the majority of African countries are known to lag behind in technological advancement, and, secondly, most African countries are still underdeveloped in respect of electronic payments and credit card facilities.

### **6.2.5 Conclusions with regards to objective five**

The majority of fans declared that they would likely follow their team to its base in South Africa, with Johannesburg and Cape Town being identified as popular host cities. Although such popularity might have been influenced by such factors as media coverage and the historical associations of such cities, the indications are that the overall situation, as far as the popularity of such destinations is concerned, might remain the same in 2010. The skewed popularity of host cities might result in an uneven spread of visitors throughout the country, and therefore lead to the loss of socio-economic benefits that might, else, have been derived by other centres.



In order for every region to be able effectively to capitalise on, and to benefit from, the tourism potential that the hosting of mega-events as the 2010 FIFA World Cup present, the spread of visitors is important. For such spread to have its maximum impact, a concerted marketing effort is required by the key stakeholders, including the LOC, as well as national, provincial and local government, involved. The provincial government that has control over the host cities of Durban, Port Elizabeth, Bloemfontein, Nelspruit, Polokwane, and Rustenburg should also consider marketing their destinations to those sectors including sport fans and tourists in order to boost the number of arrivals. An increase in such numbers would lead to the expansion of the opportunities provided in the various regions, enabling their communities effectively to benefit from the tourism potential of mega-events.

#### **6.2.6 Conclusions with regards to objective six**

The respondents' overall perceptions of the image of South Africa were positive. They acknowledged that the country, as well as being beautiful, also has excellent sport facilities and infrastructure, which are capable of hosting sport mega-events. However, the negative perceptions regarding the high rate of crime, xenophobia and HIV/Aids should draw the attention of 2010 event organisers, so that they can effectively adopt and implement strategies to limit such problems during the 2010 tournament. By limiting such problems during South Africa's hosting of the World Cup, the assurance would be provided that future mega-events could be safely held in the country.

Regarding those factors that are likely to influence the participation of fans in the 2010 World Cup, the majority of the respondents cited the high costs involved in travelling, as well as their own financial difficulties as reasons for their not participating in the mega-event. The geographic location of Cameroon, relative to South Africa, was also seen as a motivator for fans to travel to the event.

### **6.2.7 Conclusions with regards to objective seven**

The tourism potential for South Africa emanating from the rest of Africa, and from Cameroon in particular, can be justified owing to a possible increase in the participation of African fans in the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The majority of the respondents declared their interest in the nature and adventure activities, which South Africa has on offer. Most importantly, the respondents planned to spend an average of 22 days in the country, so that their spending was bound to contribute to the economic benefits to be gained by the host country. However, the spending patterns of fans should also be investigated more thoroughly, in order effectively to measure their contribution to those economic benefits to be gained from tourism around the hosting of the 2010 event. Event organisers and tourism stakeholders should help to ensure that sport tourists thoroughly enjoy their stay in the country, which should, at least in part, be due to the excellent service that they receive. Such an enjoyable stay should lead to the making of many return visits to the host country after the event, resulting in further improvement of tourism and related benefits to be gained from the hosting of a mega-event.

### **6.2.8 Conclusions with regards to objective eight**

Cameroonian fans, generally, reported having positive perceptions of both the 2010 FIFA World Cup, and the associated African legacy. Although some tentative disagreement was expressed with the idea that the event is an 'African World Cup', and that it should lead to the improvement of the lives of African people, in general, after the event, the importance of the hosting of the World Cup by a country in Africa seems to have spread throughout the continent. In the light of the strong level of agreement that the event will leave a positive legacy for Africa, there seems to be a high level of expectation in terms of the legacy benefits to be gained by all African people. Consequently, the need for comprehensive legacy planning and management of such a mega-event is crucial for the maximisation of the benefits to be gained there from.



### **6.3 Recommendations**

In order to justify the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa, and the realisation of legacy benefits for both South Africa, and for Africa as a whole, the organisers should be mindful of the source of investments, as well as where it should be distributed, in the form of economic infrastructure development. In order to achieve such a goal, innovative planning and organising are required to ensure identifiable legacy benefits. Chalip (2006) describes leveraging as the process by which the benefits gained from investments are maximised. Therefore, 2010 stakeholders should consider implementing such a strategy to secure legacy-planning initiatives.

Due to the FIFA World Cup being held in Africa for the first time ever, the event is likely to witness a significant increase in the degree of participation by African fans, in contrast to their previous levels of participation in the World Cup. Despite the fact that most of the fans surveyed intend to follow their team to its base, the success of the event will be measured by how all the host cities are able to position themselves competitively on the global stage. Therefore, strategies directed towards achieving that effect should be adopted.

In order to gauge the effectiveness of the FIFA ticketing process in relation to African fans, a survey, which should be aimed at ascertaining the difficulties faced by both ticketed fans and non-ticketed African fans is recommended. Such a survey might also help to determine the pros and cons of the current FIFA ticketing process, which could help to improve the process in relation to future events.

