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BRAND IMAGE LEGACY OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP™: A LONG-TERM ASSESSMENT

by

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DECLARATION

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

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Signed   **Date**

ABSTRACT

Sport mega-events are a powerful tool for branding nations. There has been a significant shift in countries that bid for and win the rights to host sport mega-events. Historically, Western countries used to be leaders in winning rights to host such events; however a new emerging trend has seen developing countries winning the rights ahead of developed ones, for example, South Africa, Brazil and Russia winning the rights to host the FIFA World Cup[TM]. South Africa faced a serious branding challenge leading up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM]. Therefore, one of the primary objectives of hosting this tournament was to change international tourists' perceptions of South Africa. There has been limited research on the brand legacies of the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM], hence this research examined the brand image legacies of the tournament in the long run. It is believed that the football fans who attended the 2016 UEFA European Championship either visited South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] or watched the tournament on television (TV) at home, therefore they have certain perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination. A quantitative methodology was employed to survey football tourists at fan parks and stadium precincts in five metropolitan cities in France during the 2016 UEFA European Championship, using a spatially based systematic sampling technique. In total 391 football tourist questionnaires were completed.

The key findings reveal that prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM], football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination were generally positive; however they indicated that they were very concerned about safety and security, as well as segregation issues, prior to the tournament. It can be argued that the tournament had a significant impact on reinforcing the positive perceptions of the destination as well as reducing the negative perceptions of the destination. The findings reveal statistically significant differences in most aspects between tourists' perceptions prior to, and six years after, the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM]. Tourists' perceptions on most aspects changed positively six years after the event, including those that were major concerns prior to the tournament. The findings also show that there has been very little repeat visitation to South Africa since South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA Word Cup[TM]. However, an overwhelming majority of respondents indicated that they were willing to travel to South Africa should it host another sport mega-event in the near future. The key findings of this study have a wider applicability to sport mega-events legacy research and body of knowledge. These key findings can assist destination marketers in managing the destination image and foster a greater understanding of brand image legacies of past mega-events in order to inform the bidding and hosting of future sport mega-events.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my mom and my uncle, Elizabeth Magumise and Colonel Resten Magumise.

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ACRONYMS

Acronyms	Definition
AFCON	African Cup of Nations
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
AMA	American Marketing Association
ANC	African National Congress
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa
BSA	Brand South Africa
CAF	Confederation of African Football
CGF	Commonwealth Games Federation
CNBC	Consumer News and Business Channel Africa
CNN	Cable News Network
COO	Country of Origin
CPUT	Cape Peninsula University of Technology
DA	Democratic Alliance
DEAT	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
EPL	English Premier League
FFF	French Football Federation
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GSOs	Global Sports Organisations
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IOC	International Olympic Committee
KSF	Key Success Factor
LOC	Local Organising Committee
MSSC	Motivation Scale for Sport Construction
NBC	National Broadcasting Company
NPA	National Prosecuting Authority of South Africa
NS	No Significance
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SAFA	South African Football Association
SAPS	South African Police Service
SARS	Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome
SASCOC	South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee
SAT	South African Tourism
SFMS	Sport Fan Motivation Scale
SPPS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRSA	Sport and Recreation South Africa
TV	Television
UEFA	Union of European Football Associations
UK	United Kingdom
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
USA	United States of America

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

South Africa has increasingly used sport tourism as an important tool and strategy to promote itself as a major sport event destination, after it successfully hosted the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the 2003 Cricket World Cup, and the 2010 Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup™ (Bob & Potgieter, 2013:71). This has profiled the country at large and all the host cities as major players in the field of sport tourism and events (Swart et al., 2015:70). There is growing interest shown by both developed and developing countries in hosting high-profile sport mega-events, owing to the perceived benefits associated with hosting such events (Achu & Swart, 2012:35). According to Grix and Lee (2013:522) there has been a significant shift in countries that bid for and win the rights to host sport mega-events, as historically Western countries used to be leaders in winning rights to host such events. However, a new emerging trend has seen developing countries winning the rights to host sport mega-events ahead of developed ones, for example, Qatar, and Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa (BRICS) (Grix & Lee, 2013:522). South Africa was no exception when it won the rights to host the prestigious 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in 2004. Dubbed the 'African World Cup'; South Africa was the first African country to host an event of such magnitude (Cornelissen et al., 2011a:309; Achu & Swart, 2012:33). South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ gave a great deal of hope and high expectations to South Africans in terms of socio-economic development (Swart et al., 2015:74). During the apartheid era South Africa was cut off from the rest of the world in terms of sport; it was only in the early 1990s when it started to emerge from this sporting isolation (Knott et al., 2013:570). Undoubtedly, the apartheid era contributed to great inequalities in accessing sporting facilities as well as to dividing social communities, therefore hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was considered a once-off opportunity for socio-economic development and a great symbol of meaningful reconciliation (Swart et al., 2011:415). According to Achu and Swart (2012:34), the South African government's objectives were to ensure socio-economic development as well as international recognition through hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

South Africa successfully hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and this provides an opportunity to assess the economic, social, political, branding and environmental legacy aspects of this tournament (Cartwright, 2012:127; Swart & Bob, 2012:2). In recent years, there has been a growing interest in and focus on legacies that result from hosting sport mega-events, attributed to the large amounts of human and financial resource investments required by countries to successfully bid and host mega-events (Cornelissen et al.,

2011a:307). Basically, an assessment of legacies entails a closer analysis of the long-term impacts associated with hosting mega-events (Bob & Kassens-Noor, 2012:13). Roberts (2004:55) and Swart et al. (2015:70) note that economic and social legacy aspects have received considerable attention, while the branding, political and environmental aspects are under-researched. A new trend has emerged that is based on the premise of maximising the positive mega-event legacies while minimising the negative impacts (Cornelissen et al., 2011a:310). This has resulted in many countries being attracted to host mega-events in order to leverage a range of benefits associated with hosting such events; however, most governments tend to exaggerate the benefits while the negative impacts are often ignored (Preuss, 2007:210; Cornelissen et al., 2011a:308; Tyrrell & Johnston, 2015:329).

Cornelissen et al. (2011a:309) note that it is imperative to assess the long-term impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ given the public investment when South Africa hosted this tournament. South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ is considered a mixed blessing as the event had both positive and negative long-term impacts. Nyikana et al. (2014:551) and Holt and Ruta (2015:2) concur that legacies can be categorised in various combinations: economic, political, social, cultural, sporting and environmental categories. There is no doubt that all these categories are relevant in the South African context of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Researchers who conducted research on the impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ immediately after the event identified the key positive and negative impacts that emanated from this event. The positive impacts are infrastructural development such as an improved transport network system and state-of-the-art sport facilities such as stadiums; feel good effects; national pride and unity; skills development and nation branding; while the negative impacts are issues of sustainability of stadiums, increased cost of living and corruption (Cornelissen et al., 2011a:310; Swart & Bob, 2012:6; Nyikana et al., 2014:551; Holt & Ruta, 2015:8).

Nation branding is becoming increasingly important as countries are scrambling and vying for potential investors, tourists and international media attention (Knott et al., 2013:571). Knott et al. (2013:571) note that a successful nation brand is regarded as a crucial national asset because countries with stronger brands have the upper hand in attracting foreign direct investment and have some sort of political influence over others. Like any other developing country, South Africa faced a serious branding challenge leading up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, considering the negative stereotypes associated with developing countries and the unfamiliarity of their brands to the international markets (Anholt, 2007:43). Anholt (2007:44) further states that the usual stereotypes associated with such countries are negative ones that include corruption, diseases, civil wars and crime. The most common challenges developing countries have faced to date is to change these persistent images, hence the most probable avenue to circumvent such issues is by hosting a significant sport mega-event

that can ameliorate such negative perceptions (Kotler & Gertner, 2002:251). Thus, hosting of sport mega-events such as the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ has a significant impact on enhancing a nation's brand image. According to Higham and Hinch (2009:137), sport mega-events are powerful tools for imaging, reimaging, and branding nations. This notion is supported by Florek and Insch (2011:273), who contend that sport mega-events give host countries an opportunity to re-brand their national image and to promote their destination image. In the South African context, the hosting of 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was seen as an opportunity to enhance the country's brand image and destination profiling (Swart et al., 2015:73). According to Knott et al. (2012:113), the vision and objective of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ Local Organising Committee (LOC) was to enhance Brand South Africa and to change the international perceptions of South Africa and the African continent as a whole.

A tourist's decision to travel to a certain destination is largely influenced by his/her perception and knowledge of that particular destination he/she intends to visit (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009:2). Donaldson and Ferreira (2009:2) further state that 'risk perception' influences a tourist's decision to travel and these perceptions can result in the visitor's lasting images of a destination. George (2003:577) is of the opinion that in most cases tourists decide not to visit a particular destination if it has a bad reputation, especially related to crime, and warns that if tourists are threatened by certain incidents during their stay at a destination, the probability that they will return to the destination and pass on positive word-of-mouth recommendations about that destination is very low.

Prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, South Africa was generally perceived as a crime-ridden country; this saw unprecedented international media attention which mainly focused on negative issues such as xenophobic riots, crime and inflation (Knott et al., 2013:570). In their study on destination image and opinions of foreign visitors to South Africa, Donaldson and Ferreira (2009:10) found that the majority of international visitors to South Africa were very concerned about travelling to South Africa and this was directly linked to the negative perceptions visitors had of crime, safety and security issues. These negative aspects cast some doubts on whether South Africa would be able to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ successfully and safely (Van der Merwe, 2009:25). The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ gave South Africa a platform to be showcased to the world's largest TV audience and it created chances to dissipate the general negative perceptions foreign tourists had of South Africa and Africa as a continent at large (Swart et al., 2015:73). One of the most crucial aspects of mega-event legacies is the extent and degree to which visitor perceptions are changed when they visit host nations (Swart et al., 2015:73). Changed perceptions result in repeat visitation and possible positive word-of-mouth recommendations (Qu et al., 2011:468). According to the research study by Knott et al. (2013:587) the international media played a crucial role in creating positive perceptions of Brand South Africa as the international visitors' perceptions

to travel to South Africa were mostly influenced by the positive media attention South Africa received before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ commenced.

1.2 Clarification of basic terms and key concepts

The basic terms and key concepts used in this study are as follows: sport tourism, sport tourists, sport mega-event, legacy, event bidding, nation branding, perception, and repeat visitation. These basic terms and key concepts are discussed briefly below.

1.2.1 Sport tourism

According to Standeven and De Knop (1999:20), sport tourism can be defined as all forms of active or passive involvement in sports, undertaken casually or in an organised manner, for commercial or non-commercial purposes, and requiring that the subject leaves his or her home or workplace. This definition is often blamed for focusing on sport activities only, without elaborating fully what the sport tourism phenomenon is (Weed & Bull, 2004:44). Therefore, the most acceptable definition is that of Gibson et al. (1998:53) who define sport tourism as specific travel outside of the usual environment for either passive or active involvement in competitive sport, where sport is the prime motivation for travel and the touristic or leisure element may act to reinforce the overall experience.

1.2.2 Sport tourists

Sport tourists are those visitors whose primary objective of visiting a destination is participating in or spectating sports (Saayman, 2012:22). Even though their primary purpose is to attend an event, it does not necessarily mean that they have no interest in traditional tourism activities, as during their stay at a destination they can also participate in various tourism activities (Taks et al., 2009:123).

1.2.3 Sport mega-event

A sport mega-event can be described as a sport event that usually attracts large crowds; it is associated with large costs and has a psychological effect on the host destination (Tassiopoulos, 2010:12). According to Jago and Shaw (1998:23), sport mega-events attract international media coverage that contributes greatly in profiling a host destination's image. Rooney (1988:94) suggests that sport mega-events can happen regularly or irregularly in different venues around the world, for example, the FIFA World Cup™ tournaments, Rugby World Cup, Cricket World Cup and the Olympic Games.

1.2.4 Legacy

Legacy refers to "…planned and unplanned, positive and negative, intangible and tangible structures created through a sport event that remain after the event" (Gratton & Preuss, 2008:1924). According to Bob and Swart (2010:89), assessing event legacies involves a close monitoring and evaluation of the long-term impacts that result from hosting mega-events. Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012:12) argue that public funds should not be prioritised for hosting sport events; instead these monies should be channelled towards social development projects and, therefore, in order to deal with such criticism, sport events should leave something behind. Therefore, Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012:12) define legacy as a crucial symbol that justifies the expenses incurred by sponsors and host destinations.

1.2.5 Event bidding

Dunphy (2007:5) defines event bidding as a sophisticated process of communication between two parties, the event owner and the event bidder. It constitutes five stages, namely, bid feasibility, bid development, bid submission, bid presentation, and site selection. However, bidding for sport mega-events can also be politicised, for example, bidding for FIFA World Cup™ and Olympic Games involves political and economic activity at a global level (Masters, 2015:112).

1.2.6 Nation branding

According to Anholt (2007:4) and Knott (2014:37), the process of branding entails building a reputation of the brand using brand identity and brand image, and these metaphors have also been applied to nations, hence the term 'nation branding'. Most countries embrace nation branding to attract foreign consumers in a globalised world economy that is often characterised by intense competition (Dinnie, 2008:14).

1.2.7 Perception

A perception is a process by which individuals select, organise and interpret information input to create a meaningful picture of the world (George, 2001:172; Wood, 2006:169; George, 2011:345). Perceptions about a nation seem to come from various factors such as the experience one gets from visiting a country, word-of-mouth recommendations from friends and relatives, pre-existing national stereotypes, political events in the country, the portrayal of a country's image by the media, as well as the performance of national sporting teams (Dinnie, 2008:47).

1.2.8 Repeat visitation

Repeat visitation is a process whereby a tourist decides to revisit a destination; repeat visitors are more knowledgeable about a destination and its touristic activities (Alegre & Cladera, 2006:289). Repeat visitation is invoked by satisfaction with a destination's products and services, which leaves tourists wanting more; hence each time they think of a holiday they will choose to revisit that particular destination (Lau & McKercher, 2004:280). Lau and McKercher (2004:280) contend that repeat visitors play a crucial role in conveying positive word-of-mouth accounts of a destination's attributes to their friends and relatives, thereby increasing tourism at that destination.

1.3 Problem statement

South Africa's successful bidding and hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] gave it an outright opportunity to leverage the benefits associated with hosting sport mega-events as well as to profile itself as one of the world's best sport tourism destinations (Bob & Potgieter, 2013:71). Swart et al. (2011:417) and Holmes et al. (2015:163) acknowledge that, given that the event is now over, more focus is now placed on the legacies resulting from the long-term impacts of hosting sport mega-events. This notion is supported by Swart et al. (2015:71), who argue that sport mega-event legacies have become increasingly important, especially for developing countries like South Africa which made very substantial public investments when it hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM]. However, the existing literature focuses more on predicted and short-term economic and social impacts of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] (Bob & Potgieter, 2013:71). Swart et al. (2015:70) further argue that socio-economic legacies have received more attention, while brand image and political and environmental legacy aspects are under-researched. Even though one of the major objectives of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] was to change the country's brand image, to date little research has been conducted on the brand image legacies that resulted from this tournament (Knott et al., 2013; Knott, 2014; Knott et al., 2015).

The research problem can therefore be stated to be a specific lack of research on the brand image legacies of the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM]. Assessing the brand image legacies of sport mega-events is becoming increasingly important as it identifies visitor concerns and experiences that can be used to inform future destination marketing and sports tourism strategies when bidding for future sport mega-events (Bob & Kassens-Noor, 2012:12; Bob & Potgieter, 2013:71).

1.4 Research aim

This research study aims to assess the brand image legacies that resulted from hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa in relation to determining the changes in international visitors' perceptions of South Africa as result of hosting this event.

1.5 Research questions

The study seeks to specifically answer the following questions developed from the research aim:

- What are international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination six years after the 2010 World Cup™?
- How did the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ change international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination?
- To what extent did the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ lead to repeat visitation to South Africa after the event?
- What are the destination brand image legacies of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa?

1.6 Research objectives

The specific research objectives to guide the study are as follows:

- To determine international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as an international sport tourism destination six years after the 2010 World Cup™.
- To ascertain how international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination have changed as result of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.
- To determine to what extent the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ led to repeat visitation to South Africa.
- To assess the destination brand image legacies that resulted from hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa.

1.7 Methodology

This section presents the research methodology this study adopted.

1.7.1 Literature review

In order to address the above-mentioned aim and objectives, as well as to answer the research questions, the literature review of this study discusses specifically the political economy of sport mega-events, emphasising the notion that most countries seek to host

sport mega-events in order to rebrand their nation brands. This leads to a discussion of place and destination branding, focusing mainly on the three theoretical bases of nation branding (country of origin (COO); public diplomacy and national identity). In the literature review, Fan's (2008) six key perceptive model and the self-perception concept are used to elaborate on how a nation's image is formed. The literature also gives an overview of sport mega-events and their legacies and an account of leveraging sport mega-events to change a nation's image. Lastly, the literature review chapters discuss repeat visitation to a sport tourism destination post a sport mega-event.

1.7.2 Research design

Research design examines the relationship among variables through testing objective theories (Creswell, 2013:4). Research design is a structure that is used to select various sources and types of information that are designed to answer research questions (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:130). This study employed a descriptive research design as it sought to determine the changes in international visitors' perceptions of South Africa as a result of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Descriptive research design is often used to measure opinions, attitudes and behaviour held by a group of people regarding a given phenomenon (Polit & Hungler, 1999:716). Burns and Grove (2007:293) support this notion and argue that descriptive research design provides the perceptions and views of the respondents about the phenomenon being studied.

In order to meet the research study's objectives, a quantitative research approach was employed, using a self-administered questionnaire for data collection. The quantitative research approach collects numerical data and factual information which is analysed using mathematically based methods to explain a social and cultural phenomenon (George, 2011:117). This approach best suits the study for it gives more factual information on how international football tourists perceive South Africa six years after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

1.7.3 Study area

This research was conducted in France which hosted the 2016 Union of European Football Associations (UEFA) European Championship. Data was collected at five major stadiums and fan zones around these stadiums in France's cities and metroppolitan areas: Nice (Stade de Nice), Marseille (Stade Vélodrome), Paris (Parc des Princes), Saint-Denis (Stade de France) and Lille (Stade Pierre-Mauroy). These stadiums were chosen because they hosted matches between teams from some of South Africa's international key source markets; respondents from some of South Africa's international source markets were the primary target population for the study as discussed in the next section.

1.7.4 Survey population

The survey population comprised primarily of international football tourists from some of South Africa's international key source markets: Germany, France, United Kingdom (UK) (South African Tourism [SAT], 2015a) and other international football tourists from other countries around the world who attended football matches during the 2016 UEFA European Championship, from 10 June until 10 July 2016 in France. According to SAT (2011), more than 309 000 tourists visited South Africa for the sole purpose of attending the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and 24% of the visitors were from Europe. It was therefore assumed that some of the visitors to the 2016 UEFA European Championship either watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ hosted in South Africa on TV or they visited South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ to spectate at football matches, and therefore they held certain perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination.

1.7.5 Methods of data collection

1.7.5.1 Primary data sources

Primary data is information that is observed, experienced or recorded first hand close to the event; it is gathered to address specific research objectives and specific research questions of a particular study, and the techniques of collecting primary data include surveys, observations and interviews (Hoy, 2010:170). For this study, the main instrument of primary data collection was a questionnaire described below.

1.7.5.2 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a survey tool that contains open-ended and closed-ended questions. Questionnaires are effective tools for collecting data for descriptive and correlational studies (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:234). The questionnaire for this study comprised closed-ended questions available in four languages: German, French, English and Spanish. The questionnaire was self-administered, with respondents completing it themselves and the researcher and the field worker checked if all questions were completed and free of errors.

1.7.5.3 Secondary data

Myers (2013:120) defines secondary data as information that has been gathered and often interpreted by other researchers and that is recorded in books, journal articles, and other publications. It was essential for the researcher to use secondary data in this study in order to provide background to the study and gain knowledge of the subject under investigation. The researcher therefore consulted secondary sources such as books, the Internet, journal

articles and previous theses and dissertations based on sport mega-event legacies and destination image.

1.8 Sample size

An estimated 2 427 303 spectators attended the 2012 UEFA European Championship ($N=$ 2 427 303) (UEFA.com, 2016a). Based on this population, a representative sample (n) at 95% confidence level is $n=384$ (Saunders et al., 2009:219). In sport event studies, it is not easy to determine the representative sample since it is difficult to monitor the movement of visitors to the event as well as to anticipate the exact number of visitors in advance (Miller, 2007:5). The research employed a spatially based systematic sampling technique. According to Strydom (2005:203), a spatial sample is mostly used in cases where there is a highly temporary population, for example, during sport events. A systematic sampling method is a periodic process that considers selecting every n^{th} element of the target population in which the first respondent is chosen randomly and every n^{th} respondent will be chosen thereafter (Pellissier, 2007:33; Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:89). The researcher and the field worker were located at the stadium precincts and fan parks and distributed the questionnaires to every 20th person who passed by.

1.9 Data analysis

Quantitative data, closed-ended questions in particular, require the utilisation of a statistical package such as the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for an effective analysis. The software allows for the data to be described and analysed using graphical illustrations such as tables, graphs and pie charts. SPSS is flexible and easy to use, thus allowing for simplified analysis of data and presentation of findings (Williams, 2003:251; Arkkelin, 2014:2). The current study used IBM SPSS Version 24.0.

1.10 Delineation of the study

The current study is limited to assessing the destination brand image legacies of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and the consequent changes in international visitors' perceptions of South Africa in the long term. The study is also restricted to international football tourists aged 18 years and above who attended the 2016 UEFA European Championship matches at selected stadiums and fan zones in France's five cities and metropolitan areas, as noted in Section 1.7.2.

1.11 Ethical considerations

When conducting a research study, the researcher should be aware of the following ethical issues: informed consent, confidentiality of participants, potential risks that could be involved in questioning, and the voluntary participation principle. Informed consent states the overall

purpose and any risks or benefits of participating in a study (Baltimore County Public Schools, 2014). In addition, confidentiality of participants is a paramount issue; participants are assured that whatever information they share will not be communicated to any other person not directly involved with the study (Verhoef & Hilsden, 2004). A potential risk that could be involved in a particular question could be emotional distress. The researcher ensured that the questions posed to the participants did not raise emotions and cause distress (Baltimore County Public Schools, 2014). According to the University of Western Australia (2014), the voluntary participation principle is when participants take part in a particular study without being coerced. In this study, respondents' privacy was ensured by including a declaration of anonymity in the survey instrument. In addition, the study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Business and Management Sciences at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology (CPUT), and ratified by the Higher Degrees Committee (HDC), a standing committee of Senate. The ethical clearance certificate is attached in Appendix A.

1.12 Significance of the study

Owing to substantial public expenditure made by South Africa in hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, it is imperative to assess the legacies of this tournament in order to justify the sponsorship and all the monies the government invested in preparation for this mega-event (Bob & Kassens-Noor, 2012:12; Bob & Potgieter, 2013:71). However, until recently there has been limited research on legacies of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, particularly the brand image legacies in South Africa (Bob & Potgieter, 2013:71), as most of the research studies to date on the impacts of 2010 FIFA World Cup™ were conducted before and immediately after the event (Swart, 2015:3). Therefore, this study focuses on assessing the brand image legacies of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ from a long-term perspective in relation to the changes in international tourists' perceptions of South Africa as result of its hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

1.13 Structure of the study

The thesis comprises seven chapters. The layout of these chapters is given below:

1.13.1 Chapter 1

Chapter 1 provides the background to the research problem. This includes a discussion of sport mega-events and their legacies, focusing on South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. In this chapter the problem statement, the aim of the research, research questions and objectives, as well as methods of data collection used in the study are discussed.

1.13.2 Chapter 2

In the second chapter, a theoretical framework is presented which discusses the political economy theory, the globalisation of sport mega-events and political economy of sport mega-events in developing nations, the bidding for sport mega-events and unethical issues that surround the bidding for such events. The political economy of sport mega-events in developing nations is analysed to explain that hosting of sport mega-events is a political tool that can assist nations to rebrand their image. Given that hosting of sport mega-events could be politically motivated, this has seen the formal bidding process of such events being politicised and has resulted in many countries winning the bids through unethical practices such as corruption (Masters, 2015:112).

1.13.3 Chapter 3

This chapter reviews the literature related to nation branding by discussing what brand and branding are, as well as covering destination and place branding. It elaborates on how these are related to nation branding. The chapter also explains the sources of a nation's image and how a nation's image is formed using Fan's six key perspectives.

1.13.4 Chapter 4

Chapter 4 gives an overview of the relationships between sport and tourism. The chapter also explains what a sport mega-event is by highlighting South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. This leads to a discussion of the impacts and legacies that result from hosting of sport mega-events, with emphasis on the brand image legacy. The chapter further discusses leveraging of sport mega-events to enhance a nation's image and the role of such events in branding nations. The last section of this chapter explains the reasons behind sport visitation, factors that constrain sport-related travel and repeat visitation after a sport mega-event.

1.13.5 Chapter 5

Chapter 5 provides an account of the research design and methodology, specifically the research instrument, target population, sample selection, sample size and methods of data analysis.

1.13.6 Chapter 6

This chapter provides a presentation and an analysis of the study's findings.

1.13.7 Chapter 7

The last chapter of the study provides conclusions, the limitations of the current study, future research directions, and recommendations with regard to the study's findings.

CHAPTER 2
THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE POLITICAL ECONOMY OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS

2.1 Introduction

A theoretical framework can be described as a structure that holds and supports the theory of a study under investigation (Grant & Osanloo, 2014:13). Grant and Osanloo (2014:13) further articulate that this structure is usually constructed by establishing a coherent explanation of a phenomenon to be investigated and its relationships. A theoretical framework should also reflect an understanding of definitions and concepts that are relevant to the research endeavour (Swanson & Chermack, 2013:14).

For the purpose of this study, political economy theory is used to elaborate that hosting of sport mega-events is deeply entrenched in the global political economy (Tichaawa, 2013:12). With sport events becoming a major component of the global political economy, it is also believed that production has shifted from developed to developing countries (Giampiccoli & Nauright, 2010:45). This has also seen a shift in countries winning the rights to host sport mega-events from the global North to the South with many emerging countries embracing hosting of such events as a political tool to transform their brand images (Koorep, 2016:6). For example, since South Africa attained its independence, it has incorporated hosting of sport mega-events as part of its diplomatic policy in order to reposition the country's image in the post-apartheid era (Lepp & Gibson, 2011a:211; Grix & Lee, 2013:524).

In this chapter, political economy theory is explained by elaborating that the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ by South Africa is embedded within the political economy of sport mega-events, highlighting the enhancement of nation image as the main reason why emerging nations seek to host such events. The chapter also discusses the politicisation of the bidding process and awarding of the rights to host sport mega-events. Lastly, the chapter discusses corruption issues that surround awarding of rights to host the FIFA World Cup™ and Olympic Games, highlighting the adverse effects such unethical practices can have on a nation's image.

2.2 Political economy theory

Political economy is a term that became popular in the early 18th century and was used to describe government's economic actions and how much those actions contributed to the socio-economic wellbeing of a country's citizens (Hall, 2012:188). Arndt (1983:47) suggests that political economy was what constituted economics 35 years prior to his writing in 1983. According to Close et al. (2007:62), the term 'political economy' in more recent years has been used to explore research traditions such as Marxist and public choice approaches that

address post-structuralism. However, in tourism and sport events studies the term is more linked to the Marxist analysis which is premised on socio-economic structures (Giulianotti, 2005:19). Hall (2012:189) notes:

> [A] political economy approach is significant for understanding how events are embedded in broad processes of political and socio-economic development, the decision-making processes that accompany event bids and hosting, governance and regulatory processes, and the uneven distribution of the costs and benefits of events.

Cox (1981:60) defines political economy as a structure of power that is derived from the social exchange process and argues that it varies according to the geo-historical setup of institutions, material capabilities as well as ideological forces. Similarly, Arndt (1983:47) states that political economy is premised on "…an inter-play of power, the goals of the power wielders and the reproductive economic exchange system". Maier (1987:6) in his description of political economy notes:

> It regards economic ideas and behaviour not as a framework of analysis, but as beliefs and actions that are contingent and problematic and which must be explained within particular political and socio-economic contexts.

Scott (2000:329) notes that the past decades have seen a notable development in urban political economy studies which focus more on sport events; this gave birth to a new field of cultural economy. Tucker (2008:22) argues that cultural economy is significant for hosting sport events. According to Amin and Thrift (2004:xviii), "…cultural economy is concerned with the process of social and cultural relations that go to make up what we conventionally term the political economy". Harvey (1989:8) and Hall (2012:188) argue that in the early 1990s, culture was incepted as part of contemporary capitalism and this resulted in the extension of urban political economy as well as giving recognition to urban entrepreneurialism which is a public–private partnership targeting investment and political development. Urban entrepreneurialism is renowned for its influential role in early sport events and political studies, and it emphasises that the subject of politics cannot be studied and examined in isolation from other political and socio-economic factors that drive and shape the development processes of urban space and places, for example urban regeneration as a result of mega sport events (Jonas & Wilson, 1999:11; Owen, 2002:323). Ribera-Fumaz (2009:447) strongly argues that the inclusion of culture into the urban political economy was to foster the use of culture as a strategy to boost socio-economic development as well as to reflect a new culture–economy relationship.

Tichaawa (2013:13) states that there are a considerable number of approaches that can be employed when exploring and examining the political economy in the field of social sciences. The most common of these are the materialist and regulatory approaches. Bramwell (2011:464) notes that the materialist approach focuses on economic issues and relations in which humans are involved. It plays a crucial role in the working class of a capitalist society becoming economic agents of development through enhanced labour processes (Bramwell,

2011:464, Tichaawa, 2013:14). On the other hand, the regulatory approach emphasises all the market factors that can contribute to political instability and it tries to devise strategies on how to regulate such an unstable and volatile environment (Cornelissen, 2011:3222).

2.2.1 Globalisation and commercialisation of sport mega-events

In the history of humankind, globalisation remains a force to reckon with and has played a very significant role in modelling and transforming the contemporary world (Huang & Hong, 2015:1030). Wright (1999:269) argues that "…capitalism has always been global, while national economies have been situated in the global accumulation process"; however the late 1960s saw an unprecedented global restructuring of capitalism on socio-political, economic and ideological levels. These changes resulted in capital being centralised and concentrated on a few individuals and ultimately led to the creation of huge disparities in the distribution of wealth and income (Wright, 1999:269). The socio-economic and political restructuring processes that dominated the post-Cold War system resulted in the inception of a new concept called globalisation (Manzenreiter, 2004:289). Dreher et al. (2008:1) note that the interrelationship that existed between the institutional changes, human dynamism, the global environment and political relations in the past decades signalled globalisation. Dreher et al. (2008:1) further note that "…while the increased global economic integration, global forms of governance, globally interlinked social and environmental developments are often referred to as 'globalisation,' there is no unanimously agreed upon definition of the term". Globalisation is a phenomenon that is complex in nature and it entails the changes and evolution of technological, economic, environmental, social and cultural aspects of the global environment (Rennen & Martens, 2003:137).

The sport market that exists today is somewhat different to the sport market that existed half a century ago; the contemporary sport market is globalised (Gratton et al., 2016:68). In respect of sport mega-events, Wright (1999:269), Nauright (2004:1325) and Gratton et al. (2016:68) note that the continuous development of TV technology and its spread across the world have seen new trends in sport production and consumption, usually referred to as economics of sport. Undoubtedly, TV broadcasting technology has contributed immensely to the popularity of events and it is a major driving force in the globalisation of sport mega-events (Gupta, 2009:1782; Gratton et al., 2016:68). The spread of sport mega-events has instigated nationalism which is evident in sport governing bodies (Holden, 2016:106). One important aspect to note about globalisation is that it signifies the flow of money, ideas and technology (Holden, 2016:106). Reid and Manson (2016:25) add that sport tourism is a multi-billion-dollar industry and the revenue it generates significantly contributes to the global economy. In the TV industry, broadcasting companies pay huge sums of money to secure broadcasting rights to sport mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™ and the Olympic Games to FIFA and International Olympic Committee (IOC) respectively (Nicholson et al.,

2015:83). In return, those broadcasting companies will make more revenue from commercials (advertisements), TV and subscription fees (Gratton et al., 2016:68). Table 2.1 shows revenue generated by the IOC through selling of broadcasting rights to media companies. Gratton et al. (2016:68) state:

> The explosive growth of TV sport and the huge sums of money generated by broadcasting rights fees have changed the economics of sport, turning it into a highly commercialised commodity.

Table 2.1: Olympic Games broadcasting revenue (in millions)

Summer Olympic Games			Winter Olympic Games		
1960	Rome	US$1.2	**1960**	Squaw Valley	US$0.05
1964	Tokyo	US$1.6	**1964**	Innsbruck	US$0.937
1968	Mexico City	US$9.8	**1968**	Grenoble	2 US$.6
1972	Munich	US$17.8	**1972**	Sapporo	US$8.5
1976	Montreal	US$34.9	**1976**	Innsbruck	US$11.6
1980	Moscow	US$88.0	**1980**	Lake Placid	US$20.7
1984	Los Angeles	US$286.9	**1984**	Sarajevo	US$102.7
1988	Seoul	US$402.6	**1988**	Calgary	US$324.9
1992	Barcelona	US$636.1	**1992**	Albertville	US$291.9
1996	Atlanta	US$898.3	**1994**	Lillehammer	US$352.9
2000	Sydney	US$1,331.6	**1998**	Nagano	US$513.5
2004	Athens	US$1,494	**2002**	Salt Lake	US$738
2008	Beijing	US$1,739	**2006**	Turin	US$831
2012	London	US$2,560	**2010**	Vancouver	US$1,279.5
			2014	Sochi	US$1,290

Source: Olympic.org (2015:24)

According to Reid and Manson (2016:25), commercialisation of sport involves using sport facilities for economic benefits through electronic and media print as well as marketing activities such as advertising and promotion in a mass market. According to Gratton et al. (2016:69):

> Commercialisation and globalisation of sport which are promoted by TV media and corporate sponsors have radically transformed the nature of modern sport, turning it from an amateur based playful activity into a serious multi-billion-dollar global business and established industry.

Wright (1999:269) and Gratton et al. (2016:69) contend that besides increased globalisation of media coverage of sport mega-events, there are other forces that are steering globalisation of such events: (i) the creation of global sports organisations (GSOs) such as IOC and FIFA which are sole owners of rights to mega sport events; (ii) creation of sport management firms that act as agents of athletes and the events they participate in; (iii) global recognition of top athletes participating in sport mega-events and their association with corporate sponsors' sport brands, for example Adidas and Nike; (iv) increased global TV broadcasting of local events such as domestic football leagues, for example, La Liga in Spain, the English Premier League (EPL) and Bundesliga in Germany.

The role of corporate sponsors in globalisation of sport mega-events is unarguably significant; it gained popularity in the late 1980s and it has grown rapidly since (Gratton et al., 2016:69). Corporate sponsors use sport mega-events to build their brands; in so doing they promote the event as well. According to Smart (2007:128), FIFA is one of the very first global sport organisations to strike deals with corporate sponsors for revenue generation and it saw the FIFA World Cup™ tournament signing multiple global commercial sponsorship agreements with corporate sponsors such as Coca-Cola and Gillette. Gratton et al. (2016:69) suggest that the new global sport market that emerged as a result of globalisation is characterised by using top athletes in commercials for sport products, for example, Nike; a hike in the prices of sponsorship deals and an unprecedented increase in price for broadcasting rights of sport mega-events. Sport mega-events do not occur in a political vacuum (Holt & Ruta, 2015:10). They are a crucial component of the global political economy, which has seen an economic production shift from developed to developing economies (Nauright, 2004:1326).

The next section discusses the political economy of sport mega-events in emerging economies.

2.2.2 The political economy of sport mega-events in emerging economies

Cornelissen and Swart (2006:108) claim that "…mega-events are complex affairs which originate from specific sets of economic objectives but which have political and social corollaries that usually extend far beyond the event itself". Coakley (2011:68) argues that elite, organised, competitive, commercial sports are represented in the media to act as a tool to foster neoliberalist ideas and beliefs, promoting and preserving the interests of corporations that sponsor events and use elite athletes to promote their product consumption. Similarly, Cornelissen and Swart (2006:108) note that such events are instigated and pursued by politicians and corporate business people whose ambitions are to be competitive and to reach growth targets. Many governments have come to realise the potential power of sport when it is used as a policy and vehicle for transformation (Holden, 2016:101). According to Gratton et al. (2015:46), governments have embraced and adopted sport policies that prioritise hosting sport mega-events as the main objective. Black (2007:261) also states that such events can be used by governments to stimulate and drive their political and economic agendas. Black's notion is supported by Cornelissen (2008:481) who argues that sport mega-events are crucial in formulating the domestic objectives of a state and in foreign policy development. According to Nauright (2004:1327) "…major sporting events are key drivers of both local and national development strategies; they have become spectacles as they compete with other leisure activities for the consumer dollar". Such sport events have certain attributes that make them fit in the new forms of globalisation which are

very influential in steering international relations and therefore set and define the parameters within which governments will craft foreign policies (Cornelissen, 2008:488).

