



**THE TOURISM IMPACTS OF THE 2012 CONFEDERATION OF  
AFRICAN FOOTBALL (CAF) NATIONS CUP IN GABON**

by

**GRACE NTAHINTA MBOUMBA**

**Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree**

**Master of Technology in Tourism and Hospitality Management**

**in the Faculty of Business and Management Sciences**

**at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology**

**Supervisor:** Professor Kamilla Swart

**Co-supervisor:** Professor Tembi Tichaawa

**Cape Town Campus**

(May 2017)

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## **ABSTRACT**

Sport tourism events have been recognised as a very important niche market offering great opportunities for countries worldwide. Because of their ability to provide urban, regional and national developments, every country around the globe is increasingly battling to host these events. This study focuses on the tourism impacts of major sport events in the African developing context, the aim being to close the gap currently existing in the literature regarding the subject. The main objective of the study was to determine the tourism impacts of the 2012 Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON) in Gabon”.

The study adopted a quantitative research approach (descriptive design) to obtain data and findings. Questionnaires were split according to the two match venues (Libreville and Franceville) and administered to visitors. Respondents were remoulded during the course of the event. Despite some negative impacts highlighted and others aspects investigated; the most important finding of the study revealed that Gabon successfully hosted the event which turned out to be good for local communities and contributed to their development.

Conclusively, the study confirms that major sport events such as the Africa Cup of Nations have indeed the potential to develop tourism, provide new business opportunities and benefit residents of local communities.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

### I wish to thank:

- The Almighty God who gave me the strength beyond everything to complete this study. I love him because of he loved me first and is always by my side.
- My lovely husband, Paulin Essone Ndong and our gift from God “Essone Ndong Faith” who underwent this long process with me and supported me – I love you dearly.
- My dad and mum, Mr & Mrs Ntahitangiye, the engine of my success in life.
- My supervisor Prof Kamilla Swart and co-supervisor Prof Tembi Tichaawa Maloney, for their assistance but mainly their patience to see me through this process, advising me in the right direction. From the bottom of my heart I thank you.
- My mother in law, Mrs Mengue Aubame Emmanuella.
- All my friends, including Senior Pastor Dorego and his wife, Senior Pastor Ndjoumbi and his wife who encouraged me.
- My special friend Moussounda Nancy for your support.
- The financial assistance of the National Research Foundation towards this research is acknowledged. Opinions expressed in this dissertation and the conclusions arrived at, are those of the author, and are not necessarily to be attributed to the National Research Foundation.

## **DEDICATION**

This dissertation is dedicated to GOD ALMIGHTY, my dad and my mum Mr & Mrs  
Ntahitangiye.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title	i
Declaration	ii
Abstract	iii
Acknowledgements	iv
Dedication	v
Table of contents	vi
List of figures	x
List of tables	xi
Appendices	xiii
Glossary	xiv

### CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO STUDY

1.1	Introduction	1
1.2	Clarification of basic terms and concepts	3
1.2.1	Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON)	3
1.2.2	Football	3
1.2.3	Events	4
1.2.4	Sport events	4
1.2.5	Sport event tourism	5
1.2.6	Major sport events	5
1.2.7	Mega-events	6
1.2.8	Hallmarks events	7
1.2.9	Sport	7
1.2.10	Tourism	8
1.2.11	Sport tourism	8
1.2.12	Impact	9
1.2.13	Tourism impacts	9
1.2.14	Tourist	9
1.2.15	Sport tourists	10
1.3	Problem statement	10
1.4	Research objectives	10
1.5	Research questions	11
1.6	Research methodology	11
1.6.1	Methods and tools for data collection	12
1.6.1.1	Secondary data sources	12
1.6.1.2	Primary data sources	12
1.6.2	Research design	12
1.6.2.1	Questionnaire design	12
1.6.3	Sampling techniques	12
1.6.4	Method of data analysis	13
1.6.5	Sample selection	13
1.6.5.1	Identification of study areas	13
1.7	Delineation of the study	13
1.8	Ethical considerations	13
1.9	Significance and contribution of the study	13
1.10	The layout of the dissertation	13
1.11	Summary	13

### CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1	Introduction	16
2.2.	The relationship between sport and tourism	17

2.3	Sport event tourism	19
2.4	Typologies of sport tourism events	20
2.4.1	Mega sport events	20
2.4.2	Major sport events	21
2.5	Profiling sport tourists with a specific focus on football	22
2.6	Sport tourists' motivational factors	24
2.7	The growing importance of hosting sport events	27
2.8	Overview of football in Africa	30
2.8.1	Confederation of African Football (CAF)	30
2.8.1.1	Organisation	30
2.8.1.2	History and background	31
2.8.1.3	The Africa Cup of Nations(AFCOON)	31
2.9	Tourism in Gabon	32
2.10	Tourism impacts of major sport events	33
2.10.1	Economic impacts of major sport tourism events	35
2.10.1.1	Economic benefits	36
2.10.1.1.1	Economic and regional development	36
2.10.1.1.2	Contribution to the GDP	37
2.10.1.1.3	Job creation	37
2.10.1.1.4	The development of additional trade and of existing businesses	39
2.10.1.1.5	Media exposure	41
2.10.1.2	Economic costs	41
2.10.1.2.1	Economic losses	43
2.10.1.2.2	Opportunity costs	44
2.10.1.2.3	Inflation	46
2.10.2	Socio-cultural impacts of major sport tourism events	46
2.10.2.1	Social benefits	47
2.10.2.1.1	The sense of national pride and unity – social cohesion	47
2.10.2.1.2	Image and marketing opportunities	48
2.10.2.1.3	Intercultural exchange and shared experiences	49
2.10.2.1.4	Infrastructural benefits	50
2.10.2.2	Social costs	51
2.10.2.2.1	Prostitution	51
2.10.2.2.2	Crime and violence	52
2.10.2.2.3	Overcrowding and congestion	53
2.10.3	Environmental impacts of major sport tourism events	54
2.10.3.1	Environmental benefits	54
2.10.3.1.1	Infrastructural legacy	55
2.10.3.1.2	Improved transport and communications	55
2.10.3.1.3	Urban transformation and renewal	56
2.10.3.2	Environmental costs	57
2.10.3.2.1	Environmental damage	57
2.10.3.2.2	Pollution	58
2.10.3.2.3	Destruction of the environment and natural heritage	59
2.10.3.2.4	Noise disturbance	60
2.11	Summary	61
<b>CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY</b>		
3.1	Introduction	62
3.2	Research questions	62
3.3	Background to the study	62
3.4	Research design	66
3.5	Population and sample selection	68
3.6	Methods and tools for data collection	69
3.6.1	Secondary data sources	69
3.6.2	Primary data sources	70

3.6.2.1	Questionnaire surveys	70
3.6.3	Pilot study	72
3.6.4	Reliability and validity of the research instrument	73
3.6.5	Ethical considerations	74
3.6.6	Method of data analysis	74
3.7	Summary	75

#### **CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS**

4.1	Introduction	76
4.2	The sample used in the study	76
4.3	Demographic profile of the respondents	76
4.3.1	Country of origin	76
4.3.2	Gender	78
4.3.3	Age	79
4.3.4	Level of education	80
4.3.5	Monthly household income of respondents	81
4.4	Previous visitation and attendance at an AFCON	82
4.4.1	Previous attendance at an AFCON	83
4.4.2	Number of prior AFCON tournaments attended	84
4.4.3	Previous visits to Gabon	84
4.4.4	Number of previous visits to Gabon	84
4.4.5	Previous visits to Libreville	85
4.4.6	Number of previous visits made to Libreville	86
4.4.7	Previous visits to Franceville	86
4.4.8	Number of previous visits made to Franceville	87
4.5	Visitors' information	88
4.5.1	Number of tickets bought per respondent	88
4.5.2	Number of overnight stays per city	90
4.6	Tourism activities engaged in by sport tourists in Gabon	91
4.7	Main sources of information used by respondents before travelling to Gabon (foreign visitors)	92
4.8	Mode of transport during the 2012 AFCON	93
4.9	Motives for visiting Gabon	94
4.9.1	Importance of the 2012 AFCON in the decision to travel to Gabon (in the case of foreign visitors) / to the host city concerned (in the case of domestic visitors)	94
4.9.2	Watching of match due to presence in the region at the time	96
4.9.3	Holiday's extension so as to be able to watch the match	96
4.10	Perception of Gabon as a tourism destination	96
4.10.1	Perceptions of social impacts	97
4.10.2	Perception of economic impacts	103
4.10.3	Perceptions of the environmental impacts	107
4.11	Responsible tourism behaviour	110
4.12	Recommending Gabon as a tourism destination to friends and relatives	114
4.13	The intention to revisit Gabon (in the case of foreign visitors) / host city	114
4.14	Summary	116

#### **CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY**

5.1	Introduction	117
5.2	Objectives revisited	117
5.2.1	Conclusion in terms of objective one	118
5.2.2	Conclusion in terms of objective two	118
5.2.3	Conclusion in terms of objective three	119
5.2.4	Conclusion in terms of objective four	119



5.2.5	Conclusion in terms of objective five	119
5.3	Recommendations	120
5.4	Limitations of the study	121
5.5	Future research	122
5.6	Concluding remarks	123
<b>REFERENCES</b>		<b>123</b>

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1: Map of Gabon	63
Figure 3.2: Amitié Sino-gabonaise Stadium, Libreville	65
Figure 3.3: Rénovation Stadium, Franceville	66
Figure 4.1: Gender of respondents ( $n=609$ , in %) Franceville	79
Figure 4.2: Monthly household income in CFA franc ( $n=609$ , in %)	82

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Categories of sport events	1222
Table 3.1 Questionnaire distribution	69
Table 4.1: Country of origin ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	78
Table 4.2: Age of respondents ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	80
Table 4.3: Highest level of education attained ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	81
Table 4.4: Previous attendance at an AFCON ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	83
Table 4.5: Number of prior AFCON tournaments attended ( <i>n</i> =113, in %)	84
Table 4.6: Number of previous visits to Gabon – foreign visitors only ( <i>n</i> =73%)	85
Table 4.7: Previous visits to Libreville ( <i>n</i> =321, in %)	86
Table 4.8: Number of previous visits made to Libreville ( <i>n</i> =173, in %)	86
Table 4.9: Previous visits to Franceville ( <i>n</i> =507, in %)	87
Table 4.10: Number of previous visits made to Franceville Franceville ( <i>n</i> =213%)	88
Table 4.11: Number of tickets bought per respondent / host city ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	89
Table 4.12: Complete match details for the 2012 AFCON, in terms of the Stade d'Angondjé, Libreville, Gabon	89
Table 4.13: Complete match details for the 2012 AFCON, in terms of the Stade de Franceville, Gabon	90
Table 4.14: Activities participated, by sport tourists, while in Gabon during the 2012 AFCON ( <i>n</i> =609, in %) – multiple responses permitted	91
Table 4.15: The main sources of information on the destination used prior to departure to Gabon ( <i>n</i> =219, in %) – multiple responses permitted	93
Table 4.16: The main mode of transport used to reach the 2012 AFCON matches from place of accommodation ( <i>n</i> =609, in %) – multiple responses permitted	94
Table 4.17: The importance of the 2012 AFCON to the decision to travel to Gabon (In the case of foreign visitors) / this host city (in the case of domestic visitors) ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	95
Table 4.18: Primary reason for visiting Gabon ( <i>n</i> =28, in %)	96
Table 4.19: I feel confident that Gabon successfully hosted the event ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	98
Table 4.20: I was satisfied with the level of service received during the event ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	99
Table 4.21: I became aware of tourism facilities in the area due to attending the event ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	99
Table 4.22: The Africa Cup of Nations led to increased crime in the local area ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	100
Table 4.23: The Africa Cup of Nations had NO significant negative social impacts ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	101
Table 4.24: I was proud that Gabon was hosting this event ( <i>n</i> =390, in %)	102
Table 4.25: I became aware of other destinations in Gabon while attending the event ( <i>n</i> =219, in %)	103
Table 4.26: I became aware of other African destinations because attending the event ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	103
Table 4.27: The 2012 AFCON created opportunities for jobs and employment ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	104
Table 4.28: The overall cost of living increased during the event period ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	105
Table 4.29: The 2012 AFCON led to increases in the price of goods and transport ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	106
Table 4.30: During the 2012 AFCON, it was difficult to purchase goods and services from local businesses ( <i>n</i> =609, in %)	107
Table 4.31: The hosting of the 2012 AFCON resulted in traffic congestion in the	108

	local area ( $n=609$ , in %)	
Table 4.32:	The Africa Cup of Nations led to an increase of pollution in the local area ( $n=609$ , in %)	109
Table 4.33:	The environment in Angondjé/Libreville was degraded due to the hosting of the 2012 Africa Cup of Nations ( $n=609$ , in %)	109
Table 4.34:	Responsible tips seen ( $n=146$ , in %) – multiple responses permitted	111
Table 4.35:	Responsible tourism tips recalled ( $n=146$ , in %) – multiple response permitted	111
Table 4.36:	Importance of environmental considerations when choosing accommodation for the 2012 AFCON ( $n=609$ )	112
Table 4.37:	Rating of general impressions/experiences of Gabon ( $n=609$ , in %)	113
Table 4.38:	Would you advise friends, relatives or colleagues to visit Gabon ( $n=219$ )	114
Table 4.39:	Respondents likely to return to Gabon in the next year ( $n=219$ in %)	115
Table 4.40:	Plan to revisit Gabon during the following two years ( $n=219$ in %)	115

## APPENDICES

Appendix A: Number of overnight stays and day trips spent during the 2012 AFCON	145
Appendix B: Research authorisation letter- French	146
Appendix C: Research authorisation letter- English	147
Appendix D: English cover letter for questionnaire	148
Appendix E: English questionnaire	149
Appendix F: French cover letter for questionnaire	156
Appendix G: French questionnaire	157

## GLOSSARY

<b>Acronyms/Abbreviations</b>	<b>Definition/Explanation</b>
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AFCON	Africa Cup of Nations
CAF	Confederation of African Football
DEAT	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
DMO	Destination Marketing Organisation
DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
ESPN	Entertainment and Sports Programming Network
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome.
FIFA	Federation of International Football Associations
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ICC	International Cricket Council
IPL	Indian Premier League
IRB	International Rugby Board
IT	Information Technology
OECD	Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development
OSAC	Overseas Security Advisory Council - United States Department of State
PAPI	Paper-and-pencil interview
SAED	Semi-automatic defibrillator
SAFA	South African Football Association
SANAC	South African National Aids Council
SME	Small and medium enterprise
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UEFA	Union of European Football Associations
UERO	European Nations Championship
UNDP	United National Development Programme
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UOBO	L'Université Omar Bongo Ondimba
USTM	L'Université des Sciences et Techniques de Masuku
VFR	Visiting Friends and Relatives
WTO	World Tourism Organisation
WTTC	World Travel & Tourism Council

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO STUDY

#### 1.1 Introduction

Over the past few decades, events have become a powerful ingredient of sport tourism, drawing nations worldwide, and developments in tourism studies embracing a spectrum of activities begun to be incorporated into the analysis of tourism economies (Getz & Page, 2015:593; Yoshida, James & Cronin, 2013:52). Nowadays, however, countries around the globe are consistently battling for their place in the limelight, and they have become eager to host sport events at any cost, simply because of the ability of such events to generate economic, social, physical and sporting outcomes for locals, lasting beyond the hosting phase of the event (Ramchandani, Davies, Coleman, Shibli & Bingham, 2015:1). Griffin (2015:15) asserts that major sporting events are highly politically contested for, and disputed by, both developed and developing countries (Brand South Africa, 2012). In fact, Konstantaki and Wickens (2010:337) advocate that sport events generally be viewed as leveraging opportunities for economic growth and urban (re)development. For instance, increasing opportunities of job and income, lessening inflation (Homafar, Honari, Heidary & Emami, 2011:35), and improving cities and/or countries' status with insufficient or inadequate representation are considered salient outcomes of such events (Bull & Lovell, 2007:233). Getz (2016:127) confirms that events have indeed become an essential, and fundamental, part of tourism development and marketing strategies. Sport events, specifically, have taken on a significant and dignified profile bearing the key role of urban and regional development tools (Kim & Walker, 2012:91).

Using Leiper's tourism system analogy, Getz and Page (2015:593) infer that events have become a key, basic and fundamental element of destination systems, in terms of which accommodation, attractions, transport and ancillary services have been, and still are being used, upgraded and/or specifically developed to boost destinations and to raise their image. Getz and Page (2016:192) state that, in this current global economy, events of any kind and type have come to play increasingly important roles in moulding and transforming projected and perceived images of the hosts and other stakeholders involved. Similarly, Nishio (2013:934) indicates that sports events have become instruments of destination marketing for the host countries. Keenan (2016) states that hosting major sport events provides developed, but mainly less well-known and developing countries, with the opportunity to become an important item in the global shop window, and that it enables the market to show

what it has to offer to a massive worldwide audience. For instance, the 2008 Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON) allowed Ghana's government, together with the local communities, to showcase the rich and diverse traditional culture and tourism potential of Ghana during the opening and the closing ceremonies of the tournament (Amenumey & Amuquandoh, 2010:40). A similar opportunity was offered to Angola when it hosted the 2010 Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON). The 2013 Orange AFCON has also provided South Africa with an outstanding platform for boosting and strengthening its position as a world-class leisure destination that is capable of hosting major sporting events (South African Tourism, 2013:28). The same opportunity to showcase itself and its diverse potential to the world has now been given to Gabon with the hosting of the 2012 and 2017 AFCON.

Major sport events have also now come to be widely recognised as a key incentive for investment in host countries (Keenan, 2016). Profiling a host country through television audiences and visitors from overseas provides an opportunity, and exposure, for investment (Keenan, 2016). In fact, one of the most significant benefits that is expected to emerge there from includes the long-term investment deriving from the improvement of sporting venues, and the upgrading of, and/or the building of new, infrastructure and transport systems, undertaken in preparation for the hosting of the event (EconomicsHelp.org, 2016). Other benefits include the improved stature of the government and leadership that are in place; greater consensus and collaboration among political leaders; an increased sense of local pride and self-image; long-term economic improvement; models for new behaviours; and a better quality of life than was available to those affected before the events in question (Pellegrino & Hancock, 2010:4). As a result, major sport events have become a primary point in governments agenda globally, and they have been receiving much academic attention (Atci, Unur & Gursoy, 2016:139). Therefore, because of their significant role as a catalyst for change, they have become an integral means of increasing tourism earnings (Griffin, 2015:15), of attracting visitors, and of enhancing the host's image and stature in the global arena. It is, accordingly, imperative to consider all effects of events on the local communities and populations concerned, whether positive or negative (Atci et al., 2016:139). Government authorities, as well as planning organisations and all stakeholders involved, must seriously review in detail, reflect on, and examine the key challenges and issues linked to the hosting of major sport events. Such a call is not simply about convincing the public and the local communities and businesses that the economic benefits to come from the hosting of such events are likely to outweigh the obvious hosting costs involved (Keenan, 2016). It is also about ensuring that the events create a lasting legacy that will result in new global recognition levels, and the host country's economic, political, and social development (Pellegrino & Hancock, 2010:2; Atci et al., 2016:139).



The AFCON is Africa's mega football tournament that is hosted and sanctioned by the CAF. In June 1956 the creation of the CAF was proposed, during the third Federation of International Football Association (FIFA) congress in Lisbon. The idea resulted in the first Africa Nations Cup being held in Khartoum, Sudan in February 1957. Four participating teams were selected: Sudan; Ethiopia; South Africa and Egypt. However, because of the apartheid policies of the government in power at the time, South Africa's team was latter disqualified (Amenumey & Amuquandoh, 2010:39). Perhaps, one of the oldest, and most followed, football tournaments worldwide, the AFCON has generally been held biennially (CAF, 2016). The number of participating teams increased continuously until reaching 16 in the final tournament in 1998 (CAF, 2016). With the realignment of the African calendar, since 2013 the Nations Cups has no longer been played in World Cup years (Osasu, 2013). As the twenty-eighth edition of the AFCON was co-hosted in Gabon, the focus of the current dissertation is on Gabon, which had never before hosted an event of this scale, with the country as a whole having been noted to face several challenges in terms of tourism development (Don, 2010).

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

### **1.2.1 Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON)**

The Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON) is a football tournament that is owned by the CAF. It currently ranks third in terms of cumulative TV audience for any football competition, coming after the FIFA World Cup™ and the European Nations Championship (Euro). The tournament takes place every two years with 16 teams competing against each other to win the cup. During the tournament process, the 16 African teams are divided into four different groups of four teams, with each pool first two teams qualifying for the quarter-finals. The four quarter-finals winners play the semi-finals, and the two semi-finalists play against each other in the final contest. The winner of the AFCON represents the continent as a whole at the FIFA Confederations Cup (CAF, 2016).

### **1.2.2 Football**

Football is a game that is played by two teams of 11 players for a maximum period of 90 to 120 minutes, depending on the score, and on the stage of the tournament (South African Tourism, 2008). During a match, players try to kick an inflated leather ball into their opponent's goal so as to score goals, in the hope that they will score more goals than their opponent, and therefore win the match. The game is also referred to as soccer in the United States, as well as in other countries in the world that are subject to American influence (Oxford Dictionary, 2016).

### **1.2.3 Events**

Bowdin, Allen, O'Toole, Harris and McDonnell (2011:1) indicate that events have become a central part of global culture in an unprecedented way. As mentioned previously, Getz and Page (2015:593) define events as being an essential component of destination development and marketing systems. Within the context of tourism and the tourism system (Leiper, 1990), Getz and Page (2015:593) state that events constitute a crucial element of the origin area as motivator of tourism and a fundamental item of the destination area prominently and distinguishably present in most destinations' development and marketing plans. Therefore, given the increasing levels of global competitiveness involved in attracting visitor spending; events play the role of both animators in terms of destination attractiveness, and of key fundamental marketing propositions in places' promotion.

Moreover, Susic and Dordevic (2011:72) note that events attract visitors, increase their length of stay and average consumption, and affect the repeat visits of tourists to a certain destination (Brown, Smith & Assaker, 2016:160). Different events can enhance low season visitation, increase capacities usage and provide tourism additional income. Specific in nature and usually held once a year, events tend to have an exceptional impact on tourist destinations' image. Conclusively, one cannot imagine the world without events, as they have been recognised to encourage and accelerate exchanges socially and economically, to ensure experiences that are highly desired, to convey symbolic meaning, to incorporate differences culturally, and to foster and nurture both individual and group identity (Getz, 2015:20).

### **1.2.4 Sport events**

According to Spronk and Fourie (2010:3), sport events are distinguished by the creative and complex content of sportive recreational activities composed of an entertaining character and performed following a specific agenda. For Bjelac and Radovanovic (2003:261), such events have a big influence on tourism, as well as a tremendous significance on a social and economic level for the host location or region. Spronk and Fourie (2010:3) further state that sport events vary in size and scope. They are temporary, even though some (at least) are held regularly, and they can result in a variety of short or long-term, and positive or negative, tangible and intangible impacts (Taks et al., 2015:1), including providing an improved image for the host country, increased know-how, stronger networks, a sense of emotional commitment, an enhanced identity, and additional cultural benefits (Preuss, 2013a:1). They also have the potential to develop and upgrade sites in a city/region by means of: reinforcing and fortifying certain location factors; boosting the income of citizens by enticing and

contracting conventions, new businesses, events or tourists; and fostering cities' economic growth at regional or national level (Preuss, 2013a:1).

### **1.2.5 Sport events tourism**

Sport event tourism is now widely recognised as being an extremely important niche market. In fact, it has become one of the most powerful tools that is used by both developed and developing countries to position themselves globally, and to market themselves both intensively and massively (Ottevanger, 2007:16; Ntloko & Swart, 2008:79). Candrea and Ispas (2010:61) assert that cities use of sport events as marketing instruments to achieve and materialised the success of a destination through awareness creation, image improvement, and tourism business development which will help generate future inbound travel. By the same token, Preuss (2013a:1) indicates that cities and countries are increasingly and continuously bidding to host major sport events, because of the expected economic benefit to be derived therefrom. Politicians' main objective being to bring new and additional investment into their city or region in order to be able to develop such infrastructure as housing, transportation, telecommunications, or even sport and entertainment facilities. Tichaawa (2013:2) asserts that the willingness to host such events comes from huge justified public investments based on the multitude of positive impacts that would be generated, including the repositioning and profiling of the host destination, economic spin-offs, and spaces creation for social interaction.

Including all types and sorts of events in relation to which the main reason for travel is participating in, or viewing some form(s) of sport, sport events are categorised on different scales, with each appealing to a different number of sport tourists/attendees (including participants and spectators), organisers and target markets, as well as to varying media coverage. The larger the event, the higher tend to be the expectations about its anticipated legacy impacts (Bob & Swart, 2010:75). The following subsections depict the different types of event concerned.

### **1.2.6 Major sport events**

Major sport events are important components of development strategies within the tourism sector (Li & Jago, 2013:592). According to Susic and Dordevic (2011:72), such sport events are events that draw a considerable number of visitors, that have wide media coverage, and that offer substantial economic benefits for the host areas. Bowdin et al. (2011:16) also state that major sport events are events that increase economic benefits including visitor numbers and media coverage by their scale and media interest. A typical example of a major sport event is the AFCON 2013, which was expected to attract over 400 000 visitors to South Africa, and to impact on local communities both negatively and positively (Bega & Ajam,

2013). Major sport events usually also have some kind of cultural significance, whether of a musical or religious nature, among others (Susic & Dordevic, 2011:72). Other types of major sport events include the mega-events and hallmark events that are defined below.

### **1.2.7 Mega-events**

Mega-events have become extremely popular and are carrying the character and image of a high-profile phenomena linked to widespread respect, status and admiration because of their nature, quality and power (Kassens-Noor, Wilson, Müller, Mahara & Huntoon, 2015:1). Contrarily to major sport events they demand and require larger public budgets and involve politically sensitive issues despite simultaneously becoming highly criticised. Mega-events have a tendency to immensely and massively impact on countries economy and their presence in the global media arena is exceptional, phenomenal and remarkable. Depending on their scale, scope and magnitude, they are likely to attract broader media coverage, to further and extensively advance tourist development, and to contribute to the wealth of an area or a destination (Allen, O'Toole, Harris & McDonnell, 2005:12). Similarly, Bowdin et al. (2011:18) indicate that mega-events, which are often developed following the undertaking of a competitive bidding process, are very large, and they have the potential to entirely affect nations' economic and financial system and to reverberate in the global media. Examples of such events include the Olympic Games, the FIFA World Cup™, and the AFCON which is, in fact, Africa's mega-event.

Getz (2005:18) suggests that “[m]ega-events, by way of their size or significance, are those that extraordinarily yield high levels of tourism, prestige, economic outcomes or media coverage, venue or organisation, for the host community [involved]”. With regards to their legacies, mega events are extremely powerful to the point of giving rise to cities and regions enormous transformation, regeneration, revitalisation, and development (Kassens-Noor, Wilson, Müller, Maharaj & Huntoon, 2015:1). Kassen et al. (2015:2) in fact affirm that mega event legacies can take any forms and have the capacity to touch and reflect on any sector of a country's economy. In other words, there is practically no boundary to the impacts of mega events on local communities.

Horne and Manzenreiter (2006a:1) advocate that sports mega-events enable the host nation to promote and advertise its cultural dynamism, as well as its potential to achieve tourism brand, political will and economic success. In short, they are at the center of nations' attention and orientation to global or international society (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006a:1). In other words, mega-events can transform the city, region or nation in which they take place. In terms of such consequences, forgotten neighbourhoods can become desperately needed makeovers, with massive clean-up efforts curbing prevailing levels of smog and

pollution. Transportation upgrades can also enhance the mobility of the citizenry (ATKearney, 2005:1). However, contrary to the above, mega-events can also result in debt and in some cases financial ruin, as scarcely any large-scale events manage to reach and fulfil their full potential, with even fewer delivering the promised long-term rewards. Nonetheless, mega-events do more than simply provide a hosting experience for cities and nations that focus on both immediate and longer term gains, as they tend to build a legacy (ATKearney, 2005:1).

Finally, mega-events possess a unique character that allows them to be at the center of any new forms with which international relations are conducted. Consequently, they have come to set the context within which states lay the objectives of foreign policy around the globe (Cornelissen, 2008:482). Mega-events also involve many stakeholders including sport associations, international sports federations, states and activities, media and other corporations around the pursuit of profit, entertainment and prestige within today's global political economy (Cornelissen, 2008:482).

### **1.2.8 Hallmark events**

Hallmark events are events that have come to identify themselves with the spirit of cities, places or regions that they are nowadays recognised as synonyms for the places where they are organised (Allen et al., 2005:13). Similarly, Getz and Page (2015:597) refer to hallmark events as assets that can be used to achieve specific objectives that will result in the development of tourism and the well-being of the local population. Over time, the hallmark event as a tourist attraction can become an institution which could be taken for granted because of its stability and consistency. Its traditions strengthen local communities' sense of belonging and place identity, with the images of the event and the city merging with one another and being inextricably tie-up and interrelated. Examples of such events include the Commonwealth Games, the America's Cup, and the hosting of the Grand Prix (Shahwe, 2011:13).

### **1.2.9 Sport**

Sport has been defined in numerous ways, due to its complexity and to what it includes. In fact, Neirotti (2003:2) and Gibson (2013:12) argue that sport is defined in various ways, and from different viewpoints. Pedersen and Thibault (2014:6) state that sport takes numerous forms. It may include: (a) many participants, as in such team sports as soccer and volleyball; (b) two participants, as in a dual sport like tennis or badminton; or (c) one person, as in an individual sport, like golf and surfing. Sport encompasses a combination of such configurations, involving team matches, competitions or tournaments. Similarly, Weed and Bull (2012:63) define sport as being an activity that is formal or informal, and competitive or

recreational. It can be actively or passively participated in by competitors and/or co-participants. Sport, therefore, does not always need to be competitive, nor does it always require the use of specialised equipment, simply because it includes all varieties of physical activities and associated businesses (Pedersen & Thibault, 2014:7). Kurtzman and Zauhar (2003:37) argue that “sport builds character, teaches values, encourages healthy competition, provides outlets for aggression and promotes international friendship and understanding”. Additionally, Ritchie and Adair (2004:3) describe sport as a activity, socially constructed, that has differed across historical eras, cultures and societies. Sport can, therefore, be seen as either formal or recreational in nature, with it being played for leisure or commercial purposes (Weed & Bull, 2012:19), as it is a social event that influences travel to other cities, countries and continents of the world (Elendu, 2013:143).

### **1.2.10 Tourism**

The World Tourism Organisation (2003:1) defines tourism as “... activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes that are not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited”. The South African Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (Department of Economic Affairs and Tourism, 1996) defines it in the White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa as “all travel for whatever purpose that result[s] in one or more nights away from home” (South Africa. DEAT, 1996). According to the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) (2015:1), tourism is among the most powerful and strongest economic sectors worldwide. Closely tied to development, tourism comprises and includes an increasing number of destinations. Such dynamics have turned tourism into a vital and fundamental driver for socio-economic progress.

### **1.2.11 Sport tourism**

As the combination of sport and tourism, sport tourism is regarded as a very important segment of the tourism industry, resulting in its growing prominence over the last few years (Hinch & Higham, 2011:35), both as an academic field of study and as an increasingly popular product of tourism (Tichaawa, 2013:1). One of the earliest and most well-known definitions of sport tourism is given by Standeven and De Knop (1999:12), who refer to sport tourism as consisting of “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”. Another well-known definition is that of Gibson (1998:49), who classifies sport tourism as “leisure based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside their home communities to participate in

physical activities". Additionally, Hinch and Higham (2004:19) advocate that sport tourism involves "travel for non-commercial reasons to participate, or observe, sporting activities away from the home range". Weed and Bull (2012:3) contend that the concept of sport tourism simply involves sporting activity, which is participated in from the standpoint of either a spectator or a participant. In contrast, Kurtzman (2005:49) defines sport tourism as being "the use of sports for touristic endeavours", with it including six supply-side tourism categories: sports events; sports attractions; sports resorts; sports adventures; sports cruises; and sports tours.

Swart and Bob (2007:374) assert that sport and tourism have become remarkable economic activities for destinations globally. Kurtzman (2005:48) lists direct spending, employment, and economic impact as being the benefits of sport tourism for a community. Swart and Bob (2007:374) further argue that "sport and tourism have been identified as playing significant roles in both urban and rural communities' economic and social regeneration". Such activities are regarded as vehicles fostering residents' quality of life through visitors' attraction, and the boosting of local communities' economic well-being (Swart & Bob, 2007:376), by providing opportunities for entertainment (Daniels & Norman, 2005:202), and by enabling those from all levels of society implicated (particularly organisers, promoters, entrepreneurs, and volunteers) to work together towards a common end (Djaballah, Hautbois & Desbordes, 2015:1).

### **1.2.12 Impact**

An impact is defined as the powerful effect that something has on someone or something (Oxford Dictionary, 2016).

### **1.2.13 Tourism impact**

Tourism takes place within the human, natural and built environments. The human environment characterised by physical, social and economic factors, the natural environment by plants, vegetation and animals and the built one by attractions, accommodations and amenities (Mason, 2015:30). The impacts of tourism on these environments can either be positive or negative (Mason, 2015:31).

### **1.2.14 Tourist**

The South African Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (South Africa. DEAT, 1996) describes a tourist "as a person who travels away from home, staying at least for one night and can be a domestic tourist, regional tourist or an overseas tourist. Reasons and motives for travelling include business, leisure, conference and incentive".

### **1.2.15 Sport tourists**

Sport tourists are those individuals whose primary reason for travelling is “motivated by Sport”. Such travel is aimed at visiting sports sites, attending/participating in sports events, and/or observing sporting activity, so as to get more knowledge about sports or so as to improve skills, to experience a major event’s ambience and/or a sporting activity’s environment, to meet sports persons, and others (Kurtzman, 2005:49).

### **1.3 Problem statement**

The hosting of a major sport event can bring with it various impacts that can be both positive and negative (Ohmann, Jones & Mikes, 2006:130). Kim, Gursoy and Lee (2006:2) confirm that major sport events are one-time events that usually generate both positive and negative, long-term profound impacts, on the host communities concerned (Chien & Lin, 2015:249). As previously stated above, countries around the world are increasingly seeking to host high-profile sporting events, with a view to reaping tourism benefits, because such events attract a large number of domestic and international visitors (Kim, Jun, Walker & Drane, 2015:21). In fact, Weed and Bull (2012:128) confirm that both developed and developing countries are currently choosing to host major sport events as a prospective growth strategy, so as to accelerate their development, and as a means of achieving strategic corporate objectives (Tichaawa, 2013:1). Some of the positive tourism impacts that secondary data sources have pointed to include: job creation; infrastructural development; branding and marketing; foreign exchange earnings; internal investment; and social and cultural development. Negatives impacts include: increased costs of goods and services; social problems; and environmental degradation and pollution. Although Gabon is a country with vast tourism potential, it has continuously struggled to ignite tourism, because of the many challenges that are equally faced by other African countries, such as the lack of finances and sustainable policies, the lack of education and human capital development, and the prevalence of a spirit of Afro-pessimism, amongst others (Dieke, 2003:288). Until recently, very few studies have considered the tourism impacts of hosting major sport tourism events in Africa, especially with the focus on the CAN. The current study was designed with a view to unearthing the tourism impacts resulting from Gabon’s hosting of the 2012 event.

### **1.4 Research objectives**

The specific objectives of the present study are:

- To determine the profile of sport tourists to the 2012 AFCON.
- To determine the tourism impacts accrued to Gabon as co-host of the 2012 AFCON.



- To determine the tourism impacts likely to accrue to Gabon as future host of the AFCON 2017.
- To identify the different tourism activities engaged in by sport tourists attending the 2012 AFCON during their stay in Gabon.
- To assess the sport tourists' behaviours at the 2012 AFCON tournament.
- To ascertain the perceptions of Gabon as a tourism destination, as seen by the sport tourists attending the 2012 AFCON.

