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Leveraging Home-Grown Sport Tourism Events for Strategic Destination Branding Outcomes

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Submitted: January 2019

PLAGIARISM DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own original work, conducted under the supervision of Prof. Tembi Maloney Tichaawa. It is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy: Tourism and Hospitality in the College of Business and Economics at the University of Johannesburg. This work has not been submitted as part of a degree at another institution, although it has informed the production of three journal articles written by the same author. See:

Hemmonsbey, J. & Tichaawa, T. (2018). The effects of major sport event leveraging for tourism and destination branding: The case of South Africa as an emerging destination. *GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites*, 1(21):213-225.

Hemmonsbey, J., Tichaawa, T. & Knott, B. (2018). Conceptual framework for strategic destination branding through leveraging home-grown sport events. *South African Journal for Research in Sport, Physical Education and Recreation,* 40(2):252-266.

Hemmonsbey, J. & Tichaawa, T. (2018). Using non-mega events for destination branding: a stakeholder perspective*. GeoJournal of Tourism and Geosites,* 24(1):81-98.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family, for their undivided support and prayers.

ABSTRACT

Extant research has established that destination branding through sport events is deemed to be a valuable resource for brand development and positioning, as well as for accessing social, economic and environmental benefits for both developed and developing nations. However, the destination branding discourse remains widely contested among academics and practitioners, as there is, as yet, no commonly accepted framework for the destination branding theory. Moreover, the theory underpinning sport event leveraging towards informed branding practices, especially in the developing destination context, is lacking. The current study conceptualises the leveraging of home-grown sport events for destination brands; extending the scope of other known sport event leveraging studies in the developing context. The research critically examines key stakeholders involved in sport and destination branding by detailing their perceptions in relation to the leveraging of home-grown sport using the South African brand as a case study.

Both qualitative and quantitative techniques were employed to collect the data. In total, 403 sport event attendee questionnaires were completed across two home-grown sport events, the Comrades Marathon in Durban and the IRONMAN triathlon in Port Elizabeth, using simple random sampling. Purposive sampling was implemented in targeting 24 key industry stakeholders from the relevant public and private organisations in sport, tourism and destination branding. The study reveals the significant effect of home-grown sport on destination branding through competitive brand positioning. A number of similarities and differences were observed between the sport event attendees and the stakeholder groups, in terms of the brand messages that were shown during the hosting of such sport events. Whereas the sport event attendees had indicated their intention to stay beyond the event, they were sceptical about the safety and security of the overall destination. Although the stakeholders agreed on the issue of safety and security, they observed the perception to be unjust to the brand, due to the skewed international media portrayal of social issues in especially the developing countries. Crime and other social issues, like education and health and safety, were, therefore, seen to be key challenges facing the South African destination's perceived image. The study revealed outstanding opportunities for retaining sustainable tourism, and for attracting new tourism markets through the implementation of effective leveraging practices that are mainly linked to stakeholder commitment to investing in effective public and private partnerships. The key findings of the study conceptualise the role of leveraging strategies and the activities of stakeholders during the hosting of these specific types of sport events, so as to achieve augmented destination branding benefits. Although the above applies to both the developed and the developing contexts, distinguishing socio-economic factors affecting developing nations have led to the adoption of a sport event leveraging framework in relation to home-grown sport. The study makes a theoretical contribution by developing a conceptual framework that articulates and underlines home-grown events for developing nation brands, by considering a developing country's perspective by topics investigated largely in the developed Global North context. Further research questions were identified to inform future destination branding studies aimed at deriving additional definitive comparisons across stakeholder perspectives on strategic destination branding, as informed by sport event leveraging.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER FOUR: CONTEXTUALISING SPORT TOURISM AND HOME-GROWN SPORT TOURISM EVENTS

CHAPTER FIVE: SPORT EVENT LEVERAGING FOR HOST DESTINATIONS

CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER SEVEN: ARTICULATING DESTINATION BRANDING, HOME-GROWN SPORT EVENTS, AND LEVERAGING, IN RELATION TO THE CURRENT STUDY CONTEXT

CHAPTER EIGHT: STAKEHOLDER APPROACHES TO LEVERAGING HOME-GROWN SPORT EVENTS FOR DESTINATION BRANDING BENEFITS

CHAPTER NINE: SPORT EVENT ATTENDEES' PERCEPTIONS OF SOUTH AFRICA'S DESTINATION BRAND

CHAPTER TEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ACRONYMS

Acronyms/Abbreviations	Definitions/Explanations
AFC	Association Football Club
AFCON	African Cup of Nations
AMA	American Marketing Association
ANOVA	analysis of variance
AWB	Afrikaner Weerstandsbeweging
CEO	chief executive officer
CI	competitive identity
CMA	Comrades Marathon Association
COCT	City of Cape Town
COO	country of origin
CPUT	Cape Peninsula University of Technology
CVB	convention and visitor bureau
DMO	destination marketing organisation
FIFA	Fédération Internationale de Football Association
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus
IOC	International Olympic Committee
IPL	Indian Premier League
IRB	International Rugby Board
LOC	Local Organising Committee
NDT	National Department of Tourism
NGO	non-governmental organisation
NTO	national tourism organisation
RTO	regional tourism organisation
RWC	Rugby World Cup
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
STO	state tourism organisation
UK	United Kingdom
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
USA	United States of America
WACE	World Association of Cycling Events
WCG	Western Cape Government
WOM	word of mouth

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1   Preamble

The branding theory has recently been applied beyond the product and service industry to a number of different environments, including places, encompassing nations, destinations, cities, regions, and towns (Rein & Shields, 2007; Knott, Fyall & Jones, 2013; Richelieu, 2018; Kavaratzis & Dennis, 2018). Destination branding is a relatively new, yet increasingly growing, discourse, with one of the first theoretical papers to have been published in 1998 by Morgan and Pritchard (1998). While various studies aim to develop a framework for destination branding (Morrison & Anderson, 2002; Anholt, 2005; Gnoth, 2007; Hankinson, 2004; Hanna & Rowley, 2008), it is on the premise of generic branding that destination branding is generally understood. As destination branding also often indicates a modern form of tourism promotion (Anholt, 2005; Hanna & Rowley, 2008; Boisen, Terlouw, Groote & Couwenberg, 2018), the general supposition, namely that destination branding denotes the tourism dimensions of a place, is widely supported. For this reason, Ritchie and Ritchie (1998:17) define a destination brand as:

> … a name, symbol, logo, word, mark or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates the destination; furthermore, it conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; it also serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience.

In short, destination marketing strategies communicate specific selected images of a destination, so as to influence the travel decisions of potential visitors (Nelson, 2005; Filo, Chen, King & Funk, 2013).

Some studies have enunciated that, in recent times, globalisation has increased the competitive arena in which destinations compete in a number of different markets for the respect and trust of investors, tourists, consumers, donors, immigrants, media, and governments (see, for example, Anholt, 2007a; Hanna & Rowley, 2008; Pike, 2007; Warren & Dinnie, 2018). More specifically, sport mega-events, such as the Olympic Games and the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cups, have grown into events marking the advanced globalisation of places, and the great influence thereof on the sport tourism experience (Weed & Bull, 2009). Consequently, such sport mega-events have become important leveraging tools, by means of which the host tourism destination can

achieve brand-related benefits (Chen & Funk, 2010). "Leveraging recognises [that the event] is an opportunity to implement particular tactics which may foster and nurture the impacts that are desired" (Chalip, 2002:7).

The importance of leveraging sport tourism events as a key facet for destination branding outcomes was highlighted by Chalip (2002). The researcher considered Australia as the first nation to employ leveraging strategies successfully around the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, so as to achieve the desired branding benefits, such as brand repositioning through media coverage, convention business opportunities, the minimising of the diversion effect of the Games, and the promoting of both pre- and post-Games touring. Subsequently, Grix (2012) reports on Germany, who employed similar strategies during their hosting of the 2006 FIFA World Cup to improve the brand image of Germany among international tourists. Other successful studies linked to sport event leveraging are those conducted by Kellett, Hede and Chalip (2008) on leveraging relationships with sport teams for community benefits and by Taks, Misener, Chalip and Green (2013) on leveraging sport events for sport participation.

From a developing destination's perspective, Pillay and Bass (2008) and Knott and Swart (2018) postulate that the leveraging of sport tourism events for the South African brand. The authors emphasise that one of the key objectives of the 2010 FIFA World Cup for South Africa was to capitalise on tourism, as well as to establish South Africa as a powerful tourism destination. As a way of improving upon its international brand image and tourism promotion, South Africa has been at the forefront of hosting numerous sport tourism events. The events include: the 1995 Rugby World Cup; the 20th Africa Cup of Nations held in both 1996 and 2013; the 2003 Cricket World Cup; and the 2009 Indian Premier League (IPL) (Capriello, 2018; Jago, Dwyer, Lipman, Van Lill & Voster, 2010).

Notably, numerous South African cities also host a series of home-grown recurring events. Prevalent examples include: the Cape Town Cycle Tour; the Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon; and the ABSA Cape Epic mountain bike stage race (held in Cape Town); the Comrades Marathon (held in Durban); the annual Super Rugby, Currie Cup (rugby) and ABSA Premier League (soccer) games that are held in various South African cities; the Soweto Marathon (held in Johannesburg); and the Ironman African Championship (held in Port Elizabeth). From a less conspicuous South African area for sport event hosting, Mangaung, in Bloemfontein, has recently become a thriving host to home-grown sport. Exemplifying the efforts involved are the Mangaung city authorities' strategic investment in

the building of world-class sport facilities, like the National Training Centre (which is used to prepare South African athletes for the Olympic Games), as well as strategic partnerships formed between event and commercial stakeholders, specifically OFM radio station, which is a title sponsor for the annual Mangaung Classic cycle race (which is aimed at promoting the event and city brand). Other major local sport tournaments hosted in South Africa include the South African Open (golf tournament) and most of the Sunshine Tour golf events. Moreover, in November/December 2018, South Africa introduced a new cricket league, namely Mzansi Super League T20, which, similarly to the IPL in India, is likely to attract international players and spectators, thus further promoting South Africa as a leading destination for sport tourism.

There has indeed been a rise in the various disciplines related to home-grown sport tourism events in South Africa. As is the case with large-scale international sport events, the home-grown domestic sport events highlighted above are known to contribute associated socio-economic benefits, on an equal level, to the host destinations concerned. Furthermore, such domestic home-grown events are unique to the host destinations concerned (for example, the Cape Town Cycle Tour is hosted exclusively in Cape Town). Such events, which are hosted on a regular basis (usually annually), tend to attract several sport enthusiasts (Knott & Hemmonsbey, 2015).

Most studies that have been undertaken so far have focused on international sport mega-events, and on the leveraging opportunities provided thereby for host destinations, particularly from a developed Global North perspective (Chalip, 2002; Grix, 2012; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012; Karadakis, Kaplanidou & Karlis, 2010; Kellett et al., 2008). While a few studies have focused specifically on sport mega-event leveraging in the developing Global South context (Chien, Kelly & Gill, 2018; Knott et al., 2013; Swart & Bob, 2012; Tichaawa & Bob, 2015; Zhao, Ching, He & Chan, 2017), none have yet examined home-grown sport tourism events and their influence on achieving destination branding outcomes within the developing context. The current study therefore extends the scope of the sport mega-event to unearth the opportunities granted for the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events to attain destination branding outcomes. More specifically, the context of an African destination brand (i.e. South Africa) enhances the unique contribution of the present study beyond the developed context.

1.2   Motivation for the study

The body of literature pertaining to destination branding is growing among place branding commentators. What is more, the application of branding techniques to destination marketing is growing rapidly as a result of the advanced global competition between places in both the domestic and the external markets (Dinnie, 2003). Extensive studies have been undertaken to reveal the significance of sport in relation to destination brands (see, for example, Burgan & Mules, 1992; Knott, Fyall & Jones, 2017; Lee & Taylor, 2005; Nicolau, 2012; Swart & Bob, 2012; Ziakas, 2018). Mainly linked to the economic impact of tourism, such studies reveal that sport mega-events, in particular, remain important for both the developed and the emerging nations. To exemplify the above, Truno (1995) argues that the city of Barcelona successfully used the 1992 Olympic Games to achieve brand awareness, while Zhang and Zhao (2009) and Zhao et al. (2017) show how the city of Beijing also capitalised on the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games to achieve similar benefits.

However, Dimanche (2003) and Grix, Brannagan, Wood and Wynne (2017) argue that the brand-related opportunities that destinations achieve through the hosting of such sport mega-events as the Olympic Games may be short-lived (closing as soon as the event ends, or just a few years post-event). Therefore, destinations are increasingly attracting home-grown sporting events that tend to draw significant economic and marketing benefits that contribute to the success of the destination brand in the long run. Jago, Chalip, Brown, Mules and Ali (2003) note the importance of the longevity/tradition of an event for a destination when seeking branding opportunities. Rein and Shields (2007) review a few case studies of destinations that achieved the above. For example, New Zealand used the All Blacks (the New Zealand national rugby team), linking their black uniforms to their performance of the haka (which is an opening game ritual based on the Maori culture), to invent the New Zealand destination brand. Since the early 20th century, when the above-mentioned strategy was first implemented, the All Blacks have remained an integral part of their brand identity. In the same way, "Scandinavian countries have branded skiing, the Dutch speed skating, and Japanese sumo wrestling" to achieve similar results (Rein & Shields, 2007:75).

Elsewhere, the Orlando Florida destination brand has grown significantly since the inception of Disney World in the early 1970s. The dominance of the Disney Corporation has resulted in the prominence of the 'Orlando Magic' concept in all aspects of the branding of the destination (Ritchie & Ritchie, 1998). However, more recently, Orlando has recognised sport tourism as making a valued contribution to the extension of their destination brand, with the

city, in 2010, launching a new sport team (Orlando City Soccer Club). Similarly, Bournemouth in the United Kingdom (UK) recently added sport to their list of branding traits. During the 2015/2016 soccer season, the Association Football Club (AFC) Bournemouth secured their promotion to the Premier League for the first time. Furthermore, in the context of emerging destinations, Rio de Janeiro in Brazil has acquired a primary position among Brazilian metropolitan cities that have competed to host a series of mega-events, including the 2007 Pan-American Games, the 2011 Military Games, the final match of the 2014 FIFA World Cup, and, most recently, the 2016 Olympic Games (Bienenstein, Sánchez & Mascarenhas, 2012; De Almeida, Bolsmann, Junior & De Souza, 2015).

With the emergence of wide-ranging sport tourism events as a powerful agent for achieving brand-related benefits for destination branding purposes, the current study asks how sport tourism events can be successfully leveraged for strategic destination branding outcomes. The current study differs from previous studies related to sport, tourism and destination branding as it extends their scope beyond the mega-event towards home-grown (all-encompassing) sport. The research was, further, aimed at extending the focus from a developed context to the emerging African context, which, until now, has been regrettably neglected in the relevant literature.

1.3 Problem statement

Since its inception, the destination branding discourse has remained widely contested. The concept of destination branding originated in the general branding literature and therefore has often been viewed as running parallel to the corporate and product and service branding theories (Balakrishnan, 2009). A widely recognised definition of destination branding that builds on the premise of the generic branding theory is provided by Ritchie and Ritchie (1998:17) as being:

> … [A] name, symbol, logo, word or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates the destination … [while] convey[ing] the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination.

However, a number of studies argue that destination branding refers less to the tangible product, and more to what the product stands for in terms of what it promises, as well as its qualities and characteristics (Chekalina, Fuchs & Lexhagen, 2017; Gnoth, 2007). Furthermore, destination branding is believed to appeal exclusively to the tourism industry, with it often only indicating a modern form of tourism promotion (Boisen et al., 2018).

5

Although a number of studies have attempted to develop a specific framework for destination branding (Anholt, 2005; Gnoth, 2007; Hankinson, 2004; Hanna & Rowley, 2008; Morrison & Anderson, 2002), a need still exists for a commonly accepted framework for the destination branding theory (Kladou, 2017; Koneznik & Gartner, 2007). Especially theoretical frameworks, which are likened to strategic destination branding that informs the relevant research, has been neglected.

More specifically, in the context of sport and destination branding studies, a dearth of research exists relating to the emerging destination setting. As more recent studies on the developing destination have emerged (Knott & Swart, 2018; Knott et al., 2013, 2017; Swart & Bob, 2012; Tichaawa & Bob, 2015), the large majority of studies have come to centre on the developed context. Certainly, developing nations are associated with other nations that have sought after sport for the purpose of destination branding (Knott et al., 2013, 2017). The above holds particularly true for the emergence of new home-grown sport events, like the Mzansi Super League T20 that is hosted in South Africa. To comprehend the developing context, the perspective of developing destination brands requires consideration. Thus, the current study addresses the theoretical gap in destination branding discourse by extending the context towards the developing destinations.

The sport event leveraging theory has gained significant attention since the work of Chalip (2002) on the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games. A growing body of literature exists that explores the concept of sport event leveraging (see, for example, Grix, 2012; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012; Knott et al., 2013; Swart & Bob, 2012; Tichaawa & Bob, 2015; Ziakas, 2018). However, the overwhelming majority of such work focuses on the sport mega-event, particularly in relation to economic development by way of the tourism and destination branding benefits gained therefrom. Hardly any research has specifically focused on home-grown sport tourism events in connection with their related benefits. Chalip (2004), Ziakas (2018) and Ziakas and Costa (2011) advocate the importance of having an event portfolio consisting of home-grown, recurring events as part of the destination marketing strategy that will allow destinations to optimise the reach and frequency of target markets when leveraging home-grown events over the once-off mega-event. Therefore, what remains little understood in terms of the theory is the concept of home-grown sport leveraging for the purpose of destination branding outcomes.

While destination branding benefits are realised through the hosting of sport tourism events, without conclusive empirical evidence reinforcing the associated branding opportunities, stakeholder efforts to leverage the events to achieve such benefits might go unrealised. Chalip (2014, 2017) and Jago et al. (2003) hold the view that the most effective means by which to leverage sport to build the destination brand are poorly understood. The above, therefore, impedes definitive policymaking regarding the formulation of strategies for effective leveraging regarding the hosting of sport events. Therefore, the current study, in part, provides relatively conclusive empirical findings on the stakeholder efforts that can be exerted in the South African context, so as to assist the policymakers with their creation of strategic branding policies on the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events for optimal brand awareness.

1.4   Aims and objectives

Commonly, the aims and objectives for sport tourism events and destination branding research are linked to sustainable economic developments through tourism and effective brand building initiatives. The primary aim of the study was to assess the use and effectiveness of the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events for strategic destination branding outcomes, especially as they relate to the developing African nation context. Furthermore, the set of specific objectives for the study is listed below:

- to broaden the scope of the sport mega-event literature by means of critically assessing the concept of home-grown sport for destination branding benefits;
- to broaden the context of extant destination branding studies by investigating emerging destination brands;
- to identify the stakeholder strategies aimed at leveraging sport tourism events for brand-related benefits;
- to propose a framework for the recommendations related to the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events in the developing destination context;
- to propose a conceptual framework for destination branding, especially as it applies to home-grown events, as directed towards developing strategic destination branding practices.

1.5   Study significance

The destination branding discourse remains widely contested. While a number of theoretical efforts are aimed at developing a framework for destination branding, a need still clearly

exists for conceptualising a commonly accepted framework for destination branding. Moreover, a gap is present in the theory suggesting a framework for strategic destination branding. Through its attempt to address the aforesaid theoretical gap, the current study contributes to the formation of an appropriate theory for strategic destination branding that has implications for both academics and practitioners.

Research into developing destination brands, especially in terms of sport event leveraging, has often been neglected in the past. Generally, the developed context has been the domain of study. Especially in the context of a developing African nation, little evidence exists that suggests the use of leveraging strategies. The above further limits the applicability and the robustness of findings to other destination contexts, thus limiting the flexibility in relation to the adoption of destination branding practices in the developing South African context. With the focus of the current study being on developing destinations, the context of destinations is broadened thereby. Consequently, the findings and recommendations of the study are transferable and applicable to other developing destinations, and they will contribute significantly to the operations of stakeholders in other developing contexts.

Furthermore, empirical studies on sport event leveraging have predominantly focused on the sport mega-event (e.g. the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup). Only a few studies include reference to home-grown recurring sport tourism events (such as local marathons, cycle tours, triathlons, and domestic sport championships). Thus, home-grown sport has remained largely under-investigated within the sport event leveraging research. The current study, therefore, challenges the concept of home-grown sport and its significance for destination brands over sport mega-events, therefore significantly contributing to the scope of the leveraging theory as it relates to sport tourism events.

The extended scope of the focus on sport event leveraging theory will, further, address a gap in the existing policy as it contributes to the strategic planning, organising and leveraging around event hosting in South Africa. Indeed, growing potential is present in South Africa to achieve brand-related benefits through the practice of home-grown sport. The National Sport Tourism Strategy (2012) clearly notes the significance of home-grown sport for the South African economy and destination profile which, with careful measurement and evaluation, has come to be of increasing interest to a number of groups, including policymakers. The Strategy states that the events concerned can project a new image and identity for a destination, as well as informing strategies that are directed at urban regeneration and tourism development

(National Sport Tourism Strategy, 2012). However, in the absence of definitive empirical evidence of the degree to which home-grown sport is leveragable for the South African destination brand, decision-makers cannot confidently adopt leveraging policies around the events concerned. In an attempt to close the policy gap, the current study provides a framework for the making of recommendations that can be used to inform policymakers on how key industry stakeholders in sport, tourism and destination branding will, in future, be able to plan, organise and leverage home-grown sport strategically to attain strategic destination branding outcomes.

As far as methodology practices are concerned, tourism research is dominated by the 'positivist' tradition, therefore suggesting the making of quantitative assessments the standard research approach adopted. While destination branding studies predominantly apply such qualitative assessments as stakeholder and content analysis (see Rein & Shields, 2007), a dearth exists of empirically-based evidence that examines stakeholder perspectives as a key facet of tourism research studies. Certainly, the key industry stakeholders in South Africa who are involved in sport, tourism and destination branding provide the present study with an opportunity to obtain a wide range of insights, experiences, opinions, and expertise. Accordingly, the study focuses on the perceptions of stakeholders, by introducing a mixed method framework that contributes towards the standard tourism methodological practices, as the final chapter in the thesis illuminates.

1.6   Thesis structure

The main body of the current study consists of eight chapters. The introductory chapter has detailed the motivation for the study, specifically in terms of the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events as directed towards strategic destination branding outcomes, especially as they relate to the developing African context. The justification for home-grown sport over the frequently studied sport mega-event, as well as the need for additional destination branding studies to be undertaken in relation to the developing emerging economies, compared to the developed destinations, has been highlighted. Furthermore, the background to the research and to the research problem statement has been emphasised. The present chapter has also identified the key research aims and objectives of the research, with it providing conclusive statements relating to the study's contribution specifically to the theory, policy and practice.

Chapter Two follows with a discussion of the multidimensional conceptual frameworks on which the study is focused. The chapter presents a conceptualisation of how the sport event leveraging, destination branding and stakeholder theories have been formulated and discussed in the past.

Chapters Three to Five critically scrutinise the existing literature in the domain of sport tourism, sport event leveraging, and the associated destination branding benefits. The intention is to identify the gaps in the research existing in the literature that require further investigation. The goal is to relate the above to the key aims and objectives outlined in the study.

Chapter Six outlines the research design and the adopted methodology. The chapter highlights the qualitative and quantitative processes and procedures that were involved in conducting the study, including in describing South Africa as a case study, the qualitative interview design, quantitative instruments adopted, the selected sample population for this mixed methods, and the administration of a mixed methods data analysis, relevant to this particular study.

Subsequently, Chapters Seven to Nine presents the critical examination of the data collected from the qualitative interviews and quantitative results according to the themes that emerged during the application of the inductive, bottom-up approach during the data analysis phase. In relation to the conceptual framework and literature presented in the study, the findings are discussed.

The tenth, and final, chapter of the thesis concludes the study by specifically addressing the research questions and set objectives concerned. It also emphasises the contribution made by the study to the relevant body of knowledge, policy and practice and outlines the implications for the stakeholders when leveraging home-grown sport tourism events towards the attainment of strategic destination branding objectives. Lastly, the limitations of the study are stated, and further recommendations are proposed.

1.7 Chapter summary

Sport event leveraging has become increasingly prevalent among host destinations, especially as a result of the socio-economic impacts and destination branding opportunities that such events offer. The above has become increasingly prominent in connection with most developing destinations, including in relation to the association of Beijing with the 2008

Olympic Games, that of South Africa with the 2010 FIFA World Cup, and that of Rio de Janeiro with the 2014 and 2016 FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games, respectively. While the above is true for the sport mega-event, due to the magnitude and scope of such events, what remains under-researched, and therefore comparatively little understood, is the impact of home-grown sport in relation to the gleaning of similar destination-branding benefits.

The number of home-grown, recurring sport events that attract sport tourism and that offer opportunities for destination branding for countries like South Africa, in the case of the newly hosted Mzansi Super League T20, is growing. A list of other home-grown sport in South Africa is presented. The leveraging of home-grown sports in a developing context ensures enlarging the reach and frequency of potential brand-related benefits, which might otherwise be missed through the hosting of a once-off sport mega-event.

The objectives of the present study are geared towards broadening the scope of the mega-event theory, as well as towards extending the extant studies on destination branding in the developed context, towards the context of a developing destination. No empirically based study has examined the leveraging of home-grown sport as it especially applies to a developing African setting. Furthermore, the researcher critically assesses the stakeholder perceptions on South African brand development by way of the discussion of sport and leveraging strategies around the hosting of home-grown sport, as informative of policy development. Accordingly, the current study contributes to the existing policy and practice that involves stakeholders not only in South Africa, but also in other developing nations.

CHAPTER TWO
THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

A conceptual framework refers to the outcome of integrating multiple interrelated concepts that clarify and enhance the comprehension of a particular research problem (Chukwuedo & Uko-Aviomoh, 2015; Imenda, 2014). The current researcher found it important to elucidate various concepts as they apply to the particular study context, especially as the concepts are inversely comprehended and applied in terms of different dimensions and perspectives (Chukwuedo & Uko-Aviomoh, 2015). In inductive reasoning, a conceptual framework emerges as the researcher identifies and constructs relevant concepts from both the theoretical perspectives and the empirical findings on the study's topic (Imenda, 2014). The above is due to social science research not being limited to one specific theory that directs the study to answer the research question adequately, which is typically the case in the natural sciences.

Whereas the destination branding theory is embedded in the general branding literature, for example, it has, subsequently, made a significant contribution to the tourism domain. More specifically, the research related to the impact of sport tourism on destination brands has increasingly grown, on account of the advanced globalisation of sport and its influence on the tourism experience (Anholt, 2007b; Fairley, Gibson & Lamont, 2018; Weed & Bull, 2009). According to Francis and Murphy (2005:73), "sport tourism is increasingly being utilised by established destinations to gain a competitive edge in the marketplace." Admittedly, the above is also true for the less established nations, or, as Steinbrink, Haferburg and Ley (2011:16) refer to them, the 'emerging nations', despite their vast differences in wealth, power, and social status compared to the more developed countries (Curi, Knijnik & Mascarenhas, 2011). Thus, with the emergence of the destination branding theory in different environments, and the influence of sport tourism on destination branding, it was important for the current researcher to explicate the various concepts of the destination branding theory, in the context of sport in the developing destination context.

Moreover, with the dominance of sport mega-events and the subsequent emergence in destination branding studies, significant emphasis has been placed on the legacies of the events for the host nation. For example, Cornelissen, Bob and Swart (2011) particularly note the global magnitude and prominence of sport mega-events, as well as the substantial investments that are made by the host nations, leading to a growing interest in assessing the

legacies of mega-events. As a result of the above, the frameworks for legacy research have increasingly been developed (see Gratton & Preuss, 2008). Consequently, the theoretical conceptualisation of 'legacy' and 'sport mega-event' theories for destination branding studies have advanced significantly (see Cornelissen, 2007; Cornelissen et al., 2011; Dickson, Benson & Blackman, 2011; Gratton & Preuss, 2008; Henderson & Oam, 2010). However, the context of the current study focuses on sport event leveraging, which, according to Chalip (2014:6), is "the collection of strategies and tactics employed to enable the generation of desired legacies". Thus, the conceptualisation of 'leveraging' has become more prominent than in the past. More specifically, emphasising the home-grown sport tourism event, the present chapter develops, and proposes, a conceptual framework for examining the strategic destination branding practices of an emerging African nation.

The current chapter comprises a multiconceptual framework, including (destination) branding, sport event leveraging, and stakeholder theories. The theories are interrelated and are applied to the focus of the current study. The chapter starts by discussing the generic branding theory, before it discusses the destination branding theory. While covering the complexity in developing a commonly accepted destination branding framework, it further raises aspects relating to the role of sport in terms of strategic destination branding, while outlining two concepts for strategic sport event leveraging.

The key theoretical concepts that are analysed concern the importance of strategic destination branding in the developing South African context. They also relate to the stakeholder theory and to stakeholder analysis in terms of their involvement and collaborative partnerships in sport event and destination branding.

2.2 Branding theory

While it is on the premise of generic branding that destination branding is generally understood, it is only fitting for the current chapter to start with conceptualising the branding theory. The traditional origins of branding can be traced back to the late nineteenth century, with the development of consumer products. More specifically, Pike (2009) recognises the branding theory to have commenced during the 1940s. Branding is considered a powerful weapon in the marketing arsenal of contemporary marketers challenged with increasing competition, product parity and substitutability (Kumar & Kaushik, 2017; Morgan, Pritchard & Piggott, 2002; Sharifsamet, Jin & Martin, 2018).

Branding has been around for centuries, as a means of distinguishing the goods of one producer from those of another (Keller, 2008). In fact, the original meaning of the word 'brand' seems to derive from the Old Norse word '*brandr*', which means 'to burn', as brands remain the means by which the owners of livestock mark their animals for the purpose of identification (Keller, 2008; Percy, 2003). Anholt (2005) mirrors the concept of ownership in his conceptualisation of a brand. However, he argues that, although the reference to ownership is the most 'popular' definition of a brand, it is the least precise definition of the concept, as such a reference is often used interchangeably in terms of several different marketing disciplines, like advertising, marketing, public relations, and sales promotion.

A relatively holistic definition of a brand, which refers to the identification and the differentiation of the core branding concept, is provided by the American Marketing Association (AMA) as:

> … 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 and to differentiate them from those of the competition (Keller, 2008:2).

Anholt (2005) refers to the AMA's definition as being a 'simple' way of conceptualising a brand. He explains that such a 'simple' definition, in terms of designing the unique brand identity, can be understood to be a channel of communication, whereas the style and content of design may suggest something about the nature and personality of the product, and, subsequently, about its desired target audience. For the above reason, Anholt (2005:117) views a brand as being a "designated visual identity – name, logo, slogan, and corporate livery".

In addition, Anholt (2005) sketches what he calls an 'advanced' way of conceptualising a brand. While the concept includes his 'simple' definition, it further encompasses a wide area of corporate strategy, consumer and stakeholder motivation and behaviour, internal and external communications, ethics, and purpose. The understanding of the advanced definition recognises that the functional, or physical, attributes of companies and their products become less relevant, compared to their 'intangible' or brand-related qualities, such as the value and associations, the lifestyle, the desirability of the marque, the strength of the maker's reputation, and the behaviour of the company's representatives that become increasingly paramount (Anholt, 2005:117). Similarly, Aaker (2009) advocates that, while brands provide such functional benefits as the physical performance of products over less superior brands,

branding strategies based on functional benefits are often strategically ineffective or limiting. He reveals that, although the general supposition is that customers are rational and will be swayed by functional benefits, the truth is that consumers are far from rational. "In most contexts, customers lack the motivation, time, information or competence to make decisions to maximize performance outcomes and will project functional benefits from other brand associations" (Aaker, 2009:23). He, therefore, argues that a brand should move beyond functional benefits and consider the emotional, self-expressive and social benefits as a basis for their value proposition. Broadly stated, a brand represents a unique combination of product characteristics and added values, both functional and non-functional, which have taken on a relevant meaning that is inseparably linked to the brand.

In line with the aforementioned outlining concepts, brands have been conceptualised in four key ways: (1) as communication devices (De Chernatony & Riley, 1998); (2) as perceptual entities (Louro & Cunha, 2001); (3) as value enhancers (Wood, 2000); and (4) as relationships (De Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001). Applying such an understanding to branding in their research into countries as brands and products, Kotler and Gertner (2002) underpin the 'advanced' construal of a brand, as outlined by Aaker (2009) and Anholt (2005). Their conceptual framework of a brand in relation to countries' profiles is as follows. A brand: differentiates products, and represents a promise of value; incites beliefs, evokes emotions and prompts consumer behaviours; has social and emotional value for users; has personality, and speaks for the user; enhances the perceived utility, and desirability, of a product; has the ability to add to, or to subtract from, the perceived value of a product; and has equity for both customers and investors that includes performance, social image, value, trustworthiness, and identification (Gertner & Freire, 2018; Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Tolba, 2015).

Due to the evolution of the branding theory, it is clear that it applies in a number of different environments, including places, encompassing nations, cities, destinations, regions, and towns. Moreover, the application of the advanced branding theory to destinations indicates that a brand is more than just the place name or logo. Instead, it refers to the overall impression that the destination creates in the minds of potential tourists, including in terms of its functional, emotional, social, and symbolic elements.

Accordingly, Chalip and Costa (2005:219) plainly state:

> A brand encompasses the destination's physical attributes, services, attractions, name, logo, reputation, and the benefits that those provide the visitor. A recognisable brand facilitates a tourist's choice of destination because it encapsulates what the destination has to offer.

2.2.1　Destination branding theory

According to Pike (2009), the first publication related to destination branding emerged half a century after the development of the generic branding theory in 1940. In relation to leisure tourism, Blain, Levy and Ritchie (2005) recognise that branding theories within the above context gained visibility in 1998 as a focal topic of the Annual Travel and Tourism and Research Associations Conference. Since the emergence of the destination branding literature, relatively little research has been reported in relation to analysing the long-term effectiveness of destination brands (Pike, 2010). However, following the emergence of destination branding as a concept, the importance of branding as a strategic marketing activity has been considered as increasingly significant by both academia and industry. Consequently, the literature on destination branding as a concept for cities, regions and countries, in terms of various case studies, has come to be increasingly explorative in nature (see Anholt, 2005; Brown, Chalip, Jago & Mules, 2004; Cai, 2002; Evans, 2003; Gilmore, 2002; Hankinson, 2004; Kotler & Gertner, 2002). Despite the growing popularity of destination branding, the literature on its conceptual development remains limited.

Traditionally, destinations are regarded as well-defined geographical areas (Hall, 2008). A general supposition that a destination brand denotes the tourism aspect of a place is widely supported (Anholt, 2005; Buhalis, 2000; Hanna & Rowley, 2008). However, a degree of complexity exists in identifying a single destination, especially as destinations may comprise several towns, cities, government provinces, islands, or entire countries (Morgan, Pritchard & Pride, 2010). Fittingly, Hanna and Rowley (2008:64) explain that "the type of geographical entity does not limit the scope of destination branding, provided a direct association with tourism is established". Contextually, Anholt (2005:118) notes that, however misleading the term 'destination branding' is, it is, nevertheless, "the term often used to indicate the modern form of tourism promotion", which has often been conflated with 'nation branding'. To clarify the above, a nation, as defined according to the Cambridge Dictionary Online, is "a country, especially when thought of as a large group of people living in one area with their own government, language, traditions etc." (see also Hanna & Rowley, 2008:64). Nation branding is, thus, "concerned with a country's whole image on the international stage,

covering political, economic and cultural dimensions" (Fan, 2010:98). Anholt (2005) explains that tourism is merely one component of the nation and, unlike the nation as a whole, tourism is a 'product' that needs to be 'sold' in the global marketplace. Certainly, the same holds true for other products comprising the nation, like those of agriculture, sport and entertainment. However, by definition, nations are unlikely to have a single target market or offering. Consequently, Hanna and Rowley (2008:64) affirm that, "when referring to nation brands in relation to countries, the reference is in the context of country 'outputs' which, within the context of tourism, is a destination brand". In the light of the above interpretation of nation and destination brands, the South African destination brand is contextualised in the current study, in terms of its geographical area and, consequently, its tourism or destination brand-related inputs and/or outputs. More specifically, the construct of destination branding for the current study is underpinned by a particular focus on the sport tourism product concerned.

Outlining various constructs that comprise destination branding is also important. The most common definition of destination branding is provided by Ritchie and Ritchie (1998). The definition addresses the AMA's notion of the generic branding concept (in terms of identification and differentiation), and what Anholt (2005) refers to as the 'simple' branding concept, which is achieved through marketing communication activities. The definition sees destination branding as acting beyond its physical features, and suggests that branding possesses the ability to carry some sort of guarantee or promise, which is intangibly linked to the destination's tourism offering through the visitor's travel experience. In Ritchie and Ritchie (1998:17), the following definition is given:

> [A destination brand is]…a name, symbol, logo, word mark or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates the destination; furthermore, it conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; it also serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience.

Moreover, a destination has come to be increasingly recognised as a perceptual concept, as "[destination brands are] interpreted subjectively by consumers, depending on their travel itinerary, cultural background, purpose of visit, educational level and` past experience" (Buhalis, 2000:97). Perceptions are generally formed as a result of, or are reflective of, the destination's brand image and how it is perceived among visitors prior, during or after their visits there. Due to the above-mentioned perceptual construal of destination brands, Cai (2002) and Nelson (2005) advocate the importance of destination marketing strategies to the

communicating of specific selected destination images, serving as critical stimuli in motivating and influencing the travel decisions of potential visitors.

However, with perceptions generally being associated with image formation, a confusion between brand and image concepts seems to exist, especially in terms of the tourist destination context (Tasci & Kozak, 2006). Cai (2002) and Pike (2009) affirm that destination branding should be distinguished from destination image management and that, although not explicitly examined in the context of branding, a destination image should be considered as a pre-existing concept corresponding to destination branding. For the aforementioned reason, Cai (2002:722) defines destination branding as "selecting a consistent element mix to identify and distinguish it through positive image building".

The corporate branding concept is further understood as being extrapolated to the destination context, given that it shares the same objective of creating differentiation and preference (Kavaratzis, 2005; Knox & Bickerton, 2003; Rainisto, 2003; Trueman, Klemm & Giroud, 2004). The corporate branding concept is advocated due to destinations acting as umbrella brands for leisure, investment and business tourism, and for stakeholder and citizen welfare products, much like corporations (Trueman et al., 2004). In addition to the above, destinations, similar to corporations, are subject to facing the increasing market complexity linked to globalisation, internal and external government policies, foreign exchange fluctuations, and the natural environment, as well as increasing marketing costs. They, therefore, warrant a corporate branding approach, according to Knox and Bickerton (2003). The significant similarities that can be seen between corporate and destination branding bring the two concepts close together, and, therefore, provide a starting point for an enhanced understanding of destination branding (Knox & Bickerton, 2003). Certainly, Anholt (2007b) affirms that there are more differences than similarities between the countries and corporations concerned, with the key one being the complex nature of destinations and its multiple groups of stakeholders that are involved in destination branding. However, despite the above-mentioned complexity, the aforementioned author expresses the belief that, if the branding techniques and theories are intelligently and responsibly applied, some of them can be powerful and competitive tools and agents for change for both the immediate destination and beyond.

Baker (2007) outlines a strategic approach to destination branding in the 'deliberate development' of a destination's brand. Such branding is necessary to attain a vision in terms

of which the reality experienced by the customers matches the positive expectation, or the promise, conveyed by the destination and its partners. Underpinning the sentiment concerned, the branding of destinations, Balakrishnan (2009) notes, begins with the development of a strategic vision of the place, with a strong vision resulting in dynamic performance. He explains that the strategic branding approach was introduced at a national level when Australia, Hong Kong and Spain first embraced the practice. It was, subsequently, also adopted among major cities in the United States of America (USA), such as Seattle, Las Vegas and Pittsburgh. In relation to such a strategic innovation in relation to destination branding, Baker (2012:22) states:

> These innovators introduced branding to compete more effectively in an increasingly competitive world, create a strategic decision-making framework, and to address the calls on behalf of stakeholders for increased accountability in the marketing of places.

Baker (2012) further considers the starting point of strategic destination to reside in the ability of brand leaders to recognise that there is a direct link between the destination image and its reputation, as well as the attractiveness of the destination regarding visiting, living, investing, and study. According to the author, there should be an even greater realisation than before of the improved local prosperity of the destination brand involved. Alternatively, a relatively new strategy among destinations, involving using events as strategic destination brand-building initiatives, is advocated (Jago et al., 2010; Trošt, Klarić & Ružić, 2012).

Significantly, Hankinson (2004) underpins a clear conceptual framework of destination branding that draws directly from the generic product and service branding theory, as advocated in the present section by De Chernatony and Riley (1998), De Chernatony and Segal-Horn (2001), Louro and Cunha (2001), and Wood (2000). Such authors conceptualise brands as communication devices in the form of logos, slogans and trademarks, which perceptual entities appeal to the visitors' senses and emotions, serving as value enhancers that lead to the establishment of brand equity and brands as relationships that communicate the brand personalities involved. Hankinson (2004) states that, while the destination brand is represented by a core brand, it, additionally, performs four main functions, which essentially depict the four concepts. For the above-mentioned reason, Hankinson (2004:110) conceptualises destinations as "relational brand networks".

According to Hanna and Rowley (2011:460):

> … the relational network brand considers the process of brand management in terms of stakeholder relationships and as a progressive ripple effect relational exchange between the brand and stakeholder groups.

The relationships within the above-mentioned model are reportedly formed between the consumers, the brand infrastructure, the media, and the primary services (Hanna & Rowley, 2011). The centre of the model represents the 'core brand', illustrating its personality, positioning, and reality. The elements are then developed and extended through a process of advanced interactions between the key stakeholders involved in destination branding, with each stakeholder reinforcing the reality of the core brand through the consistent communication and delivery of services. Hanna and Rowley (2011:460) further note that the 'relational model', as proposed by Hankinson (2004), "identifies the influencers in brand development and embraces both the brand communication and the brand experience aspects of brand development". The model is of significance to the current study context, mainly due to it explicitly embedding stakeholder relations in destination brand management. Unique to the current study's focus on home-grown sport, it is, therefore, crucial to consider the relations of a more comprehensive stakeholder group, including the event organisers. Stakeholders and their key roles are further contextualised in the subsequent subsections.

Strategic destination branding through sport event leveraging

Events, in particular sport tourism events, have become a key component of destination branding. Many destinations throughout the world have been enunciated as developing event portfolios, consisting of sporting events as strategic initiatives intended to attract tourists and to reinforce their brands (Chalip, 2014, 2017; Trošt et al., 2012; Ziakas, 2018). Sport events tend to generate substantial benefits for the host city, region, and country involved, with tourism being one of the key industries benefiting from the hosting of sport events. Sport events are able to attract enormous investment to a destination. Event visitors (including participants and spectators) pay for accommodation, food, souvenirs, and tickets. Therefore, sport events stimulate the extension of visitor stays at a destination and the facilitation of the enhanced promotion of a destination (Chalip, 2017; Xing & Chalip, 2006). The sport event media coverage concerned tends to increase the brand awareness of the host as a tourism destination (Brown et al., 2004; Higham & Hinch, 2009; Jago et al., 2003). Knott, Allen and Swart (2012) reveal that the impact of social media coverage around the first day of the 2010

FIFA World Cup in South Africa was significant to the related exposure that the country received.