Globally, countries compete for the rights to host sport mega-events events in order to capitalise on political, economic and social benefits thought to be associated with hosting events of such magnitude (Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:108). A change in the global political economy has caused a significant shift in the international political economy of sport mega-events (Grix & Lee, 2013:523). In the past, developed countries used to dominate in winning the rights to host mega-events; however the past few years have seen a new phenomenon where emerging countries are awarded such rights, for example, South Africa, Brazil, Russia and Qatar winning the rights to host the 2010, 2014, 2018 and 2022 FIFA World Cup™ tournaments respectively (Grix & Lee, 2013:524), as depicted in Table 2.2. Grix and Lee (2013:524) further state that in recent years emerging economies such as Brazil, Russia, India and China have won the rights to host the FIFA World Cup™ and Olympic Games, as shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Recent and upcoming sport mega-events in emerging states

Year	Event	Host country
2008	Olympic Games	China (Beijing)
2010	Commonwealth Games	India (Delhi)
2010	Men's FIFA World Cup™	South Africa
2014	Winter Olympic Games	Russia (Sochi)
2014	Men's FIFA World Cup™	Brazil
2016	Olympic Games	Brazil (Rio de Janeiro)
2018	Men's FIFA World Cup™	Russia
2018	Winter Olympic Games	South Korea (PyeongChan)
2022	Winter Olympic Games	China (Beijing)
2022	Men's FIFA World Cup™	Qatar

Source: Adapted from Grix and Lee (2013:524)

Holt and Ruta (2015:10) argue that emerging countries' decisions to bid for global events emanate from geo-political considerations. Sport mega-events are useful tools to pursue symbolic politics and one of the significant forms of such politics is promotional opportunity to enhance reputations of host destinations (Black, 2007:261; Horne, 2015:466). Symbolic politics refers to the public diplomacy or exercise of soft power as countries strive to establish their brand identity (Grix & Houlihan, 2014:573). According to Nye (2008:94) "…soft power is the ability to affect others to obtain the outcomes one wants through attraction rather than coercion or payment". For example, in the context of sport, Russia and China's re-emergence as global powers have driven them to host global events so that they can display their vast wealth and soft power to the world as well as to re-image their countries as athletic superpowers (Ustinova & Tuttle, 2010; Holt & Ruta, 2015:11). As a result, Vladimir Putin, the Russian president, considered hosting the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympics Games as a vehicle

to drive both domestic and foreign policy (Holden, 2016:101). Holden (2016:101) further states that China used the Beijing Olympics Games to advance its national interests, as it managed to influence most governments to change their stance on issues of human rights' suppression within the country and in Tibet.

In the case of South Africa, the hosting of the 1995 Rugby World Cup is considered a symbolic event; during the final of the tournament, Nelson Mandela, the then president of South Africa, clad in a Springbok jersey, shook hands with Francois Pienaar, the team's captain (Höglund & Sundberg, 2008:808). Rugby is traditionally a white sport; a handshake between a black leader and a white sportsman who represented white supremacy symbolised a rainbow nation (Höglund & Sundberg, 2008:808). It can be argued that the 1995 Rugby World Cup undoubtedly unleashed goodwill and nation building across the country as one year earlier (1994), democracy was celebrated after decades of racial segregation.

During the apartheid era in South Africa, sport was racially segregated (Farquharson & Marjoribanks, 2003:32). The conflict between the white minority and black majority was evident in sport, with racial discrimination being the order of the day in the domestic sport arena and unprecedented boycotts in international sport events (Alegi, 2001:1; Höglund & Sundberg, 2008:807). Höglund and Sundberg (2008:807) further note that the anti-apartheid movement used sport to show their discontent with and resistance to the white minority rule. This saw the apartheid regime subjected to an international ban that prohibited South Africa from participating in the Olympic Games and other global sport events such as football, rugby and cricket as part of the United Nations' sanctions and restrictions (Hiller, 2000:443). The Confederation of African Football (CAF), with the support of other African countries and the anti-apartheid movement in South Africa, fought fiercely to exclude South Africa from being an affiliate of FIFA (Desai & Vahed, 2010:155; Ndlovu, 2010:144). In 1961 South Africa was banned as a member of the world's largest football governing body until 1992, when it was readmitted into the international sport arena and allowed to participate in international football and other global sport events (Ndlovu, 2010:144). Post apartheid, the new South African government sought to boost its economic development strategies as well as to re-image its brand through hosting mega-sport events (Van der Merwe, 2007:68; Desai & Vahed, 2010:155). Coombes (2003:1) notes:

> The first democratic elections of 1994 finally ushered in the formal demise of apartheid in South Africa. However, the difficult task of setting up a workable economic, political and social cultural infrastructure that adequately represented the transition to democracy had only just begun.

According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006:108) "…slightly more than a decade into the new democratic dispensation in South Africa, sport mega-events have seemingly come to play an important socio-political role". South Africa's pursuit of mega-events is meant to fulfil the

country's political objectives of national reconciliation and nation building as part of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (Höglund & Sundberg, 2008:807; Swart & Bob, 2012:7). Cornelissen and Swart (2006:108) note that once a country gets an opportunity to host sport mega-events, it will seek and crave to host more of such events or even much bigger events. Black (2007:267) further states:

> South Africa's mega-event habit is now deeply entrenched, to the extent that one might speculate on a kind of addiction rooted in the need to sustain the feel-good high of such events to mask the continuing realities of socio-cultural and class cleavages in the post-apartheid era.

The African National Congress (ANC)-led government has remained resolute on its commitment to nation building and sport events in South Africa and this is seen as a tool for such transformation (Farquharson & Marjoribanks, 2003:32). This has led to South Africa hosting a considerable number of high-profile sport events since it gained its independence, such as the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the 2003 Cricket World Cup and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, bringing together different South African races to support the national teams (Lepp & Gibson, 2011a:212). Before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa, FIFA's inspection report had noted that giving South Africa a chance to host the tournament would go a long way towards unifying all the citizens of the country (Black, 2007:267). According to Black (2007:267), the role of hosting such events is "to transcend historic divisions and build a new, pluralistic, democratic, and multiracial ('rainbow nation') identity".

Sport mega-events have the capacity to raise a country's profile and they are usually linked to countries that wish to re-invent and re-image themselves (Ritchie et al., 2009:145). According to Müller (2016:135), "…brands such as the Olympic Games or the FIFA World Cup™ enjoy unrivalled recognition and positive associations". One of the main aims of hosting sport mega-events in South Africa is to improve the brand image of the country as a whole (Knott et al., 2015:46). Like any other developing country, South Africa faced a serious branding challenge in the lead-up to the FIFA World Cup™, in respect of certain stereotypes associated with developing countries and the unfamiliarity of their brands to international markets (Anholt, 2007:43). Anholt (2007:44) further states that the usual stereotypes associated with such countries are those with negative connotations, and include corruption, disease, civil war and crime. However, after South Africa successfully hosted the 1995 World Rugby Cup and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, visitors' perceptions were somewhat changed in the short run owing to the positive international media coverage during and after the events (Swart et al., 2015:73).

The global market is characterised by fierce competition and sport mega-events are seen as drivers of economic growth in such a volatile market (Alegi, 2001:1). Such events are known for their power to attract foreign direct investment to the host destinations as well as their role in promoting infrastructure development and urban regeneration (Dowse, 2011:5). On the

other hand, hosting sport mega-events in the developing world is considered a mixed blessing. Such events are surrounded by considerable controversy, and if not planned thoroughly, can result in considerable financial costs and losses (Van der Merwe, 2007:68). Besides that notion, generally the iron law of mega-projects such as sport mega-events stipulates that they will always be "over budget, over time, over and over again" (Flyvbjerg, 2014:6). The Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) (2013:107) claims that the South African government spent about R40 billion in preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. According to the South African Rugby Union (2017), South Africa has already paid a guarantee of R160 million as part of the bidding process for the 2023 Rugby World Cup. Critics of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa argue that the money should instead have been used to improve the social wellbeing of the local population (Swart et al., 2015:70). The same could be said for the bidding for the 2023 Rugby World Cup, considering the huge amount of money that South Africa has already spent on the bidding process.

The political economy of sport mega-events in emerging nations has been discussed; the next section explains the role of politics in bidding for sport mega-events which led to the politicisation of the bidding process for sport events.

2.3 Bidding for sport mega-events

As discussed in the preceding paragraphs, hosting of sport mega-events is entrenched in the political and economic development strategies of most governments. According to Masters (2015:112), the bidding process for sport mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™ and Olympic Games involves political and economic activity at global level. Cornelissen (2004b:51) argues that bidding for sport mega-events is typically a political affair, as politics plays a crucial role in shaping the whole bidding process and its outcomes. Tichaawa (2013:25) further notes that the selection process of countries and cities that host sport mega-events shows that such events are political and economic in nature. Sport mega-events are sought for their perceived economic and socio-political benefits, such as infrastructure development, urban regeneration and image enhancement, especially for developing economies (Walters, 2011:210). Varrel and Kennedy (2011:1) argue that such events are platforms to promote national unity and identity as well as to earn prestige and legitimacy to become major players in the global arena; this was true when South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Black and Peacock (2011:2271) add that emerging economies bid for sport mega-events to showcase a new trend of "modernity, legitimacy and success to the international community". However, Varrel and Kennedy (2011:3) argue that bidding for such events is not meant to serve solely the general public, but to also serve special interests of powerful politicians and individual business people. Lobby groups and elite politicians have the capacity to influence and induce governments to bid for sport mega-

events on the pretext that they will improve the social welfare of citizens (Pomfret et al., 2009:21). This has resulted in an unprecedented increase in competition between countries bidding for rights to host sport mega-events, despite a hike in bidding costs (Richards & Marques, 2016:181). However, a successful bid might be perceived to bring few benefits (Pomfret et al., 2009:2). According to the *ex post* cost benefit analysis, the net gains of sport mega-events to the host community are usually inadequate or negative. Despite this, governments have continued to fund bids for future events using taxpayers' money, for example, South Africa paid R160 million as a guarantee in bidding for the 2023 Rugby World Cup (South African Rugby Union, 2017). Pomfret et al. (2009:3), based on Grossman and Helpman's common-agency framework (1994), are of the opinion that society comprises three groups: the lobby groups, the government and the public. They further contend that the lobby group makes some political contributions to the government and in return will benefit directly from the bidding process. However, it is the public that will bear all the costs of bidding, while the lobby group does not contribute anything to cover the costs. Pomfret et al. (2009:9) conclude:

> Interactions between lobby groups and government can lead to a bid which is not in the public interest. The diversion of direct gains to lobby groups and the accrual to those groups of a larger share of the benefits from a successful bid may be in politicians' interests rather than the interests of the public, and both government and the lobby group may prefer to obfuscate how such returns are distributed.

According to Walters (2011:208), there are many factors that can be considered for a country to be successful in sport event bids. Westerbeek et al. (2002:309) identify the four macro-level components and eight key success factors in bidding for sport events as shown in Table 2.3. However, in the case of sport mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™ and Olympics Games, political support is paramount and this has led to politicisation of the bidding process (Walters, 2011:208). For example, Preuss (2015:643) notes that in the past few years, many cities withdrew their bids for the Summer 2020 Olympic Games and the 2022 Winter Olympic Games after their governments failed to give them political support.

Even though there are standards for bidding for sport events, politicians usually take advantage of their political powers to influence the bidding process, especially if hosting of such events is part of their political objective (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013:15). Roche (2008:287) argues that bidding for mega-events requires government intervention to support and coordinate the bidding process. Given the notion that governments use sport mega-events to showcase their countries, it leaves them with no option but to use their political power to influence the bidding process (Walters, 2011:209). In addition, the politicisation of the bidding process is evident in governments' support of international sport confederations when bidding for mega-sport events, for example, for a city to be accepted as a candidate for the Olympic bid, the IOC requires a recommendation and support from its government (Masterman, 2014:186).

Table 2.3: Macro components and key success factors for event bidding

Macro component	Key success factor (KSF)	KSF description
Political Enhancing a destination image and ideology, enhancing politicians' positions	• *Bid team composition*	The need for a mix of talented and influential people on the bid committee.
	• *Political support*	Increased government involvement in bid process (securing resources, political stability and financial stability).
Economic/tourism Direct and indirect economic benefits, tourism increases	• *Communication and exposure*	The combination of the host region's reputation with communications/technological systems for national/global media exposure.
	• *Ability to organise*	Event organisation and management expertise.
Psychological/community Competency, self-efficacy, sense of pride of the community, tourists and participants.	• *Accountability*	The dependent relationship the event bidder has with the event owner and the general public.
	• *Relationship marketing*	The power the people forming the bid committee have and their related influence on key decision makers.
Architectural Venue and accommodation analysis/allocation, transportation requirements and media services	• *Infrastructure*	Location and accessibility of the proposed sites for the event.
	• *Existing facilities*	Pre-existing high-quality facilities related to spectator accommodation and other established facilities.

Source: Parent and Smith-Swan (2013:16)

Also, for a bid to be successful, there should be a highly specialised network of relationships between the event owners, such as FIFA and the IOC (who are the sole owners of events rights and the decision-making bodies) and the event bidders (governments) (Turner & Westerbeek, 2004:350). Parent and Deephouse (2007:3) support this notion and argue that for bids to be successful, the organising committee should establish a significant relationship with key stakeholders of the event. These relationships are usually influenced by other stakeholders such as sponsors, media, participants, sport federations, politicians and the host community (Parent & Smith-Swan, 2013:16).

It can be argued that the politicisation of the bidding process of sport mega-events has seen awarding of rights to host global events marred by a number of unethical issues such as

corruption and bribery: in respect of this, the next section discusses unethical issues surrounding the awarding of rights to host the FIFA World Cup™ and the Olympic Games.

The globalisation of the sport economy and an increasing inflow of money into sport governing bodies inevitably create a conducive setting for unethical practices such as corruption to take hold (Andreff, 2016:47; Chappelet, 2016:24; Pielke, 2016:31). Andreff (2016:47) further argues that corruption is not a new phenomenon; it has existed since sport came into being and it is still evident in modern sport. According to Sweeney (2016:xix), poor governance and corruption scandals in sport governing bodies witnessed in recent years threaten to overshadow the benefits that sport could bring. The first recorded sport corruption cases date back to 388, 332 and 12 BC, when Olympians were bribed to lose games (Gorse & Chadwick, 2013:10).

The next section discusses unethical issues in awarding of rights to host sport mega-events in recent times.

2.3.1 Issues surrounding the awarding of rights to host the FIFA World Cup™ and the Olympic Games

Maennig (2005:188) strongly believes that the phenomenon of sport corruption exists in almost every country. Sport corruption takes many forms, including manipulation of the bidding process; election rigging; money laundering and racketeering; fraudulent sponsorships; doping; kickbacks and match fixing (Gorse & Chadwick, 2013:10; Chappelet, 2016:24). Maennig (2005:189) and Chappelet (2016:24) further articulate that sport corruption can be placed into two categories, namely, corruption on the field of play by participants and match officials, and corruption off the field of play which usually happens behind the scenes in sport governing bodies. According to Davis and Ruhe (2003:277), there is no universally accepted definition of sport corruption; the definitions are diverse and very confusing (Kayes, 2006:51). According to Tanzi (1998:560), this could be attributed to the fact that countries interpret the concept of corruption differently; what is considered to be ethical behaviour in one country might be treated as unethical in another country, which leads to confusion when trying to define corruption (Gorse, 2013:50). However, the most important aspect to note is that for one's behaviour to be considered corrupt it should violate the set rules and regulations or deviate from the routine way of executing duties (Gorse, 2013:50). In support of Gorse's notion, Masters (2015:113) contends that sport corruption is "the deviation from public expectations that sport will be played and administered in an honest manner". According to Gorse and Chadwick (2010:40) "corruption in sport refers to any illegal, immoral or unethical activity that attempts to deliberately distort the outcome of a sporting contest for the personal material gain of one or more parties involved in that activity". However, Gorse and Chadwick's (2010:40) definition only explains corruption in the

field of play (competition corruption) (Masters, 2015:112). In an attempt to define corruption off the field of play, Maennig (2005:189) names it 'management corruption', which encompasses biased decision making, soliciting bribes to award hosting rights, and money laundering by sport officials and sport governing bodies. This section focuses on sport corruption off the field of play by governments in order to win the rights to host sport mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™ and the Olympic Games (management corruption).

As stated previously in this thesis, the FIFA and IOC are the sole owners of rights to host the FIFA World Cup™ and Olympics Games respectively; hence they have the power to decide on which country or city to host such events (Louw, 2012:58). Bidding for sport mega-events has always been political, and that political process is often corrupt (Zimbalist, 2016:155). Horne (2016:163) adds that "…the sources, forms and consequences of sport corruption are embedded within political and economic systems". Transparency International (2015) further argues that "…sport has intricate ties to political and private interests and this means opportunities for corruption".

In the case of South Africa, Nelson Mandela and Archbishop Desmond Tutu used their political influence to bring the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ to South Africa. It is alleged that they travelled to Trinidad to appeal to and persuade one of the executive members to vote in favour of South Africa during the bid selection process of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ host (Jennings, 2011:397). There has been a shift in the countries winning bids to host sport mega-events (from developed to developing countries), and this has raised concerns about how international sport governing bodies are awarding rights to host such events, with many accusing FIFA and the IOC of being corrupt. Horne (2016:163) argues that such accusations are mere political fights between emerging economies and the developed world. This is true in the case of investigations into Russia's and Qatar's winning of the rights to host the 2018 and 2022 FIFA World Cup™ respectively, as these investigations are perceived to be politically motivated, with America, a political rival of Russia, leading the investigations (Horne, 2016:163). There have been widespread rumours of corruption in international sport governing bodies in recent times; however, it is somewhat difficult to verify such allegations empirically (Andreff, 2016:51). Louw (2012:23) states:

> These are challenging times for those who roam the corridors of power in the highest echelons of international sport bodies, with some international sports federations such as FIFA and IOC having experienced crises of governance and well-publicised allegations of corruption and mismanagement in the past decades.

According to Loretta Lynch, a United States of America (USA) Attorney General leading the investigations into FIFA's alleged corruption scandal, corruption in FIFA is "rampant, systematic and deep rooted" (Maximino, 2015). Maennig (2005:203) argues that the recorded and known cases of sport corruption only show the tip of the iceberg, as most cases are ignored and never reported. As hosting of sport mega-events is increasingly

becoming more attractive, conversely the role of inducements has grown exponentially (Szymanski, 2016:159). With FIFA and the IOC failing to make a difference between legitimate and illegitimate inducements, such practices are deemed to be corrupt and are discredited (Szymanski, 2016:159). The most recorded cases of corruption involve government officials paying bribes to FIFA and IOC officials to win the rights to host their events (Masters, 2015:113). In the case of the IOC, it is alleged that IOC officials received bribes from the bid organising committee to secure votes for Salt Lake City which hosted the 2002 Winter Olympic Games (Maennig, 2005:188; Johnson, 2007). Also, FIFA is facing serious allegations of corruption after awarding South Africa, Russia and Qatar the rights to host World Cup tournaments. The South African government is accused of paying more than USD10m to FIFA officials to win the rights ahead of Morocco (Brown & Randall, 2015; Quintal et al., 2015). The *Sunday Times* (2016) reported that the South African government denied such allegations and it insinuated that the money paid was meant for FIFA's youth development projects in the Caribbean. The then South African Sport Minister, Fikile Mbalula, said:

> South Africa did not pay a bribe nor did it conspire to illegally obtain the rights to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™; the $10 million payment was an honest donation to support football among the African diaspora in the Caribbean (*Sunday Times*, 2016).

According to Becker (2013:134), the controversy that surrounds the awarding of rights to Russia and Qatar to host the FIFA World Cup™ is centred on the bidding process that took place in 2010. Traditionally 24 executive members vote to select the host country; however in 2010 only 22 members voted. The other two members were barred from voting as they were under investigation after they were accused of selling their votes for money (Becker, 2013:134). It was the first time since 1966 that two hosts for two separate FIFA World Cup™ were chosen at the same time, and this increased the chances of vote collusion (Gauthier 2011:13). In 2015, fourteen officials from FIFA were arrested after being accused of receiving bribes linked to awarding hosting rights for the 2018 FIFA World Cup™ to Russia and the 2022 FIFA World Cup™ to Qatar (Maximino, 2015).

It is undeniable that sport events enable a country to build a positive brand equity; however if a country is implicated in sport corruption scandals there is a likelihood that its brand image will be tainted (Gorse & Chadwick, 2009:15). According to Maennig (2005:215), countries that are indicted in sport corruption cases may suffer a loss of image. South Africa, Russia and Qatar hope to enhance their image through hosting of events such as FIFA World Cup™ and Olympics Games; however if it emerges that all the allegations of corruption against them are true, it will be very damaging to their brand image and dent their hopes of nation building (Van Dijk, 2016:36). In an interview with *The Edge*, Chadwick argues that whether the countries implicated in the FIFA corruption scandal are found guilty or not, the mere fact

that they were embroiled in corruption scandals may already have inflicted some reputational damages (Van Dijk, 2016:36).

2.4. Summary

Sport mega-events are an important component of the global political economy. A change in the global economy has also resulted in a major shift in the political economy of sport mega-events, as in the past only developed countries would host such events. However, in recent years, many emerging economies such as South Africa have pursued hosting of sport mega-events to reposition their brand image. Considering that most emerging nations have poor brand images, many have made hosting of global sport events part of their political objectives, often referred to as public diplomacy policy, in order to secure exposure in the international arena as well as to enhance their brand image.

The existing literature does suggest that bidding for sport mega-events has been politicised and this has seen the bidding process of global sport events marred by a number of unethical issues such corruption and bribery. In 2014, it emerged that South Africa, Russia and Qatar won the rights to host the FIFA World Cup^{TM} through bribing some of the council members. Whether such allegations are true or not, the brand images of the countries implicated might have been dented to some extent by such allegations.

The next chapter discusses literature related to place and nation branding. It also discusses the conceptual analysis of how a nation image is formed using Fan's (2008) six key perspective model.

CHAPTER 3
PLACE AND NATION BRANDING

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to identify the brand image legacies which resulted from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Therefore, this chapter discusses literature related to place and nation branding. It starts with defining the term 'brand' and explaining different approaches to branding, then discusses the concepts of destination and place branding and how they relate to nation branding. Lastly the chapter discusses the conceptual analysis of how a nation's image is formed, using Fan's (2008) six key perspective model.

3.2 Defining the term 'brand'

According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) (2009:41), many people use the term 'brand' to refer to different things, thereby creating little consensus on how to define it. This term has been used for many centuries and can be traced to economic history as it has been derived from the concept of differentiation and identification (Ndlovu, 2009:52). Ballantyne and Aitken (2007:365) further articulate that a brand as a differentiator depicts its value, meaning and perceptions in order to differentiate it from its rivals, and as an identifier brand is related to the aspect of ownership. One of the earliest definitions of brand was by the American Marketing Association (AMA): "a name, term, sign, symbol or design, or a combination of them, intended to identify the goods and services of one seller or group of sellers" (Keller, 2008:2). This early definition is often criticised for not considering intangible brand attributes and its failure to differentiate products (Avis, 2009; UNWTO, 2009:41). Blichfeldt (2003:10) argues that most definitions of a brand are premised on two approaches: 'product plus' and 'holistic view'. The product plus approach dictates that brand is just like other additional components of the product such as pricing, promotion and packaging, hence it is "an addition to the product". According to Blichfeldt (2003:10), this concept focuses on consumer mass communication. Knott (2014:84) adds that the 'product plus' focuses on tangible elements, functional features, benefits and rational thought as articulated in AMA's definition of brand. This notion is supported by Dinnie (2015:3), who describes it as a concept that "focuses upon visual manifestation of a brand". On the other hand, 'holistic view' uses a more comprehensive approach to define brand and stipulates that "…brands reside in the minds of consumers" (Blichfeldt, 2003:10). Dinnie (2015:3) argues that this approach digs much deeper and goes beyond defining a brand in terms of its visual aspects; hence it tries to articulate the intrinsic nature of a brand. The holistic perspective is clearly articulated by Fanning (1999:4), who states that "…the word 'brand' is used to represent everything that people know about, think about or feel about anything that affects their behaviour", while Prasad and Dev (2000:23) note that "…a brand symbolises the essence of the customers'

perceptions". Furthermore, the holistic view of brand focuses on perceptions, emotions, relationship, values, culture and personality (Knott, 2014:36). UNWTO (2009:42) argues that definitions of brand have evolved and dynamic definitions stipulate that brand is all about how customers (tourists) perceive the product (nation's attributes). For the purpose of this study, both product plus and holistic views of brand are considered when exploring the theoretical review of nation branding and its origin.

3.3 Place and destination branding

Hatch and Schultz (2003:1043) argue that corporate branding is believed to be the pioneer of branding, where an organisation's product offerings are distinguished from those of its rivals. Many scholars argue that this concept of corporate branding can also be applied to intangible aspects such as geographical locations (Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Olins, 2002; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002; Anholt, 2003). According to Knott (2014:37), the aspect of geographical locations (place) can refer to regions, countries, nations and cities. The concepts of place and destination branding are often confused; they look similar and overlap with nation branding; however they differ in scope and purpose (Knott, 2014:38). In this section, the similarities and differences of these two terms are explored. The link between place and destination is noted by Morgan et al. (2011:4) who suggest that a place can only be transformed into a destination through tourism promotional campaigns which seek to convey a destination's narratives and images. This is supported by Briciu (2013:9), who argues that in branding, the word 'destination' implies a tourism approach. Blain et al. (2005:331) suggest a definition that uses a tourism approach and define destination branding as:

> The marketing activities that support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, word, mark or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates a destination; conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination and serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience, all with the purpose of creating an image that influences consumers' decisions to visit the destination in question, as opposed to an alternative one.

However, Briciu (2013:9) argues that the aspect of place is more holistic than destination and it includes the interaction of places with environmental factors such as politics, trade and foreign investment. According to UNWTO (2009:8), place branding refers to the holistic branding of a country or nation. Similarly, Govers and Go (2009:41) argue that even though place branding involves tourism, it is a broader concept that is used to attract people who want to experience a place (nation), such as investors, international visitors and experienced individuals. According to UNWTO (2009:8), the concepts of place branding and destination branding should "gel and reinforce each other". In trying to link these two concepts, Baker (2007:26) defines destination branding as "…an organising principle that involves orchestrating the messages and experiences associated with a place to ensure that they are distinctive, compelling and memorable in the minds of would be visitors". In this definition of destination branding, the interrelationship between place and destination branding is clearly

articulated; the definition implies conveying messages and experiences of a place (city, nation, region) to attract tourists. In essence destination branding is built upon place branding and it focuses explicitly on creating a positive tourism destination image (Knott, 2014:34). Destination branding is about building a positive destination image that has the capability to identify and differentiate a tourism destination through selection of all the element mix of that particular brand (Buhalis, 2000:99).

The existing literature clearly shows that nation branding was built upon place branding. In essence, it is a more holistic branding of a country (place). The next section discusses nation branding and its theoretical basis.

3.4 Nation branding

According to Anholt (2007:4), the process of branding entails building a reputation of the brand using brand identity and brand image; these metaphors have also been applied to nations, hence the term 'nation branding' (Knott, 2014:37). The concept of branding a nation is not as contemporary as some scholars argue; it is only the term 'nation branding' that is new (Olins, 2002; Anholt & Hildreth, 2004). Olins (2002:241) states that nations have always branded themselves using their currency, anthems, products and emblems. In support of Olins (2002), Loo and Davies (2006:198) note that "…every nation is a brand and most nations have had their brands made for them. The brand of a nation could have been developed deliberately or by default, formed from a myriad of different sources". Dinnie (2008:13) notes that the concept of nation branding is very controversial, considering the fact that it is highly politicised and usually leads to differing opinions and heated debates. Despite all this controversy, most countries are perusing and embracing nation branding to attract foreign consumers in a globalised world economy that is often characterised by intense competition (Dinnie, 2008:14). For the agenda of nation branding to be successful, it should be driven by stakeholders who can deliver a combination of values that will allow a nation to make a promise to the outside world about its unique and welcoming experience; these stakeholders could be representatives from the private sector, non-profit organisations, government and media (Dinnie, 2008:16).

Dinnie (2008:16) notes that a more succinct definition of nation branding uses the holistic view approach of defining a brand; therefore, it articulates that brands exist in the minds of consumers and it also cites perceptual characteristics of consumers. This definition is proposed by UNWTO (2009:43), which defines nation branding as a way in which a country presents itself to the international arena and the perceptions that potential consumers have about that particular country. Olins (2002:241) and Dinnie (2008:15) argue that a nation cannot be branded, for it is neither owned by an individual company nor a brand manager; surely if it belongs to anyone, then it is to all the citizens of a nation. Fan (2010:99) and

Kaneva (2011:120) further argue that many people are of the opinion that it is not prudent to brand a nation, as branding is a capitalist tool. In order to convince the general public, Anholt (2007:5) re-coined nation branding to 'competitive identity', a concept he believes is a potent tool to enhance competitiveness among countries. Competitive identity refers to a combination of brand management and public diplomacy; this term tries to articulate that nations with a positive brand have a competitive edge over their rivals (Knott, 2014:41). Therefore, Dinnie (2008:17) strongly argues that managing a country's brand image should be a top priority for governments to attract tourists, expertise and investors; restore international credibility; and forge strong international partnerships. Morrison and Anderson (2002:20) suggest that nation branding is a formal way to communicate the nation's unique identity through differentiating it from its competitors. Qu et al. (2011:465) support Morrison and Anderson's notion and argue that the concept of nation branding has increasingly becoming important, as it enables nations to be differentiated from rival nations in the minds of prospective visitors or target markets. According to Gudjonsson (2005:285), "…nation branding uses the tools of branding to alter the behaviour, attitudes and image of a nation in a positive way". Qu et al. (2011:465) further note that nation branding seeks to influence behaviours and attitudes of a country's target audience, such as international visitors. Based on the two arguments above, it is clear that nation branding seeks to achieve two main objectives: ensuring that a nation has a positive image as well as to inform and convince international audiences about that positive image. Therefore, Szondi (2008:5) argues that for nation branding to be successful, the local people should "live the brand" so that they can be the mouthpiece of a nation to the outside world. According to Brand South Africa (BSA) (2013), results from international research show how a president of a nation can play a key and influential role as a brand champion. A president is "…influential over the content and tone of those speaking and writing about the country" (BSA, 2013). A nation's image and reputation is a true reflection of its government's actions and how such actions are perceived by the outside world (Dinnie, 2008:23).

According to Van Ham (2001:3), there is no doubt that nations that are not branded face a string of problems, for example, it will be very difficult to attract enough political and economic attention. Van Ham (2001:3) further states that a nation's image and reputation are crucial components of any country's nation branding management strategy that seeks to attract large volumes of international tourists. This is supported by Fan (2010:101), who defines nation branding as "…a process, by which a nation's images can be created, monitored, evaluated and proactively managed in order to improve or enhance the country's reputation among a target international audience". UNWTO (2009:8) notes that countries with a poor reputation as a result of rampant crime, high poverty rates and corruption are regarded by travellers as no-go areas; on the other hand, countries with a positive image are mostly given first preference by travellers when making a decision to visit a tourism

destination. According to Dinnie (2015:6), nation branding assists in erasing the bad memories and misconceptions of a country and gives it an edge to reposition itself. Kotler and Gertner (2002:250) and Fetscherin (2010:467) note the major objectives of nation branding: to create positive attitudes to and perceptions of a country in the target markets; to lure business and tourism; and to attract direct foreign investment.

Many scholars argue that the concept of nation branding originated from three theoretical bases, namely, Country of Origin (COO), public diplomacy, and national identity (Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Papadopoulos & Heslop, 2002). These bases of nation branding will be discussed in the next section, conceptualising the theoretical origins of nation branding.

3.4.1 Country of Origin

Knott (2014:44) argues that the concept of nation branding emanated from the literature that is linked to the COO effect. Ali and Rehman (2015:38) support that notion and further argue that COO literature provides a backbone and basic principle for nation branding studies. Early scholars like Schooler (1965) undertook research on COO to test the preconceived images that are generated by a product's national origin. According to Dinnie (2015:90), the COO effect "…refers to the effect that a product or service's origin has on consumer attitudes and behaviour towards that product or service". Suh et al. (2016:2721) explain the COO effect as the influence on a customer considering products that are manufactured in a foreign country; it is usually triggered by the stereotypes that are associated with that particular country and all it produces.

In their study, Kotler and Gertner (2002:250) note that most countries make it mandatory for companies to label their products, disclosing their COO. Product labelling may lead to customers generalising product quality, based on the product's national origin (Suh et al., 2016:2271). In a bid to elaborate on the relationship between nations and their products, Liu and Johnson (2005:88) claim that in the market place most products tend to confer intangible attributes and these can be linked to their COO. Therefore, Clifton (2014:122) suggests that it is these intangible attributes of a product that can influence perceptions of the home country. For example, the perceived value of German automobiles, French perfume, Swiss watches and Korean mobile technology has contributed to positive perceptions of their country brands (Clifton, 2014:123). Generally, consumers are more willing to buy products from developed countries whose brands are prominent and perceived to be of high quality, for example products manufactured in Switzerland and Germany (Kotler & Gertner, 2002:251). On the contrary, products from developing countries, for example most African countries, may be perceived to be of low quality as result of poor reputation as well as low country brand equity associated with developing countries (Knott, 2014:45). According to Liu and Johnson (2005:87), the associated symbolic value of a product in the mind of a

consumer is ignited by the COO information. Simonin (2008:20) notes that the COO effect also applies to cultural products like music, films and books in portraying a country's reputation.

3.4.2 Public diplomacy

Public diplomacy is believed to have American roots, as scholars and practitioners in America contributed to a considerable amount of theory and literature in this area of study (Szondi, 2008:1). The relationship between public diplomacy and nation branding is evident in the academic journal, *Place Branding and Public Diplomacy*, originally edited by Simon Anholt (now editor emeritus), a guru in nation branding (Szondi, 2008:2; Knott, 2014:45). The historical origin of nation branding in the context of public diplomacy is clearly articulated by Varga (2013:825), who notes that "…nation branding is merely a prolongation of public diplomacy and a supposedly apolitical, neutral and post political marketing strategy". Anholt (2008), cited in Public diplomacy and nation branding (2011) notes that cultural diplomacy is part of public diplomacy and similarly Bond et al. (2003:371) regard nation branding as a component of cultural policy. Varga (2013:826) supports this idea: "…nation branding is essentially an inner-oriented cultural-political measure that targets the citizens of the national state".

According to Anholt (2008), cited in Public diplomacy and nation branding (2011), "public diplomacy refers to government communication aimed at foreign audiences to achieve changes in the 'heart or mind of people". Wang (2006:42), has similar opinion and argues that public diplomacy seeks to promote a country's policies using state-sponsored programmes in the public media such as national radios, TV and newspapers. Public diplomacy can also be described as the activities that a government directs to other nations abroad in the areas of education, culture and information in order to influence foreign nationals through their governments (Anholt, 2008), cited in Public diplomacy and nation branding (2011). Besides the above-mentioned activities, in recent years many countries, including developing ones, are seeking to exercise soft power through hosting of sport mega-events to showcase and raise appreciation of their countries (Simonin, 2008:24). This is true in the case of the BRICS countries in that they successfully bid and hosted such global events, signalling their abilities in the international arena (Grix & Lee, 2013:521).

3.4.3 National identity

The last theoretical basis for nation branding origin is national identity. In her study, Aronczyk (2013:11) opines that nation branding is an extension of current views on national identity. This view was noted earlier by Kersting (2008:279) who argues that national identity is not permanent as it changes over time and undergoes a redefinition and reconstruction phase as

a result of various processes of globalisation. Grossberg et al (2006:56) define national identity as "an awareness of the affiliation with a nation that gives people a sense of who they are in relation to others". Arkenbout (2015:1) contends that when constructing a nation, it is crucial to note who and what makes it; therefore he argues that the issue of 'your' nation can be explained as an idea of nationalism whereby 'your' country is made superior and others that are not 'your' country are made out to be inferior. In other words, the idea of nationalism which alludes to sentiments of national belonging plays a crucial role in nation building (Arkenbout, 2015:2).