### **1.5 Research questions**

The current study was designed to address the following specific research questions:

- What was the demographic profile of sport tourists to the 2012 AFCON?
- What tourism impacts accrued to Gabon as co-host of the 2012 AFCON
- What tourism impacts are likely to accrue to the future hosts of the AFCON 2017?
- In which tourism activities did sport tourists to the 2012 AFCON engage during their stay in Gabon?
- What were the sport tourists' behaviours at the 2012 AFCON tournament?
- What were the sport tourists' perceptions of Gabon as a tourism destination?

### **1.6 Research methodology**

According to Dawson (2009:14), research methodology is the philosophy, or the general principle, that gives and provides direction to a research project. It is the global approach to the study of a topic that includes such issues as ethical choices, dilemmas and constraints within the research project. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:12) advocate that a research methodology is "the overall approach used by the researcher to carry out the research project; to some extent, this approach dictates the particular tools the researcher selects". Myers (2013:105) states that such a methodology is an enquiry strategy that progresses from the latent assumptions to the design of the research project, and to the collection of data.

The current study made use of a quantitative research method to collect the required data. The objective being to confirm the hypothesis that the AFCON, like any other major sport events, does impact on the local area within which it is held and to what extent. The shift being from developed to developing countries. The researcher chose this method as it enabled her to produce comparable and generalisable data to be used while remaining objective. According to Harwell (2011:149), quantitative research methods aim to maximise

reliability, generalisability, replicability, and objectivity of findings, with them being generally and consistently used with an eye to prediction. The following section discusses the tools that were used for the data collection in the present study.

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

### **1.6.1.1 Secondary data sources**

A literature review forms a key component of the exploratory research process. In order to gain a thorough comprehension of the background of the current study, secondary data regarding sport, tourism, sport tourism and tourism impacts of mega-events in general were sourced from: journals; textbooks; industry literature; government communications and legislation; Internet sites such as the CAF (2016); electronic journals; relevant theses and dissertations; as well as other published literatures.

### **1.6.1.2 Primary data sources**

Primary sources are original materials on which research is based (University of Rochester, 2016). Primary data sources involved in this investigation comprised especially designed survey questionnaires that were administered face-to-face with the respondents during the 2012 AFCON.

## **1.6.2 Research design**

The research design carries the complete chosen strategy which combines and brings together the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby making certain that the research problem is effectively and adequately addressed. It comprises and represents the blueprint for the collection, the measurement, and the data analysis (De Vaus, 2001:1). The current study consisted of descriptive quantitative research that was undertaken through the administration of survey questionnaires.

### **1.6.2.1 Questionnaire design**

The study questionnaire, which was designed jointly with the supervisor, includes five sections, incorporating both open-ended and closed-ended questions.

## **1.6.3 Sampling techniques**

Sampling deals with selecting of a subset of individuals from within a population to estimate the characteristics of the entire population (Wang, Jiang, Hu, Cao, Guo, Li, Liu, & Meng, 2012:1). Probability sampling was used to collect quantitative data through the administration of survey questionnaires within stadium precincts on match days using a spatially-based stratified technique.

#### **1.6.4 Method of data analysis**

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, version 23, was used to analyse the quantitative data of the current study. Such software describes and summarises data using statistics of descriptive nature, bar charts, tables and graphic presentations.

#### **1.6.5 Sample selection**

The sample size in the current study was decided upon based on a table that was devised for determining how large a randomly chosen sample from a given finite population of  $n$  cases should be, such that the sample proportion  $p$  would fall within .05 of the population proportion, meaning  $p$  with a 95% level of confidence (Isaac & Micheal, 1981:193). Consequently, the sample size determined was  $n=758$ , based on the combined capacity of Libreville and Franceville match venues (40 000 and 35 000, comprising 75 000 in all). The questionnaires were halved, with 380 for Libreville and 378 for Franceville, and administered to the visitors concerned.

##### **1.6.5.1 Identification of study areas**

The primary data were collected in the two designated host cities of the 2012 AFCON in Gabon, being Libreville (L'amitié Sino-Gabonaise Stadium) and Franceville (Renovation Stadium). Both stadiums hosted 16 games, including the final in each case.

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

The present study was limited to investigating the tourism impacts of the 2012 AFCON in Gabon. The focus was restricted to international and national visitors to the 2012 AFCON, specifically those aged 18 years and older who attended football games in Gabon (Libreville and Franceville).

#### **1.8 Ethical consideration**

For the purpose of the study, no written consent was required by participants. Prior to administering the questionnaire, interviewers requested and received verbal consent from the prospective respondents. All ethical procedures were taken into consideration and applied respectively. The entire code of ethics was also respected throughout the entire research process.

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

According to the Organisation of Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2010:16), the hosting of major events is a prime and powerful method used to faster actual and current developmental agendas and policies, while enticing, ameliorating and advancing investment opportunities. Such events constitute a tool, or catalyst, for the implementing of

existing priorities, for facilitating substantial growth and innovation, and for promoting environmental sustainability. As stated above, sport events can transform a city, with the evaluation of major sport events legacies having the potential to augment significantly the existing knowledge and planning for the hosting of such future events. This is done with the intention to maximise the positive benefits to be gained thereby, and to minimise the negative impacts resulting therefrom (Bob & Swart, 2010:74).

According to Tichaawa and Bob (2015:743), nearly all studies on the impacts of major sport events on host countries, whether or not developed have focused on such distinctive elements of the tourism sector as the infrastructure that is linked to stadium development. In addition, Cornelissen and Swart (2006:111) state that, the aptitude of developing countries to compete against developed countries when it comes to hosting such events is limited simply because of the fact they do not face similar developmental conditions but also because they are defined and determined by an unequal global arena.

However, being in the same spectrum as other African countries, and following along a similar path, and in terms of a similar leadership, to that of South Africa, Gabon decided to opt for the hosting of major sport events. Therefore, against the background of hosting Africa's first mega-event in South Africa in 2010, and the subsequent adoption of African legacy imperatives, amongst which was increased tourism, determining the tourism impacts of the 2012 AFCON in Gabon was essential, as this was the first time that the country concerned had ever held an event of this magnitude. Besides the above, studies that focus on the tourism significance of the CAN in the current global economic climate are either extremely limited, or non-existent. A study of this nature was, therefore, seen as being significant, because it was thought to be capable of assisting to close such a gap. Moreover, the study could be beneficial to the hosting of the AFCON 2017, in the sense that it could help the Gabonese government and the organising committee to minimise the negative impacts of the event, and to strive to ensure that the Gabonese population is made aware of, and comes to practise, responsible and sustainable tourism. Finally, the study should contribute to the amount of literature that is available on the growing debate on the phenomenon of hosting sport tourism events as a means of stimulating tourism and economic growth, especially within developing contexts. The focus on the AFCON and on Africa allows for a comprehensive, and complete, analysis of existing frameworks for the hosting of sport tourism events, with a view to recommending any relevant shift in such frameworks in the light of the findings obtained.

### **1.10 The layout of the dissertation**

This dissertation is presented in six chapters, as are described below.

Chapter One, the introductory chapter, has introduced the study and it has provided a background to the research problem, including a general overview of the tourism impacts of major sport events, with a particular focus on the 2012 AFCON. The chapter has also described the relevance of the study and of the research approach and methods to be used for collecting both the primary and the secondary data required.

Chapter Two explores and reviews the literature on the tourism impacts of major sport and mega-events on host destinations, in relation to Gabon hosting the 2012 AFCON. It also elaborates on the economic, sociocultural and environmental impacts of the events on the host cities.

Chapter Three recalls the aims and objectives of the study; it discusses the methodology employed in the current study and it documents the questionnaire design, the instruments used for collecting the required data, the sample size, and the survey population.

Chapter Four summarises the findings obtained from the survey questionnaires, in relation to the theoretical overview provided. Finally, Chapter Five concludes the dissertation by setting out a summary of the key findings and by making recommendations based on the findings, as well as in relation to the possibilities for further research.

### **1.11 Summary**

This chapter provides an insight of the study conducted. The problem statement pertaining to the study is clearly defined, research objective clearly stated, the research methodology plainly defined and explained, and basic terms clarified. The Chapter also presents the delineation and the significance of the study. The following chapter deals with the literature review related to be topic under investigation.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Introduction

Sport events have become an increasingly salient component of global tourism economies (Cornelissen, 2005:138). Initiated and driven by cadres of societal (i.e., political and corporate) elites, their main objective and purpose is to satisfy development goals and ambitions around projection, competitiveness and growth targets (Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:108). According to Liu (2013:24), sports events are nowadays increasingly being employed by cities around the globe, because of their ability to drag large audiences from home and abroad and to bring about worldwide television exposure (Liu & Gratton, 2010:630). Herstein and Berger (2013:40) indicate that sport events have become a social reality, while cities are fighting to rebrand themselves using such events as an alternate most effective promotional and marketing tool. In addition, Konstantaki and Wickens (2010:337) advocate that staging a major sport event is viewed as creating a 'golden' opportunity for urban renewal and for economic development. Liu (2016:79) also claims that numerous short- and long-term benefits, such as tourism promotion, host city image improvement, and economic development tend to accompany the hosting of major sport events (Chalip, 2004:229; Liu & Wilson, 2014:13).

The impacts of such events within the host communities have, therefore, become an issue for consideration, with the increasing dependence on their staging as an integrant part of tourist destination development and advancement (Fredline & Faulkner, 2002:115). However, Liu (2016:79) also argues that the staging of such events sometimes adds little to nothing to the local economy, with it also bringing about negative impacts on the local community.

This chapter provides an in depth explanation regarding the relationship between sport and tourism and summarises the literature dealing with sport events tourism, sport events typology, sport tourists profile and motivational factors. The chapter also analyses the tourism impacts of the hosting of major sport and mega-events on host cities and communities. The review is contextualised in terms of the concept of the triple bottom line and sustainable tourism, which should be the aim of any sport event that is hosted, no matter its size or scope.

## **2.2 The relationship between sport and tourism**

Sports tourism is now widely known as one of the most dynamic sectors of the contemporary leisure industry (Radicchi, 2013:50). Weed (2009:617) indicates that the definition of the concept of sport tourism, and of the relationship between sport and tourism, has led to numerous debates and discussions among many different authors and reviewers. Weed (2009:616) suggests that in 1966, the very first publication on sport tourism was released by the Central Council for Physical Recreation. Entitled "Sport and Tourism", it commented on the role that sport could play in holiday tourism. According to Saayman (2012:3), the link between sport and tourism dates back to ancient times, at which time informal competitions took place to find the strongest, fastest and best competitors. The competitions continued to evolve, becoming the ancient games, with them having come to be known as major sport and mega-events.

Saayman (2012:3) states that one cannot imagine the world without either sport or tourism, as the two activities are linked to each other. Sport plays a fundamental role in terms of tourism growth and development, while tourism provides all necessary ingredients that are required to host sport events, such as food and beverages, accommodation, and transport, as well as such services as travel agents and tour operators. Similarly, Jakovlev, Koteski, Bardarova, Serafimova and Dzambazoski (2014:1) state that, as both terms are interrelated, they are only meaningful in relation to each other. Hinch and Higham (2011:33) suggest that sport and tourism are interrelated because tourists engage in sport while travelling, and spectators and athletes travel in search of competition, or in pursuit of their sporting passions. Radicchi (2013:50) also states that sport and tourism are closely related and positively affected by the global spread of new lifestyles and consumption. The passion for a 'unique' experience, the taste for 'adventure vacations', and the acknowledgement of sports training as an important process in health protection, for which tourism can serve as a catalyst, are important elements of the contemporary lifestyle. Sport, on one hand helps to further and develop a healthy lifestyle across the community, as well as helping to provide additional leisure activities for local residents, as well as advancing and nurturing local, national and international competition (Deery and Jago, 2005:379). Tourism, on the other hand, encourages people to travel to other destinations besides their own home, and to spend money in the process, with the relationship between the two concepts making leisure an inherent part of both activities (Cornelissen, 2005:139).

Swart and Bob (2007:376) admit that tourism, in itself, contributes to the development of such sport facilities as stadiums and fan parks, whereas tourism benefits from the sport tourists' spending on transportation, accommodation, attractions, and food and beverages during sporting events. Gibson (2013:248) defines sport tourism as "leisure-based travel"

that takes people temporarily out of their familiar area to play, watch physical activities, visit attractions, recreate themselves and have fun (Jakovlev et al., 2014:1). Therefore, tourists choose their destinations based on sports activities criteria, and on the products and services that are offered by the former (Peric, 2010:198). Hall, O'Mahony and Veceli (2010:328) suggest that the relationship between sport and tourism comes from the fact that both concepts are significant in terms of the economic and commercial sectors of the host community, and in terms of their tendency to attract extensive media coverage (Cornelissen, 2009:131). Cornelissen (2005:138) contends that the insightful link between sport and tourism is created from a socio-anthropological point of view, because it involves elements of performance, or staging, that attract spectatorship. She notes that the participation in, or the observation of, sport activities often involves travel, therefore possibly contributing to further demand for additional tourism infrastructure. She further argues that the travelling that is related to sport events has become a major competitive sector, and that the political economy of sport tourism is characterised by the intense pursuit of the growing amount of capital that is tied to the consumption of the events (Cornelissen, 2005:139). The above definitions clearly imply that the link between sport and tourism lies in the leisure aspect (amounting to the escape from routine), travel (including motivation, and the actual act of travelling), and participation in events, or in the visiting of attractions.

Moreover, Wise (2013:336) also considers sport tourism as a type of niche tourism that directly addresses sport tourists' interests. Similarly, Radicchi (2013:52) advances that sport tourism is a 'niche' segment, despite the fact that the practice of sporting activities has become a crucial element in contemporary holiday motivation, due to its recreational, aesthetic, and healthy features. Tourism flow, which is continually growing and changing, is characterised by a strong motivation to stay at a destination that combines the experience of sport with the discovery of a connection with the territory concerned. A holiday, especially when it is 'active', combines a traditional overnight stay with participation in such physical and sports activities as golf, tennis, trekking, cycling, canoeing, sailing, equestrian sports, rafting, and gastronomic tasting, among others.

Finally, according to Ramallah, Eduardo, Rodríguez, Turégano and Ángel (2010:266), sport tourism development is a strategy that is implemented in tourism destinations by governments. The objective of this strategy is to bring about differentiation, as well as enhancement of the competitive advantage, in order to promote both socio-economic and environmental development. Swart and Bob (2007:374) assert that sport and tourism constitute activities economically significant for destinations globally, due to their crucial and important roles in the regeneration and renewal of both urban and rural communities economically and socially. Sport and tourism also constitute vehicles for enhancing



residents' quality of life, by means of attracting tourists and boosting the economic well-being of the local communities. Sport tourism is, therefore, a socio-economic subsector belonging to both sport and tourism sectors (Bouhaouala, 2015:4). The following subsection identifies the different types of sport events that sport tourists are often eager to attend.

### **2.3 Sport event tourism**

Nowadays, sport event tourism constitutes a very important sociocultural and economic phenomenon (Radicchi, 2013:50). The opportunity is grasped by both developed and developing countries around the world so as to increase their levels of tourism, and so as to create opportunities for local businesses (Johnson, 2010:60). According to Dongfeng (2013:23), the soaring levels of competitiveness among countries in respect of the hosting of sports events is based on many aspects, including the fact that such events attract foreign and domestic visitors, and generate worldwide television exposure. They contribute significantly to local economies and to the social development of local populations, as well as extending the traditional tourism season, and spreading the demand of tourism more evenly throughout an area (Tichaawa, Moyo, Swart & Mhlanga, 2015:1218). Other aspects include the fact that major sport events can facilitate destination branding, and they can serve as catalysts for the development of new facilities and infrastructure. They can also benefit tourism in rural areas with limited attractiveness (Kim et al., 2015:21).

According to Kurtzman and Zauhar (2003:44), sport events tourism refers to those sport activities that draw tourists of which a large percentage are spectators: "... [they] have the potential to attract non-residents, media, technical personnel, athletes, coaches and other sporting officials", with the main and premier purpose of travel being participating in, or viewing, sport. Ottevanger (2007:16) describes sport event tourism as being somewhat unique. The hosting of such major sports events as the 2012 AFCON, or of such big events as the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup™, is seen as an ideal way for a city to set itself on the world map, as well as a perfect method of (re)creating a tourist product that is centred on large cities, or countries.

Ntloko and Swart (2008:79) point out that sport tourism and sport event tourism are recognised as key markets segments of the tourism industry, with their roles as catalysts of change having evolved substantially over the years. Ottevanger (2007:15) claims that an increasing demand and a growing number of commercial activities are both at the center sport event tourism noteworthy growth. Likewise, Cornelissen (2005:138) states that international sport as a sector has seen tremendous expansion, with it becoming the largest and fastest growing component of world economies. Dansero and Puttilli (2010:322) affirm that the growing interest in major sport and mega-events is proven by cities and regions'

competitiveness in bidding to host such sporting events as the World Football Championships, the Olympic Games, cultural events (such as expositions, the creation of capitals of culture, trade fairs, etc.) and such political events as the G8 summits. Therefore, nearly every city across the world now has a body that is dedicated to its sport tourism initiative, with committed personnel and agencies (Getz, 2008:411). The competition to host sport events is fierce, due to the anticipated economic benefits that AFCON be gained from sport tourists (Turco, 2012:57).

To sum up the above, Ulvnes and Solberg (2016:1) state that both the developed and the developing countries are increasingly engaging in contests to bid for the hosting of major sport events, because they believe that sport events will help to promote their destinations by means of stimulating inbound tourism in the long term. Van Der Merwe (2007:68), however, observes that, in terms of contest for major sport events within less developed countries, Africa remains far behind South America and Asia. The next section identifies the different types of sport events.

## **2.4 Typologies of sport tourism events**

Sport events have been described and identified by many authors (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013:3), in terms of their frequent classification as mega, special, major/hallmark, or small events. Sport events, which appear in diverse formats, sizes, composition, shapes and durations, include races, friendly exhibitions, tournaments, series and circuits, and highly competitive and combative bouts. The perpetual and recurrent element remains sport, consisting of the physical competition that is governed by rules and norms, and which is aimed at declaring the winner(s) concerned (Turco, 2012:58).

Regarding the typology of events, Turco (2012:58) states that there are in actual fact two mega-events, the FIFA World Cup™ and the Summer Olympic Games. Special events are mostly festival events that are held once outside an organisation's normal routine. Major sport events include such one-time, or recurring, hallmark events as the Commonwealth Games, the Cricket World Cup, the Super Bowl, the Rugby World Cup, and the AFCON. Finally, small community events that are held locally might produce homogenous impacts as do the larger events that are held in relatively large cities or countries (Turco, 2012:58).

### **2.4.1 Mega sport events**

Müller (2015:1) indicates that mega sport events have long been discussed, but not clearly defined. She claims that what turns an event into a mega-event is the focus of the event. However, with no doubt, mega-events differ from other events because of their size and the four large key dimensions that characterise them. Such dimensions consist of visitor

attractiveness, mediated reach, cost, and transformative impacts, which are of a large scale when related to mega sport events, compared to when they are related to other types of events (Müller, 2015:1). Hartman and Zandberg (2015:108) suggest that there is probably a kind of magic around mega-events that makes governments and all bidding committees believe that they are worth organising. The benefits of hosting such events include: place marketing (Matheson, 2010:12); global audiences' attraction as well as revenues from massive television (Whitson & Horne, 2006:76); regeneration of urban areas; infrastructure advance (Smith, 2014:1920); international relations' strengthening; opportunities for employment; and participation in sports. The holding of a 'normal' competition, in contrast, does not guarantee characteristics of such nature (Maening & Zimbalist, 2012:579). In addition, Valente and Tur (2014:2) stress that the great degree of interest that is expressed in the holding of mega-events is sourced in the information technology (IT) and communication revolutions that have fostered the creation of a worldwide audience. In the middle of the twentieth century, the birth of commercial television also helped to strengthen sport and the media relationship. Even more recently, satellite television and the Internet, have opened up new opportunities that globally further the preferment of sport. Valente and Tur (2014:2) further argue that the sudden appearance and the consolidation of a sport-media conglomerate network, formed by the affinity between the world of sport, the media and the business segment, have also contributed to sport events transformation. Such an association has generated sponsorship, the vying for broadcasting and marketing rights, and merchandising and advertising, which, together, constitute mega sporting events principal sources of income.

#### **2.4.2 Major sport events**

Although hosting a major sport event requires substantial investment of human, financial and physical resources, bidding cities and countries still battle with one another over the hosting of the events, because, as with mega-events, they are also expected to deliver a broad range of economic, social and environmental benefits for the communities and the local businesses concerned (Tichaawa et al., 2015:1221). Therefore, governments make huge investments in the infrastructure that is related to such events (Shahwe, 2011:4), as well as in establishing the unique and specific quality of the programme, in line with creating an authentic setting and performance, from which it gets its distinctive characteristics in comparison to other equivalents (Andrejevic & Grubor, 2007:7). Major sport events also attract a substantial number of visitors, and they tend to have wide media coverage (Susic & Dordevic, 2011:72), which, in turn, calls for the redevelopment of urban areas so as to build a fine image, and so as, possibly, to attract investors who might visit the destination at the time of the hosting of the event (Shahwe, 2011:4). Table 2.1 categorises sport events

according to four different scales, with each considering a different number of attendees (including spectators, participants and organisers), target markets and media coverage, as indicated. The larger the event, the higher are the expectations regarding the anticipated legacy impacts (Bob & Swart, 2010:75).

**Table 2.1: Categories of sport events (adapted from Roche, 2001)**

<b>Type of event</b>	<b>Example of event</b>	<b>Target audience/ market</b>	<b>Media interest</b>
<b>Mega-events</b>	The Olympic Games and the Football World Cup	Global	Global TV
<b>Special events</b>	The F1 Grand Prix World Regional Sports, such as the Pan-American and Commonwealth Games	World/regional/ national	International/ national TV
<b>Major and hallmark events</b>	National sport events, such as the Curry Cup and the ABSA Premier League. Large and established sport events that are held in a particular location, such as the Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON).	Regional/ national	National/ regional TV
<b>Community events</b>	Local community sports event	Local	Local TV/press

**Source: Bob & Swart (2010:75-76).**

To conclude the above, mega-events differ from every other type of events because of the huge amount of resources, and the level of attention they require. Their utmost main objective is to leave a legacy that local population will not be able to forget (Hartman & Zandberg, 2015:110). During the planning of mega-events, it is quite difficult to differentiate between ongoing developments related to the event itself and urban development connected with a wider urban revitalisation agenda as both require the construction or upgrade of many sites and attractions including stadiums, roads, entertainment centers, civic monuments and hotels (Green, 2003:165).

## **2.5 Profiling sport tourists with a specific focus on football**

Katsoni and Vrondou (2016:1) state that there is a need for clarification when it comes to the profiling of tourists, because of the infinite spectrum of sport events tourism. Smith and Fox (2007:1125) stress that sport tourism events increase the amount of visitation, reduce the seasonality of tourist flow, boost a destination's position within the market, and foster destination development. According to Katsoni and Vrondou (2016:3), the most frequently adopted categorisation of sports tourism includes active sporting participation and the attending of sporting events. Likewise, Turco (2012:58) indicates that the main types of sport event tourists are participants who travel to play sport, and spectators who travel to watch others play. Turco (2012:58) explains that the participants in such tourism might be elite professionals or rank amateurs, such as Berlin Marathon's runners, or Moab's mountain

bikers, Innsbruck's leisure skiers or football players, in the case of the AFCON. Spectators, in contrast, are football fans who travel to witness their favourite team play. Davies and Williment (2008:222) assert that football fans take their passion for sports to an upper level of involvement, travelling extensively, whether domestically or even internationally, in order to champion and to lend support to a multitude of sporting teams. A typical example of such fans includes those who attended the 2012 AFCON, and who travelled to attend matches in Libreville and Franceville. In addition, Yusof, Omar-Fauzee, Shah and Geok (2009:47) advance that sport event tourists comprise both spectators and participants who travel away from home in search of satisfying related activities. The human element, in this respect, is diverse and varied, including: (1) amateurs taking part in a recreational sport event; (2) the passive spectatorship of professional sport events; (3) athletes, coaches and team managers competing in individual or team-based sports; (4) media officials; and (5) sponsors and members of sport associations attending the event. Moreover, the spectators' profile also includes such demographic information as the country of origin, and the age and gender of sport tourists, which can help to provide insight into market segments that have a tourism potential (Ritchie, Mosedale & King 2002:43). Rubin (2009:270) provides an example of such a profile, asserting that most football fans have been found to be men simply because the social climate, standards and expectations involved tend to discourage women from attending matches. As a result, women require a higher threshold of motivation and identity that do men for them to attend the matches concerned (Snelgrove, Taks, Chalip & Green, 2008:168). Snelgrove et al. (2008:168) also indicate that sport is socially considered to be a choice for younger consumers, as older consumers might require a higher threshold of motivation and identity to support the activity.

Over and above the aforementioned, sport fans and consumers are the blueprint upon which sport takes its popularity from (Smith & Stewart, 2010:155). Such fans and consumers tend to: watch live broadcasts on television; listen to commentaries on the radio; read daily newspaper sport pages; log on to sport and social websites; purchase merchandise that are sport-branded; and travel a lot to be present at sport events. They spend a greater part of their time talking to other sport consumers about different issues of sport, ranging from the prosaic to the obsessive (Smith & Stewart, 2010:156). Therefore, understanding the patterns of consumption, socio-economic characteristics and desired tourists related activities is essential to make sure that tourism be successfully planned, developed and marketed (Turco, Swart, Bob & Moodley, 2003:223). The sport tourist motives for being at a sport event are very important for understanding the levels of motivation and satisfaction that are key to understanding their behaviour (Smith & Stewart, 2010:157).

## **2.6 Sport tourists' motivational factors**

Sports spectators are estimated to be worth millions of dollars for the global economy, suggesting that they are a precious 'niche' market segment that should be studied and understood (Cassidy, 2005:4). Recently, sport tourism increase has been aided by the advances that have been made in IT and transportation, as well as in the promotion of good health. Spectators can have access to the Web, and to view at first-hand the conditions for a snowboard competition, and the competitive airfares that are available to the destination at which the competition will be held. With improved transportation and reliable services, the spectators are able nowadays to easily visit other destinations as prices have become affordable. However, there is a need to find out the motivator factor that push people to become spectators, and what makes them chose and decide to travel to attend such events (Cassidy, 2005:4).

Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005:23) state that managers, operators and entrepreneurs in the sports tourism industry, with no doubt, value being aware of their consumers' motivations. Unfortunately, many consumers are ignorant of what really motivates them. Often, the subconscious mind dulls, or submerges, one's urges, desires, emotions, and feelings. As such, motives and desires might be hard to determine and pinpoint, as they represent what people want to do, or what they want to have, and the extent to which they want to do, or have, something.

Getz (2003:55) indicates that the factors that influence tourists to travel to an event consist of a combination of seeking, and escaping from, their usual routine that they follow in their everyday life environment. He further suggests that such behaviour is based on two generic dimensions, in sport events context. The first includes attending sport events away from home, which tends to exert an appeal on the basis of its uniqueness or quality. When this is combined with the desire to escape the familiar and routine, it is likely to generate personal benefits, thus making it worthwhile to spend both time and resources on attending the sport events concerned. However, Ottevanger (2007:24) indicates that such generic dimensions are similar to 'normal' tourism, even though they do also play a big role as far as sport tourist motivations are concerned. In fact, Weed and Bull (2012:85) advance that there are also other very specific motivations, which are of special importance for sport, including competitiveness, the willingness to win, and the opportunity to share a special interest with other people.

In addition, the intentions of sports tourism can also influence trip decision-making and planning, even though this might not be carried through to the actual behaviours of sports tourism (Weed, 2006:197). Higham and Hinch (2009:220) emphasise the dimension of place

in much of their work, in their argument that sport tourism activities aid visitors to form meaningful attachments to visited places. Kruger and Saayman (2012:64) state that travelling to watch a sport event is not merely about viewing the event, which can be done through the many forms of media available without having to exert oneself in the physical effort of travel. Indeed, attending a sport event might also be motivated by a desire for entertainment and spectacle, emotional stimulation, the satisfaction of curiosity, or a social outing (Kruger & Saayman, 2012:64). The choice to attend a sport event is one among a range of other possible choices of leisure. Attending a specific sport event is chosen when it meets consumers' leisure preferences as well as, or better than, possible alternatives (Snelgrove et al., 2008:169).

Wann, Grieve and Zapalac (2008:6) identified the eight most common motives associated to both active and passive sport tourists. Wann et al. (2008:6) listed them as: group; self-esteem; affiliation; family; aesthetic reasons; economic motives; escape; entertainment; and eustress. A typical example one of these motivations would be a sport tourist who travels to a major sport events such as the Union of European Football Associations add here (UEFA) Euro Football Championships. Predictable reasons for travelling to the host city might entail the desire to watch a specific team play, to enjoy the beach, to attend festivities related to the hosting of event, or to take advantage of the nice summer weather and hospitality of the local population (Ottevanger, 2007:24).

Looking specifically at sport tourists' motives, Ha, Ha and Han (2013:68) indicate that eustress reflects the motive of excitement, referring to a desire to acquire stimulation via the watching of sports (Trail & James, 2001:113; Funk, Mahony & Ridinger, 2002:34; Wann et al., 2008:7). The desire to obtain such escape is regarded as an entertainment motive, sport tourist transforming sport events into their hobby to escape from daily life stressors (Wann et al., 2008:8; Trail & James, 2001:118). As far as the economic motive is concerned, individuals use sport events as an opportunity for economic gain through wagering (Wann et al., 2008:15). With regards to the aesthetic quality motive, individuals watch sports because of the latter's artistic beauty and grace (Funk et al., 2002:35, Wann et al., 2008:15). In terms of socialisation, individuals use sport spectating to socialise with people sharing similar interests (Kim, Andrew & Greenwell, 2009:55). Concerning vicarious achievement, football fans watch, or attend, sport events to enjoy family members (kids, in-laws, brothers etc.) and spend quality time with them (Trail & James, 2001:113). Finally, in terms of national pride, individuals desire to express patriotism through sport spectating. As one would expect, this motive is of a paramount dimension when it comes to mega-events such as the Olympics. The expressing of an interest in sport, team, and player through the watching, or attending of, sporting events shows concern in this regard (Funk et al., 2002:41). The above-

mentioned motives have been examined to as to be able to section a variety of sport fans, in order to develop effective and well organised marketing strategies and advertising campaigns. In other words, the research that is undertaken into sport fan motives assumes that patterns of fan motivation differ across various sport fan groups (Ha et al., 2013:69).

One of the most commonly known criteria used to split and divide sport fan motivation patterns is the type of sport. Recently, many studies have been examined to see whether there are different motivations found in various sports' types, notably women's sports in comparison to men's sports (James & Ridinger, 2002:262), and team in comparison to individual sports, as well as stylistic in contrast to non-stylistic sports, and aggressive in contrast to non-aggressive sports (Wann et al., 2008:8). Analysing these motives, Wann et al. (2008:15) came to the conclusion that the aesthetic motive is extremely dominant in individual sports such as gymnastics, figure skating, boxing, etc. As far as the other motives are concerned (self-esteem, eustress, entertainment, and group affiliation), they were found to be incredibly prominent in team sports such as baseball, hockey, football etc. In terms of aggressive versus non-aggressive sports, aesthetics was found to be an relevant motive in attending, or participating in, non-aggressive sport matches (e.g. baseball, golf, figure skating), whereas economic considerations, group affiliation, eustress and entertainment were notable sport fan motives for attending, or participating in, aggressive sports matches (e.g. wrestling, boxing, hockey, football, etc.) (Wann et al., 2008:15).

According to Snelgrove et al. (2008:166), it is useful to make a difference between visitors whose prime aim is to attend an event and visitors who attend the event, but are in the host town for primarily other reasons. In fact, many researchers have tried to identify the numerous factors which cause people to travel long or short distances to attend sport events (Robinson & Gammon, 2004:223; Hoye & Lillis, 2008:15). Addressing this issue, Snelgrove et al. (2008:167) state that the nature and the level of motives that are related to travel that is pursued because of the desired to attend an event might be quite dissimilar from the nature and the level of motives that are linked with the attendance of an event by tourists who are at the destination for other reasons. Examining the effects of motive, background, interest and constraints on sport fans who tend to travel to mega and/or major sport events, Kim and Chalip (2004:696) identified 'pull' factors, which relate to the host destination's related attractions, and 'push' factors, which are affiliated to the intangibles relating to the motives, needs and interests of the traveller. They concluded that it is very likely for the 'push' factors to affect the 'pull' factors that an event provides. The authors further argue that the level of motives that are associated with travel to attend an event is affected by the degree to which the 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, sport fans



would likely be motivated to travel whether or not the possibility of travelling to attend the event is feasible. The event attractiveness therefore plays a very important role in terms of fan's motivation levels. The greater the motivation of a sport fan is towards an event, the more attractive the event is to them (Kim & Chalip, 2004:697).

Zhang, Pease, Lam, Bellerive, Pham, Williamson and Lee (2001:44), in contrast, contend that motivation is not enough of a foundation to account for the different reasons why football fans are so eager to attend sport events. The researchers concerned discovered that pinpointing spectators' demographic characteristics (such as gender, age and education) only facilitates prediction in terms of attendance frequency, as opposed to the actual motivational dimensions that can be used to determine such attendance. They also noted that the level of income earned can also, to some extent, be used to determine the likelihood of attendance at events, as it could help to determine the amount of discretionary income that is available to the spectators (Tichaawa & Bob, 2016:3).

Conclusively, Hoye and Lillis (2008:13) argue that individuals travel to either watch or to, participate in, sport, for such diverse reasons as escapism, novelty, education, nostalgia, self-exploration, prestige, relaxation, or quality time spent with family or friends. Likewise, Snelgrove et al. (2008:167), Daniels and Norman (2005:202), and Kim and Chalip (2004:699) suggest three types of motives that might be linked to sport events travel: (1) motives that are associated with being a sport's fan; (2) leisure preferences motives; and (3) identification with the subculture of the sport featured in the event. According to Kruger and Saayman (2012:63), spectators and visitors who are sport tourists tend to spend a considerable amount of money watching and/or participating passively or actively in sport events, which makes them a valuable and profitable niche market segment, which requires understanding. The following section elaborates on the importance of hosting major sport events

## **2.7 The growing importance of hosting sport events**

Sport and tourism have developed into outstanding economic activities worldwide (Swart & Bob, 2007:374). According to Cornelissen (2007:241), major sport events, specifically sport hallmark or mega-events, have grown to be considerable and exceptional implements in the contemporary era. The author argues that this trend originated, in part, in sport commercialisation intense processes, and that it relates to the way in which events hosting entered and found themselves at the center of several countries policies and plans, either as a means of accessing global capital, of enlivening national economies, or of gaining international visibility in some ways. Similarly, Black (2007:261) states that the hosting of sport mega-events has become a key activity planted in political and developmental strategy

for numerous urban, regional, and national governments, along with their social and economic associates. He confirms that this trend has been correlated to global exigencies and incentives, despite the fact that potential participants in the 'mega-event sweepstakes' remains relatively narrow. The touted benefits, in contrast, are absolute. Economic and developmental benefits are mostly and frequently emphasised as well as the infrastructural investment and the unrivalled opportunities of 'place promotion' whose objective is to expand investment, tourism, and attract future events (Black, 2007:261).

Weed and Bull (2004:10) attribute the growth of tourism in the twentieth century to a continuation of developments that had already begun to have an effect in the previous century. The developments include increasing amounts of wealth and leisure time, the improvement of transport systems, changing attitudes and values, globalisation, corporate capitalism, and the development of mass media. In contrast, Cornelissen (2007:243) partially attributes the current growth of major sporting events to the entire commercialisation witnessed in global sport over the last 44 years, tied to major sport sectors intentional and calculated restructuring towards the goal of profit generation. Linked to the above, she further states, is the advent and rising of a political economy that underpins the expansion and the sophisticated proliferation of sport contests organisation on a relatively great scale. Consequently, sport events now entails a wide range of actors, including media corporations, international sport federations, event hosts and multinational sport firms, in the planning, arrangement, coordination and management of events (Cornelissen, 2007:243).