In addition to the above recommendations, the perceptions of South Africa that are held by African fans from Cameroon can be seen as positive, when one considers the findings of the current study; however, negative perceptions, relating to issues such as crime and xenophobia, also need to be considered. The 2010 FIFA World Cup, through its ability to reach millions of Africans and the rest of the world by means of the media coverage that it is capable of generating, represents an opportunity to change any such negative perceptions. However, the organisers should ensure that adequate pragmatic-based information is well managed and provided to media, thus boosting South Africa's image abroad.

#### **6.4 Limitations of the study**

The following limitations apply to the current study. Firstly, Cameroon is a bilingual nation, with both French and English as its official languages. Although most of the population are French-speaking, only English-speaking fans were interviewed during the research that was undertaken for the present thesis. Due to both time and financial constraints, it was difficult for the researcher to find a translator to translate the measurement instrument into French.

Secondly, the relevant literature, which deals with African football fans, was found only to focus on the social anthropology of football. Such literature was found not to reveal the identities, profiles, travel motives and constraints of the fans concerned in relation to sport tourism events or mega-events.

#### **6.5 Future research direction**

The current study provides a basis for the further development of an understanding of the perceptions of African soccer fans with regards to their participation at mega-events, especially those of the FIFA World Cup. Future similar research should address those factors that hinder the participation of African fans and should promote the formulation of strategies aimed at ensuring effective participation.

Furthermore, because of the high level of support that is accorded to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 event, and also due to the high level of agreement with the associated legacy benefits to be gained by all African fans there from, a comparative analysis of fans' perceptions after the event is essential for ascertaining the success of the notion of 'an African World Cup'. Post-longitudinal analysis is also key to the development of an understanding of the phenomenon, considering the standard measures of economic growth and development in Africa.

Due to the resounding success achieved in respect of the provision of such facilities in Germany in 2006, dedicated PVAs and official FIFA Fan Parks have also been planned for the 2010 event. The results of the current study indicate that the majority of non-ticketed fans are likely to make use of such facilities. Therefore, it is necessary to address and evaluate the effective use of PVAs by African fans, in order to consider such facilities as a cost-saving option when packaging mega-events.



## **6.6 Concluding remarks**

The current study contributes to the limited knowledge that is available regarding the identities and profiles of African football fans, especially those who will attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The study has also identified the African opportunity and the support that has been generated for South Africa in positioning the 2010 event as an 'African World Cup'.

Recommendations have been made to the 2010 LOC and stakeholders to ensure that they can plan better in relation to the provision of transportation, accommodation and Fan Parks, as well as the marketing of the event. By means of such improved planning, the South African government should be able to achieve its objective of the event coming to be perceived as an 'African World Cup'.

The introductory chapter of the current thesis provided a background to the research problem, as well as a general overview of mega-events, with particular focus on the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The chapter also focused on the aims and objectives of the present study, as well as on the research approach and methods that were used to collect both the primary and secondary data.

The second chapter of the thesis presented a literature review, which provided a conceptual framework and theoretical overview of sport tourism and mega-events in relation to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The emphasis was placed on South Africa's positioning of the 2010 event as an 'African World Cup'. An overview of the political economy of sport mega-events was analysed in order to establish how much support was available for South Africa's hosting of the event from other African countries. The chapter also examined the current perceptions regarding South Africa's image among such countries. The intention of the study was to determine and accentuate those factors that might influence or hinder soccer fans' participation in, and attendance at, the 2010 FIFA World Cup, as well as the related consequences for the tourism sector.

The third chapter reviewed the available literature, covering profiles of football fans, their motivations to travel to events, and the related requirements for such events as the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

Chapter Four provided a discussion of the methodology that was used in the study. It also documented the questionnaire design, the instruments used to collect data, the sample size, and the survey population.

Chapter Five presented a summary of the findings that were made as a result of the responses obtained from the survey questionnaires, within the context provided by the theoretical overview.

The final chapter, Chapter Six, provided the conclusions and recommendations made in relation to the findings and research objectives of the study. The chapter also considered the limitations of the study, and suggested areas for further research.



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## APPENDICES



**APPENDIX A: Official letter from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology**



**December 2008**

**To Whom It May Concern:**

**Cameroonian fans perception survey of the 2010 FIFA World Cup: A case study of Buea and Limbe.**

The Cape Peninsula University of Technology is currently undertaking research on the perceptions of Cameroonian fans with regards to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

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

Dr Kamilla Swart

Senior Lecturer: Tourism Department

Telephone: 0027 21 4641307

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## APPENDIX B: The questionnaire

### FACULTY OF BUSINESS CAPE PENINSULA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

#### QUESTIONNAIRE

#### CAMEROONIAN FANS' PERCEPTIONS OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP: A CASE STUDY OF BUEA AND LIMBE

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##### 1. Interest in football

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

I am an avid fan of the sport and always try to attend or watch it on TV.	
I am interested in the sport and see it when I can.	
I am not particularly interested in the sport, but I enjoy seeing it when it comes to our area.	
I am not interested in the sport, but sometimes attend or watch it because family or friends are interested in it,	

1.2.1 Indicate your level of interest in football locally / at club level.

Not interested	
Follow my team to every game	
Follow my team occasionally	
Watch my team only on television	

1.2.2 Indicate your level of interest in football internationally in relation to your national team.

Not interested	
Follow international football on television	
Travel to international football games	

1.2.3 Indicate your level of interest in football in relation to other teams, excluding the Cameroonian team.

Not interested	
Follow international football on television	
Travel to international football games	

1.3 Have you ever travelled to an International football match (other than a FIFA World Cup tournament) outside Cameroon?