Dinnie (2015:118) highlights the significant role that national identity plays in branding a nation, by emphasising that one should understand and be aware of the key features of national identity in order to devise a more appealing nation branding campaign. According to Stewart (2006:482), these key features include culture; common myths and historical memories; and geographical territories and legal rights for all members of a society. However, for the purpose of this study, the most important key feature discussed is historical memories that the whole of Africa, and South Africa in particular, have after South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. The event was the first of its kind to be hosted by an Africa nation. Xu (2006:90) identifies the significant role sport mega-events play in promoting host countries' national identities and culture. Therefore, the researcher suggests that the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} significantly contributed to South Africa's national identity, considering the national pride that South Africans have today as the first ever African country to host an event of such magnitude. Koch (2013:44) also notes the role of sport mega-events in national identity, by arguing that during the sport matches sport fans will be singing national anthems, waving national flags, and donning jerseys bearing national colours and symbols.

Having discussed what nation branding is and its theoretical basis, it is now imperative to discuss how a nation's image can be formed. In the next section, Fan's (2008:2) six key perspective model is used to explain how an image of a nation can be formed.

3.5 Conceptual analysis of a nation's image

According to Fan (2008:2), many countries are facing a serious problem of poor image and bad reputation, hence many resort to nation branding to evade this dilemma. Ndoye (2009:415) adds that many countries have made conveying their image to the outside world a top priority to repair damaged images. As discussed in the previous section, nation branding entails building a positive image and reputation for a country to attract international audiences. In this section, a conceptual framework for the analysis of nation image formation process is explained using Fan's (2008) six key perspective model developed from the four central viewpoints of organisation image of Brown et al. (2006:100). Fan's model shows how

organisational identity can be applied to the context of nation image. Therefore, in order to understand Fan's (2008) six key perspective model, it is imperative to discuss the concepts of brand identity and image, and how these can be applied to nation branding. Also, for the purpose of this section, it is important to discuss the sources of those images.

3.5.1 Nation brand identity and nation brand image

Nandan (2005:264) notes that identity and image are related but distinct terms; hence they are often confused and used interchangeably. Dinnie (2008:42) gives comparative definitions of both terms: "…identity refers to what something truly is, its essence, whereas image refers to how something is perceived". De Chernatony (2009:165) argues that when applied to organisational branding, identity (brand identity) refers to the "…ethos, aims and values that present a sense of individuality differentiating the brand". Nandan (2005:265) tracks the origins of brand identity to corporate organisations and argues that this term refers to the branding strategy activities undertaken by corporate organisations to identify themselves through "…conveying their individuality and distinctiveness to all their relevant publics". Kapferer (2008:38) further argues that brand identity should be long lasting and resistant to change; however when the brand identity is no longer appealing to the target market it should be changed to suit current circumstances. On the other hand, brand image, according to Kotler (2008:197), is "…the set of beliefs held about a particular brand". Nandan (2005:267) contends that brand image is a result of associations that consumers have in their minds about a particular brand.

Literature on the concepts of brand identity and brand image has been used in the context of branding corporate product offerings as discussed in the previous section; however, the same concepts can also be applied to countries resulting in nation brand identity and nation brand image respectively (Dinnie, 2008:42). Nation brand identity is believed to have emanated from national identity; however it is arguable that nation brand identity does not constitute all elements of national identity (Dinnie, 2008:46). In an attempt to differentiate between national identity and nation brand identity, Aaker and Joachimsthaler (2002:43) argue that nation brand identity "…refers to the identity of a specific nation brand, not the nation". Dinnie (2008:46) however states that it is crucial to identify key components of national identity that correlate with the nation branding campaign when developing a nation brand identity, for example, natural environment, commercial products, religion and culture. Stokburger-Sauer (2011:1283) defines nation brand identity as the "…perception of belongingness to the nation brand, and thus, experiencing the nation brand success and failure". This definition implies that people often identify with certain popular nation brands, for example, 'brand America' and 'brand Switzerland'. In essence, those individuals are attracted to the American or Swiss way of life (Stokburger-Sauer, 2011:1283).

Dinnie (2008:47) defines nation image as the "…impact that generalisations and perceptions about a country have on a person's evaluation of the country's products or brands". According to UNWTO (2009:43), nation image refers to the perception of a country in other countries, by governments, investors, potential consumers or travellers. The different perceptions that people have about a country usually come from various influencing factors such as international media broadcasting and reporting, personal experience after visiting a country, word-of-mouth recommendations from friends and relatives, pre-existing national stereotypes, political events in the country, and the portrayal of a country's image by the performance of national sporting teams (Dinnie, 2008:47).

The next sub-section discusses the various sources of nation brand image.

3.5.2 Sources of nation brand image

Tourists' knowledge and beliefs of other nations usually come from various forms of media such as newspapers, magazines, radio and TV (Beerli & Martin, 2004:661). These forms of media create awareness of the nation's products, tourism offerings, economic and socio-political situations (Beerli & Martin, 2004:661). According to Swart et al. (2013a: 1977), the media play a very important role in disseminating information of interest to potential tourists. For example, sport mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™ and the Olympic Games receive wide international media coverage. Maguire (2011:682) notes that the media frame and portray how sport mega-events and host countries are perceived internationally. However, Ferreira and Donaldson (2014:255) warn that the image projected by the media may be genuine, or misleading and tendentious. Kotler and Gertner (2002:253) argue that people tend to adhere to their cognitive structures, and in most instances they only take cognisance of information that correlates with their expectations; they resist any other information that is different from what they already know. Kotler and Gertner (2002:253) further state that the role of the media in image building is crucial, as it shapes tourists' perceptions of other nations through reporting societal problems such as human rights violations, political riots and crime. For example, before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, some sections of the international media portrayed South Africa as unsuitable to host the event because of high crime rates and xenophobic attacks on African foreigners. Most visitors therefore had negative perceptions of South Africa based on what they had heard and read in the media (Perry et al., 2012:124). However, during the build up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, South Africa benefited from positive international media reporting (Knott et al., 2012:116). Knott et al. (2012:116) argue that it is this international media reporting that played a very important role in dispelling negative perceptions of South Africa and managed to convince footballers and fans that the country was ready to host the tournament. This notion is supported by a study undertaken by Knott et al. (2013:587) which found that the international media played a crucial role in creating positive perceptions of Brand South

Africa as international visitors' perceptions to travel to South Africa were mostly influenced by the positive media attention South Africa received before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ commenced.

Besides the media, tourists' perceptions of a nation seem to have originated from various sources such as previous personal experience, knowledge, beliefs, stereotypes of a nation's people, and economic and socio-political conditions of that country (Hakala & Lemmetyinen, 2011:17). These images are not limited to touristic attractions only, as they also incorporate culture, tradition and history of the citizens as well as the nation's companies and their products (Beerli & Martin, 2004:659).

Personal experience is gained when an individual visits another nation and upon return to the home nation relays the experience to friends and relatives (Lau & McKercher, 2004:280). These personal experiences could be interactions with local people and their culture during a major sport event as well as encounters with touristic products and services at a destination (Richards & Wilson, 2006:1212). Hakala and Lemmetyinen (2011:18) argue that positive experiences at a destination will enhance the host's image while negative experiences will taint the image.

According to Li and Chitty (2009:2), stereotypes refer to a set of attributes that are attached to members of a group in a social setting. Li and Chitty (2009:2) examine social categorisation and in-group-out-group bias which is triggered by ethnocentrism as the main focus of stereotypes. In this instance, ethnocentric biases result when "…groups are associated with labelling one's own group as the centre of everything: all others are scaled and rated in relation to it" (Li & Chitty, 2009:2). Hakala and Lemmetyinen (2011:17) argue that in the case of nation image, stereotypes are created by placing people and their nations in categories which are usually accompanied by negative sentiments. For example, African countries are stereotypically regarded as nations with high crime rates, high rates of infectious viruses and diseases such as the Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS), poverty, unemployment, corruption and poor governance (Lepp & Gibson, 2011b:287).

3.5.3 Fan's six key perspectives model of nation image formation process

As discussed above, nation image is defined and interpreted in many ways. Fan (2008:5) notes that the formation of nation image is complex and it entails the interaction of various perspectives that are premised on the self-perception concept. The self-perception concept is basically how a nation perceives itself (Fan, 2008:5). In this study, Fan's six perspectives model is applied within the context of how South Africa perceives itself in the eyes of the rest of the world, and how the outside world perceives South Africa.

According to Fan (2008:5) the various perspectives are explained as a set of one or more questions as depicted in Figure 3.1.

The diagram shows two boxes labelled "Nation A" and "Nation B" connected by numbered arrows:

1 Nation A self-perception: *National identity*?

2 Nation A's perception of Nation B: *Reference point*

3 What Nation A believes Nation B perceives it as: *Construed image*

4 How Nation A is actually perceived by Nation B: *Reputation /Actual image*

5 How Nation A is promoting itself to Nation B: *Currently projected image*

6 How Nation A wants to be perceived by Nation B: *Desired future image*

Figure 3.1: Fan's six key perspective model

Source: Fan (2008:12)

The first perspective addresses how a nation identifies itself; in this case it is how South Africa perceives itself or what South Africa is as a nation. The self-concept as articulated in Social Identity Theory comprises two components: social identity and personal identity (Brown et al., 2006:103). The social identity component comprises the classification of large groups, and conversely the personal identity component consists of individual characteristics (Brown et al., 2006:103). It is these two components that justify the case for national identity, where a country's individual character is identified as a "distinctively unique national component" and other nations are identified as large groups. For example, South Africa will identify itself as 'national character' and classify other countries into different groups such as Europe, Latin America, Africa or Asia (Fan, 2008:6). Bulmer and Buchanan-Oliver (2010:200) argue that national identity is constructed by both individuals and groups within a country and

there is a likelihood that it can change over time. As time goes by, events and experiences will unfold, forcing both individual members and groups to rework and update the perceptions of their nation (Bulmer & Buchanan-Oliver, 2010:200). This can be done through changing a nation's identity content and when both individuals' and group members' behaviour is modified to suit current circumstances (Fan, 2008:6). In an attempt to establish the relationship between a nation's identity and image, Fan (2008:6) notes that a nation has various identities, therefore it is imperative to decide what the appropriate images are to project to the outside world.

With regard to tourism, South Africa identifies itself as a world class tourism destination, with Cape Town being voted the number one city in Africa in 2017 (Cape Town Tourism, 2017). South Africa boasts iconic attractions and excellent hospitality facilities that meet international standards, such as five-star hotels and international restaurants (SA-Venues.com, 2016a). For example, South Africa has beautiful scenery and natural attractions such as Table Mountain, which was named as one of the New Seven Wonders of the World in 2011. South Africa also boasts the Cape Floral Region, a United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) World Heritage Site. There are also the KwaZulu-Natal and Durban subtropical beaches on the warm Indian Ocean coastline which stretches for about 600 kilometres (BSA, 2011; SA-Venues.com, 2016b). In 2016, The Test Kitchen restaurant in Cape Town was voted as one of the top fifty world best restaurants (Brophy, 2016).

Despite the fact that during the apartheid era South Africa was racially segregated, in the new democratic dispensation South Africa sees itself as a multi-racial society with diverse cultures and it is home to blacks, whites, coloureds and indians (Farquharson & Marjoribanks, 2003:30). In terms of sport, South Africa identifies itself as a competent sport event host after it successfully hosted the 1995 Rugby World Cup, 2003 Cricket World Cup and the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} with the aid of its world-class sport facilities such as football and rugby stadiums and excellent event planning (SRSA, 2013:173).

The second perspective of Fan's model refers to how a country perceives other countries, and in this context it refers to how South Africa perceives the outside world. As discussed in the previous section, identity calls for distinctiveness and uniqueness. According to Foreman et al. (2012:182), nation identity should reflect how a nation differentiate itself from other nations. Therefore, nations strive to make their brand identities distinct and unique, and this requires a conception of other countries (Fan, 2008:6). For a nation to be able to have an accurate conception of others, it may need to draw some kind of contrasts and comparisons with those nations (Triandafyllidou, 1998:599). Triandafyllidou (1998:599) further notes the significance of the surrounding environment (nations or ethnic groups within a nation's proximity that are believed to be a threat to their cultural purity) in shaping the nation's

identity. The way that South Africa perceives other nations could be a reference point which it can use to develop its own identity, for example, its perceptions and knowledge of neighbouring countries such as Zimbabwe, Zambia, and Botswana may assist in building an identity that is distinct and unique from those nations (Fan, 2008:7).

The third aspect of Fan's model refers to what citizens of a nation believe about its image in the outside world. In this instance, it refers to what South Africa believes other nations perceive it as. According to the annual report compiled by BSA (2014:32), South Africans believe that other countries perceive South Africa as a better country in terms of standards of living compared with fellow African countries. BSA further states that South Africans believe that other Africans perceive South Africa as Africa's economic hub, a belief which has been substantiated by an overwhelming number of migrants and refugee seekers in recent years. Despite having better standards of living and a thriving economy, South Africans are very aware that other African nations have negative perceptions of South Africa, particularly regarding safety and security issues (BSA, 2014:32). The same applies to international tourists, as South Africans believe that South Africa is perceived as the most developed African country, although with a very poor reputation with regard to safety and security issues, crime, corruption and HIV and AIDS. The beliefs that South Africans have of how the outside world perceives the country is what is termed by Fan (2008:8) a construed image, a subjective image since it is based on citizens' opinions.

The fourth perspective of Fan's model explains how actually a country is perceived by other countries. In this case, it refers to how South Africa is perceived by the outside world. According to Arnegger and Herz (2016:79), a nation's image is formed as a result of subjective interpretations of its brand attributes and associations by people from other countries: in actual essence these are perceptions, beliefs and impressions that outsiders have of a country. Hosany et al. (2007:63) also argue that the real image of a nation is influenced by two components: cognitive and effective evaluations. According to Qu et al. (2011:467), "cognitive evaluation can be defined as beliefs and knowledge about an object whereas affective evaluation refers to feelings about that object". Therefore, in the case of nation branding, cognitive evaluation refers to tourists' beliefs and knowledge of a nation's attributes, and effective evaluation refers to the feelings, impressions and emotions that visitors have about that particular nation (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999:870). According to Fan (2008:8), the actual image of a nation is built of brand associations that visitors from other nations have about a nation's attributes. Qu et al. (2011:465) further argue that these brand associations constitute cognitive and affective image components and this alludes to a notion that a nation's image is a construct of "cognitive and effective associations that are stored in tourists' minds". Both cognitive and effective images of a nation interact to form the overall image of a nation (Qu et al., 2011:465). Ryan and Cave (2007:144) believe that the

interaction of these two components can be seen when cognitive evaluations influence effective evaluations of a nation. Baloglu and McCleary (1999:871) contend that visitors tend to evaluate and integrate perceptions of a nation's attributes and this may ultimately result in the formation of an actual image of a nation. Fan (2008:8) argues that construed image and actual image are never the same; hence there is always a gap between them. He further notes that it is very difficult to ascertain the actual image of a nation.

BSA (2013) conducted an international investor perception survey in order to ascertain how other countries perceive South Africa as a business tourism destination. According to the findings of the survey, most respondents were attracted by South Africa's infrastructure and low cost of doing business, as well as by a growing economy; however only 32% of the respondents were doing business with South Africa or were investing in South Africa at the time of the survey. This could be attributed to the fact that in the same survey the respondents revealed that it was difficult to do business with South Africa in view of corruption, crime, safety and security concerns. There is no doubt that these current concerns not only affect investors, but all potential tourists to South Africa. However, in the build up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, the South African government successfully implemented a considerable number of initiatives to curb crime and portray South Africa as a safe destination (SRSA, 2013:93). These initiatives paid off, as many football fans and visitors during the 2009 Confederation Cup proclaimed that reports of crime in South Africa were largely exaggerated. In 2014, BSA also reported that international tourists perceived South Africa as an attractive destination in terms of tourism, its people and the country's culture and heritage.

The fifth aspect of Fan's model explains how a nation is currently promoting itself to other nations. In this instance, it refers to how South Africa promotes itself to the outside world and the image it projects. BSA is an organisation responsible for branding and promoting 'Brand South Africa' to both domestic and international audiences (BSA, 2014:20). Its main objective is to "…build South Africa's nation brand reputation in order to improve the country's global competitiveness" (BSA, 2014:20). According to BSA (2013:32), South Africa has witnessed a significant number of events which have contributed positively to promoting its nation brand; for example, the peaceful transition from apartheid to democracy, the successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, and its rise as one of the powerful BRICS countries. It can be therefore argued that the above-mentioned events strengthened South Africa's nation image globally (BSA, 2013:32). BSA has forged a link with international journalists in its major target markets to support South Africa's nation branding and reputation management programme. These international journalists assist in conveying a key message that South Africa is an attractive nation in terms of tourism, trade, investment, immigration, governance and democracy to potential tourists, trade partners and investors as well as informing the public

about South Africa's 23 years of democracy (BSA, 2014:26). BSA (2014:9) further states that South Africa has communication programmes whose objectives are to raise awareness of the country's brand and to encourage individual citizens to participate in promoting the nation. Again, BSA signed agreements with international media companies such as Consumer News and Business Channel Africa (CNBC) and Cable News Network (CNN) to raise the awareness of 'Brand South Africa' globally (BSA, 2014:9).

The last perspective of Fan's model elaborates on how a nation wants to be perceived by other nations; this is defined by Brown et al. (2006:104) as a "desired future image". In the case of South Africa, it refers to the image that the nation intends projecting to the outside world. Fan (2008:8) argues that it is crucial to distinguish currently projected image from the image a nation intends to project in the near future; however both are influential in positioning a nation's brand in the minds of international audiences in order to build intended image. There is no doubt that South Africa's image has been negatively affected by recent incidents, for example, police brutality in Marikana where dozens of protesting mine workers were shot dead, institutionalised corruption by government officials when former President Jacob Zuma and his government were accused of using public money to upgrade his private rural home, and the relationship between former President Jacob Zuma and the Guptas who are accused of state capture. According to Govender (2017), the Guptas are accused of influencing the running of government, appointments at ministerial level and in state owned companies, money laundering, and tender corruption. Government corruption taints the image of South Africa as a trade and investment destination and this may result in loss of investor confidence. On the other hand, police brutality raises concerns on issues of democracy and human rights violations (Mannak, 2015).

3.6 Summary

Chapter 3 discussed the conceptual framework of nation branding, highlighting its theoretical origins. The chapter further elaborated how a nation's image can be formed using Fan's six key perspective model. Fan's model is explained in the context of how South Africa's image can be formed. This model is supported by a self-perception theory to show how South Africa sees itself as a country and how other countries perceive it. The next chapter discusses sport mega-events and their legacies.

CHAPTER 4
SPORT MEGA-EVENTS AND THEIR LEGACIES

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of sport tourism by discussing the relationships between sport and tourism. The concept of sport mega-events and the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa are discussed also. This leads to the impacts and legacies that can result from hosting sport mega-events, focusing on the actual impacts that emanated from the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. This study focuses more on the brand image legacy by elaborating on how a nation can leverage sport mega-events to enhance its image as well as the role that such events play in branding nations. The last section of the chapter discusses the reasons for sport-related travel, the constraints that can hinder such travel, as well as repeat visitation after a sport event.

4.2 An overview of sport tourism

The history of sport tourism dates to the ancient times of 776 BC, and the Olympic Games are the first example of sport tourism to be documented (Weed & Bull, 2004:3; Huggins, 2013:107). According to Nelson (2007:48) and The Olympic Museum (2013:3) Greece was the first country to host the Olympic Games and it attracted more than 40 000 people across all the provinces of the country. The participants were professional sportsmen and thousands of people travelled from their homes to support athletes who hailed from their provinces (Weed & Bull, 2009:3). Weed and Bull (2009:3) further state that the Olympic Games were a crucial and significant aspect of the Greek people's lives. Davies (1997:127) and Schwark (2007:120) argue that sport tourism is an essential tool that can be used to bring people of different races and cultures together; therefore one of the main objectives of these ancient games was to impart some sense of togetherness and cultural unity to a country that was politically polarised.

The late nineteenth century saw a modern development of sport and tourism where participation and access restrictions were eased (Standeven & De Knop, 1999:25; Higham, 2007:4). They both grew and evolved to become powerful contributors to the global economy (Higham, 2005:4). In the modern world, sport tourism has received substantial attention owing to the significant economic, social and environmental benefits that it provides to the host nations (Pigeassou, 2004:287; Liu et al., 2014:485; Hodgetts & Duncan, 2015:364). Bob and Swart (2010:73) add that both developing and developed countries use sport tourism to pursue event-driven economies. Pigeassou (2004:287) notes that there is growing interest by different stakeholders in the sport tourism industry and sport tourism is increasingly regarded as a competitive tourism business niche. In recent years, many countries across the globe have embraced sport tourism as a tool to promote community identity and generate pride,

and for economic development as well as regeneration of urban areas (Tourism British Columbia, 2011:6). According to Rein and Shields (2007:75), many emerging destinations around the world are incorporating sport tourism in their destination marketing strategies as part of rigorous branding activities to increase destination visibility and enhance city image. This is attributed to the fact that sport events receive free and wide media coverage and this can ultimately result in increased visitation and investment at a host destination (Rein & Shields, 2007:75).

The next section discusses how sport and tourism are related.

4.2.1 An overview of interrelationship between sport and tourism

The twenty-first century has seen a significant growing interest in and recognition of sport and tourism relationships (Ritchie & Adair, 2004:8; Tourism British Columbia, 2011:7). According to Toohey et al. (2003:187), despite the adverse effects of globalisation on sport and tourism industries, their interrelationships have been strengthened. Sport is a crucial activity of the tourism industry and tourism is regarded as a fundamental attribute of sport; in other words sport and tourism are correlative (Hinch & Higham, 2001:48; Yoon et al., 2016:1165). Sport and tourism concepts are interrelated and they overlap (Hinch & Higham, 2001:48; L'Etang, 2006:241). It is undeniable that sport and tourism relationships are intertwined; this is true in the sense that they share common resources such as the natural environment, services and receptivity (Pigeassou, 2004:287; Weed & Bull, 2004:16; Jæger & Viken, 2016:133). In the last decade, sport-related travel to tourism destinations has grown tremendously and this can be attributed to the fact that sport influences tourism development interests and tourist travel flows to a destination in more diverse ways (Higham, 2005:1; Yoon et al., 2016:1165). Higham (2005:1) and Getz and Page (2016:597) argue that sport is a major source of quite a number of development opportunities at different levels of tourism destinations. In recent years sport has been used as a tourism development strategy to rejuvenate tourism at various destinations (Hinch & Higham, 2011:191; Hinch et al., 2016:167). Sporting events at different destinations are usually associated with varied tourist experiences and these can profile a destination as a unique tourism hot spot (Higham, 2005:1). De Villiers (2001:13) argues that there is a reciprocal relationship between tourism and sport, as tourism provides a chance for leisure activities at a destination to become popular; after these leisure activities have become popular, they can ultimately result in more organised and formal sporting activities. Some of these leisure activities have progressed and are now incorporated into various Olympic disciplines, for example, snowboarding and beach volleyball (De Villiers, 2001:13). Tourism goes a long way towards introducing sport at new destinations around the world as well as driving innovation within the sport arena (Hinch & Higham, 2004:187). According to Weed and Bull (2004:16), tourism plays an important role

in assisting the sport world to uphold its advocacy for facility provision and greater participation in sport at destinations.

The modern development and professionalisation of sport have undoubtedly led to the expansion of competition seasons at destinations and this has a positive impact on the tourism seasons of a destination (Higham, 2005:5). Ciampicacigli and Maresca (2004:73) and Weed and Bull (2004:16) note that during the off-peak season, sport facilities at tourism destinations can be opened up to local communities, thereby increasing tourism business. Weed and Bull (2004:16) further argue that a tourism niche market of a destination may assist in sustaining the local sporting facilities of that particular destination, mostly in cases where there is insufficient local demand. Toohey et al. (2003:174) reiterate that domestic sporting activities bolster the travel flow of a destination during times of crisis and in off-peak season.

In an attempt to have an in-depth understanding of sport and tourism relationships, an early study undertaken by Hall (1992:142) identified the three domains that make up sport tourism; these are hallmark events, health and fitness activities, and outdoor recreational activities as shown in Figure 4.1. Hall (1992:142) argues that an exploration of these domains help to give clearer insight into the interrelationships between sport and tourism. Page and Connell (2012:12) argue that the term 'hallmark event' is usually used interchangeably to mean special or mega-events. In his early definition of hallmark events, Ritchie (1984:2) described them as "…a major one-time or recurring event of limited duration developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination". This notion is supported by Hinch and Higham (2001:50), who note that hallmark events are directly linked to major once-off sport events, and these include major international competition games. Hinch and Higham (2001:50) further state that such events attract huge crowds of supporters and participants from all walks of life owing to their profile and scale. During their stay at the host destination, visitors will use hotels, restaurants and many other tourism facilities. Outdoor recreation (adventure tourism) forms the second area that is directly related to sport tourism (Hall, 1992:142). In the modern world, tourists from all corners of the world travel thousands of miles from their homes in search of adventure, challenging activities and fitness (Swarbrooke et al., 2003:58). These adventurous activities occur within natural settings and they are often categorised as sport, for example, water sports such as skiing, surfing and canoeing (Swarbrooke et al., 2003:6). Health and fitness activities form the third domain that is related to sport tourism (Hall, 1992:142). A new trend has seen people travelling to therapeutic spas in order to be healed of different infirmities as well as for relaxation (Dimon, 2016). While at the spa, visitors' activities can include sporting activities such as golf and tennis (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1997:8; Higham, 2005:2).

Figure 4.1: The domains of sport and tourism

Source: Hinch and Higham (2001:50)

Tourists are mostly attracted to a destination because of its attractions and sport is one of these important attractions (Ulvnes & Solberg, 2016:144). For one to have a clearer understanding of the interrelationship between sport and tourism, it is imperative to treat sport as an attraction instead of an event (Ritchie & Adair, 2004:34; Higham, 2005:5). Sport mega-events can be a useful tool in promoting and marketing a tourism destination and this may result in large numbers of visitors being lured to the host destinations (Knott et al., 2016:106; Ulvnes & Solberg, 2016:143). Turco et al. (2002:3) note that sport can be regarded as a secondary attraction at a destination, and that participating in and spectating sporting activities are not the primary reasons tourists travel to tourism destinations. Turco et al. (2002:3) further argue that during their stay at a destination, tourists can watch sport as a supplementary activity to their planned itineraries and that can result in visitors extending their stay. However, contrary to those assertions, there are sport tourists whose primary reason for visiting a destination is participating in or spectating sports (Turco et al., 2002:3; Weed & Bull, 2009:61).

Despite the considerable number of benefits related to sport and tourism links discussed above, there are some shortcomings. Some of these pitfalls are deemed side effects of the benefits of sport and tourism interrelationships, thus they should be addressed properly to reduce their significance (Weed & Bull, 2004:34). Weed and Bull (2004:34) note that sporting activities can impact negatively on a tourism destination's natural environment. They suggest that sporting activities such as water skiing, motorcycling and shooting are great contributors to soil erosion and noise pollution at tourism destinations. According to Shaw and Williams (2002:145), sport and tourism links are known for their incredible contribution to resuscitating

economies; however many tourism destinations rely too much on the sport tourism industry, which can be detrimental, as they may overlook other portfolios of the economy. The sport tourism industry is associated with seasonal and part-time jobs, hence overreliance on it can negatively affect the entire economy of a destination (Shaw & Williams, 2002:145). Sport events at host destinations are blamed for causing conflict with regard to spectator problems such as hooliganism during matches which can instil unnecessary fear into the host destinations (Weed & Bull, 2004:36).

Having examined links between sport and tourism, it is imperative to explore separately what these two terms imply. The next section discusses various definitions of sport and tourism.

4.2.2 Defining sport and tourism in context

Various stakeholders in the sporting fraternity, such as sport administrators and academics, have attempted to arrive at a more precise and succinct definition of sport; however there is no universally accepted definition of sport (Weed & Bull, 2004:42). The term 'sport' is derived from the word 'disport' which simply means to divert oneself (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1997:7). According to Coakley (2004:21), sport can be defined as "…institutionalised competitive activities that involve physical exertion or the use of relatively complex physical skills by participants motivated by internal and external rewards". In an earlier definition, Coakley (1982:50) describes competitive sport as "…all the physical activities which involve the coordination of large muscle groups which have a set of universally recognised rules and which produce a winner and a loser". According to the Commonwealth of Australia (2011:7), sport is defined as "…a human activity involving physical exertion and skill as the primary focus of the activity, with elements of competition where rules and patterns of behaviour governing the activity exist formally through organisations and is generally recognised as a sport". The above definitions emphasise the key descriptors or components that constitute sport. The definitions identify sport as a physical activity and they explore the distinction between primarily physical activities and primarily cognitive activities (Coakley, 2004:21; Richards, 2015:2). In addition, all the definitions point out that sport is a contest- based in nature; in actual essence two or more participants (contestants) will take part in the sport competition and this competition will be guided by a code of conduct, rules and regulations (Coakley, 2004:21; Richards, 2015:2). The imposition of such a code of conduct, rules and regulations has resulted in sport being standardised (Weed & Bull, 2004:42). The standards are applied in formal and non-formal competitions such as recreational sport; however contemporary trends have seen a significant growth in participation of sport activities that are less bound to a code of conduct and rule structures, for example, surfing and skateboarding (Thomson, 2000:34). Lastly, people participate in various sporting activities for internal and external benefits (Coakley, 2004:23). The internal benefits are more intrinsic and they are

linked to challenge, self-expression and on the other hand external benefits relate to obtaining physical skills and rewards (Weed & Bull, 2004:6).

Standeven and De Knop (1999:13) suggest that the focus of the sport definition debate is on what should be categorised as sport; this is in relation to their assertion that the key descriptors of sport, such as physical skills, contest, code of conduct, and rules and regulations form the basis of the definition. Although a considerable number of activities can easily be categorised as sport, there are other activities that are not organised formally with neither rules nor a code of conduct, for example recreational sporting activities such as jogging, rambling and swimming (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1997:8; Weed & Bull, 2004:42). However, there are some instances where physical activities can be pursued in a more organised manner, but they are played less formally and fewer rules and regulations are applied (Weed & Bull, 2004:42). This is supported by Richards (2015:3), who argues that sport is rapidly changing owing to contemporary trends and societal norms; this has seen sport assuming various forms, therefore what can be considered as sport in one case may not be in another.

Like sport, tourism has numerous definitions; however most definitions attempt to define tourism as any form of travel away from one's usual home mainly for leisure, even though some travel trips are business related (Weed & Bull, 2004:43). Therefore, it is imperative to present a historical evolution of the definition of tourism before providing UNWTO's universally accepted definition of tourism. Almost 40 years ago, Leiper (1979:392) suggested three approaches to tourism definition: economic, technical and holistic approaches. The economic approach attempts to define tourism based on its economic and business implications, and this approach is articulated by Ryan (1991:5), who suggests that tourism should be defined as "…a study of demand for and supply of accommodation and supportive services for those staying away from home and the resultant patterns of expenditure, income creation and employment". Similarly, McIntosh et al. (1995:10) define tourism as a "…sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the interaction of tourists, business suppliers, host governments and host communities in the process of attracting and hosting these tourists and other visitors". These two definitions imply that tourism is an economic and business activity triggered by a visit outside one's usual place of stay. Leiper (1979:392) criticised the economic approach to the definitions of tourism, by arguing that the definitions do not place emphasis on the focal point of the subject, which is the tourist. For many years stakeholders in the tourism industry have been trying to monitor the tourist market size and its attributes as well as to differentiate tourism travel from other travel, and for this to be possible they suggest that tourism be defined by using the technical approach (Cooper et al., 2008:5). This approach takes into consideration the key descriptors of a tourist: the reasons for travelling, the distance travelled, and the duration of time spent during visitation (Leiper,

1979:393). What differentiates most technical definitions is whether the definitions are inclusive of day trips or not; the most contemporary definitions include the aspect of one or more nights away from one's home (Weed & Bull, 2004:43). Singh (2010:4) defines a tourist as "…a temporary visitor staying at least twenty-four hours at the destination visited and the purpose of the journey could be for leisure activities such as recreation, holiday, religion, sport or health and for business, family, mission, meeting". The holistic approach attempts to define tourism in broader terms and is believed to be a more inclusive approach (Weed & Bull, 2004:44). O'Hagan et al. (1981:3) define tourism as "…a temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live or work, and their activities during the stay at these destinations include movement for all purposes as well as day visits and excursions". This definition takes into consideration the key elements like activities and trips related to tourism, therefore it is deemed inclusive rather than exclusive (Weed & Bull, 2004:44). However, in order to prevent disaccord in defining tourism, UNWTO provided a universally accepted definition: "[The] activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes" (UNWTO, 2011:1).

In this section, the historical evolution of sport and tourism definitions was presented. It is therefore important to see how sport and tourism can be merged to give a more meaningful definition of sport tourism (Weed & Bull, 2004:44). The next section discusses various definitions of sport tourism.

4.2.3 Defining sport tourism

Sport tourism is one of the fastest growing segments of the tourism industry because of the significant economic, social and environmental benefits that it provides to the host nations (Pigeassou, 2004:287; Tourism British Columbia, 2011:6; Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance, 2017:30). The sport tourism phenomenon is synergistic; it is not just a mere combination of sport and tourism, and thus it requires a greater understanding of sport and tourism concepts (Weed, 2008:16). However, to date, there has been no ubiquitous definition for sport tourism, resulting in various scholars proposing different definitions of this term (Commonwealth of Australia, 2000:12). The bulk of sport tourism definitions tend to emphasise tourism descriptors at the expense of the key elements that define sport (Gibson et al., 1998:53). Higham (2005:7) further articulates that most of the sport tourism definitions emphasise travel trips associated with leisure, omitting professional sporting activities and business travel trips linked to sport. In trying to address the disparities in sport tourism definitions, Standeven and De Knop (1999:20) suggest a broader and more inclusive definition. They define sport tourism as "…all forms of active or passive involvement in sport, undertaken casually or in an organised manner, for commercial or non-commercial purposes, and requiring that the subject leaves his or her home or workplace". Although this definition is

considered to be all-embracing, it is criticised for only mentioning tourist activities that include sport without articulating fully what a sport tourism phenomenon is (Weed & Bull, 2004:44). According to Gibson et al. (1998:53), the most acceptable definition of sport tourism is "…a specific travel outside of the usual environment for either passive or active involvement in competitive sport where sport is the prime motivational reason for travel and the touristic or leisure element may act to reinforce the overall experience". Contrary to Gibson et al. (1998:53), Standeven and De Knop (1999:50) and Pigeassou (2002) suggest that the term 'sport tourism' emanates from a combination of two factors: destination and type of activities. Pigeassou (2002) argues that travel to a destination and activities during the stay should be related to sport for it to be categorised as sport tourism. If someone decides to participate in or spectate at an activity during his or her stay at a destination which is not solely for sport, then sport tourism is not involved (Standeven & De Knop, 1999:21). Pitts (1997:31) and the Asian Sports Group (2012) suggest that sport tourism is a combination of sport activities and travel. Basically, sport tourism can be divided into three different categories: nostalgia sport tourism (sport participants visit sport-related attractions such as famous stadiums), active or participatory sport tourism (travel with the primary objective of participating in sports, fitness activities or leisure) and event-based tourism (travel for the purpose of spectating sport events or fitness activities) (Pitts, 1997:31; Turco et al., 2002:1; Gibson, 2003:207; Schwark, 2007:119).

There are various forms of sport events; however, for the purpose of this study, focus is placed on sport mega-events which are discussed in the next section.

4.3 Sport mega-events

According to Tassiopoulos (2010:12), sport mega-events can be described as sport events that usually attract large crowds and are associated with high costs and have a psychological effect on the host destination, for example, the Olympic Games and FIFA World Cup™. Sport mega-events should generate enormous exposure through media coverage; usually such events should have an attendee volume of more than a million tourists and a development expenditure that runs in millions of dollars (Maennig & Zimbalist, 2012:9). Sport mega-events should have one of the following attributes: legacies, incurring large costs, attracting large crowds, being of international scale, and being once-off occurrences (Müller, 2015:628). Jago and Shaw (1998:23) suggest that sport mega-events have very distinctive attributes which are linked to international media coverage, the capability to trigger more events such as festivals and parades, and making history. Gammon (2015:116) notes that sport mega-events comprise a collection of events instead of a single event, with each of these events having the capability to generate varying levels and degrees of media coverage and interest, often a neglected attribute of sport mega-events. Sport mega-events are short-term events,

but they result in long-term impacts for the host nations and cities. This attribute makes sport mega-events somewhat different from other sporting events (Ritchie, 2000:157).

South Africa is the first African country to host a sport mega-event such as the FIFA World Cup^{TM} tournament, so the next section discusses South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}.