Moreover, Cornelissen (2007:246) argues that the extensive processes of changes experienced by sport as an industry as well as distinctive corporate coming from these changes also constitute the causes of the growing significance of major sport events. International sport, as a sector, has seen an impressive and astounding expansion, until currently having become one of the most dynamic and favourable industries in the world. The above is the result of many interrelated forces including the incredible rises in disposable income in the global economic sector, positive lifestyle changes and consumption patterns; the increased consumption and expansion of sport; the strengthening and solidification of televising at an international level, through the establishment and evolution of large multinational broadcasting; and the sector's increased commodification sign that has been spurred and driven by the growth in sport memorabilia's scale and sport celebrities retailing. All this resulted into the development of a global sport economy largely controlled and influenced by corporations of transnational nature that manufacture apparel of sport (Nike or Adidas), that televise sport competitions through large broadcast networks (ESPN),

or that use sport as a marketing tool to sell products non-related to sport such as drinks, refreshment and beverages (like Coca-Cola or Pepsi) or tobacco (Cornelissen, 2007:246).

Furthermore, Weed (2012:1) asserts that the goal of sports tourism events is to generate positive benefits, either in the form of economic or social benefits for the local populations, or in the form of profits for commercial providers. Black (2007:263) indicates that the major sport event use to change the host's perspective is relatively easy to apprehend, especially in this contemporary era highly influenced by global mass media and hosting decisions that are hotly contested. According to the above-mentioned researcher, the impulse concerned, although primarily being about marketing and 'place promotion' expands further to symbolism and legitimations dynamics. In addition, Cornelissen (2004:42) advocates that the focal reason for hosting events of large-scale is the so-called economic benefits and tourism gains that they promise to deliver, despite little research, as yet, having been undertaken into the probability of their success. Forecasts of such benefits have seldom proved to be correct (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006b:9), and nearly always have been overstated, despite the fact that such inaccuracies did not contribute or enhance the enthusiasm of would-be hosts (Black, 2007:262).

Finally, sport events are getting more and more famous internationally, nationally and locally. They are associated with the making of huge investments by many host countries and/or cities (Bob & Swart, 2010:77). According to Black (2007:264), major sport events combined with the present media-sports complex provide exceptional opportunities that enable for international exposure and visibility. The above is particularly true for most countries around the world that are neither at, nor close to, the historical world power centres, especially in the United States, Western Europe and Africa, in terms of which the participation of the latter has not been very extensive in relation to the growing international major sport events enterprise (Cornelissen, 2007:243). The immense attention generated by the world's media on major sport events can therefore not be reached by other means, except natural disasters or wars. In addition, Black (2007:264) denotes that the way in which major games are set out, in particular in terms of their opening and closing ceremonies elaborately staged, allows for a distinctive opportunity for packaging and projecting a narrative about the host that is appealing and simplified.

Moreover, the mobilisation of mass which characterises large scale games staging, jointly with governmental and public resources, interests from the private sector, and volunteering, adds up to a landmark 'seminal moment' in the host community's life.

It constitutes and dignifies a natural breaking point possibility in its collective trajectory, even if, its durability is practically erratic, and its unintended consequences unknown or unsure.

To sum up, politicians as well as other local, national elites and many within local communities cannot resist major sporting events symbolic possibilities (Black, 2007:264). The following section of this study reviews the political economy that is involved in the hosting of major sport events.

## **2.8 Overview of football in Africa**

Football is recognised as being the most popular sport across the African continent (Giulianotti & Armstrong, 2004:15). According to Darby (2003:3), most African nations have remained firmly and deeply established at the center of the world economic order, since the resurgence of independent movements in the 1960s. However, throughout the last 45 years, African football took on an elevated profile, with Africa's fame and pre-eminence in the world football arena having been further improved through the continent's representation within FIFA's institutional structures, thereby contesting the idea that Africa is a peripheral continent in terms of the world game (Darby, 2002:1). This was illustrated by FIFA's decision, in 2000, to implement a continental rotation system for the World Cup hosting rights. This resulted in Africa being chosen to host the 2010 FIFA tournament (Darby, 2002:1). Indeed, African countries have expressed an increased interest in participating in the major sport events enterprise (Cornelissen, 2004:1294). As stated above, South Africa's bid to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ tournament was successful over similar bids made by Ghana, Egypt, Morocco and Nigeria. In addition, the growth in media coverage of international and national competitions played a major role by making sure and certain that African football interests be greater beyond Africa, and in Europe in particular (Giulianotti & Armstrong, 2004:1).

Despite the growth in interest regarding the role that football has played in Africa, and the bidding for major sport events by African countries, studies focusing on the tourism significance of the largest African competition are non-existent insofar as the current global economic climate is concerned. The current study, therefore, was embarked upon in order to close the existing gap. The organising body of the later football competition is described in the next subsection.

### **2.8.1 Confederation of African Football (CAF)**

#### **2.8.1.1 Organisation**

The CAF, which was founded in 1957, is the governing body of African football. The founding members of CAF are Egypt, Sudan, Ethiopia, and South Africa, with the current 53-member-strong organisation being based in Egypt (CAF, 2016).

### **2.8.1.2 History and background**

The turning of the wheels that resulted in the creation of CAF was put in motion outside the African continent. In June 1956, Lisbon, the Portuguese capital, witnessed the creation of CAF as host of the FIFA Congress, with the four present African nations (Egypt, the Sudan, Ethiopia, and South Africa), which took advantage of the gathering to talk about matters of common interest (CAF, 2016). Sometimes after the Congress, the four nations decided to meet again in Khartoum in February 1957 to draft statutes, and to define and determine the staging of the first AFCON. In the mean time, the 1954 FIFA Congress in Berne, Switzerland had chosen and decided to recognise Africa as a confederation. The first representative and president to the FIFA Executive Committee was also appointed. The later turned out to be Engineer Abdelaziz Abdallah Salem of Egypt (CAF, 2016). CAF's constitutional act was then signed into being in Khartoum, Sudan on 8 June 1957, (CAF, 2016). After CAF's constitutive assembly, on 10 February, the Sudanese capital saw the birth of the first CAN, with the attendant honour being bestowed upon Egypt. This marked the beginning of a very exciting adventure, that is still on today, with innumerable, memorable and indelible moments along the way that have helped to define the special characteristics and traits that tend to be associated with African football (CAF, 2016).

### **2.8.1.3 The Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON)**

Being recognised as the most popular continental sporting event in Africa, and one of the most watched football tournaments worldwide, the AFCON has been regularly held every two years since 1957. Starting with the participating of the four countries; namely Egypt, the Sudan, Ethiopia and South Africa which was later barn from participation in the tournament due to its discriminatory system of apartheid that was in place at the time (CAF, 2016). As with most major sport events, it also enables the host city (and country) to directly sell and advertise itself, as well as its culture and attractions, to a wider global audience (Amenumey & Amuquandoh, 2010:39).

As part of its history, a mix of a knockout and a round-robin system was instituted at the qualifying tournament in 1992. In 1962, the final road was splited into two stages, consisting of the qualifying and the final tournament. The number of participating teams in the final tournament increased from 8 to 16 in 1998 (CAF, 2016).

The 16 teams that take part in the final tournament are split up into four groups of four teams, with the top two from each group playing in the quarter-finals. The four teams that emerge triumphant from the quarter-finals compete in the semi-finals that are held prior to the final match so as to determine the champion (CAF, 2016).

## 2.9 Tourism in Gabon

Although Gabon is a country with great potential in terms of tourism, tourism in the country is still in its infancy. Currently, Gabon possesses 13 national parks and many other attractions, including the Crystal Mountains, beaches, the falls on the Ogooué River, ocean and inland fishing facilities, and the famous, much visited by tourists, hospital that was founded by Dr Albert Schweitzer in Lambaréné (Fortune of Africa, 2016). Safaris are the prime lure of this small West African nation, together with the historic treasures that are found in the cities, and the interesting landmarks that are found in the capital of Libreville (iExplore, 2016).

The Gabonese landscape is rich in fauna and flora, with it being one of the most diversified landscapes in the world (Fortune of Africa, 2016). Animal species are exceptionally varied, ranging from chimpanzees, through gorillas, elephants, crocodiles, hippopotamuses, dolphins and humpback whales, to turtles, among others. A large variety of plant life also exists in Gabon with, for instance, more than 400 different species of tree having been identified. In the light of such diversity, the Gabonese government has made tourism development a priority (Fortune of Africa, 2016). The Green Gabon strategy was implemented by the government to stimulate sustainable growth in the tourism sector (Oxford Business Group, 2015:160). In addition, as part of the national strategy, a tourism development plan was set in place for the period from 2012 to 2016 so as to: promote a high-quality image of the country; improve marketing capabilities to develop the sector; increase investment levels in high-quality accommodation; advance Gabon as a tourism destination in the key business and ecotourism markets; expand access by increasing the availability of competitively priced flights; and upgrade hospitality services (Oxford Business Group, 2015:160). The Gabonese Agency for the Development and Promotion of Tourism and Hospitality, Agatour (Agence Gabonaise de Développement et de la Promotion du Tourisme et de l'Hôtellerie, Agatour), currently promotes tourism, coordinates development initiatives, and manages state-owned hotels across the country (Oxford Business Group, 2015:160).

As far as visitor arrivals are concerned, the Gabonese government has set its objective at reaching 100 000 arrivals a year by 2020 (Oxford Business Group, 2015:160). Many tourists visiting Gabon come from such neighbouring countries as the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Equatorial Guinea, and Cameroon. The majority of the visitors travel for professional and/or business reasons, which is a niche segment that is being developed by the country. The favourite cities and tourist attractions include the capital, Libreville, the town of Port-Gentil, which is also known as the centre of Gabon's oil, and the 13 national parks. The government has promised to protect, manage and valorise the latter for future generations,

with the assistance and help of the agency that is in charge of the parks concerned, namely the Agence Nationale des Parcs Nationaux (Oxford Business Group, 2015:160).

In terms of performance, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2007) estimated the direct contribution of travel and tourism to Gabon's economy as standing at CFA97.7bn (€146.55m), or 1% of the total gross domestic product GDP, in 2014 (Oxford Business Group, 2015:160). The figures were forecast to rise by 5.2% in 2015, and at an average rate of 4.7% annually between 2015 and 2025. In addition, the total contribution of the industry to national employment in 2014, including in terms of jobs indirectly supported by the travel and tourism sector, reached 2.1% of the total GDP, or 8500 jobs. The figures were expected to rise by 5% in 2015, and by 4.2% annually thereafter, so as to attain 13 000 jobs by 2025, comprising a total contribution of 2.7% (Oxford Business Group, 2015:160). Gabon's government is currently pushing and doing all it can to raise this figure up to 5%. Building on the base of the 2012 and 2017 AFCON tournaments; the sector is now expected to generate up to 25,000 jobs by 2025. Therefore new development including ecotourism and business tourism segments have now in place to ensure this objective be met (Oxford Business Group, 2016:4).

Furthermore, other forms of tourism, such as cultural, wine and recreation tourism, still remain underdeveloped. Domestic tourism is mostly based on visiting friends and relatives (VFR), due to a lack of tourist infrastructure and facilities (Oxford Business Group, 2015:160). The country's road networks still requires construction, as well as do many tourism amenities and services that should help to expand the tourism industry. Through the organisation of the 2012 AFCON, Gabon was given an opportunity to upgrade its tourism facilities. According to the Oxford Business Group (2011:176), spectators and players arriving in Gabon for the 2012 AFCON were to be greeted with some new developments in both Libreville and Franceville, as well as in other towns across the country. Particularly instrumental in making changes to the tourism landscape should be the new hotel classification system that is being devised to grade high-end and mid-range hotels, as well as resorts and restaurants. This classification has been noted to be the first to be carried out in the last two decades. The catalyst for devising this new system was the large numbers of people who were expected to stay in the country over the course of the 2012 AFCON (Oxford Business Group, 2011:176). The following section focuses on the impact of major sport events.

## **2.10 Tourism impacts of major sport events**

During the last three decades, there has been an increasing rise in the number of literature on the impacts of sport tourism events. Nowadays, such impacts are referred to as the

'legacy' of such events, due to the fact that they are intended to benefit the host country in the long term (Tichaawa, 2013:39). Whether direct or indirect, they should largely endure for a decade or two following the event, with them not being limited to the event itself, but impacting on the local communities as well. According to Preuss (2007a:211), a legacy consists of all planned and unplanned, positive and negative, and tangible and intangible structures that are generated for, and by, a sport event that remains way after the hosting of the event itself. A similar definition is offered by Chappelet and Junod (2006:84) which recognises a legacy as being: "the material and non material effects produced directly and indirectly by the sport event, whether planned or not, that durably transform the host region in an objectively and subjectively positive or negative way".

Many authors advocate that, worldwide, government leaders and sports administrators regard global games and mega sports events as being a crucial catalyst for socio-economic progress and furtherance, infrastructure upgrade and renovation, cultural revival, and tourism development. Other reasons for the hosting of events include improving the perception, or image, of the relevant country or city; attracting investment, poverty alleviation and job creation; enhancing the marketing of benefits; improving media coverage; and boosting national pride and unity, to name but some (Swart & Bob, 2010:74; Briedenhann, 2011:484; Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011:1365; Frawley & Cush, 2011:65; Hermann, Du Plessis, Coetzee & Geldenhuys, et al., 2012:64; Saayman & Saayman, 2012:220; Swart & Bob, 2012:1; Li & Jago, 2013:592; Nyikana, Tichaawa & Swart, 2014:548).

A very good example of the above that is present in all recent literature is the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ that was hosted by South Africa in 2010. It was the first mega-event of the kind to be organised on the African continent. However, South Africa had already hosted many major sporting events, including the 1995 International Rugby Board (IRB) Rugby World Cup, the 1996 AFCON, the 2003 International Cricket Council (ICC) Cricket World Cup, the 2007 World Twenty20 Championships, the 2009 Indian Premier League (IPL), the 2009 British and Irish Lions tour, the 2009 Confederations Cup, and the 2009 ICC Champions trophy (Fourie & Spronk, 2011:76). By having successfully hosted the above-mentioned events, South Africa was able to develop and boost both its tourism infrastructure, and its reputation as a tourist destination globally (Fourie & Spronk, 2011:76).

Black (2007:261) states that the legacies of major sport events tend to be wide-ranging for the host destinations concerned. Tassiopoulos and Haydam (2008:870) indicate that sport tourism events are recognised as a panacea use to combat poverty and encourage development. According to Cornelissen (2007:248), major sport events are part of the convergence of commercial, sociocultural, and political interests that characterise the current



global, political and economic system. They require a variety of international economic sectors and markets defined by the manufacturing and the making of many types of products that are extremely attractive to wide range of consumers (sport memorabilia, media artefacts etc.). Accordingly, they overlap numerous spheres of policy within and even beyond national state's frontiers.

Allmers and Maennig (2008:2) state that the hosting of large international sports events holds much promise, including in terms of the levels of excitement that are raised by the events themselves, in line with the promise of extensive media exposure, and with the prospect of obtaining a positive return from the considerable investments that tend to be made in this regard. According to Solberg and Preuss (2007:223), the staging of major sport events can also create positive shifts in demand from inbound tourists, as driven by investments, and by the consumption patterns of foreign visitors (Preuss, 2006:313). The utmost benefits include economic and/or developmental benefits, infrastructural investments, and unrivalled 'place promotion' advantages directed at expanding investments and tourism, and attracting future events (Black, 2007:261).

As stated before, the last decade has seen a shift in the spotlight from developed countries to developing ones, as far as sport events are concerned. The focus is now not so much on new tourism destinations, but it is mainly on particularly neglected developing nations and communities (Nyikana et al., 2014:548). It has, therefore, become necessary to investigate how major sport events affect developing countries, as well as neglected communities. As such, the objective of the current study covers such an area of study, since literature on the impact of the AFCON on African countries is practically non-existent. The following section deals with the most compelling reason for hosting major sport events including the 2012 AFCON, being a vast economic windfall promise that is forecast by economic studies impact.

### **2.10.1 Economic impacts of major sport tourism events**

Economic benefits and costs exist for communities that host sport events (Turco, Riley & Swart, 2002:53). According to ATKearney (2005:5), the hosting of a major sport event causes an instant boost in the tourist industry. Tourists' spending injects cash into the local economy, which serves to stimulate the service sector long before, and after, an actual event. Additionally, 'booster' campaigns typically overemphasise major sport events economic potential and ability to attract foreign direct investment, as well as bolstering tourism growth and contributing towards regeneration and relatively broad developmental goals (Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:110).

Even so, in terms of mega-events economic features, the fine balance that exists between the benefits and the costs that are associated with events is noted. Fewer examples of success exist than of costly initiatives that have incurred much debt for the hosts concerned (Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:110). In most cases, operational costs remain the only costs covered by proceeds generated by large sport events. Investment costs are therefore rarely met and in instances where operational costs are also not met due to insufficient revenue, additional public money may be used to fund the deficit (Solberg & Preuss, 2007:217). The following subsections analyse the economic benefits and the costs that are associated with hosting sporting events.

#### **2.10.1.1 Economic benefits**

Getz and Page (2016:365) assert that major sport events are tourist motivators, as they serve to stimulate and to encourage travel that might not otherwise have occurred. The mere fact that countries around the globe bid to stage such events imply that the benefits, more than often, exceed the costs (Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011:1364). However, according to Turco et al. (2002:53), “a continuum of economic benefits and costs exists for communities that host sport tourism events”. The positive economic effects that are confirmed by economic impact studies are detailed in the following subsections.

##### **2.10.1.1.1 Economic and regional development**

One of the economic objectives of hosting major sport events is to ensure that the host city or region be known and recognised as a tourism destination and as a location which promotes investment and commercial activity (Malfas, Theodoraki & Houlihan, 2004:212). Tourist expenditure serves to catalyse the host destination’s service sector, resulting in tourism revenue increases, as the numbers of businesses that are generated to meet the needs and requirements of sport tourists increase (Keyser, 2009:312). With previously existing companies and their employees already paying taxes, the new companies join in the flow, contributing to the expansion of the government’s income (Keyser, 2009:312). A typical example is the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, which, according to the South African Tourism Report (South African Tourism, 2013:98), attracted a sum of 308 554 visitors to South Africa, whose primary goal was to attend the World Cup. The total foreign tourist arrivals figure for June and July 2010 was 1 401 725. The average amount that was spent by a visitor was R11800, which amounted to an increase of R2300 in 2010 over the R9500 spent in 2009. The highest percentage spent was on shopping (31%), followed by accommodation (20%), food (19%), leisure (16%), and transport (11%). Tourism visitation and related spending clearly increased during the event (South African Tourism, 2013:98).

As far as the AFCON is concerned, little to no literature exists on the impact of the event, although its economic impact is clear. According to the African Economic Outlook (2012:2), Gabonese economic growth was said to be robust in 2012, partly due to the country's hosting of the aforesaid tournament. Increased tourist arrivals and coverage from the international media both served to boost the economy and the tourism sector (Oxford Business Group, 2012:109). The AFCON was expected to draw approximately 450 000 sport fans to Gabon (LeGabon.org, 2012a). Therefore, using the AFCON platform, and the forecast tourism contribution made to the GDP, Gabon is currently aiming to double the number of its tourist arrivals by 2020 (Oxford Business Group, 2012:109).

#### **2.10.1.1.2 Contribution to the GDP**

According to Keyser (2009:316), the GDP is the total value of products and services that are produced in a country, generally over a period of one year. It can be measured in three different ways. Although hosting a major sport event inevitably impacts on the country's GDP, one should remember that the host country also depends on other types of resource. Its contribution to the GDP can, however, be deduced, as well as can be its impact. For instance, Grant Thornton's (2010) study update indicates that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ events contributed R93bn to the GDP of South Africa between 2006 and 2010, with an additional R13bn in 2010 (Grant Thornton, 2010). According to the South African Tourism report (South African Tourism, 2013:98), the R11.7bn investment that was made in ten world-class stadiums alone produced 66 000 new construction jobs, generating R7.4bn in wages, with R2.2bn going to low-income households, and consequently contributing to the decrease of poverty in the nation as a whole.

With regards to the 2012 AFCON, the Oxford Business Group (2012:109) stated that Gabon's total tourism contribution to the GDP in 2011 was €290m, or 2.8% of the GDP, with it being expected to contribute €309m (i.e. 2.9% of the 2012 GDP), as a result of the increased number of people visiting during the event. The amount involved is very low, compared to the contribution made by tourism to the GDP in such countries as South Africa, mainly because the latter is the most developed country in Africa, while tourism is still in its infancy in Gabon. Besides contributing to a country's GDP, the hosting of major sport events can also generate jobs for the local communities, as tourists arriving in the country concerned, whether or not to attend the related events must be looked after. The following subsection focuses on job creation.

#### **2.10.1.1.3 Job creation**

Developing governments believe that hosting major sport events is a powerful tool for creating jobs, since tourism itself, being labour-intensive, has relatively low barriers to

employment (Keyser, 2009:320). Briedenhann (2011:484) states that major sport events tend to constitute one of the most effective remedies against poverty in the rural areas. Even though some jobs that are generated by hosting events are not permanent, they can contribute in many ways to the well-being of an area or a country, boosting the local community life and financial state (Keyser, 2009:320).

According to Getz and Page (2016:365), major sport events can result in the creation of direct and indirect jobs for locals in the tourism and retail industry because of the increased number of spectators/tourists, but also in other sectors such the construction industry (Malfas et al., 2004:212; Kavetsos & Szymanski, 2010:159). Similarly, Hancock and Pellegrino (2010:6) advocate that the activities and investments that are required before, during, and after an event can enhance employment, and they can create new business opportunities for local companies. Karadakis and Kaplanidou (2010:172) also state that the value of wages that are created by an event can serve as a tremendous benefit to the host region, and, as a result, the effects to be attained by the region are the objective of most governments when electing to support the events concerned. For instance, during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the South African government spent more than R33bn over a period of four years on its infrastructure, in terms of its preparation for the World Cup. Nearly R12bn was spent on stadium infrastructure, R11bn on transport infrastructure, and R1.5bn on event broadcasting and telecommunications. As a result, roughly 130 000 jobs were generated in the hospitality, roads and transport, and construction industries during the preparation for the World Cup (South African Tourism, 2013:99). Of the 130 000 jobs created, 66 000 jobs fell within the ambit of the construction sector alone, with the average earnings involved being R10 000 per month. In addition, more than R2bn went to low-income households, as a result of the job creation (South African Tourism, 2013:106).

During the twenty-eighth AFCON in 2012, Gabon's government made investments in the region of €370mn, which was spent on the equipment for the competition, inter alia for the stadiums, hotels and transport systems involved (Mpira, 2012:1). Of the overall amount, €37mn was invested in the construction of the Amitié Sino-Gabonaise Stadium in Libreville and €76.2mn in the total makeover of the Renovation Stadium in Franceville. In short, the tournament generated about 50 000 direct and indirect jobs. About 400 direct long-term jobs were created in the hotel and catering sector (Oxford Business Group, 2012:113), with about 1000 direct jobs being generated in the construction of the Amitié Sino-Gabonaise Stadium (Ballong, 2011). The 2012 AFCON generated additional employment in the health sector, most notably in the form of the creation of 480 first-aid positions, with 50 doctors being trained in the use of semi-automatic defibrillators (SAEDs), 50 people attending a seminar on sports medicine and traumatology, 20 doctors being trained in emergency and 'disaster'

medicine, and 17 people trained, and 4 people accredited in, the combating of doping (LeGabon.org, 2012a). Although the above proves that the staging of a major event leads to the creation of jobs, attention should be placed on the quality and the duration of the jobs involved, as most of them seemed to be relatively low-paid and short-lived (Malfas et al., 2004:212).

#### **2.10.1.1.4 The development of additional trade and of existing businesses**

According to Gibson (2013:215) and Hancock and Pellegrino (2010:6), the hosting of major sport events can result into the growth of existing businesses, and the establishment of new ones. An event successfully hosted can become an effective marketing tool that can be used to attract new businesses and visitors to an area, thus offering local companies a powerful mean of marketing and advertising their products and services to a specific audience. For instance, during the preparations for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the Department of Trade and Industry supported the small and medium enterprises (SMEs) sector in accessing economic benefits and opportunities that were being brought about by the event (Louw, 2012:629). The South African government offered 30% of the budget of the Organising Committee to black economic empowerment and to SMEs, in terms of procurement policy (Louw, 2012:629). As far as the 2012 AFCON was concerned, Socoba, which was one of the main building and engineering companies in the country, won contracts alongside foreign companies like Colas and Rimes, to construct access roads to the Libreville stadium, as well as nearby hotels and hospitals (Ballong, 2011). Kari Group, which was another Gabonese business to benefit from the infrastructure programme concerned, secured a 100-bed hotel construction deal, as well as the building of numerous houses of over 50 rooms for accommodating the participating national teams (Ballong, 2011).

Moreover, Gibson (2013:215) suggests that the hosting of successful events can improve and strengthen business confidence, due to the increased number of arrivals. This, in turn, causes private and public investments to be stimulated and generated, particularly in terms of such tourism development as new shopping centres, hotels and restaurants, as well as in terms of such urban renewal as the building of new roads, the improvement of urban looks through the beautification of streetscape, and the creation, or rehabilitation, of green space (Gibson, 2013:215). Typical examples of the latter include some of the joint ventures signed for between Gabon and foreign investor companies just before the hosting of the event. Firstly, a €85mn joint venture agreement was signed in 2012 between Gabon and Singapore-based Amman Resorts. The agreement was aimed at building six luxury hotels and resorts in key tourist areas, within a period of five years (2012–2017), adjoining or in the national parks of Loango, Ivindo, Lopé, Batéké Plateaux, Pongora, and Libreville. Aman Resorts was to follow through its plans with Gabonese local partner, Luxury Green Resorts,

by adding 140 rooms offering high-quality services (Oxford Business Group, 2012:116). The first phase of the project included the building of a 30-suite luxury hotel and spa in Libreville, with magnificent views on Pongora National Park, a 30-bungalow lodge complex on Ngombe historic lighthouse, and an upmarket ecotourism camp of 20 tents in Loango National Park, on the south-western coast (Oxford Business Group, 2012:116). Four additional future projects identified included a 30-bungalow lodge complex near Kongou, a 30-suite hotel in Lopé National Park, and much more. Once completed, the new facilities will certainly be used for the 2017 AFCON, with them being expected to create around 500 direct jobs, and with them serving as a key attraction for international visitors (Oxford Business Group, 2012:116).

The second joint venture was signed with the sustainable Forestry Management Africa, which is a Mauritius-based company that manages integrated conservation, forestry and renewable energy ventures. The aim of the project concerned was to erect up to seven lodges in different national parks, each with a capacity to accommodate 16 to 20 guests. A financial agreement worth €75mn was also signed to develop the industrial and tourism infrastructure in southern Mayumba (Oxford Business Group, 2012:116). According to Gibson (2013:215), whenever event tourism generates a significant amount of confidence in an investor, any induced private investment can be ascribed and accredited to that particular investor. Only that investment which would not otherwise have occurred is pertinent and applicable to the economic assessment involved.

Moreover, ahead of the 2017 AFCON, there has been huge growth in the hotel sector, mostly in Libreville, the capital, and in Port-Gentil, the second largest city and oil centre industry in the country. A serie of hotel construction has been anticipated, as Gabon prepares to host the 2017 AFCON, with the new venues being planned in Port-Gentil and Oyem also requiring additional facilities. During his interview with the Oxford Business Group, Ogoula Barisse, the former Director-General of the General Directorate of Gabon Tourism, emphasised the importance of Gabon increasing its capacity in terms of accommodation, and in terms of services of transport for the flood of visitors expected to attend the 2017 AFCON. The Gabonese government is currently aiming to expand the number of hotel rooms by 23%, from 5300 in 2013, to 8300 by 2025 (Oxford Business Group, 2015:160).

Besides the numerous positive impacts, including the newly generated local employment and business, and the increased existing business, personal income and subsequent re-spending by sport tourists within the economy, Gratton Shibli and Coleman (2006:44) point out that major sporting events might serve to enhance the image of the region as a domestic

and/or international travel and tourism destination. The following subsection deals with media exposure.

#### **2.10.1.1.5 Media exposure**

Major sport events are seen by governments as being catalysts of change and the granting of opportunities to market the city and the country on an international scale (Varrel & Kennedy, 2011:1). According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2006a:2), Major sport events are characterised by two principal features. The first one being that they are known as having notable consequences for the host city, region or nation, and, secondly, that they are likely to entice substantial media coverage. Since the emerging economies have become so eager to demonstrate that they have become major players on the global stage, the race for event bidding is ever increasing, as the idea is that the international exposure that is gained thereby will attract new sources of funding to the countries concerned. Therefore, they tend to use sport events as platforms for promoting national unity and identity, as was seen in relation to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa (Black & Van der Westhuizen, 2004:1208). In addition, the hosting of the AFCON tournament has also lifted Gabon's profile internationally. During the 2012 tournament, viewers worldwide focused their attention on Gabon for three weeks, while some 185 645 tickets were sold in Libreville, and some 49 758 in Franceville (Oxford Business Group, 2012:113). The same is likely to hold true for the coming 2017 AFCON, during which Gabon will again be at the centre of attention worldwide for another three weeks, lasting from 14 January to 5 February 2017 (AllAfrica, 2016). Clearly, if they are successfully hosted, major sport events can offer prestige, global exposure and legitimacy to the host city and the entire country concerned.

Fourie and Santana-Gallego (2010:3) state that major sport events can result in mass popular appeal and international significance. They not only serve to attract an immense global audience and media attention, but they also help to shape the patterns of tourism worldwide, underlining new tourism destinations, and creating supposed lasting legacies in the host cities or countries involved (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006b:2). Their largeness of size enables them to transmit promotional messages to billions of people via television and other telecommunications developments (Roberts, 2004:108). This idea is supported by Horne (2014:1), with new developments occurring in terms of the technologies of mass communication, especially in relation to the development of satellite television. Such developments constitute the starting point of global audiences' presence at major sport events, but specifically at mega-events, such as the FIFA World Cup™ and the Olympic Games. The author argues that the extension of mega-events has been facilitated by the formation of a sport-media business alliance that changed the arena of professional sport generally, during the late 20th century. Through a sublime packaging idea, via the tripartite

model of sponsorship rights, exclusive broadcasting rights and merchandising, sponsors have been attracted by the vast global audience display that sporting mega-events achieve (Louw, 2012:4), since it constitutes the main source of income for the event. In fact, continuous competition between broadcasters to secure and guarantee major sports events broadcasting rights has contributed to a huge inflation in fees for such rights. Broadcasters end up only being able to offer blanket coverage at peak times for such events, which in turn, increase the benefits of marketing involved for the host cities (Valente & Tur, 2014:3).

Moreover, the hosting of a major sport event can provide the host destination with immediate, or accelerated, credibility in the global marketplace. An appearance on the world stage can be appealing to new companies, thus racking up the overall level of trade and commerce (Hancock & Pellegrino, 2010:6). Assuredly, the aforesaid confirms that organising major sport events can assist in generating increased tourism, stimulating inward investment, and promoting both the host venues and the nation internally and externally (Horne & Whannel, 2016:72). Coming back to the 2012 AFCON, one can conclude that several channels broadcast programmes about Gabon and Equatorial Guinea internationally, especially during the opening and closing ceremonies, despite related data and information being non-existent. The fact remains that the events were watched by many through the medium of television in their homes.

Finally, having noted the fine balance existing between the benefits and costs related to the hosting of major sport events; Cornelissen and Swart (2006:110) further state that 'booster' campaigns typically tend to overemphasise major sport events aptitude and capacity to bring about economic benefits, with their ability to attract foreign direct investment, to support tourism growth, and to contribute to renewal and broader developmental goals. Being known to only cover operational costs, major sport events have to really being monitored and investigating prior being hosted to ensure that they be profitable to the host community (Solberg & Preuss, 2007:217).

The following section analyses the economic costs that are associated with the hosting of sporting events.

#### **2.10.1.2 Economic costs**

Despite the positive economic spin-offs, such as job creation, media exposure, and increased income and contribution to the GDP of hosting nations, major sport events are also known to generate negative impacts (Tichaawa, 2009:47). However, such impacts tend either to be ignored, or to be hidden by both the authorities and the media concerned (Hiller, 1998:47). Both Gursoy and Kendall (2006:608), as well as Kim et al. (2006:88), confirm that event organisers, political leaders, and mostly host communities often neglect the negative



impacts involved, and praise the presumed, anticipated and foreseen benefits to be gained thereby. The proponents of sport event projects idealistically tend to make overly optimistic economic estimations, while the dissenters raise concerns about public debt and opportunity costs when a large amount of public money gets spent on the architecture and infrastructure related to an event (Whitson & Horne, 2006:73). Cornelissen (2005:149) advocates that mega-events produce varied, and frequently negative, economic outcomes, that result in them being costly affairs. Therefore, the related opportunity costs need to be queried, especially and mainly when they are too high for the developing countries (Cornelissen, 2005:149).

#### **2.10.1.2.1 Economic losses**

Most studies on the impact of sport tourism stress the benefit of their organisation. Several studies and literatures also depict, in depth, the negative impacts of hosting sport events. Nevertheless, the focus of the current section is on the economic losses that are endured in the process of staging events. In their study, Maennig and Schwarthoff (2008:2) concluded that the impact of the hosting of mega-events is either non-significant or even negative. Similarly, Allmers and Maennig (2008:1) state that previous studies that have been conducted on major sport events show only limited positive effects on the local economies, even though governments around the globe have been pursuing their hosting. Before a city chooses to bid for a major sport event, the government involved tends to assess whether the hosting of the event is likely to benefit the city. The prevailing situation, as heretofore described, is probably why Kurtzman (2005:49) emphasises the importance of not confusing economic impacts with financial profits and the loss that is experienced as the result of an event, since an event might generate additional tourism impact, due to visitor expenditure, while simultaneously resulting in less revenue than it costs to stage it in the first place.

In 1996, Mules and Faulkner contested the unambiguous and indisputable economic benefits that sport events can bring to the host cities, contending that the hosting of big events often results in a loss of money for the city authorities concerned (Gratton et al., 2006:44). The authors disagreed with the fact that governments tend to use their resources to host such events, losing taxpayers' money in the process, in order to leverage other, economic benefits broadly (Gratton et al., 2006:44). For instance, during the previous FIFA World Cup, such as the 1994 World Cup, boosters predicted a cumulative US\$4bn positive impact on the nine host cities in which the games were held (Matheson & Baade, 2003:8). However, the economies of the cities involved experienced an economic growth that was US\$4 billion less than what had been expected for the metropolitan areas concerned. Instead, they found that cumulative losses ranging from US\$5.5 to US\$9.3bn were experienced by the cities involved (Matheson & Baade, 2003:8). Similarly, the South African

Football Association (SAFA) allegedly demanded 'tens of millions' from the potential host cities for the hosting of the 2013 AFCON. Among the cities that were invited to bid, Cape Town and Polokwane were put off by SAFA's demand of R20mn, realising that they would run at a loss if they hosted the tournament. With the budget for the tournament having been estimated at approximately R100mn, both Cape Town and Polokwane stated that they could not afford the R20mn that each city was supposed to pay to secure the related rights, because their hosting of AFCON 2013 would have resulted in a substantial loss of income (Kickoff.com, 2012). Although it is true that major sport events might attract sufficient foreign visitors, they might not be worth staging at a loss, especially when bearing in mind the related high operating and infrastructure costs, even if the slightest promise of extra income can be seen as being the ultimate result.

#### **2.10.1.2.2 Opportunity costs**

Besides economic losses, major sport events can be costly and very expensive, particularly for the host cities that perceive them as more than an opportunity to build new sports stadiums, but use them to also upgrade other infrastructure, such as media and communication systems, traffic networks, housing facilities (Barclay, 2009:62). Bodwin, Allen, O'Toole, Harris, McDonnell (2006:57) state that expenditure on the hosting of major sporting events represents an opportunity cost of resources, which might otherwise have been spent on satisfying more pressing needs of the various communities concerned. Likewise, Allmers and Maennig (2008:15) highlight that spending on infrastructure could easily displace public funding, resulting in delays in the unveiling of other projects, which are more directly in the interest of the general public. Cornelissen and Swart (2006:110) also concur with such findings, noting that opponents to the bidding for, and the hosting of, major sport events argue that both the making of such bids, and the event itself, tend to be costly, with the resources rather being directed towards combating local population problems, like poverty and the human immunodeficiency virus which can result into acquired immune deficiency syndrome (HIV/Aids) (Baade & Matheson, 2016:204).