Additional economic benefits are linked to media broadcasting. For instance, the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney generated in excess of 1.3 billion in revenue from broadcasting the Games (Westerbeek, Turner & Ingerson, 2002). Also, through events, issues of local culture and tradition are addressed, as well as social cohesion and progress being assured (Knott, Fyall & Jones, 2015). Events with well-established brands can be used to enhance the brand identity and image of a destination (Trošt et al., 2012). For example, the Olympic Games and the FIFA World Cup are sport mega-events that have long been used to serve the imaging, or reimaging, of places and destinations (Higham & Hinch, 2009; Knott et al., 2015). A common case study is the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, which served to enhance the brand awareness of Australia as a destination by up to ten years (Chalip, 2002; Florek & Insch, 2011). Another example is the case of Germany's image being 'softened' and 'boosted' through the country's hosting of the 2006 FIFA World Cup (Florek & Insch, 2011; Grix, 2012).

Despite the gleaning of such substantial benefits, Jago et al. (2003) observe that the impact of a sport event might be short-lived if the benefits involved are not sustainable beyond the period during which the event takes place. To achieve sustainability, Bramwell (1997) and Chalip (2004) suggest the importance of strategic destination branding, in terms of which the host destination's image can be enhanced as a tourist destination before, during, and particularly after the staging of an event. Two concepts of strategic destination branding through sport are discussed in the current study, namely co-branding and sport event leveraging.

Co-branding

The co-branding theory, which emerged in the mid-1990s, is defined as "a brand alliance that involves either short-term associations or a combination of two or more individual brands, products, and/or other distinctive proprietary assets" (Xing & Chalip, 2006:52). The co-branding research indicates that the degree to which two brands fit together is positively related to the evaluation of the brand alliance and, consequently, to the individual partnering brands (Xing & Chalip, 2006). Destination marketers should, therefore, choose to host events that fit the destination's existing image, with event owners holding their events at locations that fit the event's image. The destination branding objectives achieved through co-branding are linked to: reaching an extended number of new target groups beyond the existing markets;

improving the perceptions of the product's quality; providing a buzz around the brand; and inspiring confidence in the brand (Kapferer, 2012). According to Brown et al. (2004) and Westerbeek et al. (2002), destinations seek to change their image through the hosting of events, with event owners seeking to enhance their event brand by means of capitalising on a favourable location.

However, Xing and Chalip (2006) argue that the transfer of image is not always symmetrical. In fact, in their study, they reveal the asymmetrical image transfer from event and destination image. Their research explains that the asymmetries in transfer may be explained in terms of the relative familiarity of the event and its host destination. Therefore, the two researchers postulate that, where an event is relatively familiar compared to the host destination, the perceptions thereof will be adapted to the destination. However, the perceptions of the host destination serve as a comparative context when clarifying and organising perceptions of the event.

Furthermore, Chalip and Costa (2005) contend that the mere presence of an event at a destination can have little, or even a negative, impact on the host destination's brand, especially if the event and destination brand are dissimilar. Their research, therefore, advocates for the event brand to be strategically incorporated in the destination's marketing communications, as well as for the destination's name, icon, logo and visuals to be built into the event media.

Another contention regarding the co-branding theory is cited by Westerbeek and Linley (2012), in that not all events have strong enough brands to be considered viable for co-branding. However, popular events like the FIFA World Cup, the Super Bowl, the Olympic Games, and the American Cup have strong brand images in their host destinations' source markets (Chalip & Costa, 2005). Their research provides alternative conceptualisations of destination branding through events that are linked to brand 'extensions', which, according to Aaker and Keller (1990), are another way of taking advantage of brand name recognition and image, especially in terms of entering new markets.

Nevertheless, the co-branding theory presents a basis for strategic destination branding through the hosting of sport tourism events. However, as limited to its brand image transfer, the concept of co-branding confines the scope of this particular study, which is to elicit stakeholder strategies aimed at attaining strategic destination branding outcomes through

sport, beyond the brand image. Therefore, the current study considers another strategic branding theory that is linked to sport event leveraging, which, seemingly, offers a larger opportunity and a greater means for strategic branding outcomes.

Sport event leveraging

While the essence of leveraging events to improve destination image is known as co-branding (Brown et al., 2004; Chalip & Costa, 2005), such branding is believed to benefit simply the brand image concept. From the aforementioned corresponding definitions of brands, it is clear that a unique brand identity and differentiation are also critical branding components, especially as it becomes increasingly important for destinations to survive within a globally competitive marketplace, where the fierce competition between destinations for a share of the tourists' heart, mind and wallet is growing significantly (Baker, 2007). Thus, the need for an extended, more definitive strategic approach to destination branding leading to enhanced socio-economic value is paramount. O'Brien and Chalip (2008) state that many major sport event stakeholders are now increasingly approaching events more strategically than they did in the past, with them looking beyond the immediate visitation-related impacts incurred. Instead, the stakeholders tend to plan for relatively long-term outcomes, entailing the encouragement of repeat visitation, the re-imaging of host communities in key markets, the fostering of business relationships, and the encouraging of inward trade, investment and employment. Chalip (2004) and O'Brien and Chalip (2008) refer to the phenomenon as the strategic leveraging of events to maximise their long-term benefits from events.

According to Chalip (2002:7), "the conscientious application of strategic leveraging recognises [that the event] is an opportunity to implement particular tactics which may foster and nurture the impacts that are desired". O'Brien and Chalip (2008:297) describe leveraging as "a more strategic ex ante, analytical approach [rather than being an] ex post, impacts-driven, outcomes orientation". Smith (2014) recognises that the notion of leverage is not merely a normative theoretical one, but that it is one that has been identified by means of analysing emerging practices. The researcher explains that leveraging is "an approach which views mega-events as a resource which can be levered to achieve outcomes which would not have happened automatically by staging an event" (Smith, 2014:15). Subsequently, leveraging aims to produce a 'forward thinking … strategic approach', in terms of which both the impacts and the ways of achieving them are planned prior to an event (Smith, 2014). On the issue of strategically altering a nation's poor brand image, Grix (2012) writes that leveraging should be systematically and purposefully employed.

The model of strategic leveraging of sport events was created by Chalip (2004) and supported by several different authors (Beesley & Chalip, 2011; Grix, 2012; Karadakis et al., 2010; Kellett et al., 2008; Knott et al., 2013; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008; Tichaawa & Bob, 2015). The concept of leveraging obtained particular potency around the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, in the form of the efforts made by the Australian stakeholders concerned to employ strategies for repositioning the country by means of capitalising on media, seeking convention business, minimising the diversion effect of the Games, and promoting both pre- and post-Games touring (Chalip, 2002). Indeed, O'Brien and Chalip (2008) note that, since the Australian case, it has become common for mega-events to be accompanied by strategic leveraging programmes. For example, at the 2002, 2006 and 2010 Commonwealth Games in Manchester, Melbourne and New Delhi, respectively, as well as at the 2003 Brisbane Rugby World Cup, and at every Olympic Games since Sydney 2000, each host nation involved has employed the leveraging of programmes to enhance the host destination brand, and to foster tourism and business development. Such mega-events predominantly invite opportunities for strategic sport event leveraging, due to their economic value and their global media coverage (see, for example, the respective studies of Chalip [2002] and Grix [2012] on the sport event leveraging of the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games and the German 2006 FIFA World Cup).

In addition to the brand image and the economic benefits for the host destination that can be attained through sport event leveraging, sport events can be treated as a leveraging resource for creating opportunities directed at social change and at environmental benefits for the host communities concerned (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). However, Chalip (2004) and O'Brien and Chalip (2008) state that the mechanisms through which nations leverage sport mega-events for their economic, social and reputational benefits are often vague, and are only just beginning to be understood. Furthermore, Smith (2014) raises a number of issues regarding leveraging, including practical issues concerning the right to use event branding and funding arrangements, and the configuring of optimal institutional framework/leadership responsibilities.

Chalip (2004) and Ziakas (2018) recognise the importance of adding an event portfolio, consisting of home-grown, recurring (annual) events, to a destination marketing strategy. In doing so, sport leveraging should allow the destinations concerned to optimise their reach (in terms of the number of market segments involved) and frequency (referring to the number of times that there is exposure to events, by way of various communication means, at the host

destination) when hosting the different events during the duration of a once-off mega-event. Moreover, destinations are considering using combinations of business- or vacation-based portfolios (Hankinson, 2004, 2005), which can further extend their reach to other tourism markets. Aaker (2004) asserts that a destination brand portfolio strategy is one in which the goals are to form synergy, leverage and clarity within the portfolio, as well as to create relevant, differentiated, and energised brands. Such branding, subsequently, ties in with the concept of sport event leveraging, as advocated by Chalip (2004, 2014, 2017). Encapsulating the event leveraging framework that infers strategic destination branding, Chalip (2004) proposes a schematic representation of event leveraging (see Figure 2.1). The model starts with the portfolio of events as the leveragable resource that leads to an opportunity for leverage, which, subsequently, influences the strategic objectives set out in terms of the stakeholder policies. The strategic objectives are linked both to the optimising of trade and revenue, as well as to the enhancing of the destination brand image. Consequently, the set strategic objectives should yield various destination branding outcomes.
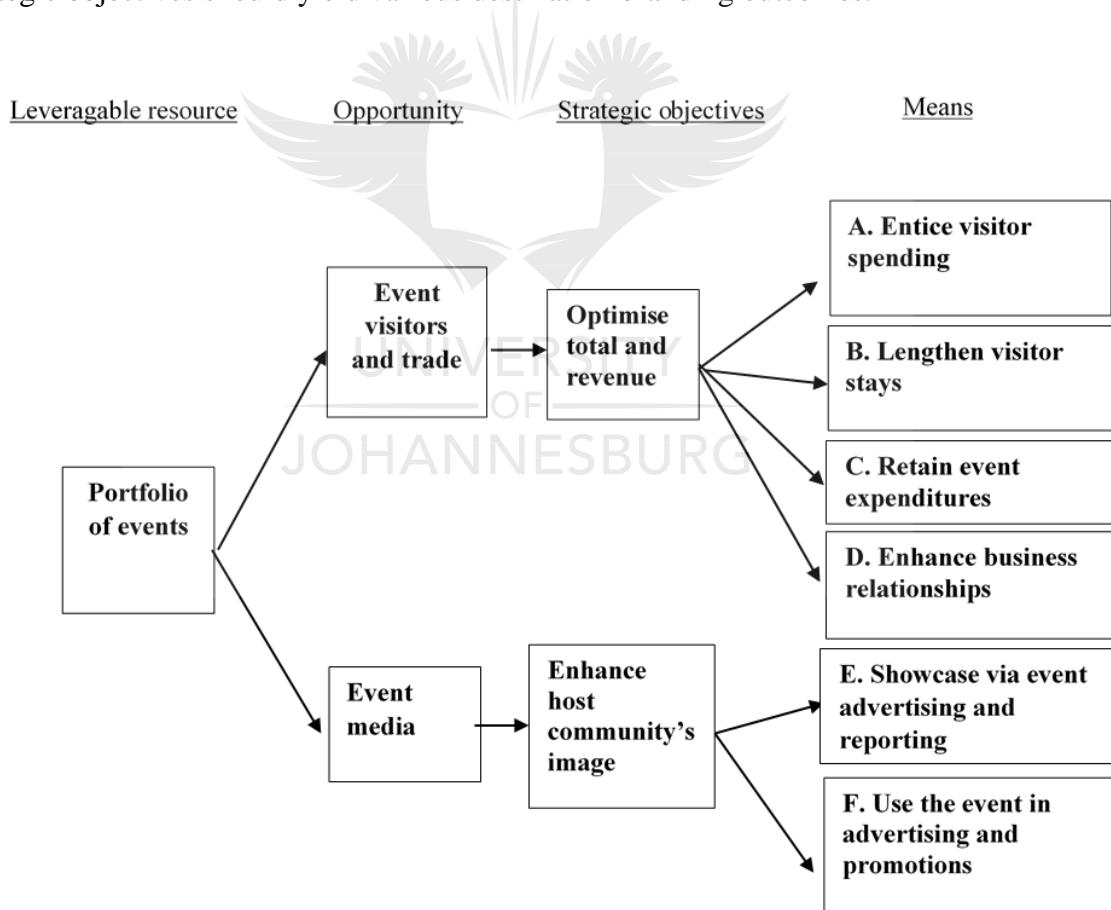
Figure 2.1: Event leveraging model
Chalip (2004:229)

Although few empirical studies on the event leveraging model exist, most of the reviewed studies were applied in the developed context (see Boukas, Ziakas & Boustras, 2013; O'Brien

& Chalip, 2008; Weed, 2008). Thus, the scope and flexibility in applying the model in terms of developing destination contexts is questionable. Moreover, while the sport event leveraging model was justified by hosting of the 2000 Olympic Games, it is expected that the sport event leveraging research will tend, predominantly, to focus on the mega-event. However, the above further limits the scope of the leveraging theory to mega-events, and neglects the relatively small-scale events that, increasingly, are being hosted by various cities throughout the world. Therefore, as the current study considers the developing nation context, it accounts for the neglected focus on the developing destination context. Moreover, with a specific focus on the home-grown sport tourism event, it further extends the scope of research to include the small-scale event. The following section discusses the importance of strategic destination branding for developing destinations, and derives a viable, and more applicable, framework and model for sport event leveraging within the particular context mentioned.

Strategic destination branding in terms of the developing context

Although place and destination branding studies of the developing nations have attained particular interest among the relevant scholars, they still remain extremely limited compared to the number of studies that have been done on the developed nations. More recently, empirical studies undertaken on city, nation, and destination branding in the developing context have been seen to emerge at an exponential rate (Bama & Tichaawa, 2015; Berkowitz, Gjermano, Gomez & Schafer, 2007; Cornelissen & Swart, 2006; Curi et al., 2011; De Almeida et al., 2015; Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009; Jago et al., 2010; Knott et al., 2012; Lepp & Gibson, 2011; Nyikana, Tichaawa & Swart, 2014; Prayag, 2007; Rein & Shields, 2007; Tichaawa & Bob, 2015). Rein and Shields' (2007) research focuses specifically on place branding sports and the strategies for differentiating emerging, transitional, negatively viewed and newly industrialised nations. The studies mentioned all focus on the significant role of sport as a strategic branding tool within the developing context. For example, Cornelissen and Swart (2006) and Jago et al. (2010) state that, for the developing nations, sport mega-events can act as a catalyst for destination brand development, as well as offering a platform for international profiling that might attract repeat visits. Based on such sentiments, and on what has previously been hypothesised about strategic destination branding through sport, in terms of the significant role played by sport in relation to the developed nations, it is safe to assume that sport and tourism have become significant social and economic factors, as well as being outstanding value enhancers for both the developed and the developing world (Swart & Bob, 2012).

Notwithstanding the significance of sport in the developing context, what is of particular concern in such a destination context is the belief that the perception of reality is more important than the reality itself (Curi et al., 2011; Knott et al., 2013). Anholt (2007a) recognises that such a premise holds particularly true for the South African brand. He states that South Africa has been faced with branding challenges similar to those of most developing nations, particularly in terms of the relative unfamiliarity of its brand, as well as its faulty stereotyping (Anholt, 2007a:75). Broadly speaking, the researcher states that Africa suffers from what he refers to as a 'continent brand effect'. In terms of such an effect, little differentiation occurs between the individual countries in Africa, which causes all countries on the continent (apart from South Africa) to share the same negative reputation. According to Anholt (2007a:75):

> Even a relatively prosperous and well-governed nation like Botswana ends up sharing perceptions of violence with Rwanda, of corruption with Nigeria, of poverty with Ethiopia and of famine from Sudan.

To ensure brand differentiation, Anholt (2007a) suggests that, while, currently, 'brand Africa' defines the brands of all the countries involved, the term, and the perceptions thereof, should be replaced with the distinctively different brands of the 53 separate and unique nations, each of which has its own story, people, history, culture, products, services, landscape, and government. However, if the perceptual images of the African countries persist, the current efforts of destination brand management might remain elusive.

In addition to the brand image (perceptual) challenge, Curi et al. (2011) and Donaldson and Ferreira (2009) allude to other developing destination challenges, such as crime (in terms of safety and security), especially during event hosting, the many urbanised poor, the high HIV infection rate, the political difficulties, the lack of basic education and housing services, as well as the poverty gap between the rich and the poor, which essentially contribute to the rising crime statistics. Similar concerns, including those relating to social inequities, transport and sport facilities, remained widespread throughout Rio de Janeiro around their hosting of the 2007 Pan American Games (Curi et al., 2011). The daunting challenges surrounding developing nations essentially implicate the brand development and positioning of such nations, as they are viewed as being inconsistent and questionable, especially in terms of competing against more developed and reputable nations, like Germany, which has a consistently advanced and reputable social, economic and political system (Curi et al., 2011).

Notwithstanding the unique challenges faced by the developing destination brands, Lepp and Gibson (2011) specifically mention that Africa is an outstandingly wealthy continent, in respect of its culture, nature and landscape. The two researchers state that, with such diversity, Africa has the potential to attract millions of tourists to the continent each year. However, Africa's tourism potential remains largely unrealised. Donaldson and Ferreira (2009) further recognise that Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban have become major urban tourism destinations in South Africa, tapping into the growing market of sports and events, among other markets, to boost their world-class destination brands. The cities concerned have managed to attract international repeat visits and extended stays by including pre- and/or post-event trips in their itineraries. Linked to the aforementioned unique challenges of the developing nations, Donaldson and Ferreira (2009) note that, while there is still no integrated national tourist and security plan in place, during the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa, both Mpumalanga and Western Province – considered to be popular international tourism destinations – realised opportunities to leverage the experience and lessons during the event, for the purpose of combating unique challenges. Lepp and Gibson (2011) further recognise the strategic efforts of South Africa to host sport events for the brand re-imaging of the 'new South Africa', especially post-1994, when the country's apartheid (i.e. segregation) era came to an end. In the case of Rio de Janeiro, the city administration created a so-called 'Strategic Plan' and 'Social Agenda' to prioritise responding to their problems (Curi et al., 2011). Both documents promised to use the Pan-American Games to transform the city's brand.

Notably, South Africa has hosted numerous international sport events, including the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the 1996 African Nations Cup, the 2003 Cricket World Cup, and the first-ever FIFA World Cup hosted by an African country, in 2010. Notwithstanding the country's publicised social problems, including crime, political instability, unemployment, the lack of basic education and housing services, as well as a high human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection rate, as reported by Curi et al. (2011) and Donaldson and Ferreira (2009), the sport events, particularly the 2010 FIFA World Cup, symbolised new hope for re-imaging the country.

The importance of home-grown sport to the South African brand
Various South African cities have come to invest in home-grown sport events, in an effort to achieve destination branding outcomes. The significant impact of home-grown sport (including teams, personalities, sport facilities, and sport events) on the development of the Cape Town city brand has undergone in-depth empirical study by Knott and Hemmonsbey

(2015). The study revealed the mega-event to still be the most profitable for the leveraging of destination branding outcomes, which was largely due to the global media coverage around the event, the international magnitude of sport mega-events, and the large amount of sponsorship attracted. However, the critical role played by such home-grown local sport events as the cycle tours and marathons is also deemed important, due to their recurring nature, which, consequently, provides opportunities for return visits, economically benefiting the tourist industry through the utilisation of such accommodation as guesthouses, catering facilities, and hotels, as well as combating the prevailing unemployment challenge by means of creating both permanent and temporary jobs. Knott and Hemmonsbey (2015) further disclose the strategic vision and subsequent strategy of Cape Town stakeholders to position their brand as a 'Gateway Destination for Sport and Events' in Africa, as the city has increasingly come to realise the significance of sport to the destination brand.

Elsewhere, Maharaj, Sucheran and Pillay (2006) point out that the city of Durban seeks to position their city brand continuously by means of offering both international and domestic tourists a unique environment through its hosting of major sporting events. Turco, Swart, Bob and Moodley (2003) particularly identify that major annual events have become a trademark for Durban, and that a substantial number of tourists have come to visit the city specifically for the purpose of attending, or of participating in, sport-related events. By stimulating tourism growth, Durban has evolved to playing a major role in positioning their city and province as a destination to which to travel. As a result of the examples presented by both Cape Town and Durban, and in line with the national government's focus on sport tourism, many other leading cities in South Africa, such as Mangaung and Soweto, have come to use home-grown sport events to attract tourism and destination branding benefits.

2.3 Stakeholder theory

The stakeholder theory has been advanced and justified in the management literature since 1984 (Rowley, 1997). While the stakeholder theory is predominantly grounded in the management context, the theory can certainly be applied in terms of multidisciplinary studies. A sizeable industry-focused body of literature covers destination marketing issues from the perspective of stakeholder involvement (Morgan et al., 2003). A central problem in the evolution of stakeholder theory has been the confusion that has prevailed about its nature and purpose. For example, stakeholder theory has been used, either explicitly or implicitly, for descriptive purposes (Donaldson & Preston, 1995). The methodological objective of the current study, which is of a descriptive nature, is to elicit and analyse key stakeholder

perceptions and responses regarding various sport, leveraging and destination branding concepts. For the above-mentioned reason, the stakeholder theory, as well as in-depth stakeholder analysis, of those who are specifically involved in sport and destination branding were considered worthy of consideration.

Sheehan, Ritchie and Hudson (2007) extensively analyse the asymmetrical stakeholder interdependencies among the city's hotels and destination marketing organisations (DMOs). In their formative work on the stakeholder theory, Sheehan et al. (2007) claim that, in developing the theory, efforts were made to explore issues of stakeholder identification, analysis and management. The definition of stakeholders is multidimensional. While Cochran (1994) takes a relatively narrow view of stakeholders as actors with a direct link to an organisation, a broader view states that stakeholders include virtually any actor in society (see Sheehan et al., 2007). In his seminal work on stakeholder theory, Freeman (1984) presents the first broadly constructed definition of the stakeholder theory as pertaining to "any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the firm's objectives" (see also Rowley, 1997:889). Furthermore, Donaldson and Preston (1995:67) posit that stakeholders are identified as "persons or groups with legitimate interests in the procedural and/ or substantive aspect of corporative activity", regardless of whether the corporation concerned has any corresponding functional interest in them. Such a concept of stakeholders extends the narrowly defined concept of Cochran (1994) to include those actors who assume their role as stakeholders to lie within the ambit of a certain organisation or corporation.

Differentiate stakeholders from one another enables enhanced conceptualisation of the stakeholder's (potential) relationship with an organisation (Sheehan et al., 2007). Freeman (1984) distinguishes stakeholders into both primary and secondary stakeholder groups. Clarkson (1995:106) defines a primary stakeholder as being "one without whose continuing participation the corporation cannot survive as a going concern". The researcher concerned further defines secondary stakeholders as:

> … those who influence or affect, or are influenced or affected by, the corporation, but they are not engaged in transactions with the corporation and are not essential for its survival (Clarkson, 1995:107).

Moreover, Goodpaster (1991) differentiates strategic stakeholders as those who can affect a firm's performance, ranging from moral stakeholders to those who are affected thereby (see also Sheehan et al., 2007).

After the relevant stakeholders have been identified and differentiated, Sheehan et al. (2007) advocate for management to employ appropriate strategies that will guide their interaction with the other actors. The researchers concerned note that successful stakeholder management has the potential to lead to the establishment of a substantial competitive advantage through the forming and maintenance of relationships. They further argue that the support of all stakeholder groups is necessary for the continued survival of an organisation. Hence, contrary to traditional management, which concentrates mostly on the internal stakeholders, stakeholder management attends to those stakeholders who are internal/external to, or who interface with, an organisation (Waligo, Clarke & Hawkins, 2013). Therefore, the old management approaches failed to consider the wide range of groups that can affect, or that can be affected by, the functioning of an organisation. More specific to destinations and to the current study, Morgan et al. (2003) point out that the management of stakeholders has to be proactive, with particular attention being given to the development of partnerships. It is, therefore, imperative that the relevant stakeholders should agree on the final vision statement that will provide a meaningful and operational 'dream' for the future of their destination, being one that reflects the values of destination stakeholders, while not ignoring the realities and constraints of the marketplace (Morgan et al., 2003).

2.3.1 Stakeholder analysis aimed at sport and destination branding

Essentially, the stakeholder concept holds that an organisation occupies the centre of a network of relationships that it has with various interested parties (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Hankinson, 2010; Houghton & Stevens, 2011; Sheehan et al., 2007). Morgan et al. (2010) advocate the importance of establishing strategic stakeholder collaborations between various stakeholders groups to achieve successful place branding. The strategic partnerships can be achieved through the context of sport, and particularly sport events, with the intention of securing destination brand-related benefits (Trueman et al., 2004).

According to Morgan et al. (2003) and Palmer (2002), tourism destinations are, arguably, one of the most difficult 'products' to market, as such marketing involves a large number of stakeholders and a brand image over which the DMOs have very little control. Correspondingly, Morgan et al.'s (2010) view that, regardless of where destinations are in their life cycle compared to product and service brands, DMOs face peculiar branding challenges, including the number of multi-stakeholder groups that destinations have to consider. Consequently, destinations involve a high degree of complexity and fragmentation,

being made up of complex entities, and collections of individuals and communities, with the actions of interdependent, multiple stakeholders impacting on the rest of the actors in the community (Lichrou, O'Malley & Patterson, 2010). For all intents and purposes, the challenge is that the branding of destinations requires collaboration between independent groups of various stakeholders, as well as negotiation of the interests of various parties. For the above reason, Lichrou et al. (2010) note that place and destination marketers have expressed interest in the concept of stakeholders. With reference to event hosting, Munien and Majola (2012) note the importance of both pre- and post-event stakeholder engagement, especially in terms of building local awareness and preparedness, as well as in relation to establishing networks and linkages amongst stakeholders who stand to benefit not only from the event itself, but from the destination brand as well.

Although no definitive list of stakeholders identified in the destination branding literature exists, Houghton and Stevens (2011), Ooi and Pedersen (2010) and Sheehan et al. (2007), in particular, note the existence of the following stakeholders in the involvement of branding destinations: local residents; the community; the local, regional and national authorities; and the DMOs. Morgan et al. (2003) include environmental groups and agencies, as well as trade associations and the wider private sector, in the list. The researchers concerned, however, present a challenge for destination marketers to make the destination brand 'live' for the visitors to be able to experience the promoted brand value and the unique authenticity of the place. They state that, in terms of such an undertaking, DMOs are vulnerable to a variety of political pressures, so that they have to reconcile a range of local and regional interests, and to promote an identity that is acceptable to a number of different stakeholders. In the current study context, some of the aforementioned stakeholders are clearly deemed to be of particular importance to destination branding through sport event leveraging. For example, the local and national governments play a key role in providing access, in creating opportunities, in stimulating funding, and in encouraging support for sport events to take place in various cities. In association with the DMOs, such government departments as the Department of Tourism and Development are also key to the branding of the South African destination, which is directed at international tourists through the adoption of various marketing and communication strategies. Domestic and international visitors are regarded as equally important stakeholders in the current study's context, due to their influence on the brand image of the destination, especially during the hosting of sport events. In addition, the private sector, in terms of sport event organisations, together with their sport brand sponsors, are

deemed critical as a result of their direct involvement in sport event hosting, as well as due to their (un)planned branding of the South African landscape through the broadcasting media.

For sport event leveraging towards the gleaning of destination branding benefits, the current study recognises the need for a collaborative network to be established across all stakeholder groups. While the collaborative approach to stakeholder management still requires some clarification in terms of the responsibility of each stakeholder involved (Ooi & Pedersen, 2010), the proposed views, presented by Donaldson and Preston (1995), Hankinson (2010), Houghton and Stevens (2011), and Sheehan et al. (2007) on stakeholder analysis, refer to the 'centre of a network of relationships' on which the present study is grounded.

Thus, as highlighted above, the current study addresses multiple groups of stakeholders who are deemed to influence, or to be influenced by, the decisions and activities concerning the national policy developments around sport events, leveraging and destination branding. The stakeholders are, thus, identified as the local community and the international event visitors, the key DMOs, the sport event organisers, and the investment and destination brand stakeholders, who are all associated with the South African brand. The stakeholder theory and analysis is also useful for establishing stakeholder relationships and collaboration, as it considers the sport event leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events for strategic destination branding outcomes which, in essence, considers the strategic alliances between the various brand stakeholders and the authorities.

2.4 Chapter summary

The present chapter comprised a multiconceptual framework, including (destination) branding, sport event leveraging and stakeholder theory. The chapter demonstrated the interrelatedness of the theories identified, and their application to the focus of the current study. It started the discussion on the broader branding theory by highlighting the various concepts of what constitutes a brand, and, subsequently, how the branding theory evolved to include destinations that have become part of the widely contested discourse. Subsequently, the conceptual framework of destination branding, as posited by Hankinson (2004), underpins the destination brands as communication devices, perceptual entities, and value enhancers and relationships, being inclusive of the commonly cited branding theories and, consequently, depicting the study's context.

Moreover, strategic branding through sport, more specifically as it relates to Chalip's (2004) conceptualisation of sport event leveraging, outlines the specific benefits that can be gained for destination brands through home-grown sport event leveraging. With a specific focus on the developing of nation brands, the current chapter considered the unique perceptual challenges of the developing South African context (including basic health and safety, poverty, political instability, and basic education and housing) (Curi et al., 2011; Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009). Within the developing context, such challenges were important to consider, as the basis for the derivation of a more conclusive sport event leveraging model, which might potentially combat such challenges.

The final theory presented in the present chapter was linked to the stakeholder theory, by including an in-depth stakeholder analysis to do with both sport and destination branding. The importance of the theory to the current study was highlighted through the stressing of its usefulness to the establishment of stakeholder relationships and collaborations, as it considered the sport event leveraging of home-grown events for the attainment of strategic destination branding outcomes. Identifying a definitive list of potential stakeholders involved in the context of the study also proved to be useful.

Figure 2.2 below depicts the amalgamated multiconceptual model upon which the present study was grounded.
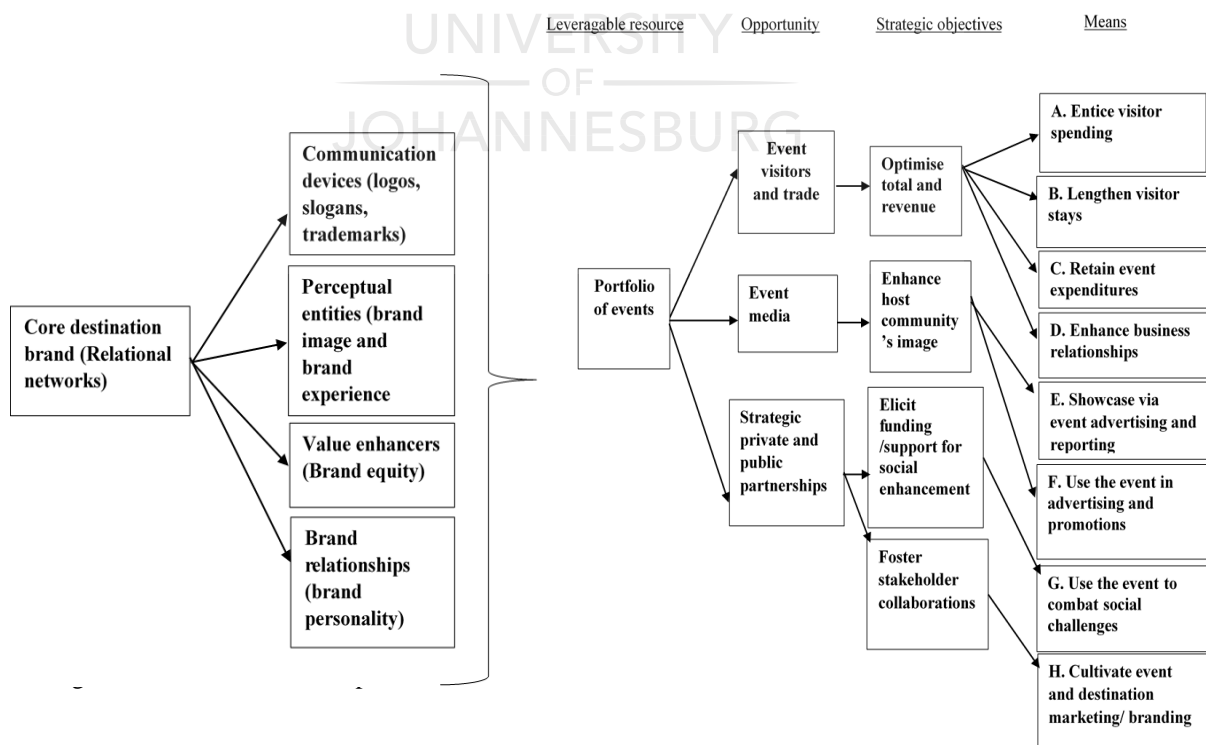
Figure 2.2: Conceptual framework

Adapted from Hemmonsbey, Tichaawa and Knott (2018:93)

The above figure includes, and thus contextualises, the interrelationships of the above-mentioned theories on destination branding, sport event leveraging and stakeholders within the environment in which they operate, which, in the present case, is the developing nation context. The model illustrates the destination branding concepts comprising the core destination brand posited by Hankinson (2004) as being a 'relational network', including consideration of the concepts brand identity, image, value, and personality. The brand concepts impact on the sport event leveraging model, and on the portfolio of events, as posited by Chalip (2004). The model was, however, adapted to the developing context to include the opportunity for creating strategic partnerships through event hosting. Such hosting entails strategic planning and objective setting along the lines of eliciting funding and support for local social enhancement, as well as establishing strategic public and private partnerships, so as to combat unique social challenges and to cultivate event and destination branding, which are two important means of setting destination brands in the developing context.

CHAPTER THREE
THE STRATEGIC BRANDING OF PLACES, NATIONS AND DESTINATIONS

3.1 Introduction

Chapter Two (providing the conceptual framework) has given insight into the key concepts and theories on which the current study is grounded. The literature review chapters to follow present a thematic structure around different themes to do with destination branding, sport tourism, and leveraging literature. The focus of the chapters is on the debates undertaken concerning the emerging destination context, with the purpose of the chapters being to identify, critically, the gaps in the extant research that inform the current research.

While the conceptual framework chapter outlined the clear constructs of brands and destination branding, the present chapter delves into the analysis of, and the debate surrounding, brands and branding in the context of the current study. Accordingly, with the focus on home-grown sport events and, in particular, on sport event leveraging, the chapter starts with clarifying the brand and the branding literature. A review of the conceptual framework of destination branding, as adopted by Hankinson (2004), illustrates the relevancy of the framework for the particular research undertaken in the given context. The chapter discusses the place and nation-branding literature, with an emphasis on sport tourism events, and it provides a detailed account of the destination branding discourse as an emerging discourse within the developing African destination context. The chapter, which further delves into a discussion of the South African destination brand, outlines the role of sport as a platform and catalyst for destination branding through the adoption of sport event leveraging practices.

3.2 Clarifying the nature of brands and branding

The conceptual framework chapter made clear that the concept of brands and branding cannot be narrowly defined. However, in terms of the advanced definition of a brand, as posited by Chalip and Costa (2005), a brand can be seen as being linked to destinations and places that, in relation to their physical, emotional, social, and symbolic elements, creates an overall impression in the minds of (potential) visitors. Confirming the significance of studying general branding theories as part of place and destination branding, Hanna and Rowley (2011) argue that, while there is a case for arguing that the foundation of place branding is found in the tourism marketing field, there is an increased need for places to consider branding within

a wide range of contexts. The above is especially true "in respect to the management of a place brand image and the brand experience for a wide range of stakeholders" (Hanna & Rowley, 2011:458). Accordingly, the current argument stresses the importance of examining brand associations, components and attributes, and their relevancy, in the current study context of places and destinations.

3.2.1 Describing brand associations

Brand identity

A brand is usually referred to as a form of ownership that is linked to identity, in other words as a form of such that identifies the owner of a product or service (Keller, 2008). Moreover, a brand identity is believed to deliver a promise of value that is associated with a product, service or organisation (Ghodeswar, 2008). Sarabia-Sanchez and Cerda-Bertomeu (2017) posit that, much like a commercial brand, a place brand (and so, too, a destination brand) needs to commit to an identity that essentially generates value for its internal and external publics. For the above-mentioned reason, brand identity is important not only for the competitive global positioning of places in a highly advanced global environment, but such identity might also deliver the related promises that the place makes through brand communication.

Kapferer (2005), Berrozpe, Campo and Yagüe (2017), and Keshtidar, Sahebkaran, Talebpour and Kalashi (2018) note that the brand identity of a place resides in the place name. Thus, brands are entangled in inescapable special associations (Pike, 2009), and their identity is fixed in the geography of the place. However, for Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013), developing a place brand permits the expression of characteristics of identity that emerge from stakeholder input and negotiations. Thus, place brand identity appears to represent more than just a fixed place name. For the above reason, Braun, Eshuis, Klijn and Zenker (2018) and Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005) argue that stakeholders should ensure that the place brand identity pursued should be unique to places, especially if they want to be recognised as such, if they want to separate themselves from their competitors, and if they want to be consumed in a manner fitting to the objectives of the place. The above is especially true in the context of developing nations, whose brand identities are increasingly competing with the more established identities of the developed nations. Consequently, the brand identity could be viewed as a characterised logo, trademark or symbol that is integrated into the place name for the purpose of gaining superior benefits through the sending of effective brand communication messages.

The potential benefits derived from an established brand identity are linked to the functional, emotional, and self-expressive benefits concerned (Kapferer, 2012).

While the aforementioned benefits are elaborated on in the subsection concerning the brand components, it is argued here that it is of utmost importance for a place brand to possess a clear value proposition that constitutes the brand identity, so as to facilitate the derivation of the related benefits (Kapferer, 2012). Sports (events) are globally viewed as being powerful value propositions for positioning place brand identities, for the attaining of various branding benefits (Hemmonsbey & Knott, 2016). Melbourne, in Australia, remains one of the prime examples of a city that has positioned itself as one of the leading destination brands globally, due to its brand identity (logo), which, through the city's vision, has come to encapsulate and showcase an ever-growing portfolio of initiatives, including sport, events, programmes and other activities and services for which the city is well-known.

Elsewhere, the findings of Hemmonsbey and Knott (2016) show that the Cape Town brand has recently redeveloped its identity (in the form of its logo and slogan) from one that was believed to be misaligned with the city's vision. The redevelopment was done to improve the city's areas of distinctiveness, as well as to indicate its areas of improvement and possibilities in regard to the future impacts of the city's strategies and developments. Certainly, subsequent to the alteration of the city's brand identity, and to its newly adopted vision and alignment with various services and events, Cape Town City has received multiple awards, including the 2018 World Travel Award for being 'Africa's Leading Festival and Events Destination of 2018'.

In keeping with the developing destination context, Knott et al. (2017) note the integral role of sport in establishing the brand identity of developing nations. With reference to the 2010 FIFA World Cup, Knott et al. (2017) urge developing nations to engage in national identity-building though sport, especially where there is a strong imperative for such nations to establish clear global identities. Moreover, sport events are believed to contribute to the social identity of a nation, as can be seen in the hosting of the 1995 Rugby World Cup (RWC) in South Africa (Nauright, 1997). The event played a key role in uniting the people of South Africa, especially at a time when the nation had just emerged from its long-standing apartheid (i.e. segregated) era. Similarly, Knott et al. (2017) recognise that, 15 years after South Africa's hosting of the RWC, the 2010 FIFA World Cup has achieved similar nation-branding outcomes for South Africa. Thus, the creation of a consistent brand identity through sport

event hosting is emphasised, with it being especially critical in terms of the developing context, in relation to which brand identities have a long-standing negative history. The above-mentioned examples show that brand identity helps destinations to establish, and to clarify, the opportunities and limitations of place branding (Kavaratzis, 2018). Consequently, this illustrated discussion indicates that the brand identity of a place should, both effectively and actively, be used and leveraged through the value propositions that can be linked to sports, entertainment or events, so as to enable the reaping of brand-related benefits.

Brand image

Brand image, as a key concept in marketing, has been recognised as being the topic of many researchers (Konecnik, 2006; see also Fathabadi, Nejad & Alizadeh, 2017). Hankinson (2005) defines an image as the beliefs, ideas, and perceptions of a person about an object. So, in relation to tourism destinations, a similar reference is made to tourism destination images as beliefs, ideas and perceptions about a tourism-related product that is linked to the destination brand. As a result, Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) posit that a powerful place brand generates perceptions of internal and external markets that influence the place brand identity. According to Anholt (2007a), perceptions consist of a variety of associations, memories, expectations, and other feelings of a product, service or organisation, with the associations and feelings of people becoming important drivers of people's behaviour when selecting a destination to which to travel. For example, Aziz, Kefallonitis and Friedman (2012) note that most people would likely prefer to visit San Francisco in the USA over visiting Istanbul, Turkey. Despite similarities between the two cities, in the form of their prominent bridges and diversity, issues around brand awareness, security and quality might affect the visitors' destination preferences. Albeit that Istanbul is the only city that is situated on two continents, with a rich heritage, history, and culture, as well as having characteristics of a vibrant modern life, the lack of awareness of such sites and attributes may keep people from visiting the destination.

Significantly, Iglesias, Markovic, Singh and Sierra (2017) consider the destination's brand heritage (in terms of its legacy) as either positively or negatively influencing the impact of customer perceptions on the brand image. For such a reason, consistent brand awareness is a critical concept in terms of places and destinations. Consequently, Buhalis (2000) interprets the brand image that is created for destinations similarly to how visitors view brands subjectively based on their travel itinerary, their cultural background, their purpose of visit, their educational level, and their past experience, with perceptions of the brand image being formed prior to their visit to the destinations concerned. In terms of the above, Iglesias et al.

(2017) recognise the need for managers and stakeholders to reinforce the destination brand images consistently, as doing so can facilitate the correction of negative perceptions. In the subsequent sections in the present chapter, the South African destination brand is explained, and the brand image is contextualised as that of a developing nation. For the developing nations, it is even more important than it is for the developed nations to establish a strong organisation or network of organisations that are in charge of changing and reinforcing consistent brand images for the domestic and international publics. The current researcher argues that sport tourism events can be leveraged in such a way that brand awareness of the destination's image is communicated and protected.

The other brand associations, like the brand personality and brand equity, due to their integration with the brand attributes, are discussed in the subsequent 'brand attribute' section of the current chapter. The next section examines the brand components in the context of destination brands.

3.2.2   The nature of destination brand components

Brands are further categorised into two components, namely functional and symbolic. Aaker (2009) and De Chernatony and Riley (1998) argue that definitions that only denote the functional components of a brand, such as a logo, are too restricted to the functional components of a brand, like its product characteristics, and they have insufficient regard for the intangible components that are the essential aspects of a brand. The intangible components are linked to consumer needs for social approval, for personal or self-expression, or for self-esteem/emotional benefits (Aaker, 2009; Anholt, 2003; De Chernatony & Riley, 1998; Keller, 1993). Aaker (2009) agrees that such intangible components or symbolic features that are related to a brand are regarded as equal, if not as more important, than the functional components due to the benefits of establishing a long-term relationship with customers through the creation of emotional connections. Moreover, if the functional component offers a point of differentiation, competitors could easily copy the product.