4.3.1 The 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} in South Africa

Since its independence, South Africa has emerged as one of the strongest contenders in bidding for sport mega-events after it hosted a series of sport mega-events (Van der Merwe, 2007:69). Using its bidding experience, it sought to host the 2006 FIFA World Cup^{TM} (Cornelissen, 2004a:1294); however its hopes were dented after losing to Germany in a highly-contested bid (Alegi, 2001:2). South Africa did not give up; it capitalised on FIFA's decision to award the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} tournament to Africa, and in 2004 it was named as the host of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} ahead of its closest contender, Morocco (Cornelissen, 2004a:1296; Pillay & Bass, 2008:339).

As mentioned in Chapter 3, South Africa's pursuit of sport mega-events is typically a political objective. According to Cornelissen (2007:242):

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

The hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} was to accomplish three principle objectives (Alegi, 2001:3). Initially the country sought to lure investors who would bring in capital and to increase its international visibility in the global arena; this would go a long way towards extending the benefits of tourism to the nation (Alegi, 2001:3; Tichaawa, 2013:28). The second objective was to ensure national pride and unity among South Africans, considering that before 1994 South Africa was politically and socially polarised (Alegi, 2001:4; Farquharson & Marjoribanks, 2003:32). South African politicians had no doubt that the event would bring together all races to represent a rainbow nation (Cornelissen, 2004b:46). According to Alegi (2001:4), the bid for the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} prioritised Black Economic Empowerment (BEE); it sought to create a platform for young black South African football fanatics to "redress feelings of marginality". The last objective of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, according to Alegi (2001:4) and Tichaawa (2013:28), was to offer the local South Africans who were once marginalised an opportunity to be involved in and attain positions in the power structures of local football societies.

South African politicians argue that the rationale behind the decision to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} was to meet the objectives of the African Renaissance Agenda which is

premised on unity among all African countries as a panacea to escape poverty (Desai & Vahed, 2010:154). According to Swart and Bob (2012:7), the first FIFA World Cup™ in Africa was characterised by a Pan-Africanist political rhetoric: 'It's Africa's turn'. The rhetoric had a significant meaning to a nation, and more broadly to a region that was politically polarised and cut off from the rest of the world. The whole bidding process was done with 'Pan-African World Cup' in mind and that became the basis for bidding (Desai & Vahed, 2010:154). Quoted by Desai and Vahed (2010:154), in his speech in 2003, Mbeki, the then president of South Africa, articulated that:

> The basis of South Africa's bid was a resolve to ensure that the 21st century unfolds as a century of growth and development in Africa. This is not a dream. It is a practical policy … the successful hosting of the FIFA World Cup™ in Africa will provide a powerful, irresistible momentum to the African renaissance … We want, on behalf of our continent, to stage an event that will send ripples of confidence from the Cape to Cairo – an event that will create social and economic opportunities throughout Africa. We want to ensure that one day, historians will reflect upon the 2010 World Cup™ as a moment when Africa stood tall and resolutely turned the tide on centuries of poverty and conflict. We want to show that Africa's time has come.

It is generally agreed that South Africa was successful in hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its success persuaded politicians and business people to pursue more sport mega-events to market 'Brand South Africa' to the international market (Swart & Bob, 2012:1). After South Africa successfully hosted the 2010 World Cup™, many people acknowledged that it was without doubt that the country was now capable and competent to host future global sport events, considering its world-class sport facilities and the experience it gained in hosting the 1995 World Rugby Cup, the 2003 Cricket World Cup and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (SRSA, 2013:173). In 2012, at the World Travel awards in Doha, South Africa was named as the world's leading sport tourism destination (SAT, 2012).

Earlier, Van der Merwe (2007:68) noted that the hosting of sport mega-events in developing countries like South Africa should be treated as a 'mixed blessing' as such events came with both positive and negative impacts. This is true in the case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™; therefore the next section discusses the impacts and legacies that resulted from this event.

4.4 The impacts and legacies of sport mega-events

Cornelissen et al. (2011b:305) and Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012:14) note that the concept of legacy remains one of the most contested topics in recent years; however, consensus has been reached that mega-event legacy should be sustained for a considerable period of time after the event to ensure that the impact will last longer, hence the legacy of a mega-event should be assessed in the long term. Swart et al. (2015:70) further argue that considering the paucity of post-event research studies on the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ legacies, little time has lapsed to sufficiently and empirically evaluate the event's legacies. To date, there is insufficient literature that assesses legacies per se of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (Swart et

al., 2015:71). Therefore, this section elaborates on some of the actual impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} that have a likelihood of being sustained for a significant period of time and ultimately result in legacies.

4.4.1 The impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}

In 2004 South Africa won the rights to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} ahead of its closest contender, Morocco, and it was the first African country to host a football tournament of such magnitude (Swart et al., 2011:415). It is generally agreed that South Africa successfully hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} in the short term; however there are both positive and negative impacts that resulted from this event (Cartwright, 2012:127; Swart & Bob, 2012:2). Table 4.1 highlights the positive and negative impacts that can arise from hosting sport mega-events. The next section discusses some of the impacts that can arise from hosting sport mega-events in brief, focusing on the actual impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} in South Africa in the short run.

4.4.1.1 Economic impacts

Most countries seek to host major events in order to attract both participants and spectators, thereby boosting the number of tourists to the host destination during the event (Arnegger & Herz, 2016:77). During their stay at a destination, tourists will spend their money on accommodation and other tourism facilities; their expenditure is believed to have a positive economic multiplier effect (Tichaawa, 2013:93). During the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, it was estimated that tourists spent more than R3.64 billion and this contributed about 0.5% to the country's yearly Gross Domestic Product (GDP) growth (Prinsloo, 2010). SAT (2011:7) in its report on tourism performance in 2010, reported a tourism growth rate of 3.3%. Turco et al. (2012:75) argue that there is no doubt that this growth was instigated by South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}.

In the build up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, there was significant growth in private sector investment in tourism businesses, particularly the luxury market (Du Plessis & Maennig, 2011:351). They further argue that even though it is not correct to attribute this growth solely to the tournament, the rising demand necessitated more investment. According to the findings from the 2011 Boom Survey, 66% of the multi-national corporations were willing to invest in South Africa and 86% of the companies already operating in the country indicated that they were willing to continue doing business in South Africa (BSA, 2012:17).

Table 4.1: Summary of the positive and negative impacts associated with sport mega-events

Positive impacts	*Negative impacts*
Economic • Trade and business development • Employment creation • Increased tourism	• Increase in the cost of living • Increased taxes • Public debt and opportunity costs
Infrastructure development • New stadiums and sporting facilities • Modernised transport and communications network system	• High maintenance costs • Underutilisation of facilities
Socio-cultural • Feel-good effects • National pride and unity • Skills development • Image enhancement and destination profiling	• Disruption of resident lifestyles • Corruption
Environmental • Green Goal Programme (greening events) • Increased environmental awareness	• Pollution • Increased pressure on natural resources • Environmental degradation • Destruction of natural heritage
Sport impacts • Sport development	

Source: Adapted from Swart and Bob (2012:3)

However, negative economic impacts also were associated with the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, such as the increase in tax burden, increase in prices of basic commodities, and cost of living (Bond & Cottle, 2011:39). There is no doubt that all the accommodation facilities around the hosting stadiums became very expensive during and soon after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (Nyikana et al., 2014:550). The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ created more than 400 000 jobs in South Africa; however there are concerns that the jobs created by the event could not be sustained beyond 2010 and unemployment rates continue to hike; this has become a major blow for economic growth in South Africa (Bob & Kassens-Noor, 2012:19). In terms of private investment in the tourism sector, Du Plessis and Maennig (2011:351) argue that with the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, most of the projects could not be finished in time. Cokayne (2010:4) noted previously that "…some of this investment was of doubtful long-term viability and there was a risk that some of the new hotels would fail when occupancy and rates per room dropped after the tournament".

4.4.1.2 Infrastructure

According to SAT (2015a), an improved transport network system and stadium developments were major infrastructural developments that South Africa benefited from as a result of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. During the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, bus rapid transit systems were introduced in most host cities (BSA, 2010a). BSA (2010a) further notes

that South Africa saw many roads and bridges being constructed and repaired, for example, the repairs of the N1 and N2 roads. Five new state-of-the-art stadiums were constructed while existing ones were expanded and modernised.

Despite the fact that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ resulted in more modern and state-of-the-art stadiums across all cities that hosted the tournament, the greatest concern is sustainability of these stadiums considering the substantial costs linked to maintaining the stadiums (Swart et al., 2015:74). It is important to note that to date some of these new stadiums have not been profitable as they fail to attract events (Swart et al., 2015:74). For example, the Western Cape was the only province that did not host the 2013 CAF African Cup of Nations (AFCON) because the City of Cape Town had requested very large amounts of money from CAF for them to use the Cape Town Stadium (Von Ulmenstein, 2012). Another important aspect to note with regard to infrastructure is the improvement in security infrastructure both nationwide and in the host cities during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, to ensure general safety and security both nationwide and in the host cities during the event (Swart & Bob, 2012:7).

4.4.1.3 Socio-cultural impacts

The significant social impacts that resulted from the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ are the feel-good effects, national pride, and unity and skills development (Swart et al., 2011:422; Holmes et al., 2015:102; Swart et al., 2015:75). South Africa, as a nation that was once racially segregated, saw its citizens being brought together during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and it went a long way towards achieving its national reconciliation and healing objectives (Swart et al., 2011:418). Undoubtedly the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ resulted in diverse skills development from event planning and bidding to staging of live mega-events. However skills development is often short-lived; it might not be sustained beyond the event (SRSA, 2013:173).

Corruption was an endemic problem with regard to tender bidding processes and most stakeholders complained about the lack of transparency and fairness in tender processes during 2010 FIFA World Cup™ preparations (Pillay & Erasmus, 2015:2). In 2015 it was alleged that the South African government and South African Football Association (SAFA), led by Danny Jordaan, paid bribes to FIFA officials in order to be awarded the rights to host the 2010 FIFA World ahead of Morocco; however, both the South African government and SAFA denied these allegations (Brown & Randall, 2015; Quintal et al., 2015).

The reasons why many nations compete to host sport mega-events is to get international exposure (Gratton et al., 2015:46). Sport mega-events receive wide coverage by international media through news and advertisements, which assist in enhancing the host

destination's image (Arnegger & Herz, 2016:76). Prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, South Africa was generally perceived as an unsafe destination (Du Plessis & Maennig, 2011:356). However, after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, visitor perceptions were somewhat changed as there is no doubt that positive media coverage went a long way to ensure that South Africa's image was enhanced and the country was profiled as a safe tourism destination (Swart et al., 2015:73). According to the findings of Knott et al. (2012:116) on mega-sport events and branding opportunities, international media companies such as Sky News, CNN, the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and Al Jazeera had positive coverage about South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ prior to the event. It can be argued that this positive media coverage led to a significant increase in tourist numbers one year after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (Swart & Bob, 2012:6).

4.4.1.4 Environmental impacts

Sport mega-events attract a large number of visitors to a host destination; it is therefore prudent to consider the environmental impacts that emanate from hosting such events (Tichaawa, 2013:124). Management of environmental impacts is of great importance for it influences the ability of the host nation to stage the event in a more sustainable manner (Ahmed & Pretorius, 2010:274). Bob and Naidoo (2012:95) argue that there are different perspectives on the environmental impacts that result from hosting sport mega-events. Dodouras and James (2004:1) identified refurbishment of water and sewage facilities as well as new stadiums and transport infrastructure as major positive environmental impacts. On the other hand, Swart et al. (2011:418) noted noise pollution, environmental degradation and over-consumption of natural resources as the main negative environmental impacts that could arise from hosting major events.

The notion that sport mega-events come with significant environmental impacts has seen an increase in the number of greening programmes accompanying hosting of mega-events (Bob & Naidoo, 2012:95). Bob and Naidoo (2012:95) note that it has become the norm for sport organisers of global sport events to incorporate environmental programmes in hosting such events, for example, the 2006, 2010 and 2014 FIFA World Cup™ were hosted with the Green Goal Programme in mind. According to Cartwright (2012:129) and Swart et al. (2015:77), South Africa is believed to be the first African country to benefit from the Green Goal Programme; this saw new infrastructure, such as stadiums, built using environmentally friendly material. According to the (former) Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) (2010), the 2010 FIFA Green Goal Programme focused on the following key areas: waste management and minimisation, biodiversity, climate change and energy efficiency, transport and water conservation management, design and construction, sustainable procurement, and tourism. Bob and Naidoo (2012:95) argue that the intention of running all

these programmes was to encourage both locals and visitors to be more environmentally friendly during the event.

4.4.1.5 Sport impacts

Swart et al. (2011:415) and Swart et al. (2015:77) note that South Africa benefited from sport-related impacts; more sports facilities and institutions were established during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in previously disadvantaged communities. For example, most communities benefited from projects such as Football for Hope and Football Foundation of South Africa, as their main objectives were to accelerate social change and community integration in racially segregated communities through sport (Swart et al., 2011:423).

Now that a brief overview of the short-term impacts of sport mega-events focusing specifically on the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ has been given, the next section discusses the legacy framework, elaborating on what a legacy is and how it is measured. However, emphasis will be placed on discussing brand image legacies as they relate to the purpose of this particular study.

4.4.2 Sport mega-event legacies

Sport mega-events should not only succeed on their own terms but they should deliver on public expectations, such as image enhancement, revival of the economy and renewal of cities to justify the substantial public investment made when hosting them (Holt & Ruta, 2015:1).Owing to the high costs associated with hosting such events, taxpayers insist that the economic, infrastructural and social changes that come with hosting sport mega-events should improve the social wellbeing of the locals in the end (Preuss, 2015:643). Hence, Holt and Ruta (2015:1) argue that public funds should not be prioritised in hosting sport mega-events; they should instead be channelled towards social developmental projects. They suggest that the most probable solution to deal with such criticism is when a sport mega-event leaves a legacy (Holt & Ruta, 2015:1). Legacy is a crucial symbol that justifies the expenses incurred by sponsors and host nations (Bob & Kassens-Noor, 2012:12). However, the propensity of legacy is that it will gain and lose power as time passes and it can only be revived if environmental changes create chances (Preuss, 2015:643). Bob and Swart (2010:89) add that assessing event legacies involves a close monitoring and evaluation of the long-term impacts that result from hosting mega-events. They further state that assessing legacies is of great importance because of their contribution to the body of knowledge of management, which in recent years has gained recognition as a crucial tool used to inform planning of future events which will see the leveraging of positive impacts and minimisation of negative impacts.

Cornelissen et al. (2011b:305) and Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012:14) note that the concept of legacy remains one of the most contested topics; however consensus has been reached that mega-event legacy should be sustained for a considerable period of time after the event to ensure that the impact will last, hence the legacy of a mega-event should be assessed in the long term. Given that sport mega-events hardly affect their stakeholders in the same way, there is some confusion in defining the term 'legacy', and this has resulted in some mistaking it for impacts, leveraging and sustainability (Preuss, 2015:644). In their study, Holt and Ruta (2015:2) sought to eliminate confusion between legacy and impacts.

> The impact of mega-events is normally a transitory economic, social, cultural, political and sporting stimulus which may be considerable but is too short to be considered legacy; on the contrary legacy concerns the additional economic, social, political, cultural and sporting activities generated after the event and can be sustained in the long run.

Also in a bid to evade such confusion, Preuss (2015:644) suggests that the framework for identifying legacies should follow an epistemological approach, attempting to ascertain what legacy means.

However, some scholars, when defining the term 'legacy', tend to focus only on the long-term nature of legacies without addressing other elements of legacy (Barget & Gouguet, 2007; Holmes et al., 2015). For example, according to Barget and Gouguet (2007:170), legacy is "…the satisfaction felt as a result of handing down a sporting event to future generations". In addition, Holmes et al. (2015:163) define legacy as long-term impacts or outcomes that result from hosting any event. Preuss (2015:645) argues that the above definitions are not all-encompassing, as they are limited to only the positive impacts and they focus only on future generations. Preuss (2007:211) suggests a definition which underpins three dimensions of a legacy: the extent of planned structure, the extent of positive structure, and the extent of quantifiable structure. Using those three dimensions of a legacy, the author then defines legacy as "…planned and unplanned, positive and negative, intangible and tangible structures created through a sport event that remain after the event" (Preuss, 2007:211). According to Chappelet and Junod (2006:84), legacies include "…all unplanned and planned effects and the material or tangible effects refer to the infrastructure built for the event". Based on Chappelet and Junod's (2006:84) notion, Holt and Ruta (2015:3) contend that legacy can be divided into two parts: hard or soft, tangible or intangible. Holt and Ruta (2015:3) further state that hard or tangible legacies are the most known and easily understood, and are easier to monitor, for example, infrastructural development and an increase in tourism business. On the other hand, soft or intangible legacies are more difficult to assess, for example, social cohesion, community pride, people's perceptions and expectations (Bob & Swart, 2010:78). According to Holt and Ruta (2015:3), these terms are used interchangeably in the field of tourism, where the hospitality and friendliness of a

destination are regarded as soft or intangible legacies and hotel accommodation facilities and transport are linked to hard or tangible legacies.

Gratton and Preuss (2008:1924) developed a legacy cube based on three dimensions in a bid to provide a framework for defining legacy and to demonstrate a holistic approach to evaluating sport mega-event legacies, as depicted in Figure 4.2. The legacy cube consists of eight smaller cubes which are premised on the notion that in order to identify all aspects of legacy, a holistic approach should be employed. However, Cashman (2006:15) argues that the majority of "…pre-event studies and bid committees focus on only one sub-cube which consists of planned, positive and tangible legacies". In addition, pre-event studies that involve legacies are likely to be biased; this may be attributed to the fact that the people who commission such studies tend to be in favour of hosting mega-events, and therefore they only concentrate on this particular sub-cube. Preuss (2007:211) argues that it can only be evaluated in a certain period and space; therefore if legacies of the whole country are to be evaluated, several cubes should be considered. Preuss (2007:211) further argues that the legacy cube is only useful when measuring gross legacy; this implies that it can only evaluate legacy of a place which is empty (with no developmental activities taking place or having taken place).
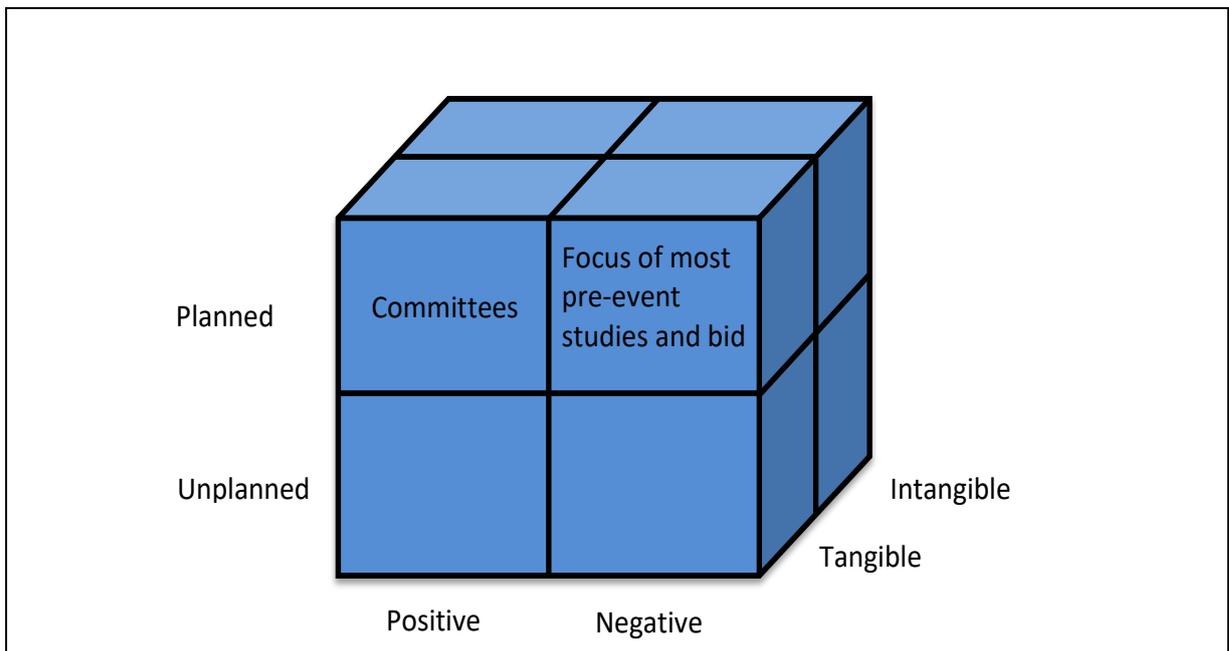
Figure 4.2: Legacy cube
Source: Adapted from Gratton and Preuss (2008:1924)

Chappelet and Junod (2006:84) identify five typologies of legacy: economic legacy, infrastructural legacy, sporting legacy, urban legacy, and social legacy. However, Chappelet and Junod (2006:84) do not include political, image, and environmental legacies in their typology list despite their being equally significant consequences of hosting a mega-event

(Cornelissen et al., 2011b:305). Preuss (2015:645) argues that many legacy typologies that exist to date have overlapping categories. In a bid to avoid these overlapping categories, Preuss (2015:643) devised a framework which examines how to identify legacies, who is affected by legacies, how long they last and how to judge whether a legacy creates or destroys value. In short, Preuss's (2015) legacy framework explains that a legacy develops from structural change (host cities or nations normally put in place event structures which are part of the hosting requirements such as road networks and stadiums). This framework strives to distinguish event-related changes from changes which occur independently at the host destination. Preuss (2015:644) argues that "…structural change is usually dormant and it will result in positive or negative impacts only when the structures are used". According to his framework, the effect of a legacy may only be felt long after the event. It is the event which creates opportunities and the legacy may only be felt after other circumstances occur. In other words, legacies increase the likelihood of upcoming opportunities being used; only when these opportunities are used is a new impact triggered – hence a legacy. According to Preuss (2015:653), legacies affect stakeholders differently, either in a positive or negative way.

Holt and Ruta (2015:2) argue that there is no single theory or law of legacy and they suggest that legacies generally can be categorised as sporting, economic, urban, social, and political legacies. Again, Holt and Ruta (2015:2) do not include environmental and branding legacies in their list. Swart's (2008) and Matheson's (2008) consolidated framework of sport mega-event typologies is all encompassing, as it includes all legacies that can arise from a sport mega-event. The model is presented in Figure 4.3.

According to Swart's (2008) and Matheson's (2008) consolidated framework, sport mega-event legacies can be categorised into economic, environmental, image, political, sport, social, and infrastructural legacies. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the researcher used Swart's (2008) and Matheson's (2008) consolidated framework by focusing specifically on image/branding legacies of sport mega-events.

4.4.2.1 Brand image as a legacy

The purpose of this study is to identify the brand image legacies that resulted from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. As depicted in the framework developed by Swart (2008) and Matheson (2008), brand image legacy entails examining the long-term impacts that sport events have on host destination profiling, brand marketing, destination exposure, and changing a destination's image and reputation. Brand legacy is elaborated on through a discussion on leveraging sport mega-events to enhance a host nation's image and the role sport mega-events play in branding a nation's image.

Figure 4.3: Consolidated framework of sport mega-event legacies

Source: Adapted from Swart (2008) and Matheson (2008)

4.4.2.2 Leveraging sport mega-events to enhance a nation's image

Sport events play a very significant role in promoting the host nation's image (Pereira et al., 2014:49). A country that manages to host a sport mega-event successfully will make itself visible to other countries as well as signalling its presence in the international global arena (Grix, 2012:290). The traditional and dominant approach to assessing events' impacts on host nations is based on the post hoc approach; however, there is a new shift that has emerged in recent years (Weed, 2009:621). The contemporary trend in sport events research is premised on the pre-event approach and it dictates that the benefits of sport events to a host destination solely depend on the ways that the hosts leverage such events (Pereira et al., 2014:49). Chalip (2004:228) describes this new trend as a "…more forward-thinking, proactive, strategic and tactical approach where the objective is to identify strategies and tactics that can be implemented prior to and during an event in order to generate particular outcomes". Chalip (2000) was the first researcher to develop a model on how to leverage sport events. Initially Chalip's (2004) model was meant to analyse economic leveraging of sport events and in 2006 it was remodelled to analyse social leveraging of sport events (Chalip, 2006). Grix (2012) also adapted Chalip's (2004) model to explain Germany's strategy to leverage the 2006 FIFA World Cup™ to change its nation's poor image. According to Grix (2012:289), Germany used a deliberate leveraging strategy to enhance its image abroad. Grix (2012:289) elaborates that it employed three leveraging strategies to ensure that the event would go a long way towards changing the country's poor image and these strategies were: (i) it developed quite a number of long-term and carefully coordinated campaigns, (ii) it employed a fan-centred approach to planning and organising the 2006 FIFA World Cup™, and (iii) it created a feel-good factor around the tournament. Figure 4.4 shows a model of image leveraging. This model emphasises how sport events may be used to leverage the host nation's image.

According to Chalip (2004:228), leveraging is "…getting the best possible benefits from the event". Chalip (2004:228) further adds that leveraging simply implies the "…activities which seek to maximise the long-term benefits from events". What makes leveraging different from event impact is that leveraging involves activities that have been deliberately effected to achieve planned outcomes, whereas impacts are automatic outcomes that occur unintentionally (Knott, 2014:98). According to Chalip (2004:228), leveraging can refer to the short-term, immediate or long-term activities employed by a host nation to achieve desired outcomes. For the purpose of this study, the researcher used Chalip's 2004 model as adapted by Grix (2012) to illustrate how emerging nations can leverage sport mega-events like the FIFA World Cup™ to change their brand image.
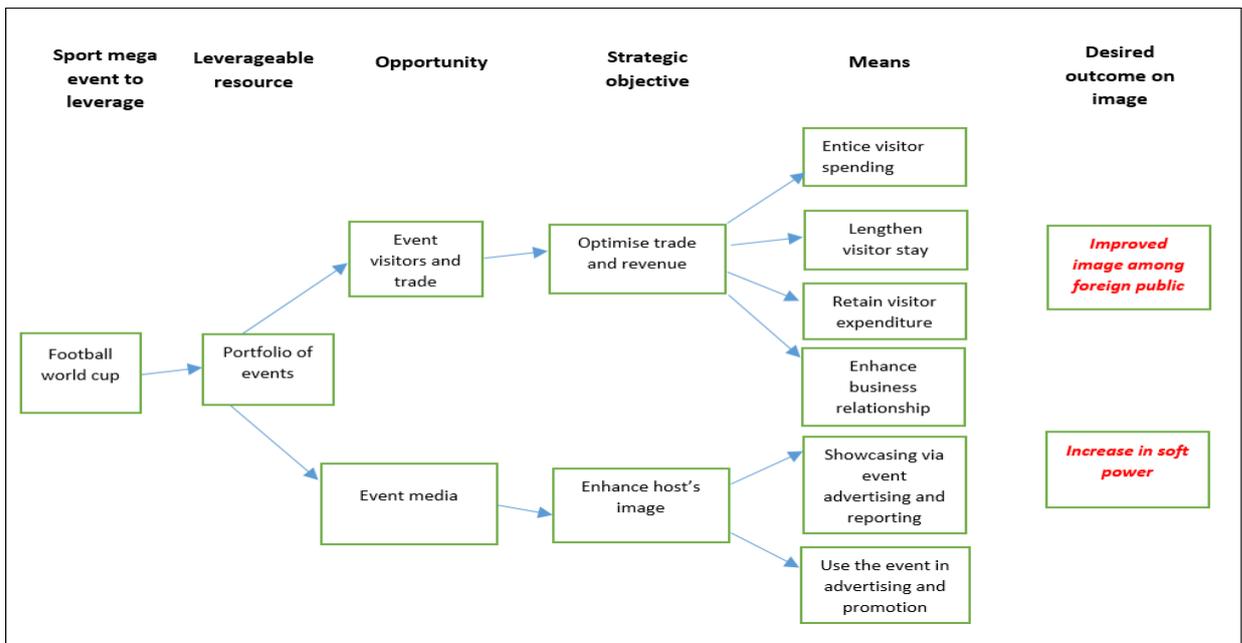
Figure 4:4. Model of image leveraging

Source: Grix (2012:293), adapted from Chalip (2004)

According to Ziakas (2014:14), a portfolio of events is a combination of interrelated events taking place in a host nation during the course of a year, intended to achieve a series of outcomes by implementing joint event strategies. In this case, the FIFA World Cup™ is used as one of the sport mega-events a developing nation seeks to host with the ultimate objective of enhancing the host's image, enticing visitor spending, and lengthening tourists' stay at the destination.

Like Grix (2012), this study made two changes to Chalip's (2004) model: (i) leveraging of the FIFA World Cup™ was the starting point of the unidirectional model, and (ii) a section showing the outcomes was added to establish if leveraging activities of a nation could achieve the desired outcome, which is to change the host nation's image.

According to Chalip's (2004) model, the opportunity to leverage sport mega-events arises from two strategic objectives: (i) optimising total trade and revenue by capitalising on the opportunity created by event visitors and trade, and (ii) enhancing the host nation's image through different forms of media attracted by the event. The first strategic objective of Chalip's (2004) model elaborates on leveraging of sport events in the short run, focusing on economic-related impacts. However, for the purpose of this study, only the second strategic objective is used to explain how nations can leverage sport mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup™ to enhance their image, which is leveraging for the long term.

Chalip's (2004) model mentions two ways by which a host nation can leverage sport mega-events to enhance its image: (i) showcasing a nation's attributes via event advertising and

reporting (news coverage about a destination), and (ii) using the event when promoting a nation as a tourism destination to the outside world.

The mere fact that there is linkage between an event and the destination where it is hosted makes it possible for a host nation's brand image to be linked to the event brand image and vice versa (Gwinner & Eaton, 1999:47; Candrea & Ispas, 2010:64). This relationship can be used in event advertising to benefit both parties (Chalip, 2004:239). Chalip further notes that the host nation should identify destination attributes that can be appealing to event visitors: these could be top attractions of the destination, facilities, and amenities such as hotels and restaurants. All these attributes can then be incorporated into advertising content of the event as special mentions showcasing the host nation's attributes, hence enhancing the host's image (Chalip, 2004:240).

As mentioned in Section 4.3.1, sport mega-events attract international media coverage, which implies that news reporters and journalists from different media houses travel to the host nation. According to Chalip (2004:243), the best tactic to enhance exposure of the host is by "…helping international event reporters to locate useful stories, interesting anecdotes and impressive visuals". In their news reporting, they will report positive messages about the host destination's attributes, thereby enhancing its image (Avraham & Ketter, 2008:31).

According to Chalip (2004:243), the event can be integrated into the host nation's advertising and marketing campaign portfolio which features local products and services. Consumer images are made up of various association sets; this implies that a customer might remember a destination because of its attributes and emotions. The same can apply to an event where one would remember a certain FIFA World Cup^{TM} because of the experiences or emotions the event invoked (Brown et al., 2002:163). Therefore, Chalip (2004:243) concludes that in order to build a positive brand image of the host "…a host destination should be associated with those aspects of consumer associations about the event that the destination wants to transfer to its own brand image". The host nation can include the event in its advertisements as a visual background together with other attributes of the destination (Chalip, 2004:243).

The above-mentioned activities will ultimately lead to an improved image among foreign publics and an increase in soft power which are the major reasons why emerging countries such as South Africa seek to host many sport mega-events.

4.4.2.3 The role of sport mega-events in branding nations

Most of the available literature on the impacts of sport mega-events on destinations focuses on economic, social, political and environmental impacts, neglecting brand image impacts (Gratton et al., 2000; Chalip et al., 2003; Higham & Hinch, 2003). However, the past decade

has seen a growing awareness among researchers of the impact that sport mega-events can have on the host destination's image (Knott et al., 2015:46). There is a considerable amount of literature which highlights the positive significance and impact of hosting sport mega-events on a nation's brand image (Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Lee et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2014; Knott et al., 2015). Sport mega-events play a crucial role in branding the national image of host countries (Pereira et al., 2014:49). Hosting of sport mega-events is believed to have increased awareness of many host nations as well as enhancing their image (Lee et al., 2005:28). Lee et al. (2005:28) further note that sport mega-events can be a powerful tool to transform a destination's brand image. Chen (2012:731) supports the assertion of Lee et al. (2005:28) and argues that the image created by an event can also be transferred to a host country. This is believed to have attracted many countries to host sport mega-events, despite the rigorous bidding process and huge costs associated with hosting such events (Gripsrud et al., 2010:193).

Arnegger and Herz (2016:76) note that in the past, global events were predominantly hosted by Western countries; however in the last two decades this has changed and developing countries are also winning the rights to host such events. This change can be attributed to the fact that emerging countries seek to enter and be accepted in the global economy, hence they resort to hosting global sport events to promote their country's brand image as well as to gain exposure, prestige and power (Grix, 2012:290). Grix (2012:290) further articulates that this practice is usually referred to as public diplomacy, which gives an understanding of the "…rationale behind a country's decision to use sport 'megas' as part of a package of politics of attraction". Knott et al. (2016:106) describe public diplomacy in this regard as an "object of policy" where hosting of sport mega-events is used to demonstrate 'soft power' capabilities and as a branding opportunity for host countries. Similarly, according to Grix and Lee (2013:525):

> The hosting of sports mega-events provides emerging states with the potential to practise public diplomacy to attract the citizens of other states using the global media. We therefore suggest that hosting of such events is performative political practice and, as such, is evidence of their increasing global reach, as well as their ability to leverage international credibility and status and project their carefully managed image abroad through the discursive praxis of public diplomacy.

South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was part of its diplomatic policy of enhancing its national image (Lepp & Gibson, 2011a:211). According to FIFA.com (2010), South Africa's success in hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ gave a "…grand new look to the international image". Prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, South Africa had hosted the 1995 Rugby World Cup and the 2003 Cricket World Cup to reimage itself and project a 'new South Africa' in the post-apartheid era (Farquharson & Marjoribanks, 2003:28; Lepp & Gibson, 2011a:211). China's hosting of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games and Russia's 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games signalled their rise as global powers in the international arena;

also these Games gave them a chance to promote their national image to other global powers (Holt & Ruta, 2015:11).

Hosting of sport mega-events helps to increase awareness and promote the host nation as a tourism destination (Malfas et al., 2004:213). As noted in Chapter 4 in Section 4.3.1, sport mega-events receive international media attention through advertising of the event and news coverage in the host country. These two will go a long way towards promoting the host destination and they can influence foreign tourists' perceptions of the destination's image (Chalip et al., 2003:214; Lee et al., 2005:28). Newspaper organisations and their journalists have a major role to play here; the content of what they report has a major impact on a host country's reputation and how it will be perceived by international visitors (Knott, 2014:104). This is true for South Africa, as prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the country was portrayed by the media as crime ridden, poverty stricken, with rife unemployment levels, unprecedented HIV infection rates, and generally a dangerous destination in terms of safety and security (Van der Merwe, 2007:68). However, in the build up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the media played a crucial role in dispelling most of the negative perceptions of South Africa and convinced football tourists to visit South Africa during the tournament (Knott et al., 2012:118). Knott et al. (2012:119) further note that tourists during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ were surprised to find South Africa to be very different from what some sections of the media portrayed it, as they never expected a developing country to have such good service delivery, excellent hospitality, and a properly organised tournament. Based on the above statement, the researcher therefore assumes that the event managed to change the negative perceptions tourists had of South Africa before 2010 in the short run.

The last section of this chapter discusses some of the reasons behind sport-related travelling and attendance as well as the constraints that might prohibit tourists to embark on such journeys. This leads to a discussion on why tourists would re-visit a sport tourism destination after a major sport event. To determine if there has been repeat visitation to South Africa after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ is one of the objectives of this particular study.

4.5 The reasons behind sport-related visitation and attendance

The reasons why sport tourists travel to sport destinations are varied (Izzo et al., 2011:3). However, Swart et al. (2017) argue that considering that sport tourism destinations are increasingly becoming competitive, it is imperative to understand the factors that motivate sport tourists to choose a certain sport destination. The past years have seen a notable rise in sport spectatorship; in developed countries sport spectators are willing to pay more money for tickets and they expect to get a memorable experience in return (Emery et al., 2013:160; Tichaawa, 2013:75). In those countries, marketing managers of sport clubs and other stakeholders strive to understand sport tourist motivations in order to enhance visitor

experience and satisfaction as well as to increase the fan base and revenue from gate takings (Bocarro & Edwards, 2016:205). There are certain elements and aspects that directly influence the level of sport tourists' experience and satisfaction at a destination and those aspects also influence their decisions to travel to that particular destination to a large extent (Walmsley, 2008). Sport-related visitation is affected by both push and pull factors and these work hand-in-hand to determine the sport tourists' travel motives (Kim & Chalip, 2004:695). Push factors are more intrinsic and are associated with one's needs, motives and interests; conversely, pull factors are linked to aspects at a destination like attractions and facilities (Kim & Chalip, 2004:695). Kurtzman and Zauhar (2005:21) suggest that the motives to travel to sport destinations or participate in sport events are triggered by some forces that are external, for example, a word-of-mouth recommendation from friends and relatives as well as different types of media such as travel magazines and travel channels about the destination's attractions and facilities. Whatever information one gets from the above-mentioned sources should be convincing enough and pull tourists towards a specific destination. Walmsley (2008) supports Kurtzman and Zauhar's contention (2005:23) and suggests that sport tourists are not only limited to the event when making a decision to travel, but they also consider a variety of support services and facilities at a destination, for example, touristic activities such as water sports and mountain hiking. Support services and facilities at a destination complement the event taking place, and they enhance tourists' experience of and satisfaction with the destination (Walmsley, 2008). However, Bocarro and Edwards (2016:204) have a different perspective; they strongly argue that sport travel motives are largely influenced by societal trends. Such societal trends include the following: the increasing role of social media in consumption of sport and experiences, mostly in the developed world; the role of international health promoters who encourage people to travel and participate in physical activities, the growing interest in child and youth development advocating for young people to participate in different sport events, and globalisation of women's rights which has seen a significant increase in women who travel and participate in sport events (Bocarro & Edwards, 2016:205). However, for all this to be possible, governments should play a facilitating role through policy making and funding (Bocarro & Edwards, 2016:205).