Crompton and Howard (2013:380) demonstrate that the opportunity costs that are associated with sport projects can be classified into three categories: explicit opportunity costs; implicit opportunity costs; and external costs. These costs are explicated below.

**Explicit costs**, which are costs for which the government is regarded as 'writing the cheque', encompass event costs, land and infrastructure costs, and operations and maintenance costs. Events costs refer to the costs of preparing bids, as well as the costs of staging an event. Such costs are likely to be substantial, with, in many cases, sport organisations being expected to meet the costs from revenue streams that are linked with

the event (Crompton & Howard, 2013:380-384). According to Baade and Matheson (2016:204), they also usually tend, ultimately, to exceed the budget allocated. Land and infrastructure costs include the costs of building the stadium or arena, as well as the costs of providing land and infrastructure for the facilities concerned. These might be relatively high, depending on the size of the events, and the complexity of appraising sites. Operation and maintenance costs are those costs that can result in large, ongoing operating losses, huge debt, and much underused infrastructure (Crompton & Howard, 2013:380-384).

**Implicit costs**, which are 'hidden', so that most taxpayers remain unaware of them, consist of four different types:

- The first type consists of the foregone taxes on properties occupied by the teams concerned.
- The second type consists of capital costs strategic underestimation and revenue streams overestimation (in terms of the cost of construction projects required). Advocates of the hosting of major sport events and facilities frequently publically underestimate the costs that are associated with their development. As an example of the above, FIFA demands that a host nation has at least eight, but ideally ten, modern stadiums with seating capacities in the range of 40 000 to 60 000. During the 2010 FIFA World Cup™®, the South African government spent R12mn on stadium infrastructure and upgrades (South African Tourism, 2013:99). As for the 2012 AFCON, the Gabonese government made investments in the region of €370mn, which was spent on equipment for the competition, inter alia for stadiums, hotels, and transport systems (Mpira, 2012:1).
- The third type consists of displacement costs, which consist of revenues that are foregone by a community, because the people who would have spent money there are unable, or unwilling, to do so, because they feel themselves to be 'crowded out' and displaced by sport tourists.
- The fourth type consists of a non-equitable nexus between those paying for a sport facility, and those benefitting from it.

Finally, **external costs**, including sport costs that are carried out the entire society, are manifested as special dispensations that allow private corporations to avoid paying taxes to the federal government. Such costs are incurred by taxpayers beyond the boundaries of a local jurisdiction. Saayman (2001:99) contends that sport tourism events can result in opportunity and substitution costs, as well as in an increase in the price of goods and services. The last subsection below considers the inflation that occurs during the hosting of major sport events.

### **2.10.1.2.3 Inflation**

Many studies assert that the hosting of major sport events can inflate the price of goods, services and property, resulting in an economic and social burden for the local population (Ritchie, Shipway & Cleeve, 2009:146). Saayman (2001:99) argues that, during major sporting events, 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 the local citizens and communities. In addition, Swart, Bob and Arrey (2008:126) affirm that sport events that are badly managed can also have significant outcomes affecting local communities' social life and structure. The effects concerned could comprise amenities loss due to noise or crowds, resentment of the discriminatory costs and benefits distribution, and the increase of prices of goods and services that can trouble the housing market, with such impacts being felt mostly by groups with low income. The above confirms that citizens of the host country could be required to bear the financial burden of increased taxation, due to the amount of revenue that is required for developing the facilities at which an event is to be held (Ritchie et al., 2009:146).

To sum up, although major sporting events can create welfare-economic gains through long-term tourism impacts, they do not constitute a warranty that related costs to their hosting will be exceeded by the benefits (Solberg & Preuss, 2007:231). Further, while major sport events might widely foster a host city's economic investments and developments, their rewards might be counterbalanced either by the way they end up being organised, or by the particular set of corporate interests related to the event itself. Together with other factors that are non-economic, this might prevent foreseen mega-events spin-offs from materialising (Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:110). The next subsection discusses the sociocultural impacts of major sport events on host communities.

### **2.10.2 Socio-cultural impacts of major sport tourism events**

Apart from their economic end results, major sport events can induce many other legacies that can last beyond the time when the related bidding campaigns, competitions and games processes have been completed. Such outcomes comprise the pre and post event infrastructure development, that will be used either to get future events bids, or to maximise the investment impetus that often characterises events' build-up (Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:110). However, according to Kim and Petrick (2005:25), sociocultural impacts are often ignored, because for political motives, event organisers frequently strive to get local residents interest and support through positive economic impacts paraded in front of them. Because of their complex nature, social impacts are not easily understood nor accurately calculated. They are also characterised by many negative impacts, including a rise in prostitution, drug-peddling, crime, traffic congestion, and additional security costs (Bob &

Swart, 2010:83). Looking at the social impacts of major sport events, Bob (2010:210) asserts that the essence of sustainability in terms of social development achievement related to sport event resides in the safeguard of existing and future society members, involvement and engagement in decision-making processes, social resources maintenance and development, resources access equity and opportunities and social capital investment. Host cities and nations that are willing to go beyond the requisite costs versus benefits of major sporting events are likely to find themselves in a better position that will enable them to easily get the longer lasting, less tangible, and more emotional aspects inspired by such events (ATKearney, 2005:1). The following subsections examine the social benefits and costs of major sport events.

### **2.10.2.1 Social benefits**

Barker (2004:176) states that major sport events are subject to many of the same social impacts, and come about through many of the same causes, due to the presence of tourists at a destination. The social impacts can be positive or negative, as has been seen with the economic impacts. The following subsections depict the positive social impacts of the hosting of such events.

#### **2.10.2.1.1 The sense of national pride and unity – social cohesion**

Higham and Hinch (2009:64) remind us that sport is a powerful tourist attraction in terms of the cultural dimension. Using a relatively narrow definition, Fredline (2005:268) asserts that the hosting of major sporting events is generally linked to the fostering of a sense of pride and self-actualisation amongst the local residents. Likewise, ATKearney (2005:3) indicates that the prestige and competitive spirit that is associated with the hosting of major sport events can bring about a legacy of national pride and unity. Additionally, increased sports participation can significantly contribute to the quality of life of both the individual and the community, and turn into a sense of well-being felt through fun and enjoyment, causing an awareness of self-fulfilment and achievement (Malfas, 2003:214). If events are correctly managed, according to ATKearney (2005:3), host nations can begin to tear down racial, ethnic, gender, and other discrimination forms. The latter was seen during the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, in which the entire continent took pride, because of South Africa's hosting of the event. Additionally, the vuvuzela that was used during football matches became a symbol of South African football. The stadiums were filled with its loud and raucous sound, echoing supporters' exhilaration, while adding atmosphere to the game. The intensity of the sound caught the attention of the global football community (South African Tourism, 2013:107). Another great example of the above occurred during the 1995 Rugby World Cup, which took place a year after the democratic rule in the previously racially

divided South Africa. President Nelson Mandela's wearing of a Springbok team jersey that was adorned with the number six of Afrikaner captain Francois Pienaar was broadly and extensively perceived and understood as a sign of reconciliation (ATKearney, 2005:3).

Moreover, major sport events might also result into entertainment opportunities as well as togetherness within communities, or families. The demonstration effect of the hosting of sport activity might also be a catalyst for the promotion of sporting activity amongst the local community, which might have long-term implications for fitness levels and health (Fredline, 2005:268).

Finally, sport events might also act as boosters for the development of feelings of social identity and inclusion, and, as such, are increasingly recognised as a national priority by many countries (United Nations, 2006:10; Kidd, 2008:372). Springing from the renewal of a sense of national pride and passion, and the collective sharing of similar enthusiastic interest and excitement, major sport events can help to rebrand a country, while boosting its image and reputation. According to Richards and Wilson (2004:1931), major sport events may be used as powerful means to add flexibility to fixed structures by ways of supplying a source of spectacle that adds to a landmark's image. They further indicate that events have become essential source cities image enhancement, adding life to the streets, and giving citizens a sense of renewed pride in their home city. The following subsection elaborates on the image and marketing opportunities that can be made available through the hosting of major sport events.

#### **2.10.2.1.2 Image and marketing opportunities**

Besides helping to develop a sense of national pride, major sport events can help transform the image of the host city (Malfas, 2003:214). While such events are taking place, relationships between the images of sport events and destinations can build up and be identified (Kaplanidou & Vogt, 2010:545). In terms of the above, Kotze (2006:285) asserts that major sporting events are linked to a re-imaging process and to the development of tourism development strategies.

Additionally, several authors (Jones, 2001:241; Gibson, 2006:7; Kotze, 2006:285) argue that sport tourism remains an important component of most cities' tourist marketing strategies. They note that the staging of sport events is growingly being viewed as part of a wider tourism strategy that is aimed at improving a city's profile. This perspective is supported by Smith (2006:79), who suggests that sport events have many positive connotations that lead to constructive implications for destination cities, since they provide a showcase for all of the fun and exciting things that a host has to offer. Such events can put an unknown tourist destination on the map, and they can also result into the improvement and overhaul of an

established destination's image (Hancock & Pellegrino, 2010:6). Indeed, ATKearney (2005:2) also points out and confirms that major sport events are a boon to commercialisation and brand image improvement, since their main features include the huge attracted global audience and its notable effect on the host. Consequently, the host nation can protrude social organisation and images of its culture, in addition to images of its political and economic power (ATKearney, 2005:2).

Moreover, Cornelissen (2007:242) indicates that major sport events have become a policy object for many of nations worldwide, most notably "as a means to gain international visibility in some ways". In their study, Essex and Chalkley (1998:201) describe major sport events as providing a "unique publicity platform and opportunity for place marketing". Berkowitz, Germano, Gomez and Schafer (2007:164), in contrast, describe such events as a "great branding opportunity for nations". The high media profile that is associated with such events can assist in increasing the prominence, awareness and standing of places, with it serving as a catalyst of change in terms of imagery and place meaning (Higham & Hinch, 2009:245; Florek & Insch, 2011:267).

Finally, Nylund (2009:127) confirms that television and other mass media are in a key position to promote the consumption of sports events. Countries around the globe have mostly marketed and advertised sport events for economic interests and political ambitions with the objective to obtain a better position in the global system. Mega-event where thus used as vehicles to reinforce and further the so called 'soft power' of host states (Valente & Tur, 2014:2). For instance, the estimated number of tourists that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was likely to attract presented a significant opportunity for South Africa to establish itself on the world stage, as well as for the country to reinforce its sense of social cohesion and confidence (Makgabo, 2006). In addition, the third goal of the South African bid for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was to enhance the country's international status, by means of promoting its recent democratisation (Cornelissen, 2005:145). However, Allmers and Maennig (2008:11) contend that the quality of the impact to be obtained from the projection of the image of a country that is able to host such events would largely depend on how well the country is able to present itself as likeable, hospitable, progressive, and capable of being an effective business location. The next subsection discusses the issue of intercultural exchange and shared experiences.

#### **2.10.2.1.3 Intercultural exchange and shared experiences**

According to Taks (2013:121), the current era is one in which, characteristically, borders between countries are fading. Generally, products and (most) people have the ability to move freely about the globe. Schulenkorf and Edwards (2012:380) present evidence that

sport events can facilitate relationships within communities and between communities and foreign visitors. Communities end up developing a sense of security and confidence when meeting new groups of people, and even communities politically opposed to them. The authors further reaffirm that sport events have the ability to ameliorate intergroup relations, and to reduce the prejudices distance existing between different groups. In addition, they constitute a great and purposeful tool that communities can use to get a sense of belonging and develop trust with each other and with foreign visitors, since the feeling of a common good, shared experiences and collective solidarity can be felt among the local residents (Taks, 2013:129).

Throughout the staging of major sport events, the identities of local people are deemed to resemble the (generally) positive stereotypes that are promoted in pre-event publicity and the opening ceremonies. Major sport events are not only about showing off a city to the world, but they are also about putting global phenomena on show for the locals. People are, thus, invited to the host city, so as to take on new identities as citizens of the world (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006b:13). The following final subsection on positive social impacts elaborates on the infrastructure benefits that stand to improve the quality of life of a host community (Saayman & Rossouw, 2008:2).

#### **2.10.2.1.4     Infrastructural benefits**

Nauright and Schimmel (2005:130) assert that strategies for contemporary urban imaging are typical responses of policy to social and economic problems deriving from deindustrialisation, urban regeneration, economic restructuring, social integration, multiculturalism, and control. According to ATKearney (2005:2), major sport events can do the host community social good, and they can provide an opportunity to influence the pattern of urban development. The hosting of major sporting events can result in improvements being made in both the infrastructure and the superstructures, which are perceived as being the most significant benefits by those residents who use the lasting facilities that are created for such events (Ziakas & Boukas, 2014:87). In fact, Preuss (2007b:92) points out that each major sport event requires the use of specific structures. He notes that the kept structures of all events can positively or negatively transform the host location quality factors. Additionally, according to Preuss (2007b:93), the 'event structures' obviously refer to the facilities of training and to the infrastructure of sport for the specific sport event, but they also include the host city's general infrastructure, including its roads, airports, telecommunications, hotels, guesthouses and others. However, Hancock and Pellegrino (2010:6) stress that the specific infrastructure of sport events require significant investments that should be managed correctly in order to leave a positive and lasting legacy on the community. For instance, according to the South African Government Communication and Information System (2010),



R11.7bn was invested in 10 world-class stadiums for the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The South African government also spent R13bn on the upgrading of train stations near the stadiums, as well as on the improving of roads, and on giving a massive facelift to the country's airports. Entry ports received R3.5bn for renovations, including the provision of improved IT infrastructure equipment at frontiers. In addition, during the preparation for the 2008 AFCON, the Ghanaian government spent US\$200mn on the building of two brand-new soccer stadiums (at Essipon and Tamale in the Western and Northern Regions, respectively), and on the refurbishment of two existing stadiums in Accra and Kumasi (Ohenegyem and Baba Yara, respectively). The Ghanaian government also built a 1000-capacity hostel as part of its contribution to the hosting of the tournament, so as to ensure the supply of adequate accommodation for the participating teams and their fans (Amenumey & Amuquandoh, 2010:40).

To conclude, major sport events that are used as a mechanism for obtaining positive urban economic effects can assist host cities to 'get their name on the world map', further encouraging the development of the 'feel-good effect', and of social legacies. However, as has been stated above regarding the economic impacts of major sport events, they can also result in negative social impacts.

#### **2.10.2.2 Social costs**

The majority of impact studies on sport events focus on economic impacts related to the generation of income, multipliers of employment, increases in government taxes, the creation of jobs, and investments in infrastructure and other development projects (Bob & Swart, 2010:83). However, it is extremely imperative that the negative economic impacts of such events be considered as they have the capacity to turn into tourism displacement, traffic congestion, crime, violence and prostitution. They can therefore either improve or worsen local communities' quality of life (Bob & Swart, 2010:83). For example, the jobs that are generated because of a sport event can transform both individuals and households social circumstances. In contrast, if households are forcefully removed to accommodate infrastructural development, the results could be social disruptions and dislocations (Bob & Swart, 2010:84).

Bassa and Jaggernath (2010:121) state that the negative impacts from hosting such events include an increase in the levels of prostitution, crime and insecurity, as well as in the levels of overcrowding and congestion. The section below details such impacts.

##### **2.10.2.2.1 Prostitution**

In terms of prostitution, Ohmann et al. (2006:133) note that the hosting of major sport events often results in a substantial influx of prostitutes, with the phenomenon being attributed to

the anticipation of a higher demand than average, because of the number of event visitors requiring sex industry services. In preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, calls for the legalisation of prostitution were echoed by former National Police Commissioner, Jackie Selebi, who argued that the promulgation of such regulations and laws would help to combat the issue of crime in South Africa, which is known to have its roots in the apartheid era (Bonthuys, 2010:6). In similar fashion, Ohmann et al. (2006:133) state that local governments tend to respond to an increase in the levels of prostitution by means of adjusting the laws and regulations governing public morality, while simultaneously expanding hotels, pubs and nightclubs trading hours for the event's duration. Such adjustments can be problematic, in that they tend to overlook the issue of HIV/AIDS, which can weaken a country's economy. According to the South African National Aids Council (SANAC, 2014:4), South Africa possesses the highest prevalence of HIV/Aids compared to any other country worldwide, with 6.4 million people currently living with HIV, and 270 000 HIV- related deaths being recorded in 2011 alone. Although the hosting of a major sport event is not, in itself, the source of prostitution, or of sexual exploitation of the local people, the very nature of the tourism industry promotes the development of such a conducive environment for the locals.

#### **2.10.2.2.2 Crime and violence**

With regards to the issue of crime and insecurity, Bob and Swart (2010:87) indicate that large scale events, in particular, identify themselves with an increased number of criminal activities, because of the related sheer increase in the numbers of people who are present for a short period of time in a specific area. Relevant authorities have therefore no other option that to elaborate and implement safety and security plans to combat this phenomenon.

Barker (2004:175) provides an in-depth account of the negative impacts of crime, stating that sporting events tend to entice individual who engage in criminal activities simply because of the temporal and spatial opportunities for tourism-related crime that are amplified during the hosting of the event. The author noted that crime might be opportunistic, or it might be planned on the basis of the offenders' knowledge of the regular occurrence and positioning of sporting fixtures. Barker further notes that opportunistic crimes might include theft from visitors within the sports grounds, or theft from vehicles while spectators attend an event, while organised activities refer to (groups of) criminals who travel to different destinations to prey on the visitors who attend global sporting events. Additionally other well known nuisances that tend to have a widespread impact on the local community in terms of the event visitors might be related to public drunkenness, disorderly conduct, and vandalism (Barker, 2004:175).

Donaldson and Ferreira (2007:369) indicate that crime, safety and security were a key concern for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Hence, the deployment of police during the World Cup resulted in 40 000 new, well-trained police officers being integrated into the national police force. The recruits were to remain on the force after the event, thus leading to a safer South Africa in future. The government was able to finance the complete investment out of its current expenditure, because of its fiscal prudence, and because of the high levels of tax compliance that have existed over the years. In addition, at the time of South Africa's hosting of the World Cup, a great number of personnel were recruited by the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (South African Tourism, 2013:93). This shows that a concerted effort was put in place, with the objective of changing the reality and the perception surrounding crime in the country. This represents a key lesson for South African and bid promoters for future events (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007:369).

#### **2.10.2.2.3 Overcrowding and congestion**

Lastly, in terms of overcrowding and congestion, Üngüren, Kaçmaz and Yetkin (2015:601) contend that crowding and congestion are often associated with the staging of events. Preuss (2011:367) also asserts that major sports events tend to create a crowding-out effect affecting both tourists and local residents. Preuss (2011:368) defines the effect as being "any reduction in private consumption that occurs because of an increased demand based on the staging of the event". Looking at the perception of residents concerning major sport events, Bob and Swart (2009:57) state that many local residents tend to concern themselves with such related inconveniences as overcrowding, crime and traffic congestion. In fact, traffic congestion and problems of parking might occur during the construction of facilities, either before, or during, the event, thus earnestly impacting on local residents' quality of life (Ritchie et al., 2009:146). As a result, the residents might end up feeling less inclined to frequent local amenities during an event, owing to the anticipated crowding by event visitors and tourists when using public and private facilities, such as taxis, buses, trains, shops, restaurants and local attractions (Ohmann et al., 2006:135). Instead, they might choose to avoid such places, or they might decide to leave the area entirely for the duration of the tournament (Ohmann et al., 2006:135). Many authors express their anxiety about the problem of the crowding out, or the displacing of, the normal tourist as being the critical issue relating foreign arrivals increase due to the hosting of a major sport event (Fredline, 2005:268; Ohmann et al., 2006:134; Ritchie et al., 2009:147; Liu & Wilson, 2014:15; Üngüren et al., 2015:601). One must remember that such negative impacts as congestion and overcrowding that are generated due to the hosting of an event can discourage and prevent regular non-interested tourists from visiting a city, as well as regular tourists from marketing the city for the specific period concerned, thus resulting in a decrease in the

amount of tourism activity overall (Barclay, 2009:64). For instance, if the local restaurants and hotels are practically full in terms of their capacity, sporting visitors might actually invade and disturb the regular tourists, resulting in a smaller than predicted net impact from their presence (Barclay, 2009:64). To conclude, major sports events have the ability to provide the host area with both sociocultural benefits and inconvenience, with the impact involved being either positive or negative. The following final subsection of the chapter depicts major sport events environmental impacts.

### **2.10.3 Environmental impacts of major sport tourism events**

Apart from being an international image builder, a nation builder, and a social unifier (Labuschagne, 2008:3), major sport events are bound to intervene with nature and to transform the physical environment in which they occur (Girginov & Parry, 2005:120). In some cases, such changes (or environmental impacts) turned out to be positive, whereas, in other cases, they have been negative. Ritchie et al. (2009:144) note that major sport events can help protect, conserve and maintain the physical environment and local heritage, which otherwise might not have happened if the event had not been held, as well as form part of a larger programme of urban advancement and regeneration. However, the hosting of major sport events can also result in environmental pollution, and in the destruction of the physical environment. The following sections look at the positive and negative environmental impacts of hosting major sport events.

#### **2.10.3.1 Environmental benefits**

As the composite nature of major sport events entails a large number of visitors being attracted to the host city as their main feature (Leeds, 2008:461), event sport associations and other stakeholders seek to comprehend, apprehend and discern the environmental impacts of the activities that they are required to sponsor, host and manage (Collins, Jones & Munday, 2009:829; Preuss, 2013b:3582). So, major sport events can indeed leave numerous other legacies besides economic and social impacts, notably the development of infrastructure, both before and after an event (Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:110). Infrastructures, in the present instance, refer to all types of infrastructures including sport training facilities and infrastructure, as well as the host city's general infrastructure including attractions, the airports, the roads, the telecommunication, and all sorts of accommodations. None of these impacts can be neglected, as the well-being of the host nation depends on them. Also, the large number of people coming to a sport match come to a particular geographical area, meaning that the government has to be prepared to receive them, to accommodate them, and to provide them with access to the venue(s) concerned, as well as

ensuring that sufficient entertainment, amenities and facilities are in place to satisfy their needs (Griffin, 2015:19). The following subsection deals with the infrastructure legacy.

#### **2.10.3.1.1     Infrastructural legacy**

Malfas et al. (2004:214) suggest that major sport events can generate opportunities for the building of new sporting facilities and the furtherance of the host city's physical environment. Likewise, Swart and Bob (2009:114) state that one of the tangible long-term legacies that tends to be associated with hosting sport events is the potential infrastructure, particularly stadium development (including both the upgrading of existing stadiums, and the building of new stadiums). Indeed, the staging of such events often imply the construction of new facilities of sport, or the restructuring of existing ones, in order for the organisers to be able to meet the event staging requirements over a relatively short period of time (Chappelet & Junod, 2006:84; Cornelissen, Bob & Swart, 2011:309). Also, linked to the development of infrastructure and investments is the anticipated end result that infrastructure-led economic growth must boost and stimulate the creation of job, thus boosting and enhancing the host community's quality of life, as has been discussed in the previous sections. For instance, two new stadiums (i.e. the Sekondi Takoradi and the Tamale stadiums) were built for the 2008 AFCON in Ghana, while another two (i.e. the Baba Yara and the Accra Sports stadiums) underwent major renovations. According to Amenumey and Amuquandoh (2010:40), the Ghanaian government spent US\$200mn on the above-mentioned construction. In another instance, the 2010 AFCON saw the construction of four stadiums in Angola: the Estádio Nacional de Tundavala; the Estádio Nacional de Ombaka; the Estádio Nacional do Chiazzi; and the Estádio 11 de Novembro (Alm, 2012:72). For the 2012 AFCON, China helped build a 40 000-seat stadium in the Gabonese capital, Libreville. The stadium concerned, which is the biggest that the country has ever had, hosted the group C (Gabon, Morocco, Tunisia, and Niger) matches, as well as the final that was held on 12 February 2012 (Mpira, 2012:1).

As seen, the positive aspects of the environmental impacts of major sport-events most frequently relate to the new physical infrastructure, incorporating stadium development. Other aspects include the transport infrastructure, the airport capacity, and water and sewage services upgrades, none of which might have been either politically or financially feasible without the event hosting (Dodouras & James, 2004:5). Such aspects are the focus of the following subsections.

#### **2.10.3.1.2     Improved transport and communications**

According to Malfas et al. (2004:215), the large numbers of participants and officials, as well as tourists that tend to be associated with an event often necessitate the building of new roads and the development of a public transport network to make sure that sport fans are

efficiently transported to the sporting venues during the event. Therefore, the host authorities pursue major sporting events as an opportunity for funding and bringing forward long-term projects that might otherwise remain pending for many years (Pellegrino & Hancock, 2010:5). For instance, during the 2008 AFCON, the Ghanaian government centred on the improvement of transportation and communication. In order to provide convenient and efficient transport for the participating teams, the State Transport Company was charged with the duty of, and was assisted in, procuring new buses for the purpose (Amenumey & Amuquandoh, 2010:41). In addition, the number of Metro transport buses in the hosting cities was doubled, so as to facilitate the easy movement of both residents and visitors. Apart from the above, the roads leading to the stadiums were resurfaced, so as to facilitate the free flow of traffic (Amenumey & Amuquandoh, 2010:41). Even though the urban infrastructure can be considerably different from one city to another, major sport events tend to offer the potential for development in this regard (Solberg & Preuss, 2007:216).

#### **2.10.3.1.3 Urban transformation and renewal**

Solberg and Preuss (2007:216) state that some cities are in an advantageous position compare to other since they already possess infrastructures that can stage major sport events with a very low level of investment, whereas other cities have to invest huge amounts of money in their infrastructure. The authors further argue that a city has to consider three areas of its development plan when organising a major sport event. The areas include: (a) the planned city development, irrespective of the sport event; (b) the required infrastructure for the sport event, but that has already been planned for the city's development; and (c) the city's long-term development plan which include required infrastructures for the sport event. The three above-mentioned aspects can, however, place substantial pressure on the government.

Ritchie et al. (2009:145) note that the hosting of major sport events is linked to: utmost regeneration; canal, or waterfront, development; tourist's attractions enhancement and development; dining and shopping facilities; as well as infrastructural transportation improvement. Similarly, Malfas et al. (2004:215) assert that games' impacts on the physical environment include: new accommodation and sport facilities construction, changes to the city's physical appearance; industrial space and transport links. Additionally, the host city or region concerned can also benefit from other infrastructural development indirectly tied to the event itself, such as open spaces; commercial centres and leisure facilities development. During the 2008 AFCON, the Ghanaian government embarked upon several projects, with one notable one being the building of a 1000-guest capacity hostel as part of the hosting of the tournament in Tamale Town (Amenumey & Amuquandoh, 2010:40). As a result, mega-sporting events have mostly played the role of trigger for large-scale urban improvement

(Malfas et al., 2004:215). In preparation for the 2010 AFCON, the Gabonese government built six new hotels: two hotels in Libreville, and one each in Franceville, Bongoville, Ngouoni, and Moanda. The level of occupancy also increased in Gabon a couple of months prior to the event (Oxford Business Group, 2013:169). With the coming 2017 AFCON, a couple of new hotels featuring an athletics track, as well as both tennis and basketball courts, will be built in the towns of Port-Gentil and Oyem, which will host the event (ESSMA, 2016).

Furthermore, major sport events can also impart a logical basis which explains the acceleration regarding the development and regeneration of urban areas and scarce resources' allocation which could have taken longer to materialise, resulting in questions being raised and asked towards the environmental impact assessment (EIA) process thoroughness, the level of participation of the public (if any), and the need and desirability for the making of such changes in terms of the local constituencies (Malfas et al., 2004:215).

Apart from the positive environmental impacts discussed above, major sport events can negatively impact on the ecosystems of the host city by causing environmental damage, pollution, the destruction of heritage, and noise disturbance in some areas (Collins et al., 2009:829). The final subsection below details the negative impacts of major sport events on the environment.

### **2.10.3.2 Environmental costs**

Many researchers have reported the negative environmental impacts of major sport events (Konstantaki & Wickens, 2010:341). Gibson (2006:136) indicates that the physical and environmental impacts of major sport events depend, at least to some extent, on the characteristics of the host area. The researcher notes that, environmental damage is likely to occur in a potentially sensitive natural area where sport is undertaken.

#### **2.10.3.2.1 Environmental damage**

As far as environmental damage is concerned, Malfas et al. (2004:215) point out that relevant authorities must really pay attention to the processes that are involved in realising projects with major construction, because it appears that the deadline set for venues constructions and for the completion of infrastructural support is often used by local politicians as the excuse to bypass applications for urban development, including the making of social and environmental assessments, and the holding of public hearings. The government in question must be extremely careful, as neglecting such important steps might result in severe damage to, and the destruction of, the environment (Malfas et al., 2004:215). To cite a few examples, in Athens, for example, which was the 2004 Olympics' host city, the decision regarding the rowing centre's construction for the Games at the Marathonas Lake

was criticised for lacking appropriate preceding environmental analysis (Malfas et al., 2004:215). The project was feared to be capable of undermining the waterland's natural resources, and of causing collateral damage in the area. Athens organising committee chosed, still to continue with the project which later resulted in open spaces reckless and irresponsible demolition during Olympic Games facilities construction (Reyes, 2005). The second example is the 1992 Winter Olympic Games in Albertville, which until today is known as the event which had the most destructive environmental impact on the host region (13 Alpine communities). As for all events, it entailed construction of hotels, sport facilities and roads but a higher level because of the high regionalisation of Games that were to take place. The outcome of the project was catastrophic: the communities' wildlife was highly disturbed and very large amount of forest areas were destroyed completely (Konstantaki & Wickens, 2010:341).

#### **2.10.3.2.2 Pollution**

Developing countries largely rely on their natural resources and landscapes appeal for developing tourism (Ahmed & Pretorius, 2010:279). Unfortunately, the latter are often associated with the presence of sensitive ecosystems (Sasidharana, Sirakayab & Kerstettera, 2002:166). Current literatures on major sport events stipulate that they can have negative impacts on the environment. They have the ability to stimulate waste and pollution to biological and cultural diverse areas; use the unique, priceless and invaluable natural reserve; release emissions of carbon and result in high energy and water consumption. Overall, the above can cause adverse impacts on the host city environment (Collins et al., 2009:829).

According to Singh and Bisht (2015:132), waste water, apart from the issue of solid waste management, is the major form of pollution that affects the surroundings, as it augments the breeding conditions of flies and mosquitoes that thereby cause and transmit various diseases, like malaria, dengue, and others. The authors concerned argue that the sewerage and drainage system of any event shows the level of effective preparedness for the mass event. An event that lasts for a month or so should not only have an adequate waste water system laid on in advance, but the event organisers should also ensure the periodic removal of the waste (Singh & Bisht, 2015:130). The waste water system might include water from hand washing, food stalls, washing and cleaning facilities, ablution blocks, and such crowd comfort facilities as spraying fans. The relevant health authority, or agency, must be contacted by the organisers to determine the requirements for all types of sewage and waste water disposal (Singh & Bisht, 2015:132). Furthermore, other types of environmental pollution that can result from the hosting of major sport events include traffic congestion during the construction of facilities in preparation of a major sport event, parking problems



during the event, and traffic congestion that is generated during the refurbishing of the transport infrastructure (Ritchie et al., 2009:144). Finally, Kim et al. (2006:89) also contend that the anticipated negative physical and environmental impacts encompass changes in land use, the pollution of beaches, lakes and rivers, and the decline and degradation of historical, or cultural, resources. The most important thing to note and remember is that, apart from the negative impact on the environment, pollution and congestion tend to have a knock-on effect on the well-being of local residents whose support is of uppermost and central importance for the success and affluence of major sport events (Konstantaki & Wickens, 2010:341).

### **2.10.3.2.3 Destruction of the environment and natural heritage**

As stated above, tourism almost entirely depends on the environment in such developing countries as Gabon (Ahmed & Pretorius, 2010:279). Therefore, the environment must be protected and sustained for future generations (Preuss, 2013b:3581). However, as has previously been explained, the nature of major sport events can destroy the environment, particularly in very sensitive and endemic areas, by means of the degradation of the natural heritage and the built environment, including the destruction of vegetation by pedestrians (Remoaldo, Duque & Ribeiro, 2015:30). Therefore, sports event organisers and associations should carefully select the areas that they choose for new construction, and they must balance sports needs with environmental constraints, since the most visible environmental impacts include the amount of natural environment that is used, and the degree to which it is disrupted by the construction of roads, railways and parking spaces (Remoaldo et al., 2015:30). According to Otto and Heath (2009:174), additional negative environmental consequences that have been identified by the UNEP include scarce or fragile land development; noise and light pollution; the over consumption of natural resources (such as water and wood); the creation of greenhouse gases through electricity and fuel consumption; and the erosion of soil that is caused during construction, and as a result of the spectators' presence. As a result of the above, emerging governments have been taking the impacts concerned seriously during especially the last few decades, by going Green, adopting programmes and measures that are likely to keep the hosting of sport events sustainable for the host city, while preventing major damage to the environment (Preuss, 2013b:3581). For instance, for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, South Africa committed itself to the Green Goal initiative that was devised for the German 2006 FIFA World Cup™ host. Such a commitment was supported by the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Marthinus van Schalkwyk, who declared, at the time, that "South Africa had committed itself to greening the World Cup by putting its focus on the basis of four pillars: water and energy conservation, waste management, transport and mobility and carbon offset campaigns" (South Africa.

DEAT, 2010:27). In addition, the techniques included in the Green Goal initiative were adopted and implemented, notably the use of renewable energy in the stadiums, and the encouragement of the use of both public and non-motorised transport forms by the fans (South Africa. DEAT, 2010:27). Also, as preparation for the 2008 AFCON, Ghana's government went green by implementing a number of initiatives and activities, including the beautification of the cities involved, particularly in terms of the host communities. Among the numerous projects that were, consequently, undertaken were the improvement of sanitation, night lighting, and waste management. A number of waste management companies were sourced to help clean up the cities, and to assist with preventing damage to the environment and the heritage sites (Amenumey & Amuquandoh, 2010:40). The following final subsection deals with the issue of noise disturbance.

#### **2.10.3.2.4 Noise disturbance**

Major sport events can also result in noise disturbance and pollution. According to Singh and Bisht (2015:132), noise means unwanted sound that exceeds the hearing capacity of the human ear. In relation to an event, noise pollution takes a variety of forms, including: audio speakers; loudspeakers; public transport; firecrackers; the chanting of priests at religious events; the bells of temples, and others. The authors concerned argue further that noise pollution can have severe effects, both physically and psychologically. People who are continuously exposed to noise often complain of hypertension, stress, hearing loss, and sleep disorders, among other ailments. As a result, for major sport events that are especially hosted outdoors, there is a strict need to apply guidelines to ensure the maximum noise levels that should be allowed at the boundary from the nearest private dwelling in the vicinity of the source of noise (Singh & Bisht, 2015:132).

Conclusively, major sport events can be positive for the environment, as they can lead to the urban regeneration of host cities in terms of sporting facilities, the upgrading of water and sewage services, and event-related transport improvements that continue to benefit the host population post-event (Collins et al., 2009:828; Smith, 2014:1921). Hence, long-term infrastructural improvements and planning have been strongly emphasised in the major sport and mega-event discourse as bringing about environmental improvements (Coalter & Taylor, 2008:13). In addition, major sport events are also seen to provide the opportunity for substantial demonstration effects, in terms of which actions, including sustainable ones, can be 'piloted', and their efficiency assessed for wider implementation than might otherwise have been possible (Collins et al., 2009:829). Eco-friendly staged events tend to result in the raising of environmental awareness levels, which should help to focus attention on the need to preserve elements both of the physical landscape and of the local heritage (Tichaawa, 2013:124). As a result, the main objective in terms of sustainable legacies related to the

environment entails that physical and natural resource impacts be minimised, waste be managed and pollution decreased. In addition, relevant authorities have to ensure that the carbon footprint be reduced and that green principles be promoted (e.g. environmentally-friendly event design and energy sources, water conservation and management and responsible tourism) (Bob & Swart, 2010:81).