Keller (1993) and Ekinci (2003) add an experiential component to a brand that relates to what the consumers feel like when they use the product. Alluding to the importance of the symbolic and experiential components, Aaker (2009) recommends that, while the functional component is the starting point for brand differentiation, the symbolic and experiential components are key to effective and strategic positioning, for achieving long-term customer relationships and loyalty.

From a destination brand perspective, Balakrishnan, Nekhili and Lewis (2011) find that the functional, symbolic and experiential components are equally critical for very different strategic reasons (see also Kladou, Kavaratzis, Rigopoulou & Salonika, 2016). For destinations, the functional components are related to the core function/service of the brand, which involves the physical justification for purchasing and visiting a destination. The functional characteristics, which are largely tangible in nature, contribute to the inherent advantages of the destination's product (Hankinson, 2004; Wood, 2007). In regard to the tourism concept, Keller (1993) specifically links the functional brand component with Maslow's motivation in terms of the association with the basic physiology and safety of the place. However, Hankinson (2004) points out that it is actually the organic images, consisting of perceptions that are built up over time and that are strongly associated with the brand, which are functional in nature. The images may include the history, heritage, and culture that are associated with tangible buildings and the architectural environment of the place.

The symbolic component of the destination's brand reflects the needs of customers beyond their physical requirements. The above manifests such higher order needs as self-expression, self-esteem and prestige (Hankinson, 2005; Wood, 2007). According to Mowle and Merrilees (2005), the symbolic component further evokes emotional values and feelings, giving destinations a relatively sustainable competitive advantage. The significance of the symbolic component is developed through the individual's socialisation process, making the brand capable of delivering social benefits (Aaker, 2009). For the above-mentioned reason, Ibrahim and Gill (2005) stress the importance of establishing relationships with the local population at the destination. The relationship can be seen in the friendliness of the locals, which becomes an important factor when the visitors reflect on their memories of their experiences at a particular destination. According to Gross, Brien and Brown (2008), satisfactory experiences further affect the word-of-mouth marketing strategies involved, which is the preferred choice for visitors when choosing destinations.

As a result of the memories obtained from visitor experiences, several researchers link the third brand component (i.e. the experiential component) to the symbolic components (see De Chernatony & Riley, 1998; Hankinson, 2004, 2005). The above is due to the experiential element notably showing how the brand relates to the visitor's self-concept, as well as to their instinctive likes and dislikes. Within the context of destination branding, and specifically in

relation to the tourism industry, Williams (2006) indicates that experiential marketing is a sensory process that creates value through entertainment, education, aestheticism, or escape.

While the above discussion clearly indicates the importance of both functional and symbolic components to destination brands, some studies show that customers prefer brands on the basis of their symbolic components, rather than on that of their functional components (Jamal & Goode, 2001). Thus, destination brands should focus only on a few tangible destination brand attributes, and increasingly on the symbolic and experiential components, which should live up to the promise level of the brand, and essentially further maximise the strategic vision of the destination's brand. The current study considers all brand components related to destinations. As the current study places particular focus on sport tourism events as a product of the destination, with sport being an activity attracting participants and spectators from afar, the brand-related experience was of primary interest to the current study.

3.2.3   Branding attributes of destination brands

The present section discusses the brand attributes that apply specifically to destinations, as postulated in terms of Hankinson's (2004) framework. The destination branding framework concerned is based on the construct of a brand as a relationship with consumers and other stakeholders, with its focus being on their behaviours, rather than on communication, as well as on reality, rather than on image. However, Hankinson (2004) recognises the general paucity of research relating to the role of stakeholder relationships and networking in the development of destination brands. The current study was, in part, aimed at proposing a conceptual framework for destination branding through the hosting of sport tourism events, thus involving the exploration of the role of stakeholders in sport and destination branding through co-branding and networking efforts for the development of the South African destination brand. Consequently, based on the findings of Hankinson (2004) and the current study's aims, the attributes of the proposed destination branding framework, as postulated by the aforementioned author, are discussed.

The conceptual framework consists of the following brand attributes that are discussed in depth in the following subsections: destination brands as communication devices that are linked to their identity (in the form of the associated logo, slogans and trademarks); brands as perceptual entities, referring to brands appealing to the consumer senses and emotions; brands as value enhancers leading to brand equity; and brands as relationships that communicate the

brand personality (Chernatony & Riley, 1998; De Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001; Hankinson, 2004; Louro & Cunha, 2001; Wood, 2000).

Brands as communication devices

A way in which brands are still commonly conceptualised is in terms of their unique brand identity, including logo and slogan design, which can be understood to be a channel of communication for brands (Anholt, 2005; De Chernatony & Riley, 1998). The key communication channel for product brands is linked to advertising, as it not only builds the brand identity of products, but it also generates sales through consumer purchases, as a result of the adverting message (Anholt, 2010b). Keller (2003:283) refers to marketing communications as "the means by which firms attempt to inform, persuade, and remind consumers, directly or indirectly, about the brands that they sell".

In the country-branding context, the traditional communication of logos and taglines has been proven to be entirely inconsequential, and perhaps counterproductive for nation brands. In his work, Anholt (2010b) identifies that one of the key deficiencies that many nations face in their approach to promoting their country's reputation is the fragmented and uncoordinated nature of their marketing communications activity that nations often undertake. In explanation of the above, Anholt (2010b:1) notes:

> … the idea that it is possible to 'do branding' to a country (or to a city or region) in the same way that companies 'do branding' to their products and services, is vain and foolish.

Anholt (2010b) asserts that there is not a shred of evidence in the related research to show that marketing communication programmes (i.e. slogans or logos) have ever succeeded, or could ever succeed, in altering the international perceptions of places. In fact, a study, conducted by the Anholt-GfK Roper 'Nation Brand Index' (2009), reveals that countries that have not been doing any marketing, except for their usual tourism and investment promotion, have shown noticeable improvements in their overall brand image during 2008. In contrast, during the same period, other country brands have remained stable, or have even shown a decline, in their image, despite their spending on advertising and public relations campaigns (Anholt, 2010b). Recent literature shows that, while countries increasingly desire direct foreign investment, they look towards expositions or expos as a platform for promoting and positioning themselves as active members on the global arena (Sevin & Eken, 2018).

While expos are highlighted as an alternative means of communicating a place brand, the question still remains as to how destinations communicate their brands. Also, which channel of communication is appropriate for promoting destination brands is up for debate. According to Balakrishnan et al. (2011), destination marketing has four potential outlets for the communicating of marketing information, namely, word of mouth (WOM), which is described as being the primary channel for information; mass media, like television; travel agents, tour operators, and exhibitions; and personal experiences. Although WOM is the preferable medium, with the Internet growing in usefulness to attract new users and to increase destination enjoyment, newspaper reports, magazine articles, and television and radios programmes are considered more trustworthy than are online forms of advertising (Balakrishnan, 2009; Huibin, Marzuki & Kostopoulou, 2018; Kasapi & Cela, 2017). However, since most such forms of communication mainly appeal to the locals and to domestic visitors, requiring massive funding to broadcast internationally (Knott & Hemmonsbey, 2015), the above may present a challenge, in terms of attracting global audiences to sport tourism events held at a destination.

In the current study context, however, in which sport tourism events require global attraction and attention, Chiu, Radzliyana and Hua (2018) suggest that the more flattering and appealing that the sport tourism websites appear, the more tourists tend to accept the messages that they convey, so that website usage is likely to increase among sport tourists in future. Consequently, from a sport tourism and destination marketing perspective, the information that is posted on websites influences visitors' decisions to attend particular events, as they are made aware of the events, and of the destinations at which the events take place.

Brands as perceptual entities

Louro and Cunha (2001) hypothesise that brands are perceptual entities that appeal to consumer senses and emotions. Building on the notion, Kotler and Gertner (2002) assert that brands should incite the beliefs, evoke the emotions, and prompt the behaviour of consumers towards purchasing consumer goods and services. Echoing such sentiments in terms of destination brands, Hosany, Ekinci and Uysal (2007:62) posit that "the emotional component of the destination image is responsible for the majority of the variance of the personality of the destination", which essentially influences consumer choice.

Conceptualising the destination brand as a perceptual entity, Buhalis (2000:97) states:

> [Destination brands are] interpreted subjectively [emotionally] by consumers, depending on their travel itinerary, cultural background, purpose of visit, educational level and past experience.

Supporting the above-mentioned belief, Simoes (2006:464) views brands, whether referring to products, services, organisations or locations (i.e. destinations), as "a consistent group of characters, images or emotions that consumers recall or experience". All the characteristics mentioned impact on consumer perceptions and, ultimately, affect the related purchasing decisions made.

However, due to the geographical diversity of destinations and the subjectivity of the destinations' image, it is argued that taking a generic approach to branding the destination image presents some limitations to forming clear perceptions of the brand (Pike, 2002; Tasci, Gartner & Tamer, 2007). To the above-mentioned end, Chen and Funk (2010) and Nelson (2005) posit that, by adopting a multi-attribute destination image portfolio, the specific destination image attributes can be assumed. The images usually represent the attractive attributes of a destination that are purposed to create a perceived destination, like the heterogeneous range of natural resources, built attractions, culture, activities, amenities, and accommodation (Pike, 2005). The information regarding the attributes would then assist both academics and practitioners in understanding which are considered meaningful. Furthermore, such projection would help "determine a destination's capacity for providing opportunities for potential visitors to acquire needs and benefits", as well as assisting to "influence tourist attitude formation and travel decisions" (Chen & Funk, 2010:243).

In the context of the current study, sport tourism as an attraction, in terms of the destination image, is also referred to. However, according to Getz (2002), the sport tourism context considers an additional frame of reference that is specifically linked to sport. According to Weed (2009), sport tourism results from the interaction between the characteristics of both sport and tourism as an integrated industry, and not, primarily, from either the sport or the tourism component. For the aforementioned reason, the role that travel plays in terms of the destination image, during the travel experience, and the intention to revisit the destination require clarification. The subsequent chapter reviews sport tourism, and, particularly, home-grown sport tourism event hosting, in-depth. Sport tourism is referred to in the present context as being an attraction of the destination image that is key to influencing the decision-making

process of visitors when selecting a destination to visit (for purposes of participating in and spectating sport tourism). The scope of the current study was on sport event leveraging that was aimed at retaining sport tourism for its destination branding benefits. Thus, the research undertaken considered the three consecutive decision-making stages in tourism, namely: pre-visitation (i.e. the destination choice made prior to travel); during visitation (i.e. the onsite experience and evaluation), and post-visitation (i.e. the experience evaluation and future behavioural intention) (Chen & Tsai, 2007).

Brands as value enhancers

According to Aaker (2004), Anholt (2003) and Kotler and Gertner (2002), brands go beyond differentiating products from their competitors, towards representing a promise of value. Other than promoting image, prestige and lifestyle, an essential requirement of branding is being able to attract, and to retain, customers by means of promoting value (see Balakrishnan, 2009). For destinations, Balakrishnan (2009) and Van Gelder (2008) advocate the destination's brand name as being a promise of value that essentially serves to attract and to retain business and tourism to a particular destination. The aforementioned authors further suggest that the name concerned must be protected and managed strategically, so as to maximise value. With reference to the commodities or destinations involved, Anholt (1999) implies that value resides primarily in the minds of consumers, and that, once the value is formed or created, it cannot be easily destroyed. Nevertheless, if a brand does not deliver on its promises of quality and value, or when the customers experience a diminution in service in relation to what was promised, the customer's value perceptions of the brand, as well as the reputation of the company, erode (Aaker, 2004; Anholt, 2003). Thus, in terms of delivering on promises made, maintaining brand value is a considerable responsibility for the brand owner concerned.

Clearly, the areas in which brands act as value enhancers vary across industries and contexts. From a managerial perspective, De Chernatony and Riley (1998) reveal that, among brand consultants, an implicit notion exists of the value systems that underpin the brand. Their study reveals that some brand consultants refer to brand value as the 'glue' that engraves the brand's vision and mission in consumers' minds, whereas others note that brands are about enhancing stakeholder value, which is a category of value that is often neglected in business management studies. In relation to commercial brands, Trueman et al. (2004) corroborate the findings of De Chernatony and Riley (1998), in terms of theorising value as the augmented characteristics of a product or service that consumers perceive as being relevant to their

functional, emotional and psychological needs. Anholt (2003) notes that the brand value that marketing adds to products and services is an intangible value. In the latter work, the aforementioned author addresses value from the brand owner's perspective, in that intangible value enables the producers and sellers involved to charge more for their products and services than they might otherwise have been able to do, as well as to maintain a strong, long-term relationship with their customers. As such, value signifies substantial monetary and brand loyalty advantages for the owners of the related products and services, with, consequently, brands becoming infinitely sustainable resources.

Interestingly, from a destination brand perspective, Wheeler, Frost and Weiler (2011) contend that taking a broad value-laden approach, including the development of a regional brand culture that accounts for, portrays, and reinforces the values of the local communities and of the tourism stakeholders in the region, can contribute to the overall sustainability of the destination concerned. The assumption of such an approach, especially in terms of it credibly and enduringly yielding the destination's objectives, is, therefore, of significance. Wheeler et al. (2011:23) conclude that:

> … a successfully implemented value-based branding process can help destination [authorities] fully understand how to better meet the needs and objectives of all stakeholders.

Furthermore, such strategising purposes to give full expression to the diversity and complexity of a destination, which, in turn, is likely to add to the appeal and the richness of experiences to be had there (Wheeler et al., 2011).

Moreover, the value that branding adds to a destination plays an important role in what the destination has to offer, and in what it will be able to offer in future. Anholt (2005) alludes to a country's vision, genius, and distinctive character, as well as to its people and its promise to the marketplace, as outlining the value of the intangible competitive assets of the country's brand. Van Gelder (2008) contemplates strategies that can be created to communicate the value of the destination that its businesses, institutions and residents want to retain, that will attract investors, visitors and talent, and that will make commentators and influencers recommend the particular destination over alternative destinations. To the above end, Baker (2007:22) suggests that destination branding should "deliberately create, develop and demonstrate brand value through appropriate 'on-brand' actions", which, according to Van

Gelder (2008:1), consequently consist of "investments, physical and economic plans, attraction programmes, events, communications, and the like".

Notably, destinations can enhance their own brand values, just as manufacturers enhance the brand equity of their commercial brands. The aforementioned advantages accrue through the brand value, which is either directly or indirectly enhanced for both the consumers and the producers of a firm. They also accumulate from the augmented destination branding benefits, in terms of the retention of business and tourism through strategic brand actions, which often leads to increased brand equity (Kapferer, 2005; Keller, 2003). Farquhar (1989) describes brand equity as being the value that is endowed by the brand in respect of the product. Consequently, the brand value, and, thus, its equity, typifies the conceptual framework of destination branding, as postulated by Hankinson (2004), who, in part, states that destination brands act as value enhancers, essentially leading to brand equity.

Brands as relationships

Brands can be conceptualised as relationships that communicate the brand personality (De Chernatony & Segal-Horn, 2001). The brand personality consists of the humanlike traits of a brand (for example, warmth, positivity, friendliness, etc.) that provide additional knowledge to the customer, as well as forming strong experience-related connections (Aaker, 1997). From a destination brand perspective, the concept of brands as relationships is clearly critical, especially as destinations comprise different groups of stakeholders who, in tandem, contribute to the destinations' brand. Therefore, Hankinson (2004:110) proposes a "relational network brand" concept for tourist destinations that conceptualises the destination brand as a core brand personality, positioning and reality. The relational brand network encompasses various stakeholder relationships, including consumer, primary service, media and brand infrastructure ones. Moreover, Wheeler et al. (2011) identify a brand as befitting to a destination that it represents as well, so as to reflect a network of stakeholder relations that embrace their values and objectives. The above allows the brand promise to be fulfilled with a reduced potential for conflict and disagreement over the brand communication and visitor experience.

Wheeler et al. (2011) explain that the diverse and fragmented nature of destinations linked to its wide range of stakeholder groups, which emerges from consultation with a full spectrum of stakeholders, is challenging. According to the researchers, the above consequently suggests "issues relating to governance", as well as "issues around the important role of relational

networks as part of the framework of destination branding" (Wheeler et al., 2011:24). To overcome such diversity and fragmentation, Wheeler et al. (2011) propose granting key opportunities to leverage the brand values, identities and equity of the relatively small, local brands that thereby benefit the overall destination brand through joint and/or co-branding initiatives.

As the current study focuses, in part, on the impact of sport events on the South African destination brand, it includes consideration of a multiple group of stakeholders that, essentially, form a strategic relational network in terms of branding the nation through sport tourism events. Thus, the arguments that are discussed in the present section emphasise the strategic relationships of stakeholders (in terms of both sport and destination branding) during the hosting and leveraging of sport for the development of the South African brand.

3.2.4   The importance of brand provenance

In addition to the aforementioned brand attributes that make up the destination branding conceptual framework, one brand attribute that is fundamental to the complex makeup of especially international brands is the influence of brand provenance on consumer perceptions of the brand (Anholt, 1998, 1999). International consumer brands tend to have a strong, consistent international association with the countries from which they come or in which they originate. "In many cases, the imagery used by the commercial brands is closely linked with the attributes of their provenance" (Anholt, 1998:395). For example, Burberry (a venerable British clothing brand) and British Airways are clearly associated with England; Chanel (fashion brand) and Citroën (motor vehicle brand) are linked to France; and Ferrari (a motor vehicle brand) is linked to Italy (Anholt, 1999).

Brijs (2006) and Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) express a belief that it is the understanding of the cognitive, affective and conative components that comprise the attitude of the people, enabling evaluation of the images of the country and of its influences on the target market's behaviour. Thus, in addition to the perceptual views discussed by Anholt (1999), the knowledge that people hold of a place, its people, and the country's products, and the information that people have about a country, arising from their emotional responses to it, are equally important to consider in terms of coming to an understanding of effective brand connotations (Giraldi, Maheshwari, Mariutti & Konstantopoulou, 2018).

The importance of provenance for nation brands is comprehensively discussed by Anholt (1998, 1999, 2002), with it being supported by a number of studies, like those of Dinnie (2003), Herz and Diamantopoulos (2017), and Zeinalpour, Shahbazi and Ezzatirad (2013). Indeed, the issue of provenance holds significant advantages, as well as great expectations, for the country concerned. For example, commercial brands can create or enhance the perception of a nation, with it affecting the brand equity, loyalty, distinctiveness, and associations (Herz & Diamantopoulos, 2017; San Martín, Herrero & De los Salmones, 2018; Yasin, Noor & Mohamad, 2007). However, Anholt (1998) argues that, while the link between certain brands and their provenance can become significantly powerful through the undertaking of consistently prestigious marketing, it is difficult to establish whether the perception of the quality of the brand derives from the brand itself, or from its provenance, and vice versa. Moreover, when consumers are unfamiliar with a country, they increasingly rely on the country of origin's (COO's) information to serve as a reflection of the destination's image. As a result, countries with a more favourable image tend to receive a relatively positive country product evaluation. Even more so, in the case of an unfamiliar country brand, customers tend to be reluctant to trust the product image. By extrapolation, the unfamiliarity is likely to dissuade travellers from buying into a destination as a product of investment (Balakrishnan et al., 2011).

Yet, while brand provenance has predominantly been applied in terms of the commercial product markets, even with the focus on place brands, the product markets are increasingly referred to. Thus, the provenance, or COO, is greatly underestimated in the research relating to the sport brands of the COO, and, consequently, in that describing the sport tourism markets in relation to destination branding. Roth and Diamantopoulos (2009) argue that attention should not be limited to evaluations of, or to preferences for, products and that other potential consequences, such as visits to, and investments in. the country should also be considered. According to Dinnie (2003), it is through the emerging field of nation and place branding that the role of sport in country image perceptions is beginning to be acknowledged.

To the above end, Skinner (2008) concludes that, as destinations (i.e. places and nations) compete in the global marketplace, significance is placed on investment and tourism for those destinations wishing to market products through a positive country-of-origin effect. The current study draws on the discussion of brand provenance and its relevance to destination brands, applying it in the context of home-grown sport tourism events. Events that have

originated in various cities and that are unique to various municipalities in South Africa were, thus, considered as the case study areas concerned.

3.3   The branding of places and nations

As was previously theorised through the various definitions of brands, branding is agreed upon as applying in a number of different environments, like those of products, services, corporations, and places, including nations and destinations. Given the increasing global competition faced by places and nations in terms of the domestic and international markets, the application of branding techniques to places is growing in frequency (Dinnie, 2003). As a result of such globalisation, places must control and manage their branding, as they need to attract tourists, factories, companies, and talent, as well as to find markets for their exports (Anholt, 2007b). According to Kotler and Gertner (2002), to compete effectively in the global market, countries are required to adopt conscious branding techniques. While the notion is widely supported, it is the application of branding to places that still evokes critical debate. The following subsections address the above debate by discussing the development of place and nation branding, while noting how the two environments overlap with destination branding.

3.3.1   The origins of place branding discourse

According to Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005), the struggle between places for brand differentiation and competitive advantage, in terms of their need to pursue various economic, political and socio-psychological objectives, can be traced back to the nineteenth century. However, in the 1990s, the place branding discourse developed at a sluggish pace, with, as time passed, the initial opposition to the notion of mainstream branding practices in relation to competitive places having eroded (Gertner, 2011). After Hankinson (2001) published an article on the branding practices followed by 12 English cities, the pace of the development of the discipline of place branding could be seen to accelerate. In 2002, a special issue of the *Journal of Brand Management*, devoted entirely to the topic 'countries as brands' included significant scholarly contributions from prominent marketing, branding and advertising scholars and practitioners, including Simon Anholt. In 2003/2004, Hankinson proposed a conceptual model for place branding, followed, a year later, by the place branding domain establishing its own forum with the launch of Quarterly Place Branding and Public Diplomacy. The *Journal of Place Management and Development*, in 2008, emerged as a journal focused on geographic branding, which led to an increase in the number of articles published on both place marketing and place branding (Gertner, 2011).

Noticeably, recently there has been a convergence between the various academic domains, including urban policy, tourism, and mainstream branding, which, according to Hankinson (2010), has resulted in the emergence of a new domain of place branding. The selfsame author notes that the convergence has, in part, assisted in developing the mainstream branding domain, which is associated with corporate and service brands. The tools of corporate and product and service branding are held to be capable of being applied, and transferred, to place branding (Anholt, 2007b; Kavaratzis, 2005; Knox & Bickerton, 2003; Rainisto, 2003; Trueman et al., 2004). For example, places can be branded through creating and communicating a place identity that subsequently increases the attractiveness of the place concerned (Rainisto, 2003).

3.3.2   Place branding defined

Despite the development in place branding research, the association between branding and places is not always straightforward (Morgan et al., 2010). However, a simple definition of place branding is presented by Govers and Go (2009:17) as consisting of "branding and building brand equity in relation to national, regional and/ or local identity". By describing the aim of place branding, the researchers concerned have helped to clarify the nature of place branding in relation to the representation of the identity of a place. As such, place branding aims to "build a favourable internal (those who deliver the experience) and external (visitors) image (brand satisfaction, loyalty, name awareness, perceived quality, and favourable associations)" (Govers & Go, 2009:17).

Anholt (2007b) criticises the idea of place 'branding', due to its associations with superficial traditional marketing tricks (such as logo and slogan design), which are:

> nothing more than standard product promotion, public relations, and corporate identity, where the product just happens to be a country, a city, or a region instead of a box of soap powder (Anholt, 2013:8).

Anholt (2013) explains that, while he supports the concept of place brands, he disagrees with the phrase 'place branding', in that the phrase indicates that the image of a place can be directly manipulated through adopting the branding techniques of commercial marketing communications. For the above-mentioned reason, the aforementioned author determines that places are not judged by what they say, but, rather, by what they do and the notion that a place can simply advertise its way into establishing a better reputation and position has proven to be erroneous.

Building on the aforementioned notion, Fan (2006) and Kaplan, Yurt, Guneri and Kurtulus (2008) report that, due to places being comprised of many different factors, as well as having a need to consider various associations, like geography, tourist attractions, natural resources, local products, residents' characteristics, institutions, and infrastructure, place branding is a relatively complex process, compared to the branding of products and services. For instance, the attributes of a place are difficult to define, with the nature of a place's image being complex. The associations that a place evokes are numerous and diverse, in comparison to the relative simplicity of products and services. Additionally, the ownership of a place brand is not clear, due to the existence of multiple groups of stakeholders in relation to place brands, which essentially leads to them appealing to diverse target audiences (Fan, 2006). Moreover, as a result of the abstract nature of places, and the complexity of stakeholder groups, particular difficulties exist in the adaptation of several branding constructs that are presented in the traditional branding literature (see Kotler & Gertner, 2002). However, notwithstanding the aforesaid differences, important similarities exist between place and conventional product branding, in that place brands are built on trust and customer satisfaction, as well as on various personality traits (Kaplan et al., 2008).

While researchers contest the similarities in the branding techniques of places and conventional product and service industries, place branding is strongly held to resemble corporate branding (see Anholt, 2002; Kavaratzis, 2005; Trueman et al., 2004). The aforementioned researchers suggest that those who research the relatively new domain of place brands can learn from the more extensive literature and practice that applies to corporate brands. The above is mainly due to the characteristics of place brands (in terms of the abstract nature of places and their degree of complexity, which reflects a wide range of multiple groups of stakeholders, parallel to those who are invested in corporate branding) (Kaplan et al., 2008).

Additionally, the growing body of literature on corporate branding extends the borders for place branding research, as it notes that corporate brand imaging is mainly based on the values, behaviours and characteristics of the organisation's stakeholders (in terms of management and employees) (Kaplan et al., 2008). The above indicates that the perceptions of the place brand rely significantly on the values and attitudes of citizens in the same way that corporation stakeholders do. Notably, the corporate branding literature offers practical guidelines to place branding, including those directed at rebranding, or heritage branding (see Urde, Greyser & Balmer, 2007). The following definition of corporate branding, as postulated

by Einwiller and Will (2002:101), further coincides with the objectives and processes of place branding: "a systematically planned and implemented process of creating and maintaining favourable images and consequently a favourable reputation of the company as a whole by sending signals to all stakeholders".

Anholt (2010a) further refers to place brands as being normative brands, in that, assuming brand awareness, people tend to have fixed mental associations about a place that are likely to surface in connection with any commercial interaction with the place. Thus, approaching place branding from a marketing perspective, in the form of positively influencing target audiences' perceptions of the products and services associated with a place, without considering issues of the place's overall reputation, appears to be somewhat ineffective as a way of advancing research in the field.

Moreover, Govers (2011) concludes that, while branding reflects identities, place brands do not simply indicate tourism, export and real estate, but they also include 'local people', 'culture', 'heritage', 'symbolism', 'leadership', a 'corporate sense of belonging', and 'heterogeneity'. In particular, in terms of building brand equity, through creating name awareness, brand image and brand loyalty, the aforementioned author holds that place brands embrace an all-encompassing strategy that is supply-driven and that considers competitive identity, as opposed to being demand-driven. Consequently, "place branding should inform place marketing and function as a strategic compass", and consideration must be given to how tourism, export and investment policy can contribute to building a strong compass (Govers, 2011:230). Due to the above-mentioned sentiments, Anholt (2007b) prefers the term 'competitive identity' (CI) to be used to describe the phenomenon of place and nation branding. The CI approach pertains to national identity (including history, accomplishments and aspirations) and the associated politics and economics of competitiveness, rather than branding as it is typically understood. Anholt (2007b) explains that, in today's global economy, places should be ready to compete for limited resources like investors, tourists and consumers, in terms of requiring a strong brand image that is likely to strengthen the place's competitive position.

The relevance of place branding for the current study is found in the arguments of Govers (2011), who postulates such branding to be an all-inclusive strategy that is supply-driven, and focused on the competitive identity of the place. Through brand-building initiatives, as through sport events, the South African place brand is compared to international place

branding in relation to major sport event hosting. More so, through place branding acting as a strategic compass, by way of sport event leveraging, the current study considers how tourism and investment policies contribute to a strong compass for the sustainable place branding of South Africa, such as was previously mentioned by Govers (2011). Due to the study context narrowing in on the national brand of South Africa, it was important for the present study to discuss nation branding in particular, and its relevance to the advanced theory of place brands. More specifically, the context of destination branding is discussed as the tourism component of South African's nation branding.

3.3.3 Place branding through sport

Sport is one of the fastest growing industries worldwide, with projections standing at USD 91 billion for 2017 (Statistics South Africa, 2018). Similarly, the tourism industry is growing at an annual rate, projecting 3.3 per cent between 2012 and 2017 (Richelieu, 2018). While tourism is the largest industry worldwide, travel undertaken for the purpose of sport and/or physical recreational activities is the fastest growing segment (Roche, Spake & Joseph, 2013; Tichaawa, Bob & Swart, 2018; Wise & Perić, 2017). Also, sport has been viewed as a branding platform for emerging, transition, negatively viewed, and newly industrialised destinations (Hemmonsbey & Knott, 2016; Hemmonsbey & Tichaawa, 2018; Knott et al., 2017; Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018; Rein & Shields, 2007). In fact, sport can be used as a place branding platform in four ways, namely, as a sport event platform, such as for the Olympic Games (as an instance of mega-events), or for cycling events (as limited to cities); as a sport team platform, such as Manchester United (as representative of private teams), or the New Zeeland All Blacks (as an instance of a national team); using sport as a participation platform, such as in the running of marathons, or cycling event; and using sport as a place platform, like regarding Dubai as the 'Sport City', or Melbourne as the 'Sporting Capital', of the world (Rein & Shields, 2007). More recently, the value of sport has been seen in the arenas of sport personalities and sport facilities, in terms of the destination brand of Cape Town (Hemmonsbey & Knott, 2016). Demonstrating how sport can be used as a dynamic agent in the (re)imagining and branding of emerging nations, Knott et al. (2015) reveal how the 2010 FIFA World Cup host, South Africa, was favourably perceived, despite the destination having been previously been negatively viewed by international visitors. All the more, Nauright (2013) notes that sport events are attractive and effective, as they evoke strong imagery, as well as triggering powerful emotional responses from the spectators.

Weed and Bull (2009) argue that particularly the mega-event potentially alleviates the branding challenges of places that might be faced in terms of advanced globalisation activities, which, consequently, influence the sport tourism experience. Furthermore, the relevant stakeholders tend to look for the best place branding strategies available, so as to be able to implement effective sport initiatives, especially since there is competition for limited resources (Rein & Shields, 2007). For reasons such as the above, sport has become an important leveraging tool, by means of which the host tourism destination can achieve destination branding benefits (Chen & Funk, 2010; Tichaawa & Bob, 2015). Certainly, research into sport, as a potential asset for the leveraging of place, nation or destination-branding strategies, has increasingly emerged (Gibson, 2006; Nauright, 2013; Smith, 2014).

While the impact of sport tourism on place brands is further elaborated in the following chapter (Chapter Four), it is relevant for the current section to highlight sport tourism as a platform and powerful catalyst for place-branding practices, particularly around the activities involved in the leveraging of sport for branding outcomes.

3.3.4 Articulation of nation branding

The nation-branding discourse is increasingly growing, with ongoing research around the topic. According to Scott, Ashton, Ding and Xu (2011), some definitional issues still require resolving in the developing literature of nation branding. Within the nation-branding literature, a clear distinction is also made between nation branding, the nation's image, and national identity, which three terms are often used interchangeably, and are not always implicit (see, for example, Fan, 2006; Scott et al., 2011; Simonin, 2008). O'Shaughnessy and O'Shaughnessy (2000) accept that a national image is very much bound up with the social concept of the nation, which consists of people sharing the key elements of a common culture (such as values, beliefs, norms, and institutions). Dinnie (2008) expresses the belief that national identity plays a significant role in nation branding, and that the key issues in national identity include viewing the nation as an 'imagined community', as well as in terms of an 'invented tradition'.

As a result of the varied constructs, Scott et al. (2011:229) seek to clarify nation branding and nation's image as follows:

> Nation branding refers to the application of branding and marketing communications techniques to promote and manage a nation's image; thus a nation's brand may be considered the desired image. A nation's brand is what a nation's people want the world

to understand about their nation and seeks to incorporate its most central, enduring and distinctive features.

According to Fan (2006), a nation's image is defined by those outside the country, with their perceptions being influenced by stereotyping, media coverage and personal experiencing of their visits. Fan (2010) further recognises a nation's image as consisting of self-perception, in that a nation's identity refers to the essentially irrational psychological bond that binds fellow nationals together which is supposed to constitute the essence of national identity. Scott et al. (2011) base their definition of national identity on Albert and Whetten's (1985) description of an organisational identity, as "the collective understanding by a nation's people of the features presumed to be central and relatively permanent, and that distinguish the nation from other nations" (Scott et al., 2011: 229). More simply put, Simonin (2008:22) states:

> National identity is what a country believes it is (or wants to be). That identity is projected onto the rest of the world through branding and communication efforts to attract tourism and foreign direct investment, boost exports, and carry out effective public diplomacy.

In addition, Aaker and Joachimsthaler (1999:141) point out that national brand identity refers to the identity of a specific "nation brand", rather than the nation itself, with it consisting of a "set of associations the brand strategist seeks to create or maintain". Thus, to illustrate the relationship between the three components, the national identity is the self-perceived identity of a nation, which is devised by the brand managers concerned, ranging from a country's historical to cultural associations. The associations are communicated and promoted through the conducting of nation-branding activities (whether they involve promotions, media or other forms of marketing communication), and are depicted by (potential) visitors in their individual perceptions, their knowledge, and their experiences. The relationship between national identity, nation branding and a nation's image is depicted in Figure 3.1 below, as postulated by Fan (2010:100).
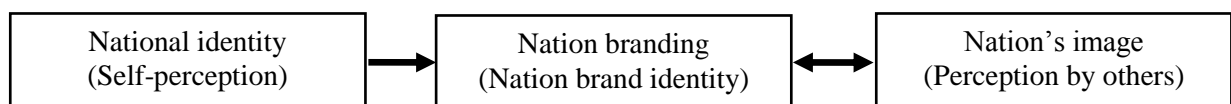
Figure 3.1: The relationship between national identity, nation branding and a nation's image
Adopted from Fan (2010:100)

Fan (2006) traces the origin of nation branding to four different sources, namely the COO (Anholt, 1998; Papadoplous & Heslop, 2002), the place, or destination, branding (Kotler & Gertner, 2002; Morgan et al., 2003), and, in the case of more recent studies, public diplomacy,

and national identity (Fan, 2006; Knott et al., 2017; Simonin & Fletcher, 2008; Wang, 2006). While the research that has been undertaken so far into COO and place/destination branding is clearly focused on promoting specific economic interests, like exports, tourism, or inward investments, nation branding is concerned with the country's entire image on the global stage, so that it further includes its political and cultural dimensions (Fan, 2006). Anholt-GfK Roper 'Nation Brand Index' (2009) includes 'people' as a key dimension and, as a result, has developed a nation brand hexagon to illustrate six dimensions, namely: exports; tourism; investment; the government (politics); culture; and people (see Figure 3.2 below).
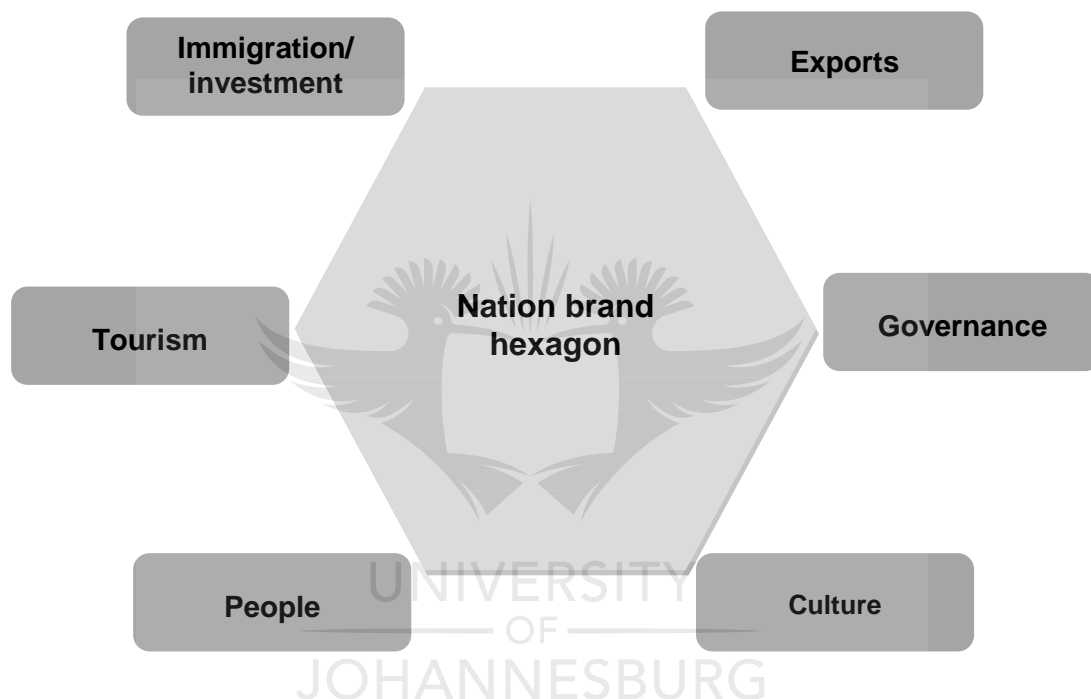
Figure 3.2: The nation brand hexagon

Adopted from Anholt-GfK Roper 'Nation Brand Index' (2009)

As the current research narrowed in on the South African destination's brand, the imperative of the nation's brand image, identity and branding, as noted in the discussions by Aaker and Joachimsthaler (1999), Scott et al. (2011), and Simonin (2008) can be seen to gain in critical importance. With the study focusing on sport tourism and destination branding, it is of further significance to note the interplay between the key components of the nation brand hexagon, as demonstrated by Anholt-GfK Roper 'Nation Brand Index' (2009). The above is especially so as the element of tourism, which generally denotes the destination brand, is represented in the hexagon. In terms of nation branding, tourism denotes the potential for return visits and for tourism experience through sport and events (Anholt-GfK Roper 'Nation Brand Index', 2009). For instance, in attempting to create and leverage their national brand, New Zealand

successfully created a brand called "100% Pure", which was aimed at featuring the diversity of the country as an attractive destination (Morgan et al., 2003). Thus, destinations also tend to benefit greatly from the possession of strong national brands. While little research describes the efforts of nations to advance their destination brands through tourism, the present research provides empirical evidence of the efforts made by national and city stakeholders in the above respect, and, in part, show how, through cohesive branding efforts, tourism and destination branding can be realised and leveraged from a nationwide perspective.

3.4   The emergence and development of destination branding as a discourse

While the previous chapter gave an account of some of the first publications related to destination branding and, in particular, to the leisure tourism context, it is clear that the destination branding text did not emerge until the new millennium. Morgan et al.'s (2002, 2004) edited volumes of case studies and conceptual papers were followed by the research-based analysis of the city branding of Sydney, Hong Kong and Shanghai, in the context of film traditions relating to tourism. Baker (2007) then brought a practitioner's perspective to bear on destination branding for small cities in the context of North America. Pike (2005, 2007, 2010) focused on producing destination marketing texts, including edited book chapters and special journal issues in the Tourism Management Journals series. Branching out of the destination branding discourse, and especially aiming at developing a conceptual framework for the destination branding theory, the contributions of Balakrishnan (2009) and Hankinson (2004) are seen to have emerged and to have greatly contributed to the development of the destination branding discourse.

Pike (2009) conducted an in-depth search of destination branding publications produced between 1998 and 2007, identifying 74 publications by 102 authors, which he categorised into four themes, namely: case studies; conceptual papers; research-based papers; and web content analysis. The author notes that the most popular form of destination branding publication has been case studies, which are perceived as being valuable for bridging the gap between tourism practitioners and academics. Whereas some practitioners describe place and destination branding as a 'bloody business', or even as a myth (Anholt, 2004), the academics who have conducted case studies have proved, through their empirical results, the justification for considering place and destination branding purposes. In accordance with Pike's (2009:864) findings, Table 3.1 summarises 33 papers written from a practitioner's and academic's perspective which provide rich insights into the actuality of brand development.

Table 3.1: A summary of case studies from an academic and practitioner perspective

Author	Year	DMO	Country	Focus	Author's perspective
Pritchard & Morgan	1998	NTO	Wales	Brand strategy development	Academic
Morgan & Pritchard	1999	NTO	Wales, Australia	Brand strategy development	Academic
Williams & Palmer	1999	STO	Australia	Role of electronic media in brand development	Academic
Buckley	1999	NTO	Ireland	Brand strategy development	Academic
Crockett & Wood	1999 2002	STO	Australia	Brand strategy development	Practitioner
Hall	1999 2002a 2002b	NTO	Eastern Europe	Developing a national identity for newly independent nations	Academic
Morgan	2000	NTO	Australia	Brand strategy development	Academic
Henderson	2000a 2000b 2007	NTO	Singapore	Brand strategy development	Academic
Curtis	2001	STO	USA	Brand effectiveness evaluation	Practitioner
Scott	2002	RTO	Australia	Brand strategy development	Academic
Pride	2002	NTO	Wales	Brand strategy development	Practitioner
Slater	2002	STO	USA	Brand strategy development	Academic
Morgan, Pritchard & Piggott	2002 2003	NTO	New Zealand	Brand strategy development	Academic & practitioner
Foley & Fahy	2003	NTO	Ireland	Analysis of imagery	Academic
Woods & Deegan	2003	RTO	France	Quality measurement	Academic
Williams, Gill & Chura	2004	RTO	Canada	Influence of corporate brands	Academic
Hem & Iversen	2004	RTO	Denmark	Logo design	Academic
Ooi	2004	NTO	Denmark	Politics in decision-making	Academic
Morgan & Pritchard	2005a 2005b	NTO	Wales New Zealand	Brand strategy development	Academic
Yeoman, Durie, McMahon-Beattie & Palmer	2005	NTO	Scotland	History in retrospect for the future	Practitioner & Academic
Scott & Clark	2006	RTO	Australia	Brand strategy development and tracking	Academic & practitioner
Peirce & Ritchie	2007	RTO	Australia New Zealand	Brand strategy development	Academic
Daniels	2007	CVB	USA	Brand strategy development	Academic
Niininen	2007	RTO	England	Brand strategy development	Academic
Pike	2007	NTO	New Zealand	Brand positioning research	Academic
Gotham	2007	RTO	USA	Rebranding post-disaster	Academic

Adopted from Pike (2009:864)

Note: CVB = convention and visitor bureau; NTO = national tourism organisation; RTO = regional tourism organisation; STO = state tourism organisation

Interestingly, most cases noted in the above table are fixed on brand strategy development. Certainly, the emphasis on such development still persists in terms of recent destination branding studies (see, for example, Campelo, Aitken, Thyne & Gnoth, 2013) who advocate that destination branding strategy should begin with an understanding of what constitutes a sense of place, as experienced by the local residents. Moreover, as the above-mentioned researchers investigated the inhabitants of the Chatham Islands of New Zealand, it is clear that the destination-branding literature, much like that enumerated in Table 3.2, still overwhelmingly engages with the developed nation context. England, Australia, USA, New Zealand, Ireland, Scotland, Wales, France, Denmark, and Canada are some of the developed, Global North cases of countries that have been mainly focused on.