More than three decades ago, sport researchers evinced increased interest in studying the psychological factors that lure individual sport fans to travel to sport destinations and participate in sport (Trail et al., 2003; Funk et al., 2004; Robinson & Trail, 2005; Correia & Esteves, 2007). In a bid to have a better understanding of sport tourists' travel motives and participation in sport events, various scholars have proposed travel motivational theories (McDonald et al, 2013). One of the earliest theories is that of Wann (1995) who developed a Sport Fan Motivation Scale (SFMS) and suggested that there are eight common psychological factors that drive a sport fan to embark on sport-related adventures:

entertainment, family, escape, eustress, economic, group affiliation, self-esteem, and aesthetics. However, Wann's work was criticised by Trail and James (2001), who strongly argue that his research and other earlier theories on sport fan motives lack construct validity and reliability. Consequently, they proposed their own theory called Motivation Scale for Sport Construction (MSSC), an extension of Wann's SFMS and meant to address the problem of validity and reliability (Kim et al., 2008:111). Smith and Stewart (2007:157) adapted Wann's original theory by separating the fans' motivational factors into three categories: socio-cultural, social belonging, and psychological categories as depicted in Table 4.2. According to Smith and Stewart (2007:157), family needs and group affiliation fall into the socio-cultural category, with eustress, escape, entertainment and pleasure placed in the psychological category. The social belonging category comprises reasons related to connection with tribes and personal achievements. Sport-related travel to sport destinations can be constrained by a number of factors, which are discussed in the next subsection.

Table 4.2: Key dimensions and motives for sport consumption behaviours

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

Source: Smith and Stewart (2007:158)

4.5.1 Sport-related travel constraints and perceived risks in recent times

Recent years have seen a notable rise in the number of sport tourists who travel thousands of kilometres from their homes to either spectate at or participate in sport events (Nishio, 2014:137). Nishio (2014:137) further states that despite this surge, there are many factors that constrain even more people from embarking on sport-related travel. Travel constraints refer to those factors that prohibit one from travelling to a sport tourism destination (Nezakati et al., 2013:5710). Similarly, Nishio (2014:139) notes that the concept of sport travel constraints is derived from touristic leisure activities and it entails analysing the factors that inhibit and constrain sport travelling. Kim and Chalip (2004:697) argue that travel constraints play a crucial role in shaping the choices and decisions that sport tourists make when choosing a destination to visit, and they suggest that perceived risks and travel costs are the major factors that have constrained sport tourists in recent times. Nyaupane and Andereck (2008:434) extended Kim and Chalip's three-dimensional constraint model with three additional dimensions: lack of money, lack of time, and place attributes. In the next section,

perceived risk factors associated with sport mega-events are discussed and how these perceived risk factors constrain future sport-related travel.

According to George and Swart (2015:1118), perceived risk refers to the uncertainty and negative repercussions that one perceives when buying a product or service or when participating in a certain activity. The existing literature show that tourists' perceptions of risk influence their decisions to travel and their destination choice to a large extent (George, 2003; Reisinger & Mavondo, 2006; Rittichainuwat & Chakraborty, 2009). According to Lepp and Gibson (2003:606), tourists' perception of risk has an intrinsic link with a destination image; this is true as tourism destinations that are perceived to be safe have a higher chance of repeat visits compared with destinations associated with certain perception risks (Sirakaya et al., 1997:2). Kozak et al. (2007:233) support the contention of Sirakaya et al. (1997:2) and argue that tourists may be discouraged to visit a particular destination if there is a perceived risk at that destination. George and Swart (2015:1119) identified common perceived risk factors as terrorism and political instability, health issues, natural disasters and crime. Research conducted by Toohey and Taylor (2008), Zekulin (2009) and Boo and Gu (2010) reveal that there is a correlation between perceived risk factors and sport mega-events. Some of these perceived risk factors that constrain sport-related travel are discussed in the next section, citing recent incidents.

Introspection into the global terrorism events that took place in the past two decades reveal that from political unrest to an unprecedented rise in terrorist groups around the world, travelling to tourism destinations is no longer perceived as safe (Kim & Chalip, 2004:698). According to Cashman (2004) and Solberg and Preuss (2005:134), perceived risk of terrorism has significantly affected the attendance of sport tourists at sport destinations; consequently there is a high possibility that sport tourists will totally avoid destinations perceived to be targeted by terrorists.

Sport mega-events receive wide media coverage which puts them in the limelight, thereby making them easy targets for terrorism attacks (Atkinson & Young, 2002:55). For example, attacks during the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup™ tournament seek to inflict more pain as well as to instil fear in sport participants and attendees (Atkinson & Young, 2002:55; Spaaij, 2016:451). Galily et al (2015:998) posit that sport terrorism is not a new phenomenon; this is supported by Spaaij (2016:451) who contends that "…sport terrorism is a recurring phenomenon". According to Schinke, et al. (2016:1116) "…people are no longer shocked by incidents of terrorism in sport contexts; in fact, they have become desensitised to the new normal of terrorism". Even though there were no recorded incidents of terrorism during sport mega-events before 1970, there was growing speculation in respect of international as well as domestic terrorism at sport venues (Clément, 2015:28). While the reasons for such attacks cannot be attributed to any grievances with regard to mega-sport

events, such attacks are targeted at the hosting governments and communities, as well as certain groups of attendees (Spaaij, 2016:451). For example, the 7 July 2005 London bombings, the day London was announced as the winner of the 2012 Olympics bid, and the Boston Marathon bombings are largely attributed to the UK and USA's involvement in the Middle East political conflicts (George & Swart, 2015:1118). The first sport terrorism incident was recorded at the 1972 Munich Summer Olympics, when a Palestinian terrorist group attacked an Israeli delegation; since then many more incidents have been recorded at sport venues across the world (Galily et al., 2015:998). In November 2015, France saw a wave of terror attacks, and during a friendly match between France and Germany, suicide bombers detonated themselves, killing three people at the entrance to the Stade de France (Banerjee & Shergold, 2015; Wilson, 2015). Wilson (2015) further states that this incident raised safety and security concerns for fans travelling to France for the 2016 UEFA European Championship and for future sport events across Europe. In the wake of terrorist attacks at tourist hot spots in Tunisia and Egypt, most governments in Europe, especially the British and French governments, have advised their citizens to avoid travelling to such areas for fear of more attacks (Parkinson & Heyden, 2015).

Health concerns also inhibit sport-related travelling; recent years have seen an overwhelming outbreak of deadly diseases resulting in many tourists avoiding travelling to affected destinations (Baker, 2015:2). According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2004:192), the outbreak of Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) adversely affected attendance at the 2002 FIFA World Cup™ co-hosted by South Korea and Japan. Before the 2016 Summer Olympics in Brazil, thousands of cases of people infected with the Zika virus were recorded; the virus, which is transmitted by an infected mosquito, the *Aides* genus, affects pregnant women and leads to microcephaly in babies, a condition where babies are born with abnormally small heads (Attaran, 2016). Soon after the outbreak, the USA's Centers for Disease Control and Prevention issued a statement advising women not to travel to Rio de Janeiro for the Olympic Games or in the near future: "[P]regnant women should consider not traveling to the 2016 Olympic Games in Brazil due to the risk of the Zika Virus infection" (Schneyer & Srivastava, 2016). Some of the athletes pulled out of the event fearing that they would contract the deadly virus, for example golfers, Jason Day, an Australian, and Dustin Johnson, an American, withdrew from the event citing health reasons (Palazzo, 2016). Again, between 2014 and 2015 there was an outbreak of Ebola, a deadly virus transmitted by bats in Central Africa and the greater parts of West Africa. The outbreak impacted adversely on the continent's tourism industry (Attaran, 2016). According to Paris (2014), "Africa's tourism industry is feeling the effects of concerns about Ebola, with one operator noting, 'it's difficult to defeat fear with logic'". The affected countries were placed in a state of emergency and people were prohibited from travelling to and from those countries (Fofana & MacDougall, 2014). Airline companies cancelled flights to affected countries and many

tourists were left stranded (Anderson, 2014). The outbreak of the Ebola virus saw Morocco withdrawing from hosting the 2015 AFCON, amid fears that travelling fans from affected countries could bring the epidemic into their country (Harress, 2014). Sierra Leone, which was the epicentre of the Ebola virus, cancelled all the football matches as a result of the outbreak of this deadly virus (*Daily News*, 2014).

4.5.2 Repeat visitation to a destination post-sport event

Repeat visitation is when a tourist returns to a certain destination he or she once visited (Rittichainuwat et al., 2003:218). According to Alegre and Cladera (2006:289), repeat visitors are those tourists who revisit a destination; furthermore, these tourists are more knowledgeable about the tourist activities and services that a destination offers. Many tourism destinations around the world are dependent on repeat visitors to sustain their tourism revenues (Som et al., 2012:39). From an economist's perspective, destination managers should always make it a priority to retain tourists who visit their tourism destinations for it is more cost effective than attracting new tourists, considering the high costs associated with marketing a destination (Lau & McKercher, 2004:280). This is supported by Som et al. (2011:178), who note that customer retention can cut marketing and publicity costs by more than ten percent.

The existing literature on repeat visitation focuses mainly on three perspectives: (i) destination loyalty, (ii) attributes of repeat visitors, focusing mainly on how their behaviour and motivations are influenced by familiarity with a destination, and (iii) the factors that influence repeat visitation and the impact that tourists' perceptions of a destination, destination image and levels of satisfaction have on their future travel plans (Court & Lupton, 1997; Niininen & Riley, 2003; Taks et al., 2009). According to Swart et al. (2017:4), repeat visitation is triggered by various tourists' attitudes towards a destination. Swart et al. (2017), identified these tourist attitudes as utilitarian attitude, compensatory attitude, indifference attitude, and placement attitude, as discussed below. With global recession hitting many economies, travelling is becoming more expensive (Webber et al., 2010:65). As a result, tourists have developed a utiliatarian approach; in this instance, before they make a decision to travel, they consider the costs of travelling to a destination, the quality of the tourism product and service at a destination, and ultimately the level of satisfaction obtained from those products and services (Gursoy & McCleary, 2004:357; Petrick, 2004:401). Similar to the utilitarian attitude is a compensatory attitude, where tourists choose to revisit a destination that satisfied their needs without incurring costs of substitution (Jones et al., 2002:441). Considering the recent wave of terrorism at many tourism hot spots, tourists will choose destinations with caution, hence they choose to visit previous tourism destinations where there is less risk of uncertainty. Lastly, even though it is less popular, some tourists

have an attitude of placement whereby they choose a destination based on their emotional ties with that particular destination (Jones et al., 2002:441).

Despite the fact that repeat visitation is determined mostly by the above-mentioned tourist attitudes, studies have shown that satisfaction overrides most travel decisions, as previous visitation to a destination is affected mainly by level of satisfaction (Chen & Gursoy, 2001; Chen & Tsai, 2007; Jang & Feng, 2007). Repeat visitation after a sport event is a very strong indication that one has been highly satisfied by the products and services that a destination offers (Alegre & Cladera, 2006:288). Satisfaction is the impression one gets after a purchase with regard to the quality and value for money of a product or service (Weaver et al., 2007:334). This view is supported by a study undertaken by Campo and Yagüe (2008:319), who identified quality as an antecedent of satisfaction; for example, the availability of quality service at a destination will guarantee satisfaction with the overall holiday experience. Rittichainuwat et al. (2002:30), in their study on the correlation between satisfaction and repeat visitation in Thailand, found that if tourists are satisfied with the quality of services offered by restaurants and lodges, there is a likelihood of repeat visitation. Customer satisfaction has a positive effect on post-purchase behaviour and it is usually linked to customer loyalty (Weaver et al., 2007:335). These two are related constructs and it is believed that satisfaction is an antecedent of loyalty (Campo & Yagüe, 2008:319). Velázquez et al. (2011:67) support this notion and argue that "…although satisfaction does not guarantee loyalty, it is true that loyal customers are satisfied". Previous research reveals that a satisfied tourist is more likely to return to the destination in the near future (Szymanski & Henard, 2001; Choi et al., 2002; Weaver et al., 2007).

Lau and McKercher (2004:280) articulate that if repeat visitors are satisfied with a service at a destination, they will play a crucial role in passing on a positive word-of-mouth recommendation to friends and relatives. In recent times sport events have become an alternative attraction at many destinations, and such events attract sport tourists more than other types of tourists (Osti et al., 2012:31). According to Taks et al. (2009:123), sport tourists are those visitors who visit a destination specifically to attend an event. Even though their primary purpose is to attend an event, it does not necessarily mean that they have no interest in traditional tourism activities (Taks et al., 2009:123). During their stay at a destination they can also participate in various touristic activities and if they are satisfied at the destination they might consider visiting again after the event as well as passing a positive word-of-mouth recommendation to friends, relatives and potential visitors to the destination (Ritchie et al., 2002:34, Taks et al., 2009:123).

Previous travel experience to a destination is another important factor that can motivate one to revisit a destination post the event (Taks et al., 2009:125). The fact that past travel experiences may allow tourists to be familiar with a destination's attributes could result in

their preferring to travel to a destination they once visited (Weaver et al., 2007:334). According to George and Swart (2015:1121), past travel largely influences repeat visits and there is a likelihood that repeat visitors will return to a destination, compared with their first-timer counterparts. Most tourists believe that it is much safer to revisit a destination one has visited than to visit a new destination, hence their past travel experiences will reduce the risk of unsatisfactory experiences (Osti et al., 2012:34). Tourists who visited South Africa before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ appreciated South Africa and they were keen to revisit South Africa during the FIFA World Cup™ or after the event (FIFA.com, 2010). In addition, destination image plays a crucial role during the destination selection process, as a destination with a positive image has a higher probability of retaining more repeat visitors (Rittichainuwat et al., 2003:217; Faullant et al., 2008:165). In their study, Swart et al. (2017) found that destination image was positively related to tourists' likelihood of repeat visitation to Rio de Janeiro.

4.6 Summary

Sport tourism dates back more than a hundred years, with the Olympic Games being the first sport documented. In the late nineteenth century, sport tourism was modernised and became a powerful contributor to the global economy.

Ever since South Africa attained its independence, it showed a strong interest in hosting sport mega-events and it managed to host the 1995 Rugby World Cup and the 2003 Cricket World Cup. Its first attempt to host the FIFA World Cup™ tournament failed when it lost to Germany in a highly contested bid to host the 2006 FIFA World Cup™. However, South Africa did not give up; in 2004 it won the rights to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ ahead of Morocco. South Africa's main objective in pursuing such events is to reposition the country's brand image and Africa at large. The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa had both positive and negative impacts. However, it can be argued that positive impacts were more significant than negative impacts in the short run and if these positive impacts are sustained for a long period of time, they will result in long-lasting legacies. This study focuses on the brand image legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa. This chapter discussed the role of sport mega-events, such as the FIFA World Cup™, in promoting a host nation's image. The study uses Grix's (2012) model to elaborate how nations can leverage sport mega-events to enhance their image.

It can also be argued that even though the main reason for visiting a sport destination is to either participate in sport or spectate at sport, sport tourists may also indulge in other tourism-related activities during their stay at a destination. Sport tourists' experiences at a destination are affected by both push and pull factors. Despite the fact that the number of

sport tourists travelling to sport destinations has grown exponentially, there are many factors that constrain and limit sport tourist travel, for example, increasing travelling costs, disease outbreaks such as the Ebola and the Zika virus, and safety and security issues such as terrorism. All these factors have a negative impact on repeat visits to a sport destination post a sport event. Sport tourists who have a good experience of a destination are most likely to recommend that destination to a friend or relative, and there is likelihood that they may revisit the destination in the near future.

CHAPTER 5
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study is to assess the brand image legacies that resulted from hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa in relation to determining the changes in international visitors' perceptions of the country as result of hosting this event. In Chapter 2 a theoretical framework was elaborated on, clarifying the theories and concepts which underpin the study. The theoretical framework was supported by a literature review in order to substantiate the study's research objectives and questions, where existing literature on nation branding and sport mega-event legacies, particularly brand image legacies and repeat visitation post sport mega-event, were analysed.

In this chapter, the methods, processes and procedures used for data collection are elaborated on. In addition, the target population, sampling technique, sample size, data-collection tool, data-analysis methods, and the limitations of the study are discussed. In the next subsection, the research questions that guide this study are presented.

 5.2 Research questions

As discussed in the first chapter of this study, the major research questions that guide this particular study are:

- What are international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination six years after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?
- How did the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ change international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination?
- To what extent did the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ lead to repeat visitation to South Africa after the event?
- What are the destination brand image legacies of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa?

5.3 Background to the site of data collection

The current study was conducted in France, which hosted the 2016 UEFA European Championship. As discussed in Section 1.7.2, France's five major cities/metropolitan areas that hosted the event were selected and data was collected at the stadiums and fan parks in these cities. In this section, the background to France's role in the initiation of the UEFA European Championship and other major football tournaments, its hosting of such events, and the hosting stadiums are further elaborated.

France is one of the few countries behind the initiation of most important football competitions today, such as the FIFA World Cup™, UEFA Champions League and the UEFA European Championship (Zarkovic, 2015). Zarkovic (2015) further states that France's secretary of the French Football Federation (FFF) was the first person to announce to the general public the idea of starting a European continental competition (UEFA European Championship) in 1927; however the first UEFA European Championship was held only in 1960 and France was the first to host that tournament. France hosted quite a number of football tournaments: the 1938 FIFA World Cup™, the 1960 UEFA European Championship, the 1984 UEFA European Championship, and 1998 FIFA World Cup™ (Roth & Talpalar, 2016). In the summer of 2016 France once again hosted the UEFA European Championship and it became the first ever country to host this tournament for the third time successfully (UEFA.com, 2016b).

France's national team remains one of the best world football teams after winning the Olympic gold medal at the 1985 Los Angeles Olympics, and winning the 1984 UEFA European Championship, the 1985 FIFA Confederations Cup, the 1998 FIFA World Cup™, UEFA Euro 2000, and the 2001 Confederations Cup (Hussey, 2016). To date, France is the only European country that has managed to win the FIFA World Cup™, the UEFA Euro, the FIFA Confederations Cup and the football Olympic tournament (Zarkovic, 2015).

As mentioned in Section 1.7.2 of this study, data was collected at five selected stadiums and five fan parks between 11 June and 6 July during the 2016 UEFA European Championship. The following cities and their stadiums were chosen: Saint-Denis (Stade de France); Paris (Parc des Princes); Lille (Stade Pierre-Mauroy); Marseille (Stade Vélodrome) and Nice (Stade de Nice). As explained in Section 1.7.3, the study population primarily comprised international football tourists from some of South Africa's key source markets such as Germany, France and the UK (SAT, 2015a). Therefore, the researcher considered covering these stadiums since they were hosts to Germany, France, and the UK, whose football fans were the main target population for the study. The fan zones selected were in proximity to the host stadiums and they were as follows: The Eiffel Tower fan zone (Paris); Parc de la Légion d'Honneur fan zone (Saint-Denis); Prado Beach fan zone (Marseille); Ville Hôte de (Nice), and Place Jean Jaurès (Lille). Figure 5.1 depicts a map of France showing the cities that hosted the 2016 UEFA European Championship, including the five selected for data collection. A brief description of the five selected stadiums is given below.

Figure 5.1: Map of the study area
Source: UEFA.com (2016c)

Stade de France is the largest stadium on French soil with a capacity of 80 000 seats and is situated in the former industrial suburb of Staint-Denis on the periphery of Paris (Newman & Tual, 2002:831). This stadium was inaugurated in 1998 to host the 1998 FIFA World Cup™ and is France's national stadium (Dubois, 2010:15). It has since hosted a considerable number of prestigious sporting events such as the 1998 FIFA World Cup™, 2003 World Athletics Championship, 2007 Rugby World Cup, two Champions League finals in 2000 and 2006, 2010 Heineken Cup final, and the 2016 UEFA European Championship (EUFA.com, 2016c). Situated in the south-west of Paris, Parc des Princes is a modern venue for rugby and football matches; before the inauguration of Stade de France, this stadium used to host events of the national team (McCoy, 2016). McCoy (2016) further states that the stadium was also one of the venues that hosted the 1998 FIFA World Cup™ and today is the home ground of the Paris Saint-Germain football club, the most successful football club in France. Stade Vélodrome is the second largest stadium in France with a capacity of 67 000 seats, situated in Marseille, Provence; it also hosted the 1938 and 1998 FIFA World Cup™ and the 1960 and 1984 UEFA European Championships (Mewis, 2016; UEFA.com, 2016d). Stade Pierre-Mauroy is located in the south-east of Lille and hosted its first international sporting event in 2012 when it hosted a rugby match between France and Argentina (Vishal, 2016). Stade de Nice, a modern state-of-the art stadium located in the city of Nice, opened its doors in 2013 and it is the first eco-friendly stadium in France; it is powered by solar energy and uses rain water collected from the stadium to water the pitch (UEFA.com, 2016e).

5.4 Research design

Research design refers to a structure that is used to select various sources and types of information designed to answer research questions (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:130). De Vaus (2001:9), in agreement with Cooper and Schindler, notes that social sciences research requires a structure for data collection and analysis and this structure comprises a detailed work plan to ensure that data or evidence collected is capable of answering the set research questions. This study employed a descriptive research design as it sought to determine the changes in international visitors' perceptions of South Africa as a result of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. This method is often used to measure opinions, attitudes and behaviour held by a group of people regarding a given phenomenon (Polit & Hungler, 1999:716). According to Burns and Grove (2007:293), "the purpose of descriptive design is to provide the perceptions and views of the respondents about the phenomenon studied".

This study utilised a quantitative research approach, using a self-administered structured questionnaire for data collection. The quantitative research approach collects numerical data and factual information which is analysed using mathematically based methods to explain a social and cultural phenomenon (Hoy, 2010:97; George, 2011:117). This method is reliable and provides valid summaries of data that support generalisation about a phenomenon under investigation.

5.5 Validity and reliability of data-collection instrument

According to Heale and Twycross (2015:66), validity can be defined as the degree to which a phenomenon is accurately measured. Validity determines if the researcher is measuring a correct or intended construct (Tharenou et al., 2007:150). Tharenou et al. (2007:51) state that validity is "the extent of confidence that a researcher can have in inferences drawn from scores and the confidence that a researcher can have in the meaning attached to scores". On the other hand, reliability refers to the consistency of a measure; in other words it is the accuracy of a measuring instrument (Heale & Twycross, 2015:67). Tharenou et al. (2007:50) argue that a reliable measure should be free from random measurement errors. It is vital to ensure that a research study has a measure that is valid and reliable in order to produce data that is rigorous (Tharenou et al., 2007:51).

The format and variables of the questionnaire survey used in this study were adopted from previous sport mega-event studies dealing with international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa (Knott's study on International visitor perceptions of South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and the 2015 Rugby World Cup study conducted by Swart).

The survey instrument was reviewed by Swart, a full professor in the College of Business Administration, American University in the Emirates; Turco, Associate Professor at Drexel University and Gonzalez, a PhD student specialising in surf tourism at the University of Málaga, before the commencement of the data collection process. In addition, the questionnaire was translated by language specialists into three languages (German, French and Spanish). This was done as the event attracted various groups of sport tourists from the whole continent of Europe and beyond; hence the translations were meant to cater to those football tourists whose main language was not English, particularly South Africa's key source markets. The researcher was assisted by a fieldworker, a fellow student, to distribute questionnaires to respondents during data collection. To ensure that the findings of this study are valid and reliable, the researcher together with the fieldworker studied the questionnaire thoroughly to familiarise themselves with its content. In the event that there were questions regarding the questionnaire, the researcher and the fieldworker were in a better position to answer and assist the respondents if required.

5.6 Data-collection methods

The main instrument of data collection for this study was a questionnaire survey. Cohen and Manion (1994:143) and Maree and Pietersen (2007:160) argue that there are two different types of questionnaire surveys: structured and unstructured questionnaires. The major difference between the two is that a structured questionnaire's content is organised in advance, whereas an unstructured questionnaire gives flexibility and freedom in an open interview (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:160). For the purpose of this study, a self-administered structured questionnaire was used. As explained in the previous section, the questionnaire was developed from previous studies on sport mega-events which focused on international tourists' perceptions of South Africa. The structured questionnaire was available in hard and soft copies. The soft copy version was designed on Google forms and tablet devices were used to complete the survey. The following subsection discusses various sources of data that were consulted for this study.

5.6.1 Secondary data sources

Myers (2013:120) defines secondary sources as information that has been gathered and often interpreted by other researchers that is recorded in books, journal articles, and other publications. According to Sorensen et al. (1996:435), secondary data in research relates to facts and figures that have not been collected for a specific research purpose. The main advantage of using secondary data sources is that they already exist, thus reducing the time spent on the study. It was essential for the researcher to use secondary data in this study in order to provide background to the study and gain knowledge of the subject under investigation. The secondary data sources used in this study are briefly explained below.

5.6.1.1 Internet

Developments in technology have led to a substantial increase in the number of registers, databases, websites and information systems that may be of value in academic research (Sorensen et al., 1996:435). Internet search engines such as Google Scholar and specific sites such UEFA.com (http://www.uefa.com/uefaeuro/), FIFA.com (www.fifa.com) and SAT (www.tourism.gov.za) were mainly used to access published scholarly and popular articles on previous related studies.

5.6.1.2 Books

Various book sources that dealt with a wide range of topics related to this study were also consulted. Topics researched for a comprehensible literature review included tourism development, tourism management, event tourism and research methodology.

5.6.1.3 Journal articles

A number of relevant academic journals were consulted for this research. However the most predominant included *Annals of Tourism Research*, *International Journal of Sport Management*, *Tourism Management* and the *International Journal of the History of Sport*.

5.6.1.4 Theses

Masters and doctoral theses by previous students of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology and the University of KwaZulu-Natal on related studies were identified and used for enhanced understanding of the topic as well as guidelines on the format and type of content required for a study of this nature.

5.6.2 Primary data sources

Primary data is the information that is observed, experienced or recorded first hand close to the event; it is gathered to address specific research objectives and specific research questions of a particular study. The techniques of collecting primary data include survey questionnaires, observations and interviews (Hoy, 2010:170). For this study, the main instrument of primary data collection was a questionnaire, as explained in Section 5.6.2.2.

5.6.2.1 Pilot survey

A pilot study refers to a small trial of the research instrument on a smaller sample and the purpose of conducting it is to test the effectiveness, validity and reliability of that particular research instrument (Veal, 2011:313). A pilot survey allows researchers to identify errors, assess the ease with which the respondents complete the questionnaire, and the amount of

time needed. Adjustments will then be made as required, guided by the results achieved; this will ensure that the instrument will yield reliable and valid results for the actual study (Neuman & Kreuger, 2003:180). Before the actual study was conducted, the researcher administered the questionnaire to 20 international tourists from some of South Africa's key source markets, namely, Germany, France and the UK at the Victoria and Alfred Waterfront, a popular destination for international tourists in Cape Town, to identify common errors and problems. The pilot survey revealed no problems with the survey instrument.

5.6.2.2 Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a survey tool that consists of open-ended and closed-ended questions; it is effective for collecting data for descriptive studies such as studies on tourists' perceptions of a destination (Cooper & Schindler, 1998:234; Bryman & Bell, 2011:203). A questionnaire is useful in acquiring respondents' attitudes and beliefs in respect of the topic under investigation (Bird, 2009:1307). This study used self-administered questionnaires that contained closed-ended questions. According to Polit and Beck (2004:729), "... a self-administered questionnaire is an instrument for gathering self-report information from respondents through self-administration of questions in a paper-and-pencil format". De Vos et al. (2005:167) add that self-administered questionnaires are given to respondents to complete on their own, but the researcher or fieldworker should always be available in case problems are experienced. Considering the fact that football tourists at fan parks and stadiums have limited time as they will be concentrating on supporting their teams, using a self-administered structured questionnaire with closed-ended questions was the fastest and easiest method to collect data.

The questionnaire was also available in the languages of some of South Africa's key international markets: German, French, English and Spanish. The questionnaire was self-administered, with respondents completing it themselves, and the researcher and fieldworker checking if all questions had been answered. A total of 391 questionnaires were distributed between 11 June and 6 July in France's five major cities, as explained in Section 5.3 during the 2016 UEFA European Championship.

The questionnaire was available in two formats: soft copy and hard copy. The soft copy of the survey was created using Google forms and respondents completed it using tablets. A proportionate sampling technique was used in distributing the questionnaires in different host cities, thus questionnaires were distributed relative to the seating capacity of stadiums and relative sizes of fan parks in each city. The breakdown of how the questionnaires were distributed in different cities is depicted in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Distribution of questionnaires

City	Number of questionnaires administered
Marseille	90
Nice	40
Paris	152
Saint-Denis	61
Lille	48
Total	**391**

The questionnaire for this study comprised 17 questions and those questions were divided into ten sections.

Section a - The first section of the questionnaire asked respondents if they had travelled to South Africa to watch the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, or had watched it at home. The purpose of this section was to ascertain if respondents had visited South Africa or any other African nation prior to the tournament and if their travel was motivated by the fact that South Africa was going to host a major event.

Section b - The purpose of this section was to measure the success of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

Section c - The purpose of this section was to probe respondents' perceptions of South Africa prior the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

Section d - The purpose of this section was to determine if respondents' perceptions of South Africa had changed since their visit to South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ or since they watched the tournament on TV. The respondents were asked which perceptions had changed and how. In addition, the respondents were asked about the factors which influenced this change in perceptions. Respondents were further asked if their perceptions of South Africa were changed by current incidents in South Africa, for example, xenophobia, the Nkandla issue, and the FIFA corruption scandal.

Section e - The purpose of this section was to determine whether respondents had re-visited South Africa or any other African country since the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ or if they intended to visit South Africa or any African country in the near future. Those who watched the tournament at home were asked if watching South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ encouraged them to visit South Africa or any other African country in the near future.

Section f - Section F intended to establish respondents' current perceptions six years after the event.

Section g - This section intended to find out if South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ has changed respondents' perceptions of South Africa and Africa as a continent.

Section h - This section intended to determine respondents' perceptions regarding South Africa as a destination capable of hosting future sport mega-events as well as to determine respondents' willingness to travel there should it host any other event of such magnitude.

Section i - The last section was aimed at gathering demographic information of respondents such as age, gender and country of origin in order to determine if most respondents were from some of South Africa's key source markets such as Germany, France and the UK.

The questionnaire for the current study is attached in Appendix B.

5.7 Target population and sample selection

Target population refers to a large group of individuals, objects, or any other sampling unit which is the main focus of the research problem (De Vos et al., 2005:160). The objects or individuals that make up the research population should have similar characteristics (Bhattacherjee, 2012:65). Bhattacherjee (2012:65) further states that a research population is often too large in size, which makes it impossible for researchers to test every object or individual of the population as it takes a considerable amount of time and requires considerable financial resources, therefore only a sample is selected. A sample refers to a subset or smaller portion of the population, which must represent the whole population and its size should be appropriate enough to justify statistical analysis (Marshall, 1996:522).

The population of the current study consisted primarily of football tourists from some of South Africa's key international source markets such as the UK, France and Germany. However, the study was not limited to tourists from South Africa's key international source markets only; other international football tourists who attended the 2016 UEFA European Championship from various countries across the globe were also considered for the study. The researcher assumed that even though these tourists were not from South Africa's key source markets, they might hold certain perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination since it hosted the FIFA World Cup™. According to FIFA.com (2011), the in-home TV coverage of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ reached over 3.2 billion people around the world, which was 46.4 percent of the global population then. Therefore, it was assumed that people who had visited South Africa or any other African country before or during the event and those who had watched the tournament on TV at home might have certain perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination.

The research employed a spatially based systematic sampling technique. According to De Vos et al. (2005:203), a spatial sample is mostly used in cases where there is a highly temporary population, for example, during sporting events. A systematic sampling method is a periodic process that considers selecting every n^{th} element of the target population in which

the first respondent is chosen randomly and every n^{th} respondent is chosen thereafter (Pellissier, 2007:33; Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008:89). The researcher and the field worker were located at different points of the hosting stadiums, such as the stadium precincts and fan parks, and they distributed questionnaires to every twentieth person who passed by.

5.8 Sample size

An estimate of 2 427 303 spectators attended the 2012 UEFA European Championship, (N=2 427 303) (UEFA.com, 2016a). Based on this population, a representative sample (n) at 95% confidence level is n=384 (Saunders et al., 2009:219). Data collection was conducted from 11 June to 6 July during the tournament and a total of 391 responses were gathered from respondents. Therefore, the researcher argues that the sample size of this research study was representative of the population.

5.9 Method of data analysis

Quantitative data, closed-ended questions in particular, require the utilisation of a statistical package such as the SPSS for an effective analysis. The software allows for the data to be described and analysed using statistical distributions, tables, bar charts and graphic presentation. Data for this study was analysed using IBM SPSS Statistics, Version 24.0.

5.10 Limitations of the study

The following were identified as the limitations of this research study:

- The study was limited to spectators at the 2016 UEFA European Championship in France, therefore the findings of the study cannot be generalised to all international football tourists who either visited South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ or watched the tournament at home.
- Owing to limited financial resources, data was collected in only five major cities out of the ten cities which hosted the 2016 UEFA European Championship; the researcher selected only cities that were hosts to teams that came from some of South Africa's key international source markets.
- The research methodology was limited to a purely quantitative approach, which limited the respondents in expressing their perceptions more succinctly and explicitly regarding South Africa as a sport tourism destination.
- Considering that this study was conducted post the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, it is hard to isolate pre-perceptions when they have been already influenced by the event as opposed to conducting a pre-study and post-study.
- The study was conducted six years after the event and the chances of interviewing respondents who visited South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ were very

slim. However, the impact of this limitation was reduced by broadening the study to include football fans who watched the tournament on TV at their homes.

5.11 Summary

The current chapter explained in detail the research design used for this research study. The research questions which guided the study, data-collection methods and data-analysis methods were discussed. A total of 391 responses were collected during the 2016 UEFA European Championship in France's five major cities at stadiums and fans zones. Given that the current chapter discussed the research methods that this study employed, the next chapter presents a discussion and analysis of the findings.

CHAPTER 6
DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

The main aim of this study was to determine if there were changes in international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa in the long term as a result of its hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. The study was guided by the research objectives outlined in Chapter 1 of this study. In Chapters 2, 3 And 4, an in-depth discussion of existing literature was given in order to provide a background to the phenomenon being investigated. The previous chapter of this study provided a detailed analysis of the research method that the study adopted. This research method involved administering face-to-face questionnaires to international football tourists, primarily from some of South Africa's key international markets and from other countries during the 2016 UEFA European Championship in France, using a spatially based systematic sampling technique.

The purpose of this chapter is to present a statistical analysis of the research findings. The findings were analysed and themed based on the predetermined objectives, as explained in Chapter 1 of this study. The study made use of graphs, tables and pie charts to illustrate the findings. In addition, chi-square tests were used to determine if there were significant relationships between variables, where P values were used to show variables that have significance or an association.

As explained in the previous chapter of this study, 391 responses were collected in France's five major cities at stadiums and fan zones during the 2016 UEFA European Championship. Captured responses were analysed using IBM SPSS software Version 24.0.

6.2 Demographic profile of international football tourists

This section presents the findings of the demographic composition of international football tourists who attended the 2016 UEFA European Championship. Country of origin, place of residence, age and gender are the key variables discussed in this section. This information is useful in determining the typical profiles of international football tourists who attended the 2016 UEFA European Championship. This will assist in determining if most of the respondents were from some of South Africa's key source markets, as they were the primary targets of the study.