## **2.11 Summary**

To conclude, major sport events play a very important role in the economic, social and environmental sectors of the host countries. Swart and Bob (2007:374) assert that sport and tourism are widely recognised as economic activities of paramount nature 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 transformation of both urban and rural communities. By hosting such sport events as the 2012 AFCON, Gabon, which never before had the opportunity to organise sport events of this scale, has gained the possibility of improving the quality of life of its communities, while attracting visitors to its regions, rejuvenating, or redeveloping, the urban and rural areas, enhancing its image (Swart & Bob, 2007:374), and creating new opportunities for potential investors (Preuss, 2006:313), through the construction and development of new infrastructure. Following on the 2012 AFCON will be the upcoming 2017 AFCON that the country will also host. The following chapter elaborates on the methodology that was used to conduct this study.

## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Introduction

Research methodology deals with the research methods that guide a research project (Dawson, 2009:14). This study has been undertaken for the main purpose of determining the tourism impacts of major sport events in developing countries. The focus is on Gabon, which is one of the many developing countries in Africa that has joined the race as far as the hosting of large-scale sporting events is concerned. The previous chapter reviewed the possible positive and negative impacts of the hosting of major sport events, while emphasising the importance of hosting such events. The growing international importance of football and its governance has lately been recognised in academic circles, resulting in the publication of a number of remarkable studies examining the role of the game in society worldwide (Darby, 2000:36).

The present chapter illustrates the processes that were used to conduct the research for this study. The research design (featuring use of the descriptive quantitative research method), as well as the methodology adopted for the study, is described in this chapter. The sample size, the sampling technique utilised in the study and the target population are discussed below. The study design and the sampling procedures are also explained. The chapter concludes by explaining how the data collected were captured and analysed.

#### 3.2 Research questions

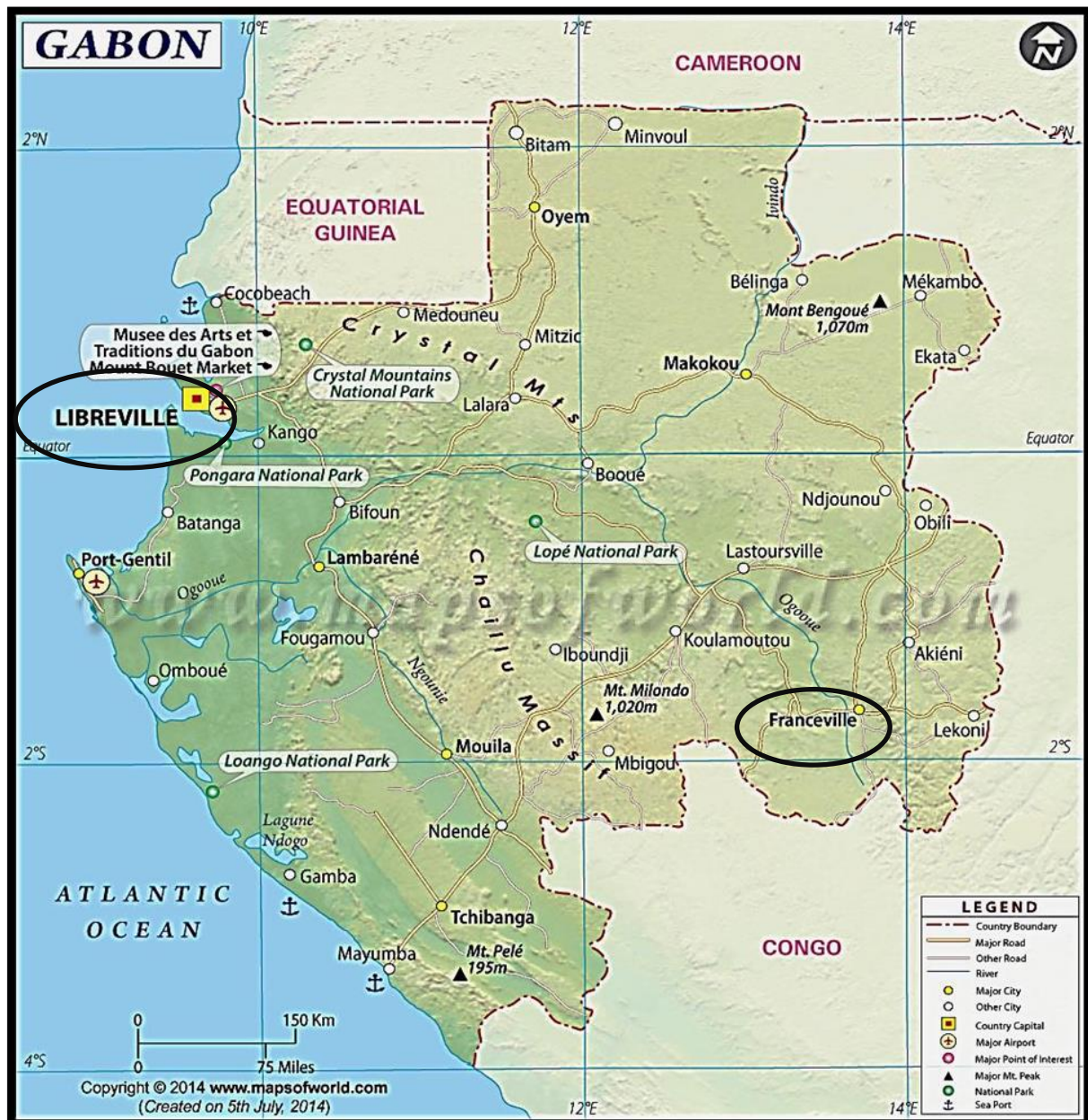
The current study was designed to address the following specific research questions:

- What was the demographic profile of sport tourists to the 2012 AFCON?
- What tourism impacts accrued to Gabon as co-host of the 2012 AFCON?
- What tourism impacts are likely to accrue to the future hosts of the AFCON 2017?
- In which tourism activities did sport tourists to the 2012 AFCON engage during their stay in Gabon?
- What were the sport tourists' behaviours at 2012 AFCON tournament?
- What were the sport tourists' perceptions of Gabon as a tourism destination?

#### 3.3 Background to the study

As was mentioned in Chapter One, the current study was conducted in two of Gabon's largest cities: Libreville and Franceville. Both cities played host to the 2012 AFCON.

**Gabon**, lying on the west coast of Africa, and astride the equator, is a former French colony that declared its independence in 1960. The country is surrounded by neighbouring countries such as Equatorial Guinea and Cameroon to the north, the DRC to the east and south, and the Atlantic Ocean to the west (see Figure 3.1). The ex-colony has kept and still has strong ties with the French country, France, its language and culture. Libreville is the capital city (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2016).



**Figure 3.1: Map of Gabon (Map of the World, 2015)**

As far as the AFCON is concerned, Gabon earned automatic entry to the 2012 AFCON as co-hosts of the tournament alongside Equatorial Guinea (Sky Sports, 2015). The tournament kicked off on 21 January, with it ending on 12 February (Goal, 2016). Gabon's national

football team, The Panthers, made its debut against Upper Volta (now Burkina Faso) in 1960, at the L'Amitié tournament for French-speaking countries. They lost the game 5-4 (Sky Sports, 2015). In 1967, Gabon missed out on qualifying for the 1968 Summer Olympics. The Panthers faced Guinea in a qualifier over two legs, which they lost 6-1 on aggregate (Sky Sports, 2015). Gabon's first AFCON qualifier was played against Ivory Coast in 1970. The sides battled it out for a spot at the 1972 tournament that was held in Ethiopia. The Panthers lost their legs 2-1 and 1-0 at home and away, respectively (Sky Sports, 2015). In addition, Gabon's best performance at the AFCON was a quarter-final appearance in 1996, after topping Group C ahead of Zaire and Liberia. In the quarter-finals, the Panthers lost 4-1 in terms of penalties to Tunisia, after extra time had proved unsuccessful in separating the two teams. The Panthers' previous appearances were in 1994, 2000, and 2010 (Sky Sports, 2015). Even though Gabon has participated in numerous AFCON tournaments, they had never before hosted the event. As was stated in Chapter One, the host cities included Franceville and Libreville, which are described below.

**Libreville**, the capital of Gabon, is the largest and the most important city (containing approximately 580 000 habitants) in the country. Libreville, which is located on the north of the Gabon Estuary, is built on a number of hills that combine to shelter the port. Part of the city consists of a plateau. Libreville, which faces the Atlantic Ocean, is the country's liveliest cosmopolitan centre (iExplore, 2016). It also serves as Como River's port, near the Gulf of Guinea, and as a trade centre for the timber region (Goal, 2016). Libreville contains many interesting and attractive sites, ranging from historic monuments to beautiful old buildings, and it has a number of nature trails leading to splendid beach areas. Tourist attractions include the Cathedral of St Michael, the majestic Palais Présidentiel, which was built in 1970 by the former president, and the Pointe Denis Beach, which is a nearby island fronting Libreville City, and which is very popular with the tourists. In addition, there are numerous adjacent beaches and other attractions such as the National Museum and the bustling Mount Bouet Market, the latter of which is the best bargaining shopping place in the city, are attractions to both young and old (iExplore, 2016).

**Franceville** is the third largest city in the country, with a population of around 43 000 people. Situated on the River Mpassa, it lies at the end of the Trans-Gabon Railway and the N3 road. The city developed from a village named **Masuku**, when Pierre Savorgnan de Brazza, in 1880, chose it as a site for the resettlement of former slaves, whereupon he renamed it 'Francheville' (meaning 'city of the freed' in French) (Gabon Real Estate , 2016). The city later came to be called Franceville. In addition to being the home of the Primate Medical Research Institute, the city is also the burial site of the late president Omar Bongo. In terms of infrastructure being one of the more developed cities in Gabon, with it featuring good

hotels and a hydroelectric plant that supplies the area with a continuous flow of electricity. Among its major highlights are Saint Hilaire's Church, the market, President Omar Bongo's statue, and numerous waterfalls, with the most scenic being the Poubara Falls, which is also the source of the city's energy supply (iExplore, 2016).

As part of the preparation for the 2012 AFCON tournament, the architectural jewel, the Amitié Sino-Gabonaise Stadium (see Figure 3.2), which is capable of seating 40 000 people, was, as a gift from China to Gabon, designed and built in 22 months by Shanghai Construction. A massive arch over the main stand symbolises a bridge between the two geographically distanced countries. Its 320-meter span makes it the largest bridge in Africa (Ballong, 2011). The stadium hosted nine matches during the aforesaid tournament, including the final game and the closing ceremony (Ballong, 2011).



**Figure 3.2: Amitié Sino-gabonaise Stadium, Libreville (Skyscraper City, 2016).**

Renovation Stadium (see Figure 3.3), which was built in 2005, was rehabilitated and received a total makeover, boosting its capacity to 20 000 people (Oxford Business Group, 2012:113). It was designed by the Serbian manufacturer Amiga, while being owned by the Gabonese government, with the stadium being a 35 000-seater masterpiece (Goal, 2016). The stadium's stands, press box and changing rooms were replaced by 'spanking new' premises (LeGabon.org, 2012b). The stadium's inauguration was held in March 2010 (Goal, 2016). The stadium hosted seven games during the 2012 AFCON tournament, including most matches that were played in Group D, and one of the quarter-finals.



**Figure 3.3: Rénovation Stadium, Franceville (Archi Monde, 2016).**

### **3.4 Research design**

Welman and Kruger (2001:46) advocate that a research design is the plan according to which researchers obtain research participants (subjects) and collect the required information. A research design describes the handling of the participants in the study, with the aim to reach fitting conclusions about the research problem and questions involved (Welman & Kruger, 2001:46). Similarly, Leedy and Ormrod (2005) indicate that a research design aims to provide an overall structure of the processes and procedures that a researcher follows in order to collect and analyse data in terms of a particular study. According to Creswell (2014:31), research designs consist of the plans and the procedures that span the steps from the making of broad assumptions to the detailing of the methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation employed. They include three research types' methods, including qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method approaches that provide specific direction for the conducting of procedures (Creswell, 2014:41). Punch (2002:530) asserts that a research design, also known as the fundamental plan for a piece of empirical research, incorporates four main ideas (i.e. the strategy, the conceptual framework, details of who, or what, will be studied, and the procedures and tools that will be used to collect and analyse the empirical materials required).

Providing a relatively in-depth definition that corroborates that of Welman and Kruger; Saunders, Lewis and Thornwill (2012:159) define a research design as being the overall plan set to provide answers to research question(s). It is therefore it is imperative that research questions be clearly defined and expressed. The design should also contain clear and precised objectives that are derived from those research questions, and it should also state, name and identify the sources from which the data are intended to be collected. Similarly, Tredoux and Smith (2006:161) define a research design as a kind of cost–benefit



balancing exercise, stating that “it is a plan for a piece of research that is constructed to maximise the validity” of the study. Altinay and Paraskevas (2008:321) explain the concept of research design as describing the approaches, the strategies, and the data collection techniques to be used in carrying out a research study.

The current study made use of the quantitative research method to collect the data that were incorporated in the overall design. According to Creswell (2014:32), quantitative research deals with the testing of objective theories with the primary purpose of inspecting, exploring and investigating the relationship among variables. Such variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that the data that are numbered be analysed using statistical procedures. Similarly, Creswell (2003:153) states that quantitative research encompass the collection of data which will be used to quantify and subject information to statistical treatment, in order to support, or to refute, “alternate knowledge claims”. Creswell (2012:14) also asserts that quantitative research consist of the collection of data that is commonly and usually numeric in nature. The researcher therefore tends to use mathematical models as the methodology for data analysis. In addition, the researcher uses methods of inquiry to make certain of the appropriate alignment with statistical data collection methodology.

Aliaga and Gunderson (2000:4) describe the quantitative research method as consisting of an approach that explains phenomena by means of collecting numerical data that are analysed using methods strictly based on mathematics (in particular statistics). Babbie (2016:28) and Muijs (2010:2) state that methods of quantitative nature tend to emphasise the measurements of objectives, and the statistical, mathematical, or numerical analysis of collected data through questionnaires, polls and surveys, or through the manipulation of pre-existing statistical data by means of computational techniques. Quantitative research, which revolves on the gathering of numerical data, generalises them across groups of people, explaining a specific phenomenon. Harwell (2011:149) affirms that the aim of quantitative research methods is to optimise the objectivity, the generalisibility and the replicability of findings, since they are mostly concerned with prediction. One of the most essential and basic point of this approach is the expectation that a researcher will ignore his or her perceptions, biases, and experiences to make sure that objectivity be met when conducting a study and drawing conclusions and recommendations. Moreover, the main features of many quantitative studies also include the use of such instruments such as surveys or tests used to collect requisite data that are needed, and the reliance on the theory of probability to test statistical hypotheses equivalent to the research questions of interest. Methods of quantitative nature are also usually described as being deductive, theoretically meaning that

the inferences that are drawn from tests of statistical hypotheses will lead to the making of general inferences about a population's characteristics.

Broadly speaking, Leedy and Ormrod (2010:31) identify quantitative research as having three general classifications namely: descriptive, experimental and causal comparative. The current study made use of the descriptive research approach to determine the tourism impacts of the 2012 AFCON in Gabon (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:31). The following section deals with population and sample selection.

### **3.5 Population and sample selection**

A population consist of the total number of persons, organisations, events, case records, units, or other sampling units from which a research problem relies on (De Vos, Strydom, Fouché & Delport, 2005:160). Basically, a study's population constitute the whole category of subjects forming the focus of attention in terms of a certain and very specific research project (Veal, 2006:99). In addition, Dudovskiy (2016) defines sampling as the principle that identifies, states the conditions and steers the selection process of members of population with the aim to take part in a study and to contribute as sources of primary data. Additionally, the author utter that the sampling method choice determines the accuracy of the research findings made, as well as the reliability and the validity of the study as a whole, with it having huge consequences and implications for the entire quality of the study concerned.

As is illustrated in Table 3.1, the sample size in the current study was decided upon based on a table that was devised for determining how large a randomly chosen sample from a given finite population of  $n$  cases should be, such that the sample proportion  $p$  would fall within .05 of the population proportion, meaning  $p$  with a 95% level of confidence (Isaac & Micheal, 1981:193). As a result, the sample size was  $n=758$ , based on the combined capacity of Libreville and Franceville match venues (40 000 and 35000, comprising 75 000 in all). The questionnaires were split into two, with 380 being administered at the Libreville stadium, and 378 at the Franceville stadium. During the actual collection of the data, a total 850 questionnaire surveys were distributed, although only 609 of them were fully completed (with 416 being completed in Libreville, and 193 in Franceville). From 21 January to 12 February 2012, all 609 valid participants were surveyed, comprising a small set of soccer fans.

**Table 3.1: Questionnaire distribution**

<b>2012 AFCON host stadiums in Gabon</b>	<b>Venue capacity</b>	<b>Sample</b>	<b>Collected Sample</b>
Stade de L'Amitié Sin-Gabonaise (Libreville)	40 000	380	416
Stade Rénovation (Franceville)	35 000	378	193
Total	75 000	758	609

Additionally, spatially-based stratified sampling was used to collect the quantitative data required; by means of administering the survey questionnaires within the stadium precincts on match days. The use of such a sampling method enabled the study population to be split up into a number of homogenous, non-overlapping groups, called strata. According to Maree (2007:175), stratified sampling is a better sampling method to use than is simple random sampling, as the former method of sampling attempts to represent the study population more efficiently than does the latter.

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

A number of different methods can be used to collect the required data from a sample of respondents (Maree, 2007:156). In fact, Creswell (2009:104) advances that a research strategy can employ the use of one, or a combination of multiple, technique(s) of data collection, such as questionnaires, interviews and content analysis. However, as has already been stated, the current study made use of a quantitative approach to collect the data needed. The following subsections outline the nature of the different research instruments used in the study, as well as both the primary and secondary data collected for the study.

#### **3.6.1 Secondary data sources**

Secondary data sources form the backbone of any research design, as information regarding the research topic is found in them. Secondary data sources help researchers to direct their research appropriately, and to find the best possible way of addressing a research problem (Pellissier, 2007:32). According to Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005:91), secondary data are useful, not only for finding the appropriate information for solving a research problem, but also for gaining an improved understanding of, and for explaining, a research problem that might otherwise have been difficult to solve. In addition, Pellissier (2007:32) and Ghauri and Gronhaug (2005:91) state that one of the advantages of using secondary data is the significant amount of time and financial resources that can be saved thereby. However, care should be taken that the data gleaned from such sources match the requirements of the present study, and that they have not been collected for an opposing purpose, or under special circumstances that do not apply in the current study (Ghauri &

Gronhaug, 2005:91). Overall, data that are secondary in nature can also take the form of government financial records, official statistics, including all existing published or unpublished sources of information that are linked to the research being carried out (Veal, 2006:99).

The information that was collected from secondary data sources used for the current study was linked to the study, with its use facilitating the design of the questionnaire surveys evolved. The secondary data sources that were used in the present study included: academic books on tourism, sport events, and sport tourism; journal articles on the impacts of sport tourism and major sport events; published statistics; industry literature; newspaper articles; magazines; theses and dissertations; as well as Internet sites. The review of the relevant literature on Gabon and on the overview of the impacts of major sport events drawn from the above sources facilitated the formulation of appropriate questions for the interviews, and for the survey questionnaires that were administered to respondents during the 2012 AFCON tournament. The following subsection details the primary data sources that were used in the study.

### **3.6.2 Primary data sources**

Pellissier (2007:32) defines primary data as being data that have been entirely collected by the researcher concerned, for use in the project currently being researched. As also stated by Finn, Elliott-White and Walton (2000:49), primary data constitute the original data that are generated by means of the conducting of new research, and which make use of such techniques as interviews, surveys and observations. The researcher is ultimately, the initial, or the first, user of the data involved (Veal, 2006:98), as (s) he collects such data for analytical purposes (Burns & Burns, 2008:49). As was stated in Chapter One, the primary data sources that were involved in this current investigation included questionnaires that were designed to be administered face-to-face by trained interviewers to respondents attending soccer matches in the Libreville and Franceville stadium venues that were designated for use in the 2012 AFCON.

#### **3.6.2.1 Questionnaire surveys**

Surveys, which are the most common method of generating primary data, as Zikmund (2000:66) explains, require a high standard of systematic planning and implementation of the appropriate research. According to De Vos et al. (2005:166), the main goal of a questionnaire is to get and acquire facts and opinions about a certain phenomenon from those who have knowledge on the particular issue. Likewise, Kabacoff and Girden (2011:67) state that surveys are conducted to obtain information that is otherwise inaccessible.

According to Maree (2007:158), questionnaire surveys are an extremely important part of the research process, since they are used for the generation of original data, with different types of survey requiring different types of questionnaire. In designing a questionnaire, the researcher must be able to foresee the type of data that is likely to be generated by the questions asked, and the statistical techniques that he or she will use to analyse it.

The questionnaires that were used in the current study included both closed-ended and biographical questions. The closed-ended questions provided the respondents with a set of responses from which to choose one or more responses. Among the six types of closed questions identified by Bell (2005:138), the researcher felt it necessary to use only the list, category, grid, and scale questions. The listed questions used included dichotomous questions with two possible answers (yes/no), and multiple-choice questions with a minimum of five categories from which to choose. The category questions employed enabled the respondents to choose only one of the set categories, whereas the grid questions enabled the simultaneous provision of responses to two or more questions.

A Likert scale question was also used in the questionnaire, as was stated above. According to Maree (2007:167), the scale in question is the most widely used scale that provides an ordinal measure of the respondents' attitudes. The researcher used such questions firstly to identify the degree to which the respondents agreed or disagreed with different statements, with the assigning of values 1 to 5 to each category including a possibility for the respondents to express their neutrality on an issue. The five categories used consisted of the following: strongly disagree; disagree; neutral; agree; and strongly agree.

In addition, five other categories (very unimportant, unimportant, neutral, important, and very important) were used to determine the importance of the 2012 AFCON to domestic and foreign tourists. Such categories were also used to establish the importance of environmental considerations in their choice of accommodation during the 2012 AFCON.

Besides the above-mentioned 'agreement scale', the survey questionnaire also included a three-category scale which served to rate the general impressions/experiences of Gabon as being good, fair or poor by the tourists and visitors attending the 2012 AFCON.

Moreover, biographical questions were used to determine the profile of tourists/visitors to the 2012 AFCON. Interviewers conducted the interviews face-to-face, using the paper-and-pencil interview (PAPI) method. Use of the process also enabled any unclear questions to be clarified. An English cover letter detailing the purpose of the study was designed and attached to the questionnaire (Appendix D & E). In addition, since Gabon is a French-speaking country, the researcher had to translate all the questions asked into

French, so as to facilitate the obtaining of the required data from the respondents. Copies of the translated cover letter and questionnaire are attached to the current *dissertation* as Appendix F and G.

The questionnaire consisted of the following sections:

**Section 1:** The questions that were included in this section were aimed at determining the origin of the tourists interviewed, whether domestic or foreign (in terms of their country of residence), their primary reason for travel (whether holiday, business, VFR, etc.) and the extent to which the 2012 AFCON was important in their decision to travel to Gabon. The number of nights spent by tourist/visitors at the various venues was also investigated.

**Section 2:** The researcher sought, through this section, to identify whether the tourists/visitors to the 2012 AFCON had previously visited Gabon, and whether they had attended any previous AFCON (with their responses being obtained in response to yes/no questions regarding their previous attendance/visitation). The main purpose of the section was to determine whether the respondents were first-time, or returning, tourists.

**Section 3:** This section included questions that were aimed at determining the economic, social and environmental impacts of the 2012 AFCON in Gabon. The respondents were, accordingly, requested to provide their level of agreement concerning many aspects of the 2012 AFCON, including the cost of local goods and whether the levels of crime, traffic congestion and pollution had increased as a result of the event. The section was also concerned with the activities that were undertaken by respondents during their stay in Gabon, as well as the main sources of information that were used before their embarking on the travel involved. The perception of Gabon as a tourism destination by tourists was also investigated.

**Section 4:** This section dealt with questions regarding responsible tourism, in relation to which the respondents were asked to recall any of the responsible tourism tips that they had seen during the 2012 AFCON.

**Section 5:** This last section focused on the demographic profile of the tourists/visitors, with regards to their nationality, gender, age, level of education, and income earned after the deduction of taxes and social security.

### **3.6.3 Pilot study**

According to Maree (2007:155), it is extremely vital and essential to choose the correct design for a study as there are numerous different ways in which surveys can be conducted. In addition, Gray (2004:205) indicates that survey questionnaires should be tested on

respondents who are not part of the target population, with observations being made to understand where the questions to be asked are unclear.

Woken (2013:1) defines a pilot study as a 'pre-study' of the fuller study, consisting of a miniature version of the research project. As far as the current study is concerned, a pilot study was conducted before the actual investigation by two teams of students who were based in the territory concerned. The first team, which was based in Libreville, was composed of students from the (late President) Omar Bongo Ondimba University known as the l'Université Omar Bongo Ondimba (UOBO). The second team, which was located in Franceville, contained students from the Gabon University of Science, namely the l'Université des Sciences et Techniques de Masuku (USTM). Together with their teams, both of the tour leaders firstly administered questionnaires to different people to test whether the respondents could interpret the questions as envisaged by the researcher, and whether the response categories provided for the questions were, indeed, suitable (Maree, 2007:155). In addition, with the researcher's input, both teams ensured that the survey questionnaires were accurate, unambiguous, and simple to complete. The emphasis was mainly placed on ensuring that the procedures that had been chosen for the data collection were effective, suitable and reliable.

#### **3.6.4 Reliability and validity of the research instrument**

Measures of validity and reliability in research relate to the instruments (i.e. the questionnaires, the interviews, and the focus groups) that are used to collect the required data (De Vos et al., 2005).

According to Maree (2007:215), reliability consists of the ability and capacity of instrument to be repetitively and consistently measured. An instrument that is used at different times, or that is administered to different subjects from the same population, should provide the same findings. Similarly, Burns and Burns (2008:425) suggest that reliability could be described as the degree to which research findings would turn out same if the research were to be repeated in the near or later future , or with non similar sample of subjects (Veal, 2006:102). As a matter of fact the research findings stability and their uniformity, enables them to be replicated (Burns & Burns, 2008:425).

Validity, in contrast, constitutes the best available approximation either to the truth, or to the falseness, of a conclusion that is given (Burns & Burns, 2008:425). Saunders et al. (2012:59) define validity as the degree to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the exact meaning of the concept being considered. According to De Vos et al. (2005), it is the degree to which the measurement process measures the variable that it claims to measure.

In order to make sure and certain that the current study's finding would be valid and reliable, several steps were undertaken. Firstly, all collectors of data (i.e. fieldworkers) underwent a comprehensive and professional training session prior the period of data collection. This made sure that they were completely confident and familiar with the instrument, so that they would be able to respond appropriately to any questions asked by the participants. A pilot study was also conducted prior to the actual hosting of the 2012 AFCON, so as to circumvent the occurrence of common errors. The questionnaire was checked and edited by a professional language editor prior to the data collection period. Adjustments were made to some sensitive questions, such as to a question regarding the amount of income that was earned by the respondents.

The format of questionnaire surveys was adopted from previous sport tourism and mega-events studies dealing with the tourism impacts of major sport events and the perceptions of football fans. Lastly, based on the fact that Gabon is a French-speaking country, the questionnaire was translated into French, to allow respondents to fully understand the questions asked, and to facilitate the provision of accurate information. The surveys were, therefore, designed in both English and French.

### **3.6.5 Ethical considerations**

According to Bryman and Bell (2011:122), ethical issues out not to be ignored since they constitute a key element and a crucial part of the research process. As stated in Chapter one, there no need to get a written consent from possible participants. Interviewers, therefore obtain their verbal consent after informing them of all ethical considerations involved and making sure that they understood them. Prospective respondents then voluntarily agreed to be part of the survey as interviewers ensured that their anonymity and confidentiality would be respected. During the course of the survey no harm came or was done to any of the prospective participants. Additionally, permission to get more information pertaining to the research from relevant authorities (in French) was later granted to the researcher by Dr. Jean Leonard NGUEMA ONDO, Managing Director of Tourism in Gabon (Appendix B). A translated copy of the authorisation letter is provided as Appendix C This enabled the researcher to continue the study and use data obtained and any other data available related to tourism in Gabon.

### **3.6.6 Method of data analysis**

As mentioned previously, the current study adopted a quantitative approach to investigate the tourism impacts of the 2012 AFCON in Gabon. Muijs (2010:3) defines quantitative research as being reliable. The author emphasises the fact that quantitative research is well



suited to the testing of theories and hypotheses, while considering issues of cause and effect, using statistical techniques to interpret the data obtained. By use of this method, the researcher was not only able to provide reliable and objective data on the subject studied, but to test the different theories/hypotheses concerned, and to determine the relationships existing between the different variables.

In addition, the SPSS software, version 23, was used to analyse the quantitative data obtained in the study. Such software describes and summarises data, using descriptive statistics, tables, bar charts, and graphic presentations.

Finally, the unit of analysis considered in the study was foreign or domestic tourists aged over 18 years of age, and attending soccer matches in Libreville and Franceville stadium venues. The next subsection deals with the limitations of the study.

### **3.7 Summary**

This chapter has described the research methods, tools, procedures and techniques that were used to collect the data used in the study. The chapter provided definitions of several terms, including 'sampling', 'questionnaire survey', 'pilot study', and others. The chapter also explained how the study was conducted. A total of 609 questionnaire surveys were administered and fully completed (consisting of 416 in Libreville, and 193 in Franceville). The next chapter provides a description of the data obtained, and presents the results involved. The SPSS software, version 23, was used to analyse and to interpret the data collected. Included in the next chapter are the analysis and the discussion of the findings relating to the data collected.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **FINDINGS**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

Findings refer to the section whereby the results of a study are reported and analysed based on the chosen methodology that was used to conduct the particular study and collect the data (University of Southern California, 2017). The results are most of the time arranged and discussed following the order of the study's research questions. The objective being to provide elements of responses to the hypothesis raised by the research problem (National Foundation for Educational Research, 2017).

The present chapter presents, interprets, examines and discusses the results of the study which designed, tailored and purposed to uncover the tourism impacts that resulted from Gabon's hosting of the 2012 AFCON. The chapter combines and integrates the responses that were received in response to the survey questionnaires. The SPSS software, version 23, was used to analyse the quantitative data collected. Tables and figures are used to present the findings as clearly as possible. The discussion of the findings is based on the research objectives that were outlined in Chapter One.

#### **4.2 The sample used in the study**

As was stated in Chapters One and Three, the total sample size of the current study was of 609 (consisting of 416 in Libreville and 193 in Franceville) questionnaires that were administered to the visitors and fully completed during the tournament. The total sample was determined based on the combined capacity of Libreville and Franceville match venues (40 000 and 35000, in turn, amounting to 75000 in total). The results discussed in the following sections were gleaned from the 609 valid questionnaires completed.

#### **4.3 Demographic profile of the respondents**

This section discusses the key findings that were obtained in relation to the respondents' demographic profile with regards to their country of origin, their age, their level of education, and their monthly income.

##### **4.3.1 Country of origin**

Table 4.1 shows the results that were obtained concerning the respondents' country of origin. The majority of the respondents (64%) were Gabonese, which could mean that the locals were enthusiastic about the event, and that they showed an intense and eager interest therein. The percentage of locals was followed by the percentages of respondents coming

from: Mali (5.9%); Tunisia (5.6%); Ghana (3.6%); Cameroon and Niger (3.5% each); Conakry Guinea (2.6%); France (2.5%); Nigeria (1.3%); the Ivory Coast and Senegal (1.2%); Morocco and Italy (1%); Equatorial Guinea (0.7%); Botswana (0.5%); Algeria (0.3%); and Benin, Burkina Faso, China, the Congo, Japan, the DRC, Switzerland and Togo (0.2%).

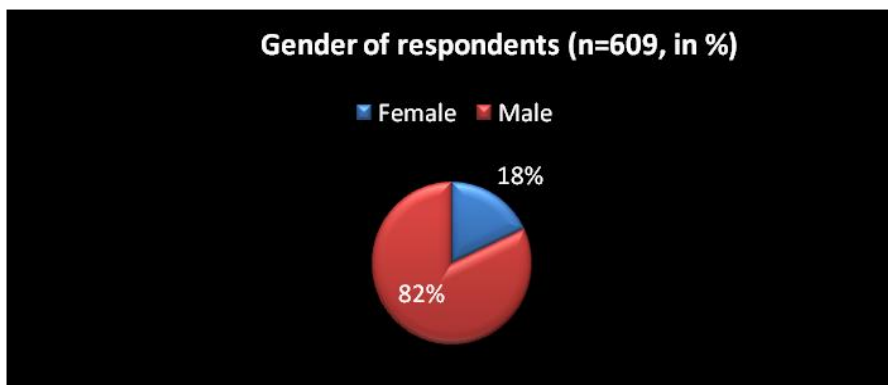
The results show that more than a third of the total percentage (36%) of respondents came from countries other than Gabon. The event seems to have made quite an impression on the respondents. The findings confirm, concur with, and corroborate those that have already been made in several studies that advance the idea that major sport events have the capacity to attract large crowds of national and international attendees and visitors to the host country, as well as to promote international interests and to ensure transnational significance (Roberts, 2004; Cornelissen, 2005:139; Ritchie et al., 2009; Kim & Walker, 2012:92; Mintel, 2014; Roberts, 2015:161; Kim, Kim, Park, Carroll, Yu & Na, 2016:1). According to Kim et al. (2015:21), this constitutes the main reason for major sport events being considered leverage opportunities for economic growth and urban development. The presence of large crowds of national and international visitors could result in great economic, social and environmental benefits for the host country, as tourists require, and use, the local facilities and amenities during their stay. Such use could result in short or long-term job creation for the local communities, as well as infrastructure upgrades and economic development, among other benefits (Kim et al., 2016:2).

**Table 4.1: Country of origin (n=609, in %)**

Country of origin	Total (%)
Gabon	64
Mali	5.9
Tunisia	5.6
Ghana	3.6
Cameroon	3.5
Niger	3.5
Conakry Guinea	2.6
France	2.5
Nigeria	1.3
Ivory Coast	1.2
Senegal	1.2
Morocco	1
Italy	1
Equatorial Guinea	0.7
Botswana	0.5
Algeria	0.3
Benin	0.2
Burkina Faso	0.2
China	0.2
Congo	0.2
Japan	0.2
Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC)	0.2
Switzerland	0.2
Togo	0.2

#### 4.3.2 Gender

Recently, many studies have compared the level of interest that is expressed in sport in terms of gender (Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End & Jacquemotte, 2000:220; Getz, 2003:58; Rubin, 2009:270). The focus has mainly been laid on women's interest in, and opportunities and motivation to attend, sport events (Deaner, Balish & Lombardo, 2016:73). As far as gender is concerned, Figure 4.1 shows that 82% of the respondents who attended soccer matches during the 2012 AFCON were men, whereas only 18% were found to be women.



**Figure 4.1: Gender of respondents (n=609, in %)**

In the past, sport was mostly associated with men, due to the nature and the characteristics of the games played, which seemed to appeal more to men's identity and character than to those of women (Smith & Stewart, 2007:166). Nowadays, women seem to have broken down some of these misconceptions, with them having come to consider themselves as sport fans to some extent (Correia & Esteves, 2007:577). The difference between male and female attraction to the game, however, resides in the motives and reasons concerned, which influence the percentage of attendance. Men are said to attend sport events for reasons of escape, entertainment, aesthetics and group affiliation, whereas women tend to attend sport events mostly for relationship or family reasons. The latter often accompany men to football tournaments and events, with the overall aim of engaging in other activities than the sport itself (Rubin, 2009:270). Nonetheless, the results confirm the findings made in the aforementioned studies, as the highest percentage of respondents to attend the 2012 AFCON tournament consisted of men. The tendency in relation to gender in this respect is similar in both developed and developing countries (Rubin, 2009:270).