Albeit very scant, the recent emergence of destination-branding cases has included countries in the developing African context and, more prominently, the South African destination brand (see, for example, Dinnie, 2016, who included Ghana and South Africa as key cases in nation-branding impact studies). Other research has examined the case of South Africa's brand architecture, discussing the principles used to develop the nation's brand (Dooley & Bowie, 2005). More critically, such sport tourism events as the 2010 FIFA World Cup have spurred on research into the South African brand, as well as into other African nations, like Cameroon, so as to investigate stakeholder engagements, national identities, and tourist perceptions, as well as sport event leveraging and legacies in relation to the host and non-hosting nations (Harris, 2011; Hemmonsbey & Tichaawa, 2018; Knott et al., 2015; Swart & Bob, 2012; Swart, Tichaawa, Othy & Daniels, 2018; Tichaawa & Bob, 2015). An updated table (Table 3.2) to that of Pike (2009) was, thus, drawn up to include cases from the developing nations, with them being held to focus, albeit scantily, on the destination branding theory. Moreover, Giampiccoli, Lee and Nauright (2015) included the recurring event in their research into the destination branding of South Africa, comparing the sport mega-event and the recurring sport event in relation to both tourism and economic development, thus broadening the focus, or scope, of sport to include the home-grown, recurring, small-scale event in terms of the gleaning of destination branding benefits. Fittingly, the research of Giampiccoli et al. (2015) relates to the current study's context.

Table 3.2: A summary of cases in the developing nation context

Author	Year	Country	Focus
Harris	2011	South Africa	Development of national identities
Swart & Bob	2012	South Africa	Role of sport in national brand development
Knott, Fyall & Jones	2015	South Africa	Development of national identities
Tichaawa & Bob	2015	Cameroon and Nigeria	Brand strategy development
Giampiccoli, Lee & Nauright	2015	South Africa	Destination brand development through sport tourism events
Hemmonsbey & Tichaawa	2018	South Africa	Brand strategy development
Swart, Tichaawa, Othy & Daniels	2018	Gabon	Brand strategy development of national identities

The above table shows that, despite the sluggish growth of emergent destination branding research, little destination branding literature exists as yet in terms of the Global South and, in particular, the developing African nations' perspective. The above, therefore, limits the applicability of the theory relating to branding practices, as well as the empirical research results for destinations like South Africa, which served as a case study for the current research. With the sport event noticeably offering a point of reference for destination branding, such research has continued with the theme of the home-grown, small-scale event, as advanced by Giampiccoli et al. (2015) for destination branding outcomes in the developing nation context. The following subsection, thus, reviews the extant literature in terms of the South African destination brand.

3.4.1   The South African destination brand

The most notable historical event influencing the South African brand transpired in 1994, with the inauguration of the country's first black president, Nelson Mandela. Prior to the 1994 elections, the apartheid regime, which was a period of social and political policy marked by racial segregation and discrimination, severely limited opportunities for foreign investment and tourism in the country, as a result of foreign reaction to the policy on segregation (Dooley & Bowie, 2005). Post-1994, when the new democratic, non-racial policy was announced, the governing party changed from the National Party (NP) to the African National Congress (ANC), which subsequently embarked on numerous socio-economic, political, and cultural

changes. A change in government also meant an improvement in institutional capacity at the destination marketing level, as both the prevailing administrative policies, as well as the nation's sub-brands (in terms of provinces, cities and industry sectors) became rejuvenated on the provincial level, with each having its own administrative authority (Dooley & Bowie, 2005).

While the South African brand constructs were changing internally, the perceptions, images and associations of the country's brand were changing in response to the country's external international audience (Dooley & Bowie, 2005). The hosting of the 1995 Rugby World Cup brought South Africa a great deal of international exposure, with the country being dubbed the 'rainbow nation' (Tomlinson, Bass & Pillay, 2009). The presence of the new national flag, as well as of Nelson Mandela, at the sporting mega-event further served to integrate the new South African brand into the global marketplace (Knott et al., 2015). South Africa continued to host sport mega-events, like the FIFA World Cup, which was the first of its kind to be held on African soil. Knott et al. (2015) suggest that the above appeared to confirm the transformation of the nation from political outcast to becoming the hub of a new breed of developing countries.

While the South African destination brand might still suffer from its previous apartheid-related image, Anholt (2007a) warns that the country, and all other African countries, need to beware the 'Brand African effect', in terms of which all of the individual nations on the African continent are viewed alike in respect of their crime, corruption, famine, disease, and poverty levels. In line with the above statement, however, South Africa can be seen to have its own share of negative brand challenges, like its high rate of unemployment, its lack of access to such basic services such as housing and education for many of its population, and the high HIV infection rate (see Bob, Cornelissen & Swart, 2010; Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009). However, as such perceptions are perpetuated in the media, with conflicting messages being broadcast by the many different media sources, the creation of Brand South Africa, an organisation formed in August 2004, with the main objective of marketing South Africa through the Brand South Africa Campaign, has emerged from the struggle.

South Africa as a destination for sport
Giampiccoli et al. (2015) note that, since the end of the apartheid regime, South Africa has provided a good example of how large-scale sport mega-events can be sought in the hope of promoting tourism, as well as economic development. Previously, the country bid to host an

array of sport mega-events, like the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the 2003 Cricket World Cup, and the 2010 FIFA World Cup, all of which were capable of arousing global awareness, and of having an international impact. While the Olympic Games have yet to be hosted in South Africa, the unsuccessful Cape Town bid made for the 2004 Olympic Games, as well as the Durban bid made for the 2020 Games, have made South Africa a representative nation on the African continent for the hosting of the entire array of world spectacle.

Moreover, the research that has emerged in the context of major sport events has been linked to numerous annual recurring sporting events in various South African cities. Table 3.3 lists those studies that focus on particular events, as postulated by Giampiccoli et al. (2015).

Table 3.3: Extant research on major sport events in South Africa

Author(s)	Major sport event	Focus	Host destination(s)
Kotze (2006)	Two Oceans Marathon	Economic impact of the event on the city	Cape Town
Saayman & Saayman (2012)	Two Oceans Marathon (Cape Town cycle tour) Telkom Midmar (open water) Mile	Economic impact of visitor spending	Cape Town
Saayman, M., Hallmann, K. & Kruger (2016)	ABSA Cape Epic	Urban regeneration	Cape Town
Turco et al. (2003)	Comrades Marathon	Socio-economic impact on the city	Pietermaritzburg & Durban

According to Giampiccoli et al. (2015), despite South Africa holding many successful recurring small-scale sports events, where compared to mega-events, the control over the organising, marketing and staging of such events is retained locally, with the linking of the destination branding benefits to the economic and tourism development of the events being questionable. Despite the events having gained increasing participation, spectating and media coverage, Kotze (2006) argues that insufficient is still being done to leverage the events for tourism promotion, internationally. Thus, notwithstanding their prominence in terms of home-grown event hosting, South Africa has yet to pursue brand positioning through sport event leveraging for the attainment of destination branding benefits. Subsequent to the above-mentioned findings, however, various cities have adopted the hosting of a series of sports and events, with them having formulated a strategy around small-scale events, so as to position the destination as a 'Gateway for Events' in Africa (see, for example, the sport event strategy of the City of Cape Town) (Hemmonsbey & Knott, 2016). Chapter Five further discusses the literature on sport tourism events in relation to home-grown events, which were the main focus of the current research. The present study, thus, delves into assessing stakeholder strategies for leveraging small-scale sport events for destination branding purposes, and

addresses the gap in practice by providing recommendations for the leveraging of small-scale events within the developing South African context.

3.5 Chapter summary

The current chapter discussed the extant literature on the branding of places, nations and destinations. It delved into the brand associations linked to the brand identity and image within the particular context of destinations. Further discussion was undertaken of the brand components, with it being argued that, since the functional, symbolic and experiential components play a critical role in defining a destination brand, it is important to consider all three components for achieving brand-related benefits in the context of sport tourism and sport event leveraging. The chapter further outlined the branding attributes relative to brands as communication devices that link to its identity (in terms of logos, slogans and trademarks); brands as perceptual entities, in terms of the appeal that is made to consumer senses and emotions; brands as value enhancers leading to brand equity; and brands as relationships communicating the brand personality. In relation to place, nation and destination branding, branding has become increasingly multifaceted, mainly due to its abstract nature and complexity in relation to stakeholder groups, which relate to the use of similar branding techniques to those of corporate branding.

Considering the use of sport as a branding tool for place and destination brands, the current chapter also discussed the role of sport as a powerful catalyst for place-branding practices. The significant role of the sport event for destination brands, in particular, in the present instance, the South African brand, was subsequently discussed. The following chapter offers an in-depth review of the sport tourism literature, clarifying and contextualising the home-grown sport event in the developing nation context.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONTEXTUALISING SPORT TOURISM AND HOME-GROWN SPORT TOURISM EVENTS

4.1 Introduction

While the previous chapter focused on destination branding, the current chapter delves into key theoretical perspectives on sport tourism, particularly in the context of sport tourism events. The review follows a funnel approach, in terms of which the concept of sport and tourism is contextualised. Thereafter, the sport tourism event is discussed, and, subsequently, a narrative of the home-grown (major) event is outlined as the adopted sport tourism event for the current research. Event leveraging is seen as playing an important role in sport tourism events for destination brands, especially when adopting an event-tourism portfolio of annually recurring events.

4.2 Understanding sport tourism as a field of study

The body of knowledge on sport tourism is seen to have emerged in the mid-1900s, with both sport and tourism giving equal attention to the sport tourism field of study. However, while it has since emerged as a single discipline, Gammon and Robinson (2003) still argue that sport tourism should be separately studied, so as to be able to derive clear direction for specific research.

Nevertheless, the number of sport tourism studies is increasingly growing, with the predominant focus being on international visitor perceptions around the hosting of sport (mega/major/hallmark events) (see, for example, Andersson, Getz, Gration & Raciti, 2017; Arnegger & Hertz, 2016; Bama & Tichaawa, 2015). However, during the past decade studies have recognised the importance of including the local residents' perceptions in their analysis of social, economic and environmental aspects in the host community resulting from sport tourism (García, Añó-Sanz, Alguacil & Carlos, 2018; Kim, Jun, Walker & Drane, 2015; Mallen, Stevens, Adams & McRoberts, 2010; Tichaawa, Moyo, Swart & Mhlanga, 2015). More importantly, destination branding studies that explicitly focus on the sport event are believed to incorporate both the sport tourist (international and local) perceptions, as well as stakeholder perceptions. Stakeholders can be viewed as an integral part of the development of destinations for attracting and retaining sport event tourism (see, for example, Knott et al., 2015).

If the terms used are not carefully understood, there might be an overlap of concepts in relation to tourism and destination. As previously postulated in the destination branding chapter, destination brands often denote a modern form of tourism. Thus, the current research considers (sport) tourism as a destination product or entity.

4.2.1 Defining sport in the current study's context

While sport can be defined in many different ways and from various perspectives, definitions are mere tools, which assist in specifying some level of precision and characteristics (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1997). The present subsection seeks to provide perspectives on sport in terms of the current study context. Standeven and De Knop (1999:12) broadly define sport as:

> The whole range of competitive and non-competitive active pursuits that involve skill, strategy, and/ or chance in which human beings engage, at their own level, simply for enjoyment and training or to raise their performance to levels of publicly acclaimed excellence.

The aforementioned definition clearly indicates both competitive and recreational activity that involve both trained professionals, as well as partakers in leisure activities. While some researchers define sport and recreation as two separate concepts, such as Hinch, Jackson, Hudson and Walker (2005:11), who refer to sport as a "subset of leisure", others combine the two themes (i.e. sport and recreation) under the umbrella of sport (see, for example, Weed & Bull, 2009). Moreover, some researchers denote sport strictly in the context of its physical and competitive nature (see, for instance, Kumar, 2009; Ross, 2006; Watt, 1998), thus further separating the concept of sport and recreation, as well as delineating the former as only including its professional side.

Moreover, involvement in sport is sometimes taken as including spectatorship along with participation, which is broadened by sport being viewed as a 'sanctioned display'. For example, both Hinch and Higham (2001) and Weed and Bull (2009) argue that, while the concept of sport is generally taken as referring to the participants therein, the definition of sport should also consider those observing, or spectating, sport. Spectators are seen as being as motivated as are active participants in their commitment to sport. The former, in addition, significantly influence the development of sport. Attracting a significant number of spectators, thus, influences the way in which sport is played, as well as the environment in which it occurs (Bull & Weed, 2012; Weed & Bull, 2009).

Certainly, sport entails various entities, including sport events, teams, leagues, sponsorship, ticket sales, and business operations, therefore it is viewed as an all-inclusive business, and extends well beyond the playing field (Schwarz, Hunter & Lafleur, 2013). More specific to the sport event, Chalip (2014) views such an event as having become a strategic tool for leveraging, in that it provides opportunities to implement particular tactics that might nurture and foster the desired impacts. The term 'leveraging', in the sport event context, refers to the development and undertaking of activities surrounding an event, with the purpose of substantiating its long-term benefits (Chalip, 2004; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). Notably, the strategic leveraging of events is believed to offer a distinct alternative to the concept of legacy, referring to the impacts derived long after an event has been hosted, with leveraging having proven to be a practical and effective way of sustaining benefits in the long term (Chalip, 2017).

The current research, which articulates sport with reference to an 'event', considers leveraging as an important strategy for deriving destination branding benefits in the context of home-grown sport events. Whereas previous research largely considered the sport mega-event, such as the FIFA World Cup and the Olympic Games, the present research holds the leveraging concept to include the non-mega-event. Such events are argued as being equal, if not more important, than the destinations involved, as they present regular opportunities for related leveraging.

4.2.2 The sport tourism phenomenon

A somewhat restrictive definition of tourism is seen by the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) as being:

> The activities of a person travelling to a place outside his/her usual environment for less than a specified period of time with a main purpose other than exercise of activity remunerated from within the place visited.

See also Turco, Riley & Swart (2002:17) in the above regard. A broader definition that encompasses an array of activities that tourists might undertake in a given environment is presented by Weed and Bull (2009:60) as being:

> The temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, and their activities during their stay at these destinations; it includes movement for all purposes as well as day visits and excursions.

While the type of activity is not specified in the above definition, it is assumed that the activities may include some form of leisure (of which sport is a subset), as was earlier postulated in the definition of sport given by Hinch et al. (2005).

With tourism being one of the world's leading growth sectors, many sectors, including business, culture and heritage, influence tourism growth. However, the sector that is comparatively noticeable in terms of the growth of tourism is sport, in particular the sport event (Fourie & Santana-Gallego, 2011). Recent literature has shown that countries are becoming increasingly reliant on combining sport and tourism to help aid their troubled economies, thanks to the potential economic benefits that can be derived therefrom (see Tichaawa, Bob & Swart, 2018). Sport and tourism are, therefore, clearly associated, with both requiring some degree of travel, for instance. Thus, much of the academic literature has incorporated the two concepts under one discipline, namely 'sport tourism'.

In terms of defining 'sport tourism', Gammon and Robinson (2003), Kurtzman and Zauhar (1997), and Standeven and De Knop (1999) state that such tourism usually involves active/passive participation in sport during travel away from home. In other definitions, Gibson (2006), Kumar and Nagar (2018), and Zauhar (2004) include another aspect of travel that is linked to 'nostalgia sport tourism', including those who wish to visit historical sport attractions, stadia, or museums with the motivation to reminisce, to appreciate, or to be educated on specific elements that are linked to the sport industry. Clearly, the aforementioned researchers, in providing a conceptual definition of the term 'sport tourism', include the motivational component that is associated with the actualisation of the individual's travel. Therefore, according to Gammon and Robinson (2003), it is important to regard the primary motivation for sport tourism as being the desire to participate, whether actively or passively, in competitive or recreational sport, while travelling outside one's usual environment. Consequently, Gammon and Robinson (2003:23) have produced a model for the consumer classification of sport and tourism that shows two distinct branches of sport tourism, namely sport tourism and tourism sport, with each having a hard and soft core. Based on the motivations of travellers, sport tourism can be so defined. Figure 4.1 illustrates the model.
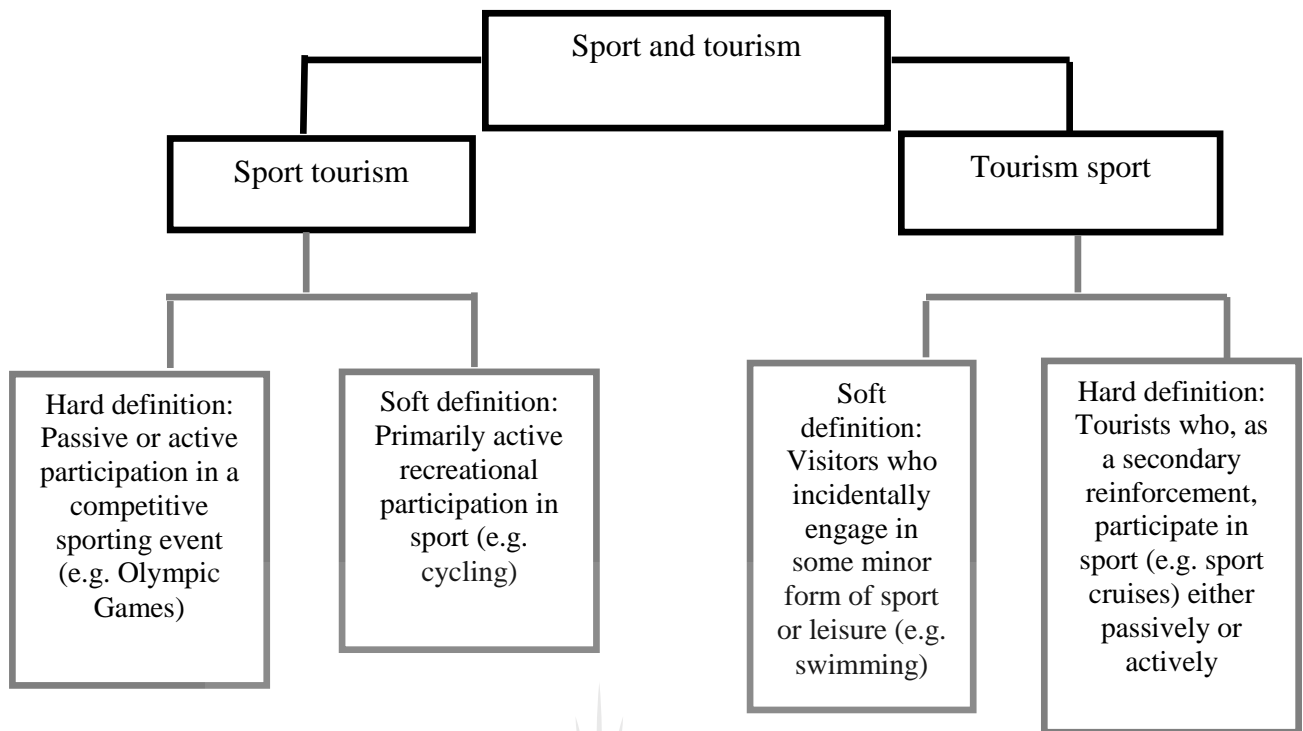
Figure 4.1: Model of the consumer classification of sport and tourism

Adopted from Gammon and Robinson (2003:23)

The aforementioned definitions and model often conceptualise sport tourism as the sum of sport and tourism aspects, forming a single phenomenon. However, an advanced explanation of sport tourism is given as a "social, economic and cultural phenomenon arising from unique interactions of *activity*, *people* and *place*" (Weed & Bull, 2009:63), thus integrating sport and tourism as a synergistic phenomenon. The 'activity' referred to in the aforementioned definition can be seen in the form of resorts, cruises, attractions, tours, and events, as postulated by Kurtzman and Zauhar (1997), with events being the most popular form of activity. The 'people' concerned can be viewed as the sport tourists, and as was previously discussed by Gammon and Robinson (2003), can be determined, in terms of their primary and secondary motives, to participate, or spectate, in competitive, or recreational, sport passively, actively or incidentally. 'Place' can be viewed in terms of the setting, or environment, which can either be natural, such as in the case of mountains or beaches, or manmade, like stadia, in which sport takes place (Kurtzman & Zauhar, 1997). Kumar and Nagar (2018:69) define sport tourism that encompasses such sentiments in the following words:

> Sport tourism is a journey from one place to another that wants to be an audience of all kinds of sporting events. It is the factor that determines whether you are watching a sporting event or travelling with a different schedule.

The nature of sport tourism is extremely broad, but it has advanced to include a variety of such specific imperatives as society, economics and culture. The current researcher notes the imperatives of sport tourism that are expressed through its interactions not only with the event (i.e. activity), but also with the host destination (i.e. place). Tichaawa et al. (2018) consider such imperatives as the outcomes that are derived from sport tourism, in their model illustrating sport tourism from the sport event perspective (see Figure 4.2 below). The aforementioned researchers classify sport tourists as event attendees, competitors, or officials. Similarly to Gammon and Robinson (2003), Tichaawa et al. (2018) illustrate the motivations behind the participation of sport tourists, which, in the context of sport events, are intentional. The later model is distinguished from that of Gammon and Robinson (2003), in that it includes the outcomes from sport tourism. The outcomes concerned are individual factors that are linked to skills, excitement and enjoyment; to community outcomes, with the host communities reaping social and economic benefits from the events concerned; and/or the host nations benefiting from the tourism and destination image enhancement (Tichaawa et al., 2018). While all the outcomes are known to contribute to the development and advancement of sport tourism, it is with the change in global trends that sport tourism, in terms of the number of tourists traveling for the purpose of sport, has continued its impact.
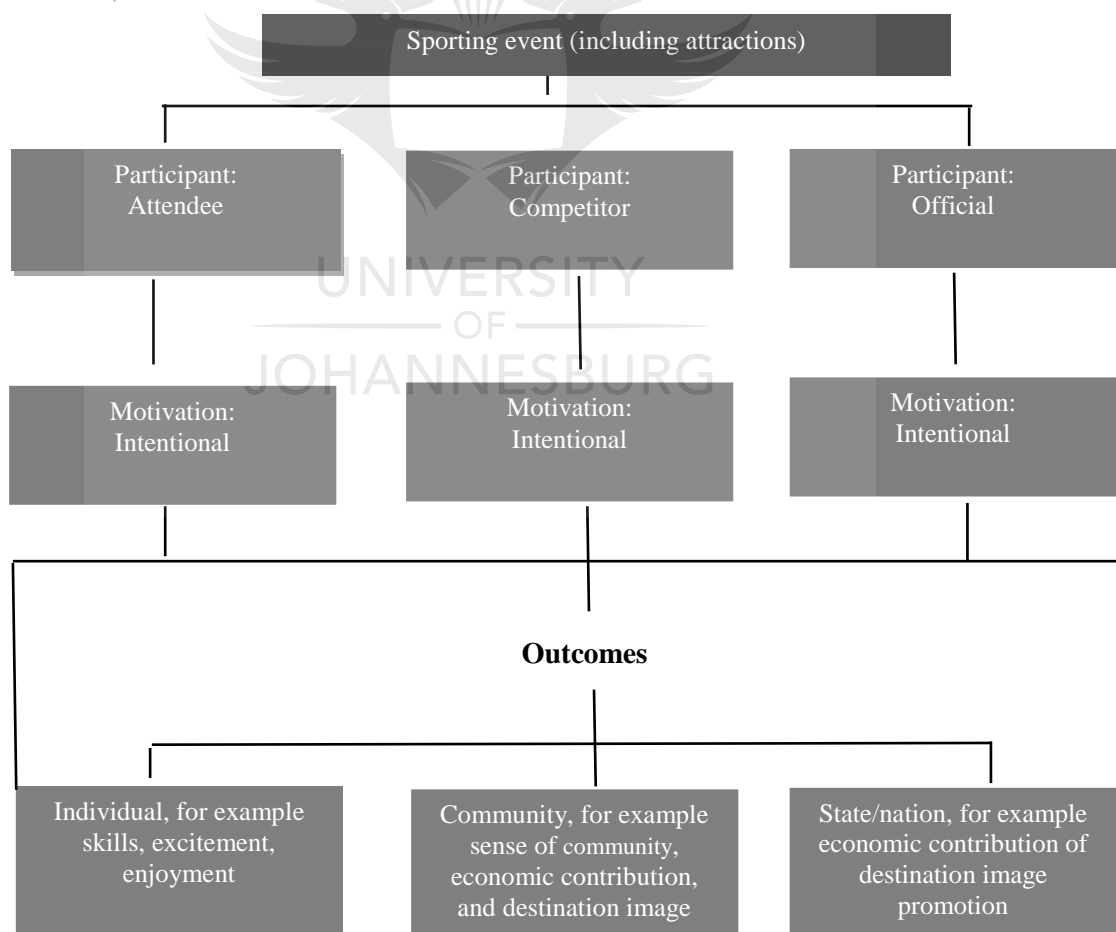
Figure 4.2: A sport tourism framework

Adopted from Tichaawa et al. (2018:187)

71

The extensive model of sport tourism, as demonstrated by Tichaawa et al. (2018), is definitive in terms of the current study context, as the current research focuses on the role of the tourist in relation to sporting events, with the main purpose for the related travel being to participate in / spectate the sport event. The research further considers the imperatives/outcomes not only of the individual, in terms of sport event participation, but, most importantly, the outcomes of the host destination image, and the resultant outcomes that are associated with socio-economic and tourism promotion. With the influence of global trends on such sport tourism outcomes, the present research discusses how, through sport event leveraging of activities, destinations can sustain such outcomes for the long term.

4.3   Sport tourism events

As was previously realised, events are an important motivator of tourism, thus they should feature predominantly within the development of destination marketing plans. The roles and impacts of planned events (sporting or otherwise) within tourism have been well documented, and are increasingly important in terms of destination competitiveness (Getz, 2008). The scope and size of events determines the level of exposure of the tourism destination brand. According to Arnegger and Hertz (2016), events can be distinguished on the basis of their scale and scope, or size, with the categories of events including mega-events; hallmark events; and local/community events. While no exact definitions exist for the different categories of the events, the boundaries, particularly between the major categories of mega and hallmark events, still blur. The following subsections discuss the various categories of sport tourism events and, with a specific focus on sport event leveraging, highlight arguments for event leveraging though recurring non-mega-events, as opposed to the sport mega-event.

4.3.1   Sport mega-events

A mega-event is usually described as a one-time event that is generally of international scale. For example, Roche (2000:1) defines mega-events as "large scale, cultural (including commercial and sporting) events which have a dramatic character, mass popular appeal and international significance". According to Muller and Steyaert (2013), the Olympic Games, the FIFA World Cup and the World Expo events universally fit the profile of the mega-event. As a consequence of their large-scale and international hosting nature, sport mega-events have proven to be an important feature in orientating nations to the international, or global, society (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006). Empirically, studies have proven that sport mega-events have the ability to produce social, economic and socio-psychological impacts, as well as multiple legacies linked to sport, tourism, infrastructural, political and environmental legacies for the

host and non-hosting communities (Kim et al., 2015; Lui, 2016; Nauright, 2013; Swart & Bob, 2012). According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2006), two central features of contemporary mega-events exist: firstly, their significant consequences for the host city, region or nation, and, secondly, their ability to attract extensive media coverage. Therefore, sport mega-events draw significant numbers of tourism, attract corporate and television sponsorship, and showcase the host nation through broadcasting. Moreover, the sport mega-event offers the opportunity to advertise products and services to a global audience, to leverage business opportunities through investment, and to boost citizen morale and pride (Lee & Taylor, 2005).

While the mega-event usually favoured the developed nations as hosts, as a result of their mature economies, it is evident that, increasingly, more developing nations and emerging economies, like China, South Africa, Brazil, India and Russia, have become significant actors in the sport mega-event industry. Mega-events are seen as valuable in terms of accelerating their entry to, and acceptance within, the world's mature economies. The above is thanks to China's hosting of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games, and following on South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, India's staging of the Commonwealth Games in 2010, Brazil's hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup and the 2016 Olympic and Paralympic Games, and, most recently, Russia's hosting of the 2018 FIFA World Cup. From the future hosting perspective, small Gulf States, like Qatar, have also become interested in staging sport mega-events, with Qatar being scheduled to host the 2022 FIFA World Cup (Cornelissen et al., 2011; Grix, 2012).

Most research into sport mega-events in both the developed and the developing contexts has, however, centred largely on the economic impacts of such, with the amount of research into their social impacts having gradually increased (see Chalip, 2006; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012; Kellett et al., 2008; Lorde, Greenidge & Devonish, 2011). From the economic impact perspective, Meurer and Lins (2018) estimate the effect of hosting the FIFA World Cup in 2014, and the Olympic Games in 2016, on the Brazilian economy. Their study shows that Brazil's hosting of the FIFA World Cup generated an increase of about 50% in profits during the two months of the event, with the estimated effect of the Olympics being an increase of about 28% in profits during the one month of hosting. From another developing nation perspective, the 2010 FIFA World Cup could be seen to have generated a positive economic impact, as it contributed USD 509 million to the 2010 actual GDP. The sport mega-event also created USD 769 million in benefits for households, with USD 22 million of them being

designated to low-income households. Furthermore, the 2010 FIFA World Cup generated a direct impact on labour, in terms of which 130 000 jobs were created through construction and the establishment of infrastructure, as well as through the performance of the hospitality industries (South Africa. Department of Sport and Recreation [SRSA], 2012a). In the former example of Brazil, the economic impact of the 2014 FIFA World Cup and of the 2016 Olympic Games was proven to be immediate and short-lived. However, it is not explicitly stated in the research as to how long the South African economy reaped rewards post-2010. Thus, while the economic and tourism impacts seem to be favourable for the emerging economies, the evidence of the longevity of the impacts is unclear. As a result, the mechanisms for achieving positive tourism and economic legacies form mega-events are debatable. Cornelissen et al. (2011) note that early indicators of the 2010 FIFA World Cup's economic legacies were mixed, and the realisation of the long-term positive macroeconomic impacts projected pre-tournament remained uncertain.

In connection with the seemingly unclear long-term economic benefits of mega-events, some cities have recently been increasingly withdrawing form mega-events, as a result of the high costs involved in organising and staging an event, which essentially contributes to the uncertainty of sustainable economic development as a result of mega-event hosting (Chien et al., 2018). In an impact analysis study, Taks, Kesenne, Chalip, Green and Martyn (2011) found that the cost of hosting an event can cause the overall economic effect to be negative, even with a positive standard input/output economic estimate. What is more, while mega-events provide branding platforms through international media, it is postulated that the branding benefits of an event are likely to be so small as even to be undetectable, especially in markets that are already familiar with the destination. They might also be susceptible to negativity elsewhere (Chalip, Green & Hill, 2003). Consequently, the above impedes the lasting impacts made on host destinations to attract and retain visitors post-event hosting. From a socio-economic perspective, a related concern is the way in which the economic effects are distributed. Taxpayers are expected to pay for an event in which they have no interest, and the public does not see immediate returns on their investment. Similarly, businesses outside the event precinct suffer, as a result of the spending going on in and around the event precinct (Chalip, 2014).

Unlike economic impacts, however, the social impacts derived from events are difficult to quantify, thus little research has been aimed at adequately capturing the residents' perceived benefits and the cost of hosting sport mega-events (Kim et al., 2015). Such positive social

impacts as infrastructural and urban development can be merged with economic benefits; community urbanisation; community enhancement; increased opportunities for sociocultural exchange; image enhancement; and community unity, or a sense of belonging to the community (Kim et al., 2015). Negative impacts are linked to residents' concerns about the excessive costs involved in developing new infrastructure, albeit the latter might be seen as a positive economic benefit; to security risks around the hosting of the event, with crime being a crucial factor; and to the unavoidable issue linked to traffic/congestion, due to the nature of mega-event hosting, which also emphasises the environmental risks/footprint of the community, or place (see also Mallen et al., 2010).

In relation to an environmental concern, Gaffney (2010:7-8) argues that sport mega-events have "generally escaped the attention of geographers, yet they involve some of the most expensive, complex, and transformative processes that cities and nations undertake". In the case of the 2008 Beijing Summer Olympic Games, low-income neighbourhoods were seen to be cleared to make way for new mega-event infrastructures and renovations. Such renovations as those that are done to the Olympic Village sometimes apply to a city within a city. In addition, the stadia and roads linking the Olympic Village to the Games have special traffic lanes, highways, cultural and accommodation facilities built as temporary accommodation for athletes and tourists. All of the above is owed to the urban, social, cultural, economic, historical, spatial, political, and performative complexities of mega-events (Gaffney, 2010). By considering the example of Rio de Janeiro and their historical hosting of mega-events, Gaffney (2010:8) concludes:

> The production of space cannot be separated from the production of social relations. In the context of mega-events, the production of socio spatial relationships occurs with the intention of structuring or reforming urban socio space. The socio-spatial exigencies of the mega-event are necessarily reflective of the historical and political contexts in which they occur.

Given the display of concerns regarding the economic, social, and associated environmental consequences of mega-events, Chalip (2014) wonders why cities, regions and nations work hard to attract mega-events and, moreover, to use the events in their marketing. A forward-thinking theory is presented by Chalip (2017), who suggests that the quality of impacts derived from sport mega-event hosting depends upon a coordinated approach to event leveraging, which can either be a further challenge faced by host and non-host nations or, if effectively implemented, can maximise the potential for positive, long-term benefits (legacies), while minimising the potential risks to tourism and destination branding.

The role of the mega-event in leveraging practices

From a practice perspective, no other mega-event host has either set forth to, or has effectively achieved, as many tourism and destination branding benefits as has the Australian national brand for the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games (Brown et al., 2004). Australia's strategy for event tourism leveraging is extensively discussed by Chalip (2002), which shows how this country effectively capitalised on potential impacts pre, during and post event hosting, through a variety of tactics. Australia's leveraging strategies included: an aim to minimise the diversion effect for non-Olympic tourism through campaigning around the festivities and fun that the country had to offer throughout the year of the Olympic Games; the promotion of pre- and post-Game touring by means of incorporating the destination brand into traveling companies' brochures and promotional activities, once relationships and partnerships with these companies had been established; and, from a business strategy perspective, the pursuit of conventional business opportunities which, through the halo effect of the Olympic Games bid, favoured Sydney and Melbourne to bid and win numerous conventions, and, subsequently, to be positioned as the leading destination for conferences and conventions globally. Another leveraging strategy was to reposition the country's brand from its old Crocodile Dundee image to its newly projected brand image, as a diverse and modern country with a new look and feel, by means of employing tactics influencing the media in respect to the country. Programmes covered the visiting journalist, the Olympic media, and the sponsor relations programmes. During the Games, Australia's national brand image was fixed in the minds of the international markets, with the post-Games showing a follow-up communications strategy including new advertising, website and public relations campaigns, which were implemented to maintain and reinforce the international brand perceptions (Chalip, 2002).

Grix (2012) relatively recently reported that Germany realised the importance of employing a deliberate leveraging strategy to improve their nation's (poor) image abroad. Through an in-depth investigation into the stakeholders and commentators with knowledge of, or with direct involvement in, the country's staging of the 2006 FIFA World Cup, the aforementioned focuses on Germany's image leveraging tactics, which included a series of long-term, carefully coordinated campaigns, with the focus being on a 'fan-centred' approach to the organisation of the event, and on the creation of the 'feel-good factor'. A key finding points to the poor international perceptions that Germany had experienced prior to its staging of the 2006 FIFA World Cup, especially in the British press. The negative perceptions were linked to Germans being 'dominant', 'arrogant', and 'dull' people, as well as them still making

claims in terms of the Second World War and Nazism (Grix & Lacroix, 2006). Through the implementation of tactics pre-, during and post-event, perceptions have changed since 2006, with the British press having become much better disposed towards Germany than it was before (Grix, 2012). Consequently, more than a decade later, the nation-branding legacy is positively established for the nation.

In respect to the destination brand image, Grix (2012:309) argues that, much like in the aforementioned example of Germany:

> … the systematic and purposeful leveraging of a sports mega-event to alter a nation's image is easier for states (countries or cities) which suffer or have suffered from a poor national image.

In developing contexts, where nations are generally faced with poor brand imaging, leveraging the nation's brand image though the hosting of sport mega-events has proven to be of particular importance. Consequently, Knott et al. (2013) note that the 2010 FIFA World Cup Local Organising Committee (LOC) articulated the importance of nation branding for South Africa through the 2010 FIFA World Cup, in that the vision for the event, as well as one of the LOC's main objectives, was to change the global perceptions of South Africa and of the rest of the African continent. Not only was it important to attract short-term event visitors to South Africa, but it was equally important that the visitors should return home with a positive impression of the nation, and that the nation brand, in turn, benefited from increased tourism and investment, long after the event was staged (Knott et al., 2013).

Many of the visitors who lacked strong perceptions of South Africa prior to visiting the country came to hold strong, favourable perceptions of the country's image during the event, indicating "a positive impact on brand image and an increase in the brand equity of the nation brand in the specific context of tourism" (Knott et al., 2013:590). However, no clearly planned leveraging strategies were reported around the nation's brand image, other than the official destination-marketing slogan, "South Africa – alive with possibility", as well as the unofficial slogan that was well-publicised in the media "South Africa – the rainbow nation". Hopes were, therefore, expressed that the global media would show the world the diversity of cultures, natural beauty and organisational efficiency of South Africa (Knott et al., 2013). Compared to the former examples of Australia and Germany, the strategic plan that was held to set the rationale for the hosting of mega-events, in relation to the leveraging of tourism and nation-branding legacies for South Africa, has not yet been fully realised.

Even though the mega-event does not fall within the current study's scope, it was important for the current research to articulate the role of sport mega-events in leveraging practices aimed at achieving desired legacies. The above was especially so as the leveraging concept started emerging and developing within the mega-event context, most prominently around the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games. The concept has since continued to advance in the literature, with studies proposing models regarding economic, social, and image leveraging (see the writings of Chalip, 2004, 2006; Grix, 2012; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). However, by selecting the non-mega-event as the current study's focus, the present research suggests that a small-scale event holds similar, if not more, potential for sustainable, long-term tourism and for destination branding benefits for the host community, given that such events tend to be hosted more frequently than are mega-events. Also, due to the annually recurring nature of smaller events, the present study argues that the non-mega-event presents relatively greater opportunities for leveraging to augment such benefits than does the mega-event. The following subsection considers into the concept of hallmark events.

4.3.2 Hallmark events

While the difference between hallmark and mega-events might be small, it is still worth noting. According to Shahwe (2011:4), hallmark and mega-events are "occasional/irregular events which attract large crowds for the duration of the event and have a huge impact on the host destination". As mentioned in the above discussion, mega-events are generally regarded as consisting of the World Cups, the Olympic Games, and World Expos, which usually have a sport, or cultural, theme attached (Muller & Steyaert, 2013; Silvestre, 2009). Mirroring the cultural and sporting themes, Hall (1989:263) exemplifies hallmark events as consisting of "major fairs, expositions, cultural and sporting events of an international status". However, the mega-event is differentiated from the hallmark event due to the former's "high levels of tourism, media coverage, prestige, and economic impact on the host community" (Law, 2002:141). Getz, Svensson, Peterssen and Gunnervall (2012) state that, since the hallmark concept rests essentially on principles of quality and branding, its use in the tourism literature is predominantly focused on its roles and not on type, theme, size or ownership, which the mega-event often emphasises. Getz et al. (2012:52), therefore, argue that "the desired roles of hallmark events require permanence and periodicity and that one-time events cannot achieve all the pertinent goals".

Moreover, Getz (2008) and Getz et al. (2012) describe hallmark events as being a type of periodic event that is inseparably linked to a particular destination. The above is especially so if the destination embraces an event tourism portfolio, as hallmark events are held to have significant associations within their host communities. The aim is for the event to generate such a strong sense of community and place identity that the event and city image become inextricably linked. Ritchie and Crouch (2003:119-120) explicitly regard the following permanent events as being inseparably linked to the host destination: the Boston Marathon; the Kentucky Derby; The Masters golf tournament; the New Orleans Mardi Gras in New Orleans; the Munich Oktoberfest; the Calgary Stampede; the Oberammergau Passion Play; the Running of the Bulls in Pamplona; and the Wimbledon tennis tournament. What's more, Getz et al. (2012) recognise Melbourne in Australia as having successfully adopted the following hallmark events as part of their annual major events portfolio, which acts as a strategic positioning tactic for Melbourne and Australia as a global events destination: the Australian Open (tennis); the Australian Formula 1 Grand Prix; the Melbourne Food and Wine Festival; the L'Oreal Melbourne Fashion Festival; the Melbourne International Flower and Garden Show; the Melbourne International Comedy Festival; the Australian Rules Football Grand Final; the Melbourne Cup Carnival (horse racing); and the Boxing Day Test (cricket).

From the current study's perspective, it is clear that various cities in South Africa have a list of events that fit the 'hallmark' profile, including: the Cape Town Cycle Tour; the Soweto Marathon; the Cape Town Jazz Festival (music); the Cape Town Marathon; the Durban July (horse racing); and the Johannesburg International Mozart Festival (music). The events named, which are associated with the host communities concerned, are intrinsically linked to the place identity, based on the brand associations involved. However, neither the policy documents, nor the literature sources, establish whether South African cities (with the exclusion of those in the Western Cape), or whether the broader South African destination, has engaged in establishing event tourism portfolios for the purpose of strategic brand positioning. As the scope of the current study is linked to the annually recurring sport event, it can be seen to seek to establish which events are key to formulating an event portfolio for the purpose of sport event leveraging, so as not only to achieve destination brand building, but also so as to augment the value-added benefits that are linked to socio-economic benefits. Moreover, the relatively small hallmark events have clearly been under-researched in the past, especially in terms of legacies in general (Giampiccoli et al., 2015; Giampiccoli & Nauright, 2017). While such events do tend to occur more frequently than do mega-events, they are

accessible to a comparatively wide variety of host cities and towns, and they require the existence of tight local partnerships and human resources to stage (Taks, 2013). The importance of an event portfolio in relation to hallmark events is further discussed in the following subsection.

Hallmark events further need to secure stakeholder commitment to an event tourism portfolio, as well as to guarantee investment and revenues. The success of achieving the above comes through considering sustainability in terms of the triple bottom-line (economic, social and environmental outcomes) (Getz et al., 2012).

4.3.3   The importance of creating an event tourism portfolio

Getz et al. (2012) argue that it is imperative to secure stakeholder commitment to an event tourism portfolio to secure a guarantee of investment in terms of events and the revenue from events. The success of achieving stakeholder commitment can be achieved by considering sustainability in relation to a triple bottom-line, referring to the social, economic and environmental dimensions that set the criteria upon which the impact of events is measured (Slaper & Hall, 2011).

Ziakas (2018) postulates that destinations are increasingly capitalising on staging a series of sport events, so as to intensify the tourist experience, as well as to strengthen their destination's brand. Sport events, including periodic and once-off events, tend to take place throughout the calendar year, thus essentially forming part of the host destination's portfolio of events. The development of a sound event tourism portfolio, as advocated by Chalip (2004), Getz (2008), and Ziakas (2014), should reach a wide range of audiences through regular event hosting, as well as helping to serve various tourism or community purposes. Moreover, an event portfolio constitutes a fruitful strategy for attaining the sustainability of long-term benefits, as well as the optimal use of resources, provided that each event within the event portfolio matches, or reinforces, the benefits derived from other events (Ziakas & Costa, 2011).