6.2.1 Respondents' country of origin and country of residence

In order to determine if respondents were originally from South Africa's key source markets, respondents were asked to indicate their country of origin and residence. Country of origin refers to the nationality or country of citizenship, whereas country of residence is defined as the country where a person has or will have lived continuously for more than twelve months

(World Bank, 2008:375). As presented in Table 6.1, the majority of respondents originated from some of South Africa's key international source markets, with the bulk of respondents originating from the UK (29.7%), followed by France (21.7%) and Germany (16.9%). Some respondents were from other European countries such as Spain (8.2%), Italy (3.3%), Belgium (2.1%), Albania (1.8%), Ireland (1.1%) and Slovakia (1.0%). The results could be attributed to the fact that these countries had teams participating in the tournament. Those from Brazil (3.3%), the USA (2.0%) and other countries across the globe constituted the remainder of the responses. The results (3.3%) and (2.0%) could suggest that the UEFA European Championship tournament attracts football fans beyond Europe.

Table 6.1: Country of origin and country of residence (*n*=391, in %)

Country	Country of origin Total (*n*=391)	Country of residence Total (*n*=391)
UK	29.7	23.3
France	21.7	30.9
Germany	16.9	15.3
Spain	8.2	6.1
Italy	3.3	3.3
Brazil	3.3	4.1
Belgium	2.1	2.0
USA	2.0	3.3
Albania	1.8	1.3
Ireland	1.1	1.8
Slovakia	1.0	1.3

The results depicted in in Table 6.1. show that the majority of respondents resided in some of South Africa's key international source markets, with France, which hosted the 2016 EUFA EURO championship, at (30.9%), followed by the UK (23.3%), and Germany (15.3%). Other countries that had significant numbers of respondents were Spain (6.1%), Brazil (4.1%), Italy (3.3%), the USA (3.3%), Belgium (2.0%), Ireland (1.8%), Albania (1.3%), and Slovakia (1.3%). Other countries in the EURO zone region and Africa comprised the rest of the responses.

6.2.2 Gender of respondents

The majority (70.8%) of the respondents were male, while only a few (29.2%) were female. These results could suggest that more men followed the 2016 UEFA European Championship compared with women. This is supported by Deaner et al. (2016:76) who argue that men are generally more interested in football compared with their female counterparts. However, the number of women who travel to football tournaments has increased significantly with a new trend seeing sport fans travelling as families to

tournaments. During their stay at a destination they can also participate in other touristic activities (Bocarro & Edwards, 2016:205).

6.2.4 Age of respondents

Table 6.2 presents findings on the age of respondents, with responses grouped into six categories. The majority (41.6%) of respondents were between the ages of 21 and 30 years, some 27.8% were between 31 and 40 years, 13.3% were between 41 and 50 years, 8.2% were 20 years and younger, 7.5% were between 51 and 60 years, and a minority (1.6%) were above 60 years. According to the findings of this current study, the average age of the respondents was 33 years, suggesting that the majority were young adults. These findings correlate with Smith and Stewart's (2007:165) finding that young adults have more time and are more interested in following sport compared with ageing fans.

Table 6.2: Age of respondents (*n*=391, in %)

Age (in years)	Total (*n*=391, in %)
<20	8.2
21–30	41.6
31–40	27.8
41–50	13.3
51–60	7.5
>61	1.6

6.3 Perceptions of South Africa prior the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

Section 6.3 provides a discussion on the findings regarding respondents' perceptions of South Africa prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. This requires presenting the international football tourists' views, opinions and general satisfaction levels of South Africa regarding various aspects prior to the event. Just like any other developing nation, South Africa had a somewhat negative brand image before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ owing to the common stereotypes generally associated with developing countries and negative media reporting (Anholt, 2007:44). However, in the build up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, South Africa benefited from international media coverage, which helped in portraying it as a safe destination, capable of hosting a global sport event (Swart et al., 2015:73). It is against this background that the researcher found it imperative to present findings on the respondents' perceptions of South Africa prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. A 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the responses, and the responses were grouped ('no, not at all' with 'no, not really' and 'yes, very much' with 'yes, a little') in the discussion of the findings in order to have more precise and meaningful findings. Table 6.3 shows respondents' perceptions of South Africa prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

Lau and McKercher (2004:280) contend that past experience, media and word-of-mouth recommendations are the major factors that influence destination (nation) perceptions. Personal experience is gained when tourists visit another nation, and when they return to their home nations they share a positive word-of-mouth recommendation with friends and relatives about their experiences (Lau & McKercher, 2004:280). According to Beerli and Martin (2004:661), tourists' knowledge of and beliefs about other nations usually come from various forms of media, including newspapers, magazines, radio and TV. Kotler and Gertner (2002:253) argue that people tend to adhere to their cognitive structures, and in most instances they only take cognisance of information that correlates with their expectations and resist any other information that is different from what they already know. This is true because generally tourists judge a destination based on their previous travel experience and by what they hear on different forms of media such as TV, as well as the information that is shared by their relatives and friends regarding a destination (Vogt & Andereck, 2003:348).

Table 6.3: Perceptions of South Africa prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (*n*=391, in %)

Statements	No, not at all	No, not really	Unsure	Yes, a little	Yes, very much
South Africa had much diverse beautiful scenery and many natural attractions	1.3	5.3	22.8	45	25.6
South Africa had a good climate for tourism and sport	1.5	7.9	21.7	46.8	22
South Africa had many diverse (different) cultures	1.0	7.2	25.6	44.5	21.7
South Africa was an excellent destination to host future sport mega-events	2.0	7.0	24.8	45.8	20.2
South Africa was a world-class tourism destination	1.8	8.2	30.4	40.2	19.4
South Africa was a competent sport event host	1.3	8.7	26.6	44	19.4
South Africa had many friendly and welcoming people	1.5	6.6	24	51.4	16.4
South Africa was a segregated social society	1.5	7.9	30.2	44	16.4
South Africa was technologically advanced	1.8	9.5	26.3	42.7	19.7
South Africa had a stable and democratic environment	2.6	9.7	29.7	40.2	17.9
South Africa had business/investment opportunities	1.3	7.9	27.6	45.8	17.4
South Africa had well-respected political leaders	2.8	9.2	27.4	43.5	17.1
South Africa had world-class sport facilities	1.5	10	28.4	44.5	15.6
South Africa was a safe place to visit	19.7	44.5	24.0	9.5	2.3

Respondents were asked if they believed before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ that South Africa had beautiful scenery and natural attractions. This destination attribute received the most positive responses prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup ™, as the findings in Table 6.3

reveals that the majority (70.6%) of respondents believed that South Africa had beautiful scenery and natural attractions before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Some (22.8%) were not sure if South Africa had beautiful scenery and natural attractions, and only a few (6.6%) respondents did not believe that South Africa had beautiful scenery and natural attractions. This was one of the top positive destination attributes of the destination prior to the event. These results correspond with the findings of Knott's (2014) study, which found that one of the brand perceptions prior the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was related to the scenic beauty and natural environment of South Africa. This could possibly suggest that international media played a very big role in promoting South Africa as a beautiful tourism destination with natural attractions on an ongoing basis before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

Similarly, South Africa's climate was perceived to be a positive destination attribute prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The findings in Table 6.3 depict that most (68.8%) of the respondents believed that South Africa had a good climate, while some (21.7%) were unsure about South Africa's climate. Only a minority (9.4%) believed that South Africa did not have a good climate that supports tourism and sports.

The next question required respondents to respond to the question: "Before you visited South Africa or watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ on TV, did you believe that South Africa had many friendly, welcoming people?" The findings presented in Table 6.3 show that a large majority (67.8%) perceived South Africa as having friendly and welcoming people and only a few (8.1%) respondents did not perceive South Africa as having many friendly and welcoming people. Some (24%) respondents were unsure regarding this statement.

The findings in Table 6.3 show that most (66.2%) of the respondents believed that South Africa had many diverse cultures, some (25.6%) of the respondents were unsure whether South Africa had many different cultures and only 8.2% of the respondents did not believe that South Africa had many diverse cultures. The findings of this study correlate with the findings of BSA's (2010b) report, released two weeks prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, which revealed that South Africa was a nation of over 49 million people of diverse origins, cultures, languages and beliefs.

Respondents were asked to respond to the question "Before you visited South Africa or watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ on TV, did you believe that South Africa was an excellent destination to host future sport mega-events?" The findings depicted in Table 6.3 show that most (66%) of the respondents believed that South Africa was an excellent destination to host future sport mega-events, some (24.8%) were unsure, and only a few (9.2%) did not agree with the question. These findings could be attributed to the fact that South Africa had successfully hosted previous sport mega-events (Lepp & Gibson, 2011a:212; SRSA, 2013:173).

South Africa attained a democratic government in 1994; since then it has successfully hosted several major sport events (SRSA, 2013:173). The above literature seems to correspond with the findings depicted in Table 6.3 which reveal that most (63.4%) respondents perceived South Africa to be a competent sport event host, with some (26.6%) respondents unsure about this statement. Only a few respondents (10%) did not perceive South Africa to be a competent sport event host.

Respondents were asked to respond to the question "Before you visited South Africa or watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup ™ on TV, did you believe that South Africa had many business/investment opportunities?" The findings presented in Table 6.3 reveal that a majority (63.2%) of respondents agreed with the statement, while 27.6% were unsure regarding the question and only a few (9.2%) respondents did not agree with the question.

Respondents were asked to respond to the question "Before you visited South Africa or watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ on TV, did you believe that South Africa was technologically advanced?" The findings shown in Table 6.3 show that the majority (62.4%) of respondents believed that South Africa was technologically advanced, while a minority (9.2%) did not believe that South Africa was technologically advanced. Some (24.8%) of the respondents were unsure if South Africa was technologically advanced. The results could suggest that despite a common stereotype that developing countries like South Africa lagged behind in terms of technological advancement, in the African context, South Africa was perceived to be the most technologically advanced country.

Next respondents were asked if they believed that South Africa had well-respected political leaders before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The findings in Table 6.3 show that 60.6% of the respondents believed that South Africa had well-respected political leaders, while some (27.4%) were unsure and only a few (12%) believed that South Africa did not have well-respected political leaders. The results could suggest that the new South African regime was perceived to be more democratic compared with the apartheid regime, hence it was well respected internationally. With Nelson Mandela, a political darling of many South Africans becoming the first black democratically elected South African president in 1994, all citizens were enfranchised. Without doubt, this changed international perceptions of South Africa with regard to its political leaders.

Table 6.3 depicts that 60.1% of respondents perceived South Africa as having world-class sport facilities prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup ™, while some (28.4%) were not sure if South Africa had world-class sport facilities. Only a few respondents (11.5%) perceived that South Africa did not have world-class sport facilities prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. These results could suggest that despite the fact that many of the sport facilities that exist today in the country were built specifically for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, South Africa had

its own remarkable world-class sport facilities prior to the event, which could be one of the reasons why it successfully hosted previous sport mega-events.

As mentioned in Section 3.5.3 of the current study, South Africa identifies itself as a world-class tourism destination with a variety of top attractions, for example, World Heritage attractions such as Robben Island and Table Mountain, one of the Seven Wonders of Nature. These attractions are complemented by excellent service facilities such as international restaurants and five-star accommodation (Cape Town Tourism, 2017). In this regard, respondents were asked to respond to the question: "Before you visited South Africa or watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ on TV, did you believe that South Africa was a world-class sport tourism destination?" As shown in Table 6.3, most (59.6%) of the respondents perceived that South Africa was a world-class tourism destination, while some (30.4%) respondents were unsure regarding this statement. Only a minority (10%) did not perceive South Africa to be a world-class tourism destination. The results (30.4%) of respondents who were unsure of how to rate South Africa as a tourism destination could suggest that despite the role that international media played in portraying South Africa as a sport tourism destination in the build up to the event, it was not enough to convince the international football tourists.

The literature suggests that during the apartheid era, South Africa's political environment was very unstable and undemocratic. The white regime's heavy handedness and unprecedented brutality on citizenry amounted to gross violation of their rights and this resulted in the United Nations imposing sanctions on the regime. In order to determine if respondents perceived South Africa to have had a stable and democratic political environment prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, respondents were asked to respond to the question "Before you visited South Africa or watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ on TV, did you believe that South Africa had a stable democratic environment". The findings presented in Table 6.3 show that 58% of the respondents believed that South Africa had a stable democratic environment, some (29.7%) were unsure of that question, and only a minority (12.3%) believed that South Africa did not have a stable and democratic environment.

During the apartheid era, South Africa was racially polarised with racial discrimination being the order of the day in the domestic sport arena, and sports such as rugby and cricket were traditionally segregated (Alegi, 2001:1; Farquharson & Marjoribanks, 2003:32; Höglund & Sundberg, 2008:807). Since 1994, the new South African government under the leadership of the ANC has sought to address this problem through implementation of the Transformation Barometer to ensure that blacks have an equal chance to participate in white-dominated sport; however there is still a strong feeling that this problem is far from being solved as national rugby and cricket teams are still dominated by white athletes (Njanji, 2013; Ngoepe, 2016). The above literature seem to correlate with the findings presented in

Table 6.3 which show that surprisingly almost 22 years after the apartheid era, most (60.4%) of the respondents were of the perception that South Africa was still a segregated social society, 30.2% of the respondents were not sure regarding this statement and only a minority (9.4%) perceived that South Africa was no longer a segregated social society. Evidently, this was one of the destination attributes which was perceived to be negative prior to the event. Similarly, Knott (2014:247) found that prior to the event respondents perceived South Africa to be segregated.

Safety and security issues were a major concern in the build up to 2010 FIFA World Cup™ as South Africa was generally perceived to be an unsafe place to visit, a sentiment pedalled by international media (George, 2003:575). Similarly, Smith (2009) reported that "crime is rising in South Africa less than nine months before the country hosts the FIFA World Cup™". It is against this background that respondents were asked if they perceived South Africa to be a safe place to visit. The findings presented in Table 6.3 seem to correlate with the literature as most (64.2%) of the respondents indicated that they were of the perception that South Africa was an unsafe place to visit. Some (24%) respondents were unsure regarding this statement, while only a few (11.8%) believed that South Africa was a safe place to visit. Based on these findings, safety and security issues were the most negative perceptions prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The results of this current study correspond with studies undertaken by Donaldson and Ferreira (2009:1) during the Confederation Cup and by Knott (2014:248), which revealed that the majority of international tourists felt worried about their safety prior to the event before they travelled to South Africa. The results could imply that despite the fact that the South African government put in place plans to mitigate crime in the build up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, it might not have been significant enough to convince the international community that the country itself was willing to reduce levels of crime considering that more high profile cases were reported a few months prior to the tournament. For example, xenophobic attacks on foreign nationals particularly from other African countries marred the build up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (Al-Khalil, 2015).

Based on the above findings, it can be argued that generally respondents had positive perceptions of South Africa regarding many destination attributes prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. These positive pre-event perceptions were linked to the traditional tourism strength of the destination. The top attribute which received the most positive responses was: "much diverse beautiful scenery and many natural attractions". While the general perceptions of the destination prior to the event were largely positive, respondents were concerned about safety and security and segregation issues in South Africa. The findings reveal that these attributes received the most negative responses prior to the event.

6.4 Perceptions of South Africa immediately after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

Sport mega-events are powerful tools that can transform a destination's brand image, and ultimately they can change international tourists' perceptions of the host nation (Pereira et al., 2014:49). With many countries struggling with poor brand image, some have resorted to hosting of sport mega-events as a panacea for their tainted images (Gripsrud et al., 2010:193). South Africa was no exception when it hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, as one of its major objectives was to change international tourists' perceptions of South Africa and Africa at large to dissipate the negative perceptions associated with the African continent. According to Knott (2014:247), sport mega-events have power to create positive perceptions of a host destination, for example, Germany, the 2006 FIFA World Cup™ host, and China, which hosted the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, used sport mega-events to change negative aspects associated with their international brand image.

The purpose of this section was to determine if respondents' perceptions of South Africa held prior to the event were changed immediately after their visits to South Africa to spectate at the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ or after they had watched the tournament at home on TV.

6.4.1 Change in main perceptions immediately after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

The literature suggests that as time goes by, many politico-economic events will unfold in a country and consequently the perceptions of that particular nation will change as well. Therefore, it is imperative to determine if respondents' perceptions of South Africa changed after its hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

As indicted in Section 6.3 of this chapter, most of the respondents had positive perceptions of South Africa in general prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. However, some respondents were concerned about safety and segregation issues in South Africa. Therefore, in order to determine if their perceptions regarding the above-mentioned and other issues had changed immediately after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, respondents were asked to respond to the question "Have your main perceptions (views) of South Africa changed since you visited South Africa or watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ tournament?" Surprisingly, the findings presented in Table 6.4 reveal that most (62.5%) respondents indicated that their perceptions did not change immediately after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, while some 37.5% respondents indicated that their perceptions had changed immediately after 2010 FIFA World Cup™. These results could suggest that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ did not change respondents' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination immediately after the tournament upon reflection in the long term. Conversely, Knott's (2014) study found that 74% of the international visitors changed their perceptions during and immediately after the event.

The next section discusses which perceptions changed for those who indicated a change in perceptions post the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}.

6.4.2 Specific perceptions that changed after the 2010 World Cup^{TM}

As a follow-up question, respondents who had indicated that their main perceptions had changed since their visit to South Africa to spectate at the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} tournament or since they watched the tournament on TV, were asked to indicate which of those perceptions had changed and how. This subsection sought to determine if respondents' views and opinions regarding South Africa had changed immediately after South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} upon reflection in the long term. A 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the responses and these responses were grouped ('negative' with 'very negative' and 'positive' with 'very positive') in the discussion of the findings in order to have more precise and meaningful findings.

According to the findings presented in Table 6.4, it can be argued that visiting South Africa to attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} or watching the event on TV seemed to have an impact on enforcing positive perceptions for some respondents, while reducing the impact of the negative aspects to a large extent. Immediately after the event, the three most promoted perceptions were "much diverse beautiful scenery and many natural attractions"; "good climate for tourism and sport" and "an excellent destination to host future sport mega-events".

Respondents' perceptions of South Africa as a destination with much diverse beautiful scenery and many natural attractions changed positively from 70.6% prior to the event to 71.9% immediately after the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. This destination's attribute received the most positive responses immediately after the event. This can be attributed to international media coverage of South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, which showcased the country and its various attractions. Similarly, respondents' perceptions regarding South Africa as a destination with a good climate for tourism and sport changed positively from 68.8% to 70.6% immediately after the event. South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} in the southern hemisphere winter. Traditionally winter seasons in South Africa are known to have very low temperatures, and some areas, for example, Cape Town, usually experience winters that are coupled with heavy rainfall and snow in high altitudes. Based on the above findings, it can therefore be argued that Cape Town used the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} to address seasonality, given that the weather was mild during the tournament despite it being in winter. This could have contributed to the respondents' change in perceptions.

Table 6.4: Change in main perceptions after visiting South Africa or watching the 2010 FIFA World Cup^TM (*n*=146, in %)

Statements	Very negative	Negative	Neutral	Positive	Very positive
An excellent destination to host future sport mega-events	1.4	9.7	18.6	49.7	20.7
Beautiful scenery & natural attractions	1.4	7.5	19.2	52.7	19.2
World-class sport facilities	2.1	7.5	22.6	48.6	19.2
A safe place to visit	2.7	11.0	25.3	40.1	19.9
Technologically advanced	2.1	11.7	26.9	40.7	18.6
Many diverse (different) cultures	2.1	9.6	20.5	51.4	16.4
Many business/investment opportunities	2.8	14.5	21.9	45.9	14.9
Well-respected political leaders	3.4	12.3	26.7	41.1	16.4
A segregated (divided) social society	4.1	13.0	28.1	39.0	15.8
A good climate for tourism & sports	2.7	8.2	18.5	55.5	15.1
A competent sport event host	2.1	8.2	20.5	54.1	15.1
A stable democratic environment	2.1	9.6	28.1	45.2	15.1
Many friendly, welcoming people	2.7	7.5	25.3	53.4	11.0
World-class tourism destination	3.4	6.2	27.4	54.1	8.9

As with the above, respondents' perceptions regarding South Africa as an excellent destination to host future sport mega-events changed significantly from 60% prior to the event to 70.4% immediately after the event. Similarly, perceptions of South Africa as a competent host of sport mega-events changed positively from 63.4% to 69.2%. Perceptions of South Africa as a destination with world-class sporting facilities also changed significantly from 60.1% prior to the event to 67.8% immediately after the event. These results could be attributed to the fact that South Africa successfully hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^TM and that during the tournament South Africa proved that it has world-class sport facilities, from state-of-the art stadiums to excellent training grounds.

It is interesting to note that perceptions regarding South Africa as an unsafe destination to visit and a segregated society which were major concerns prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^TM changed positively immediately after the event. Perceptions on safety and security changed from negative (64.2%) to positive (60%) and perceptions on segregation changed from negative (60.4%) to positive (54.8%), showing the greatest change between respondents' perceptions prior to the event and immediately after the event. The change in respondents' perceptions regarding segregation in South Africa could be attributed to seeing South African football fans of all races and cultures (blacks, whites, coloureds and indians) celebrating and cheering their national football team together during the 2010 FIFA World Cup^TM. As mentioned previously, the findings on safety and security could suggest that there were no major crime incidents during the tournament. These results correlate with the findings of Knott's (2014) study, which also found that event fears of safety and security triggered by the international media were dissipated, suggesting that there were no major incidents reported during the event.

Respondents' perceptions regarding South Africa as a world-class tourism destination changed positively from 59.6% prior to and 63% immediately after the event. This change in respondents' perceptions can be attributed to respondents' experience during the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM], for those who attended the tournament, and the role that international media played in promoting South Africa's tourism destinations during the tournament for those who watched the event on TV at home. As with the above, respondents' perceptions regarding South Africa as a destination with welcoming and friendly people changed positively to 64.4% immediately after the tournament. The results of the current study are similar to the findings of the survey conducted by the Democratic Alliance (DA) during the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] which revealed that most of the visitors to South Africa found the local people to be very friendly and welcoming (BSA, 2010c). Similarly, Knott (2014:249) found South Africans to be warm and exuberant in the opinion of international tourists.

Even though respondents' perceptions changed positively on most destination attributes, perceptions on South Africa as a destination with respected political leaders deteriorated from 60.6% prior to the event to 57.5% immediately after the event. Similarly, perceptions on business/investment opportunities changed from 63.2% prior to the event to 60.8%. The findings regarding these two attributes could suggest that some respondents were concerned about the political events in the country immediately after the event. Human Rights Watch (2012) reported that corruption and socio-economic inequalities in South Africa continued to grow after the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] and that the government was not doing enough to protect political rights. This could have made investors lose trust and faith in the ANC-led government and slowly start to withdraw their investments. Ironically, perceptions of South Africa as a stable democratic environment changed positively to 60.3% immediately after the event. The findings of this study seem to differ from Human Rights Watch's (2015) report which accuses the ANC regime of attacking freedom of expression and not being committed to protecting basic civil rights.

As with the respondents' perceptions on South Africa's political leaders and perceptions on business/investment opportunities, perceptions of South Africa as a destination which is technologically advanced changed negatively from 62.4% prior to event to 59.3% immediately after the event. This decline in respondents' positive perceptions could suggest that South Africa did not reach the perceived technological advancement levels during the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM].

6.4.3 Factors which influenced respondents' change in perceptions immediately after the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}

As discussed in Section 3.5, tourists' perceptions of a nation originate from various sources, such as previous personal experiences, knowledge, beliefs and stereotypes of a nation's people, economic and socio-political conditions (Hakala & Lemmetyinen, 2011:17). However, as time goes by, events which affect the economic and socio-political conditions of a country will unfold and this can ultimately result in changes in tourists' beliefs, knowledge and stereotypes of that particular nation and ultimately lead to a change in perceptions (Kozak, 2004:63).

Therefore, the purpose of this section was to pre-select the factors that caused a change in international football tourists' perceptions immediately after South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. These factors include news and media focusing on South Africa, doing business with South African companies, family and friends' experiences/opinions, previous travel experiences, buying South African products, tourism promotion of South Africa, meeting South Africans in their home countries, South Africa's hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} and South Africa's hosting of other sport events. A 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the responses, with these responses grouped ('No, not at all' with 'No, not really' and 'Yes, very much' with Yes, a little) in the discussion of the findings in order to have more precise and meaningful findings.

Sport mega-events play a significant role in promoting the host nation's image (Pereira et al., 2014:49). More than two decades ago, many countries started using sport events to enhance and promote their brand image (Van Ham, 2001:2). Sport tourists tend to take information and emotions from such events and their impressions of the destination will be transferred, thereby shaping perceptions of the host nation (Florek et al., 2008:202).

The findings shown in Table 6.5 seem to correspond with the literature above, as the majority (74.9%) of those respondents who indicated that their perceptions had changed immediately after the event, agreed that South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA world Cup^{TM} had changed their perceptions of South Africa. Clearly, this is the factor that influenced respondents' perceptions most immediately after South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. This could be attributed to the fact that South Africa successfully hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} and this went a long way towards changing the country's negative perceptions, especially safety and security issues which were the major concerns prior to the tournament. The results of this study correlate with the findings from the SAT survey which found that the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} largely changed international tourists' perceptions of South Africa (FIFA.com, 2010). Even though it was not as influential as the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, South Africa's hosting of other events also changed respondents' perceptions. The

findings show that 68% of the respondents agreed that South Africa's hosting of other events had changed their perceptions. The results could also suggest that South Africa successfully hosted previous sport mega-events (the 1995 Rugby World Cup and the 2003 Cricket World Cup). All these results clearly show the power of sport mega-events in transforming a destination image as has been suggested by the literature.

Table 6.5: Factors which influenced a change in perceptions of South Africa after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (*n*=146, in %)

Statements	No, not at all	No, not really	Unsure	Yes, a little	Yes, very much
South Africa's hosting of other sport events	2.7	5.4	23.8	36.7	31.3
South Africa's hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™	2.0	4.1	19.0	45.6	29.3
Meeting South Africans in your home country	4.1	8.8	23.8	38.8	24.5
Tourism promotion of South Africa	2.0	10.2	21.1	44.9	21.8
Family and friends' experiences/opinions	2.7	8.8	23.8	44.9	19.7
Your previous travel experiences	4.1	11.6	23.1	41.5	19.7
Buying South African products	4.8	12.9	27.9	35.4	19.0
News and media focusing on South Africa	2.0	6.8	23.8	49.0	18.4
Doing business with South African companies	6.8	13.6	24.5	40.1	15.0

According to Knott (2014:278), negative media publicity has become prevalent in the lead-up to sport mega-events. This is true in the case of the 2014 Winter Olympic Games hosted by Sochi: the media focused on human rights abuses in Russia, particularly Russia's annexation of Crimea and its stance on anti-gay laws (Nichol et al., 2014:13). During the 2014 World Cup™ in Brazil, the media criticised the unpreparedness of the LOC and the social unrest (protests) prior to the event (Knott, 2014:278). This trend seems to continue in the lead-up to the 2018 World Cup™ in Russia, as the media criticise Russians for sport doping, racism and hooliganism targeting sport fans from the West (Saakov, 2016). In this regard, respondents were asked if news and media focusing on South Africa had influenced their perceptions after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. As with South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and other sport events, news and media focusing on South Africa influenced respondents' change in perceptions greatly. The findings reveal that 67.4% of the respondents agreed that news and media had changed their perceptions. The results could be attributed to the fact that South Africa benefited from positive international media reporting in the build up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and during the tournament (Swart et al., 2015:73). It can be argued that the international media managed to dissipate negative perceptions regarding safety and security and encouraged international football tourists to visit South Africa during the tournament and support their teams (FIFA.com, 2010).

Similar to news and media focusing on South Africa, the results presented in Table 6.5 show that 66.7% of the respondents agreed that tourism promotion of South Africa had changed their perceptions of South Africa immediately after the event. These results could suggest

that South Africa capitalised on the international media coverage during the event and embarked on mass tourism promotion of the country as a competent sport tourism destination.

Other factors that were influential in changing respondents' perceptions are family and friends' experiences/opinions (64.6%), meeting South Africans in respondents' home countries (63.3%), and respondents' previous travel experiences (61.2%). Doing business with South African companies seems to have had a lesser impact on changing respondents' perceptions immediately after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ as the findings in Table 6.5 show that only 55.1% indicted that changes in their perceptions were influenced by doing business with South African companies. Similarly, buying South African products had the least impact on changing respondents' perceptions as the findings show that only 54% of the respondents indicated that their perceptions were influenced by their buying of South African products.

Based on the above findings, it can be argued that respondents' change in perceptions was mostly influenced by South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. However, other factors such as South Africa's hosting of other sport events, news and media focusing on South Africa, and tourism promotion of South Africa had a great impact on the change of respondents' perceptions of South Africa immediately after the event. Buying South African products and doing business with South African companies were least influential factors in this change in respondents' perceptions.

6.4.4 Particular incidents which influenced perceptions of South Africa post the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

As discussed in Section 6.4.3, incidents which affect the political and socio-economic conditions of a country will occur. Such incidents can trigger a change in tourists' opinions, beliefs about and knowledge of a destination. These incidents could include wars, corruption scandals, human rights violations and outbreaks of deadly diseases.

The purpose of this section is to establish if various incidents which have occurred in South Africa since it hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ have influenced respondents' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination. This section discusses in brief some of the major national and international issues the country faced post the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ such as the Marikana incident, FIFA corruption scandal, Nkandla issue, xenophobia, the Diwani case, the Oscar Pistorius case, and the Ebola outbreak.

In August 2012, an industrial dispute between mine workers and Lonmin mine management in Marikana in the North-West province of South Africa arose (Farlam, 2015). Farlam (2015) further reported that the dispute became very violent and resulted in deadly clashes between mine workers and the South African Police Service (SAPS), which left 44 mine workers dead,

about 72 injured, and more than 250 people arrested for malicious damage to property. The findings from the commission of inquiry into the issue caused an international outcry, particularly with regard to the conduct of SAPS in dealing with the incident; the commission of inquiry argued that SAPS should have dealt with the incident without using excessive force (Nicolson, 2015).

As has been discussed in the literature review chapter, in 2004 South Africa was awarded the rights to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} ahead of Morocco, its close contender. Six years after the event, South Africa was accused of vote buying in order to win the rights to host the event. It is alleged that two influential politicians, Nelson Mandela and Archbishop Desmond Tutu, used their political influence to bring the FIFA World Cup^{TM} to South Africa, They travelled to Trinidad to coerce one of the executive members to vote for South Africa during the bid selection process for the 2010 World Cup^{TM} host (Jennings, 2011:397). Loretta Lynch, the US Attorney General who led the investigations into FIFA's alleged corruption scandal, accused the South African government of paying more than USD10 million to FIFA officials to win the rights ahead of Morocco (Brown & Randall, 2015; Quintal et al., 2015). However, the South African government denied such allegations and protested that the money paid was meant for FIFA's youth development projects in the Caribbean (*Sunday Times*, 2016:1). Sport mega-events enable a country to build a positive brand equity; however if a country is indicted in sport corruption scandals there is a likelihood that its brand image will be tainted (Gorse & Chadwick, 2009:15). This notion is supported by Van Dijk (2016:36), who argues that whether the South African government is found guilty or not guilty, the mere fact that it was embroiled in corruption scandals may already have inflicted some reputational damage.

The Guardian reported that in 2016 there was a public outcry in South Africa when the Public Prosecutor General found that former President Zuma's cabinet used public monies to upgrade his rural home in Nkandla; the incident is largely known as the Nkandla scandal (De Wet, 2016). Generally, most African political leaders are known for their abuse of state resources without accountability (Cibane, 2013). The head of the state usually represents the country's brand image, and with the South African's former president implicated in various corruption scandals, undoubtedly South Africa's brand image has been affected to some extent.

South Africa has witnessed a wave of xenophobic attacks against foreign nationals, particularly migrants from neighbouring countries since 1994, and competition for resources between citizens and foreign nationals is cited as the major contributing factor to such violence (Touwen, 2009). Xenophobic attacks resulted in loss of human life and malicious damage to property of the victims in 2015 in KwaZulu-Natal, and in some parts of the Gauteng province more than 2 000 foreign nationals were displaced from their homes and

more than five people died as the result of the violence (Wicks, 2015). It is alleged that in KwaZulu-Natal, the violence was incited by the Zulu King, Goodwill Zwelithini, who publicly made xenophobic remarks against foreign nationals (Hans, 2015).

In 2010 Shrien Dewani and his wife Anni Dewani, both British residents, visited Cape Town on their honeymoon. While the couple was in Cape Town, Anni Dewani was fatally shot during a carjacking in the Gugulethu township just outside the city bowl (*The Guardian*, 2015). *The Guardian* further reported that after investigations it emerged that Shrien Dewani had arranged the hijacking in which he would survive and his wife be killed. In 2014, Shrien Dewani was extradited to South Africa to answer his case; however the case was dropped by a high court judge and he was allowed to walk free as the state failed to give evidence against him (BBC, 2014).

After enduring a five-year fight for the right to compete on equal terms at the highest levels, in 2012 Oscar Pistorius finally participated in the 400 metres men's heats at the London Paralympics and Olympics (Moreton, 2012). According to Moreton (2012), South Africa's Oscar Pistorius made history at the London 2012 Olympics when he became the first amputee to participate in the Games. Two years later, he was arrested after he fatally shot his girlfriend, Reeva Steenkamp, at his house. He insinuated that he had mistaken her for an intruder. His case attracted much attention and it was the first South African court case to be broadcast live. In 2014, a Johannesburg high court judge, Thokozile Masipa, found him not guilty of murder, but guilty of culpable homicide and he was sentenced to only five years in prison (Hartleb, 2016). The judge's ruling caused an outcry and Gerrie Nel, South Africa's highly rated public prosecutor at the time, accused South Africa's judiciary system of being inconsistent and incompetent. He argued that five years was too short a sentence for a crime which usually carries a minimum sentence of 15 years[1] (Hartleb, 2016). The findings regarding these incidents are presented in Table 6.6 and once again grouped for purposes of discussion.

The findings show that South Africa's involvement in FIFA corruption scandals influenced respondents' perceptions in the most negative way as 56.4% of the respondents indicated that this incident had affected their perceptions negatively (see Table 6.6). The results may suggest that South Africa's implication in FIFA corruption scandals was a major concern to respondents and this could dent the country's image in the long term as has been suggested by the existing literature. As with the above, the outbreak of Ebola in West Africa influenced respondents' perceptions very negatively. The findings presented in Table 6.6 show that most (55.8%) of the respondents indicated that the Ebola virus influenced their perceptions in a negative way, some (26.6%) took a neutral stance regarding the statement and 17.6% of

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[1] On Friday, 24 November 2017, the Supreme Court of Appeal in Bloemfontein increased the sentence of Oscar Pistorius to 13 years in prison.

the respondents indicated their perceptions were affected positively. The results clearly show that most of the respondents were concerned about the outbreak of Ebola in some parts of West Africa; however, the neutral stance could suggest that some of the respondents were not aware of how the outbreak of this deadly disease was related to South Africa.

Table 6.6: Particular incidents which influenced perceptions of South Africa post the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (*n*=146, in %)

Statements	Very negative	Negative	Neutral	Positive	Very positive
FIFA Corruption scandal influenced my perceptions of South Africa	23.8	32.6	29.2	10.9	3.6
Ebola outbreak influenced my perceptions of South Africa	21.2	34.6	26.6	11.9	5.7
Oscar Pistorius case influenced my perceptions of South Africa	18.9	36.2	26.9	13.7	4.4
Dewani case influenced my perceptions of South Africa	18.3	30.2	36.2	11.4	3.9
Xenophobic attacks influenced my perceptions of South Africa	18.1	32.3	33.3	10.9	5.4
Nkandla issue influenced my perceptions of South Africa	14.2	27.4	45.2	8.0	5.2
Marikana incident influenced my perceptions of South Africa	13.0	19.9	51.6	10.9	4.7

Just like South Africa's involvement in FIFA corruption scandals and the outbreak of the Ebola virus, the Oscar Pistorius case was one of the incidents which affected respondents in a very negative way, as the result presented in Table 6.6 reveal that most (55.1%) of the respondents indicated that their perceptions were influenced negatively. This was followed by xenophobic attacks in South Africa; the findings show that half of the respondents (50.3%) indicated that their perceptions were influenced negatively because of xenophobia. These results could have been attributed to the xenophobic attacks that happened between 2010 and 2011 in Mayfair in the Gauteng province (Parker, 2012).

Respondents were asked how the Dewani case had influenced their perceptions of South Africa since it hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The findings depicted in Table 6.6 show that 48.5% of the respondents indicated that the incident affected their perceptions in a negative way; conversely only 15.3% of the respondents indicated that the incident affected their perceptions in a positive way and 36.2% of the respondents were neutral regarding this statement. The results could suggest that almost half of the respondents were concerned about the incident. This could be attributed to the fact that the Dewani case was a UK issue, and most of the respondents originated from the UK. These results correlate with the findings of Swart et al. (2013b:1), that the Dewani murder case influenced the perceptions of the respondents from the UK market negatively. However, the neutral stance could suggest that some respondents, especially those who were not from the UK, were not aware of this incident.