### 4.3.3 Age

When the respondents were asked to indicate their age, they responded in line with the seven categories shown in Table 4.2. Based on the results that were obtained, the majority of the respondents (44.1%) were found to be between the ages of 21 and 30 years. After this age group came the group of those aged between 31 and 40 years (35.2%), with those between the ages of 41 and 50 years amounting to 13.1%, those between the ages of 51 and 60 years amounting to 3.1%, those between the ages of 18 and 20 years amounting to 2.2%, those under 18 years amounting to 1.4%, and those between the ages of 61 and 70 years amounting to 0.9%.

The results show that most of the respondents (81.5%) attending soccer matches were young (aged between 18 and 40 years). The findings were consistent with those of Smith

and Stewart (2007:165), who evoke that youth usually have an affiliation to sports that is way much stronger than older fans', whose motivation is more likely to be found in the arts. The average age of the respondents was found to be 32 years old.

In the context of the African continent, the findings are similar to those of Tichaawa (2013:175), who depicted the average age of respondents from Cameroon to be 32 years old (with the range stretching from 18 years to 71 years old), and from Nigeria to be 30 years old (with the range stretching from 18 years to 60 years old). The results are also similarly to those that were obtained by Nyikana (2013:78), who found that the average age of respondents from Nelson Mandela Bay / Port Elizabeth was 33 years old (with the range stretching from 20 to 70 years old). The findings described in the current section confirm that young people tend to show more interest in sport, and to be more enthusiastic about it, than do older people.

**Table 4.2: Age of respondents (n=609, in %)**

Age (in years)	Total (%)
<18	1.4
18-20	2.2
21-30	44.1
31-40	35.2
41-50	13.1
51-60	3.1
61-70	0.9

#### **4.3.4 Level of education**

As far as the level of education is concerned, Table 4.3 indicates the results obtained in terms of the respondents' educational qualifications. According to Kim and Chalip (2004), the level of education constitutes a push factor to travel and to attend sport events. Therefore, identifying the level of education in the current study was important, as it helped to confirm the accuracy, reliability and validity of the responses obtained, as well as the ability of respondents to understand and to evaluate the impacts of the 2012 AFCON. The results that are shown in Table 4.3 reveal that 49% of the respondents had attained postgraduate degrees, 20.2% had achieved undergraduate degrees, 12% had completed their secondary schooling, 9.1% held certificates and diplomas, and 8.2% had completed their primary schooling, while only 1.4% had no formal education.

The results are very interesting, as they show that the majority of the respondents had post-school educational qualifications. This indicates that the respondents' profile was one of

well-educated individuals who were aware of the impacts that were generated through the organisation of sport events. The respondents could be seen to be more than capable of providing accurate responses regarding the impacts of the 2012 AFCON, and of suggesting future improvements that could be made respecting the organisation of the coming 2017 AFCON.

**Table 4.3: Highest level of education attained (n=609, in %)**

Level of education	Total (%)
No formal education	1.4
Primary completed (7 yrs of schooling)	8.3
Secondary completed (>7 yrs of schooling)	12
Certificate/diploma	9.1
Undergraduate degree	20.2
Postgraduate degree	49

#### **4.3.5 Monthly household income of respondents**

According to Steward (2014:11), it is extremely important to establish the income levels of respondents, as they tend to influence spending behaviour, as well as to provide reasons for travel and/or for engaging in tourism activities. Income levels seem to have an impact on a population's way of life, as well as on their level of education and training, among other aspects of their being (Smith & Stewart, 2007:165). In the light of the above, the respondents were asked to provide details of their monthly household income in their local currency (i.e. CFA franc). Adjustments were made to this question to enable the respondents to provide the most accurate information possible regarding the total amount of monthly income earned. The results were converted into Rand, according to the average current rate exchange. Responses were split up into nine categories, as seen in Figure 4.2.

In terms of the findings, as revealed in Figure 4.2, a large percentage (31.1%) of the respondents was found to earn between 100 000 and 250 000 CFA franc (i.e. between R2500 and R6000) per month. Those earning less than 100 000 CFA franc (i.e. R2500) per month (20.7%) and those earning between 250 000 and 500 000 CFA franc (i.e. between R6000 and R12500) per month (20.7%) were equal in percentage. Those earning between 500 000 and 750 000 CFA franc (i.e. between R12 500 and R18500) per month made up 11.3% of the sample. A roughly equal split was also present between those earning between 750 000 and 1mn CFA franc (i.e. between R18 500 and R25 000) per month (6%) and those earning between 1m and 2.5m CFA franc (i.e. between R25 000 and R60 000) per month (6.9%). The above percentage of respondents was followed by those earning between 2.5m

and 5m CFA franc (i.e. between R60 000 and R120 000) per month (1.3%), and by those earning between 5m and 10m CFA franc (i.e. between R120 000 and R240 000) per month (1.8%). Those earning over 10mn (R240 000) per month made up 0.2% of the sample.

Overall, the average monthly income of the respondents was estimated to be 617 500 CFA franc (i.e. R16 836.65) in Libreville and 590 000 CFA franc (R16089.58) in Franceville. The total average income for both cities was estimated at 602 565 CFA franc (i.e. R16 441.45) per month. The results reveal that most of respondents to the 2012 AFCON belonged to Gabon’s lower social class (72.5%) while the middle (17.3%) and upper (10.2%) class made up the rest of the sample.

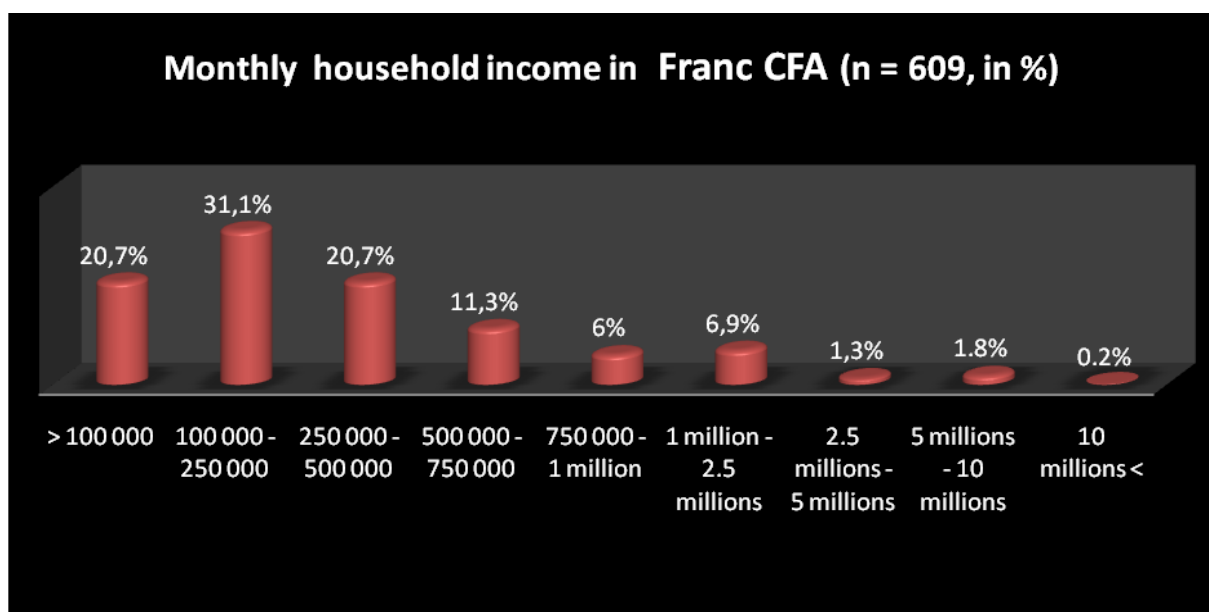


Figure 4.2: Monthly household income in CFA franc (n=609, in %)

#### 4.4 Previous visitation and attendance at an AFCON

Alvarez and Campo (2014:76) advocate that the decision to visit or revisit a destination due to exposure to an event is mostly influenced either by the event itself, involved perceptions, or by media based image on the destination. For instance, the past experiences of, and the behaviour regarding, a particular event can play a very important role in decision-making regarding travel to host destinations (Kaplanidou, 2009:249). Those who previously attended a sport event are likely to do it again, compared to those who never did (Kim and Chalip, 2004:696). This phenomena is related to the fact that first-time visitors are highly dependent on others for information about an event, and particularly about the destination, while repeat visitors or attendees depend on their past attendance of, or visits to, the destination or the event concerned (Taks, Chalip, Green, Kessenne & Martyn, 2009:126). In addition, Taks et



al. (2009:138) assert that visitors who are likely to consider returning to the destination are likely to be those who engage in tourism activities during their visit.

To identify first-time visitors to Gabon and the 2012 AFCON, the respondents were requested to provide answer to a series of yes/no questions linked to their previous visitation(s) to Gabon and participation(s) in a AFCON. The following subsections present the findings that were obtained in this respect.

#### 4.4.1 Previous attendance at an AFCON

As far as previous attendance at an AFCON was concerned, the respondents were asked to state whether they had already attended a AFCON tournament. To compare the number of locals and foreign respondents who had previously attended an AFCON, a cross-tabulation was done. According to the results that are reflected in Table 4.4, 80.76% of the respondents (i.e. 61.58% Gabonese in relation to 19.18% foreigners) indicated that they had never before attended a AFCON tournament. In contrast, 19.24% of the respondents (i.e. 2.42% Gabonese in relation to 16.82% foreigners) stated that they had previously attended the event. Based on the results obtained, the 2012 AFCON can be seen to have been an outstanding opportunity that enabled most (61.58%) of Gabonese football fans to attend a major sport event for the first time. The findings confirm that, in the case of a destination like Gabon, which has never before hosted a major sport event, the majority of first-time attendees are most likely to be locals, since almost all the foreign respondents had previously attended a AFCON. The results, which are very significant, clearly show that the vast majority of the respondents were first-time attendees ( $\rho$ -value = 0.000).

**Table 4.4: Previous attendance at an AFCON tournament ( $n=609$ , in %)**

Previous attendance		Citizen of Gabon	Foreigner to Gabon	Total (%)	$\rho$ -value
	Yes	2.42	16.82	19.24	0.000
	No	61.58	19.18	80.76	
	<b>Total (%)</b>	64	36	100	

The above-mentioned findings are very similar to those that were obtained in previous studies on major sport events, most notably Turco, Tichaawa, Moodley, Munien, Jaggarnath, Stofberg (2012:77) study, which suggests that an overwhelming majority of visitors to major sport events are, in general, first-time attendees. The results also imply that Gabon became exposed to a new potential tourist market, to international investors and to the media when it hosted the event.

#### 4.4.2 The number of prior AFCON tournaments attended

The respondents (both national and foreigners) who stated that they had previously attended an AFCON ( $n=113$  i.e 18.56% of the total sample) were asked, in a follow-up question, to indicate the number of AFCON that they had attended. The responses that are reflected in Table 4.5 reveal that a slight majority of the respondents (36.6%) had attended the event twice before, whereas 35.7% had attended it once before. The above-mentioned percentages of respondents were followed by: those who had attended the event three times (13.4%); those who had attended it eight times (4.4%); those who had attended it five times (2.7%); and those who had attended it six or seven times (1.8%). The results reveal that the majority of the visitors (72.3 %) had attended the event at least once before.

**Table 4.5: Number of prior AFCON tournaments attended ( $n=113$ , in %)**

Number of attendance	Total (%)
1	35.7
2	36.6
3	13.4
4	3.6
5	2.7
6	1.8
7	1.8
8	4.4

#### 4.4.3 Previous visits to Gabon

In this subsection, the foreign respondents ( $n=219$  i.e 36% of the total sample) were asked to indicate whether they had previously visited Gabon, regardless of the 2012 AFCON. The related findings revealed that 36.5% of the foreign visitors had visited Gabon before attending the 28th CAF event; whereas 63.5% stated that they had not. Based on the results, the 36.5% of foreign respondents who had visited Gabon previously could have mostly been from such neighbouring countries as Cameroon, Mali, the Congo, and Senegal. As far as the 63.5% of foreign respondents who had not visited Gabon before is concerned, the results confirm that the event exposed Gabon to potential new visitors.

#### 4.4.4 Number of previous visits to Gabon

The respondents who affirmed that they had previously visited Gabon ( $n=73$  i.e 11.99% of the total sample), regardless of the event, were asked in a follow-up question to specify the number of prior visits that they had made to the country. Table 4.6 indicates that the majority

of the respondents (68.4%) declared being in Gabon once or twice before; followed by those who had visited the country three times before (21.5%); those who had visited the country four times before (4.6%) and those who had visited the city twelve times before (1.9%). Those who had visited the country either five or seven times before made up 1.8% of the sample. The results show that Gabon not only has the potential to attract visitors, but that it also has the potential to retain them.

**Table 4.6: Number of previous visits to Gabon – foreign visitors only (n=73, in %)**

Number of visits	Total (%)
1	31.4
2	37
3	21.5
4	4.6
5	1.8
7	1.8
12	1.9

#### **4.4.5 Previous visits to Libreville**

The foreign respondents (n=219 i.e 36% of the total sample), as well as the national respondents residing in towns apart from Libreville (n=102 i.e 16.75% of the total sample), were asked to indicate whether they had ever before visited Libreville, regardless of the 28th CAF tournament. The findings contained in Table 4.7 reveal that 54.06% of the respondents (i.e. 22.81% nationals in relation to 31.25% foreigners) had visited Libreville before participating in the 2012 AFCON, whereas 45.94% (i.e. 9.06% nationals in relation to 36.88% foreigners) had not. Such results confirm Gabon's potential to retain first-time visitors, especially foreign ones. The results also reveal a demand for domestic tourism. The Gabonese government should, therefore, strive to increase the amount of tourism development, especially since domestic tourism, as a sector, looks highly promising.

**Table 4.7: Previous visits to Libreville (n=321, in %)**

Previous visits		Citizen of Gabon	Foreigner to Gabon	Total
	Yes	22.81	31.25	54.06
	No	9.06	36.88	45.94
Total		31.87	68.13	100

#### 4.4.6 Number of previous visits made to Libreville

In follow-up responses, the respondents who had previously visited Libreville ( $n=173$ ), regardless of the 2012 AFCON, specified the number of prior visits that they had made to the city. As per Table 4.8, 34.8% of the respondents stated that they had visited Libreville once before. They were followed by: those who had visited Libreville twice before (26.1%); those who had visited Libreville thrice before (17.4%); those who had visited Libreville four or six times before (6.5%, respectively); those who had visited Libreville five times before (4.3%); those who had visited Libreville fifteen times before (2.2%); and those who had visited Libreville forty times before (2.2%).

**Table 4.8: Number of previous visits made to Libreville (n=173, in %)**

Number of visits	Total (%)
1	34.8
2	26.1
3	17.4
4	6.5
5	4.3
6	6.5
15	2.2
40	2.2

Once again, the above-mentioned results are consistent with the results shown in Tables 4.7 and 4.6. The findings confirm that Gabon can retain its visitors, since the number of repeat visits to the capital city was quite high. The results also imply that there is clear potential for both domestic and international tourism.

#### 4.4.7 Previous visits made to Franceville

As far as Franceville was concerned, the foreign respondents ( $n=219$  i.e 36% of the total sample), as well as the national respondents residing in Libreville and other towns apart from Franceville ( $n=289$ ), were asked to indicate whether they had ever previously visited the city

in question, regardless of the 2012 AFCON. The findings that are reflected in Table 4.9 highlight that 39.83% of the respondents (i.e. 17.63% nationals in relation to 22.20% foreigners) had visited Franceville before the 2012 AFCON, whereas those who had not previously visited Franceville made up 60.17% of the sample (i.e. 22.50% nationals in comparison to 59.87% foreigners).

**Table 4.9: Previous visits to Franceville (n=507, in %)**

Previous visits		Citizen of Gabon	Foreigner to Gabon	Total (%)
	Yes	17.63	22.20	39.83
	No	22.50	37.67	60.17
<b>Total (%)</b>		40.13	59.87	100

#### **4.4.8 Number of previous visits made to Franceville**

In their follow-up responses, those respondents who had stated that they had previously visited Franceville (n=213), regardless of the 2012 AFCON, also specified the number of prior visits that they had made to Franceville. According to Table 4.10 on the next page, 33.1% of the respondents had visited Franceville once before. This percentage was followed by: those who had visited Franceville twice before (30.3%); those who had visited Franceville thrice before (11%); those who had visited Franceville four times before (4.1%); those who had visited Franceville either five or six times before (2.1%); those who had visited Franceville seven times before (2.8%), those who had visited Franceville eight times before (0.7%); those who had visited Franceville ten times before (11%); those who had visited Franceville twelve times before (2.1%); and those who had visited Franceville forty times before (0.7%).

**Table 4.10: Number of previous visits made to Franceville (n=213, in %)**

Number of visits	Total (%)
1	33.1
2	30.3
3	11
4	4.1
5	2.1
6	2.1
7	2.8
8	0.7
10	11
12	2.1
40	0.7

In conclusion, the results show quite a large number (up to 40 times) of repeat visits to both Libreville and Franceville, with most of the respondents having visited both cities at least twice before attending the 28<sup>th</sup> CAF event. The results found corroborate those revealed in Tables 4.8 and Table 4.9, which confirm that there is a demand for domestic and international tourism in Gabon, despite there being numerous reasons for the travel involved. The Gabonese government should definitely invest more resources than at present in the development of the sport tourism sector, which constitutes a very promising tool that could enable the country to increase its GDP, and to improve its citizens' quality of life.

#### **4.5 Visitors' information**

This section provides in-depth information on the visiting attendees to the 2012 AFCON.

##### **4.5.1 Number of tickets bought per respondent**

The respondents were asked to specify the number of tickets that they had personally obtained for the 2012 AFCON. Table 4.11 shows that the respondents in Franceville had, on average, bought 3.63 tickets (i.e. 1.33 tickets for soccer matches taking place in Libreville, and 2.29 tickets for matches taking place in Franceville). The respondents in Libreville had, on average, bought 2.21 tickets (i.e. 2.10 tickets for soccer matches taking place in Libreville, and 0.08 tickets for matches taking place in Franceville).

**Table 4.11: Number of tickets bought per respondent / host city (n=609, in %)**

Study areas		Number of tickets per respondent	Number of tickets for Libreville	Number of tickets for Franceville
Franceville	N	192	192	192
	Mean	<b>3.63</b>	<b>1.33</b>	<b>2.29</b>
	Std deviation	1.470	1.477	1.028
Libreville	N	390	385	385
	Mean	<b>2.21</b>	<b>2.10</b>	<b>0.08</b>
	Std deviation	1.717	1.666	0.305
Total (%)	N	582	577	577
	Mean	<b>2.68</b>	<b>1.85</b>	<b>0.81</b>
	Std deviation	1.769	1.645	1.226

The above results reveal that the respondents from Libreville had not bought many tickets for matches taking place in Franceville. The respondents in Franceville, in contrast, had, in general, bought several tickets for matches taking place in Libreville. The discrepancy can be explained by the fact that more matches were scheduled to take place in Libreville, especially those in which the Gabonese national team took part, as can be seen in Tables 12 and 13 (Barclay, 2012:86).

**Table 4.12: Complete match details for the 2012 AFCON, in terms of the Stade d'Angondjé, Libreville, Gabon, with a capacity of 40 000 (Barclay, 2012:86)**

Date	Group / Competition stage	Matches played
23 January 2012	Group C	Gabon vs Niger
23 January 2012	Group C	Morocco vs Tunisia
27 January 2012	Group C	Niger vs Tunisia
27 January 2012	Group C	Gabon vs Morocco
31 January 2012	Group D	Niger vs Morocco
01 February 2012	Group C	Botswana vs Mali
05 February 2012	Quarter-final	Gabon vs Mali
08 February 2012	Semi-final	Mali vs Ivory Coast
12 February 2012	Final	Zambia vs Ivory Coast

**Table 4.13: Complete match details for the 2012 CAN, in terms of the Stade de Franceville, Gabon, with a capacity of 35 000 (Barclay, 2012:86)**

<b>Date</b>	<b>Group / Competition stage</b>	<b>Matches played</b>
24 January 2012	Group D	Ghana vs Botswana
24 January 2012	Group D	Mali vs Guinea
28 January 2012	Group D	Botswana vs Guinea
28 January 2012	Group D	Ghana vs Mali
31 January 2012	Group C	Gabon vs Tunisia
01 February 2012	Group D	Ghana vs Guinea
05 February 2012	Quarter-final	Ghana vs Tunisia

#### **4.5.2 Number of overnight stays per city**

The respondents were asked to indicate the total number of nights that they were spending during the 2012 AFCON, either in Gabon (foreign visitors), or in other host cities (domestic tourists). They also had to specify the type of accommodation used.

The findings in **Appendix A** reveal that the respondents from Franceville spent a similar number of nights in 4 to 5-star hotels in Franceville and Libreville (8.57 in the former, in relation to 6.00 nights in the latter) and in private accommodation (friends/family) in Franceville and Libreville (6.33 in the former, in relation to 5.45 nights in the latter).

The respondents, in contrast, spent more nights in 1 to 3-star hotels (7.00 nights, on average) and in their car, or camping (6.00 nights, on average) in Libreville, compared to in Franceville, where they, on average, spent 4.08 nights in 1 to 3 star-hotels and 3.06 nights in their car, or camping. In addition, the respondents tended to take 2.67 day trips to Franceville, no day trip to Libreville, and 1 day trip to other cities.

The respondents from Libreville generally spent a large number of nights in a private room/flat/house rental in Libreville (21.67 nights, on average). They tended to spend quite a large number of nights in 4 to 5-star hotels in Libreville (14.46 nights, on average) compared to in Franceville (1.40 nights, on average). Similarly, the respondents also reported spending a large number of nights in 1 to 3-star hotels in Libreville (10.85 nights, on average) compared to in Franceville (4.50 nights, on average).

Contrary to the respondents from Franceville who spent some nights in all types of accommodation in Libreville, the respondents from Libreville tended to spend no nights either in their car/camping, or in a private room/flat/house rental in Franceville. No day trips



were taken in Libreville, or to other cities. The respondents, however, reported taking more day trips to Franceville (a 3.33 day trip, on average). As far as the number of day trips is concerned, the results imply that those respondents who took a day trip to Franceville might have been from Libreville, or from other cities, with them only happening to fill in the questionnaire in Franceville. The results reveal that small businesses in the tourism accommodation sector tended to benefit from the hosting of the event, especially in Libreville. The results imply that other business companies in the tourism industry, such as restaurants, attractions, car rentals, tour operators, and travel agencies also were likely to have benefited from the event. The above-mentioned benefits also affected local families in terms of the amount of revenue that was generated by the tourists.

#### **4.6 Tourism activities engaged in by sport tourists in Gabon**

According to Allmers and Maennig (2009:500), such major sport events as the 2012 AFCON can boost tourism and related activities for the host nation. Accordingly, the respondents were required to assess the city in terms of existing tourism activities. The respondents were allowed to choose more than one response to the question concerned. When they were asked as to the activities in which they had engaged, or in which they intended to engage during the event, most of the respondents noted (Table 4.14): social (VFR) (46.7%); the visiting of natural attractions (38.2%); beach (35.7%); shopping (33.3%); nightlife (28.9%); and trading (28%). Other notable responses included business (23.1%); theme parks/wildlife (21.2%); cultural heritage (21%); adventure (18%); health (17%); and food and wine (13%).

**Table 4.14: Activities participated, by sport tourists, while in Gabon during the 2012 AFCON (n=609, in %) – multiple responses permitted**

<b>Activities</b>	<b>Total (%)</b>
Shopping	33.3
Trading	28
Visiting natural attractions	38.2
Health	17
Nightlife	28.9
Theme parks/wildlife	21.2
Business	23.1
Social (VFR)	46.7
Beach	35.7
Food & wine	13
Cultural heritage	21
Adventure	18
Others	1.5

Based on the results on Table 4.14, VFRs was the most popular activity undertaken by sport tourists to the 2012 AFCON. According to Scott and Turco (2007:42), VFRs is one of the most powerful pull factors affecting sport tourists' decision-making processes. Sport tourists engaging in this activity also tend to participate in other types of tourism activities, to stay longer in the host city, and to spend more than do sport tourists, whose main purpose in the visit is attending the event itself (Rinaldi, Sanders & Sibson, 2013:41).

The results confirm the report made by the Official Portal of the Gabonese Republic (2012) that states that VFRs is among the top tourist activities in the country, followed by the visiting of such natural attractions as Pointe Denis, Ekwata, Sette Cama, and la Lopé (LeGabon.org, 2016). The findings revealed in this section confirm that Gabon has potential for many niches of tourism, including domestic tourism, ecotourism, beach tourism, and cultural tourism.

#### **4.7 Main sources of information used by respondents before travelling to Gabon (foreign visitors)**

This section discusses the results regarding the sources of information used by foreign respondents before their departure to Gabon with the aim of attending the 2012 AFCON. Table 4.15 is a representation of the findings that were made in relation to the foremost sources of information used by the respondents concerned, prior to their arrival in Gabon.

According to the results obtained, the most dominant sources of information to emerge from the findings were: TV (43.8%); the Internet (35%); newspapers (31.7%); the radio (28.1%); and magazines (21.5%). Such sources were followed by: friends or relatives who had visited Gabon, or who were residents in the country (14.4%); social media platforms (10.5%); previous visits (8.9%); work-related/professional colleagues (7.4%); travel guides (3.4%); and others (0.7%).

The findings above concur with Horne's study, as cited in Smith and Stewart (2007:155), which suggests that sport tourists tend to: watch broadcasts on live television; listen to commentaries on the radio; read daily newspapers sports' pages; dial into sport websites; purchase merchandise that are sport-branded; and travel largely and considerably to attend events. The sources are among the most influential sources of information that are used to market destinations generally. They are used by governments worldwide to attract tourists and new investment, with the aim to develop such infrastructure as transportation, telecommunications, housing, or even sport, as well as facilities for entertainment. They are also used to attain and reach such intangible ends as: extra cultural benefits; an improved

image; the strengthening of networks, the deepening of know-how; emotional commitment; and an identity enhancement (Preuss, 2006:313).

**Table 4.15: The main sources of information on the destination used prior to departure to Gabon (*n*=219, in %) – multiple responses permitted**

<b>Main sources</b>	<b>Total (<i>n</i>=219)</b>
Television	43.8
Radio	28.1
Magazines	21.5
Newspapers	31.7
Internet	35.0
Social media platforms	10.5
Travel guides	3.4
Previous visits	8.9
Work related/professional colleagues	7.4
Friends or relatives who have visited Gabon or are residents	14.4
Others	0.7

#### **4.8 Mode of transport during the 2012 AFCON**

The respondents were asked to indicate the main mode of transport that they used to attend the scheduled soccer games during the event. Table 4.16 presents the findings that were obtained in this respect.

The findings were to have been expected, with the majority of respondents being found to make their way to different stadiums using different forms of public transport (with 62.2% making use of buses, and 21.5% making use of taxis). The respondents involved were followed by those respondents who owned a personal automobile (16.3%), those who walked (12.3%), and those who rented a car (11.3%). Only 0.9% of the respondents chose other means of transport. The results here imply that the hosting of the event did not much increase the already existing pollution levels, especially in regard to air pollution, since most of the respondents made use of public transportation, which is relatively easy on the environment.

**Table 4.16: The main mode of transport used to reach the 2012 AFCON matches from place of accommodation (n=609, in %) – multiple responses permitted**

<b>Mode of transport</b>	<b>Total (%)</b>
Personal automobile	16.3
Motor coach/bus	62.2
Rental car	11.3
Walked	12.3
Taxi	21.5
Other (specify)	0.9

#### **4.9 Motives for visiting Gabon**

As stated by Jones (2008:163), major sport events tend to attract a combinations of different visitors, ranging from those who come for specific reasons related to event, through those who attend as companion or escort to such events related festivities, to those who come for other prime reasons, with the event only being in second place in terms of their motives. According to Fairley (2009:205), sport fans groups repeatedly and continuously travel to multiple destinations to watch their favourite professional sport teams play. Beerli and Martin (2004:626) advocate that “motivation is the need that drives an individual to act in a certain way to achieve the desired satisfaction”. Yiamjanya and Wongleedee (2014:1348) indicate that push factors include such elements as: escape from everyday life routine; recreation, relaxation; enjoyment; exploration; relationship reinforcement; social interaction; and prestige. In contrast, pull factors can be classified into tangible and intangible cues (such as attractiveness and activities) that are available at a specific destination, and which serve to attract individuals who desire to realise their need for a particular travel experience (Plangmarn et al., 2012:1298).

In the current section, therefore, the present author desires to provide insight into the key reasons and factors that encouraged respondents to visit Gabon (in the case of foreign visitors), and Libreville/Franceville (in the case of domestic visitors).

##### **4.9.1 Importance of the 2012 AFCON in the decision to travel to Gabon (in the case of foreign visitors) / to the host city concerned (in the case of domestic visitors)**

The respondents were requested to indicate the importance of the 2012 AFCON in terms of their travelling decision to Gabon (in the case of foreign visitors) / the host city concerned (in the case of domestic visitors). The question was designed to be responded to using a 5-

point Likert scale, according to which responses were categorised to range from 1 = very unimportant to 5 = very important. Table 4.17 illustrates the findings that were obtained in this respect.

The majority of the respondents (83.2%) indicated that the 28<sup>th</sup> CAF event was very important in their decision to travel to Gabon. Of the respondents, 12.2% said that the event was very important in terms of their decision-making, whereas 1.9% of the respondents expressed their neutrality on the issue. In contrast, 2.7% of the respondents indicated that the event was unimportant, and that it did not influence their decision to visit Gabon. The results obtained therefore reveal that attending the event was, in general, the primary motive for travel concerned, since the majority (95.4%) of the respondents affirmed that they had travelled to Gabon, or had visited Libreville or Franceville, because of the 2012 AFCON.

**Table 4.17: The importance of the 2012 AFCON to the decision to travel to Gabon (in the case of foreign visitors) / this host city (in the case of domestic visitors) (n=609, in %)**

Level of agreement with statement	Total (%)
Very unimportant	1.7
Unimportant	1.0
Neutral	1.9
Important	12.2
Very important	83.2

Of the respondents who indicated that the 2012 AFCON was very unimportant (1.7%) or unimportant (1%) to their decision-making, or who were neutral (1.9%) about the influence of the event on their reason to travel to Gabon, a follow-up question was posed in order to determine their primary purpose of visit. Table 4.18 illustrates the findings that were made in this respect. According to the results obtained, 41.2% of the respondents indicated that they had come to the destination for other reasons. None of the reasons was specified. The respondents involved were followed by those who had come to the area for holiday purposes (29.4%), those who had taken the opportunity to visit friends and relatives (23.5%), and those who had come for business reasons (5.9%).

**Table 4.18: Primary reason for visiting Gabon (n=28, in %)**

<b>Reason</b>	<b>Total (%)</b>
Other (specify)	41.2
Holiday	29.4
Visiting friends/relatives	23.5
Business	5.9
Shopping	0
Health/medical	0

#### **4.9.2 Watching of match due to presence in the region at the time**

The respondents were asked to indicate whether they were watching the soccer game that they were attending at the time of the stadium because they were in the region at the time. The findings revealed that the minority (36%) of the respondents answered the question in the negative, while the majority (64%) answered positively. The results were consistent with the fact that many of the respondents came to attend the event. The results, therefore, confirm the results shown in Table 4.17, which reflects that the 2012 AFCON was of great importance to the respondents concerned. The results also imply that the respondents were, by and large, very enthusiastic about the event.

#### **4.9.3 Holiday's extension so as to be able to watch the match**

The respondents were asked to indicate whether they had extended their holiday to watch the match at the time of the interview. The results revealed that only 15% of the respondents responded affirmatively, with the overall majority (85%) indicating that they had not extended their holiday to see the match on the day of interview. Their purpose of visit was the particular match that they were attending at the time. Such findings support the previous findings, and again confirm that the event was extremely important and that it constituted the main reason for visiting Gabon (in the case of the foreign visitors) and the host cities (in the case of the domestic visitors).

#### **4.10 Perception of Gabon as a tourism destination**

According to Ramchandani et al. (2015:1), major sports events are broadly assumed to convey numerous economic, social, physical, and sporting outcomes to the local host communities. Therefore, Gursoy and Kendall (2006:618) assert the importance of measuring the potential impacts of sport events on the residents, and on how they might affect their quality of life. Similarly, Swart and Bob (2012:9) underscore the importance of

understanding, and of assessing, the impacts of major sport events. Moreover, Armbrrecht and Andersson (2016:111), advocate that measuring sport events impacts is a subject of significant academic and managerial interest. They should therefore both work as partner to ensure that future endeavors in event impact research be clearly mapped out.

This section of the *dissertation* provides a discussion of the findings that were made regarding the visitors' perceptions of Gabon as a tourism destination. The main purpose of this section is to present the visitors' views on issues surrounding the hosting of the event. Their views discussed include their overall levels of satisfaction regarding the hosting of the event, and the host destination's perceptions of the economic and sociocultural impacts of the event, as well as of the event's environmental impacts, in general. Cross examining such perceptions was crucial, since the 2012 AFCON was the first major sport event to be held in Gabon.

A 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the responses that were given to the statements that were made to them. Such statements were cautiously formulated and advanced for the respondents to indicate how they felt about each issue in turn, based on the measurement scale concerned. Tables 4.19 to 4.33 present the results that were obtained in this regard. In some instances, the results have been grouped ('strongly agree' with 'agree', and 'strongly disagree' with 'disagree'), so that a clear picture of the results, than would otherwise have been possible, be painted and drawn.

#### **4.10.1 Perceptions of social impacts**

Regarding the first statement, the responses to which are reflected in Table 4.19, the respondents were required to respond to the statement: "I feel confident that this event has been successfully hosted in Gabon". The main objective of the statement was to investigate the respondents' perceptions of Gabon's ability to host a sport event of the scale mentioned. The results presented show that 85.1% of the respondents agreed to strongly agreed that the event was successfully hosted by Gabon, while 8.3% were neutral on the statement, and 6.6% disagreed to strongly disagreed with it. The findings reveal that Gabon was perceived as successfully hosting the 2012 AFCON. This means that the 2012 AFCON had a positive impact on Gabon communities who were proud of the way their government managed and handled everything and all stakeholders involved to make a success of the event. In the process, Gabonese communities' quality of life was certainly impacted, with jobs being seen to be created for the locals, Gabon's image as a tourist destination having visibly improved, and most, if not all, sectors in tourism having received a boost from the country's hosting of the event.

In order to ensure the consistency and the reliability of the findings made, Cronbach's alpha was used. The findings, which were found to be significant and reliable ( $\alpha = 0.710$ ), confirmed the overall perception that Gabon had successfully hosted the 2012 AFCON.

**Table 4.19: I feel confident that Gabon successfully hosted the event (n=609, in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	1.5
Disagree	5.1
Neutral	8.3
Agree	38.
Strongly agree	47.1

Concerning the second statement, "I am satisfied with the level of service that I have received during the event", the respondents were asked to indicate whether they were satisfied with the level of service that they received during the event. At this point, it was felt necessary to investigate the levels of customer satisfaction obtained, because quality service is extremely important and dependent on such a feeling. Quality service also allows the host to provide a memorable experience that could result in the fostering of loyalty among consumers.

According to Taks et al. (2009:126), service excellence in sport tourism plays a very important role in terms of decision-making, when it comes to revisiting a destination. Similarly, Rajaratnam, Munikrishnan, Sharif and Nair, (2014:205) advocate that service quality is directly related to issues of customer satisfaction and loyalty. Such quality is a key factor in predicting levels of customer satisfaction and in increasing customer retention rates. As a result, it can, therefore, not be underestimated, as repeat visits are critical to tourism development (Han & Hyun, 2015:20).

The responses that are highlighted in Table 4.20 convey that 79.6% of the respondents were satisfied with the level of service that they had obtained, whereas 11.6% were neutral on the issue, and 8.8% were dissatisfied with the quality service that they had received. In terms of service quality, the results suggest that, during the event, the respondents had access to the match's venues; the service that was provided by the organising committee employees (e.g. the ushers and ticket takers) was excellent; and the service that was offered by other industries in the tourism sector, such as restaurants, attractions, and airports was also very good. In other words, the event was perceived as having been well organised, as can be seen in the results given in Table 4.19.