Andersson et al. (2017:227) suggest that a portfolio carries both the collection of "art, published works, goods and services for sale, tasks to complete, or assets", as well as the "mechanisms to manage these collections". They advocate that both the collection itself (such as the events), and the mechanisms for developing and managing the event portfolio (such as the event organisers, the essential stakeholder networking, and the related policies and

investments) be of interest to the practitioners concerned. According to Ziakas (2014), an event portfolio integrates contextual, operational and sociocultural dimensions. The contextual dimension is believed to consist of the local policy setting, the economic and market conditions, as well as the stakeholder networks, the resource capacity, and the community characteristics that affect the portfolio planning and management. While the operational dimension determines, and regulates, the portfolio-composing strategies, including the selection and frequency of events, as well as their size and market orientation, the sociocultural dimension includes, and expresses, different local viewpoints on events and their symbolic meanings within the local community. If a portfolio that encompasses such dimensions and critical aspects is desired and effectively managed, it might be assumed that the overall event strategy will maximise both cumulative and long-term value (Andersson et al., 2017).

In one of his major studies, Getz (2008) illustrates an event tourism portfolio that consists of local events at the bottom tier, of regional events at the middle tier, and of occasional periodic events at the top tier of the pyramid (see Figure 4.3). The figure shows that, for each of the categories of events, both periodic and one-time events are indicated, with the assigned tourist demand and value for each being demonstrated. The suggested measures of the event's value are linked to the following aspects: growth potential; market share; image enhancement; community support; environmental value; economic benefits; sustainability; and appropriateness. Furthermore, as illustrated by the model, it is expected that the occasional high-profile hallmark event has a high tourist demand, with high value being attached to its size and scope, compared to that of the regional and local events.
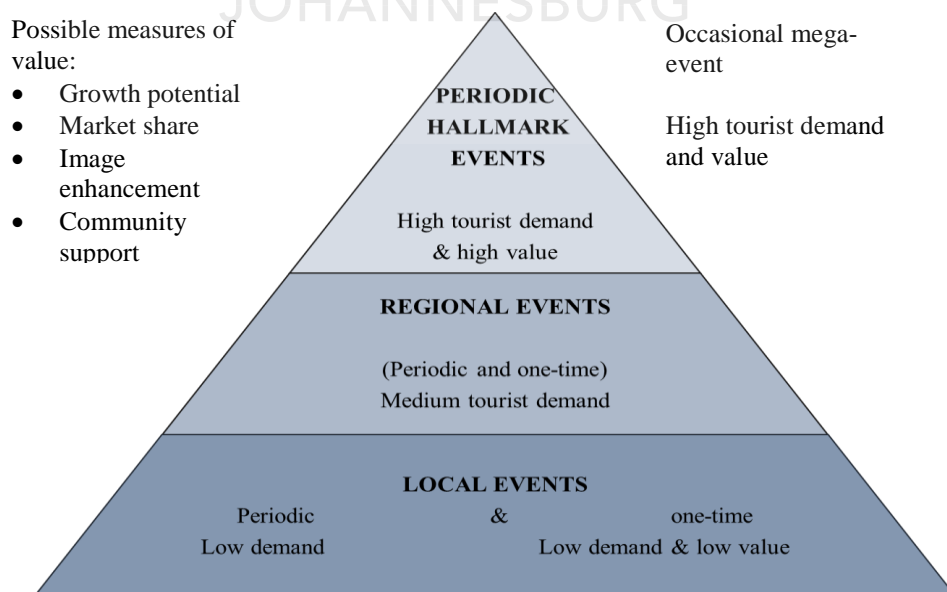
Figure 4.3: The portfolio approach to event tourism strategy-making and evaluation

Adopted from Getz (2008:407)

81

While the illustrated event tourism portfolio approach is sometimes criticised as being one-dimensional in its proposed value perspectives (Andersson et al., 2017), other researchers have taken a balanced approach in terms of which multiple-value perspectives are assumed. For instance, Chalip (2004, 2006) exemplifies an event portfolio as being a leveragable resource, and suggest strategies for the economic and social leveraging of events. From a policy perspective, the Western Cape Government (WCG) Integrated Events Strategy (n.d.:18) confirms that:

> … a balanced portfolio approach seeks to ensure that the complete mix of events in the events portfolio delivers on economic, social and environmental targets as a whole, rather than expecting individual events to deliver optimally against all priorities.

Along the lines of establishing a more complete and balanced approach, and a longer-term strategy, Getz (2013:23) enunciates:

> A full portfolio will consist of various types of events, for different target markets, held in different places, and at different times of the year, in pursuit of multiple goals.

A balanced portfolio of supported events that entail a seemingly suitable mix of events which generate substantial economic benefits, as well as that deliver wide sociocultural inclusivity benefits, has been adopted by the WCG, which justifies the imperative for host destinations to have a portfolio of events, on the basis of ensuring their sustainability. The resultant event portfolio of the WCG led to the development of the 'Cape of Great Events Strategy'. The events strategy concerned states that the balanced portfolio of events includes the retention of jewel events (which are the annual events associated with the area's identity, and which provide the area with competitive advantage), which coincide with the description of the hallmark event, as stated in the above subsection. Such a portfolio also consists of investing in incubating events (i.e. relatively small events that show potential to develop into jewels) and bidding for events with a proven record in delivering economic targets, or high-profile value (such as major or mega-events). It also concerns the creation of new events to capitalise on regional characteristics, and the enhanced alignment of existing and incubator events with the strategic objectives, as well as the filling in of calendar gaps, and the incremental development of event facilities to keep pace with the expanding events portfolio and to support event bidding. The event portfolio that demonstrates the above-mentioned events for the WCG is outlined in Figure 4.4 below.

Jewel events (Signature events)	Incubator (Brewing events)
Annual events, associated with the area's identity, that provide the area with competitive advantage	Relatively small events that show potential for developing into jewels
Local community events	**EVENTS PORTFOLIO**	Local community events
Bidding events (Major events or mega-events)	Leverage
Once-off large, compelling, major market events, whose privilege of hosting is acquired through participation in a bidding process	Events that occur outside the destination, but which provide a platform for the promotion of tourism, trade and investment within the destination

Figure 4.4: Event portfolio

Adopted from the Western Cape Government (n.d.:19)

Subsequent to recognising the importance of a broader conceptualisation of event portfolios that capture the multifaceted social, economic and tourism value for host communities, the above-mentioned event portfolio illustrates a forward-looking approach that is specifically linked to the leveraging of events that take place outside the region, yet promote the host destination. While the WCG's (n.d.) bidding for such sport mega-events as the 2004 Olympic Games and the 2010 FIFA World Cup was based on strategic planning, no strategy has yet been formulated that supports ongoing events, in particular in the Western Cape or Cape Town. While the City of Cape Town (COCT) has developed an integrated strategy as both a leverage platform and as future plans, leverage events are currently supported in a reactive and ad hoc manner (WCG, n.d.). Thus, having a proper leveraging plan in place is imperative to support the events portfolio. While a leveraging strategy is discussed in the next chapter, it is important to note that the strategic integration of sport events into tourism destination branding requires that each event be cross-leveraged with others in the destination's event portfolio, so as to maximise the value of intended outcomes (Chalip & Costa, 2005; Ziakas & Costa, 2011). The task for event planners and policymakers is to capitalise on the hosting of single events and to cross-leverage them with other events in the host community, so as to create synergies among different events for the derivation of associated economic, tourism, leisure, sport, or sociocultural objectives (Ziakas, 2014).

Based on the discussions above, an event tourism portfolio can clearly be seen to be pertinent to the derivation of significant value through event leveraging, more specifically from the

leveraging of recurring sport events that produce long-term benefits. As the existing literature on sport event leveraging was mainly found to be on the once-off mega-event event, the current study delves into the leveraging of the relatively small-scale, recurring sport tourism event. The research examines the perceived leveraging strategies regarding such event tourism portfolios as the events portfolio illustrated in Figure 4.3 above, within the South African destination context. The following heading discusses the narrative of the home-grown event, as adopted for the current study.

4.4 A narrative of home-grown (major) sport tourism events

The above discussion clearly shows that events take various shapes and sizes. While the discussion focused on the mega- and hallmark event themes, other event themes also emerged during the course of the study. For instance, the portfolio of events from the WCG highlighted 'jewel' and 'incubator' events, which fit specific categories, based on their size and scope, as well as offering very different benefits for the host destination compared to those that are offered by mega- and hallmark events. Furthermore, the leverage event is referred to, and recognised, as having a "high fit with the destination brand or with the priority economic sectors and markets associated with the destination" (WCG, n.d.:18).

The current study, however, refers to a different type of major sport event, namely the home-grown sport tourism event. Through an extensive search of literature sources, no known study in the public domain refers to the home-grown event. Thus, the present research is one of the first, if not *the* first research, that is globally emerging with the home-grown theme. The study argues that the home-grown event generally refers to recurring sport tourism events that have originated in, been produced by, and are being nurtured in, and by, a particular locale or destination. Also, similar to the hallmark event, such events serve to attract the international tourist and boast a number of unique aspects, such as a unique environmental (natural) setting, as well as a unique culture (in the experience of the particular destination and its people).

4.4.1   Contextualising home-grown events in South Africa

Tichaawa et al. (2018:188) postulate that Africa is a diverse continent, as a result of its "populace, natural resource, economic and developmental trajectories, infrastructural and governance capabilities as well as tourism capacity and potential". The researchers highlight the clear challenges facing various African nations, including the high levels of inequality; migration and climate change; the vulnerable economic, political and ecological positioning; and, from a tourism perspective, the uneven geography, when considering the number of

mega-events that are held in Africa. The continent of Africa is, therefore, believed to be facing clear consequences in the global tourism markets as a result of such challenges.

Despite such challenges, the National Sport Tourism Strategy (2012) reports that various African nations have recently recognised the importance of hosting various types of sport events, especially in terms of their economic and urban development. For example, the National Sport Tourism Strategy (2012) recognises such Northern African countries as Morocco, Tunisia and Egypt, as well as countries like Kenya, as being capable of generating substantial tourism benefits and revenue from especially water-based activities, as well as from cycling, jogging, walking, and adventure sports, which are all believed to be home-grown. Africa is also known as being the host of the biannual domestic football tournament, the African Cup of Nations (AFCON), which is perceived to be the most popular sporting event on the African continent (Amenumey & Amuquandoh, 2010). Moreover, despite the apparent inequality of development across the continent, some emerging African nations, including Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Egypt, Mauritius and Morocco, are investing in golf development. A KPMG report of 2014 states that Morocco, especially, contributes to Africa's golf supply by offering a growing number of golf resorts (see also Knott & Hemmonsbey, 2017). Apart from South Africa, Morocco is one of Africa's rising golf destinations. The country is fast positioning itself as a promising golf destination, with a wide range of golf courses in beautiful surroundings, and with its promising climate. Morocco is held to be set to become a serious consideration for golf tourism in the future (Knott & Hemmonsbey, 2017). Tichaawa et al. (2018) note that South Africa has become a serial campaigner in the bidding for, and the hosting of, mega-events offering the clear benefits of sport tourism and destination marketing to the host destination concerned. However, the extent to which sport tourism has benefited other African countries is debatable, and it still remains unexplored. As the current research empirically investigated the South African brand, the framework of recommendations derived from the research is suggested as having the possibility of being applied to the broader African context in future.

According to Brand South Africa (2004), the country is a sport-loving nation that appreciates such international sports such as those that are played under the aegis of the Rugby and Cricket World Cups, the A1 Grand Prix, the Indian Premier League, and the World Cups of Golf, Athletics, Swimming, with the largest World Cup being that of FIFA. Further expressing the country's love for sport, South Africa has committed to investing in iconic, world-class sport stadia and training facilities. Moreover, proving their continued success in

terms of sport event hosting, South Africa has played host to a number of internationally acclaimed home-grown sport events (Brand South Africa, 2004). The development of home-grown sport tourism events in South Africa is growing in frequency, with various major cities realising that, in addition to the mega-event, numerous socio-economic benefits and potential urban regeneration opportunities exist that are attached to the hosting of home-grown sport events. For example, the Integrated Events Strategy for Cape Town and the Western Cape reports that the benefits of hosting events are not limited to mega-events. In fact, all events that are hosted within a destination have the potential to drive growth, economic development and job creation (WCG, n.d.). A list of the events under the category of 'home-grown' is stated by Brand South Africa (2004), including the Nedbank Golf Challenge; the Cape Town Pick 'n Pay Cycle Tour; the Giro del Capo (cycling); the Cape Epic (mountain bike race); the Comrades Marathon; the Two Oceans Marathon; the Dusi Canoe Marathon; and the Surf Ski World Cup. With regards to the location of some of the events, figures 4.3 and 4.4 illustrate the current study's event case studies in terms of their location within their respective hosting provinces and cities/regions. Figure 4.5 illustrates the Comrades Marathon hosted in the Durban and Pietermaritzburg regions in the KwaZulu-Natal province. Figure 4.6 subsequently demonstrates the IRONMAN triathlon, which is hosted in the Eastern Cape Province, within the city of Port Elizabeth and Nelson Mandela Bay region.
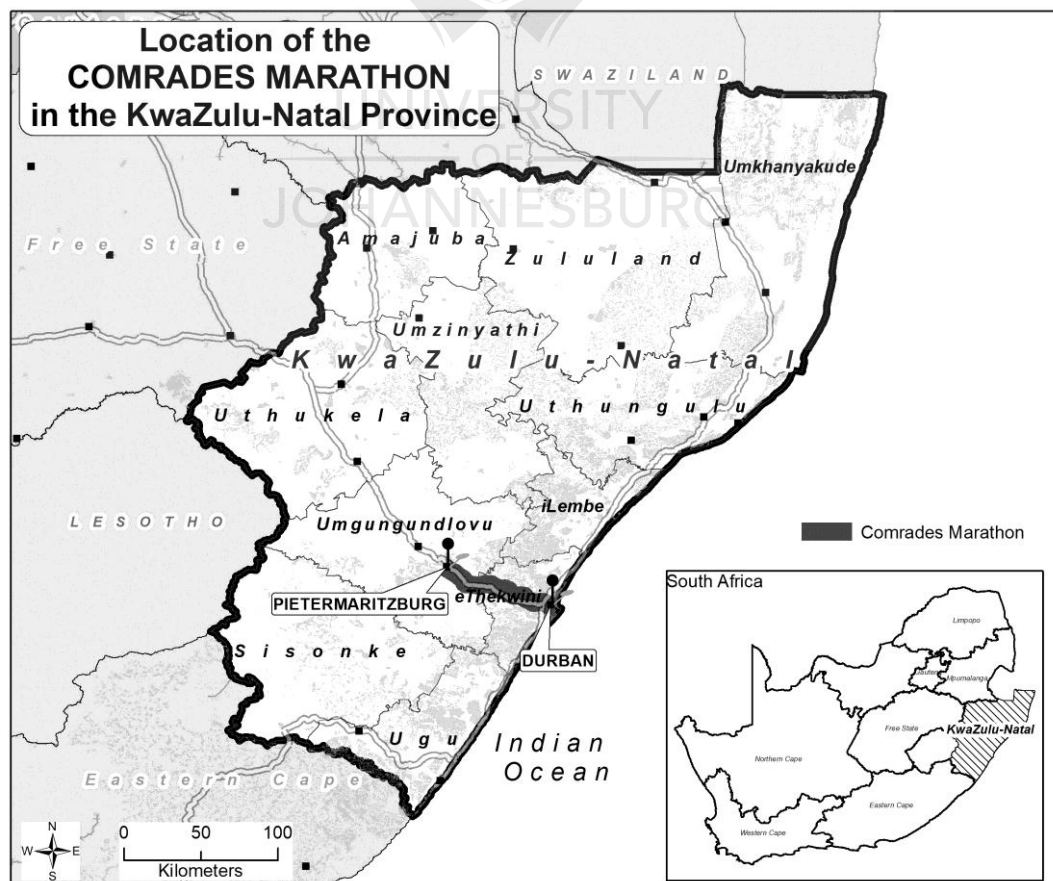
Figure 4.5: Location of the Comrades Marathon in the KwaZulu-Natal province
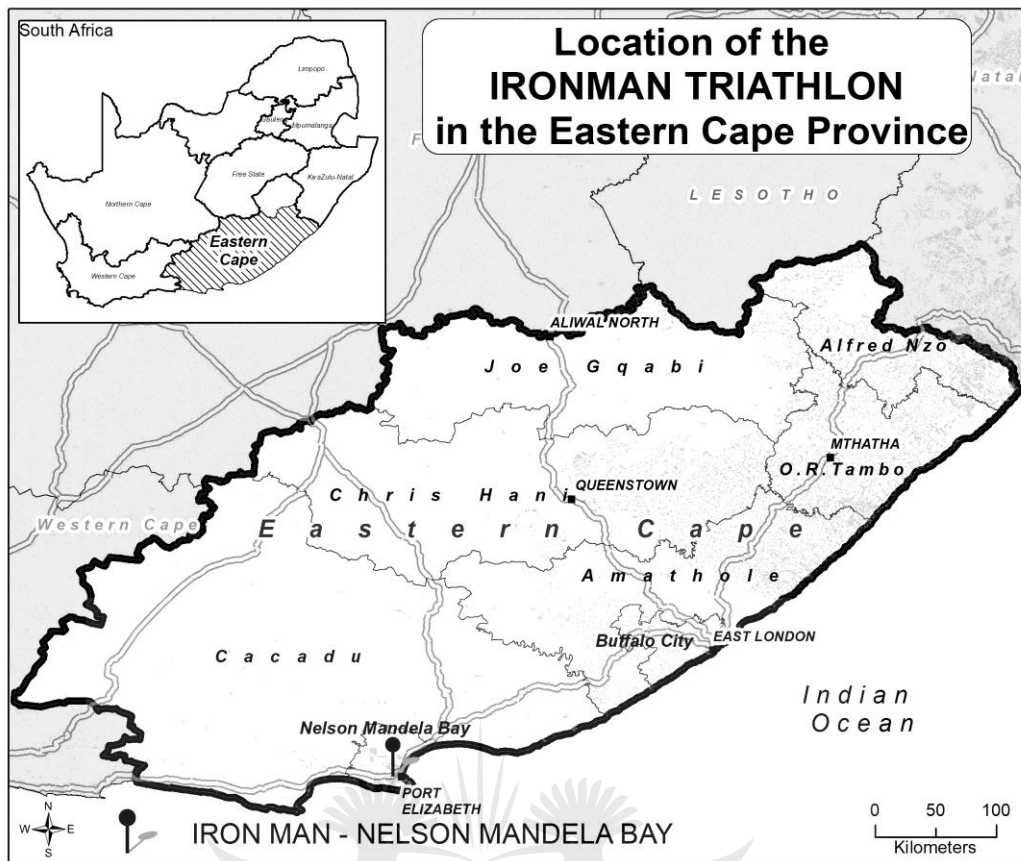
Figure 4.6: Location of the IRONMAN triathlon event in the Eastern Cape Province

Such home-grown sport events as the above-mentioned marathons, cycling events and triathlons usually require a natural setting, with large open spaces that can accommodate the hosting of the mass participation events. The destinations hosting such sport events are required to offer other destination and tourism amenities, like sufficient facilities, accommodation, restaurants, and additional tourism attractions that are associated with the host city (Knott & Hemmonsbey, 2015), all of which South Africa is believed to offer, due to the country's recognised sport event hosting. South Africa has certainly strongly dominated the hosting of mega-events, which have proven to provide a huge socio-economic stimulus for the South African brand. In addition, South Africa's hosting of a series of recurring home-grown sport tourism events has provided further impetus for the economic maturing of the nation, with it, moreover, having provoked intentions of destination branding though event leveraging. Yet, some studies have noted the lack of leveraging of the events, as in the following instance:

> Some of these events, such as the Two Oceans and Comrades marathons, the Cape Argus cycle race, and the Dusi and Berg River canoe marathons, are presented in some of the most scenic areas of South Africa. Thus, sport tourists could also engage in tourism when they come to South Africa to attend, or participate in, these events (Kotze, 2006:292).

87

The imperative for the current study, in terms of investigating sport event leveraging for strategic branding outcomes in the South African context, is, thus, emphasised (Kotze, 2006). The following chapter, therefore, delves into discussions on the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events for destination branding outcomes in relation to the South African context.

4.5 Chapter summary

The current chapter began with the conceptualisation of sport tourism as a field of study, by separately discussing sport and tourism as concepts. The nature of sport was articulated with reference to the 'event', with leveraging being considered an important strategy for the deriving of destination branding benefits, in the context of home-grown sport events. Articulating the sport tourism concept for the current research, the chapter discussed the sport tourism framework, as postulated by Tichaawa et al. (2018), and considered the imperatives/outcomes linked to the socio-economic, cultural, tourism, and destination image promotion for the sport tourist, as well as for the host destination, as a consequence of sport-leveraging activities.

The sport tourism event was, subsequently, discussed in regard to the mega- and hallmark event. While the mega-event clearly presents huge benefits for the host nation/city, the benefits have not proved to be sustainable for all host nations in the long term. For example, the economic outcomes for Brazil from their hosting of the 2014 FIFA World Cup and the 2016 Olympic Games proved to be short-lived. For such a reason, nations have increasingly approached events from a strategic perspective, so as to be able to apply tactics of leveraging to maximise the desired outcomes. Whether it is linked to tourism, such as in the case of Australia and the 2000 Olympic Games, or whether it is for the purpose of image leveraging, such as in the case of Germany and the 2006 FIFA World Cup, the leveraging concept has become increasingly significant.

The hallmark event was subsequently discussed, with such events being extrinsically linked to the host destination, as it tends to elevate the event and destination image through association. Also, the importance of an event tourism portfolio was discussed, with the portfolio consisting of recurring annual hallmark events that are held to reach a wide segment of sport tourists on a regular basis, which is impossible to achieve with the once-off mega-event. While Australia is believed to have successfully adopted an event tourism portfolio of hallmark events (sporting and otherwise), the event portfolio of the Western Cape in South Africa was also

interrogated, with such portfolios consisting of a variety of events aimed at leveraging destination branding benefits. The current chapter also noted that, when properly leveraged, the event portfolio can derive benefits of perceived value, destination image-building, and social, economic, and environmental benefits. Another key note is the cross-leveraging between events that can optimise the reach and frequency of leveraging across a variety of tourist segments.

The final part of the chapter contextualised the home-grown sport event in terms of the current study's context. While the term 'home-grown' is non-existent in the literature, the researcher proposes use of this neologism in relation to sport tourism events aimed at leveraging for destination branding purposes. The following chapter, in discussing the leveraging of sport tourism events, contextualises sport event leveraging in relation to the emerging destinations.

CHAPTER FIVE
SPORT EVENT LEVERAGING FOR HOST DESTINATIONS

5.1   Introduction

Chapter Four discussed the two convincing examples of Australia and Germany that formerly leveraged sport events. The chapter also showed how, through strategic planning, the nations were able to maximise the long-term sustainable benefits from such events. To recap, in the case of Germany, the nation aimed to transform and to advance international perceptions around the host nation's image through the planning of strategies and tactics implemented prior to, during and post the 2006 FIFA World Cup hosting. As such, the significance and influence of the media (broadcast and print) could be seen as gaining increasing importance in terms of image leveraging. In contrast, for Australia, leveraging was aimed at particular tourism and economic benefits, through its hosting of the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games. The effects of leveraging the Olympic Games for the nation have certainly been adopted by other nations as best practices for future cities and nations in regard to sport event leveraging, as well as by academics, as they have come to ground emerging models and frameworks in the concept of event leveraging.

Other host nations have adopted leveraging strategies for achieving both economic and social benefits for the host community through tourism. The above can be seen in the case of London and the 2012 Olympic and Paralympic Games. According to Smith (2014), the case of London might represent the most determined collection of economic and social leveraging projects ever pursued. The development of a 'Young Leaders' education programme, community small business programmes, and the 'Inspire' programme, in terms of which the 2012 logo indicated that a project had been 'inspired' by the Games, among other programmes, shows that a rationale for leveraging was evident from the pre-event planning phase of the Games, with it having been sustained post-event (Smith, 2014). However, as with the aforementioned cases, it is apparent that the effects of sport event leveraging, as it applies in the developing nation context, lacks comprehension, even though developing nations have increasingly come to host sport mega-events in recent times.

The current chapter discusses the above-mentioned issues by debating the concepts and models of leveraging for the host nation. It further outlines the unique aspects of the non-mega-event as a significant consideration for the making of further advances in sport event leveraging. Thereafter, the chapter highlights sport event leveraging for the developing nation,

before it concludes with a discussion of the significance of strategic stakeholder partnerships in the leveraging of sport tourism events.

5.2 Leveraging in context

The concept of leveraging has gained a great deal of interest among academics and practitioners over the past decade. As noted in Chapter Four, the notion of event leveraging has drawn particular interest, as a result of the way in which the Australian stakeholders; businesses, governments, and not-for-profit organisations worked together to formulate strategies and tactics to capitalise on the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games (Chalip, 2002). In recent times, there has been growing awareness from government stakeholders regarding the approaching of the planning and managing of events in a relatively strategic manner, especially as they need not only to justify their making of the huge public investment required for event hosting, but also to stimulate value beyond the immediate event radius (Chien et al., 2018; Fairley, Cardillo & Filo, 2016; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). Some extant studies (see, for example, Beesley & Chalip, 2011; Chalip, 2017) have argued that achieving long-term value from events relies on event leveraging, referring to the adoption of a strategic approach to event management, so as to maximise the economic, social and environmental benefits to be gained from event hosting.

Traditionally, research has been preoccupied with an ex-post, outcome-orientated approach to event outcomes, in terms of which the primary researched focus is still on impact assessments, rather than on strategies through which these outcomes are obtained or enhanced (see Bramwell, 1997; Cornelissen et al., 2011; Scheu & Preuss, 2018; Yürük, Akyol & Şimşek, 2017). Thus, research seldom considers the adoption of the ex-ante, strategic approach to event benefits, which essentially refers to the phenomenon of event leveraging (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008. Chalip (2014) explains that, due to the growing interest that has been expressed in using events strategically for social, economic and environmental purposes, the necessary strategies and tactics are being refined, resulting in a proactive paradigm shift away from the conventional foci on event impacts. Regarding the measuring of event outcomes for the host destination, Chalip (2014) further highlights that measuring event impacts only considers what the event might be worth after the fact. However, as events add to the host destination's product and service mix, they need to be treated accordingly. Thus, the strategic question essentially rests with event leveraging, in terms of what needs to be done with an event "in conjunction with the rest of the product and service mix at our host destination in order to optimise desired economic, social, and/or environmental outcomes"

(Chalip, 2014:4). The outlook on event outcome assessments, therefore, presents a paradigm shift away from the conventional impact paradigm.

In one of the most cited research works on leveraging, Chalip (2006) illustrates leveraging as a strategic focus on identifying the strategies and tactics of implementation prior to, and during, event hosting, making the outcomes involved relatively insignificant. The ultimate objective is to learn from implemented strategies, so as to improve future leveraging activities and efforts. Table 5.1 below illustrates the event's impact versus the event's leverage, as postulated by Chalip (2006:113).

Table 5.1: The event's impact versus the event's leverage

Outcomes	Strategies
Event treated in isolation	Event analysed with reference to destination product and service mix
Event evaluation	Organisation learning
Ex-post focus	Ex-ante focus
Descriptive	Analytic

Adapted from Chalip (2006:113)

Likewise, leveraging, and, in particular, the strategic leveraging of events, requires to be distinguished from the typical mega-event legacy frameworks. The above is advocated due to Chalip (2014) recognising that the feasibility of policies and alliances for sustainable event leveraging does not rest with the event organisers, as in the case of event legacy policies. To demonstrate the above, the concept of legacy is highly contended in the literature. Despite efforts to define the term 'legacy', Cornelissen et al. (2011) recognise that there is little consensus within the research community on what the term 'legacy' entails, or how it should be defined. However, one of the most comprehensive definitions of legacy is presented by Preuss (2007:211) as follows:

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

According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2006), the lack of clear and definitive definition and comprehension of legacy complicates the measurement of event legacies for the host nations.

Thus, the above impacts on the way in which nations fully recognise, and understand, the complexity of event legacies (Preuss, 2007).

Legacies from sport mega-events have become increasingly important, with the concept having been included as part of the International Olympic Committee's (IOC's) and the FIFA Organising Committee's charters that are aimed at promoting positive legacies for the host nation, or city, concerned (Dickson et al., 2011). However, Chalip (2014) argues that the key concern for event organisers of the IOC, for example, is that the word 'legacy', and the model that is advanced by such organising committees, focus on the event's organisation in terms of commitments of legacy, which are, consequently, inconsistent with the comprehensive work being undertaken into leveraging. A problem that is presented within the inherited legacy framework, as postulated by Chalip (2014), is that the event organisers tend to treat legacies as being secondary to the actual event receiving priority. Another problem is that the organising committee usually disbands shortly after an event is hosted, which impacts on the sustainability of legacy programmes. As leveraging requires strategic integration into the host destination's product and service mix, the responsibility for leveraging should lie with the destination that is responsible for the economic, social and environmental development concerned, which includes local business, government and service organisations. For the above-mentioned reasons, leveraging can be interpreted as a means towards establishing a legacy.

Due to the above discussions on the concept of legacy, Chalip (2004) advocates the need for event 'leveraging', arguing that "leveraging is merely the collection of strategies and tactics employed to enable the generation of desired legacies" (Chalip, 2014:6). Leveraging is further suggested to be articulated and applied in the context of a portfolio of events, including once-off and recurring ones (Lui, 2016). In line with the inclusion of recurring events within an event portfolio, Chalip (2014) expresses a belief that such inclusion will, consequently, result in there being fewer constraints on stakeholders to implement leveraging activities effectively within the short-term duration of events, as occurs in the mega-event context.

According to Chalip and Costa (2005), there is a particular need to explore the use of events in promoting the destination brand, as very little is known about the ways in which consumers receive, and process, event information pertaining to the host destination (Chalip, 2014). While events can harm a destination brand even more than they can help it (Chalip et al., 2003), it is argued that the necessary means for making event and destination brands

symbiotic though event leveraging need to be identified and explored (Chalip, 2014). Sport event leveraging, in the context of destination branding, is, therefore, explored in the current research through an in-depth investigation of stakeholder and sport tourist perspectives into events within the adopted study context. The following section, after discussing the advances that have been made in event leveraging models, contextualises event leveraging for home-grown tourism events.

5.3 The advancement and implementation of event leveraging models

From the novel work that has been undertaken into event leveraging, Chalip (2004) and O'Brien and Chalip (2008) developed two models for event leveraging, with a focus on tourism and economic development, as well as on leveraging for social benefits. Figure 5.1 below indicates two distinct leveraging models.
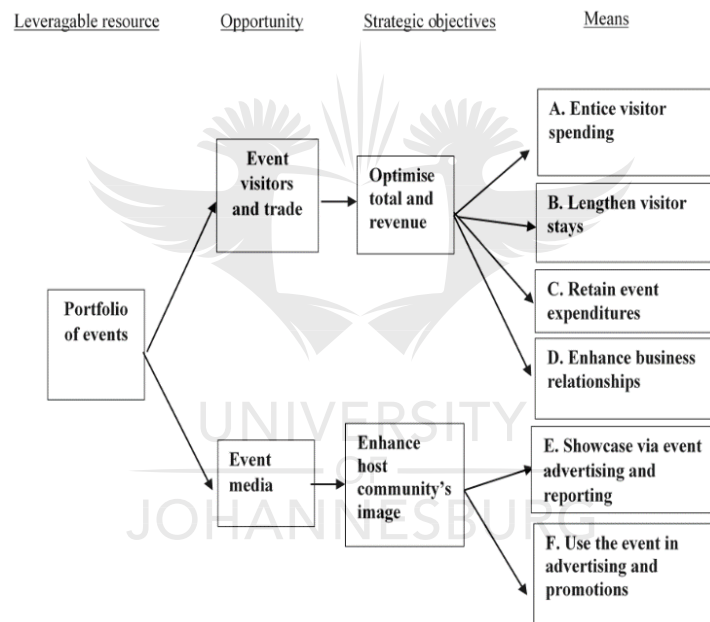
Figure 5.1: A schematic representation of economic event leveraging
Adapted from Chalip (2004:229)

The above schematic model for event leveraging is referred to as an economic leveraging model, as it focuses on the means/outcomes of economic development through tourism spending. In terms of the model, a vision is presented of an established events portfolio serving as a leveragable resource that presents opportunities for the host nation/city. The vision recognises both long-term strategies, such as the use of event media to enhance the host community's image, and immediate strategies, which are linked to the optimising of trade and revenue from events through tourism. An articulation of the means for establishing immediate strategies, in terms of the model, shows themes of economic development through (return)

visitor spending and sustainable business relationships. As for the long-term strategies, the means by which long-term leveraging can be achieved are associated with the advertising, promotion and reporting of events through the event media. According to Jago et al. (2003), a couple of reasons exist for justifying the practicality of the strategy; firstly, sport events have the potential to generate raw human emotion and drama, which can make newsworthy material for news media and sponsors; and, secondly, event and destination marketers have a shared stake in aligning their respective marketing messages to appeal to the associations that attendees make between the event and the host region.

From a social leverage perspective, Chalip (2006:109, 123) notes that sport events, rather than being mere entertainment, are "social occasions with potential social value (and also a potential source of problems)" (see Figure 5.2 below). Thus, the aforementioned author has sought to focus attention on the strategies of social leveraging. In addition, Chalip (2014:5) notes that social leveraging aims to focus event stakeholders' attention on targeted social issues through: aligning the event with the social issues that are at stake; aligning the values poised between the social issues and the focal sport subcultures; lengthening visitor stays so as to lengthen their engagement with the targeted social issues; and enticing attendees' engagement with the social issues targeted. O'Brien and Chalip (2007) suggest that event organisers should implement the following strategies to leverage social impacts, namely the enabling of sociability; the creating of event-related social events; the facilitating of informal social opportunities; and the producing of ancillary events and themes. While studies by Kellett et al. (2008) and Ziakas and Costa (2011) support the above-mentioned social leverage model, Taks et al. (2013) argue that social leveraging still requires a considerable degree of work to achieve the desired means. Therefore, Chalip (2014) advocates for the undertaking of additional research that will identify, and explore, the challenges and means for social leveraging.
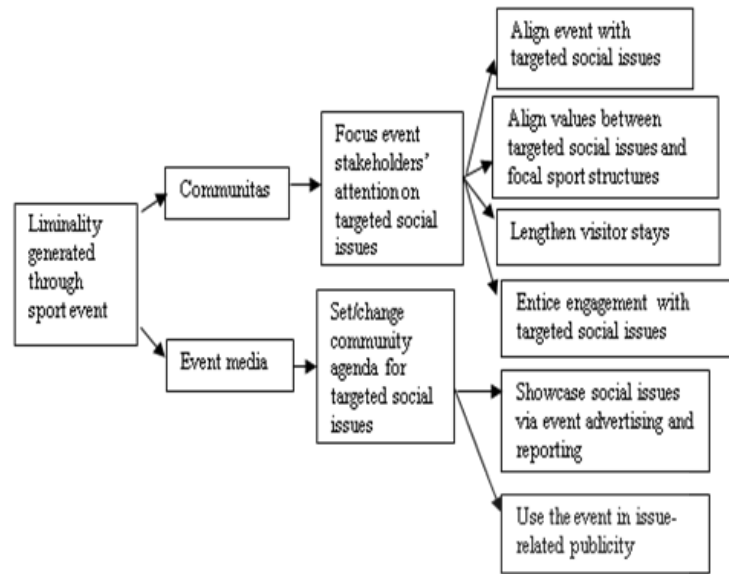
Figure 5.2: Proposed model for social leverage

Adapted from O'Brien and Chalip (2008:324)

While the general model for leveraging applies in the case of the current study, it is important to note the advancement of this particular model. From a practical point of view, Weed (2008) has extended Chalip's (2004) general model for sport event leveraging to the context of the Olympic Games. The refined model particularly identifies the Olympic Games as being a leveragable resource, as a result of the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games, which also exemplify, for the first time, sport in which strategies were developed prior to, during and post the event. Consequently, the model more intensively than before scrutinises the concept of sport event leveraging, as opposed to the extensive event leveraging model presented by Chalip (2004). Weed's (2008) extended leveraging model of Olympics-related tourism is illustrated in Figure 5.3 below.
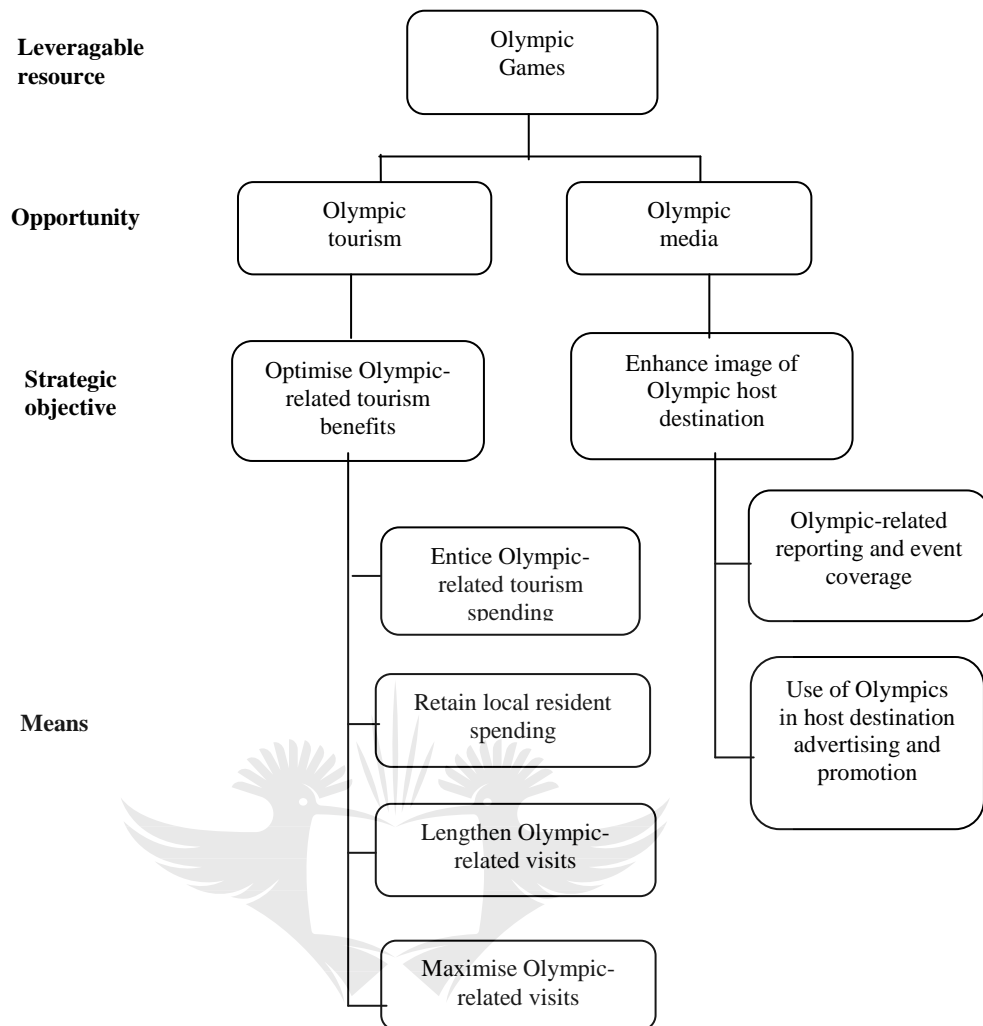
Figure 5.3: Model for Olympic tourism leveraging
Adapted from Weed (2008:71)

While the above model focuses primarily on the Olympic Games as a leveragable resource, it is restrictive in terms of leveraging only one sport event, being one that is a once-off, with often no intention to return to the same city. Thus, the suggested leveragable resource in the extended model by Weed (2008) runs contrary to the findings of Chalip (2004), who advocates for an event tourism portfolio consisting of both once-off and recurring events that are sure to heighten the frequency of derived benefits across a variety of tourism markets. Noting the limitation in Weed's (2008) model, Boukas et al. (2013) argue that the potential afforded in the wake of the Olympic Games remains unrealised, due to a lack of strategic cross-leveraging synergies between the Olympic legacy and cultural tourism for the host city. Furthermore, Ziakas and Boukas (2014) recognise that events are assets that generate the need for cross-leveraging with the host city's other assets. In terms of the above, the synergy inherent in leveraging opportunities, as well as in sport, cultural and other destination assets,

is promoted. With a focus on the 2004 Athens Olympic Games, Boukas et al.'s (2013) subsequent recommendation of a modified strategic planning framework for leveraging, based on that of Weed (2008), should allow for opportunities to cross-leverage and capitalise on tourism from both the Olympic Games and cultural events, so as to maximise the benefits of Athens' legacy and heritage in terms of the city's tourism development (see Figure 5.4 below).

Leverag-able Resource — Olympic legacy and cultural heritage

Opportunity — Capitalise on the Olympic legacy and heritage

Joint strategic objectives — Optimise sport-related tourism benefits | Optimise culture-related tourism benefits

Grounding means — Utilise Olympic venues | Use Olympic legacy and heritage themes in

Derivative means — Design Olympic-related attractions | Develop an event portfolio | Package sport and cultural attractions | Attract conferences/ exhibitions

Figure 5.4: A strategic planning framework for the leveraging of post-Olympic tourism

Adapted from Boukas et al. (2013:38)

According to the above-mentioned strategic planning framework, shared strategic objectives are realised to optimise both sport and culture-related tourism benefits, as opposed to the strategic objectives of the previous leveraging models of Chalip (2004) and Weed (2008), who treat the objectives as separate intentions. For Athens, it was found that the strategies were believed to encompass dimensions of the Olympic heritage, while serving to enrich the city's tourism product, by means of integrating its cultural tourism offerings (Ziakas & Boukas, 2014). What is further unique to this practically applied modified model for leveraging are the resultant means emerging from the set joint strategic objectives. The strategic planning framework realises that there are two types of means, namely grounding means and derivative means. The grounding means is believed to establish the foundation for the employing of further strategies and tactics. Subsequently, the derivative means emerge from the grounding means, with the former being believed to be capable of sustaining the value of the Olympic legacy for the host destination concerned.

The advanced strategic planning framework for leveraging devised by Boukas et al. (2013) shows the development of a portfolio of events, with one of the derivative means being compared to the previous models by Chalip (2004) and Weed (2008), advocating a portfolio of events as the leveragable resource. Ziakas and Costa (2011) provide insight into the advanced framework, stating that an event portfolio is said to constitute a profitable strategy for deriving long-term sustainable benefits, as well as for optimising the use of resources. The above, consequently, justifies that the event portfolio should form part of other sport and cultural attractions (i.e. the derivative means), and, as a result, form part of the city's tourism product mix, so as to optimise and sustain the resources linked to the Olympic legacy.

Furthermore, while the above discussions of, and models for, leveraging predominantly involve the mega-event as being the ideal leveragable resource, it remains unclear how models for leveraging can inform places and destinations from the perspective of recurring events. According to Ziakas (2014), for the most part, an event portfolio may be distinguished either through cross-leveraging: (1) the different recurring events of the portfolio; (2) the whole portfolio, in the case of once-off mega-events; or the portfolio of recurring events and/or once-off events with the host community's product and service mix. Seemingly, then, only the once-off mega-event features prominently as part of leveraging, while recurring events are neglected (Misener, 2015). In the context of the current study, the home-grown recurring events constitute the so-called portfolio of events which, from the basis of the aforementioned arguments, can either be viewed as a leveragable resource, or as a derivative

means of sustaining the value of sport tourism events for the destination brand. Furthermore, recurring events are considered together with other annual events and destination attractions to inform destinations regarding the benefits that can be derived from an all-encompassing event portfolio.