The Nkandla incident did not influence respondents' perceptions as negatively as the other incidents discussed above. The results depicted in Table 6.6 show that 41.6% of the respondents indicated that the Nkandla incident influenced their perceptions in a negative way, while 13.2% of the respondents indicated that their perceptions changed positively. Most (45.2%) of the respondents took a neutral stance regarding the statement. The results (45.2%) could suggest that the Nkandla incident was a national issue, therefore many respondents were not aware of it. However, recent corruption allegations against the former president, particularly his relationship with the Indian-born Gupta family, could have serious implications for the country's brand image (BBC, 2016).

Respondents were asked how the Marikana incident had influenced their perceptions of South Africa since it hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. This incident seems to have had the least negative impact on respondents' perceptions, as the results in Table 6.6 show that 32.9% of the respondents indicated that the Marikana incident influenced their perceptions negatively, 51.6% of the respondents took a neutral stance regarding the statement and 15.6% of the respondents indicated that the incident affected their perceptions in a positive way. As with the Nkandla incident, the Marikana incident is a national issue, hence most of the respondents were not aware of it. Ultimately it can be assumed that this incident did not result in a major change in respondents' perceptions.

Based on the above findings, it can be argued that South Africa's involvement in FIFA corruption scandals influenced respondents' perceptions in the most negative way. Other incidents such as the outbreak of the Ebola virus in Africa, and the Oscar Pistorius and Dewani cases, also influenced respondents' perceptions negatively. Conversely, the Marikana and Nkandla incidents seem to have had the least negative impact on respondents' perceptions, suggesting that these were national issues which most of the respondents might not have been aware of.

6.5 Perceptions of South Africa six years after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

Having discussed the findings on the respondents' perceptions prior to and in the short run after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, it is now necessary to discuss their perceptions of South Africa six years after the event to determine if there are significant changes in these perceptions. As has been discussed in the previous sections of this chapter, perceptions of a destination will change over time and they are mostly influenced by events or incidents that happen at a destination. In Section 6.3, the findings revealed that safety and security and segregation issues were the major concerns to most respondents prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa. However, immediately after the event, some of the respondents indicated that their main perceptions had changed, particularly regarding these issues. Six years after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, South Africa witnessed a series of incidents which

might have had a negative impact on the country's brand image. Therefore, the purpose of this section is to determine if there have been any changes in respondents' perceptions of South Africa six years after the event, particularly with regard to safety and security and segregation issues which were the major concerns prior to the event.

In this section, a 5-point Likert scale was used to determine respondents' perceptions of South Africa six years after the event. The responses were grouped ("No, not at all' with "No, not really" and 'Yes, very much with 'Yes, a little'). Further analysis was conducted using chi-square analysis to test the significant differences between perceptions of South Africa before the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} and perceptions six years after the event. The results are shown in Table 6.7.

Most of the respondents (59.6%) indicated they perceived South Africa to be a world-class tourism destination before it hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. In this regard, respondents were asked to indicate their perceptions six years after the event. The results depicted in Table 6.7 show that 66.9% of the respondents perceived South Africa to be a world-class tourism destination, 26.3% of the respondents were unsure regarding this statement, and only 6.7% of the respondents perceived that South Africa was not a world-class tourism destination. Further analysis using the chi-square test revealed a $p < 0.001$, implying that there is a significant difference between respondents' perceptions of South Africa before it hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} and their perceptions six years after the tournament. It is very clear that the perceptions have changed significantly, and positive perceptions of South Africa as a world-class tourism destination are increasing. These results suggest that the hosting of the 2010 World Cup^{TM} helped in improving perceptions of South Africa as a world-class tourism destination in the long run, thus indicating a legacy.

Prior to the event, most of the respondents (67.8%) believed that South Africa had many friendly and welcoming people. In relation to this, respondents were further asked to give their opinions some six years after the event. According to the findings presented in Table 6.7, most of the respondents (70%) indicated that South Africa had many friendly and welcoming people, some of the respondents (21.6%) took a neutral stance, and only a few (8.3%) indicated that South Africa did not have many friendly and welcoming people. The chi-square test revealed that there was a significant change ($p < 0.001$) in responses between the perceptions before and after the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. The result evidently shows that while some of the respondents were unsure regarding South Africa as destination with friendly and welcoming people before the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, their perceptions changed positively after the event. These results could imply that most of the respondents who were unsure regarding the statement changed their perceptions positively after they either had watched the tournament at home or had visited South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. This correlates with the findings from Section 6.4.3, which suggested that

those people who visited South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ were encouraged to become friends with South Africans.

Despite the common perception that developing countries are behind in terms of technological development as depicted in Section 6.3 of this study, before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, most respondents were of the belief that South Africa was a destination with advanced technology. In this regard respondents were asked if these perceptions had changed in the six years since South Africa had hosted the event. Of the respondents, 65.1% agreed with the statement, 26.0% were unsure and only 8.9% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. Further investigation using chi-square analysis shows a significant difference ($p < 0.002$), signifying that the perceptions regarding South Africa as a destination with advanced technology have changed in the long run. Prior to the event, 11.3% of the respondents did not perceive South Africa as having advanced technology; however six years after the event the percentage decreased to 8.9%.

Most of the respondents (60.4%) indicated that they had been concerned about segregation in South Africa before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. In relation to this, respondents were asked to indicate their opinions six years after South Africa had hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Surprisingly, most of the respondents (64.8%) indicated that South Africa was not a segregated society; conversely only a few (7.3%) indicated that South Africa was a segregated society. Of the respondents, 27.9% were unsure regarding this statement (see Table 6.7). The chi-square test was conducted on perceptions prior to and after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and the probability level obtained in this regard was $p < 0.001$, indicating that there was a significant change between the perceptions before and six years after the event. This change could be attributed to the image created by fans from all races celebrating together during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and this seems to have left a long-term mark. Therefore, it can be argued the nation-building impacts were sustained in the long term, therefore constituting a legacy.

Prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, most (66.2%) of the respondents indicated that South Africa had many different cultures. In relation to this, respondents were asked to indicate their opinions after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The findings presented in Table 6.7 show that an overwhelming majority of the respondents (70.6%) believed that South Africa had many different cultures, some (20.8%) were unsure regarding this statement and 8.6% of the respondents were of the perception that South Africa did not have many different cultures. Further investigation was conducted using chi-square tests and a significance difference ($p < 0.001$) was revealed. The results clearly show that six years after the event, positive perceptions of South Africa as a destination with many cultures have grown greatly.

Table 6.7: Perceptions of South Africa prior to and six years after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (*n*=391, in %)

Statements	Perceptions before the 2010 World Cup™					Perceptions six years after the event					*p* value
	No, not at all	No, not really	Unsure	Yes, a little	Yes, very much	No, not at all	No, not really	Unsure	Yes, a little	Yes, very much	
A world-class tourism destination	1.8	8.2	30.4	40.2	19.4	2.3	4.4	26.3	47.4	19.5	**< 0.001**
Many friendly, welcoming people	1.5	6.6	24.0	51.4	16.4	1.3	7.0	21.6	50.5	19.5	**< 0.001**
A destination with advanced technology	1.8	9.5	26.3	42.7	19.7	1.6	7.3	26.0	47.7	17.4	**< 0.002**
A segregated (divided) social society	1.5	7.9	30.2	44.0	16.4	18.2	46.6	27.9	6.3	1.0	**< 0.001**
Many diverse (different) cultures	1.0	7.2	25.6	44.5	21.7	1.8	6.8	20.8	50.3	20.3	**< 0.001**
Beautiful scenery and natural attractions	1.3	5.3	22.8	45.0	25.6	1.0	4.7	21.9	44.8	27.6	*NS*
A good climate for tourism and sports	1.5	7.9	21.7	46.8	22.0	1.6	3.4	25.0	48.4	21.6	**< 0.001**
A stable democratic environment	2.6	9.7	29.7	40.2	17.9	2.1	6.8	28.6	44.6	18.0	**< 0.001**
Well-respected political leaders	2.8	9.2	27.4	43.5	17.1	2.9	9.4	27.3	40.4	20.1	**< 0.001**
A safe place to visit	19.7	44.5	24.0	9.5	2.3	1.8	7.8	24.7	48.4	17.2	**< 0.001**
Many business or investment opportunities	1.3	7.9	27.6	45.8	17.4	2.1	7.3	26.0	45.1	19.5	**< 0.001**
World-class sports facilities	1.5	10.0	28.4	44.5	15.6	1.0	7.3	22.4	48.4	20.8	**< 0.001**
An excellent destination to host future sport mega-events	2.0	7.2	24.8	45.8	20.2	1.3	6.3	21.1	46.9	24.5	**< 0.001**

Before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the majority of the respondents (70.6%) indicated that South Africa had beautiful scenery and natural attractions. Respondents were further asked to indicate their opinions regarding this some six years after the event. Again, the majority of the respondents (72.4%) agreed with the statement, 21.9% of the respondents were unsure regarding this statement, and only a few (5.7%) disagreed with the statement. A chi-square test showed that there is no significance (*NS*) between the respondents' perceptions before and after the event (see Table 6.7). This suggests that beautiful scenery and natural attractions are characteristics that international tourists already associated with South Africa, therefore the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ did not change that perception in the long run.

Next respondents were asked if they believed that South Africa had a good climate for tourism and sports. Prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, most of the respondents (68.8%) indicated that they perceived South Africa as a destination with a favourable climate conducive to tourism and sport. After the event, 70% of the respondents agreed with the statement, 25% of the respondents were unsure regarding this statement, and only 5% of the respondents disagreed with the statement (see Table 6.7). The chi-square test was conducted and a significant difference ($p < 0.001$) was revealed between perceptions before and after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The results clearly show that respondents' perceptions changed significantly: prior to 2010 FIFA World Cup™, 9.4% disagreed with the statement compared with only 5% after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. After the event, more respondents (25%) indicated that they were unsure about South Africa's climate compared with 21.7% who had the same opinions prior to the event.

African countries are generally perceived to have unstable political and democratic environments; however despite this common perception before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, most of the respondents (58.1%) perceived South Africa to have a stable democratic environment. In this regard, respondents were further asked to indicate their opinions after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The findings presented in Table 6.7 show that 62.6% of the respondents agreed with the statement, 28.6% were unsure regarding this statement, and 8.9% disagreed with the statement. Further investigation using the chi-square test revealed a significant difference ($p < 0.001$). The results clearly show that perceptions changed positively in the long run, and this could imply that six years after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ there were no significant political incidents which could have impacted negatively on the country's democratic environment from an international perspective.

Next respondents were asked if they believed that South Africa had well-respected political leaders. Before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, 60.6% of the respondents indicated that South Africa had well-respected political leaders. After the tournament, respondents' positive perceptions deteriorated slightly to 60.5% (see Table 6.7). The chi-square test was conducted and the probability level obtained in this regard was $p < 0.001$, showing that there

is a significant difference between perceptions before and after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The results show that even though the perceptions in the long term are still positive, a few respondents' positive perceptions seem to have slightly deteriorated six years after the event. This may be attributed to a number of incidents that continue to rock the ANC-led government. For example, former President Jacob Zuma is accused of using public money to upgrade his private home and there has been a lot of sceptism regarding his links with the Indian-born Gupta family who are accused of influencing some of his political decisions to advance their business interests (BBC, 2016).

Safety and security issues were a major concern before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™; most of the respondents (64.2%) indicated that they were of the belief that South Africa was not a safe destination to visit. In this regard, respondents were asked to indicate their opinions six years after South Africa had hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Interestingly, the findings show a complete reversal as most of the respondents (65.6%) perceived South Africa as a safe destination to visit; however some (24.7%) were unsure regarding the statement and only a few (9.6%) indicated that South Africa was an unsafe destination to visit. Further chi-square analysis revealed a strong significant difference ($p < 0.001$), illustrating that there is a significant change between perceptions before and after the event. These results could suggest that during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and immediately after the tournament, there were no major crime incidents reported as was anticipated prior to the tournament. This was the major issue prior to the event, and therefore it can be argued that the lack of crime experienced during the event had a major impact on changing respondents' perceptions immediately after and in the long term; therefore indicating a legacy. However, contrary to the findings of this study, 2017 has seen a sharp rise in crime targeting international tourists in South Africa. For example, a tour group of elderly Dutch tourists was followed from Johannesburg OR Tambo International Airport by criminals who robbed them at gunpoint (Gous, 2017). The BBC (2017a) reported that some of the tourists were physically assaulted by the robbers and sustained injuries. In addition, several similar incidents were reported, where criminals targeted locals and tourists leaving Johannesburg OR Tambo International Airport (Sitata, 2017). These crime incidents could impact negatively on South Africa's image regarding safety and security issues.

Next respondents were asked if they believed that South Africa had many business or investment opportunities. Prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, most of the respondents (63.2%) perceived South Africa to have many business and investment opportunities. After the event, 64.6% of the respondents agreed with the statement, 26% of the respondents were unsure regarding the statement, and 9.4% disagreed with the statement. A chi-square test showed a significant difference ($p < 0.001$) in responses between the perceptions before and after the FIFA World Cup™ six years on. The results show that positive perceptions

regarding South Africa as a destination with many business opportunities have grown significantly six years after the event. Surprisingly, one year after data had been collected, international credit rating agencies, Fitch and S & P Global Ratings downgraded South Africa's credit rating to a 'junk' status, a sub-investment grade (BBC, 2017b). This came shortly after Mr Pravin Gordhan was dismissed from his government position as finance minister (BBC, 2017c). According to Fitch, the dismissal of the internationally respected finance minister was a sign of a shift in the country's economic policy (Reuters, 2017). Fresh corruption allegations against Mr Zuma focus on his relationship with the Guptas. It is alleged that the Gupta family is influencing the running of government and appointments at ministerial level and in state-owned companies for the benefit of their business interests (Govender, 2017). All these incidents have a negative impact on sustaining the legacies brought by the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, particularily the positive perceptions regarding South Africa as a business and investment destination.

Prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, most of the respondents (60.1%) indicated that they were of the opinion that South Africa had world-class sport facilities. In relation to this, respondents were asked to indicate their perceptions after South Africa had hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. The results shown in Table 6.7 indicate that 69.2% of the respondents perceived South Africa to have world-class facilities, some (22.4%) were unsure regarding the statement, and only a few (8.3%) disagreed with the statement. Further analysis using the chi-square test revealed a significant difference ($p < 0.001$), showing that there is a significant difference between perceptions before and after the event. The results clearly show that respondents' perceptions changed positively six years after the event. This could be attributed largely to the fact that South Africa showcased its world-class sport facilities during the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. Also, this could be attributed to the fact that in 2015 Durban won the rights to host the 2022 Commonwealth Games; one of the prerequisites for hosting an event of such magnitude is having world-class sport facilities (SAT, 2015b; Savides & Cowan, 2017). However, in 2017 Durban lost the rights to host the event after it failed to meet deadlines to name an LOC (Muller, 2017).

Prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, most of the respondents (66%) indicated that South Africa was an excellent destination to host future sport mega-events. In this regard, respondents were asked to indicate their opinions six years after South Africa had hosted the event. The findings presented in Table 6.27 show that the majority of the respondents (71.4%) believed that South Africa was an excellent destination to host future sport mega-events, some (21.1%) were unsure about this statement and a few (7.6%) did not agree with the statement. Further analysis using a chi-square test showed a significant difference ($p < 0.001$), signalling that there is a significant difference between respondents' perceptions

before and after the event. These results could be attributed largely to South Africa's successful hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}.

6.6 Visits to South Africa or Africa prior to and during the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}

This section of the chapter provides a discussion of the findings regarding whether international football tourists had travelled to South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} or had watched the tournament on TV at home. Literature suggests that perceptions of a destination are mostly influenced by different forms of media such as newspapers, magazines, radio and TV, as well as previous travel experience to a destination and international media reporting of a destination. The 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} attracted international media coverage and the tournament was shown in every single country around the world (FIFA.com, 2011). According to FIFA.com (2011), the in-home TV coverage of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} reached over 3.2 billion people around the world, which was 46.4 percent of the global population then. Therefore, it was assumed that respondents who visited South Africa or any other African country before or during the event and those who watched the event on TV at home might have certain perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination. Therefore, in this section, respondents were specifically asked (i) if they had visited South Africa or any African country prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, (ii) whether they had travelled to South Africa to watch the tournament or watched it on TV at home, and (iii) If their travel to South Africa or Africa had been motivated by the fact that the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} was hosted there. The findings in relation to the above-mentioned are presented below.

6.6.1 Visits to South Africa or Africa prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}

Prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, South Africa was generally the most visited country on the African continent, as statistics show that in 2008 it received a record of 974 975 visitors (Statistics South Africa, 2009). It can be argued that most of the visitors were possibly attracted by the country's booming tourism and a fairly stable economy.

In order to determine international tourists' experiences and perceptions of South Africa and Africa in general, respondents were asked if they had visited South Africa or any other African country prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. The findings presented in Figure 6.1 show that the bulk (67.8%) of the respondents neither had visited South Africa nor any other African country prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. Only 18.7% of the respondents had visited South Africa prior to the event, while 13.5% of the respondents had visited African countries other than South Africa. These results could be attributed to the fact that South Africa and the African continent in general have been widely perceived to be unsafe to visit owing to negative media reporting in the build up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. Therefore, the above findings (18.7%) could suggest that tourists who visited South Africa prior to the

event were mainly from South Africa's key markets, who were regular visitors to the destination despite negative international media reporting, mainly on safety and security.
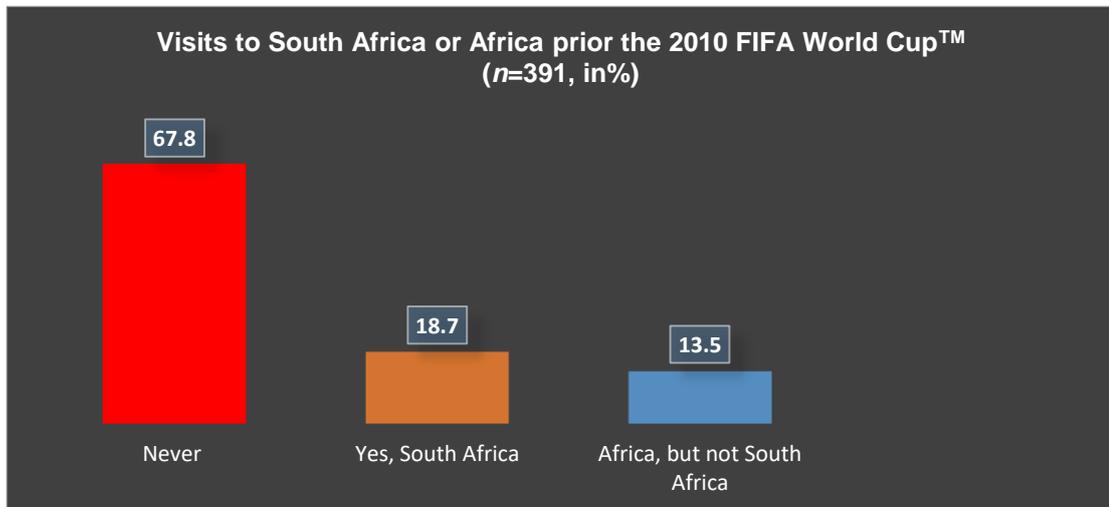

Figure 6.1: Visits to South Africa or Africa prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

6.6.2 Visits to South Africa or Africa prior to the tournament were motivated by South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

Section 3.5 of the literature review suggested that sport tourists travel to sport destinations for various reasons; however their primary objective of travelling is either to participate in a sport activity or spectate at a sport event. According to Kim and Chalip (2004:695), sport-related travel is affected by both push and pull factors, push factors being those factors that are more intrinsic and are related to one's needs, motives and interests, and conversely, pull factors being extrinsic and linked to aspects of destination like attractions, facilities and value for money.

In this regard, those respondents who indicated that they had visited South Africa or any other African country before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, were further asked to respond to the question "Would you have travelled to South Africa or Africa at that time if the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was not being hosted there?" The findings presented by Figure 6.2 depict very interesting results: almost half of the respondents (48.1%) indicated their visits to South Africa or Africa were motivated by the fact that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was being hosted in South Africa, while some (21.7%) indicated that their visits were not motivated by South Africa's hosting of the tournament. Surprisingly, 30.2% of the respondents who had travelled to South Africa or Africa were unsure about that question. These results could suggest that hosting a sport mega-event is a powerful tool that draws visitors to a destination.
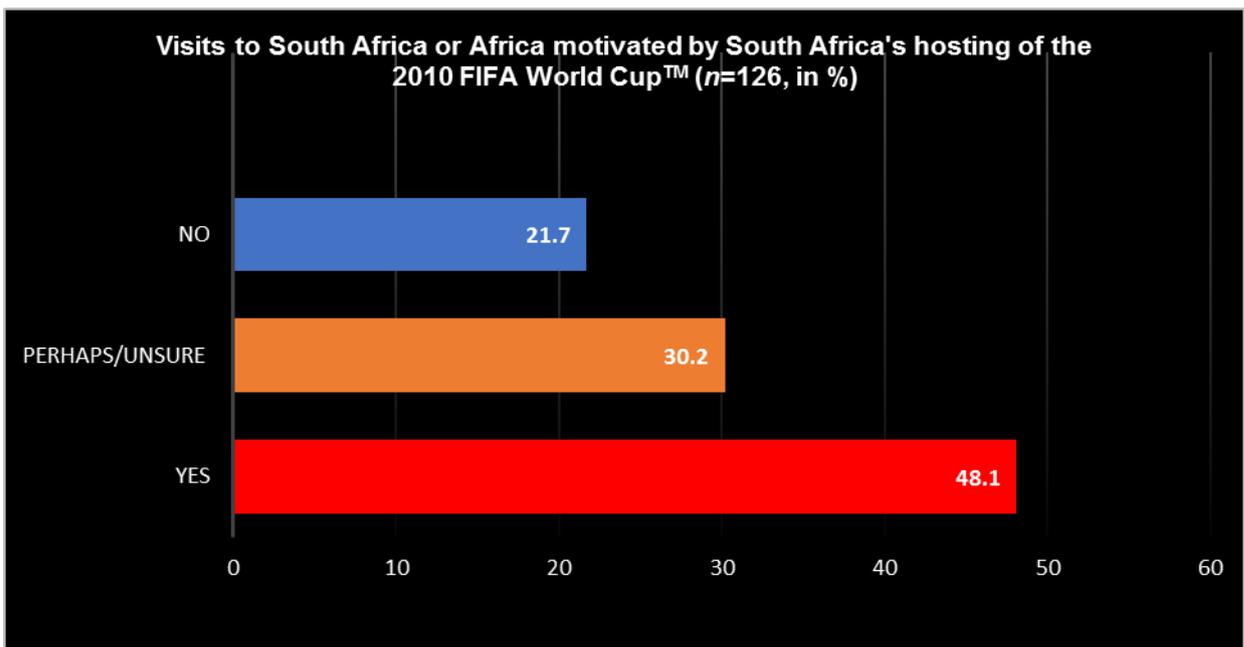
Figure 6.2: Visits to South Africa or Africa prior to the tournament motivated by South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

6.6.3 Visited South Africa to spectate at the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ or watched the tournament at home on TV

As mentioned earlier, this study targeted respondents who either had travelled to South Africa to spectate at the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ or had watched the tournament on TV at home. In this regard, respondents were asked to respond to the question "Did you visit South Africa to spectate at the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ or did you watch the tournament on TV at home?" The findings depict that only a minority (10%) of the respondents had travelled to South Africa to spectate at the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, while an overwhelming majority (90%) watched the tournament on TV at their homes. These results could be attributed to the fact that the study was conducted six years after the event and the chances of interviewing respondents who actually had visited South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ were very slim. Clearly, this was a major limitation of the study; however, the impact was reduced by broadening the study to include football fans who had watched the tournament on TV at their homes. Considering international media reporting on South Africa during the tournament, it is assumed that even though these fans did not visit South Africa, watching the tournament being hosted there resulted in certain perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination.

6.7 South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

In order to determine if South Africa was successful in hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, respondents were asked to rate South Africa's hosting of this tournament. The findings

presented in Figure 6.3 show that many respondents (62.9%) rated South Africa's hosting of the tournament as good, with some of the respondents (32.7%) rating it as outstanding. Only very few (3.3%) respondents rated it as mediocre and a minority (1%) rated it as bad. The findings of this study concur with those of Swart and Bob's study conducted two years after the event which found that South Africa successfully hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (Swart & Bob, 2012:1). Similarly, the results correspond with Knott's (2014) study which revealed that respondents strongly agreed that the event was successful (Knott, 2014:131). These results suggest that the perception that South Africa successfully hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was sustained in the long term, and therefore is indicative of a legacy.
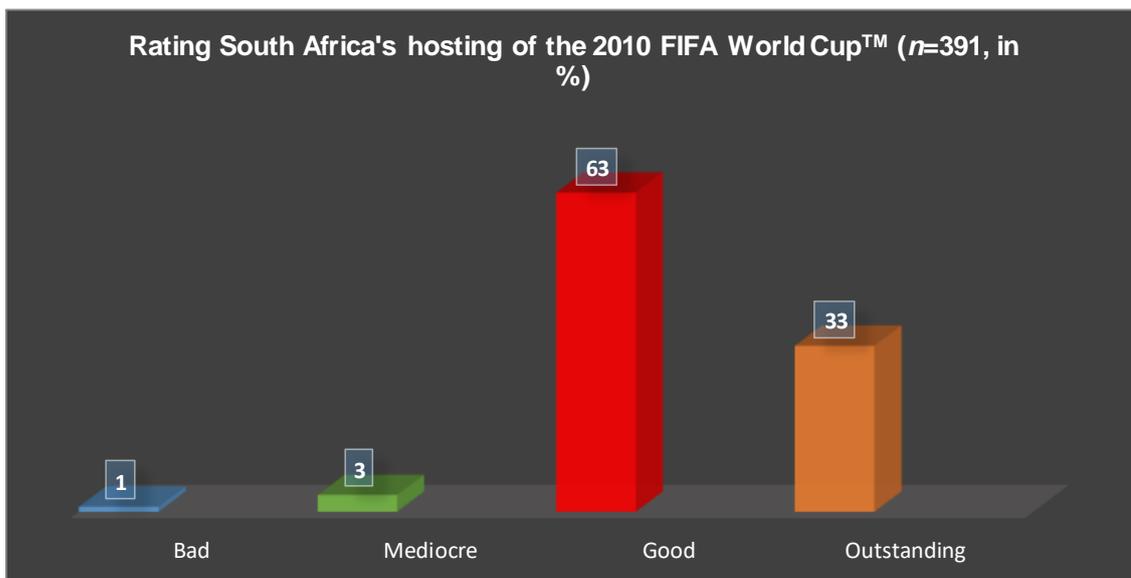
Figure 6.3: Rating of South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

6.8 The 2010 FIFA World Cup ™ and repeat visits to South Africa/Africa

Many tourism destinations around the world are dependent on repeat visitors to sustain their tourism revenues (Som et al., 2012:39). According to Alegre and Cladera (2006:289), repeat visitors refer to those tourists who revisit a destination, and these tourists are more knowledgeable about the tourist activities and services that a destination offers. Lau and McKercher (2004:280) argue that if repeat visitors are satisfied with a service at a destination, they will play a crucial role in passing on a positive word-of-mouth recommendation to their friends and relatives. Repeat visitations after a sport event is a very strong indication that visitors have been highly satisfied with the products and services that a destination offers (Alegre & Cladera, 2006:288). Most tourists believe that it is more prudent to revisit a destination one once visited, rather than to visit a new destination, hence their past travel experience will reduce the risk of an unsatisfactory experience (Osti et al., 2012:34).

One of the objectives of this study is to determine the extent to which the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} led to repeat visitations to South Africa after the event. Therefore, the purpose of this section is to establish if respondents either have visited or are planning to visit South Africa/Africa since it hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}.

6.8.1 Repeat visits to South Africa/ Africa after visiting during the 2010 World Cup^{TM}

The results presented in Figure 6.4 show that 40.3% of the respondents did not visit South Africa again, 30.2% of the respondents indicated that they planned to visit South Africa, and 11.6% of the respondents indicated that they planned to visit other African countries. The findings show that 9.3% of the respondents had revisited South Africa since it hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, while 8.5% of the respondents had revisited other African countries. The results clearly show that not many respondents made repeat visits to South Africa six years after the event; however it is interesting to note that a considerable number of respondents plan to visit South Africa in the near future. The findings of the current study are similar to those of Knott (2014:131) who found that international tourists showed a strong intention to travel to South Africa again; this is a positive sign that repeat visits to South Africa will grow in the long run.

It can be argued that 9.3%, which reflects repeat visits to South Africa post the event, is relatively good considering all the other travel choices that tourists have. Again, it can be argued that the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} not only led to repeat visits to South Africa, but to other African countries as well, reflecting the impact of the event on Africa, hence indicating an African legacy. This corresponds with the literature which suggests that South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} was meant to change its image and that of the African continent at large.
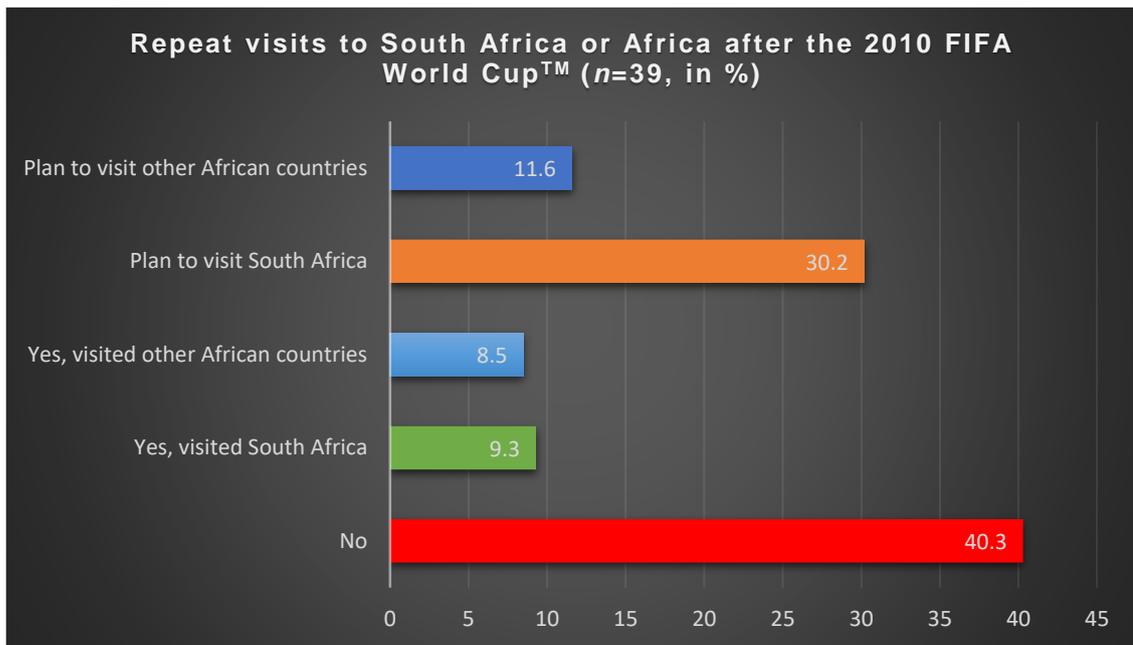
Figure 6.4: Repeat visits to South Africa or Africa after attending the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

6.8.2 Visits to South Africa/ Africa after watching the 2010 World Cup™ on TV

Regarding repeat visits to South Africa or to other African countries after watching the event on TV, the results illustrated in Figure 6.5 show that 22.7% of the respondents indicated that they were not encouraged to visit either South Africa or any other African country after watching the tournament on TV. Only 10.4% of the respondents indicated that they were encouraged to visit South Africa after watching the tournament, while 10.1% of the respondents were encouraged to visit other African countries. Most (30.7%) of the respondents indicated that watching the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ on TV encouraged them to visit South Africa in the future, while some (26%) respondents indicated that watching the tournament on TV encouraged them to visit other African countries. The results clearly show that while only a few respondents had visited South Africa or any other African country six years after the event, it can be argued that the event created a willingness to travel to South Africa and Africa. Again, as with the above findings, it can be argued that the percentage of 10.4% of the respondents who visited South Africa after watching the tournament is relatively good, given respondents' many other travel destination options. These results could be attributed to the fact that South Africa received positive international media coverage during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ which helped to showcase South Africa as a world-class sport tourism destination.
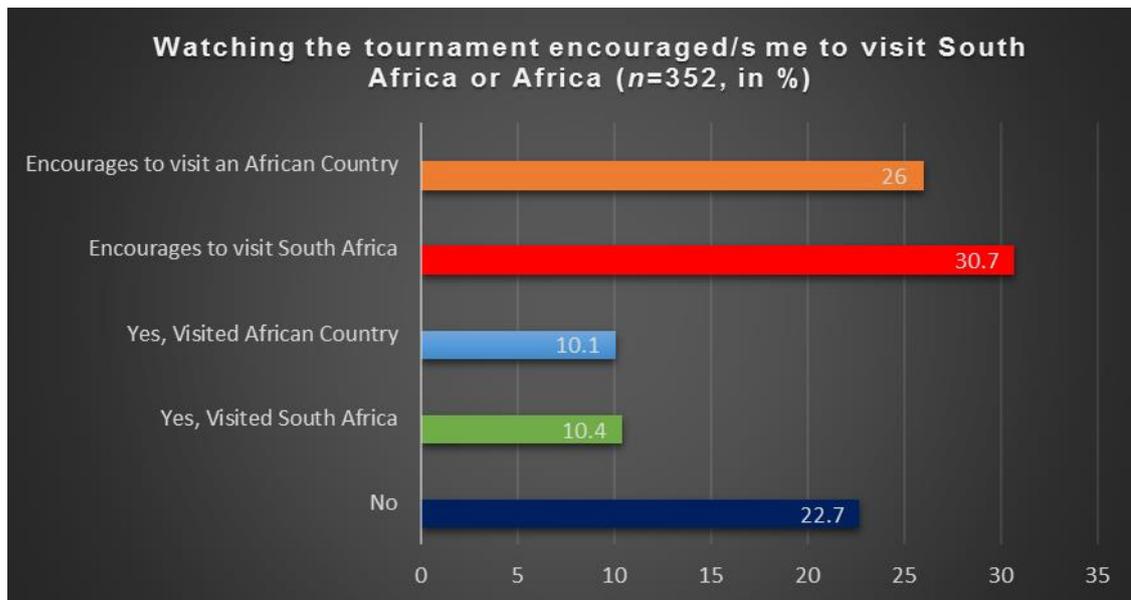
Figure 6.5: Watching the tournament encouraged/s me to visit South Africa or Africa

6.8.3 Respondents' actions after visiting South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

The purpose of this subsection is to determine the actions that the respondents took after visiting South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Respondents were asked if their visits to South Africa had encouraged them to do the following: encourage others to visit South Africa, become friends with South African people, pay more attention to news or media reports relating to South Africa, do business with or invest in South Africa, and immigrate to South Africa. A 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the responses, with the responses grouped ('No, not at all' with 'No, not really' and 'Yes, very much with 'Yes, a little') for the purpose of discussion. The findings are presented in Table 6.8.

Considering the fact that most respondents in Section 6.5 perceived South Africa as a destination with friendly and welcoming people, it is not surprising that the majority of the respondents (74%) indicated that visiting South Africa encouraged them to become friends with South Africans. As with the above, most of the respondents (73.5%) indicated that their visits to South Africa encouraged them to pay more attention to news or media reports relating to South Africa. The findings in Table 6.8 show that 66.7% of the respondents encouraged others to visit South Africa. These results could suggest that respondents had a positive experience at the destination during their visit to South Africa. Lau and McKercher (2004:280) suggest that a good experience at a destination can result in tourists passing positive word-of-mouth recommendations and encouraging friends and relatives to visit that particular destination. Therefore, it can be assumed that it is this good experience of the destination that prompted respondents to encourage other people to visit South Africa. Paying more attention to news and media reports relating to South Africa is a good sign that respondents intend either to encourage friends and relatives to visit South Africa or plan to

visit South Africa again in the near future as has been indicated in Section 6.8.2. It can be argued that they will use media and news reports relating to South Africa to validate their decisions whether to encourage others to visit the destination or make repeat visits in future.