The reliability and consistency of the results was also measured using Cronbach's alpha. The findings were determined as being reliable ( $\alpha = 0.710$ ), and Gabon was perceived as providing quality service during the 2012 AFCON. There was, therefore, a high probability that the respondents would return to Gabon in the future, since, according to Greenwell, Dansey-Bussell and Shonk (2014:182), the quality of service that is delivered at an event is a determinant of whether the sport tourists concerned will be satisfied enough to return to the destination, so as to attend the same event in future. In the present instance, it can, therefore, be assumed that the satisfied sport tourists will return to Gabon for the 2017 AFCON.

**Table 4.20: I was satisfied with the level of service received during the event (n=609, in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	3.3
Disagree	5.5
Neutral	11.6
Agree	42.1
Strongly agree	37.5

The respondents were then asked to give their opinion regarding the statement: "I am more aware of tourism facilities in the area due to attending the event". Table 4.21 shows that the majority of the respondents (57.6%) stated that they had become more aware of the available tourism facilities because of attending the event, whereas 28.2% of them expressed their neutrality on the issue. In addition, 14.2% of the respondents indicated that they knew about tourism facilities in Gabon before attending the event. The results prove that the 2012 AFCON exposed Gabon's tourism product to the attendees, which bodes well for future visitation.

**Table 4.21: I became aware of tourism facilities in the area due to attending the event (n=609, in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	5.5
Disagree	8.7
Neutral	28.2
Agree	36.5
Strongly agree	21.1

As far as major sport events are concerned, issues of crime, safety and security constitute key concerns for the host cities involved (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2007:369). Donaldson and

Ferreira (2008:1) state that the issue is very important, due to the large number of prospective foreign visitors coming to a host country. In addition, George and Swart (2012:201), Perry, Chunderduth and Potgieter (2012:124), and Taylor and Toohey (2007:100) argue that security issues are a concern in the production of major sport events.

According to the United States Department of State's (OSAC's) 2015 report on the issue of crime in Gabon, the majority of crimes against foreigners take the form of non-violent confrontations that are characterised as crimes of opportunity, in which weapons of opportunity are used. Such crimes include muggings, pickpocketing, and theft of unattended possessions from primarily hotel rooms (US Department of State, 2015). The respondents were, accordingly, asked to indicate whether they thought that the 2012 AFCON had led to increased crime in the local area. According to Table 4.22, most of the respondents (66.8%) disagreed with the statement made in this regard, while 25.7% of them were neutral on the issue, and 7.5% agreed to strongly agreed with it. The results show that Gabon is perceived to be a relatively safe country. Such a perception is advantageous for Gabon, because, without stability and safety, it is impossible for tourism to increase, as the presence of a high level of crime would tend to tarnish the country's image, thus hindering both visitation and development.

**Table 4.22: The Africa Cup of Nations led to increased crime in the local area (n=609, in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	34.3
Disagree	32.5
Neutral	25.7
Agree	5.7
Strongly agree	1.8

Several studies have depicted the negative impacts of major sport events. According to many such authors as Barker (2004:175), Getz (2005), Guilianotti and Klauser (2010:51), and Ohmann et al. (2006:129), the main issues surrounding the negative impacts of sport events include crime, prostitution, displacement, overcrowding and congestion, environmental damage, and excessive spending (Gursoy, Kim & Uysal, 2004 :173; Kim et al., 2006; Kim & Petrick, 2005; Ohmann et al., 2006:129).

The respondents were asked to express their opinion regarding the statement: "The Africa Cup of Nations has NO significant negative social impact". According to the results that are reflected in Table 4.23, 50.2% of the respondents agreed to strongly agreed that the event

had no significant impact, while 14.8% were neutral on the issue, with those who disagreed to strongly disagreed with the statement representing 35.1% of the sample. According to the results obtained in this respect, one-third of the respondents affirmed that there was some form of significant negative impacts on the locals. This perception was perhaps the result of the fact that 7.5% of respondents, who as per Table 4.22, agreed to strongly agreed that event led to an increase of the level of crime. This probably means that some areas in the capital city (Libreville) or any other major city were affected to some extent. As a matter of fact Collins, Flynn, Munday and Roberts (2007:459) affirm that sport events of such nature as the 2012 AFCON can indeed result in an increase of the level of crime and prostitution. Additionally, respondents probably experienced noise pollution, overcrowding and traffic congestion during the event, because of the influx of tourists who had come to attend the event (Kim et al., 2015:23). It might, therefore, have been difficult for them to move around, especially during rush hour, when the locals were going to, or coming from, work. According to Saenz-de-Miera and Rosselló (2012:465), transportation is a crucial element of tourism sector for a destination, as it allows tourists to travel, and to visit attractions, during their stay. Therefore, the role of the government in such a matter is to take necessary precautions to ensure the security of locals and sport tourists and make sure that there is a smooth flow of people in the area concerned, so as to avoid the development of negative perceptions of the event. Otherwise, the result might ultimately be a decline in tourism, since the tourists involved might be tempted to look for alternative destinations.

**Table 4.23: The Africa Cup of Nations had NO significant negative social impacts (n=609, in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	9
Disagree	26.1
Neutral	14.8
Agree	22.7
Strongly agree	27.5

ATKearney (2005:3) contends that the prestige and competitive spirit that is related to the hosting of major sport events can leave behind a legacy of national pride and unity. In addition, sport events are well documented as having such positive, intangible impacts as ‘feel-good’ effects (Allmers & Maennig, 2009:500). The population of this study comprised both international and local visitors, who were asked to express their feelings and impressions regarding Gabon and its hosting of the 2012 AFCON. On one hand, the Gabonese were required to state whether they were proud that their country had finally secured the privilege to host a major event. On the other hand, the foreign visitors were

required to state whether attending the event had made them aware of other destinations than their own.

Table 4.24 on one hand, shows the responses that were directed at finding out whether the Gabonese attendees ( $n=390$  i.e 64% of the total sample) were proud that the event was hosted in Gabon. The majority of such respondents (91.9%) stated that they felt proud that Gabon had hosted the event. Only 6.3% were neutral on the issue, with 1.8% of the respondents not being proud of the fact. The results imply that the event resulted in an overall sense of great national pride, identity and unity among the Gabonese. For the first time, Gabon had the privilege of hosting the largest sporting event on the African continent, which brought about a sense of great pride and happiness among the locals. According to Heere, Walker, Gibson, Thapac and Geldenhuys (2013:451), the hosting of a major sport event can result in the development of a sense of national pride and identity, since sport, in itself, has the power to unite a nation. Taks et al. (2015:2), in contrast, state that the great majority of academic studies on the matter, including that of Heere et al. (2013), tend to focus on mega sport events. The results of the current study, however, demonstrate that major sport events also have the capacity to emphasise feelings of euphoria, and to enhance the sense of social pride and unity. They can also open the way to a new sense of dignity and accomplishment for some developing countries, like Gabon, which face numerous challenges, such as massive levels of corruption and poverty.

**Table 4.24: I was proud that Gabon was hosting this event ( $n=390$ , in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	1.3
Disagree	0.5
Neutral	6.3
Agree	30.2
Strongly agree	61.7

Table 4.25, on the other hand, depicts the role that the event played in foreign tourists' ( $n=219$  i.e 36% of the total sample) awareness of other destinations within Gabon. According to the results obtained, the majority (76.1%) of the respondents agreed to strongly agreed that the event played a very important role in their discovery of Gabon, while 11.1% were neutral on the statement, and 1.8% disagreed to strongly disagreed with it. Therefore, the 2012 AFCON could be seen to have been important in exposing Gabon to foreign visitors.

**Table 4.25: I became aware of other destinations in Gabon while attending the event (n=219, in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	7.2
Disagree	5.6
Neutral	11.1
Agree	37.8
Strongly agree	38.3

Moreover, the respondents were asked to indicate whether attending the event had helped them to be aware of, and to discover, other destinations in the rest of Africa. Most of the respondents (53.4%) stated that attending the event had caused them to be aware of other destinations, whereas 17.4% disagreed to strongly disagreed with the statement made in this regard. The neutrality of 29.2% of the respondents can, however, be seen as being quite important, as such a result could mean that the respondents concerned had visited several countries in Africa before, or that they had an overall knowledge of destinations on the African continent. Nonetheless, the findings in Tables 4.25 and 4.26 confirm that major sport events can help to advertise, to exhibit, to promote, and to market destinations to visitors, thereby raising the tourism resources' awareness at the particular destination (Nyikana, 2013:104). The following subsection reports on the results and the findings that were made regarding the economic perception of the 2012 AFCON.

**Table 4.26: I became aware of other African destinations because attending the event (n=609, in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	9.6
Disagree	7.8
Neutral	29.2
Agree	31
Strongly agree	22.4

#### **4.10.2 Perception of economic impacts**

According to Huang et al. (2014:1279), it is imperative to conduct economic impact studies, as they constitute one the most common and effective means of sport events impact assessment on host cities, regions, and countries (Baade & Matheson, 2004:344; Feddersen & Maennig, 2012:861; Saayman & Saayman, 2012:220). Since major sport events tend to attract a large crowd of national and international attendees, they are generally regarded as

leveraging opportunities for economic growth and urban (re)development (Kim & Walker, 2012:92; Ritchie et al., 2009:146; Konstantaki & Wickens, 2010:338). As was stated in Chapter Two, increased income and job opportunities, the minimising of inflation, and the enhancing of the status of under-represented cities and/or countries are considered salient outcomes of events (Konstantaki & Wickens, 2010:338; Homafar et al., 2011:35).

Considering the positive effects that related to the hosting of sport events, many countries, regions and cities around the globe set the hosting of sport events as a prime objective (Gratton, Shibli & Coleman, 2005:233), assigning plenteous funding to sport events attraction, or to the required facilities upgrade and improvement for such events (Üngüren et al., 2015:600; Dwyer, Forsyth & Spurr, 2005:351; Huang, Mao, Kim & Zhang, 2014:1277). Therefore, since economic impact studies of sport events have mostly been conducted for developed countries, it is crucial and imperative to conduct them, as well, for the developing countries, especially for those in Africa. This includes Gabon, which succeeded in hosting the 2012 AFCON, and which is currently succeeding in preparing to host the coming 2017 AFCON. The following discussion provides a general overview of the economic impacts of the 2012 AFCON.

In terms of the aforesaid event, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they felt that the event was good for the economy, and whether it created opportunities for jobs and employment. According to Table 4.27, 78.4% of the respondents confirmed that the 2012 AFCON was good for the Gabonese economy, and that it had helped to create new jobs and employment. Those who were neutral on the issue made up 11.6% of the sample, with those who disagreed to strongly disagreed with it making up 10% of the sample.

**Table 4.27: The 2012 AFCON created opportunities for jobs and employment (n=609, in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	4.8
Disagree	5.2
Neutral	11.6
Agree	42.4
Strongly agree	36

The above results corroborate the statistics of the Official Portal of the Gabonese Republic (2012), which indicates that 1400 jobs were created in various sectors, including communication, accommodation, catering, logistics, and security, as a result of the hosting of the event. Various other sectors of the economy also benefited from the hosting of the

event, notably the health sector, in which approximately 620 jobs were created (LeGabon.org, 2016). Overall, such findings support the conclusions drawn by Keyser (2009:320) and Saayman and Saayman (2012:220) that sport events have the capacity to create both short- and long-term jobs for locals, and to improve their way of life. Radicchi (2013:46) indicates that the hosting of sport event as an economic activity can foster growth and employment opportunities on a global scale, and contribute to the economic development and social integration of rural and mountain areas, coastal regions and islands, and peripheral and ultra-peripheral, or convergent, regions. According to Chalip et al. (2003:230), event organisers must ensure that their event adds value to the life of the community in which it is held. In the present instance, the results show that the 2012 AFCON did add value to Gabonese local communities.

Sport events not only bring about such positive impacts as visitor expenditure, additional employment, and responding in the economy. The events are also associated with negative impacts that affect the community (Üngüren et al., 2015:601). As a matter of fact, during sport events, every local commercial stakeholder wishes to make the maximum profit, since many visitors are likely to be in the country at the time of the event. According to Deccio and Baloglu (2002:47) and Saayman (2001:99), businesses tend to increase the price of their goods and services, due to the high levels of demand that they experience during sport events.

In terms of the above, the respondents were asked to provide their opinion on the following statement: “During the event period, the overall cost of living has increased”. According to the responses that are reflected in Table 4.28, 61.7% of the respondents agreed to strongly agreed with the statement, whereas 16.4% disagreed to strongly disagreed with it. The results show that the cost of living of the local communities increased due to the hosting of the event. The neutrality of 21.9% of the respondents on the issue might be the result of the respondents’ concerned living above the country’s average cost of living, and thus not being much affected by an increase in such costs.

**Table 4.28: The overall cost of living increased during the event period (n=609, in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	4.4
Disagree	12
Neutral	21.9
Agree	35.5
Strongly agree	26.2

In addition to the previous statement, the respondents were asked to indicate whether the 2012 AFCON had led to increases in the price of goods and transport which directly influenced the cost of living. The results in this respect, which are shown in Table 4.29, demonstrate that 61.5% of the respondents agreed to strongly agreed with the associated statement, whereas 24.5% were neutral on the issue, and 14% disagreed to strongly disagreed with it. The findings reveal that over half of the respondents saw themselves as bearing the financial burden of increased taxation and inflation during the event. According to Liu and Wilson (2014:22) and Liu (2016:80), inflation constitutes one of the highest negative impacts that can prevent sport tourists from attending events. The author in question, however, warns against making generalisations in this regard, as inflation has not shown itself to be a problem in relation to such events as the Tour de France 2007. Nonetheless, in this case, inflation was seen as a problem by the respondents, thus confirming that it is very important that the negative impacts of such an event should be addressed before the start of the coming 2017 AFCON.

**Table 4.29: The 2012 AFCON led to increases in the price of goods and transport (*n*=609, in %)**

<b>Level of agreement with the statement</b>	<b>Total (%)</b>
Strongly disagree	4.5
Disagree	9.5
Neutral	24.5
Agree	32.7
Strongly agree	28.8

The respondents were asked to indicate whether they had difficulty in purchasing goods and services from the local businesses. The results that are indicated in Table 4.30 indicate that 35% of the respondents stated that they had not had such difficulties. The amount of neutrality encountered regarding the statement was however similar to the percentage of people who disagreed with the statement (35% of the sample). Only 29.8% of the sample agreed with the statement and affirmed that they had difficulty purchasing goods and services from local businesses during the event.



**Table 4.30: During the 2012 AFCON, it was difficult to purchase goods and services from local businesses (n=609, in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	9.8
Disagree	25.2
Neutral	35.2
Agree	17.3
Strongly agree	12.5

Those who rejected the statement (29.8%) might indicate that it was difficult to purchase goods and services because there were insufficient small businesses situated in the close vicinity of the stadium to supply their needs and wants. This might have resulted in the respondents having to procure their supplies from alternative shops that were situated at a distance from the stadiums, or it might have resulted from them experiencing some kind of inconvenience (such as long queues) before being served. Nonetheless, the findings reveal that it was still relatively easy to obtain goods and services during the event. This finding confirms that the event was well organised, since the respondents did have access to some goods and services, even though the suppliers might have seemed to be insufficient. The Gabonese should, therefore, investigate the matter, so as to ensure that during the 2017 AFCON there is limited inconvenience, and, if possible, no inconvenience at all, for those visitors wishing to purchase goods and service from the locals. The following subsection reports on the responses and on the results regarding the environmental perceptions of the 2012 AFCON.

#### **4.10.3 Perceptions of the environmental impacts**

Major sport events not only impact on communities economically and socially, but also environmentally (Sallent, Palau & Guia, 2011:397). The fast growing interest that has been experienced worldwide in terms of the organising of sport events has mainly been driven by economical consequences that they are presumed to generate (Kim & Walker, 2015:91; Malfas et al., 2004:218). Events, however, do not tend to happen in isolation, for the simple reason that they are likely to affect every aspect of a community's life, whether at the social, economic, cultural, or environmental level (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006a:11).

As stated by Bohlmann and Van Heerden (2008:383), the hindrance of traffic flow constitutes one of the negative impacts of major sport events within the host city or destination. Accordingly, the respondents were asked to state their level of agreement in terms of the state of traffic in the local area during the 2012 AFCON. The findings obtained

in this respect, which are reflected in Table 4.31, show that 50% of the respondents agreed to strongly agreed that the event had caused traffic congestion in the local area, while 27.9% disagreed to strongly disagreed with the statement, and 22.1% were neutral on it. Conclusively, the event was found to lead to traffic congestion in the local area.

**Table 4.31: The hosting of the 2012 AFCON resulted in traffic congestion in the local area (n=609, in %)**

Level of agreement with the statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	11.4
Disagree	16.5
Neutral	22.1
Agree	30.1
Strongly agree	19.9

As was stated in Chapter Two, tourism is extremely dependent on the existence of natural resources and landscapes in such developing countries as Gabon (Sasidharana et al., 2002:166). According to Gössling (2002:283), Collins et al. (2009:828), and Otto and Heath (2009:169), the negative environmental impacts of major sport events have become one of the most contentious issues in the 21st century. In such terms, attention has mainly been placed on climate change, and on the enormous carbon footprints that are currently destroying the environment, mostly because of the amount of air traffic to and from an event (Collins et al., 2009:828; Pellegrino, Bam & Dutiro 2010:2). Gabon is one of the 11 countries in the Basin of Congo, which possesses the second largest tropical forest after the Amazon Basin, covering 250 million hectares. Close to 85% of Gabonese territory is full of naturally rich and diversified forests, including wide biodiversity, and 13 national parks (classified as protected areas), which constitute an enormous potential in terms of ecotourism development (African Development Bank Group, 2011:8). With regard to the above, the respondents were, consequently, asked to provide their level of agreement regarding the statement: "The Africa Cup of Nations has increased pollution in the local area".

The responses given in Table 4.32 reveal that 37% of the respondents rejected the statement, whereas 34% were neutral on the issue, and 29% agreed to strongly agreed with the statement. The percentage of neutrality expressed in this case was quite high, with it being almost similar to the percentage of respondents who rejected the statement. This means that the Gabonese government has perhaps, at least to some extent, been successful in dealing with the issue of pollution in the country, since only a third of the respondents affirmed that there had been an increase in terms of pollution because of the

event. As a matter of fact, local authorities in collaboration with the United National Development Programme (UNDP) and Gabon's Public Health Ministry's Hygiene Department, had implemented the shared urban solid waste management project which helped strengthen the national waste control programme a couple of years prior the 2012 AFCON (United National Development Programme, 2017). The results however show that there is room for improvement. The Gabonese government must therefore review policies created and measures implemented. They should regularly conduct environment impact assessments, make the necessary adjustments to ensure a healthy environment for locals and tourists visiting the country.

**Table 4.32: The Africa Cup of Nations led to an increase of pollution in the local area ( $n=609$ , in %)**

Level of agreement with statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	9.8
Disagree	27.2
Neutral	34
Agree	19.8
Strongly agree	9.2

Respondents were then asked to indicate whether the area around L'amitié Sino-Gabonaise Stadium had been degraded due to the hosting of the 2012 AFCON. The results from Table 4.33 show that a low percentage of the respondents (15.5%) confirmed the statement, and that those who chose to remain neutral on it made up 34% of the sample, leaving 50.5% who did not agree to strongly agreed with the statement. The findings confirm that the event might perhaps have led to some traffic congestion, but that it was not perceived as contributing to the destruction and the pollution of the local environment. The organisation of the 2012 AFCON was, therefore, adequate.

**Table 4.33: The environment in Angondjé/Libreville was degraded due to the hosting of the 2012 Africa Cup of Nations ( $n=609$ , in %)**

Level of agreement with statement	Total (%)
Strongly disagree	20.8
Disagree	29.7
Neutral	34.0
Agree	9.8
Strongly Agree	5.7

#### **4.11 Responsible tourism behaviour**

The purpose of this question was to verify whether Gabon was, indeed, striving towards increasing and enlarging the awareness of its population in terms of responsible tourism. The 2002 Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism defines responsible tourism as tourism “that creates better places for people to live in, and better places to visit” (City of Cape Town, 2002:3). The declaration further emphasises the nature of responsible tourism. The question arises as to whether responsible tourism is being promoted and practised in Gabon. In response, it can be categorically stated that the most important pillar of the country’s strategy for growth and development is ‘Green Gabon’. However, responsible tourism goes far beyond the point where tourists and locals have to remind themselves to act responsibly towards any environment or place in which they find themselves (City of Cape Town, 2002:3; City of Cape Town, 2011: 2).

The respondents were, accordingly, asked to indicate whether they had been informed of any responsible tourism tips for the 2012 AFCON during their visit to Gabon. The findings reveal that the great majority of the respondents (76%) had not been informed of such. Such lack of information is quite disturbing, especially in the light of the promotion of the “Green Gabon” principle of the maintenance of responsible and sustainable tourism. The fact that the majority of the respondents were not aware of the above gives cause for concern. The findings that were made in this respect challenge Gabon’s previous efforts to ensure that its population behaves responsibly towards the environment, in terms of preserving it for future generations. Clearly, there is still much work to be done in this regard. For instance, awareness campaigns must be undertaken, together with the effective use of posters, signage and advertising. The Gabonese government must, therefore, double its efforts to spread the message about the greening of Gabon prior to, and during, the 2017 AFCON. The government should not limit its efforts to the preparation and hosting of sport events, or to any other type of events for that matter, but it must ensure that responsible tourism becomes an everyday part of life for Gabonese people.

The respondents (34%) who indicated that they had been informed of responsible tourism tips for the 2012 AFCON during their visit to Gabon ( $n=146$ ) were asked a follow-up question, to indicate where they had seen, or been informed of, the tips. The respondents were permitted to choose more than one response from a list of responses. According to Table 4.34, most (67.3%) of the respondents indicated that they had seen the tips at their place of accommodation, with 39.3% stating that they had seen them at the tourism information centre, 36.4% at the stadiums, 29.9% at the tourism attractions, and 10.3% at other places. The findings once more highlight the need for increased efforts at raising the

awareness of the population in respect of such endeavours. The upcoming 2017 AFCON should be used as an opportunity for increasing such awareness.

**Table 4.34: Responsible tips seen (n=146, in %) – multiple responses permitted**

Item	Total (%)
Place of accommodation	67.3
Tourism attraction	29.9
Libreville stadium (L'amitié Sino-gabonaise stadium) / Franceville Stadium (Rénovation stadium)	36.4
Tourism information centre	39.3
Other (specify)	10.3

Additionally, those respondents who indicated that they had been informed of responsible tourism tips (n=146) were given a list of typical tips that were linked to responsible tourism. They were then asked to identify those of which they had been informed, with their responses being depicted in Table 4.35. The majority of the respondents (84.6%) identified the tip regarding the careful disposal of rubbish, and the recycling and reuse of items. In addition, the responses regarding the efficient use of electricity when not in the room were equally high (83.7%). The findings concur with those that are reflected in Table 4.35 regarding the place of accommodation. Of the respondents, 81.3% identified the tip regarding the spare and efficient use of water; with 79.7% of the respondents being advised of the need to make use of public transport; 71.5% identifying the tip relating to interaction with locals, and to the buying of local goods and services; 69.1% recognising the tip regarding the use of establishments utilising local services and products, and 50.4% having been made aware that they should donate to local charities, instead of giving money to street children. Only 2.4% of the respondents chose to identify other responsible tips. The results confirm that Gabon's government is striving to ensure that responsible tourism efforts are being made.

**Table 4.35: Responsible tourism tips recalled (n=146, in %) – multiple responses permitted**

Responsible tourism tips	Total (%)
Interact with locals, and buy local goods and services.	71.5
Use establishments that make use of local services and products.	69.1
Donate to local charities, instead of giving money to street children.	50.4
Use electricity efficiently, e.g. switch off lights and the TV when not in room.	83.7
Use water sparingly and efficiently, e.g. drink tap water.	81.3
Dispose of rubbish carefully, recycle and reuse.	84.6
Make use of public transport.	79.7
Other (specify)	2.4

Moreover, the respondents were asked to indicate the importance of environmental considerations in their choice of accommodation during the 2012 AFCON. In terms of such considerations, a 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the responses with respect to the following ratings: 'very unimportant'; 'unimportant'; 'neutral'; 'important'; and 'very important'. To facilitate understanding of the results obtained, the responses were grouped as follows: 'very unimportant' with 'unimportant', and 'important' with 'very important'. According to the findings that are presented in Table 4.36, the majority of the respondents (64.8%) confirmed that the environmental considerations were important to very important and crucial in their choice of accommodation during the event, while 19.9% of the respondents expressed their neutrality on the issue, and 15.3% stated that such considerations were not important to very important. The results show an increased awareness of environmentally friendly destinations, and the demand for environmental products.

**Table 4.36: Importance of environmental considerations when choosing accommodation for the 2012 AFCON (n=609)**

Level of agreement with statement	Total (%)
Very unimportant	7
Unimportant	8.3
Neutral	19.9
Important	26
Very important	38.8

Furthermore, the respondents were asked to rate Gabon in terms of their impressions or experiences of numerous issues based on a 3-point Likert scale question using ratings of 'good', 'fair' and 'poor'. Table 4.37 presents the findings that were obtained in this respect.

With regard to friendliness, a profuse majority of the respondents (84.9%) rated the country 'good', meaning that there is a high probability that the respondents concerned would be likely to revisit Gabon in the future. Of the respondents, 14.6% rated the degree of friendliness encountered 'fair', while 0.5% of responses rated it as being 'poor' implying that there is room for improvement. In terms of helpfulness, the findings revealed that a great number of the respondents (69.8%) felt that the country was reasonably good in this regard, while a conspicuous percentage (29.4%) rated it 'fair'. The respondents who rated the country 'poor' (0.8%) in this respect formed the minority of the sample. As far as transport was concerned, 38.4% of the respondents agreed that the Gabonese transport system was 'good'. However, a very high percentage of the respondents rated the country 'fair' (51.8%) in this regard, implying that the system concerned needs some improving. Only 9.8% of the respondents rated the system as 'poorly'. Concerning personal safety, the great majority

(84.1%) of the respondents rated the country 'good', with 14.4% rating it as fairly safe, and 1.5% rating the personal safety aspects as 'poor'. When combining the above results, a positive majority of 98.5% was found to have stated that the country was safe. Such support confirms the results reflected in Table 4.22 above that also indicated that Gabon was perceived to be a relatively safe country to visit, since only 1.5% of the respondents, in the present instance, rated it 'poor' in terms of personal safety. As far as the issue of cleanliness is concerned, the country received a positive boost with a rating of 'good' (30%) and 'fair' (59.7%), which, when combined, made for a positive majority rating of 89.7%. Only 10.3% of the respondents rated the country 'poor' in this regard. Such findings support and confirm the findings reflected in Table 4.33 regarding the pollution of the local area, due to the hosting of the AFCON. The findings also confirm those made in Table 4.36, which reflected that 84.6% of the respondents identified the tip regarding the careful disposal of rubbish, and the recycling and reuse of items. Even though there is still room for improvement in terms of educating the local communities on the issue of waste, the results show that a significant amount of work has already been done in this area by the government. With regards to the banking facilities within the country, the vast majority of respondents (73.2%) rated them 'good', while 24.5% of the respondents rated them 'fair', and 2.3% 'poor'. When they were asked to rate the entertainment aspect of Gabon, the majority of the respondents (57.1%) regarded it as 'good', with 37.8% regarding it as 'fair', whereas those who regarded it as 'poor' comprised 5.1% of the sample. Regarding the country being "value for money", there was a fairly equal split between those who rated the country 'good' (47.3%) in this respect, and those who rated it 'fair' (49%). Those who rated it as 'poor' in this regard comprised 3.7% of the sample. Finally, in terms of responsible tourism, 55% of the respondents regarded it as 'good', while 41.3% regarded it as 'fair', and 3.7% thought of it as 'poor'. Ultimately, the vast majority of the respondents (96.3%) agreed that Gabon is a responsible tourism destination.

**Table 4.37: Rating of general impressions/experiences of Gabon (n=609, in %)**

<b>General impressions/experiences</b>	<b>Good</b>	<b>Fair</b>	<b>Poor</b>
Friendliness	84.9	14.6	0.5
Helpfulness	69.8	29.4	0.8
Transport	38.4	51.8	9.8
Personal safety	84.1	14.4	1.5
Cleanliness	30	59.7	10.3
Banking	73.2	24.5	2.3
Entertainment	57.1	37.8	5.1
Value for money	47.3	49	3.7
Responsible tourism destination	55	41.3	3.7

#### 4.12 Recommending Gabon as a tourism destination to friends and relatives

Destinations are widely recognised as being products that are worthy of tourists' loyalty, including in respect of repeat visits to the particular destinations, and the making of recommendations to such other potential tourists as friends or family (Yoona & Uysal, 2005:48). According to Taks et al. (2009:129), visitors are more likely not only to return to a certain destination, but also to recommend that destination to friends, colleagues and family if they underwent an outstanding experience at a particular destination.

In the current study, the foreign visitors ( $n=219$  i.e 36% of the total sample) were asked to indicate whether they would advise friends, relatives or colleagues to visit Gabon. According to the findings shown in Table 4.38, 80.8% of the foreign respondents stated that they would definitely recommend Gabon as a tourism destination, with 15.5% of the respondents suggesting that they would possibly recommend Gabon as a tourism destination. Those who chose not to recommend Gabon to their friends, relatives and colleagues made up 3.7% of the sample. The results confirm the findings that were given in Table 4.21, which conveyed that the great majority of the respondents were satisfied with the level of service that they had received during the event.

**Table 4.38: Would you advise friends, relatives or colleagues to visit Gabon ( $n=219$  in %)?**

Responses	Total (%)
No, definitely not	3.7
Possibly	15.5
Yes	80.8
Total	100

#### 4.13 Intention to revisit Gabon (foreign visitors) / host city (domestic visitors)

The international visitors to Gabon ( $n=219$  i.e 36% of the total sample) were asked to indicate whether they planned to return to Gabon, regardless of the 2012 AFCON, during the following one or two years. Recommending the country as a tourism destination can be seen as different to a desire to return to the destination. The findings reflected in Table 4.39 reveal that most of the foreign respondents (46.7%) indicated that they would return to Gabon within the next year, while 44.3% stated that doing so was a possibility. Only 9% of the respondents stated that they would not return to Gabon within the next year.



**Table 4.39: Respondents likely to return to Gabon in the next year (n=219 in %)**

Responses	Total (%)
No, definitely not	9
Possibly	44.3
Yes, likely	46.7
Total	100

As far as returning within the next two years was concerned, 67.5% of the respondents affirmed that they would do so, whereas 9.65% stated that they would not, and 22.85% expressed their neutrality on the issue. The results were highly positive in this regard, and concurred with the results previously revealed in Tables 4.20 and 4.38. They also confirmed the findings of several studies on the subject of service quality, most notably which of Siddiqi (2011:3), who states that customer's satisfaction defines success.

**Table 4.40: Plan to revisit Gabon during the following two years (n=219 in %)**

Return visit to Gabon (foreigners only)			Total (%)
	Yes	% of Inhabitants	67.5
	No	% of Inhabitants	9.65
	Neutral	% of Inhabitants	22.85

All the findings revealed in tables 4.38 to 4.40 are extremely significant, as the satisfied tourists concerned were likely not only to recommend Gabon as a tourism destination, but also to return themselves to the country. This finding supports one of the major reasons for sports events being held in the first place, not only to attract tourists, but to, above all, retain them. Building on the basis of the 2012 AFCON, the Gabonese destination marketing organisation (DMO), Gabontour, must intensively promote and market Gabon as one of the best tourism destinations in central Africa. Gabontour should also establish networks and initiatives to improve the destination offer (Munar, 2012:102). This is an opportunity for Gabon to grasp, as its doing so will open the door to tourism development, especially since the country is already busy organising the 2017 AFCON.

#### **4.14 Summary**

This chapter presented the findings and the analysis of the tourism impacts of the 2012 CAF AFCON in Gabon. Tables and figures were used to reflect analysis of the data, and to raise associated implications. Key findings regarding the demographic profiles of respondents revealed that most of the respondents were Gabonese (64%). The majority of respondents were also men (82%) in possession of post-school educational qualifications. The average age of the respondents was 32 years old, with the average income for both cities being estimated at R602 565 CFA franc (R16 441.45) per month. The findings also revealed that most of the respondents were first-time attendees at the AFCON.

As far as the tourism impacts of the 2012 Africa Cup on Nations are concerned, the key findings revealed that 85.1% of the respondents agreed that the event was successfully hosted by Gabon. Of the respondents, 78.3% confirmed that the 2012 AFCON had been good for the Gabonese economy, because it had helped to create new jobs and employment for the local population. Half of the respondents reported that, as with any other major sport event, the 2012 AFCON caused traffic congestion in the local area, but it did not increase the existing levels of pollution. Most of the respondents engaged mainly in social tourism (in terms of VFR), and visited natural attractions during their stay. They mainly made use of such public transport as buses and taxis to attend the matches concerned.

Finally, in terms of general impressions, most of the respondents rated the country as a great tourism destination, asserting that they would recommend Gabon to relatives and friends, and that they would also definitely return to the country, as they had enjoyed their stay so much. The following and last chapter of this dissertation presents the recommendations and conclusions that were drawn from the findings of the investigation.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

#### 5.1 Introduction

As it was mentioned in the introductory chapter, the aim of this study was to investigate the tourism impacts of the 2012 AFCON in Gabon. In the previous chapters, the literature regarding the global impacts of major sport events was reviewed. The methodology that was used to guide the study was also presented, so as to show how the reliability and validity of the responses obtained was ensured. The research findings obtained from the analysed data gathered from the respondents for the purpose of the study were also presented and discussed.

The final chapter of the current dissertation summarises the present study, providing conclusions and recommendations in connection with the secondary and primary data that were collected while conducting the study. Future research directions and recommendations are also given, in order to assist with the planning and hosting of any future events to be hosted in Gabon, but most notably the 2017 AFCON. This chapter also addresses the limitations of the study.

#### 5.2 Objectives revisited

The results of the current study were examined and analysed according to the objectives outlined in the first chapter of the study. The specific objectives of this study were:

- To determine the profile of sport tourists to the 2012 AFCON.
- To determine the tourism impacts accrued to Gabon as co-host of the 2012 AFCON.
- To determine the tourism impacts likely to accrue to Gabon as future host of the AFCON 2017.
- To identify the different tourism activities engaged in by sport tourists attending the 2012 AFCON during their stay in Gabon.
- To assess the sport tourists' perceptions of the AFCON as a whole, with a particular focus on the 2012 AFCON tournament.
- To ascertain the perceptions of Gabon as a tourism destination, as seen by the sport tourists attending the 2012 AFCON.

The conclusions of the study are provided in the following subsections, based on the objectives listed.

### **5.2.1 Conclusion in terms of objective one**

With regards to the profile of the respondents, the study fulfilled objective one which aimed at determining the profile of sport tourists to the 2012 AFCON. Practically two-thirds of the total sample of respondents were Gabonese, as expected, seeing that the study was based in Gabon. The remaining third was composed of foreign visitors coming mostly from other African countries (Mali, Tunisia, Ghana, Cameroon, Niger, Ivory Coast, Senegal, Morocco, Equatorial Guinea, Botswana, and Algeria); from Europe (France, Italy, and Switzerland) and from Asia (China, Japan). In addition, the majority of the respondents were men, whereas the minority were women, who were all fairly young, with the majority falling in the age range of between 21 and 50 years old (with an average age of 32 years). Most of the respondents were well-educated, possessing post-school educational qualifications. The average monthly income was estimated at R602 565 CFA franc (i.e. R16 441.45) per month.

### **5.2.2 Conclusion in terms of objective two**

The study met the second objective, which aimed at determining the tourism impacts of the 2012 AFCON on the local communities. The respondents were asked to provide their opinions in terms of several statements pertaining to the social, economic and environmental aspects of the event, opting for the most suitable response in each case in terms of the categories set in line with a 5-point Likert scale.