Yes	
No	

1.3.1 If yes, which international match did you most recently attend? (State name of host country and year.)

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1.4 Have you ever travelled to a FIFA World Cup tournament?

Yes	
-----	--



No	
----	--

1.4.1 If yes, which World Cup did you most recently attend? (State name of host country and year.)

\_\_\_\_\_

## 2 Awareness and perceptions of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and South Africa

2.1 Which country will be hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

South Africa	Other (Specify)	Don't know
--------------	-----------------	------------

2.2 Will you attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa?

Yes	No	Not sure / maybe
-----	----	------------------

2.2.1 If yes, would you still attend if Cameroon did not qualify to take part?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.2.2 If no, why will you not attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa?

Not interested in soccer	
Will not be able to afford to purchase tickets	
Prefer to watch game on TV	
Travel costs are too high	
Xenophobia	
Political instability	
Unfriendly people	
Visa problems	
Crime	
Other (specify)	

2.2.3 If not sure / maybe, why?

\_\_\_\_\_

2.3 If you were to visit South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup:

2.3.1 Where would you like to be based?

Johannesburg	Cape Town	Durban	Team base	Other (specify)	Not sure
--------------	-----------	--------	-----------	-----------------	----------

2.3.2 How long will you stay in South Africa (in days)? \_\_\_\_\_

2.3.3 Would you come to the World Cup, even if you did not have a ticket?

Yes	No	Not sure / maybe
-----	----	------------------

2.3.4 If you came without a ticket, would you make use of dedicated public viewing areas for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, to watch the matches?

Yes	No
-----	----

2.3.5 If you were to come to South Africa for the World Cup, how many people would you likely be travelling with? \_\_\_\_\_

2.4 What activities would you like to do / to see while in South Africa?

None	Nature	Adventure	Culture	Shopping	Dining
Not sure	Other (Specify)				

2.5.1 What do you think are the positives/advantages of South Africa as a country?

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2.5.2 What do you think are the negatives/disadvantages of South Africa as a country?

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### 3 Support and awareness of the 2010 FIFA World Cup

3.1 Do you support South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

Yes	No	Not sure / maybe
-----	----	------------------

3.1.1 Please provide a reason for your response.

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3.2 Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about the 2010 FIFA World Cup:

1 = Strongly agree	2 = Agree	3 = Neutral	4 = Strongly disagree	5 = Disagree
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Other African nations will benefit from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup.	
South Africa will successfully host the 2010 FIFA World Cup.	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup can be considered as an 'African World Cup'.	
After the 2010 FIFA World Cup, African peoples' standard of living will have improved.	
The 2010 World Cup is not an 'African Cup', but a South African Cup only.	
Africa has a better chance of hosting an Olympic Games by virtue of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup.	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup will change the negative perceptions of Africa.	
The 2010 FIFA World Cup will help to market Africa as a tourism and investment destination.	

3.3 Are you aware of any projects that are currently under way in Cameroon in conjunction with the 2010 FIFA World Cup?

Yes	No
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3.3.1 If yes, what are these projects?

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### 4 Spectator profile

4.1 How old are you?

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4.2 Gender (interviewer to note):

Male	
Female	

4.3 Race (interviewer to note):

Black	
White	
Asian	
Indian	
Other (Specify)	

4.4 What is your monthly household income before deductions and tax?

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4.5 What is your employment status?

Working full-time	
Working part-time	
Unemployed	
A housewife	
A student	
Self-employed	
Retired	

**APPENDIX C: Table 5.8: International football matches recently attended by respondents (*n* = 70)**

<b>Table 5.8: International football matches recently attended by respondents (<i>n</i> = 68, in %)</b>	
<b>HOST COUNTRY AND YEAR</b>	<b>TOTAL (<i>n</i>=68)</b>
Nigeria, 1985 – 2008	31.4
Ghana, 2003 – 2008	25.8
Egypt, 2006 – 2008	10
France, 1982 – 2004	4.2
South Africa, 2008	2.9
Angola, 1981	1.4
Belgium, 2002	1.4
Brazil, 1999	1.4
China, 2008	1.4
Denmark, 2002	1.4
Equatorial Guinea, 2004	1.4
Equatorial Guinea, 2007	1.4
Gabon, 1996	1.4
Gabon, 2005	1.4
Germany, 2006	1.4
Italy, 2004	1.4
Ivory Coast, 2005	1.4
Libya, 2003	1.4
Mali, 1989	1.4
Mali, 2006	1.4
Moscow, 2008	1.4
Togo, 2006	1.4
Tunisia, 2002	1.4
Zambia, 2005	1.4
Zimbabwe, 2004	1.4