Table 6.8: Visits to South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ encouraged various actions (*n*=39, in %)

Statements	No, not at all	No, not really	Unsure	Yes, a little	Yes, very much
Pay more attention to news or media relating to South Africa	3.1	6.3	17.2	46.9	26.6
Encourage others to visit South Africa	8.1	2.2	23.0	41.5	25.2
Become friends with South African people	3.1	6.2	15.9	51.5	22.5
Do business or invest in South Africa	22.8	47.2	18.1	7.1	4.7
Immigrate to South Africa	24.6	46	22.3	4.7	2.4

On the other hand, the findings in Table 6.8 show that only a minority of the respondents (7.1%) indicated that their visit to South Africa encouraged them to immigrate to South Africa. Similarily, a few respondents (11.8%) indicated that their visit to South Africa encouraged them to do business or invest in South Africa. The results could suggest that most of the respondents who visited South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ were typically sport tourists whose primary reason for visiting a destination was to spectate at the event.

6.9 The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and changes in international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa

According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006:108), countries across the globe compete for the rights to host sport mega-events in order to capitalise on the benefits perceived to be associated with hosting events of such magnitude. One such benefit is to improve the image of the host nation. This notion is supported by Ritchie et al. (2009:145) who argue that sport mega-events have the capacity to raise a country's profile and are usually linked to countries that wish to re-invent and reposition themselves. South Africa was no exception when it bid for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™; its major objective was to enhance the country's image and change the negative perceptions associated with the country and the continent at large.

The purpose of this section is to determine if the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ changed international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination, which is the core objective of this current study. As articulated previously, the South African government did not only intend to change its own image, but the image of the African continent as a whole. Therefore, the secondary purpose of this section is to determine if South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ changed international football tourists' perceptions of the African continent. The findings are presented in Figure 6.6.
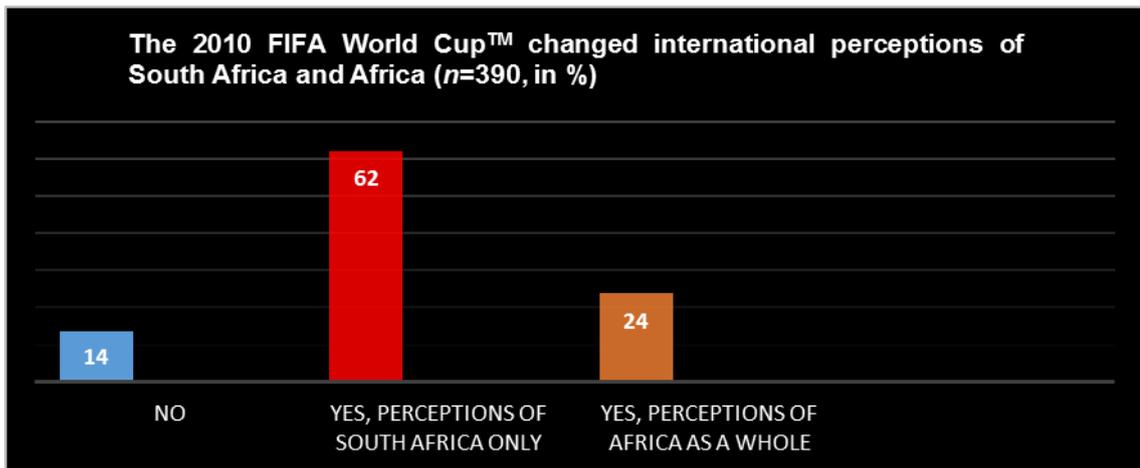
Figure 6.6: The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ changed international perceptions of South Africa and Africa

In this regard, respondents were asked to respond to the question, "Do you think the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ has changed international perceptions of South Africa and Africa?" The findings presented in Figure 6.6 show that most of the respondents (62.1%) indicated that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ had changed international perceptions of South Africa, while some (23.8%) indicated that the event had changed international perceptions of Africa as a continent. A few (13.8%) indicated that the event neither had changed international perceptions of South Africa nor of the African continent, while a minority (0.3%) did not respond to this question. These results could imply that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ changed the overall perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination six years after the event. As has been discussed in Section 6.3, it can be argued that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ helped to enforce positive perceptions of South Africa as well as to reduce the impact of the negative perceptions in the long run. As the findings show six years after the event, negative perceptions regarding safety and security and segregation changed to positive perceptions and most positive attributes of the destination grew significantly. These results could suggest that South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ enabled the country to meet its political objective of national reconciliation, nation building and image enhancement. Also, the results of the current study correlate with that of Achu and Swart (2012:34) who suggest that the purpose of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa was to change international perceptions of South Africa in particular and the African continent at large.

6.10 South Africa's hosting of future sport mega-events

According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006:108), more than two decades into the new democratic dispensation in South Africa, sport mega-events have seemingly come to play an important socio-political role. Black (2007:267) supports Cornelissen and Swart's contention:

South Africa's mega-event 'habit' is now deeply entrenched, to the extent that one might speculate on a kind of addiction rooted in the need to sustain the feel-good 'high' of such events to mask the continuing realities of socio-cultural and class cleavages in the post-apartheid era.

This correlates with the literature which suggests that South Africa's hosting of sport mega-events is meant to fulfil the country's political objectives of national reconciliation, nation building and image enhancement.

In relation to this aspect, respondents were asked if they thought that South Africa was capable of hosting future Olympic Games. The findings in Figure 6.7 show that an overwhelming majority of the respondents (90.3%) agreed with this statement, while only a minority (9.7%) disagreed with this statement. These results could be attributed to South Africa's success in hosting past sport mega-events such as the 1995 World Rugby Cup, the 2003 Cricket World Cup and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. As has been suggested by the findings of this study, it could be argued that South Africa has world-class sport facilities and that the government has considerable experience in planning and organising sport mega-events.
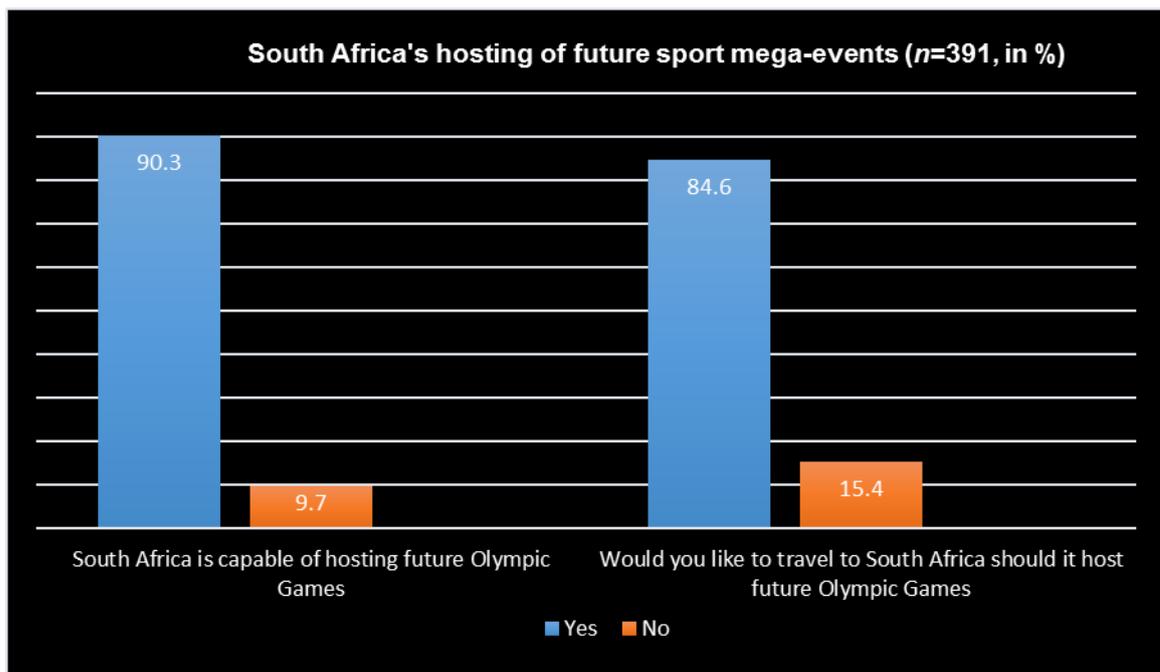
Figure 6.7: South Africa's hosting of future sport mega-events

As a follow-up question, respondents were asked if they would like to travel to South Africa should it host future Olympic Games. The findings depicted in Figure 6.7 reveal that a majority (84.6%) of the respondents agreed with the statement, while a minority (15.4%) did not agree with the statement. This correlates with the findings of this study, which suggest that most of the respondents are willing to travel to South Africa in the near future. These results are strongly linked to a positive change in respondents' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination six years after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. It can be argued that

it is this change in perceptions that would entice more sport tourists to visit South Africa if it were to host a sport mega-event in the near future. However, the hope of hosting future sport mega-events remains a big challange as South Africa has been losing bids since 2004.

In 2004 Cape Town lost out in the bid for the 2004 Olympics, and in the following year the South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee (SASCOC) contemplated a country-wide Olympic bid (Avison, 2015). However, South Africa ultimately decided not to bid for the Olympic Games citing high costs (Avison, 2015). Again, in 2017, South Africa lost the bid to host the 2022 Commonwealth Games (SRSA, 2017). The Commonwealth Games Federation (CGF) indicated that South Africa had failed to meet the criteria and deadlines set by the organisation (Muller, 2017). Muller (2017) further states that South Africa missed several deadlines to name an LOC and there were disagreements regarding the budget. The then South Africa's sports minister, Fikile Mbalula, cited financial constraints as the main reason for losing the bid (Savides & Cowan, 2017). In addition, on the 15th of November 2017, South Africa's quest to host sport mega-events was again dealt a blow when it lost the bid to host the 2023 Rugby World Cup to France despite being tipped as favourite by an independent evaluation report that had been released by World Rugby (*The Guardian*, 2017). These subsequent loses in bids to host sport mega-events are likely to have an adverse impact on the image of South Africa as a nation that is capable of hosting future global sport events.

Further analysis using chi-square tests reveal that there is no significant difference between respondents' perceptions who visited South Africa to attend the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] and those who watched the tournament on TV at home. These results could suggest that international media reporting about South Africa in the build up to and during the event was not biased. This suggests that TV is a powerful broadcasting medium that influences perceptions of a destination.

Even though South Africa did not have a coordinated leverage plan during and post the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] (Knott et al., 2015:53), the key findings of this study indicate that for emerging countries such as South Africa, hosting a successful sport mega-event on its own seemed to have resulted in positive long-term perceptions of South Africa. The findings show that safety and security and segregation issues were the major concerns prior to the event, however immediately and six years after the event these perceptions changed positively and sustained in the long run. Based on these results, it can be argued that the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] changed perceptions of South Africa as sport and tourism destination in the long run, hence denoting a legacy. While having a more deliberate plan pre-, during and post a sport mega-event as recommended by Knott et al. (2015:53) could be more beneficial to leveraging nation-branding opportunities, these findings present a caveat to Grix's (2012) model.

6.11 Summary

This chapter presented an analysis of the changes in international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ being hosted there. The key findings with regard to the brand image legacies of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa revealed that prior to the event, respondents' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination were generally positive. The top attribute prior to 2010 was "much diverse beautiful scenery and many natural attractions". Despite these positive perceptions on most of the destination's attributes, respondents indicated that they were very concerned about safety and security and segregation issues in South Africa prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The findings reveal that these two attributes received the most negative responses prior to the event.

Even though most of the respondents (62.5%) indicated that their perceptions did not change immediately after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, it can be argued that the event had a significant impact on enforcing the positive perceptions of the destination as well as reducing the impact of the negative aspects of the destination. Immediately after the event, the three most promoted perceptions were "much diverse beautiful scenery and many natural attractions", "good climate for tourism and sport", and "competent sport event host". It is interesting to note that perceptions on safety and security and segregation which were major concerns prior to the event, changed from negative (64.2%) to positive (60%) and from negative (60.4%) to positive (54.8%) respectively immediately after the event, reflecting the power of sport mega-events in changing images of host nations. The findings show that this positive change in respondents' perceptions of South Africa was mostly attributed to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and its hosting of other sport mega-events, as well as news and media focusing on South Africa. However, respondents indicated that South Africa's involvement in FIFA corruption scandals had influenced their perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination negatively to a larger extent. Conversely, national incidents such as the Marikana and Nkandla incidents had the least negative influences on respondents' perceptions of South Africa since the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

The findings reveal that six years after the event, respondents' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination had grown positively, hence denoting a legacy. This positive growth in respondents' perceptions is revealed by chi-square tests which showed a significant difference ($p < 0.001$) on almost all destination attributes between respondents' perceptions prior to the event and six years after the event, except on "diverse beautiful scenery and natural attractions". Again, most respondents (62.1%) indicated that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ changed their perceptions of South Africa while, 23.8% indicated that the event changed their perceptions of the African continent six years after South Africa had hosted the tournament, signifying the impact of the event on the African continent as has

been suggested by the literature. Based on the findings, it can be argued that respondents hold positive perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination.

According to the findings of this study, most of the respondents (67.8%) had not visited South Africa or Africa prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™; only 18.7% had visited South Africa and 13.6% had visited other African countries. For those who had visited South Africa prior to the event, most (48.1%) indicated that their visits were motivated by South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Similarly, only a minority (10%) indicted that they had visited South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and the majority (90%) indicated that they had watched the tournament at home on TV. An overwhelming majority (95.6%) of respondents who attended the tournament or watched the event on TV indicated that South Africa successfully hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. After the event, most (40.3%) of the respondents who had travelled to South Africa to attend the event indicated that they had not visited South Africa again, while 9.3% of the respondents indicated that they had visited South Africa and 8.5% had visited other African countries. Compared with those who attended the event, only 22.7% of the respondents who had watched the tournament on TV indicated that they were not encouraged to travel to South Africa after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Similar to those who had attended the event, only 10.4% were encouraged to visit South Africa and 10.1% were encouraged to visit other African countries. Despite most of the respondents indicating they had not visited South Africa after the event, it is interesting to note that an overwhelming majority of the respondents (84.6%) were willing to travel to South Africa should it host another sport mega-event such as the Olympic Games in the near future.

Chi-square tests on the findings reveal that there are no significant differences between respondents' perceptions who visited South Africa to spectate at the tournament and respondents' perceptions who watched the tournament at home on TV.

CHAPTER 7
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

7.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 provided a presentation and discussion of the research findings regarding the data collected and analysed for the study. Therefore, the last chapter seeks to present a summary of the study. Also, the current chapter provides conclusions in relation to the data collected for the purpose of the study. In addition, recommendations and future research direction are provided in order to assist sport mega-event stakeholders such as sport event planners, sport managers and Government with how to leverage future sport mega-events in South Africa to enhance the nation's brand image.

The main aim of this study was to assess the brand image legacies that resulted from hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} in South Africa in relation to determining the changes in international visitors' perceptions of South Africa as a result of its hosting this event.

7.2 Conclusions

The results presented in Chapter 6 of this study were analysed based on the four objectives discussed in Chapter 1, which are outlined below:

- To determine international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as an international sport tourism destination six years after the 2010 World Cup^{TM}.
- To ascertain how international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination have changed as result of hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}.
- To determine to what extent the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} led to repeat visitation to South Africa.
- To assess the destination brand image legacies that resulted from hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} in South Africa.

The conclusions of the current study are provided in the following sub-sections, based on the four objectives outlined above.

7.2.1 Conclusions regarding Objective 1

The study met the first objective, which aimed at determining international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as an international sport tourism destination six years after the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}. The findings reveal that prior to the tournament, respondents' perceptions of South Africa were generally positive except for safety and security and segregation issues. The findings also show that most of the respondents' perceptions did not change immediately after the event. However, for those who indicated that their perceptions

had changed, the findings show that respondents' perceptions changed positively immediately after the event, compared with those respondents' perceptions that were negative prior to the event changing to positive. The findings further reveal that six years after the event respondents' perceptions continued to grow even more positively. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that respondents held positive perceptions of South Africa as an international sport tourism destination six years after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ as a result of its hosting this mega-event.

7.2.2 Conclusions regarding Objective 2

The study met the second objective which aimed at ascertaining how international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa changed as result of its hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. As discussed in Section 7.2.1, prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, respondents' perceptions on most attributes of the destination were positive, with attribute "much diverse beautiful scenery and many natural attractions" perceived most positively. However, respondents indicated that they were worried about safety and security and segregation issues in South Africa prior to the event. Even though most of the respondents indicated that their perceptions of South Africa did not change immediately after the event, it can be argued that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ had a great impact on enforcing positive perceptions of the destination as well as reducing the impact of the negative aspects of the destination. The findings show that most of the respondents whose perceptions changed, indicated that their change in perceptions was largely attributed to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The findings immediately after the event show top promoted attributes as "much diverse beautiful scenery and many natural attractions"; "good climate for tourism and sport" and "competent sport event host". Interestingly, the respondents' perceptions on safety and security and segregation which were major concerns prior to the event changed from negative (64.2%) to positive (60%) and from negative (60.4%) to positive (54.8%) respectively immediately after the event. The overall findings show that six years after the event respondents' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination grew positively. This growth in perceptions can be attributed largely to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, as the findings show that six years after the event most of the respondents indicated that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ changed their perceptions of South Africa and some indicated that the event changed their perceptions of Africa as a continent. The positive growth in respondents' perceptions is revealed by chi-square tests which showed a significant difference ($p < 0.001$) in almost all destination attributes between respondents' perceptions prior to the event and six years after the event, except for "diverse beautiful and natural attractions". In conclusion, respondents' perceptions on all the destination attributes even grew more positively six years after the tournament, including those that were negative prior to the event, and this change in

respondents' perceptions is largely attributed to South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}.

7.2.3 Conclusions regarding Objective 3

The research met the third objective of the study which aimed to determine to what extent the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} led to repeat visitation to South Africa. Despite the fact that most of the respondents (66.7%) who visited South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} indicated that they had encouraged others to visit South Africa, only 9.3% of the respondents had visited South Africa since the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, while 8.5% of the respondents had visited other African countries. However, some of the respondents (30.2%) indicated that they planned to visit South Africa in the near future and 11.6% of the respondents indicated that they planned to visit other African countries. Six years after 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, the majority of the respondents indicated that they would visit South Africa should it host the Olympic Games in the near future. In conclusion, there was very little repeat visisitation to South Africa after the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}; however some respondents indicated that they planned to visit South Africa in the near future. The results could imply that the majority of the respondents who visited South Africa during 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} are typically football tourists who only visit a destination for the sole purpose of attending a sport event. This is true, given that an overwhelming majority of the respondents indicated that they would re-visit South Africa should it host future Olympic Games. Thus, many football tourists have intentions of repeat visitation within the context of attending another sport mega-event.

7.2.4 Conclusions regarding Objective 4

The study has met the fourth objective, which aimed at assessing the brand image legacies that resulted from hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} in South Africa. The main brand image legacy that resulted from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} is the change in international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination as discussed in Section 7.2.2. The key findings reveal that most of the respondents (62.1%) indicated that South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} had changed their perceptions of South Africa. The 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM} helped in reinforcing the positive perceptions of the destination as well as reducing the impact of the negative perceptions of the destination such safety and security and segregation issues. This is true, as respondents' perceptions regarding safety and security and segregation which were major concerns prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup^{TM}, changed from negative (64.2%) to positive (60%) and from negative (60.4%) to positive (54.8%) respectively after the event. As has been indicated in Section 7.2.2, the findings reveal that six years after the event, respondents' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination had grown positively. This change in respondents' perceptions is revealed by chi-square tests that showed a

significant difference ($p < 0.001$) for most destination attributes. These results reflect the power of sport mega-events in changing perceptions of the host nation.

Another significant brand image legacy that emanated from South Africa's hosting of the FIFA World Cup™ is destination profiling. The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ profiled South Africa as a destination capable of hosting future global events. The results of the study reveal that most of the respondents (62.9%) rated South Africa's hosting of the tournament as good, with 32.7% of the respondents rating it as outstanding. Again, an overwhelming majority (90.3%) of the respondents indicated that South Africa was capable of hosting future sport mega-events such as the Olympic Games. The overall results clearly show that respondents believed that South Africa had hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ successfully, and based on these findings, undoubtedly the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ profiled South Africa as a sport tourism destination capable of hosting future sport mega-events.

Nation building is another significant brand image that emanated from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. As mentioned in the previous sections, respondents perceived South Africa to be a segregated society; however, six years after the event, respondents indicated that these perceptions had changed positively. This change could be attributed to the image created by fans from all races celebrating together during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and this seems to have left a long term impression. Therefore, it can be argued that the nation-building impacts were sustained in the long term and therefore constitute a legacy.

7.3 Recommendations

The key findings of this study show that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ brought significant positive brand image legacies such as changes in international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination, destination profiling and nation building. These positive brand image legacies should be sustained in the long run and used in the bidding for future sport mega-events. The findings also show that repeat visitation to South Africa after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was a major shortcoming, as most of the respondents indicated that they did not visit South Africa or Africa post the tournament. These results could suggest that it is an unrealistic expectation that sport mega-events lead to a massive repeat visitation. This could be true considering that sport fans visit sport destinations primarily for attending an event and once it is over the chances of re-visiting that particular destination are limited.

This section presents recommendations derived from the findings of this study and these will assist stakeholders in South Africa in planning future sport mega-events. The recommendations focus on the areas that South Africa needs to improve on to successfully

bid for and host future sport mega-events that will go a long way towards changing the nation's brand image.

7.3.1 Stakeholder involvement and partnerships

The findings of the current study reveal that an overwhelming majority of the respondents are willing to travel to South Africa should it host a sport mega-event such as the Olympic Games in the near future. Hosting of sport mega-events is seen as a useful tool to enhance and change a country's brand image. Therefore, South Africa should consider hosting sport mega-events in future to enhance its brand image. However, as has been suggested by the literature in Section 6.10, South Africa's dream of hosting other global sport mega-event has not materialised since winning the right to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Since 2004, South Africa has lost bids to host global sport events several times. In particular, South Africa lost the bid to host the 2022 Commonwealth Games as a result of disagreements between the government and the LOC regarding the budgets. All this could reflect a lack of strategic planning and partnerships between the government and other sport mega-event stakeholders. According to Parent and Deephouse (2007:3), for bids to be successful, the government should establish a significant relationship with key stakeholders of the event. In order for South Africa to increase the chances of winning the rights to host future sport mega-events and accomplish its political objective of changing the nation's image through hosting sport mega-events, it is recommended that the government, the organising committees and other key stakeholders come together and form strategic partnerships. Once strategic partnerships are formed, it is critical that the roles and responsibilities of these different stakeholders be clarified and that there are clear communications protocols from the beginning.

7.3.2 Effective safety and security plan

The findings of this study show that security and safety were the major concerns prior to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. However, respondents' perceptions of South Africa regarding safety and security issues were positive six years after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™; these positive perceptions were largely attributed to the fact that there were no reported crime incidents in South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. However, recently there has been a sharp rise in crime targeting international tourists in South Africa. There are multiple reported cases of the so-called 'airport-following crime'. Without doubt these crime incidents have dented the positive perceptions brought about by South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ regarding safety and security issues. Based on the results of this study, it could be suggested that the crime prevention strategy adopted by the South African government during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was primarily aimed at keeping visitors and event locations safe instead of developing a long-term plan to address the safety and security

issues that hound the country. Therefore, it is recommended that the government focus on long-term effective safety and security plans and resource allocation to mitigate crime beyond sport mega-events. To dispel the safety and security fears that have emerged at airports, the South African government, with the help of the South Africa Police Services, should step up security measures at all major entry ports. Security checkpoints at the airports could be introduced to vet and screen people who enter the airport. These security checkpoints will deter criminals who operate at airports from committing crimes. Ensuring that South Africa is a safe sport tourism destination to visit is paramount for bidding and hosting of future sport mega-events.

7.3.3 The role of government

The president of a nation is regarded as the custodian of the country's brand image; however with allegations emerging that the ANC-led government is corrupt, the hopes of sustaining the positive brand image legacies of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa are in jeopardy. The findings of this study show that some of the respondents indicated that the Nkandla incident influenced their perceptions negatively. Even though most of the respondents seemed not to be aware of the Nkandla incident, recent corruption allegations against Mr Zuma, the former president, especially his relationship with the Guptas, could be a major blow to the country's image. Corruption, especially at government level, taints the image of a nation and this has a negative impact on bidding for future sport mega-events. Therefore, it is recommended that the South African government through the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) of South Africa, hold to account and bring to justice anyone implicated in corruption, including those occupying high public office, without fear or favour. This could send a clear a message to the international community that South Africa respects the rule of law and does not condone corruption, hence portraying a positive image of the country.

The findings of this study show that respondents' perceptions regarding South Africa as a destination with favourable business and investment opportunities were positive six years after the event. However, since South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, many political events have unfolded in the country which could dent these positive images. For example, following the sacking of Mr Pravin Gordhan as the country's finance minister, Fitch, an international credit rating agency, downgraded South Africa's credit to non-investment grade, sighting a major shift in the country's economic policy. Undoubtedly this has impacted negatively on the country's image as a business and investment destination to a large extent. In order to create a favourable business and investment environment that will support successful hosting of future sport mega-events, it is recommended that the South African government be consistent in its economic policy to restore investor confidence. Government

officials should use platforms such as international business conferences to articulate their position regarding economic policies to avoid policy discord among stakeholders.

7.4 Future research direction

Bob and Kassens-Noor (2012:14) note that a sport mega-event legacy should be sustained for a considerable period of time after the event to ensure that the impact will last longer, hence the legacy of a mega-event should be assessed in the long term. To support Bob and Kassens-Noor's notion, future studies on brand image legacies that resulted from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] should be conducted as longitudinal studies to test if these brand image legacies can be sustained in the long run (10 and more years). As has been mentioned in the previous chapter of the study, as time goes by, with politico-economic events unfolding, perceptions of a country will also change. This is true in the case of South Africa as Knott's (2014) study and the current study found that the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] brought significant brand image legacies, particularly changes in international tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a sport tourism destination. As has been mentioned in Section 7.3, there have been many political events which have unfolded since South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] and these events could have an adverse impact on the nation's brand image. Therefore, it is imperative to conduct ongoing longitudinal studies on the legacies of the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] in South Africa to assess if these legacies can be sustained in the long run.

7.5 Concluding remarks

The purpose of this study was to determine if there were changes in international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as result of its hosting of the prestigious 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM] in the long term. With South Africa being the first African country to host an event of such magnitude, there were high hopes and expectations that this global event would change the country's image to some extent and leave a legacy. Therefore, this study provides evidence of the brand image legacies that resulted from South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM].

Recommendations have been provided and they may be used in future studies on brand image legacies of the 2010 FIFA World Cup[TM], as well as assisting sport event stakeholders in South Africa to plan bidding and hosting of global sport mega-events effectively in order to enhance the country's image.

The first chapter of the study gave an introduction and background to the research study. In this chapter, the problem statement, research questions and research objectives were outlined. In addition, the research methods employed for data collection were also discussed. In Chapter 2, a theoretical and conceptual framework was presented which sought to explain

and clarify the key concepts which form the base of the study. This framework discussed the political economy theory, the globalisation of sport mega-events and political economy of sport mega-events in developing nations, the bidding for sport mega-events and unethical issues that surround the bidding of such events. The political economy of sport mega-events was analysed to explain that hosting of sport mega-events is a political tool that can assist nations to rebrand their image.

Chapter 3 of the study provided literature on nation branding and its theoretical origins. Also, brand and branding, and destination and place branding were discussed, explaining how these are related to nation branding. The last section of the chapter discussed the sources of a nation's image as well as how a nation's image is formed using Fan's (2008) six key perspectives. The fourth chapter gave an overview of the relationship between sport and tourism, a brief explanation of sport mega-events and highlighted South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. This discussion continued with a brief overview of the actual impacts of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ in South Africa and the legacies in general that can result from hosting global events. Chapter 4 further discussed leveraging of sport mega-events to enhance a nation's image and the role of such events in branding nations. The last section of this chapter explained the reasons for sport visitation, factors that constrain sport-related travel, and repeat visitation after a sport mega-event.

Chapter 5 gave a detailed account of the research design and methodology the study used, specifically the research instrument, target population, sample selection, sample size and methods of data analysis. Chapter 6 provided a presentation and an analysis of the study's findings. The last chapter of the study provided conclusions, future research directions and recommendations with regard to the study's findings.

Despite South Africa not having a coordinated leverage plan during and after the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (Knott et al., 2015:53), the key findings of this study indicate that for emerging nations such as South Africa, hosting a successful sport mega-event on its own seemed to have resulted in positive long-term perceptions of the destination. The findings show that the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ changed perceptions of South Africa as sport and tourism destination in the long run, hence a legacy. While having a more deliberate plan pre-, during and post a sport mega-event as recommended by Knott et al. (2015:53) could be more beneficial to leveraging nation-branding opportunities, these findings present a caveat to Grix's (2012) model which illustrates how nations can leverage sport mega-events to enhance their images.

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APPENDICES

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

Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Office of the Chairperson Research Ethics Committee	Faculty: **BUSINESS**

At a meeting of the Research Ethics Committee on 16 September 2015, **Ethics Approval**

was granted to MOYO, LOUIS GRANDGRIND (211145432) **for research activities**

Related to the MTech/DTech: MTech: TOURISM & HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT

at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology

Title of dissertation/thesis:	Mega sport event legacies: International visitors' perceptions of South Africa as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup Supervisor: Prof K Swart

Comments:

Decision: APPROVED

(signature) Signed: Chairperson: Research Ethics Committee	16 September 2015 Date

  Signed: Chairperson: Faculty Research Committee	 Date

Clearance Certificate No | 2015FBREC286

Appendix B: The questionnaire

FOOTBALL TOURIST SURVEY

Questionnaire No……………

Brand image legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™: A long-term assessment.

This questionnaire seeks to determine the brand image legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ as well as to ascertain international football tourists' perceptions of South Africa as a result of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. An estimated time of about ten minutes will be adequate to answer the questionnaire. Your confidentiality in participating in this study will be strictly maintained. Participation in this study is voluntary.

SECTION A: Visits to South Africa prior and during the event

1. Did you visit South Africa to spectate at the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ or did you watch the tournament on the television (TV) at home? **If you did not travel to South Africa to spectate at the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ or watch the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ on the TV exit survey.**

1	Travelled to South Africa to spectate at the 2010 FIFA World Cup	2	Watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup on the TV

2. What is your country of residence?.......................

3. Have you ever travelled to South Africa or Africa prior the 2010 FIFA World Cup™**? If never, go to Number 4.**

0	Never	1	Africa, but not South Africa	2	Yes, South Africa

3.1. Would you have travelled to South Africa or Africa at that time if the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was not being hosted there?

0	No	1	Yes	2	Perhaps/ unsure

SECTION B: South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup ™

4. Thinking back to 2010 FIFA World Cup, how would you rate South Africa's hosting of the mega-event?

1	Bad	2	Mediocre	3	Good	4	Outstanding

SECTION C: Perceptions of South Africa prior the 2010 FIFA World Cup ™

5. Before you visited South Africa or watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup ™ on TV, did you believe that South Africa had/was?
[*1: No, not at all; 2: No, not really; 3: Unsure; 4: Yes, a little; 5: Yes, very much*]

5.1	A world-class tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5
5.2	Many friendly, welcoming people	1	2	3	4	5
5.3	A competent sport event host	1	2	3	4	5
5.4	A segregated (divided) social society?	1	2	3	4	5
5.5	Many diverse (different) cultures	1	2	3	4	5
5.6	Beautiful scenery & natural attractions	1	2	3	4	5
5.7	A good climate for tourism & sports	1	2	3	4	5
5.8	World-class sport facilities	1	2	3	4	5
5.9	A stable democratic environment	1	2	3	4	5
5.10	Well-respected political leaders	1	2	3	4	5
5.11	A safe place to visit	1	2	3	4	5
5.12	Many business/investment opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
5.13	An excellent destination to host future sport mega-events	1	2	3	4	5
5.14	Technologically advanced	1	2	3	4	5

6. Have your main perceptions (views) of South Africa changed since you visited South Africa or watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ tournament? **If no, go to Question 7.**

0	No	1	Yes

6.1. If you answered **YES** above, please can you indicate which perceptions have changed and how in the table below?
[*1: Very negative; 2: Negative; 3: Neutral; 4: Positive; 5: Very positive*]

6.1.1	A world-class tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.2	Many friendly, welcoming people	1	2	3	4	5
61.3	A competent sport event host	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.4	A segregated (divided) social society?	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.5	Many diverse (different) cultures	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.6	Beautiful scenery & natural attractions	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.7	A good climate for tourism & sports	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.8	World-class sport facilities	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.9	A stable democratic environment	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.10	Well-respected political leaders	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.11	A safe place to visit	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.12	Many business/investment opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.13	An excellent destination to host future sport mega-events	1	2	3	4	5
6.1.14	Technologically advanced	1	2	3	4	5

6.2. Which of the following influenced this change in perception since you visited South Africa or watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?
[*1: No, not at all; 2: No, not really; 3: Unsure; 4: Yes, a little; 5: Yes, very much*]

6.2.1	News and media focusing on South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.2	Doing business with South African companies	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.3	Family and friends' experiences/opinions	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.4	Your previous travel experiences	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.5	Buying South African products	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.6	Tourism promotion of South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.7	Meeting South Africans in your home country	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.8	South Africa's hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup™	1	2	3	4	5
6.2.9	South Africa's hosting of other sport events	1	2	3	4	5

7. Have the following current issues influenced your perception of South Africa since the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™?
[*1: Very negative; 2: Negative; 3: Neutral; 4: Positive; 5: Very positive*]

7.1	Marikana	1	2	3	4	5
7.2	FIFA corruption scandal	1	2	3	4	5
7.3	Nkandla	1	2	3	4	5
7.4	Xenophobia	1	2	3	4	5
7.5	The Diwani case	1	2	3	4	5
7.6	Oscar Pistorius	1	2	3	4	5
7.7	Ebola	1	2	3	4	5

8. If you visited South Africa during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, have you visited South Africa/Africa again or have you planned to visit South Africa or an African country since the 2010 FIFA World Cup™? *Multiple responses are permitted.* **If you did not visit South Africa during the 2010 World Cup™, please go to the next question.**

1	No	2	Yes, visited South Africa	3	Yes, visited African Country	4	Plan to visit South Africa	5	Plan to visit an African country

9. If you watched the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ on the TV, did watching the tournament encourage you to visit South Africa or Africa? *Multiple responses are permitted.*

1	No	2	Yes, visited South Africa	3	Yes, visited African country	4	Encouraged to visit South Africa	5	Encouraged to visit an African country

10. Has your visit to South Africa encouraged you to? **If you did not visit South Africa, move to the next question.**
[1: No, not at all; 2: No, not really; 3: Unsure; 4: Yes, a little; 5: Yes, very much]

10.1	encourage others to visit South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
10.2	become friends with South African people	1	2	3	4	5
10.3	pay more attention to news or media relating to South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
10.4	do business or invest in South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
10.5	emigrate to South Africa	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION F: Perceptions of South Africa six years after the World Cup

11. Do you believe that South Africa has/is?
[*1: No, not at all; 2: No, not really; 3: Unsure; 4: Yes, a little; 5: Yes, very much*]

11.1	a world-class tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5
11.2	many friendly, welcoming people	1	2	3	4	5
11.3	a destination with advanced technology	1	2	3	4	5
11.4	a segregated (divided) social society	1	2	3	4	5
11.5	many diverse (different) cultures	1	2	3	4	5
11.6	beautiful scenery and natural attractions	1	2	3	4	5
11.7	a good climate for tourism and sports	1	2	3	4	5
11.8	a stable democratic environment	1	2	3	4	5
11.9	well-respected political leaders	1	2	3	4	5
11.10	a safe place to visit	1	2	3	4	5
11.11	many business or investment opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
11.12	a desirable country to live in	1	2	3	4	5
11.13	world-class sports facilities	1	2	3	4	5
11.14	a competent host of the Football World Cup	1	2	3	4	5
11.15	an excellent destination to host future sport mega-events	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION G: The 2010 FIFA World Cup ™ and changes in perceptions of South Africa

12. Do you think the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ has changed international perceptions of South Africa and Africa?

0	No	1	Yes, perceptions of South Africa only	2	Yes, perceptions of Africa as a whole

SECTION H: South Africa and hosting of future sport mega-events

13. Do you think South Africa is capable of hosting future Olympic Games?

0	No	1	Yes

14. Would you like to travel to South Africa should it host future Olympic Games?

0	No	1	Yes

SECTION I: Demographic profiles of international football tourists

15. What is your current age (years)? …………………………………………

16. Gender

1	Male	2	Female

17. What is your country of origin?...

Thank you for your participation; it is greatly appreciated!

Appendix C: Declaration of editing

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The MTech: Tourism and Hospitality Management thesis by **Louis Grandgrind Moyo**, titled 'Brand image legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™: A long-term assessment', has been edited and the candidate has been advised to make the recommended changes.

Dr ES van Aswegen
26 November 2017