As far as the social impacts of the event were concerned, the key findings revealed that a great majority of the respondents agreed that the event had been successfully hosted by Gabon. More than two-thirds of total sample of respondents expressed their satisfaction with the level of service received, and more than half of them noted that they had become more aware of tourism facilities in Gabon because of attending the event. Additionally, more than half of the respondents confirmed that the event did not lead to an increase of crime in the area, while half of them claimed that the event had no major negative social impacts on the local communities.

In terms of the economic impacts associated with the event, a great number of respondents confirmed that the 2012 AFCON was good for the Gabonese economy, as it helped create new jobs and employment for the local population. However, on the negative side, almost two-thirds of the respondents agreed that the overall cost of living had increased due to the hosting of the event. Interestingly, regarding the purchase of goods and services from local businesses, an almost equal split occurred between those who were neutral on the issue

(one third of total sample) and those for whom it had been relatively easy to obtain what they needed from local businesses in the area (35%) during the event.

Finally, in relation to the environmental impacts, half of the respondents reported that, as with any other major sport event, the 2012 AFCON caused traffic congestion in the local area. In contrast, more than a third of the respondents stated that the event did not increase the existing levels of pollution at the event, as several measures were undertaken by the government to prevent the production of an excess amount of pollution. In addition, half of the respondents stated that the event did not degrade the environment where it took place, which was very good, as sustainable development depends on the environment and the local culture.

### **5.2.3 Conclusion in terms of objective three**

The majority of the respondents engaged mainly in social (VFR) activities, as was confirmed by the Official Portal of the Gabonese Government (2012). Other major types of activities included: the visiting of natural attractions; the paying of visits to the beach; shopping; participating in the nightlife; trading; attending theme parks; and viewing wildlife, as well as appreciating the cultural heritage on display. The minority of the activities engaged in included adventure, health, food and wine, and other types of activities. The results that were obtained in this respect, therefore, show that VFR is the top tourist activity in Gabon. There is, however, still room for other types of tourism to develop further than at present. Nonetheless, the results reveal that there is a high demand for domestic tourism. Therefore local authorities should grab this opportunity as it can result in poverty alleviation, jobs creations and cities urban development.

### **5.2.4 Conclusion in terms of objective four**

The current study also met the fourth objective, which was aimed at assessing the sport tourists' behaviours at the 2012 AFCON. In terms of attendance, a few respondents indicated that they had previously attended an AFCON, while over a third of the international visitors stated that they visited Gabon before attending the 2012 AFCON tournament. In conclusion, a large majority of the respondents stated that they were attending the 2012 AFCON for the first time. In addition, nearly all of the respondents (94.4%) indicated that the 2012 AFCON was very important in their decision to travel to Gabon, while two third of respondents confirmed that environmental considerations were key to their choice of accommodation for the duration of their stay.

### **5.2.5 Conclusion in terms of objective five**

Finally, the study also met the fifth objective that was aimed at ascertaining the perceptions of Gabon as a tourism destination by the sport tourists attending the 2012 AFCON. The

great majority of the respondents indicated that the country was clean, friendly, and safe. Additionally, a large number of respondents agreed that the banking facilities were good, and the local population and service providers were very helpful. Only a third of respondents agreed that the Gabonese transport system was good. In conclusion, most of the international respondents concluded that they would return to Gabon within the next two years, while nearly all of the international visitors stated that they would return to Gabon within the next year. Also, in terms of responsible and sustainable tourism, almost all of the respondents rated the country as being a responsible tourism destination, while only less than a third of the respondents recalled having been informed about tourism tips in the country during the event. Most of the respondents seem to have rated the country according to their own experience and understanding of responsible tourism, versus what responsible and sustainable tourism really is. Consequently, the need for further investigation in this area exists in the field of responsible tourism for Gabon, especially since the country is to host the 2017 AFCON.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

As stated above, the results that were obtained in relation to the concept of responsible and sustainable tourism in Gabon are slightly disturbing. The results show that there is a huge deficiency of awareness in terms of responsible tourism, with the local residents not seeming to have an appreciation of its meaning, importance and advantages. The question also arises as to whether the Gabon local government officials are aware of their responsibility towards the future generation in this respect. However, the Gabonese government has certainly made the developing of the tourism sector a priority through the adoption of different policies, regulations, programmes, and strategies that have been created, most notably in the case of the Gabonese greening strategies. Nevertheless, there seems to be an extensive gap between the policies and strategies adopted, and their actual implementation. This should be seen in the light of the Cape Town Declaration recognising that responsible tourism is about “making better places for people to live in and better places for people to visit”. Such tourism entails that travel agency, governments, tours operators, tourists, hoteliers, and local communities take responsibility for actions that go towards making tourism more sustainable than it has been in the past (Responsible Tourism Partnership Sri Lanka, 2015).

In the light of the coming 2017 AFCON and the future, in general, the Gabonese government should:

- Work together with Gabontour (Gabon DMO) to coordinate marketing strategies and manage information and knowledge about Gabon (Munar, 2012:102).

- Coordinate tourism planning and development together with Gabontour and other stakeholders including Gabon's Tourism Department and the private sector (Munar, 2012:102).
- Implement measures and policies that facilitate tourism development and economic growth.
- Make tourism accessible to all through the development of appropriate tourism infrastructures and amenities whose entrances fee and activities would also be accessible to Gabon's lower social class
- Develop urban infrastructures including roads, parking areas
- Upgrade existing tourism attractions and created new ones especially attractions that are family orientated
- Develop domestic and cultural tourism
- Educate the population regarding responsible tourism, through the use of massive awareness campaigns, including the utilisation of posters, signage and advertising.
- Ensure that the private sector, tourism practitioners and marketing organisations be all together involved in the implementation of sustainable tourism development that considers the local residents, and which generates employment, and protects and defends the natural environment, as well as providing quality service that exceeds visitor expectations.
- Encourage the private sector to invest towards the benefit of local communities' entrepreneurship and the creation of small businesses.
- Involve the community, and all stakeholders, in the planning of the 2017 AFCON.

Finally, the hosting of the 2012 AFCON offered Gabon an outstanding opportunity to boost its tourism and to showcase its cities and tourism potential. In fact, most of the respondents indicated that the event raised their awareness of cities in Gabon and Africa as well. Building on this foundation, Gabon should strive to strengthen its position as a unique tourism destination through the hosting of the 2017 AFCON.

#### **5.4 Limitations of the study**

Pellissier (2007:67) defines the discovery of a research study limitations as the identification and recognition of the weaknesses in the particular research. The University of Southern California (2016) defines the limitations of a study as consisting of those characteristics of design or methodology that affect the research findings interpretation. They are the constraints on generalisability, on practical application, and/or on the utility of findings that are the result of the ways in which the study design is initially chosen, as well as on the method that is used to establish internal and external validity. De Vos and Fouche (1998:89)

highlight that the potential limitations of a study are often numerous, even in the case of the most carefully planned research.

With regards to limitations, the focus of the study was restricted to international and national visitors to the event, specifically those 18 years of age and older, who attended football games in Libreville and Franceville. Another limitation included the financial constraints that prevented the researcher from being present on-site to collect the data required, as it had originally been planned. The latter also resulted in the study being completed only four years after the event in question took place. Also, since the event was co-hosted by two countries, notably Gabon and Equatorial Guinea, it was very difficult to know the population of the study and to determine the relevant sample. The findings, therefore, can neither be generalised in regard to all those who have visited the country before, at the time of, or after the event, nor in regard to any other similar study that has been conducted on the African continent.

### **5.5 Future research**

The present study was undertaken with the objective of closing the gap regarding the tourism impacts of the AFCON in the current global economic climate, as there are very few studies on the subject. As was stated in Chapter One, the study was set to contribute to the literature on the growing debate concerning the phenomenon of hosting sport tourism events as a means of stimulating tourism development and economic growth within developing contexts. Future research initiatives should, therefore, be conducted regarding such issues outside the context of the AFCON, or any other sport event that is hosted in Gabon. Other areas of Gabon should also be researched in terms of tourism potential and development, especially since a great percentage of the respondents stated that they would return to Gabon within the next one or two years, and that they would like to visit other areas of the country. The period specified notably did not include the hosting of any major sport activities by Gabon, as the next major sport event to be hosted in the country will be the upcoming 2017 AFCON.

Secondly, as was mentioned in terms of the above-mentioned recommendations, the study found that most of the respondents were not informed of tourism tips prior to the 2012 AFCON. This area must definitely be addressed not only in, and for the sake of, Gabon but also in, and for the sake of, other African countries. African countries must urgently plan and implement measures, policies and regulations that will ensure the undertaking of responsible tourism. Doing so should:

- Help to reduce, decrease and lessen the negative economic, environmental and social impacts involved;



- Promote and foster better economic benefits for the local people and improve the well-being of the host communities;
- Make a positive contribution to natural and cultural heritage's conservation, in respect of the world's diversity maintenance; and
- Help implicate and associate the locals in decision-making that affects their lives and life changes;
- Produce and generate more enjoyable experiences for the tourists concerned (Responsible Tourism Partnership Sri Lanka, 2015).

Third and finally, based on the current study, similar studies should be undertaken to investigate the tourism impacts of the 2017 AFCON, especially since Gabon will, for the first time, be hosting an AFCON tournament on its own. The results should be compared with those obtained in other similar studies, and the amount of progress that is made by the country should be measured. In addition, studies should be undertaken regarding: the bidding process of the AFCON 2017; the challenges that are faced by Gabon as a tourism destination, in general; the measures to be implemented before, during and after the event, so as to ensure sustainable tourism; the related job creation and economic development, as well as infrastructural development; the limitation of associated pollution and traffic congestion. A key point of concern could be the keeping of a statistical record of tourist arrivals and spending in the country not only during the event, but also beyond its duration.

## **5.6 Concluding remarks**

This chapter, summarising the study, has provided conclusions and recommendations that could be used by the Gabonese government to ensure sustainable development in the country, as well as the well-being of the Gabonese future generations. The study was aimed at investigating the tourism impacts of the 2012 AFCON in Gabon. The focus on the AFCON and on Africa allowed for a comprehensive analysis of the existing frameworks concerning the hosting of sport tourism events, so as to recommend the making of a relevant shift in the frameworks, and so as to lay a basis for a change in policy. The study is a contribution to the body of knowledge on the impacts of major sport events in both the developed and the developing context. The recommendations that have been made in the study have been aimed at assisting the relevant stakeholders to improve their understanding of the perceptions of sport tourism events, and at helping them to plan and organise future events more effectively, with the focus being most notably on the 2017 AFCON.

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**APPENDIX A: NUMBER OF OVERNIGHT STAYS AND DAY TRIPS SPENT DURING THE 2012 AFCON IN GABON (FOREIGN VISITORS) IN TOTAL OR IN OTHER HOST CITIES (DOMESTIC TOURISTS) VS. TYPE OF ACCOMMODATION (N= 609, IN %)**

Study areas		Number of overnight stays - 4-5 star hotel - Libreville	Number of overnight stays - 1-3 star hotel - Libreville	Number of overnight stays - Guest house/ B&B - Libreville	Number of overnight stays - Car/ camping - Libreville	Number of overnight stays - Private room/flat/house rental - Libreville	Number of overnight stays - Private accommodation (friends/family) - Libreville	No. of day trips - Libreville	Number of overnight stays - 4-5 star hotel - Franceville	Number of overnight stays - 1-3 star hotel - Franceville	Number of overnight stays - Guest house/B &B - Franceville	Number of overnight stays - Car/ camping - Franceville	Number of overnight stays - Private room/flat/house rental - Franceville	Number of overnight stays - Private accommodation (friends/family) - Franceville	No. of day trips - Franceville	No. of day trips - Other Cities
Franceville	N	10	3	14	4	4	33		7	13	39	18	29	78	3	19
	Mean	6.00	7.00	7.07	6.00	6.50	5.45		8.57	4.08	5.64	3.06	7.79	6.33	2.67	1.00
	Std. Deviation	3.830	7.211	4.649	.000	9.678	2.959		6.425	4.663	7.798	1.697	8.028	6.040	2.887	.000
Libreville	N	28	20	9	1	6	136		10	4	1			1	3	
	Mean	14.46	10.85	3.00	1.00	21.67	2.50		1.40	4.50	7.00			1.00	3.33	
	Std. Deviation	7.476	13.291	4.243	.	19.408	6.409		1.265	2.380	.			.	2.517	
Total	N	38	23	23	5	10	169		17	17	40	18	29	79	6	19
	Mean	12.24	10.35	5.48	5.00	15.60	3.08		4.35	4.18	5.67	3.06	7.79	6.27	3.00	1.00
	Std. Deviation	7.656	12.612	4.842	2.236	17.373	6.005		5.442	4.172	7.701	1.697	8.028	6.031	2.449	.000

## APPENDIX B: RESEARCH AUTHORISATION LETTER - FRENCH

MINISTRE DE LA PROMOTION  
DES INVESTISSEMENTS, DES TRAVAUX PUBLICS,  
DES TRANSPORTS, DE L'HABITAT ET DU TOURISME,  
CHARGE DE L'AMENAGEMENT DU TERRITOIRE

\*\*\*\*\*  
SECRETARIAT GENERAL

\*\*\*\*\*  
DIRECTION GENERALE DU TOURISME

N° 007 / MPITPHTAT /SG/DGT

ARB/CESPF/21/03/2012

REPUBLIQUE GABONAISE  
Union-Travail-Justice

Libreville, 21 MARS 2012

Le Directeur Général  
du Tourisme

*A*

NTAHINTA MBOUMBA Grace  
Cape Peninsula  
University of Technology  
SOUTH AFRICA

Réf : Lettre N°0037/MPITPHTAT/SG/DGT.

Objet : Accord pour la recherche d'informations  
sur le Tourisme au Gabon.

Madame,

Faisant suite à votre sollicitation, il me plait de vous informer qu'une autorisation d'accès aux informations sur le secteur tourisme et une facilitation de vos démarches auprès des opérateurs économiques de la CAN 2012 vous seront accordées par l'Administration du Tourisme (Tourisme, Gabontour et Contrôle des Hôtels).

Aussi, muni de ce document, vous est-il permis de vous présenter à la Direction Générale du Tourisme pour de plus amples détails concernant les modalités pratiques au bon déroulement de votre recherche.

Veuillez agréer, Madame, l'expression de mes salutations distinguées.

Dr Jean Léonard NGUEMA ONDO



## APPENDIX C: ENGLISH COVER LETTER IN ENGLISH

MINISTERE DE LA PROMOTION DES  
DNVESTISSEMENTS, DESTRAVAUX PUBLIQUES,  
DES TRANSPORTS, DE L'HABITAT ET DU  
TOURISM, CHARGE DE L'AMENAGEMENT  
DUTERRITOIRE

\*\*\*\*\*

SECRETARIAT GENERAL

\*\*\*\*\*

**DIRECTION GENERAL DU TOURISM**

N : 07 /MPITPHTAT/SG/DGT

**ARB/CESPF/21/03/2012**

REPULIQUE GABONAISE

Union-Travail-Justice

**The Managing Director of Tourism**

**To whom it may concern**

**NTAHINTA MBOUMBA Grace**  
**Cape Peninsula University of Technology**

Ref: Letter N°0037/MPTPHTAT/SG/DGT.

Subject: Agreement for the search for information on Tourism in Gabon.

**Madam**

Following your request, I am pleased to inform you that accessibility to information on the tourism sector and a facilitation of your procedures with the economic operators of the 2012 AFCON will be granted by the Tourism Administration (Tourism, Gabontour and Hotels Control).

Also, with this document, are you allowed to present yourself at the General Direction of Tourism for more details about the practical modalities for the smooth running of your research.

Kindest regards

Dr. Jean Leonard NGUEMA ONDO

## APPENDIX D: ENGLISH COVER LETTER

### Official letter from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology



December 2011

To Whom It May Concern:

**The tourism impacts of major sporting events in Africa: a case study of the Confederation of African Football (CAF) Cup of Nations in Gabon 2012**

The Cape Peninsula University of Technology is currently undertaking research on the above title. The main objective of the study is to determine the tourism impacts of the 2012 Africa Cup of Nations in Gabon.

You are kindly requested to complete the questionnaire. Your anonymity and confidentiality will be preserved at all times. Your personal details are not required for this study and in under no circumstances will your personal information be disclosed or referenced. Furthermore, your participation is entirely voluntary and you may withdraw your permission to participate in this study without explanation at any time.

Your assistance is highly valued in completing the questionnaire. Should you wish to verify the authenticity of this project, please contact my supervisor Professor Kamilla Swart on 0027 82 928 2881 or co-supervisor Professor Tichaawa Tembi on 0027 83 342 9490.

Professor Kamilla Swart

Full Professor

Centre for Tourism Research in Africa

Telephone: 0027 21 460 3717

Email: swartk@cput.ac.za

Professor Tichaawa Tembi Maloney

Associate Professor (Tourism) School of  
Tourism & Hospitality

Faculty of Management Bunting Road  
Campus - University of Johannesburg

Telephone: 00 27 11 559 1597

Email: tembit@uj.ac.za

# APPENDIX E: ENGLISH QUESTIONNAIRE

## FACULTY OF BUSINESS

### CAPE PENINSULA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

#### QUESTIONNAIRE

##### THE TOURISM IMPACTS OF MAJOR SPORTING EVENTS IN AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF THE CONFEDERATION OF AFRICAN FOOTBALL (CAF) CUP OF NATIONS IN GABON 2012

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#### 1. Visitor information

1.1 Where is your main domicile/place of residence?

1.1.1 If Gabon, specify region:

Estuaire	
Haut-Ogooué	
Moyen-Ogooué	
Ngounié	
Nyanga	
Ogooué-Ivindo	
Ogooué-Lolo	
Ogooué-Maritime	
Woleu-Ntem	

1.2 If foreign visitor, specify (country of residence): \_\_\_\_\_

1.3 How many tickets do you personally have for yourself for the 2012 Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON) matches?

1.3.1 I have tickets for the following cities/stadiums (indicate number of tickets per city)

Libreville (L'Amitié Sino-Gabonaise Stadium)		Franceville (Rénovation Stadium)	
--	--	----------------------------------	--

1.4 How important was the 2012 Africa Cup of Nations (CAN) in your decision to travel to Gabon (foreign visitors)/ this

host city (domestic visitors)?

1. Very unimportant	2. Unimportant	3. Neutral	4. Important	5. Very important
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1.4.1 If very unimportant, unimportant or neutral, what was your primary reason?

Holiday	Business	Visiting friends/relatives	Shopping	Health/medical	Other (specify)
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1.5 Please answer "yes" or "no" to the following statements.

0= No, 1= Yes

Statements	Yes	No
I am watching this match because I happen to be in the region at this moment		
I extended my holiday to see this match		

1.6 How many overnight stays did/will you spend during the 2012 AFCON in Gabon (foreign visitors) in total or in other host cities (domestic tourists) and in what type of accommodation? (Indicate number of nights where applicable). In the last row include the number of day trips as well.

Accommodation Type	Number of nights in each host city		
	Libreville	Franceville	Other Cities
4-5 star hotel			
1-3 star hotel			
Guesthouse/B&B			
Car/ camping			
Private room/flat/house rental			
Private accommodation (friends/family)			
No. of day trips			

1.7 For overnight stays only: do you plan to visit the following places regardless of the 2012 CAN during the next two years? Gabon is not applicable for domestic tourists.

	Gabon	Libreville	Franceville	Port-gentil	Lambaréné	Moanda	Gamba	Booué
Yes								
No								

**2. Previous attendance at an Africa Cup of Nations/ Visits to Gabon**

2.1 Have you attended a previous Africa Cup of Nations?

Yes	No
-----	----

Number of prior Africa Cup of Nations attended \_\_\_\_\_

2.2 Have you visited Gabon before this trip? (foreign tourists only)

Yes	No
-----	----

Number of prior visits \_\_\_\_\_

2.3 Have you visited Libreville or Franceville before this trip?

Yes	No
-----	----

Number of prior visits to this city and/ or these cities \_\_\_\_\_

**3 Perception of Gabon as a tourism destination**

Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements about the 2012 Africa Cup of Nations.

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

3.1.1 Social impacts of 2012 AFCON

I feel confident that this event has been successfully hosted in Gabon	
I am satisfied with the level of service I have received during the event	
I am more aware of tourism facilities in the area due to attending the event	
The Africa Cup of Nations leads/has led to increased crime in the local area	
The Africa Cup of Nations has NO significant negative social impacts	
<i>Only answer the following question if you are a Gabonese:</i>	
I feel proud that Gabon is hosting this event.	
<i>Only answer the following questions if you are a foreigner: I am more aware of other destinations in Gabon for attending the event</i>	
I am more aware of other destinations in the rest of Africa for attending the event	

3.1.2 Economic impacts of 2012 AFCON

The 2012 AFCON is good for the economy since it creates/ created opportunities for jobs and employment	
During the event period, the overall cost of living has increased	
The 2012 AFCON leads to increases in the price of goods and transport	
During the 2012 AFCON, I have had difficulty purchasing goods and services from local businesses	

3.1.3 Environmental impacts of 2012 AFCON

The Africa Cup of Nations causes traffic congestion in the local area	
The Africa Cup of Nations increased pollution in the local area	
The environment in Angondjé/Libreville is being degraded due to the hosting of the 2012 Africa Cup of Nations	

3.2 Which activities have you participated or intend to participate in while in Gabon during the 2012 AFCON? (Multiple responses):

0 = No, 1 = Yes

Shopping	Trading	Visiting natural attractions	Health	Nightlife	Theme Parks/ Wildlife	Business
Social (VFR)	Beach	Food & wine	Cultural/ heritage	Adventure	Other (specify)	

3.3 Indicate the main sources of information on the destination used prior to departure to Gabon:

0=No, 1=Yes

Television	Radio	Magazine	Newspaper	Internet	Social media platforms
Travel guide	Previous visits	Work related/professional colleagues		Friends or relatives who have visited Gabon or are residents	
Other (specify)					

3.4 Would you advise friends, relatives or colleagues to visit Gabon?

Yes, definitely =2	Possibly =1	No, definitely not =0

3.5 Are you likely to take a trip to Gabon in the next 12 months?

Yes, likely =2	Possibly =1	No, not likely=0

#### 4 Responsible tourism behaviour

4.1 Have you been informed of any responsible tourism tips for the 2012 AFCON during your visit to Gabon?

Yes =	No =
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4.1.1 If yes, where have you seen these tips? (Multiple responses)

Place of accommodation	Tourism attraction	Libreville stadium (L'amitié Sino-gabonaise stadium)/ Franceville Stadium (Rénovation stadium)	Tourism information centre	Other (specify)
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4.1.2 If yes, can you recall any of the responsible tourism tips? (Multiple responses, unprompted)

Responsible tourism tips	Yes	No		Yes	No
Interact with locals and buy local goods and services			Use water sparingly and efficiently e.g. drink tap water		
Use establishments that make use of local services and products			Dispose of rubbish carefully, recycle and reuse		
Donate to local charities instead of giving money to street children			Make use of public transport		
Use electricity efficiently e.g. switch off lights, TV when not in room			Other (specify)		

4.2 How would you rate your general impressions/ experiences of Gabon in terms of the following?

	Good	Fair	Poor		Good	Fair	Poor
Friendliness				Banking			
Helpfulness				Entertainment			
Transport				Value for money			
Personal safety				Responsible tourism destination			
Cleanliness							

4.3 How important were environmental considerations in your choice of accommodation during the 2012 AFCON?

1. Very unimportant	2. Unimportant	3. Neutral	4. Important	5. Very important
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4.4 What was the main mode of transport you used to get to the 2012 CAN matches from your place of accommodation today?

0 = No, 1 = Yes

Personal automobile	
Motorcoach/bus	
Rental car	
Walked	
Taxi	
Other (specify):	

## 5 Demographic profile

5.1 Country of origin (nationality): \_\_\_\_\_

5.2 Gender

Male	
Female	

5.3 Age \_\_\_\_\_ years



5.4 Highest level of education attained

No formal education	
Primary completed (7 yrs of schooling)	
Secondary completed (> 7 yrs of schooling)	
Certificate/diploma	
Undergraduate degree	
Postgraduate degree	
Other (specify):	

5.5 What is your monthly net income in Euros (after deduction of taxes and social security)?

Less than 500	
500 - 1000	
1000 -2500	
2500 - 5000	
5000 -10 000	
More than 10 000	

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION**

## APPENDIX F: FRENCH COVER LETTER

### Lettre Officielle de Cape Peninsula University of Technology



Décembre 2011

**The tourism impacts of major sporting events in Africa: a case study of the Confederation of African Football (CAF) Cup of Nations in Gabon 2012**

Cape Peninsula University of Technology mène actuellement une étude sur le titre ci-dessus. L'objectif principal de cette étude est de déterminer les impacts touristiques de la Coupe d'Afrique des Nations 2012 au Gabon.

Nous vous prions de bien vouloir remplir ce questionnaire. Votre anonymat et confidentialité seront préservés à tout moment. Vos données personnelles ne sont pas requises pour cette étude et en aucun cas vos informations personnelles seront divulguées ou référencés. En outre, votre participation est entièrement volontaire et vous pouvez retirer votre permission de participer à cette étude à tout moment sans explication.

Nous vous remercions d'avance pour votre aide et votre compréhension. Si vous souhaitez vérifier l'authenticité de ce projet, n'hésitez pas à contacter Professeur Kamilla Swart (Superviseur), au 0027 82 928 2881 ou Professor Tichaawa Tembi Maloney (Co-superviseur) au 0027 83 342 9490.

Professor Kamilla Swart

Associate Professor

Centre for Tourism Research in Africa

Telephone: 0027 21 460 3717

Email: swartk@cput.ac.za

Professor Tichaawa Tembi Maloney

Senior Lecturer (Tourism) School of Tourism & Hospitality

Faculty of Management Bunting Road

Campus - University of Johannesburg

Telephone: 00 27 11 559 1597

Email: tembit@uj.ac.za}

## APPENDIX G: FRENCH QUESTIONNAIRE

### CAMPUS DE BUSINESS

### CAPE PENINSULA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

#### QUESTIONNAIRE

LES EFFETS TOURISTIQUES DES PRINCIPAUX FAITS SPORTIFS EN AFRIQUE: UNE ÉTUDE DE LA CONFÉDÉRATION DE LA COUPE DES NATIONS AFRICAINES DU FOOTBALL (CAF) AU GABON 2012

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#### 1. Renseignements sur les visiteurs

1.1 Où se trouve votre domicile principal (lieu de résidence)?

1.1.1 Si c'est au Gabon, précisez la province dans laquelle il se trouve.

Estuaire	
Haut-Ogooué	
Moyen-Ogooué	
Ngounié	
Nyanga	
Ogooué-Ivindo	
Ogooué-Lolo	
Ogooué-Maritime	
Woleu-Ntem	

1.2 Si vous êtes un visiteur étranger, précisez votre pays d'origine: \_\_\_\_\_

1.3 Combien de billets d'entrée avez-vous personnellement pour vous-même pour la Coupe d'Afrique des Nations 2012?

1.3.1 J'ai des billets d'entrée pour les villes et stades suivants (es) (indiquer le nombre de billets par ville)

Libreville (le stade de l'Amitié Sino-Gabonaise)		Franceville (le stade Rénovation)	
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1.4 Quel était le degré d'importance de la Coupe d'Afrique des Nations 2012 (CAN) dans votre décision de voyager au Gabon (pour les visiteurs étrangers) / dans cette ville hôte (pour les visiteurs nationaux)?

1. Aucune importance	2. peu important	3. Neutre	4. Important	5. Très important
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1.4.1 Si le degré d'importance de la Coupe d'Afrique des Nations 2012 (CAN) dans votre décision de voyager au Gabon ou dans la ville hôte est d'aucune importance, peu importante ou neutre; quelle était votre raison principale?

Vacances/congés	Les affaires	Visite d'amis/ parents	Shopping	Santé / Médical	Autres (précisez):
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1.5 Répondez par «oui» ou «non» aux affirmations suivantes.

0= Non, 1= Oui

Declarations		Oui	Non
Je regarde ce match parce que je me trouve dans la province de la ville hôte en ce moment			
J'ai prolongé mon séjour pour voir ce match			

1.6 Combien de nuits avez vous passé/passerez vous en totalité au Gabon durant la CAN 2012 (pour les visiteurs étrangers) ou dans d'autres villes hôtes (pour les visiteurs nationaux) et dans quel type d'hébergement? (Indiquer le nombre de nuits, le cas échéant). Dans la dernière ligne, indiquer le nombre de voyages/excursions effectués (ées) par jour.

Hébergements Categories	Nombre de nuits passées dans chaque ville hôte		
	Libreville	Franceville	Other Cities
Hôtel 4-5 étoiles			
Hôtel 1-3 étoiles			
Maison d' hôtes			
Voiture/campement			
Chambre privée /appartement /maison à louée			
Logement privé (amis / famille)			
Nombre de voyages/excursions par jour			

1.7 Cette question s'adresse aux visiteurs (étrangers ou nationaux) passant au moins une nuit au Gabon ou dans une ville hôte: Visitez vous les lieux ci dessous indépendamment de la CAN 2012 au cours des deux prochaines années? (Le Gabon ne s'applique pas aux touristes nationaux).

	Gabon	Libreville	Franceville	Port-gentil	Lambaréné	Moanda	Gamba	Booué
Oui								
Non								

**2. Participation antérieure à une Coupe d'Afrique des Nations / visites au Gabon**

2.1 Avez-vous participé à une précédente Coupe d'Afrique des Nations?

Oui	Non
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Indiqué le nombre de précédentes Coupe d'Afrique des Nations auxquelles vous avez participé \_\_\_\_\_

2.2 Aviez-vous visité le Gabon avant ce voyage? (touristes étrangers seulement)

Oui	Non
-----	-----

Nombre de visites antérieures \_\_\_\_\_

2.3 Aviez-vous visité Libreville ou Franceville avant ce voyage?

Oui	Non
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Nombre de visites antérieures de cette ville et / ou de ces villes \_\_\_\_\_

**3. Perception du Gabon en tant que destination touristique**

Indiquer votre degré d'accord avec les énoncés suivants au sujet de la Coupe d'Afrique des Nations 2012.

<b>1 = Pas d'accord du tout</b>	<b>2 = Pas d'accord</b>	<b>3 = Neutre</b>	<b>4 = D'accord</b>	<b>5 = Tout à fait d'accord</b>
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3.1.1 Les effets sociaux de la CAN 2012

Je suis certain que la CAN 2012 a été organisé avec succès au Gabon	
Je suis satisfait du niveau de service que j'ai reçu lors de la CAN 2012	
Je suis plus conscient des installations touristiques dans la région parce que j'ai assisté à la CAN 2012	
La Coupe d'Afrique des Nations 2012 conduit / a conduit à l'augmentation du taux de criminalité dans la zone locale	
La Coupe d'Afrique des Nations 2012 n'a pas d'effets sociaux négatifs significatifs	
<i>Répondez à la question suivante si vous êtes gabonais:</i> Je suis fier(e) que le Gabon organise cet événement.	
<i>Répondez à la question suivante si vous êtes étranger:</i> je suis plus conscient(e) d'autres destinations au Gabon parce que j'ai assisté à l'événement	
Je suis plus conscient des autres destinations dans le reste de l'Afrique parce que j'ai assisté à l'événement	

### 3.1.2 Les impacts économiques de la CAN 2012

La CAN 2012 est bonne pour l'économie gabonaise car elle crée/ a créé de l'emploi	
Pendant la période de la CAN 2012, le coût global de vie a augmenté	
La CAN 2012 a entraîné une augmentation du prix des marchandises et du transport	
Pendant la CAN 2012, j'ai eu du mal à acheter des biens et services auprès des entreprises locales	

### 3.1.3 Les impacts environnementaux de la CAN 2012

La Coupe d'Afrique des Nations cause l'embouteillage routier dans la zone locale	
La Coupe d'Afrique des nations a causé une augmentation de la pollution dans la zone locale	
L'environnement (d'Angondjé / Libreville, autour du stade Rénovation / Franceville) se dégrade à cause de l'organisation de la Coupe d'Afrique des Nations 2012	

### 3.2 A quelles activités avez-vous participé ou avez vous l'intention de participer lors de la CAN 2012 au Gabon? (Réponses multiples):

0 = Non, 1 = Oui

Shopping	Les affaires	Visite des attractions naturelles	Santé	Boites de nuits	Parcs/ IFaune et Flore	Le travail
Le social (Visite d'amis et parents)	Plage	Cuisine et vins	Patrimoine culturel	Aventure	Autres (précisez):	

### 3.3 Indiquez les principales sources d'information utilisées sur la destination avant le départ au Gabon:

0=Non, 1=Oui

Television	Radio	Magazine	Presse écrite	Internet	Plateformes de médias sociaux
Guide Voyage	Visites précédentes	Le travail / collègues professionnels		Amis ou parents qui ont visité le Gabon ou sont des résidents	
Autre (précisez):					

### 3.4 Conseilleriez-vous à des amis, parents ou collègues de visiter le Gabon?

Oui, certainement =2	Peut-être =1	Non, certainement pas = 0

3.5 Etes-vous susceptible de faire un voyage au Gabon au cours des 12 prochains mois?

Oui, probablement =2	Peut-être =1	Non probablement pas =0

#### 4. Tourisme responsable

4.1 Avez-vous été informé(e) sur le tourisme responsable pour la CAN 2012 au cours de votre visite au Gabon?

Oui =	Non =
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4.1.1 Si oui, où avez-vous vu ces informations? (Réponses multiples)

Lieu d'hébergement	Attractions touristiques	Stade de L'amitié Sino-Gabonaise (Libreville) / Stade de Rénovation (Franceville)	Centre d'information touristique	Autre (précisez):
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4.1.2 Si oui, vous rappelez-vous de certaines astuces du tourisme responsable? (Réponses multiples, spontanées)

Astuces pour un tourisme durable	Oui	Non		Oui	Non
Se Joindre et communiquer avec les autochtones et acheter des biens et services locaux			Utiliser de l'eau avec parcimonie et de manière efficace par exemple: boire l'eau du robinet		
Utiliser les hébergements/organisations qui font usage des services et des produits locaux			Jeter des ordures soigneusement, recycler et réutiliser		
Faire un don aux organismes sociaux locaux plutôt que de donner de l'argent aux enfants des rues			Faite usage des transports publics		
Utiliser efficacement l'électricité par exemple: éteindre les lumières, la télévision quand vous n'êtes pas dans la salle			Autre (précisez):		

4.2 Comment évalueriez-vous vos impressions générales / expériences du Gabon en termes de ce qui suit?

	Bon	Passable	Médiocre		Bon	Passable	Médiocre
Convivialité				Transactions bancaires			
Service				Divertissement			
Transport				Valeur économique			
Sécurité personnelle				Destination touristique responsable			
Salubrité							

4.3 Quelle était l'importance des considérations environnementales dans votre choix d'hébergement pendant la CAN 2012?

1. Aucune importance	2. Peu important	3. Neutre	4. Important	5. Très important
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4.4 Quel a été le principal mode de transport que vous avez utilisé pour assister à ce match de la CAN 2012 depuis votre lieu d'hébergement d'aujourd'hui?

0 = Non, 1 = Oui

Automobile particulier	
Bus	
Voiture de Location	
Marche	
Taxi	
Autre (précisez):	

## 5. Profil démographique

5.1 Pays d'origine (nationalité): \_\_\_\_\_

5.2 Sexe

Masculin	
Féminin	

5.3 Age \_\_\_\_\_ ans

5.4 Plus haut niveau de scolarité atteint

Pas d'éducation formelle	
Primaire complété (7 ans de scolarité)	
Secondaire terminé (> 7 ans de scolarité)	
Certificat / diplôme	
Diplôme de premier cycle	
Diplôme d'études supérieures	
Autre (précisez):	



5.5 Quel est votre revenu mensuel net en Francs CFA (après déduction des impôts et sécurité sociale) ?

Moins de 100 000	
100 000 – 250 000	
250 000 – 500 000	
500 000 – 750 000	
750 000 – 1 million	
1 million – 2.5 millions	
2.5 millions - 5millions	
5 millions – 10 millions	
10 millions et plus	

**MERCI POUR VOTRE PARTICIPATION**