5.3.1 Unique features of recurring non-mega-events that advance event leveraging models

Compared to the once-off mega-event, which is large in size, scope and reach, the non-mega-event, albeit more frequently hosted, is smaller in size, scope and reach. While the latter seemingly presents outcomes, whether they be economic, social or environmental, that are on a less substantial scale for the host destination, it is not without its unique features, impacts and strategic results, which are seen as being valuable for the host destinations' product and service mix.

Taks (2013) explains that non-mega-events are significantly different from mega-events with regards to their effect on the local host community. For example, the potential exists for tighter social networks and connections with the local community regarding the event, be the role players involved politicians, spectators, volunteers, destination marketing managers, or event organisers (Taks, Chalip & Green, 2015). In addition, with regards to the event venues and the marketing of events, Taks et al. (2015) points out that the relatively small-scale, non-mega-event tends to use comparatively small-scale facilities, and it does not require an expensive infrastructure. Such an event also creates opportunities for sustainable local partnerships, and for enhanced coordination efforts between the event organisers and their partners which, from a local community hosting and marketing perspective, makes non-mega-events uniquely different to the mega-event, which is accompanied by a huge cost of hosting, and by exclusive marketing activities. In addition to capitalising on event tourism and media as opportunities for leveraging, as suggested by traditional event leveraging research by Chalip (2004), it is clear that, in regards to the non-mega-event, the consideration that is given to relatively strong social networks, and to sustainable local partnerships, must be included in the key strategic prospects.

From the view of framing the strategic objectives of non-mega-events, some studies, such as that of O'Keefe, Titlebaum and Hill (2009), have highlighted that, similarly to sponsorship activation, an organisation, whether it consist of politicians, local sport organisations, local businesses, or marketing destination organisations, can associate itself with an event, and, through co-branding, can incorporate its own marketing efforts to attain preset economic,

tourism, social, or environmental objectives. According to Taks et al. (2015), the creation of local strategic partnerships and coordinating marketing efforts is especially highlighted as a fundamental process of creating desired outcomes in the context of non-mega sport events, given that opportunities exist for long-term, continuous or year-round engagement. Chalip, Green, Taks and Misener (2016) confirm that, in all sponsorship and co-branding cases, the activation, or leveraging, requires the input of human, financial, and physical resources, as well as time. From the above-mentioned perspectives, it is apparent that the non-mega-event goes beyond strategic objectives to optimise sport tourism-related revenue and the host destination image, as illustrated by leveraging models on the mega-event, so as to include the tactics around co-branding activities, which present a basis for strategic destination branding through the hosting of sport tourism events.

Interestingly, compared to the mega-event, the inherited features of the non-mega-event are not enough to justify their great potential for creating desired outcomes, thus the contributions of the leveraging theory accentuate the significance of moving towards the leveraging of the events that is required for the employing of strategies and tactics to create desirable outcomes for the host destination, as was earlier postulated in terms of the conceptualisation of leveraging. To the above extent, Taks et al. (2015) advocate the clear development and implementation of strategies and tactics to justify and validate the value of non-mega-events, in terms of achieving outcomes that are sought after by the host destination. A recent study conducted by Kelly and Fairley (2018) on the leveraging of small-scale events reveals that event managers often express the belief that the funding that is offered by governments to promote tourism leveraging is a diversion from the core purpose of the staging of the event. Thus, the funding is restricted for all activities surrounding effective leveraging, so as to retain visitors to the particular destination. Furthermore, while event managers might acknowledge that tourism leveraging significantly expands not only the event's target markets, but also the size of an event, the beneficiaries of leveraging are still largely associated with the tour operating companies concerned. Despite all the above, Kelly and Fairley (2018) note that mutually beneficial relationships tend to occur between the event and the tourism organisations involved, when funding partners and event collaborate.

From the above discussion on the unique features of non-mega-events that are associated with leveraging, it is apparent that the opportunities, the strategic objectives and the desired means or outcomes of non-mega-events contend with those of the mega-event, in the way in which they are framed and justified. Small-scale events are further surmised to present unique

aspects, particularly as they link to funding and stakeholder collaboration, when it comes to sport event leveraging for the attainment of destination branding benefits. Thus, for event leveraging through home-grown recurring events to be fully realised for the host destinations concerned, it is imperative to include the unique features of the non-mega-event in the leveraging. The current study, therefore, investigated multiple stakeholder perspectives beyond those of sport event managers, as was the case with Kelly and Fairly (2018), with the research including stakeholders in government and tour operating companies. The above was done to derive a holistic view and perspective on sport event leveraging and on the brand-related benefits, by means of considering the small-scale event in the context of a developing destination. The discussion chapter of the thesis served as additional stimulation for the attainment of the current study's empirical results.

5.4 The importance of event leveraging for the developing of host nations

In the light of the scarce amount of research that was available on the developing nation contexts where sport event leverage was concerned, the current researcher attempted to contribute to the extant body of knowledge informing the developing host nations around sport event hosting. As was previously postulated in the present thesis, increasingly more developing nations and emerging economies have come to bid for, and to host, series of sport mega- and major events. For the above reason, the frame working of recommendations to inform the nations concerned is advocated, in particular in respect of their very different social, economic, and political environments.

5.4.1   The economic environment of developing nations

Most notably, the justification for the hosting of sport events in the developing nation context is usually due to their ability to pave the way for economic development. More specifically, "sport tourism events have been earmarked as having the ability to spotlight previously neglected and underdeveloped destinations" (Nyikana & Tichaawa, 2018:76). According to Nauright (2013), many nations have been developing sport tourism- and event-driven economies to increase the influx of foreign currency into the host destinations. For the developing nations and the emerging economies, the above is especially true, due to their unfavourable exchange rate in relation to that of such major global currencies as the dollar and the euro (Knott & Hemmonsbey, 2015). Furthermore, the economic interests from business opportunities are also presented through sport event hosting. Also, sport events, especially those of a global nature, tend to work as a motivator of 'urban boosterism', which justifies and accelerates the associated infrastructural investments (Hiller, 2000). In a study on

the 2010 FIFA World Cup and on the 2014 FIFA World Cup in South Africa and Brazil, respectively, De Almeida et al. (2015) state that economic investments for the developing nations are seen as valuable promotional opportunities, in terms of which the nations are showcased globally, as well as attracting tourism and outside investment to the host nations concerned. However, Giampiccoli and Nauright (2017) argue that such developing nations as South Africa, for example, are able to host large-scale events that encourage an influx of revenue and investment, although most of the sport tourism-related revenue does not reach the peripheral areas of the host nation that form a large part of the host community. Thus, when leveraging sport- and tourism-related revenue for the developing nations, the stakeholders need to conceptualise the sport event as being a catalyst for economic growth for the host nation in its entirety.

5.4.2 The social environment of developing nations

From a social development perspective, sport is viewed as bringing about social change, uniting nations, and enriching the quality of life for the host nations (Knott et al., 2015). More prevalently, social issues relating to crime, safety and security, housing, education and health play a huge part in the well-being of developing nations (Cornelissen et al., 2011; Knott et al., 2015). The related challenges may be publicised, and sometimes blown out of proportion, in the international media reports, subsequently leaving little room to change previous perceptions about the destination. For example, De Almeida et al. (2015) notes that reports on the attack on the Togolese national team during the African Cup of Nations in Cabinda, Angola, in January 2010 raised concerns in the British press. Also, in April 2010, the far-right-wing leader of the Afrikaner Weerstandsbeweging (AWB), Eugène Terre' Blanche, was murdered in South Africa. According to British tabloids, his murder formed part of a 'race war' that had been declared in South Africa (Hughes, 2010). The incidents involved subsequently intensified the claims of the potential unsafe hosting of the South African World Cup in 2010. Despite such claims and perceptions, South Africa went on to host a successful Olympic Games. However, the importance of strategic event leveraging for especially developing nations has amplified, and it has become even more critical than it was in the past to encourage positive perceptions and destination brand imaging through sport events.

5.4.3 The political environment of developing nations

As the bidding and hosting of mega-events is politically driven (see Chalip, 2014), it is argued that the significance of event leverage in host nations is also of political importance. Similarly, as a non-mega-event takes place within particular municipalities, it is apparent that

the local municipalities have some influence, whether it be monetary, in-kind, or strategic. For the above reason, the political organisations, together with the sport event organisers, the community and the commercial sport brands play a role in sport event leveraging (Chalip, 2014; Taks et al., 2015), despite the nations' political dichotomy that might still exist. The next section discusses the key role of strategic stakeholder partners in their engagement within the sphere of sport event leveraging.

5.5 The role of strategic stakeholder partnerships in sport event leveraging

The role of stakeholders is key within the sport tourism domain, in terms of which stakeholders are seen to collaborate in the strategic planning and management of sport tourism events (Tichaawa et al., 2018). According to Chalip (2017), leveraging requires effective coordination. According to Houghton and Stevens (2011), Ooi and Pedersen (2010), and Tichaawa and Bob (2015), the stakeholders include the local authorities, the community, the private sector, and the DMOs. While the input of the stakeholders is deemed crucial, they remain critical to comprehending their coordinated roles as key actors in the leveraging process.

As was previously noted by Taks et al. (2015), sport events create opportunities for the leveraging of sustainable local partnerships, and for enhancing coordination efforts between the event organisers and their partners. However, Smith (2014) poses a question related to the responsibility of formulating and implementing effective leverage initiatives. According to the aforementioned author, event leverage initiatives are separate from, despite them being related to, the delivery and management of event projects, making it difficult to assign responsibility for the formulation and implementation of the projects to an entire range of stakeholders. Thus, Smith (2014) advocates for organisations with expertise in leveraging projects to take responsibility regarding the relevant policy, such as, in the case of a project being linked to a social objective, it should be led by the local authorities with the desired social mandate and expertise. Similarly, economic projects should be the responsibility of local economic partnerships. Kellett et al. (2008) discuss the example of the 'Green City' initiative, as it was pursued by the City of Vancouver in tandem with the 2010 Winter Olympic Games, which was specifically led by experts in the local leadership authority. Also, the 'Adopt a second team' initiative, which was pursued by the Melbourne municipal authorities in conjunction with the 2006 Commonwealth Games, saw stakeholders in the municipality leading the initiative. Smith (2014), however, recognises that, since the leveraging of projects relies, to a degree, on the actual event itself, there should be some formal involvement from the local

organising committees or event organisers. While their involvement is limited to the event hosting, they tend not to be responsible for leading long-term sustainability efforts that are directed towards social and economic development.

Chien et al. (2018) argue that understanding leveraging objectives is important, as doing so provides the stakeholders with a shared vision, the framing of strategic directions, and the stimulating of strategic planning for leveraging activities. However, according to Ziakas and Boukas (2014), the challenge still remains in terms of which appropriate conditions need to be created, with the stakeholders reaching consensus on the vision and formulating leveraging initiatives that embed the tourism product and service mix of the host destination. The above-mentioned challenge caused the current researcher to inquire into stakeholder objectives in terms of leveraging initiatives through sport event hosting within the South African destination context, as well as to determine whether a shared vision for strategic event leveraging within the destination's tourism product and service mix was realised and fully understood.

5.6 A synergy of the literature review chapters

The conceptual framework has led to discussion on the following issues: the branding of places, nations and destinations; the contextualising of sport tourism and home-grown sport tourism events; and the sport event leveraging undertaken in respect of the host destinations. The present section presents the connection between the three chapters, and it explains how they form a synergy in regard to the overall research topic.

The first chapter in the literature review discussed branding, as it applies to places, nations and destinations. As sport has been proven to be a powerful agent in terms of place branding, it was important to contextualise the significance of sport in relation to destination branding benefits. From the prevailing discussions, it was safe to assume that sport tourism events, in their complete form, are part of the destination's tourism product and service mix, and one that is extremely lucrative, as a result of the globalised nature and commercialisation of the endeavour concerned.

The following literature review chapter discussed sport tourism events as they are linked to mega-events and to hallmark events, and it contextualised sport tourism events for the current study. The chapter showed how the sport tourism event brings about significant impacts for the host destination. The factors concerned are usually linked to the economic, social and

environmental impacts, and, as such, need to be carefully positioned as part of the destination's products from which to derive tourism-related benefits. Also, destinations are believed to invest in a portfolio of events comprising both mega- and hallmark, recurring events, so as to extend their reach on the global tourism market. Subsequently, the event portfolio is believed to be cross-leveraged with other events that are hosted in the destination, given that it is synergised with the host destinations' strategic objectives. Moreover, the inherent benefits of sport events are augmented through various sport leveraging activities by way of careful pre-event planning.

In view of the discussion in the sport tourism event chapter, the final chapter of the literature review has discussed the importance of sport event leveraging for the host destinations. The chapter connects both to destination branding as a means of leverage, as well as to the home-grown sport tourism event, as a leveragable resource. It has further contextualised the significance of sport event leveraging for the developing context. Figure 5.5 below demonstrates the synergy between the different literature review chapters.

Figure 5.5: A synergy between the literature review chapters in the current study

5.7 Chapter summary

The current chapter discussed the concept of event leveraging, contextualising it in relation to the home-grown event within the developing nation. The chapter has debated the clear distinctions between impacts, legacies and leveraging. While impacts merely refer to the measured economic, social and environmental effects after the ending of an event held in the host city, legacies are those planned and unplanned effects that represent both the positive and the negative aspects of a tangible and intangible nature that are created for, and by, a sport event that remains after the event itself (Preuss, 2007). In contrast, due to the debate on the legacy concept, in terms of the clarity and comprehension of the legacy concept, the measurement of event legacies for host nations is complicated. Thus, the concept of

leveraging is advocated and described as referring to mere collections of strategies and tactics that are employed to enable the generation of desired legacies to be advanced as the new paradigm shift (Chalip, 2014:6).

For host destinations, the leveraging concept was advocated through the empirical studies of the Australian and German nation brand, which can be seen to have implemented strategies and tactics for destination-branding outcomes linked to tourism development and to destination brand image promotion. The chapter has demonstrated an advancement in the event leveraging models, with it being applied in various nation-branding contexts. With a particular focus on the mega-event, the leveraging models still remain skewed towards the large-scale, once-off event. However, with arguments suggesting the inclusion of a portfolio of recurring non-mega-events, the inclusion of the home-grown major event is proposed by the current research. Subsequently, the unique features of the non-mega-event are discussed as they apply to sport leveraging, as well as to the importance of sport event leveraging for the developing of destination brands, which is a topic that has generally been neglected in the extant sport event leveraging literature.

Thereafter, the importance of sport event leveraging for the developing host nation was discussed, with attention being drawn to the prevalent issues relating to the social, economic and political features that are typically perceived as challenges, especially in relation to how such issues are perceived by the developed economies. Subsequently, the roles of stakeholders for sport event leveraging were highlighted. Evidently, although a cohesive stakeholder partnership of the local government, the community, the private organisations and the sport event organisers is encouraged in terms of sport event leveraging, with the responsibility for individual leveraging projects requiring only experts in the respective leveraging initiatives, whether socially or economically driven. Also, the role of sport organisers in leveraging was deemed to be limited to the duration of the event implementation phase.

While chapters three, four and five gave an in-depth review of the literature on destination branding, sport tourism, and sport event leveraging, so as to bring forth the arguments and the justification for the current study, the following chapter outlines a clear methodology for the deriving of key empirical results. The following chapter, therefore, outlines the selected research design and the appropriate qualitative and quantitative methods for the collecting of data. It also describes the data analysis process, in terms of which the research was undertaken. Furthermore, it presents an account of the researchers' reflexivity throughout the entire data collection process.

CHAPTER SIX
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

6.1   Introduction

Research is a reiterative process, meaning that it is based on previous knowledge that aims to advance and generate further questions to be explored and answered by future research (Gratton & Jones, 2010). The previous conceptual framework and literature review chapters of the current study critically discussed the previous topics relevant to the research context, which led to the generation of the research questions for the study. The subsequent results and discussions and conclusion chapters of the thesis identify the areas for future-related research. However, the chapter presents the methods that were used to gather the qualitative and quantitative data through the in-depth, semi-structured interviews and survey questionnaires that were employed in the study. It also outlines the data analysis process that was adopted for the present research, so as to allow for the analysis of information from the key informants who participated in the study. The overall purpose of the study was to obtain rich and meaningful data on the stakeholder perspectives of home-grown sport tourism event leveraging for strategic destination branding, as it applies in the developing South African context. Therefore, the key industry stakeholders in South Africa, representing home-grown sport events and marketing organisations, as well as the private and public local and national tourism and destination marketing departments, formed the primary source of data obtained through the study. Furthermore, the research explores the perceptions of sport event attendees at major, home-grown sporting events in South Africa regarding the destination branding messages of South Africa that are conveyed through major sport event hosting. The above was achieved through employing quantitative methods research.

The chapter starts by outlining the study's research questions. Thereafter, it describes the background to the study area, by: rationalising the chosen case study area; providing an overview of the research paradigms and theoretical foundations, as well as of the accompanied research designs employed; and articulating the research methods employed in terms of the data collection instruments used. Furthermore, the chapter outlines details pertaining to the sampling procedure that was followed, the key variables included in the interview guide and questionnaire survey, and the manner in which the data analysis and coding processes was executed. The chapter concludes with an overview of the researcher's reflexivity on the research process.

6.2 Research questions

To recap, the primary research question that guided the study related to how home-grown sport tourism events can be leveraged to achieve strategic destination branding outcomes. Based on the literature reviewed, and so as to achieve the set research objectives, as were previously defined in Chapter One, the following key secondary questions were developed:

- What are the essential characteristics of South Africa's destination brand, as it is linked to brand associations (such as brand value, messages and imaging)?
- What is the importance of home-grown sport tourism events for destination brand development in a developing African context?
- How is the South African brand promoted among visitors by means of home-grown sport event hosting?
- How do visitors rate their experience of South Africa as a destination prior to, during, and post sport event hosting?
- What are the opportunities for competitive brand positioning that become available through home-grown sport events, and how do they differ from those that are created by sport mega-events?
- Which the leveraging activities have stakeholders successfully employed from the hosting of home-grown sport tourism events?

6.3 Background to sport event case study areas

The current study uses two event case studies, namely the Comrades Marathon, which is hosted by the Durban eThekwini municipality, and the IRONMAN 70.3 World Championships event, which is hosted in Port Elizabeth by the Nelson Mandela Municipality. Other home-grown sport events hosted in South Africa could have been considered in the research, including the previously mentioned Cape Town Cycle Tour; the Nedbank Golf Challenge; the Giro del Capo (cycling); the ABSA Cape Epic (mountain bike race); the Two Oceans Marathon; the Dusi Canoe Marathon; the Surf Ski World Cup, among other mainstream sport events, including those related to cricket, rugby and football. However, logistical concerns, in terms of sufficient time and resources for traveling to and from events, as well as the cost of data collection, proved to be a limiting factor for the current research.

In view of the limiting factors, the Comrades Marathon and the IRONMAN events were selected as the basis of the two case studies concerned. More importantly, the selection of the two specific events was also influenced by the pre-interviews that were conducted with the

key industry stakeholders. According to the stakeholders, the Comrades Marathon is one of South Africa's leading sport events.

6.3.1 A brief history of, and insights into, the Comrades Marathon, as run in the KwaZulu-Natal province

The Comrades Marathon is widely regarded as being one of South Africa's iconic, world-renowned ultra-marathons, and it is, arguably, the most prestigious marathon event both in South Africa and internationally. The Comrades, which was first held in 1921, stretches between Pietermaritzburg and Durban for 90 kilometres (56 miles). Kruger and Saayman (2013) note that the first Comrades Marathon took place on Empire Day, otherwise known as Commonwealth Day, on 24 May 1921 outside the City Hall in Pietermaritzburg, with only 34 marathon runners participating. A map indicating the Comrades Marathon route from Pietermaritzburg to Durban is given in Figure 6.1 below.

Figure 6.1: Comrades Marathon route map

Since the inception of the event, each year the start and finish points of the race alternate between the two cities, Durban and Pietermaritzburg. However, in 2010, while the race was originally scheduled to finish in Pietermaritzburg, the Comrades Board decided that the event would finish in Durban. The decision involved came about as a result of Durban being a host city, and Moses Mabhida Stadium being a host venue, for some of the 2010 FIFA World Cup group matches, as well as for a semi-final game, whereas Pietermaritzburg acted merely as a

training venue for the athletes concerned. With 2010 proving to be a colossal year for South Africa and for the KwaZulu-Natal province, together with the Comrades Marathon's organising committee, the Comrades Marathon Association (CMA) is held to have leveraged off the 2010 FIFA World Cup in terms of brand recognition and awareness.

To further enhance its branding efforts internationally, the CMA has started a Comrades International Ambassadors programme. The programme identifies and uses both current and former committed Comrade Marathon runners to represent the event in their home countries. The growth of the programme is evident in the increase in the number of global ambassadors, from one active member in the USA, Mark Bloomfield, to 14 active and passionate members across the world (comrades.com).

With its 93rd race having been completed in 2018, the Comrades Marathon attracted approximately 20 000 runners, with a large contingent of international runners (comradesmarathon.com, 2018). Consequently, the event has attracted many international sport spectators, which has served to increase the global appeal of the event.

From a destination brand perspective, Turco et al. (2003) recognise that the Comrades Marathon is viewed as a major event that is listed on the yearly calendar of KwaZulu-Natal, with it placing a prominent focus particularly on the Durban region locally, and, from an international perspective, on the whole of South Africa. Furthermore, Kotze (2006) cites that the Comrades Marathon is known to impact significantly on the socio-economic development of the KwaZulu-Natal region, with it being seen to generate huge revenues from tourism spending. However, while the findings show that the Comrades Marathon contributes significantly to the KwaZulu-Natal economy, with over 600 jobs depending on the event (Saayman & Saayman, 2012), the economic impacts of the event are, arguably, felt unequally in the pre-, present and post-event phase. Thus, from an event leveraging perspective, the current researcher felt motivated to focus on the Comrades as a case study, and to explore the international visitors' perceptions of the host destination, as well as, more importantly, their traveling intentions pre-, during and post-event.

6.3.2 A brief history of, and insights into, the IRONMAN event held in the Eastern Cape Province

Nyikana (2016) notes that one of the strategic objectives for Port Elizabeth is to promote sport tourism events in an integrated manner, by means of combining such mainstream sport types as soccer, rugby and cricket, as well as water sports, biking and running, as part of their

promotion mix. While the city has boosted tourism for the Eastern Cape province through the hosting of various other sports, like the previous International Rugby Board (IRB) Sevens World Series events and the matches of the 2013 AFCON tournament, as well as games, including one of the quarter-finals during the 2010 FIFA World Cup, and third-place play-offs, the world-renowned IRONMAN triathlon event has, in recent years, been positioning this destination as a prime destination for the hosting of both local and international events.

From the pre-interviews that were conducted with key industry stakeholders, the prominence of Port Elizabeth as a sport event destination was repeatedly emphasised by the participants in the current study. The above was largely as a result of the significant role that the IRONMAN event has played, and still is playing, in the economy of the Eastern Cape Province, as well as in terms of profiling the city of Port Elizabeth, and the Nelson Mandela Bay area in particular. IRONMAN South Africa is one of Africa's premier one-day multidisciplinary endurance races, integrating a 3.8 km swim, followed by a 180 km cycle, and ending with a 42.2 km run. The event attracts approximately 2000 triathletes from 50 different nationalities to the Nelson Mandela Bay area in Port Elizabeth in the Eastern Cape. Figure 6.2 below provides a map of the IRONMAN event route. Both professional local and international participating athletes take part in the event, as well as does a large sample of amateur athletes (Myburgh, Kruger & Saayman, 2014).

Figure 6.2: IRONMAN route map

The IRONMAN event is positioned to promote the ultimate African experience, being a scenic bike course along the Nelson Mandela Bay coastline, which has been voted Africa's best spectator course, the best run course in the world, and the second-best race venue in the world (ironmansouthafrica.com, 2018). Thus, the international IRONMAN brand is critical for the positioning of Port Elizabeth and the South African destination on the international tourism map. Against such a backdrop, the area where the IRONMAN is run was adopted as a preferred case study area for the current study.

6.4 Philosophical foundations of mixed methods research

According to Creswell and Clark (2011), articulating the philosophical assumptions for all forms of research is important to the providing of a foundation for the studies concerned. The philosophical assumptions involved include an acknowledgment of the world views that provide the foundation for the study. The study also describes the different elements of the world views, further relating the elements to specific procedures (Creswell & Clark, 2011). As a result of the above, the researchers illustrate four levels, or stages, for developing a research study, as adopted by Crotty (1998). The first stage indicates the broadest level, which is that of the philosophical assumptions (paradigm / world view). The stage highlights how the researcher gains knowledge about what is known. The second stage, the 'theoretical lens', is informed by the world views of the researcher, and, subsequently, informs the third stage, which consists of the methodological approach. The stage outlines the strategy, or plan, of action and the research design adopted for the study. The final stage incorporates the methods that are used to collect, analyse and interpret the data. Figure 6.3 indicates the four stages that are involved in developing a research study, as adopted by Creswell and Clark (2011), and the subsequent sections and subsections follow the themes of the stages in reporting on the development of the current research study. Furthermore, the bold text in the following figure show the selected approach adopted in the current study.

| **Stage 1** |
| Paradigm world view |
| (beliefs, such as ontology and epistemology) |

↓

| **Stage 2** |
| Theoretical lens |
| (such as, for example, feminist, racial, and **social science theories**) |

↓

| **Stage 3** |
| Methodological approach |
| (such as, for example, ethnographic, experimental, and **mixed methods**) |

↓

| **Stage 4** |
| Methods of data collection |
| (such as, for example, **interviews**, checklists, and **survey instruments**) |
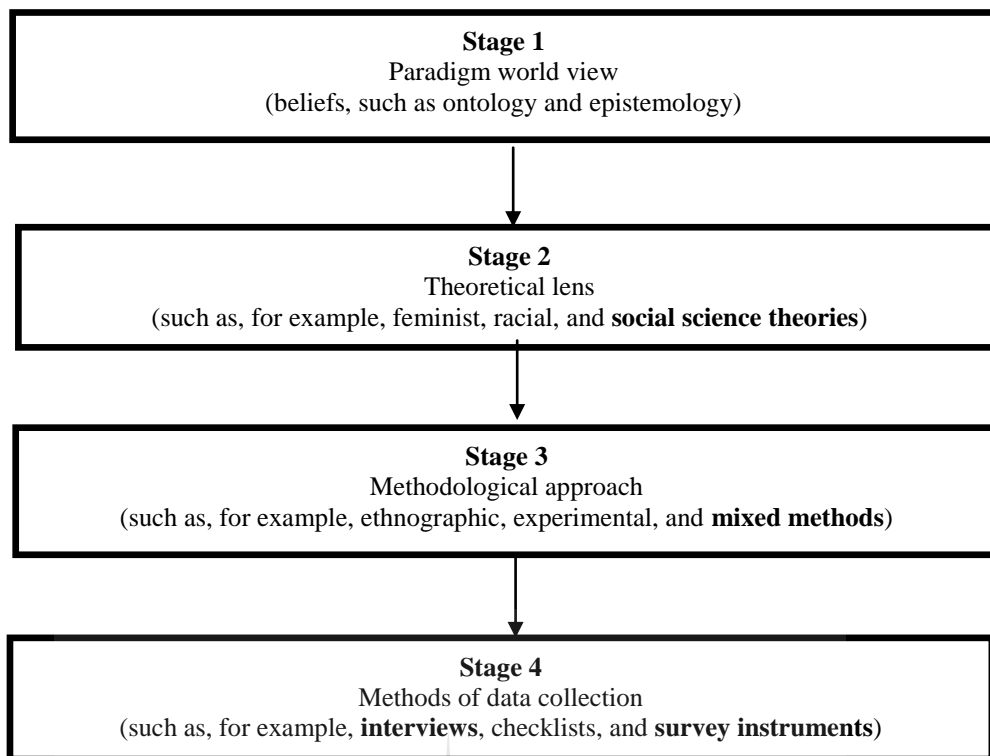
Figure 6.3: Four stages for developing a research study
Adapted from Creswell and Clark (2011:39)

6.4.1 Research paradigm / world view

A research paradigm is a world view through which knowledge is filtered, and it is a foundational perspective that carries a set of assumptions helping to guide the research process (Leavy, 2017). Plowright (2011) describes a paradigm as a system of ideas or theoretical principles that determines, maintains and reinforces ways of thinking about subject matter (see also Guba, Lincoln, Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). According to Leavy (2017), it is important to acknowledge philosophical belief systems, because the beliefs that comprise them guide thinking and actions. Leavy (2017) reports that the ontological (the nature of reality) and the epistemological (how the researcher knows what they know) philosophical belief systems are joined in paradigms. Guba and Lincoln (1994) include in the belief systems the methodological assumptions regarding the informing of a paradigm. In addition, Creswell (2006) underlines the axiology (i.e. the role of values in research) and the rhetoric (i.e. the language of research) influencing a paradigm.

Nonetheless, multiple paradigms or world views guide social research, which researchers group and name in somewhat inconsistent ways. According to Creswell (2006), qualitative paradigms tend to vary, based on the set of beliefs that they bring to research. The above-mentioned researcher focuses on four paradigms informing qualitative research, namely post-

positivism; (social) constructivism; advocacy / participatory research; and pragmatism. Addressing both qualitative and quantitative paradigms, another researcher categorises a multiplicity of paradigms / world views according to six terms, namely post-positivism; interpretivism/constructivism; criticism; transformationism; pragmatism; and arts-based/ aesthetic intersubjectivity (Leavy, 2017). Table 6.1 below outlines the categories of research paradigms, with a brief account of each, as well as of its usefulness in terms of research, as cited by Conrad and Beck (2015), Creswell (2006), Leavy (2017), Mertens (2010), Morgan (2013), and Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003).

Table 6.1: Categories of research paradigms and their usefulness in terms of research

Research paradigm	Description	Usefulness
Post-positivism (Creswell, 2006; Leavy, 2017)	The paradigm takes a scientific approach to research, containing elements of reductionism and logic, and emphasises empirical data collection. Research involves making and testing claims and causal relationships, with it being based on a priori theories.	Adoption of a series of logically related steps, consideration of multiple views and perspectives from the participants, and the embracing of rigorous methods of data collection and analysis.
(Social) constructivism/ interpretivism (Creswell, 2006; Leavy, 2017)	The researcher seeks the understanding of the world and the operations in terms of which they live. Due regard is given to the complexities in the participants' views, rather than to the narrowing of meanings into categories.	Broad, open-ended questions are constructed to forge meanings during interactions with the participants. The broader the questions are, the more carefully the researcher tends to listen to the opinions, views and experiences present in the participants' life setting.
Advocacy/ participatory (Creswell, 2006)	The paradigm seeks to reform, and to change, the lives of the participants and the researcher through the research results obtained.	Specific social issues help frame the research questions. The participants help design the questions, collect and analyse the data, and shape the final research report.
Pragmatism (Creswell, 2006; Leavy, 2017; Morgan, 2013; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003)	The researcher focuses on the outcomes of the research, being the actions, the situations, and the consequences of inquiry, rather than on the antecedent conditions (as occurs in post-positivism).	Multiple methods of data collection are used to answer the research question in the best possible way. The focus is on the practical implications of the research, with it emphasising the importance of conducting research that best addresses the research problem.
Critical (Leavy, 2017)	The researcher aims to prioritise the experiences and perspectives of those who are forced to abide by the hierarchical social order and to reject grand theories that deny the prevailing differences.	The research includes a broad range of perspectives, such as feminist, critical race, queer, indigenous, postmodernist, and poststructuralist.
Transformative (Leavy, 2017; Mertens, 2010)	The paradigm draws on critical theory, while promoting human rights, social justice and self-action-orientated perspectives.	The research is understood as engaging, both politically and socially responsibly, with the power to transform and emancipate.
Arts-based / aesthetic intersubjective (Conrad & Beck, 2015; Leavy, 2017)	The research, which is developed at the intersection of the arts and sciences, suggests that the arts are able to access that which is otherwise out of reach.	The researchers values the preverbal ways of knowing, including sensory emotional, perceptual, kinaesthetic, and imaginal knowledge.

Adapted from Conrad and Beck (2015); Creswell (2006); Leavy (2017); Mertens (2010); Morgan (2013); and Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003)

The selected research paradigm for the current research

According to Creswell (2006), the major elements of each paradigm, and their usefulness in terms of the practice within research, should be carefully considered. The paradigm that best frames the current study's objectives is linked to the (social) constructivist paradigm. The linkage is largely due to the beliefs expressed, and the practicality that is involved, in understanding the participants' views and experiences of the world in which they live and work. As stated in Table 6.1 above, the participants' understanding is best accessed through the asking of broad, open-ended questions that allows the researcher to listen to opinions, views and experiences expressed in terms of the participants' own life setting. Moreover, the interpretive framework suggests that there is no single social reality, but that there are, rather, multiple realities. Thus, the researcher interrelates with what is learned from the research.

Accordingly, the current study focused on gaining an in-depth understanding of sport, tourism and investment stakeholder perspectives around a specific research topic, namely the leveraging of home-grown sport for the South African destination brand. It purposed to determine stakeholder influences and roles as comprising key industry cohorts in the development of the South African brand. Consequently, for the deepening of understanding and insights into the stakeholder views on related topics, the flexibility involved in the asking of broad, open-ended questions became imperative, therefore justifying the adoption of the constructivist paradigm. Moreover, the related research on sport event leveraging for branding purposes, as undertaken by Kruger and Heath (2011), also applied the constructivist paradigm, which further justified adopting such an approach.

While the constructivist paradigm is linked to the qualitative approach to research, the current study, in part, also focused on exploring and assessing the visitors' perceptions of the South African destination brand during home-grown sport event hosting. Such visitor perceptions can only be achieved by means of adopting a scientific approach to research that contains elements of reductionism and logic, and which emphasises empirical data collection, as stated in Table 6.1 above. The aforementioned concerns characterise the post-positivist paradigm as cited by Leavy (2017), therefore justifying the significance of the making of quantitative assessments in the current research.

While it is clear that the present research employed both qualitative and quantitative research methods, some researchers urge the adoption of 'one best' paradigm in terms of the use of mixed methods (see, for example, Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Such a paradigm is mainly

linked to the pragmatic paradigm, which, in its practicality, employs multiple methods of data collection that are used to best answer the research question. Arguing their point in relation to linking pragmatism to mixed methods, the aforementioned researchers state the following: (1) both qualitative and quantitative research methods may be used in a single study; (2) the research question is of primary importance, being more important than either the method or the philosophical world view, as such; (3) the forced contrast between post-positivism and constructivism, as well as the use of hypothetical concepts like 'truth' and 'reality', should be abandoned; and (4) a practical research philosophy should guide the methodological choices made.

Notwithstanding the perspectives of Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003), Creswell and Clark (2011) argue that multiple paradigms can be used in a mixed methods study. For example, as such quantitative methods as surveys or experiments are typically used within a post-positivist world view, the study delineates certain variables that are empirically measured, which could not have otherwise been achieved through qualitative assessment. When the researcher progresses to the qualitative focus of the study, so as to elicit multiple meanings and to deepen the understanding of the participants, the researcher shifts to a comparatively constructivist perspective (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Thus, multiple world views exist in terms of the mixed methods adopted. In the light of such a viewpoint, the constructivist and post-positivist paradigms were separately adopted for the current research.

6.5 Theoretical foundations as a guide to mixed methods research

"It is suggested that all research is based on certain theoretical assumptions, even if these are implicit, unacknowledged or ill formed" (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003:25). Referring back to Figure 6.3, the theoretical foundation, or 'lens', focuses on a narrower perspective than does the research paradigm, or world view. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), the theoretical orientation refers to the researcher deciding on what type of theory to incorporate into the study. The researchers suggest that a social science theory, like the leadership, economic or marketing theory, or the theories of behavioural change, or of the adoption of diffusion, best provides a framework for mixed methods studies, as it guides the nature of the research questions appropriately.

Alternatively, Gratton and Jones (2010) argue that some researchers might not choose a theoretical approach beforehand, with them merely adopting a strictly inductive approach. The above especially applies if the researcher is undertaking an exploratory study. If so, the

researcher should develop their own use of theory throughout the research process. However, Gratton and Jones (2010) suggest that providing some theoretical grounding to the research is important. Since the current study focuses on both the interpretive and the post-positivist paradigms, it is important to provide a theoretical stance that speaks to the selected paradigms / world views.

From a qualitative perspective, Leavy (2017) writes on the major theoretical schools of thought within the interpretive / (social) constructivist paradigm that the current research has adopted. The schools are linked to symbolic interactionism, phenomenology, ethnomethodology, and dramaturgy. The researcher's use of qualitative inductive research was grounded on the social interactionism theory. Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011) explain that the symbolic interactionism theory holds that the meanings that people attach to interactions, people, or objects are not inherent, but, instead, develop out of ongoing social interaction. The goal of the theory is to understand the social world from the viewpoint of the individuals who people it. Thus, the symbolic interactionism theory focuses on detailing the descriptions of the individuals' cognitive and symbolic actions, such as making sense of the meanings that are associated with observable behaviour (Wildemuth, 1993). As the purpose of the particular research was to elicit stakeholder perceptions regarding the impact and importance of home-grown sport events for the South African destination brand, it was important for the researcher to determine how the stakeholders involved created and attached meaning to their respective responses, firstly, as part of the industry of sport and tourism, and, secondly, as members of the society in which the industry operates. Moreover, the social interactionist theory forms the basis of the grounded theory design, which uses an inductive theory-building approach (Annells, 1996). The above is also supported by the cofounders of grounded theory, being Glaser (1992), Glaser and Strauss (1967), and Strauss and Corbin (1994), and, thus, further validates the use of the theory for the current research.

Narrowing the focus on the appropriate theory speaks to the post-positivism paradigm, which has the goal of discerning the statistical regularities of behaviour, and which is concerned with counting the occurrences and measuring the extent of the behaviours studied (Wildemuth, 1993). Leavy (2017:91-92) suggests that there are numerous theories available to guide such research. The theories are deductively employed to predict what the researcher is expected to find regarding how certain variables relate. While Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2011) presents the empiricism theory as being the ideal theoretical school of thought accompanying the post-positivist paradigm, much contention exists in the literature regarding the relevancy of taking

the theoretical stance concerned over adopting the rationalism theory. According to Bernard (2017), the clash between rationalism and empiricism is as old as is Ancient Greek philosophy, with it remaining ongoing. The rationalism theory suggests that human beings achieve knowledge due to their capacity to reason, and that certain a priori truths are evident if the mind is accurately applied. In contrast, the self-same authors noted above note that the early empiricists, like John Locke (1632–1704), held the view that people are born with a clean slate, without the awareness of how to process data, and that whatever knowledge they acquire is the result of their own experiences in life. Notwithstanding the existence of such varied perspectives, the current research employed the empiricism theory, in terms of which recognition was given that the sought-after knowledge required was gleaned from the respondents' participation in the quantitative surveys concerned. Their understanding of the South African brand likely tied in with their sensory experiences of a previous sporting event that they attended, as well as of the current event that they were attending at the time of the present research. The theory also exhibits the views of the positivist paradigm / world view of Creswell (2006), as was alluded to in Table 6.1 above.

6.5.1   Research design

Different types of research designs/strategies exist, including those that are exploratory, descriptive and causal in nature. The current study's research objective required the use of a descriptive research strategy to define the abstruse topic area. Thus, the employment of a qualitative research approach was appropriate, because destination branding, as well as the leveraging phenomenon, is complex and multifaceted, with many different dimensions. Gratton and Jones (2010) specifically mention seven types of research designs, namely: experimental; cross-sectional; time series; longitudinal; case study; grounded theory; and ethnography. The current study adopted grounded theory as a qualitative research design that helped structure and refine the research questions to be asked. While the study used both qualitative and quantitative methods, most of the study assumed the qualitative research approach.

Grounded theory has provoked wide discussion over the years (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Myers, 2009; Strauss & Corbin, 1990; Walker & Myrick, 2006). The original co-founders of grounded theory, Glaser and Strauss (1967:1), define grounded theory as: "the discovery of theory from data systematically obtained and analysed in social research", therefore unearthing theory from previously unexplored sources. However, Strauss and Corbin (1990) argue that grounded theory is linked to the 'conceptual description' of existing theories, thus

bordering on descriptive research. From the varied perspectives of grounded theory, the founding authors, Glaser and Strauss, clearly developed different interpretations of grounded theory. Charmaz (2014:9) notes that, while Glaser permeated grounded theory with 'dispassionate empiricism', employing rigorous codified methods that emphasised emerging discoveries, the theory is somewhat ambiguous, and, to a certain degree, echoes the use of quantitative methods. However, Charmaz (2014) notes that Strauss introduced notions of human agency into grounded theory, in the form of social and subjective meanings, problem-solving practices, and open-ended study of action, thus moving toward a more advanced social approach than before. Simply stated, Corbin and Strauss (2014:7) affirm that Glaser had his own "technique or ways of thinking about data and doing analysis".

In the case of the current study, adoption of the grounded theory design, as postulated by Strauss and Corbin (1990), was important. More recently, Corbin and Strauss (2014) purposed such adoption to obtain an increased number of descriptive concepts from the stakeholders concerned on destination branding, and on the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events, so as to conceptualise and build on extant destination branding and leveraging theories. More importantly, the present researcher recognised that interaction with respondents is inherently dynamic, and, subsequently, interpretive, as it addresses how people create, enact, and change meanings and actions, as advanced by Strauss's studies on grounded theory (see Charmaz, 2014).

As the current research also focused on the quantitative component, considering the research design that informs quantitative research was important. Cross-sectional, or survey, research, according to Gratton and Jones (2010) is the most common design in the social sciences. Within the design, data are collected through questionnaires, relationships are identified from the data, and causal relationships may be suggested, which, subsequently, can be generalised back to the population (Gratton & Jones, 2010).

Moreover, since both qualitative and quantitative designs were considered, it was important to review a mixed method and the assumptions guiding the design. The assumption of a mixed methods design, according to Morse (2003), is that mixed methods research includes a core and supple method, in terms of which both one (qualitative or quantitative) denotes the core method, and the other denotes a secondary status. While Morgan (1998) embraces the idea of such a typology, he suggests four sequential designs that are based on time order and priority

(see also Creswell & Clark, Guttmann & Hanson, 2003:168), such as the four sequential designs that are listed in Figure 6.4 below.

Design 1: qual followed by QUANT

Design 2: quant followed by QUAL

Design 3: QUANT followed by qual

Design 4: QUAL followed by quant
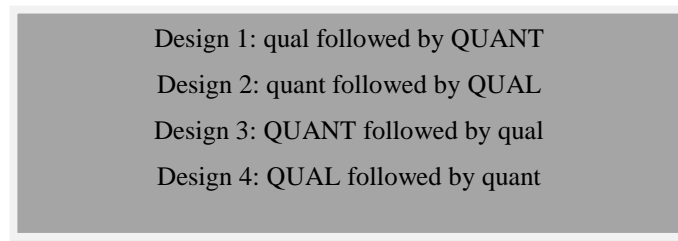
Figure 6.4: Sequential research designs

Adapted from Creswell et al. (2003:168)

Subsequent studies by Morse and Niehaus (2009) show that similar assumptions exist in sequential designs as they do in the notation system, which indicates the primary and secondary methods through the use of arrows denoting the direction and the sequence of design. For example:

QUANT $\longrightarrow$ qual

QUAL $\longrightarrow$ quant
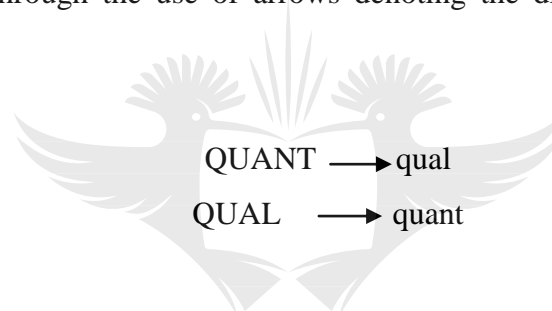
Since the primary research for the current study was informed by qualitative data and analysis, and subsequently built towards quantitative data and analysis, the mixed methods research design was linked to the exploratory sequential design. The above is shown in Figure 6.5, in terms of which the researcher used sequential timing, beginning with, and prioritising, the collection and analysis of qualitative data during the first phase. Then, building on from the exploratory results obtained, a second quantitative phase was conducted to generalise the initial findings. Consequently, the quantitative results were interpreted.

Qualitative data collection and analysis $\longrightarrow$ Builds to $\longrightarrow$ Quantitative data collection and analysis $\longrightarrow$ Interpretation
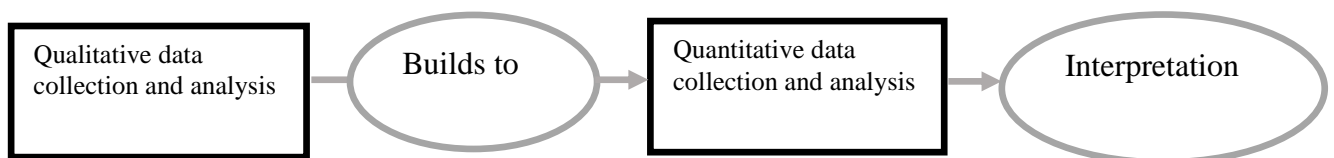
Figure 6.5: Prototypical version of mixed methods research design

Adapted from Creswell and Clark (2011:69)

6.6 Clarification of methodological approaches

According to Leavy (2017), in social research there are five approaches to research, namely: qualitative; quantitative; mixed methods; arts-based; and community-based participatory. The qualitative research approach is characterised by the assumption of inductive approaches to knowledge-building that is aimed at generating meaning. The qualitative research approach can mostly be seen in studies (1) focusing on exploring, investigating and learning about a social phenomenon; (2) unpacking the meanings that people assign to certain activities, situations, events, or artefacts; or (3) building a depth of understanding regarding an aspect of social life (Leavy, 2017). Contrastingly, quantitative research is characterised by deductive approaches that are aimed at (dis)proving, or at lending credibility, to existing theories. This approach is mostly used in studies that involve measuring variables, as well as testing relationships between groups, or among variables, so as to reveal patterns, correlations, or causal relationships (Leavy, 2017; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

The mixed methods research approach interrogates both qualitative and quantitative research. The approach is integrated, and synergistic, with the qualitative phase influencing the quantitative phase, or vice versa. According to Leavy (2017), the mixed methods research approach is usually appropriate when the purpose of the research undertaken is to describe, explain, and evaluate the data concerned. Lastly, while assuming the arts-based research approach is appropriate for studies including such artistic mediums as literary writing, music, dance, performance, visual arts, and film, the community-based participatory approach involves studies in which the researcher collaborates with a community organisation to promote the change taking place within a community.

The current researcher purposed to investigate the perceptions of key branding stakeholders relating to home-grown sport and events and destination branding organisations, and to exploring the phenomenon of sport event leveraging for the South African destination brand. Thus, the qualitative approach was adopted to unpack the meanings of stakeholder responses. Moreover, the qualitative component of the study motivated the researcher to examine the perceptions of visitors (i.e. the home-grown sport event attendees) during home-grown sport and events hosted in South Africa in terms of quantitative inquiry. For the above-mentioned reason, the researcher adopted the mixed methods research approach, which interrogates both the qualitative and the quantitative research approaches. The following subsections divide the

research methods into two phases, with Phase One outlining the qualitative data collection methods, followed by Phase Two, employing quantitative data collection methods.

6.6.1 Methods of collecting data

The methods of collecting data include qualitative traditions and selected data collection methods, with the focus below being on in-depth semi-structured interviews and the interview design, and quantitative traditions and selected data collection methods, with the focus below being on face-to-face structured questionnaires and the questionnaire design.

Qualitative traditions and selected data collection methods

The primary methods of data collection accompanying the interpretivist tradition are interview transcripts, observation notes, field notes, photographs, and video material. The secondary data used in the tradition are publicly available documents, company reports, public speeches, journal articles, books, and archive material (Papachroni & MacIntosh, 2014). According to King and Harrocks (2010), interviews are the most frequently used tool in qualitative research. However, due to the collecting of interviews being costly and time-consuming (Gratton & Jones, 2010), Papachroni and MacIntosh (2014) suggest that the methods adopted should be practically considered in terms of feasibility and time.

Notwithstanding the disadvantages of time and costs, which could present limitations to the study, in terms of the inability to reach the desired stakeholders, and, consequently, in terms of not representing a broad stretch of the population, the qualitative interview method has some important advantages to consider (Gratton & Jones, 2010). Instances of such advantages, as given by Gratton and Jones (2010) and by Lynch (2010), are presented below:

- Interviewing allows the participants to elaborate on their personal experiences and on interesting anecdotes of importance.
- Interviewing deepens the insights gained through the use of other methods.
- Conducting personal face-to-face interviews allows the researcher to observe the body language, facial expressions and tone of voice of the participants.
- Using semi-structured interviewing allows for probing into the areas observed.
- Trust and rapport are established by means of personal face-to-face interviewing.

- Interviewing guarantees the researcher obtaining information from the target participants, as opposed to what information would be gained through the random distribution of surveys or questionnaires.

- Lastly, interviewing allows the researcher a sense of control over the responses received, resulting from the manner in which the questions are posed, as opposed to obtaining a series of static responses in answer to a survey or questionnaire.

With its careful consideration of the advantages and disadvantages associated with use of the qualitative interview methods, the current research justified the employment of suggested data collection method. The method applied allowed for the rich and meaningful outlining of stakeholder perspectives on the leveraging of home-grown sport for the South African brand.

The study also used content analysis as a secondary qualitative method. The researcher sourced primary documentary sources to trace trends in sport tourism and event leveraging, and its influence on the destination branding outcomes in South Africa. The above was done through consulting a range of sources, including newspaper reports, various journal articles and reviews, and internet-mediated searches. The documentary sources were supplemented with face-to-face, in-depth, semi-structured interviews. The following section provides a detailed rationale for using the semi-structured interview approach.

In-depth semi-structured interviews

The selected interview method for the current study was face-to-face, in-depth, and semi-structured in nature. Marshall and Rossman (2006) verify that a study focusing on the individual lived experience, much like the present research, which focused on the stakeholder experience involved in hosting, leveraging and branding the South African destination through sport, typically relies on adopting an in-depth interview strategy. The above-mentioned researchers describe the conducting of qualitative in-depth interviews as being much more like the holding of conversations than the managing of formal, structured events, which tend to elicit predetermined responses. However, a degree of systemisation in questioning tends to be found necessary in multisite case studies, or, as in the current study's case, when many participants have to be interviewed. Such systematisation is, even more importantly than in terms of the above, required during the data analysis and interpretation stage, when a researcher tests the findings resulting from focused and structured questioning.

Moreover, the semi-structured interview method was found, in the case of the present study, not only to be important due to its strengths, such as increased reliability and scope for comparability, over other interview methods (structured and unstructured), but also in the light of its applicability being linked to flexibility through probing, where necessary (Curran, Lochrie & Gorman, 2014). Thus, the semi-structured interview was guided by a set of specific questions relating to topics identified through the literature, with the interview protocol itself consisting of open-ended questions that allowed the researcher to probe, clarify and/or explore the particular areas of experience, or expertise, of the respondents. The key variables that guided the questions asked examined concepts of destination branding in the developing context of South Africa, as well as concepts of sport event leveraging towards the development of destination brands. The key issues interrogated included: the influence and importance of particularly home-grown sport tourism events for the South African tourism and destination brand; the stakeholder strategies and tactics implemented during home-grown event hosting for the benefit of promoting the South African brand; as well as the strategic stakeholder partnerships in sport event leveraging for the achieving of augmented destination-branding benefits.

The interview design

Considering the interview design for the semi-structured interview guide was important. The semi-structured interviews were guided by a set of questions related to topics identified through the literature. However, the interview protocol consisted of open-ended questions that allowed the interviewer to probe, or to clarify, the issues raised, and to explore the particular areas of experience, or expertise, of the respondents. While the overall focus of the interview schedule included questions on general concepts regarding destination branding and sport event leveraging, particularly in terms of the developing context, it was important to frame more specific questions on the influence and the importance of home-grown sport for the South African destination brand. Furthermore, asking questions concerning the stakeholder contributions, the collaborations, and the implementation of sport leveraging and destination-branding strategies was imperative. All the questions in the interview schedule were based on stakeholder perceptions, thus presenting a common theme in the way in which the former were presented. For instance, the questions asked were worded "in your opinion"…, and "how would you describe…" (see interview schedule, Appendix 1).

Quantitative traditions and selected data collection methods

Describing survey questionnaires, Siniscalco and Auriat (2005:3) posit: "a formal standardised questionnaire is a survey instrument used to collect data from individuals about themselves, or a social unit such as a household or a school". Furthermore, Smith (2010:105) defines a survey as: "a systematic gathering of information from a sample of individuals for the purposes of describing the attributes of the larger population of which the individuals are members".

Gratton and Jones (2010) verify that questionnaires are appropriate for collecting a large volume of simple data for the yielding of information that could not otherwise have been collected via the application of qualitative methods. For example, in the current study, to reach hundreds of sport event attendees at home-grown sport events in South Africa, using simple observation and formal interviews would have been impractical for the data collection required. Thus, the secondary phase of data collection, which accompanied the positivist tradition, was quantitative in nature, with questionnaire surveys being regarded as the most suitable instrument for collecting data from a large sample size.

Face-to-face structured questionnaires

According to Gratton and Jones (2010), questionnaires usually fall into three categories, namely:

- postal questionnaires, where the questionnaires used are posted to the participants for self-completion in their own time;
- telephone questionnaires, where the researcher interrogates the participant via telephone;
- face-to-face questionnaires, where the researcher and the participant are in the same location, and the researcher asks the set questions face-to-face.

Plowright (2011) added to the above categories by including email, web-based and chatroom electronic questionnaires. The chatroom form of questionnaire has, however, not received extensive use, as it might be used to exploit some people's views on sensitive topics. For the current research, choosing to use face-to-face questionnaires was important, as doing so allowed the researcher to approach and engage with the respondents, to verify the informed consent and the confidentiality of the respondents, as well as to clarify the purpose of the study, and the meaning of the questions, where necessary. Moreover, due to the nature of the

data collection, in terms of the designated locations (sport facilities, stadia, or outdoor designated locations) where the sport events were hosted, the face-to-face approach was deemed more appropriate for reaching the target group effectively.

The questionnaire design

The study's questionnaire was simply structured to explore the event attendees' perspectives on the destination brand of South Africa during home-grown sport event hosting. The questionnaire was adapted from a questionnaire used by Dr Brendon Knott in 2010 in his study titled: The strategic contribution of sport mega-events to nation branding: The case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The questionnaire consisted of four main sections. Section A purposed to gain information regarding the attendees' geographic profiles. Section B narrowed in on the awareness, and the understanding, of the attendees regarding the destination branding and sport event leveraging concepts. Section C focused on the attendees' perceptions of South Africa through home-grown sport event hosting. Finally, section D sought to obtain the attendees' demographic profiles.

Closed-ended questions were asked throughout the survey, in terms of which the attendees could choose one or more responses from a series of choices that were predetermined by the researcher. The decision was taken to gain information in its simplest form, for easy analysis, as well as so as to access easily structured data. An advantage to the attendees was that the closed-ended questions were relatively quick to complete. Appendix 2 provides an example of the questionnaire that was used in the study.

6.6.2   The sample selection and size

Shank (2009) describes the sample selection as consisting of the choosing of a subset of the population of interest from which the data are intended to be gathered, which should give an estimate of some characteristic of the population. Research refers to the various approaches that can be adopted for selecting a sample for qualitative data collection, such as convenient, theoretical, purposive, and random sampling (Charmaz, 2014). The purpose of the current study was to seek out organisations that had in-depth knowledge and prior experience concerning the study area, such as organisations representing various major home-grown sport events, and those experienced in branding various South African municipalities, as well as the overall South African destination brand, as well as organisations involved in major sport investment. For the above-mentioned reason, the purposive sample selection, which is the technique that strategically selects organisations and respondents, based on their

experience in, and their expertise with, the major field of concern of the study (Gratton & Jones, 2010), was justified in terms of the administering of in-depth semi-structured, face-to-face interviews.

The organisations and representatives were mainly selected by the researcher, based on her prior familiarity with home-grown sport events organisations, as well as with the representative organisations, in terms of destination branding, tourism and investment. Some stakeholders, specifically those representing the national departments, were commonly referred to by the respondents who were interviewed in the municipal, or city, context. Having at least one respondent representing national tourism and investment was suggested by the supervisor of the present research, which proved essential for the cogency of the study. Specific details (i.e. the background and the relevance) of the key informants who participated in the study are given in the following subsection.

A sample size of 24 key informants was interviewed for the current study. According to Gratton and Jones (2010), the sample size was large in terms of qualitative research, as they suggest that three or four interviews can be a suitable amount, mainly due to the time and cost constraints involved in such a study. However, the aforementioned researchers advocate that, if the present researcher does not reach saturation point in the data collection, they may complete as many interviews as is viable within the given cost and time constraints. Creswell (2014) recommended between 5 and 25 interviews as being suitable for qualitative research. Van der Merwe (2003) states that, despite the number of interviews selected, the sample size should be large enough both to reduce the sampling error, and to reduce bias.

To demonstrate the variability in sample size for qualitative research on sport event leveraging and destination branding, a previous study selected nine stakeholder respondents, which proved sufficient for the amount of data collected (see Grix, 2012). In contrast, Knott and Hemmonsbey (2015) conducted a qualitative study including 12 stakeholder respondents, and Tichaawa and Bob (2015) conducted 10 key informant, face-to-face, semi-structured interviews in their research. A broader destination branding study reviewing stakeholder perceptions shows that up to 32 respondents were selected for in-depth interviewing (Marzano & Scott, 2009). The variation in sample size for various qualitative destination branding studies, thus, justified the selected sample size of 24 for the current research, especially since it was important to obtain a comprehensive overview of the stakeholder responses concerned.

Description of the key informants

The following points describe the key informants who were interviewed for this particular study. This section gives insight into their background and relevance in terms of the study. All the informants were sought from top management positions, preferably at the level of chief executive officer (CEO), director, or senior manager. Having a geographical spread of cities representing not only their municipalities, but also the overall South African brand, was important. In addition to purposive sampling, it was important for the study to select key informants, based on the selected stakeholder theory underpinning the individual and collaborative 'stake' and influence that each organisation held in the destination branding outcomes, in terms of the hosting of sport tourism events in South Africa.

- The relevant home-grown sport and event organisers and marketers from major South African cities, namely Cape Town, Johannesburg, Durban, Port Elizabeth, and Bloemfontein, provided a central cluster of key informants to interview for the study. As stated above, the inclusion of the cities mentioned was justified by their display and track record of successfully hosting a series of annual home-grown sport events. Based on their involvement of, and experience in, the hosting, marketing and potential leveraging of sport, the cluster of stakeholders linked to home-grown sport and event organisers was seen to be important.

- Another cluster of key informants that was deemed to be of significance for the study was that of those representing the relevant government departments in sport, arts and culture and tourism in South Africa, in both the provincial and the national government. As the key informants had work-related experience in and knowledge of sports and event marketing, as well as of destination (city and nation) branding, they were able to inform the study on particular strategies and policies in connection with the leveraging of sport and events for the attainment of destination branding objectives. Due to the operations of the government organisations concerned, which were collaborative in nature in relation to various other brand stakeholders, the imperative for exploring a wide range of stakeholder perspectives across the fields of sport and tourism was warranted.

- Another cluster of key informants that was a valuable source of information was that of investment organisations, primarily consisting of private organisations invested in the commercial sponsorship of, and brand partnership with, sport event hosts.

- The study was also informed by tour operators, who could provide valuable insight into experiences acquired while working with the sport and tourism sectors.

In an exploratory design such as the current research, in which the qualitative data were collected and analysed during the first phase, with the information being used to follow up with a quantitative phase of data collection, the sampling occurred in two phases (Creswell & Clark, 2011). The above section outlines how the qualitative phase was undertaken in terms of sample size and selection, which was linked to 24 key selected stakeholders in the sport, tourism and destination branding industry. However, for the quantitative phase, a large sample size was required for the researcher to be able to conduct statistical tests, and to make claims or generalisations in respect of the population in question.

In terms of collecting rigorous quantitative data, the selected population was comprised of home-grown sport event attendees at sporting events hosted in various South African metros. The specific events targeted were the annual, recurring sporting events, which were locally organised with wide national and international appeal and support from both the participants and the spectators. However, as the entire population of event attendees was too large to study in toto, it was important to follow a sampling procedure that was based on the quantitative sample procedures listed in Table 6.3 below. According to Plowright (2011), the probability sampling procedure involved selecting random cases for the research, with the randomisation undertaken enabling the researcher to choose a representative sample from the population concerned. Moreover, using a representative sample enabled the researcher to generalise the study's findings to the broad population. In respect of the non-probability sampling procedures, Plowright (2011) surmises that non-probability sampling involves the selection of cases that do not necessarily represent a broad population, but who, instead, have information that contributes directly to answering the research question at hand.

Table 6.3: Types of sampling procedures and their techniques	
Type of sampling procedure	**Sample technique**
Probability sampling	Simple random sampling
	Systematic random sampling
	Stratified random sampling
	Cluster sampling
Non-probability sampling	Purposive sampling
	Convenience sampling
	Quota sampling
	Viral sampling

Adapted from Plowright (2011:41-42, 44)

Therefore, with reference to the above-mentioned description of probability sampling, the present sampling procedure was selected for the current research. More specifically, the simple random sampling technique that was employed allowed each respondent an equal, and independent, chance of being selected. Besides the above, use of the technique allowed the findings to be generalised to the broad population, as further advocated by Gratton and Jones (2010) and Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005).

According to Brynard and Hanekom (2006), no concrete rules determine a specific sample size. Instead, specific guidelines suggest the representative sample percentage of the population to be investigated. In contrast to the views of Brynard and Hanekom (2006), Gratton and Jones (2010:104-105) argue that "it is a common error to assume that the sample should be a certain percentage of the population, for example, 10 percent". The above is due to there not being such a relationship, with only the sample size being of importance. For example, a sample of 100 is likely, no matter whether the population is 5000 or 50 000 in number. Plowright (2011) suggests that, in small-scale research that is aimed at solving a particular problem, the overall population is relatively small, for example 500 or 600, or even fewer. Naturally, compared to larger, broader research studies than the above, with the former including a larger overall population, the sample size, in terms of the small-scale research, would be relatively small. In relation to the above, Gratton and Jones (2010) advice that the largest sample should be obtained within the given research constraints.

In terms of the current study, the total sample population for the Comrades Marathon and IRONMAN was not specific, due to the lack of statistical data available on the previous attendance at both events. However, on the basis of various sources that had previously reported on the event (Myburgh et al., 2014; comradesmarathon.com, 2018), the participation levels were estimated by the researcher to be over 100 000 across both events. Thus, the aforementioned estimate was used to determine the sample size of the study. A sample calculator was used to determine the sample size, so as to achieve a 95% confidence level and at a 5% margin of error in the results. The above was done cognisant of Isaac and Michael's (1981:193) recommendation of "needed sample sizes of a randomly selected sample from a given finite population of N cases". Accordingly, the sample size was determined to be 384. The researcher then set out to split the sample across both events (192, respectively). By the end of the data collection, a total of 403 (193 at the Comrades Marathon, and 210 at the IRONMAN) valid responses had been collected, which formed the basis of the analysis that

was presented in the preceding chapters as being that to follow. The collection of data, therefore, achieved over 100% success rate.

6.6.3   Piloting the study

In terms of piloting the study, De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2006) suggest the undertaking of a pilot pretest, or the trying out of a particular research instrument, which, in the present instance, was the questionnaire. According to Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001), an advantage of conducting a pilot study is that it gives the researcher advance warning about the main research project, by determining where the research could potentially fail, where the research protocols may not be followed, or whether the proposed research methods, or instruments, are inappropriate or too complex. It was, thus, important for the present study to consider piloting the questionnaire, as it provided the researcher with an opportunity to test the questions and elements of the research. In the current case, the pilot study was undertaken at a predetermined rugby event in Cape Town, with a focus on clarifying the questions, and the design and style of the way in which the questions were presented.

In the present study, a team of four fieldworkers (consisting of postgraduate Master's and doctoral students) from the Sport Management and Tourism departments at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology conducted the surveys at all the selected events, while the researcher supervised the quality of the completed surveys. The students concerned were briefed by the researcher on the research topic and on the purpose of the study. Moreover, the students were informed on the questionnaire structure, with the nature of the questions in each section of the survey being clarified, until they had a solid understanding of the questionnaire, as well as of the administration procedure. Any issues that linked to participant consent were also explained. As some of the students had previous knowledge of, and experience with, conducting fieldwork at national and international events, they played an integral role in obtaining valid responses to the questions asked.

The following table demonstrates the questionnaire schedule for collecting both the pilot and the actual data, as well as for highlighting the selected targeted events and the locations (i.e. the cities and venues) at which the events were hosted.

Table 6.4: Questionnaire schedule

Date	Event	Location
26 May 2018	Super Rugby (pilot)	Newlands (Cape Town)
10 June 2018	Comrades Marathon (actual event)	Pietermaritzburg and Durban
1-2 September 2018	IRONMAN (triathlon) (actual event)	Nelson Mandela Bay (Port Elizabeth)

6.6.4 Fieldwork procedures

The interview procedure

The interview process for the current study was undertaken during November 2017 and from March to June 2018, based on the availability of the respondents. The amount of time allocated to each interview was 30 to 40 minutes, which was generally adhered to. Each interview took place at a location chosen by the respondent, which was usually their workplace. Since the respondents were widespread across various cities in South Africa, the researcher had to travel to meet the respondents at their workplace. The setup of the locations (i.e. offices) presented minor distractions, however, that were mainly linked to the noise of the office telephone whenever it rang, or to the respondents' cell phone ringing, which, consequently, led to the interview, and its recording, being paused. Other distractions that were linked to disruptions during the interview, such as a knock on the door, similarly affected the interview process. As a consequence, the length of each interview varied.

Initial contact with the respondents was made via email, so as to request their permission to participate in the study. Any emails that went unanswered were followed up on with a phone call, to secure the response required, as well as to set a suitable date and time, and to establish a venue, for conducting the interview. All the interviews, which were digitally recorded with a voice recorder, were manually transcribed verbatim, using Microsoft Word. Subsequently, the transcripts were loaded into a software program called, Atlas.ti (which is described in greater detail below), which assisted in the coding and analysis of the data. The program also served as a storage reference facility for all the transcribed interviews. To minimise the study's limitations, all the qualitative interviews, transcripts and analysis were undertaken and administered by the researcher involved in the current study.

The questionnaire procedure

With regards to the questionnaire procedure, the researcher, together with her team of fieldworkers, arrived at the appropriate venue prior to the start of each event. A route map of

the events clearly indicated points of access to the event attendees, with it signalling the preferred fieldwork positions for the duration of the event. For the Comrades Marathon, the end point for the race was Moses Mabhida Stadium, which is where the majority of the event attendees gathered, making the stadium precinct ideal for the conducting of fieldwork. Each fieldworker was given a particular area, at the main entrances of the stadium precinct, as well as spread out within the stands of the stadium. The fieldworkers used the purposive sampling method, which, according to Marshall (1996), is known as judgment sampling, to obtain the study's objectives, with the respondents being selected on the basis that they were able to produce data that were valuable to the current researcher. While such respondents' profiles are outlined in the results chapter, it is worth mentioning in the current context that the fieldworkers sought after responses not only from the domestic sport tourists, but chiefly from the international event visitors.

Similarly to the IRONMAN event, the fieldworkers applied the purposive technique to select the respondents concerned. However, since the IRONMAN was a multidisciplinary event, the fieldworkers were spatially positioned to cover a large part of the geographic area where the event took place.

6.6.5 Data analysis and coding

In the past, researchers have analysed their data manually, by means of, for instance, cut-and-paste and colour-coding techniques. Nowadays, researchers tend to use data analysis software, which is a useful tool for managing and analysing copious amounts of raw data (Smit, 2002). The significance of such computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (CAQDAS) as Atlas.ti has come to be of increasing importance (Sotiriadou, Brouwers & Le, 2014). While a wide range of tools are available for assisting in qualitative data analysis, in recent years, the number of tools available has increased, with NVivo predominantly being used in qualitative management and business studies (Jones & Diment, 2010). According to Cretchley, Gallois, Chenery and Smith (2010), the use of Leximancer, an alternative software program for qualitative data analysis, has steadily become more familiar to researchers than it was in the past, due to its usefulness in terms of the exploratory approach, and to it allowing a list of concepts to emerge automatically from the text. Compared to NVivo and Atlas.ti, which require the analyst to derive the list of codes and rules for the data generated, Leximancer allows the intergroup dynamics to be illustrated with minimal manual intervention. Thus, Leximancer permits a degree of reliability that serves as an advantage over other methods that require the administration of checks of reliability and validity (Cretchley et al., 2010).

Leximancer, however, has become useful for the analysis of secondary data, as was discussed in the data analysis section of the present chapter.

In the primary research that was undertaken in the current study, coding played an important role in the analysis process. According to Smit (2002), coding with computer-assisted applications is conceived as attaching keywords to segments of texts (i.e. responses). Since the development of Atlas.ti has been greatly influenced by grounded theory, and the coding of data is central to such theory (see Smit, 2002), the use of such a software program became particularly important for facilitating the study's data analysis.

Lonikila (1995) and Smit (2002) further recognise that, in grounded theory, the coding process is more complex than the mere labelling of segments of text and the naming of different categories. In fact, due to the nature of grounded theory, as postulated by Corbin and Strauss (2014), the analysis and coding are required to be aimed at building theory. While two procedures exist in terms of coding in grounded theory, due to the two variations devised by Glaser (1978) and Strauss and Corbin (1990), as illustrated by Heath and Cowley (2004:146) in Table 6.2 below, due to the study's rationale, the present study employed the systematic strategy to coding, as described by Strauss and Corbin (1990). The selected coding strategy was also adopted and applied by Smit (2002) in research justifying the use of Atlas.ti for qualitative data analysis.

Table 6.2: A comparison of data analysis, according to Glaser and Strauss		
	Strauss and Corbin (1990)	**Glaser (1978)**
Initial coding	**Open coding** Use of analytic techniques	**Substantive coding** Data-dependent
Intermediate phase	**Axial coding** Reduction and clustering of categories (paradigm model)	**Axial coding** Continues with the previous phase, comparison with focus on data, becoming more abstract, categories refitted, emerging framework
Final development	**Selective coding** Detailed development of categories, selection of core, integration of categories	**Theoretical** Refitting and refinement of categories which integrate around emerging core
Theory	Detailed and dense process fully described	Parsimony, scope and modifiability

Adapted from Heath and Cowley (2004:146)

Coding of primary data with Atlas.ti

According to the founders of grounded theory, Glaser and Strauss (1967), the primary nature of grounded theory should lead the researcher to select the appropriate qualitative sources of data. For the current study, interviews were the main source of data, with transcripts of the interviews collected being uploaded and saved as individual documents in Atlas.ti. After the transcripts of individual documents were loaded into Atlas.ti, the researcher began with open coding, which refers to the naming and the categorising of phenomena through the close inspection of the raw data (Smit, 2002). During the initial stage, the researcher, after reading each response carefully, assigned a code to the relevant statement relating to an interview question. While the researcher continued the process throughout all the uploaded documents, the researcher subsequently reread the coded documents, and reduced and categorised the codes concerned, as well as assigning new codes to any statements that might previously have been overlooked. The stage in coding concerned describes the axial coding process (Gratton & Jones, 2010; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Also, during the same stage, the researcher considered how previous codes were linked and assigned relevant codes as combinations of codes in the context of the questions asked, as suggested by Edwards and Skinner (2009).

The next stage in coding referred to selective coding, in terms of which the final development in coding was categorised. Strauss and Corbin (1998) write that selective coding involves the process of selecting one main-core category, and relating the other categories to it. The above implies that there is a process entailing the integrating and refining of categories. Atlas.ti allowed the researcher to create code families with similar relationships, and also to rename codes by means of redefinition. During the stage of the coding process concerned, the researcher also avoided bias statements and statements that supported the researcher's own opinion on the key findings, as cautioned by Gratton and Jones (2010).

In addition, Smit (2002) advocates the use of memos to assist the researcher in data interpretation, such as in recording and noting reflective notes about what is learned from the data and findings. The researcher notes that, while code memos relate to open coding, theoretical memos relate to axial and selective coding, and operational memos link more to the developing research design. As the construction of memos was a very helpful tool offered by Atlas.ti, the researcher of this particular study could apply them to the coding as additional reflections, and new findings could be clearly emphasised and presented.

Coding the secondary data using Leximancer

So as to review and analyse the secondary data obtained through content analysis, the researcher used a different software program, called Leximancer. Whereas, Atlas.ti uses an inductive 'bottom-down' approach to coding, in terms of which individual and family codes are manually assigned, the Leximancer program stores large numbers of files, analysing and automatically coding and theming the content of the secondary files, based on a deductive, top–down approach.

Having imported the literature and all secondary sources into the Leximancer software, the researcher was able to search, add, remove, and merge terms, as well as to extract meaning and relational information automatically, which linked to the categories previously grouped and categorised during the analysis of the primary data. Thus, Leximancer produced results without the manual intervention of the assigning of codes (Sotiriadou et al., 2014).

Coding the quantitative data with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)

While a number of software programs are available for quantitative data analysis, such as Excel and SPSS, the latter software package is the most commonly used program (Gratton & Jones, 2010). The package used for the quantitative analysis was SPSS, version 25, with whose help the tables and graphic presentations were generated, and inferential statistical tests were run, to test for differences in perceptions between the selected demographic profiles.

The descriptive analysis was performed for an overall summary of the variables in the sample. The independent samples T-test was used to test for differences in the perception of the South African destination brand through home-grown sport event hosting between the demographic variables in the case of the two groups. The variables investigated were the respondents' gender, their South African residency status, and the event attended. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was used to test for differences in perceptions for variables with more than two groups. The variable investigated was the age of the respondents. When the differences between the groups using the ANOVA test were found, the Scheffe post-hoc test was used to test for differences between the pairs of groups.

Moreover, so as to ensure the validity of the research, a triangulation of the mixed data (qualitative interviews, secondary content analysis, and quantitative questionnaires) was executed. Triangulation is the use of multiple means of data collection to explore a single

phenomenon, so as to cross-check the validity of the findings (Gratton & Jones, 2010; Smith, 2010).

6.7 Validity and reliability of the data

Validity in qualitative research does not carry the same connotations as it does in quantitative research, nor is it a companion of reliability. According to Creswell (2014:201):

> The validation of findings in a qualitative research study occurs throughout the research process and qualitative validity means that the researcher checks the accuracy, authenticity, trustworthiness, and credibility of the respondent's account.

Validity takes different shapes, according to the type of data involved. For example, in the current study, an interview method of data collection was used. Thus, the question of validity pertained to whether the views and opinions expressed by the respondents were their actual views outside the interview situation, or to whether their views and opinions outside the interview situation influenced their responses in the interview (Peräkylä, 2011). Although the above issue was not easily controllable by the researcher, every effort was made to ensure the validity of the data that were analysed and reported. The above was done through constant checking, and through comparing the voice recordings with the interview transcripts for ensuring correct meanings, interpretation, context, and legitimacy.

In terms of quantitative validity, the researcher is concerned about issues of validity in the quality of the scores from the data collection instruments used, as well as the quality of the conclusions that can be drawn from the results of the data analysis (Creswell & Clark, 2011). While the data itself might be clear, Gratton and Jones (2010) suggest that the operationalisation of the data (in terms of its collection, capturing and measuring) has implications of validity for the research involved. In addition, Creswell and Clark (2011) state that researchers look for evidence of content validity (to assess whether their questions are representative), of criterion-related validity (to assess whether the scores relate to those obtained with using similar instruments), or of construct validity (to assess whether the instruments measure whatever they are intended to). The current researcher ensured the validity of the data collected and of the instruments used through the piloting of the present study, by analysing the results obtained, so as to assess all factors prior to the actual data collection. The results gleaned were continuously assessed throughout the research process to maintain the validity of the study.

In terms of reliability in qualitative research, Miles and Huberman (1994) write that reliability equals the number of agreements balanced against the number of disagreements in relation to a particular statement, theme or concept. Similarly to the way in which she ensured validity, the researcher ensured reliability by not only checking, and comparing, the responses obtained, but also, to a degree, by quantifying the similarities and differences in the responses obtained during the reporting of the findings. The above was also done to show significance in the responses for a particular topic under discussion.

In terms of quantitative research, reliability usually refers to the consistency of the results obtained. A number of forms of reliability were important to the researcher, namely inter-observer reliability, which "assesses the extent to which different observers would give similar scores to the same phenomenon"; test–retest reliability, which refers to "the extent to which the research would provide the same measurements if repeated at a different time"; and internal consistency reliability, which refers to "the extent to which each question within a measure is actually measuring the same phenomenon" (Gratton & Jones, 2010:85-86).

6.8 Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations play an important role in the overall research process. Ethical approaches do not reduce the validity and reliability of the study, but they serve to highlight the contextual complexities within the research study itself (Edwards & Skinner, 2009). For the present study, aspects related to the participant's consent required careful ethical consideration. All the interviews that were conducted were undertaken with the prior consent of the stakeholders. For the qualitative phase, the permission to interview respondents was requested prior to conducting the interview through email or telephonically. During the process, the researcher informed the participants about the nature of the research, and informed consent was given by the respondents, with their full knowledge of the study's aims and objectives. For the quantitative phase, informed consent was asked when the event attendees were approached, and their full anonymity was guaranteed. They were informed that they could pull out of the questionnaire whenever they felt that they wanted to do so. Furthermore, the consent of the university under whose aegis the study was conducted was obtained to pursue the research concerned (see Appendix 3 for the university's ethical clearance). For both the qualitative in-depth interviews, as well as for the questionnaire, the ethical clearance obtained promoted the respecting of the confidentiality of the respondents involved. A comprehensive effort was made not to implicate any company or person in any wrongdoing in respect of the research, and in not revealing any sensitive data.

6.9 Reflexivity

As was previously stated in the research design section, researchers need to recognise and acknowledge how their interpretation of the data flows from their own background (such as their personal, cultural and historical experiences). According to Tietze (2012:57), "reflexivity challenges the notion that it is impossible for researchers to be neutral automatons", thus implies that "that the orientations of researchers are shaped by their socio-historical location and in this regard the biography of the researcher informs the research". Being reflective in research involves paying attention to how power influences attitudes and behaviours, as well as conscientiously heeding the researcher's role in shaping the research experience (Leavy, 2017). Consequently, the reflexivity of the researcher is an essential feature when conducting both qualitative and quantitative research. However, "unlike quantitative research, qualitative methods take the researcher's communication with the field and its members as an explicit part of knowledge" (Flick, 2009:16). According to the following strategies for reflexive awareness, as detailed by Haynes (2012), the researcher in the current study reflects on the fieldwork (interviews) and analyses conducted:

- As suggested by Haynes (2012), the researcher wrote down any theoretical assumptions about the subject investigated, which she revisited throughout the research process, noting how the assumptions might have shifted.
- The researcher considered how the assumptions influenced the researcher to revise the research questions, focus, and findings.
- The researcher also kept a research diary or notebook, noting down thoughts and feelings about the research process.
- In addition to the above-mentioned notes, the researcher also kept notes on observations, interactions, emotions, and key significances during the responses.
- Importantly, the researcher listened to the tape recordings of the qualitative data gathered though the primary interview process, noting how the researchers' presence or interaction affected the process.
- The researcher discussed and evaluated the research subject, participants and processes with fellow researchers, which ignited further discussions and conversations on particular subject matter.

All the above-mentioned actions were carried out not only to reflect on the interviews and the data collected, but also to avoid reporting on any data that were influenced by, or that contained any bias of the researcher.

From a quantitative research perspective, the researcher conducted a small-scale pilot questionnaire to gauge the appropriateness in language, assumptions and research instruments. Additionally, so as to prevent the researcher's biases from influencing the research design, peer reviewing of the research was conducted by colleagues and other external reviewers, towards attaining validity and reliability in respect of the current study.

Moreover, the researcher acknowledged her work and academic background in sport event and destination marketing/branding, which influenced the selection of the research topic. Being a local South African citizen, the study context (i.e. South Africa) also influenced the investigation of the place/destination, and, subsequently, the participants being interviewed. During the previous work and research opportunities granted, the researcher had had access to key industry stakeholders. As a result, to some extent, access to the core sample group was relatively easy, which also increased the willingness on the part of stakeholders to be interviewed. Furthermore, a degree of trust was established between the researcher and the stakeholders. While all such positive influences contributed towards the study, the researcher recognised that they helped frame the study, as well as to achieve the results obtained.

6.10 Chapter summary

The methodology chapter discussed the qualitative and quantitative research paradigm linked to the (social) constructivist and post-positivist inquiries. The two enquiries were deemed appropriate for the research, due to its inductive and deductive approaches in exploring and measuring the set data. The social constructivist / interpretive paradigm especially proved relevant in its application in terms of eliciting a deeper understanding and meanings from the stakeholder responses regarding the importance of sport event leveraging for the South African destination brand. The above has lead the research to adopt a theoretical stance linked to the symbolic interactionism theory, which holds that the meanings that people attach to interactions, people, or objects are not inherent, but, instead, develop out of ongoing social interactions.

Moreover, the theoretical stance links to the inductive grounded theory research design, which also explains the selected qualitative research design. Similarly, the post-positivism paradigm,

which is a scientific belief that tests claims and causal relationships, and which is based on a priori theory, further led the researcher to adopt the empiricism theory, holding the view that people are born with a clean slate, and that whatever knowledge they acquire is the result of their experiences that are written on the slate. The above was crucial to consider as the current research acknowledges the past and present experiences of event attendees that might have shaped what they have come to know. The appropriate research design that best fits the above-mentioned theory was, therefore, linked to the cross-sectional/survey design, with it being possible to generalise the results back to the population.

The present chapter further outlined both the qualitative and the quantitative methods linked to semi-structured interviews (QUALI) as being the primary source of data collection, with structured, face-to-face questionnaires (QUANT) being employed as the secondary element of data collection. The selfsame section included coverage of the data analysis and coding procedures, as relating to the adopted grounded theory and cross-sectional research designs. The study purposefully selected a sample size of 24 key industry stakeholders involved in home-grown sport and destination branding organisations, as a result of their background and experience in working in the area of the study context. The identified respondents were held able to contribute, through their perceptions, views and opinions, to the provision of rich and meaningful insights on the key topic areas.

The primary data (interviews) were prepared and inductively coded and themed using a software program, Atlas.ti, and through employing the systematic strategies of Strauss and Corbin (1990). Additionally, the secondary qualitative data and the literature sources concerned were automatically and deductively coded using Leximancer. From a quantitative methods perspective, a sample size of 403 respondents (event attendees) were surveyed from a total of two home-grown sporting events, the Comrades Marathon and the IRONMAN triathlon. The data of the questionnaires were coded and analysed with the help of SPSS. To strengthen the validity of the research, triangulation of the mixed data was executed. Lastly, the chapter outlined the validity, reliability and ethical considerations within the qualitative research process. Thereafter, the chapter concluded with the reflexivity of the researcher within the data collection process. Figure 6.6 below provides a summary of the chapter's methodological decisions.

```
                    ┌─────────────────────┐
                    │      Stage 1        │
                    │ Paradigm / world view│
                    └─────────────────────┘

Post-positivism          Stage 2              (Social)
                    Theoretical lens          constructivism/
                                              interpretivism

Symbolic                 Stage 3              Empiricism
interactionism      Methodological approach   theory
theory

Qualitative              Stage 4              Qualitative
methods            Methods of data collection methods

(In-depth semi-                              Questionnaires
structured interviews +
content analysis)
```
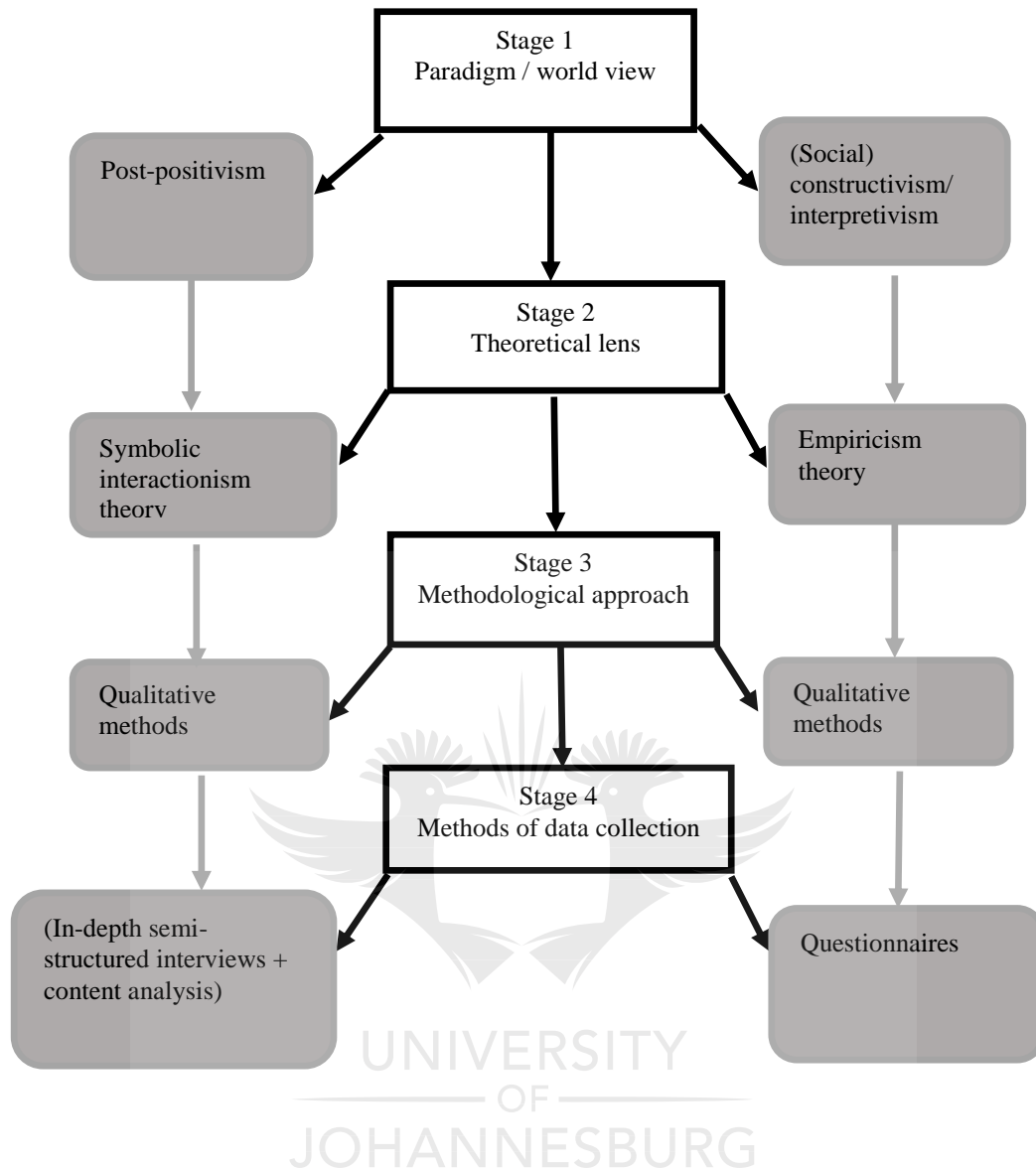
Figure 6.6: The methodological decisions made in the current study

The following chapter thematically sets out the findings obtained, and the discussions engaged in, during the present mixed methods study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

ARTICULATING DESTINATION BRANDING, HOME-GROWN SPORT EVENTS, AND LEVERAGING, IN RELATION TO THE CURRENT STUDY CONTEXT

7.1   Introduction

Having considered the current study's methodological procedures, the researcher subsequently conducted face-to-face, in-depth interviews with 24 key industry stakeholders of sport event marketing; event exhibitions organisations; local, provincial and national government; tourism and investment organisations; and tour operating companies. The interview questions centred on the stakeholder perceptions of South Africa as a destination for home-grown sport tourism events, and on the opportunities and strategies for leveraging the events for augmented tourism and destination branding benefits. A particular focus was drawn on emerging destinations, and especially the South African destination brand, to extract implications for the stakeholders of the developing destination context. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, all the interviews were digitally recorded, manually transcribed verbatim, using Microsoft Word, and coded and themed using a software program, Atlas.ti, version 8. The analysis was done using the codes that represented the themes that emerged from the rich data obtained. The results are thematically discussed within the findings and discussions chapters concerned.

The research findings and discussions are presented in three chapters. The first two chapters, chapter Seven and Eight, discuss the qualitative results. The chapters are categorised by the themes to emerge from the coded data. Chapter Nine discusses the quantitative results obtained from exploring the perceptions of sport event attendees about South Africa as a host to home-grown sport tourism events. The chapter considers the stakeholder understanding of core concepts of the current study context, so as to describe, or, in some cases, redefine the theoretical concepts of the study area. All the interview questions started with "what is your understanding of …", or "how would you define the following terms … destination branding; home-grown sport events; leveraging?" In addition to the asking of such definitional questions, other in-depth questions were asked about South Africa's destination brand in relation to sport event leveraging, as well as about stakeholder involvement in destination branding and sport event leveraging, for purposes of destination branding in South Africa.

All the responses are designated by an 'R', and by a specific number that distinguishes the respondents from one another. The number has no significance for the respondents, or for their affiliations. Such designation was done to protect the confidentiality of all the respondents who participated in the research. However, in some instances, an indication of an industry sector is given for the purpose of emphasising the responses obtained. Throughout the next two chapters, direct quotations are extensively used to represent the original data gleaned. Each direct quotation was selected, based on the degree of its representation of a common response among the stakeholders, or it clearly states a core theme, or else it states the key examples given as a particular point of discussion.

7.2 Key codes and family codes in connection with the current study's objectives

Table 7.1 below demonstrates the lists of individual codes (using open coding) that resulted from the coding of all the interview transcripts. Individual codes on the long list concerned was then clustered into categories and assigned a 'family code', which helped to categorise and theme the resultant singular codes. In addition, Table 7.1 illustrates the current study's objectives that were next assigned to a family code, with the coding being addressed in the study's results and discussion chapters, in particular to chapters seven and eight.

Table 7.1: Codes and family codes in connection with the current study objectives

Codes	Family code	Study objectives
• **Destination branding described** • **Examples of leveraging events** • **Home-grown events described** • **Home-grown events in South Africa** • **Leveraging described** • **Destination branding in the context of developing nations** • **Unique brand features/components**	Description of key theoretical concepts	1. To broaden the scope of the sport mega-event literature by critically assessing home-grown sport for destination branding benefits.
• **Contribution of home-grown sport encouraging tourism** • **Destinations seeking brand positioning through home-grown sport**	Destination benefits attained through home-grown sport events	
• **Benefits of home-grown sport events for South Africa's destination brand** • **Brand components of South Africa** • **Destination brand messages of South Africa attained through sport hosting** • **Marketing South Africa to international visitors through home-grown sport** • **Negative brand perceptions of South Africa**	South Africa's destination brand	2. To broaden the context of extant destination branding studies by investigating emerging destination brands.

• **Absence of national tourism investments** • **Challenges experienced with key industry stakeholders** • **Role of media (social media) regarding sport events for sport event leveraging branding** • **Television broadcasts of sport events** • **Potential for investment from National Tourism** • **Recognised challenges in the National Government** • **Responsibility to brand South African brand through sport** • **Role of stakeholders** • **Stakeholder objectives** • **Strategic partnerships** • **Stakeholder strategies**	Stakeholder strategies for sport event leveraging	3. To identify stakeholder strategies for the leveraging of sport tourism events for the obtaining of brand-related benefits.
• **Cross-leveraging of brand assets** • **Derived means from event leveraging** • **Lengthening of visitor stays** • **Leveragable resources** • **Leveraging opportunities** • **Pre-, during and post-event leveraging** • **Sport event leveraging for international brand awareness**	Leveraging of home-grown sport events	4. To propose a framework for recommendations for leveraging home-grown sport tourism events in a developing destination context.
• **Alleviating of social issues through sport event leveraging** • **Calendar of events** • **Missed leveraging opportunities** • **The need for additional knowledge of the value of the sport industry across all role-players involved** • **Potential involvement of National Tourism**	Recommendations for sport event leveraging	5. To propose a conceptual framework for destination branding, especially as it applies to home-grown events towards developing strategic destination branding practices.

7.3 Word cloud of words frequently used during the interviews

The present section presents a word cloud of the words that were frequently used by the respondents during the semi-structured interviews. During the analysis of the frequently used words – using the word count function on Atlas.ti – the most frequently used word proved to be 'events' (repeated 351 times), which, for the current study context, was not surprising. Another expected result revealed that 'South' was mentioned 333 times, which is quite a high number, especially considering that 'Africa' was mentioned 266 times. From the result, it is assumed that, with the combination of 'South' and 'Africa', the reference to 'South Africa' must have been mentioned at least 200 times. From a city perspective, the word cloud showed 'Cape' to be mentioned 280 times, and 'Town' 216 times, with it being assumed that 'Cape Town' was mentioned a significant number of times. Considering that there were other references in which 'Cape' could have been used, as, for instance, in 'Cape Town Cycle

Tour', the number of references made to 'Cape Town' as an entity is not entirely conclusive, however.

Significantly, 'tourism' was mentioned 204 times, with the word forming another key term for the current research. Interestingly, 'destination' was mentioned 152 times, which, similarly to 'tourism', was one of the main concepts in the present study. Another key concept describing the current study context is 'home-grown'. However, the concept was mentioned fewer than 100 times during the course of the interviews. With only 71 mentions across the stakeholder responses, the above might have been the least understood concept. What is more interesting than the above is the concept of 'leveraging', which was mentioned 41 times, and 'leverage', which was mentioned 15 times. The above further reveals how poorly the concept might have been understood, conceptualised and emphasised.

With regards to the examples of home-grown events, 'golf' was mainly mentioned (282 times), as was 'marathon', with an unimpressive mention of 60 times, which proved to be the second highest reference to sport events.

Figure 7.1: Word cloud of words frequently used during the interviews

The following section and subsections present an in-depth discussion of the key concepts, regarding how the respondents not only understood them, but also contextualised them, within the current study area.

7.4 Description of key theoretical study concepts

7.4.1 Destination branding contextualised for emerging destinations

The respondents consistently understood the concept of 'destination branding' similarly to the way in which the term was widely interpreted throughout the relevant literature, being as a modern form of tourism promotion (Anholt, 2005; Boisen et al., 2018; Hanna & Rowley, 2008). For example, a key informant in provincial government stated, "Destination branding for me is trying to get people out to a particular place to understand [the meaning of] a certain locale" (R1).

Also, a key informant in event exhibitions and marketing noted that "destination branding is the ability to attract captive tourism markets" (R3). Respondent 8 provided a definitive description of destination branding, by considering the significance of key brand elements that should attract tourism in the form of future visits:

> I see destination branding as an opportunity to take the key elements and their strong points, whether it be it natural beauty or its manmade beauty, and market it, so that people [tourists] will come and visit South Africa (R8).

General consensus across the respondents reflected the influence of, and importance of sport for, destination branding. For instance, "destination branding is about using sport events to brand awareness and [the] sending out [of] positive messages" (R3). The above denotes the value of sport for the obtaining of destination branding benefits. Correspondingly, a key informant in sport event marketing noted the imperative of positive destination brands for the benefit of sport event promotion, which, subsequently, implies the mutually beneficial relationship between sport and destination brands for purposes of tourism promotion. From a South African sport event perspective, an excerpt from Respondent 4 explains:

> Destination branding is using the iconic status of our country or city as an opportunity for attracting people to events. In an instance of the [Cape Town] Cycle Tour, many people may [i.e. might] not have heard about the Cape Town Cycle Tour, but certainly a lot more people have heard about Cape Town, and even more of South Africa. So, it is about using that image association [to the country's brand] as a drawcard or the 'hook' to promoting the event domestically and internationally (R4).

While the above discussion signals the value of sport for destination brands, as well as the influence of destination brands for sport event promotion, it is clear that a symbiotic relationship exists between sport and destination brands. The symbiotic relationship is reported to apply particularly to the South African destination brand, in connection with which international tourists might be less familiar in terms of certain sport brands. The association of a brand with the host country or city is then believed positively to sway decision-making to participate in an event. The brand association between sport and the destination brand, as described by Respondent 4 in the aforesaid quotation, leads to brand provenance, which, according to Giraldi et al. (2018), is the knowledge that people hold of a place, its people, and its products, as well as the information that people have about a country arising from emotional responses that are equally important to consider for the purpose of effective brand connotations. Consequently, visitors are held to rely on the provenance, or the country-of-origin, information about the South African brand and its associated, home-grown, tourism-related products, with the purpose of persuading them to decide to visit, and, moreover, to participate in home-grown sport tourism events. Emphasising the importance of brand provenance through brand familiarity as a potential implication for destination branding through home-grown sport associations, Respondent 1 stated:

> I think it (destination branding) is important … and we have pushed ourselves to say that we are going to brand events. So, you will always get that Cape Town or Western Cape name attached to the event for [purposes of] familiarity and awareness. For example, the Cape Town Cycle Tour [and the] Cape Town Marathon, those are good ones (R1).

From a brand image perspective, denoting destination branding as consisting of perceptual entities resulting in brand-related benefits like 'brand value' and/or 'brand equity', a key informant of tourism and destination branding posited:

> Destination branding is the picture that gets conjured up in your potential, or future, client's minds, and there is an association with the destination which creates brand value, or brand equity (R6).

As discussed in the aforementioned stakeholder responses, the 'association' underlined in the above-mentioned quotation is typically linked to sport events. However, in reference to the resultant enhanced brand value and equity promotion derived from destination brands, Respondent 6 implicitly connotes the opportunity for retaining business and tourism through strategic on-brand actions. Such a strategic form of destination branding ties in with Baker's (2007) and Van Gelder's (2008) suggestions that destination branding should deliberately create, develop and demonstrate brand value through appropriate 'on-brand' actions. The

149

actions, among other entities, like economic, communication and attraction programmes, consist of a combination of sport and events, which notably serves to enhance the destination's brand equity of their tourism brand. Reinforcing such sentiments, and encouraging strategic on-brand activities through sport event leveraging for the South African destination brand, a key informant involved in sport event marketing noted:

> It (i.e. destination branding) is like a demonstration of the product. You have these great images of the country, but you only see and experience it when someone is riding a bike in a particular destination, showcasing the destination images like Table Mountain, or swimming across the ocean to Robben Island in Cape Town. So, that is what needs to happen, the leveraging of sport (R8).

The present section comprehensively discussed destination branding and exemplified the association of sport with the South Africa destination brand. However, as the study's objectives, as a whole, were to broaden the scope of the extant destination branding studies to include the emerging destination brands, it is critical for the next subsection to report on the empirical results obtained from the different brand components, in relation to the developing South African brand, that are believed to positively and/or negatively influence destination branding in the developing destination context.

7.4.2 The South African destination brand defined
7.4.2.1 Global sport brand identity

The stakeholder views regarding the South African brand centred on South Africa as a "prime destination for tourism" (R1), with a "global brand identity" (R8). While the perception was usually held owing to the global appeal of home-grown sport events that attract international tourism markets, Respondents 2, 4, 8 and 9 recognised the notable shift in the motivation (whether primary or secondary) of visitors concerning general travel and tourism, and that people are increasingly traveling for purposes of sport, or adding sport to their list of "things to do" (R2) at a destination. As a result, Respondent 4 noted that the opportunity for sport travel should be leveraged so as to position the destination brand identity in the minds of the event visitors. The key informant in relation to sport event marketing explained the phenomenon as follows:

> Tourism is moving [away] from even going on holiday to eat food, or [to] try a cuisine, or to climb a mountain. Now[adays,] people are considering more and more [whether] to come and perform their favourite sport, professionally and on an amateur level. I think that people are traveling for sport, and we have to capitalise on that market (R4).

Strongly agreeing with the above quotation, Respondent 8 presented an example of a regional destination in South Africa that hosts home-grown sport events that serve to attract sport tourism, due to the destination's global sport brand identity. Respondent 8 recorded:

> Stellenbosch [which is a city and region in the Western Cape] is a global destination for especially mountain bikers, due to a lot of factors relating to the [Absa] Cape Epic mountain bike race … We host our [cycling] event and the World Championships in the Western Cape, and the Stellenbosch region. Athletes are not going to Cyprus or Spain to train or compete, they are choosing Stellenbosch, and it's amazing for the brand's distinctiveness (R8).

The above quotation underpins the global brand identity, and the uniqueness of the South African brand compared to other destinations. It further highlights that, despite the long traveling distance to South Africa from countries situated in the Global North, sport tourists, especially those from the European markets, are increasingly choosing South Africa as the preferred destination for sport training and competitive sport participation. The result, thus, reveals that South Africa is held to achieve a unique brand identity and differentiation, which, according to Baker (2007), is critical for survival in a globally competitive marketplace, in which fierce competition exists between destinations for a share of the tourists' hearts, minds and wallets.

As home-grown sport, such as the Absa Cape Epic, is typically hosted in specific cities and regions, naturally the above-mentioned quotation refers to a regional destination context. However, from a national perspective, Respondent 1 further explained the connection of previously hosted sport mega-events that have sought to position the global sport brand identity of South Africa:

> South Africa has an international identity, because people actually remember the positivity of sport in South Africa's hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. They also fondly remember the 1995 Rugby World Cup, and we have hosted the African Cup of Nations in 1996 and the Cricket World Cup in 2003 (R1).

Brand-related benefits are, however, seen to extend beyond the immediate attraction of the global tourism markets as a result of branding the unique brand identity and brand positioning of a distinctive brand image. For the above-mentioned reason, many sport event stakeholders are now increasingly approaching events more strategically than they used to do, with them currently looking beyond the immediate visitation-related impacts. Instead, they tend to plan for relatively long-term outcomes, such as by means of encouraging repeat visitation, reimaging the host communities in terms of the key markets, fostering business relationships,

and encouraging inward trade, investment and employment, as advocated by O'Brien and Chalip (2008). Thus, strategic marketing through the sport event leveraging of events to maximise long-term benefits is encouraged by O'Brien and Chalip (2008), and by Chalip (2017). According to Respondents 1, 6 and 8, such benefits are directly obtained as a result of the hosting of home-grown sport events in South Africa. Thus, the marketing and leveraging arms of the events and host destinations of South Africa are held to consider long-term tourism and investment opportunities beyond the immediate hosting of events. Clear positive outcomes are achieved for destination branding through sport event leveraging, according to Respondent 6: "As a result of these major sporting events, [sport] tourists are understood to extend their stays with their families beyond the event." Another benefit linked to investment was noted by Respondent 8: "In addition to their sport tourism holidays and event participation, substantial investment is made by [sport] tourists into South African property."

Correspondingly, several studies, such as those of Chalip (2017), Trošt et al. (2012), and Ziakas (2018), denote the branding benefits mentioned for the host destinations. However, their research predominantly argues that such sport mega-events as the Olympic Games and FIFA World Cups effectively achieve such benefits. Moreover, in the extant literature, strategic leveraging is still typically promoted for, and investigated in, the context of sport mega-events. The above might be due to the notable global scale and scope of the mega-event. Few known studies have reported on small-scale events, and none has clearly revealed and defined the importance of branding benefits from a home-grown perspective. Thus, the empirical results of the current study reveal the derivative means of home-grown sport tourism events and, therefore, extend the scope of the extant literature on destination branding through sport. The results, consequently, address the current study's objective in broadening the theoretical lens of the sport mega-event literature to include home-grown sport mega-events for destination branding benefits.

Meanwhile, in the small number of responses obtained in response to the topic of the brand identity of South Africa, some disconnecting views on the definitive brand identity of South Africa from a nationwide brand perspective might create a degree of complexity that is sufficient to define the overall destination's brand identity. For the above-mentioned reason, the respondents referred to distinct urban/provincial brands, with them enunciating that various South African cities or provinces depicted very different destination brands.

For example, Respondent 5 indicated the dissimilarity in city brands, giving insight into the complexity involved in defining the national brand identity:

> It is quite difficult to define. If I were to give you Gauteng, Tshwane, Johannesburg, Cape Town, or KwaZulu-Natal, or any other city or province, they have their own uniqueness. If you go to Johannesburg, the hub, then you know you go for business and, if they want to relax, they go to Cape Town or KZN. I suppose, from a national perspective, it is knowing each destination (R5).

While the sport brand identity is clearly defined for the South African brand, in terms of its competitive global position for sport tourism, the above quotation shows that various cities and/or provinces still own their individual brands, which might, at times, not reflect the overall nationwide brand. The above is also seen in relation to the defining of the South African sport brand, according to regional and city brand identities. As 'home-grown events' were a clear defining concept for the South African brand, it is argued that the national South African destination should visibly position and communicate a distinct and comprehensive destination brand identity, which is likely to be more apparent in regard to stakeholder perceptions.

7.4.2.2 Diversity of the South African brand

Notwithstanding the complexity that is involved in establishing a clear nation brand identity, Respondents 3, 4, 5, 6 and 8 agreed that the 'diversity' of the South African brand was what made the destination unique to other global destinations, especially when compared to the destination brands in the European context. The word 'multilayered' (R8) was also used to define the diversity of the South African brand. The following quotation depicts a commonly expressed response:

> South Africa is an exciting destination that offers a diverse tourism experience. Having major cities like Johannesburg, Durban and Cape Town that can offer world- class conferencing and sport, and yet, in a few hours, you can be in a [i.e. the] bush experiencing the big five [i.e. Africa's largest and most dangerous mammals], which you simply can't do anywhere [else] in the world. Anywhere in Europe, you cannot hop on a bus or flight and experience the Garden Route Game Lodge or Kruger National Park, or the Elephant Park (R4).

The above quotation highlights the unique opportunities on offer for the marketing of the South African brand, which supplies widely diverse opportunities, ranging from cultural to business tourism. The above concurs with Lepp and Gibson's (2011) specific allusions to South Africa as a tremendously rich brand in respect of its culture, nature and landscape, with

such diversity allowing the potential to attract millions of tourists to the destination each year. Also, similarly to the responses recorded by Donaldson and Ferreira (2009), Respondent 4 recognised that Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban are major tourism destinations in South Africa, which tap into the growing market of sports and other events, among other markets, to boost their world-class destination brands. The aforementioned researchers note that the cities concerned have the ability to attract international markets, and to capitalise on sport events, so as to ensure repeat visits and extended stays by means of including pre- and/or post-event trips.

To the above-mentioned end, from a home-grown sport event perspective, Respondent 4 recognised the opportunity for cross-leveraging the diverse nation brand associations in relation to 'sport', 'business', and/or other general tourism products linked to 'wildlife', so as to extend visitor stays long after the event phase (R4). Such cross-leveraging opportunities are argued by Chalip (2014) and Ziakas (2018) as maximising and optimising the reach and frequency across a variety of tourism markets that subsequently stimulate the wide-ranging South African economy. Respondent 4 states:

> Using the Cape Town Cycle Tour as an example, with domestic and international visitors, it isn't just coming to a bicycle race in Cape Town that [the sport event] is only the hook. It is more like, 'we are going to Cape Town, why don't we stop in Johannesburg on our way back [home] and spend a week at the Kruger National Park'. It is about leveraging those opportunities (R4).

The aforementioned results reflect that the chief components of the South African brand are linked to the issue of diversity. However, in contrast to other stakeholder responses, Respondent 6 argues that diversity is not the primary brand of the country. In fact, the respondent stated, "It is a figment of our imagination that it is our diversity (cultural or otherwise) that is primary." When compared to Europe, where about eight different nationalities exist within a small geographical radius, "South Africa is a vast geographical area with cultural diversity" (R6). To the above-mentioned end, Respondent 6 categorically stated:

> The South African brand is still a brand that is associated with nature and wildlife as a primary brand. Secondary to the brand is culture and diversity. But, definitely, it is still the animal attraction that attracts people. Thirdly, it is our exchange rate that looks very, very, very promising and our climate (R6).

Furthermore, a key informant in national tourism mentioned the seven pillars of the South African tourism brand as being "outdoor adventure, wildlife, safaris, culture, food, conferencing, and events" (R7). The two quotations make clear that, while the categorisation of the brand components of South Africa are still ill-defined across the stakeholder perceptions, common themes of the nation's brand persist, such as wildlife, nature and culture. However, South Africa is also associated with a variety of other brand components, such as 'exchange rate' and 'climate', which are argued to set the destination positively apart from the other destinations. The above further endorses South Africa as a favourable destination for tourism. While some of these factors, such as the exchange rate or foreign exchange fluctuations, usually negatively affect the host community in terms of cost of living, Respondent 2 argued that, from a tourism perspective, the opposite situation applies, where the "weak [South African] Rand" (R2) can benefit the South African economy when international visitors visit South Africa. Furthermore, Respondent 3 noted the exchange rate as unequivocally yielding consistent global destination branding accolades for the South African brand, which clearly emphasise the significance of leveraging what can be an undesirable factor for the host destination's community, but which is valuable in terms of foreign expenditure.

> This 'good value for money' is why we [i.e. South Africa] have been voted number one tourism destination in the world for five consecutive years through different media groups and publications (R3).

Issues of safety and security, when linked to the South African brand, however, present some challenges for the South African destination brand, which might impede foreign visitation.

7.4.2.3 Safety and security

Although safety and security was not consistently emphasised and comprehensively stressed across the stakeholder responses, Respondents 1, 2 and 8 perceived crime to be a key imperative to consider in terms of destination branding, especially in relation to the developing South African context, with the current levels of crime being consistently publicised in the global media. Directly associating the South African brand with crime, Respondent 1 posited: "Of course, crime is something that is, unfortunately, synonymous with South Africa. So, it is going to be a difficult one to get away from as a negative aspect."

Further emphasising the tourism experience in relation to the aspect of safety and security, Respondent 2 highlighted: "From a tourism perspective, the negative ones are safety and security, because people experience that."

For Respondent 8, crime was seen as a key component in terms of the destination brand. However, the respondent argued that the coverage of crime in the media is more widespread than the actual crime, and that South Africa and other developing nations have other components that are more prevalent, as, for example:

> We love talking about crime in South Africa, and we love talking about crime internationally. Brazil, too, they, too, have that around them. National and international media bang the drum on how bad crime is, so that gets blown up very well (R8).

The quotation above directly agrees with the views of Cornelissen et al. (2011) and Knott et al. (2015), in that crime, safety and security, among other social issues like housing, education and health, play a huge part in developing nations. Similarly to Respondent 8, the researchers argue that the issues might be publicised, and that they might sometimes be blown out of proportion in the international media reports that subsequently leave little room to change the previous perceptions about the destination. While the safety and security issue remains a societal one, Respondent 2 expressed a belief that more could be done from a joint partnership perspective between the sport events and the government to alleviate such issues. For example, the key informant in sport event marketing enunciated:

> I think crime is a societal problem, so it needs a multidisciplinary approach. So, to address what we do in the sport and recreation area, we create alternative space for sport and recreational participation programmes. Opportunities that somebody can go play table tennis, netball or 5-a-side football … From a governmental perspective, it is really simple to fight crime where people can operate in, and … encourage and/or support positive initiatives [such as sport] (R2).

In terms of the above discussion, it is apparent that safety and security, together with other known challenges mentioned in the literature, are rife in the developing destination context, and that they, therefore, should be carefully considered when branding the South African destination for the rest of the world. Recommendations for the practical implementation of sport programmes were encouraged by the respondents involved in sport event marketing, who further advocated for the establishment of mutual public and private partnerships between the local sport and government organisations.

The following section discusses the results of another concept in relation to home-grown events in the current study context.

7.4.3 The nature of home-grown sport tourism events

The literature extensively defines sport tourism events in relation to sport mega-events (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006; Muller & Steyaert, 2013) and hallmark events (Shahwe, 2011; Silvestre, 2009; Muller & Steyaert, 2013).Yet, no known studies describe the 'home-grown' event concept. For the above-mentioned reason, the current study hypothesised that the 'home-grown event' generally refers to recurring sport tourism events that have originated in, and been produced and nurtured by, a particular destination. Also, similarly to the hallmark event, home-grown events tend to attract the international tourist and to boast a number of unique aspects of the destination, such as the environmental (natural) setting, as well as the unique culture (in the experience of the particular destination and its people). To derive a relatively definitive narrative of the 'home-grown' concept, the respondents were asked to describe the concept based on their own understanding of the idea. Furthermore, the respondents were asked to provide examples of home-grown sport events that fitted their descriptive profiles. To the above end, a conclusive definition of 'home-grown events' could be achieved.

Clearly, some of the respondents were not overly familiar with the 'home-grown' concept. Also, other responses revealed that the home-grown concept was relatively new. The result was reiterated in the aforementioned analysis of the word count using the word cloud, in terms of which 'home-grown', which is one of the key concepts of the current study, was only mentioned 71 times, compared to the number of times that the other key study concepts were mentioned. Further demonstrating a lack of familiarity with the concept, Respondent 1 admitted, "uhh [thinking] … I am not too familiar with the 'home-grown sport event' concept". Also with a long pause, Respondent 10 referred to the incipient nature of the home-grown concept: "home-grown events are not really referred in a wide-ranging sense as yet" (R10).

Notwithstanding the relative confusion about the 'home-grown' concept, Respondents 1, 3, 5, 11 and 12 consistently described home-grown events according to their "iconic" status, which ties in with the interpretation of the 'hallmark' and 'sport mega-event' concepts. For example, Respondent 3 stated: "home-grown events are those that are iconic not only in South Africa [locally], but in the world [internationally]." While home-grown events are chiefly referred in

the domestic context, the above quotation indicates that such events have the ability to grow internationally, thus making them "iconic".

A key informant in the provincial government alluded to the international growth opportunities of home-grown events, after their initial (domestic) conception:

> I understand [that] 'home-grown' start[s] off within the local borders of a destination, and [then] have [i.e. has] the opportunity to grow into international events, with the ability to contribute to some kind of destination branding (R1).

The above-mentioned quotation further highlights the opportunities for destination branding through home-grown events in terms of the international tourism markets. For the above-mentioned reason, the need for strategic event leveraging for the deriving of such benefits is advocated. Providing prime examples of the quotation, Respondent 1 mentioned two home-grown events that demonstrate the amount of growth that they have undergone from their domestic origins to currently appealing to international sport tourism markets, thereby gaining the ability to attract brand-related benefits beyond the national borders concerned.

> Our Two Oceans Marathon event was started locally in 1977/78, and [it] has become an iconic event, which has grown internationally. Similarly, the Cape Town Cycle Tour, formally known as the Pick n Pay Argus [i.e. Cape Argus Pick n Pay] Cycle Tour, that is also home-grown. Now, it is 38 000 timed cyclers, from [i.e. with] both domestic and international participation (R1).

Advancing the local organisation and administration of home-grown events, Respondents 1 and 3 emphasised the need for not only distinguishing such events according to their domestic hosting nature, but, more importantly, for recognising the local people 'conceptualising' and 'initiating' such events. For example, Respondent 1 stated:

> I think it is important that, through home-grown events, we show that we have the ability to organise; we show ingenuity; we show that we are innovative, and not just copying another franchise brand (R1).

The above is argued to position events uniquely in terms of a particular location, as the planning, organising and implementation of events is done by those who are accustomed to, and acquainted with, the destinations brand, environment, people, and offerings. Briefly, Respondent 3 noted: "I think the key here is [that the events are managed] *by* the people from this city, or country."

Notably, where home-grown events differ in terms of scope and context to other types of tourism events, such as the hallmark and sport mega-event, is that they include all the regional events that occur in the relatively small towns. In comparison, sport mega-events require holding in the bigger cities or locations, due to the events' size and scope. Respondents 8 and 11 highlighted that "regional" events, like the Knysna Oyster Marathon (with Knysna being a town on the Garden Route in the Western Cape Province), should be considered, as they also serve to attract tourism, whether regional, domestic, or international. Further distinctions were drawn regarding the nature of the participation in home-grown events, especially compared to that in sport mega-events. Home-grown events are perceived as events that are concerned with having a "mass participation" following (R6 and R8), which is in stark contrast to the sport mega-events, which are typically characterised by involving a spectator sport (Arnegger & Hertz, 2016).

No respondent mentioned the natural facilities (i.e. the environment) in which home-grown events take place. What is more, no respondent mentioned the annual hosting nature of home-grown events, compared to the once-off mega-event. However, from the respondents' examples of home-grown events, the large majority of events are clearly held outdoors, with the unique South African landscape (of mountains, land, winelands, oceans/coastlines, and peaks) as their training and competing grounds. Also, similar to the hallmark events held in Melbourne and in the rest of Australia (see Getz et al., 2012), the evidence might suggest that home-grown events are included in a year-round calendar of events that are known to be hosted in the South African context.

From the above discussion of home-grown events, stakeholder sentiments can be seen explicitly to tie in with how the current study approached home-grown sport events in the literature, granted that no known definition or description was available as a point of reference at the time of the study. Considering all the above-mentioned descriptive insights, the following definition of home-grown events was derived for the current research: home-grown events are those domestic, iconic events that are conceptualised, initiated, nurtured, and hosted within the borders of a particular location by its people, and which expand to attract international tourism, and which, over time, produce global tourism and destination branding benefits.

7.4.3.1   Examples of key home-grown sport tourism events in South Africa

A reasonably definitive list of home-grown sport tourism events, as posited by the respondents, is tabulated in Table 7.2 below. The events encapsulate the derived definition of home-grown sport events, and further reveal the nature of the key home-grown sport events in the South African context.

Table 7.2: Examples of home-grown events perceived in the South African context

Discipline:	Event	Hosting city/region/town
Cycling	Cape Town Cycle Tour	Cape Town
	94.7 Telkom Cycle Challenge	Johannesburg
Running	Cape Town Marathon	Cape Town
	Two Oceans Marathon	Cape Town
	Laingsburg Marathon	Town in the Western Cape province
	Knysna Oyster Marathon	Town in the Western Cape province
	Comrades Marathon	Pietermaritzburg and Durban
	Foot of Africa Marathon	Town in the southern Overberg in the Western Cape province
	Soweto Marathon	Township in Johannesburg
Mainstream sport	Cape Town Sevens (Rugby)	Cape Town
	Currie Cup Rugby	Nationwide (South Africa)
Mountain bike	Absa Cape Epic	Cape Town and the broader Western Cape regions, including Stellenbosch
Social/cultural events	International Cape Town Jazz Festival	Cape Town
Sailing / water sport	Clipper Oceans Race	Cape Town
	Volvo Oceans Race	Cape Town
	Berg River Canoe Marathon	Region in Cape Town
	Dusi Canoe Marathon	Pietermaritzburg and Durban
	Surfski World Canoeing	Durban
Multidisciplinary	IRONMAN triathlon	Port Elizabeth
Golf	Nedbank Golf Challenge	North West province, in close proximity of Johannesburg
	Johannesburg Open	Johannesburg
	Tshwane Open	Tshwane
	Cape Town Open	Cape Town
	South African Open	Johannesburg

The above-mentioned examples clearly show that home-grown events in South Africa are multilayered and multidisciplinary. While Table 7.2 does not prioritise the listed events, a key informant in tourism and destination branding, through their local involvement in, and support of, such events, was able to categorise the home-grown events, based on the degree of sport tourism engagement (whether participative or spectator) in such events.

The views so expressed were worded in terms like the following:

> Cycling is the biggest [sport] in terms of the number of participants, the number of spectators, or the 'tag-a-longs' (friends, spouses and family), that come down as a team to support the cyclers. Then the road race, the [number of] runners are [is] also very big, and [it is] also important for domestic, and, more importantly, international, tourism (R6).

According to a Brand South Africa (2004) report, the following sport events are considered as 'home-grown', with the results largely overlapping with those of the current study: the Nedbank Golf Challenge; the Cape Town Cycle Tour; the Giro del Capo (Cycling); the Absa Cape Epic (mountain bike race); the Comrades Marathon; the Two Oceans Marathon; the Dusi Canoe Marathon; and the Surfski World Cup. Besides the Giro del Capo event, which was cancelled due to a lack of sponsorship in 2011, all the events mentioned by the respondents are reported on, and validated, to fit the home-grown profile.

However, events that are evidently seen to have joined, and extended, the 2004 publicised list of the Brand South African reporter are such multidisciplinary events as the IRONMAN triathlon, mainstream events, like the local rugby events, other marathons (like the Soweto Marathon, the Foot of Africa and the Knysna Oyster Marathon), other cycling events (such as the 94.7 Telkom Cycle Challenge), and other water sports, including the Volvo and Oceans Race. The IRONMAN event is believed to position the city of Port Elizabeth as a prime destination for sport in the international market. The respondents' associations with Port Elizabeth were always linked to the IRONMAN event. For the above reason, it is apparent that the number of home-grown events are substantially growing in South Africa, and that increasingly more cities are realising the tourism and destination branding benefits resulting from home-grown sport tourism events.

More remarkably, it is deduced from the above-mentioned findings that the relatively small regions and towns, like Laingsburg and Knysna, are increasingly emerging as the hosts of home-grown events, thus sharing in the wide-ranging benefits for their host communities. Further boosting the home-grown profile are events linked to the social or cultural aspects of destinations, like the International Cape Town Jazz Festival, which is believed to yield similar economic benefits through tourism spending. Thus, with the strategic leveraging of events (both sporting and otherwise), which are also referred to as cross-leveraging activities (Ziakas, 2018), cities are believed to attain increasingly comprehensive brand-related benefits and values. Further, Beesley and Chalip (2011) and Chalip (2017) argue that to achieve long-term value from events relies on event leveraging that requires a strategic approach to event

management, so as to maximise the economic, social and environmental benefits from event hosting.

7.4.4 Destinations seeking brand positioning through home-grown sport events

A number of the respondents who realised the value of home-grown sport events for destination branding benefits mentioned particular destinations. Most notably, Respondents 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7 and 8 recognised the propensity of the city of Cape Town, and of the province of the Western Cape, to "effectively position their brand through (home-grown) sport" (R1). Recognised events that the Western Cape Province adopted as part of an events strategy were named according to the degree to which they could be used to leveraging brand-related benefits. For example, a key respondent in the provincial government explained:

> In the Western Cape, you have your jewel events, [and] incubator, bidding and leveraging events. Your jewel events are annual year-round events, like your Cycle Tours and Marathons, incubator events are hosted in smaller regions, like the Berg River Canoe Marathon, and then incubator [events] would be your Nelson Mandela (running) Race, which could grow into bigger events. Then you have your bidding events, like your World Cups. Then, of course, you could leverage off that (R1).

Apart from the bidding events, all of the other events mentioned in the quotation given were labelled as home-grown, as conceptualised by, and hosted, in the City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality. The reason for adopting the events as part of a provincial strategy was to position the Western Cape and Cape Town as the 'Cape of Great Events' (R1). The empirical finding from the respondent in the provincial government supports the reports by the WCG (n.d.) that detailed Cape Town's brand positioning strategy.

While Respondent 2 recognised Cape Town "doing well in positioning their brand through home-grown sport events" (R2), the respondent involved also noted that Durban in KwaZulu-Natal positioned itself by investing in international events. Hemmonsbey and Knott (2016) similarly note the prime global brand positioning of Durban, due to the continued investment in international sport events. Furthermore, Turco et al. (2003) recognise that the Comrades Marathon is viewed as a major event that is listed on the yearly calendar of KwaZulu-Natal, with it placing a prominent focus particularly on the Durban region locally, and, from an international perspective, on the whole of South Africa. It is, however, unclear from the respondents' statements whether Durban has gone as far as competing for brand positioning through the hosting of home-grown events, as posited for Cape Town.

A somewhat conspicuous city (Port Elizabeth) was also consistently mentioned as an emerging city for home-grown sport event hosting, but, similarly to Durban, the respondents questioned whether the full extent of the value of home-grown events was realised by the city authorities to establish a brand positioning strategy around home-grown events. As mentioned in the previous subsection, the IRONMAN event gives the city a prominent brand identity and global positioning, and, in its position as a "tiny little city" (R4), establishes Port Elizabeth as a "great destination" (R4) for events hosting. A key informant in sport event marketing explained:

> By and large, most of the big cities get the value that events have. But Port Elizabeth, the tiny little city of Port Elizabeth, host[s] one of the best IRONMAN events in the world, and that is a global event that is televised internationally. So, it becomes a great destination for events (R4).

Another city that was conspicuous in relation to brand positioning through sport was the city of Tshwane. This city is positioned as the capital city of South Africa, with such historical tourism attractions as the Voortrekker Monument (which is a building that was erected to commemorate the Voortrekkers leaving the Cape Colony in a fierce bid for independence) and the Union Buildings (which is the official seat of the South African Government). More than the above, the presence of wildlife offers the possibility of safari tours. However, a key informant in sport event organising noted the potential of the city to brand itself through home-grown sport and, together with other tourism attractions, to position the destination's brand. Respondent 2 spoke as follows:

> In fact, the positioning statement of the Tshwane Open in 'it is not all about golf'. And they say it's not all about golf, because you can go to the Voortrekker Monument, they have game parks on their doorsteps, the culture of Tshwane, the city of Pretoria, there is [i.e. are] a number of attractions, and they infuse sport into their brand (R2)

Moreover, Respondents 2 and 5 recognised Johannesburg as a destination of sport as a result of key international events, which are mainly linked to mainstream sport, like soccer, as well as to sport infrastructure and facilities that the city has to offer. From the above-mentioned discussion, it is clear that the major metropolitan cities seek the value of home-grown sport in terms of their positioning strategy. However, what remains unclear is the formalised positioning strategy of home-grown sport as part of an events strategy across all South African municipalities.

The following section describes the concept of sport event leveraging as perceived by key industry stakeholders in the context of home-grown sport for the South African destination brand.

7.4.5 Articulating sport event leveraging in the current study context

Few variations of the leveraging concept exist in the literature and few descriptions of leveraging, as postulated by the known studies, present a clear account of what the concept entails. The commonly accepted description is that "leveraging recognises the event as an opportunity to implement particular tactics and strategies which may foster and nurture the impacts that are desired" (Chalip, 2002:7). O'Brien and Chalip (2007:297) also describe leveraging as "a more strategic ex ante, analytical approach [rather than an] ex post, impacts-driven, outcomes orientation". Consequently, the literature assumes leveraging to produce a forward-thinking, strategic approach, in terms of which event impacts, and the ways to achieve them, are planned prior to an event for benefits that last long after the event hosting phase. For the aforementioned reason, Smith (2014) recognises that the notion of leverage is not merely a normative theoretical one, but that, instead, it is one that has been identified by means of analysing emerging practices. The subsequent chapter sets out to present such an analysis, through taking an in-depth look into the strategic practices of stakeholders in South Africa around sport and events.

In terms of the respondents' conceptualisation of leveraging for the current study context, however, the respondents were asked their understanding of, or how they would describe, leveraging. Similarly to the literature reviewed in the current study, the respondents were found to refer consistently to the importance of planned strategies prior to, during and after the event. The finding reinforced the forward-thinking, strategic approach taken to event leveraging for the South African destination brand. A key informant involved in exhibitions and marketing noted:

> It is not just about hosting the event, and people coming to participate [in] and spectate at a game or event, it is far more than that. Leveraging is considering the build-up to that event, it is what happens during and after the event has left (R3).

Further emphasising the essence of leveraging beyond the immediate event phase yielding key brand-related benefits linked to economic development and stimulation, as well as to job creation, a key informant involved in tourism and destination branding stated:

> For us [South Africans], the sport events hold very little value if it doesn't [i.e. they don't] generate economic injection into the area that is bigger than the economic costs of the event. So, the reason why we want to have events, it's because it stimulate[s] the

economy, it stimulate[s] jobs, and, lastly, to stimulate tourism growth in the long term. So we like people to spend time here, especially to spend an overnight period, or [to] guarantee return visitation, as a result of the event (R6).

The quotation mostly highlights branding benefits towards the economic and social imperatives of the South African brand through sport event leveraging. Although the literature also mentions such environmental outcomes as infrastructure development in the host destination (Chalip, 2014), it can be argued that, from a home-grown event hosting perspective, very different environmental factors are considered, especially compared to those of the mega-event. For instance, the home-grown event does not require complex and expensive transformations, or new event infrastructures and facilities, which, due to the large budgets involved, are liable not only to disrupt the host community, but also to buckle the local economy (Gaffney, 2010). While very little investment into such sport infrastructure is desired to host the home-grown sport event, relatively few environmental benefits are expected from a home-grown sport perspective.

In line with the current study context, Giampiccoli and Nauright (2017) argue that developing nations, like South Africa, which is able to host large-scale events, might experience an influx of revenue and investment, yet most of the sport tourism-related revenue does not reach the peripheral areas of the host nation that contain a large part of the host community. Thus, when leveraging sport and tourism-related revenue for the developing nations, the stakeholders need to conceptualise the sport event as a catalyst for economic growth for the host nation in its entirety. From the above responses regarding the perceived value of home-grown sport tourism events, it is seen that a strong emphasis is still placed on the advancement of the economy, thus the conceptualisation of event leveraging remains steadfast in relation to tourism-related benefits. Furthermore, the current study argues that, given the hosting nature of home-grown events that not only include the major cities, but which extend to regional destinations and townships (refer to Table 7.2 in the previous subjection), significant economic outcomes are realised by the peripheral areas that are typically marginalised and neglected in terms of the economic profits derived from sport mega-events, as postulated by Giampiccoli and Nauright (2017).

7.4.6 The importance of leveraging events with destination tourism and service products

Interestingly, Chalip (2014) argues that the events that exist, in addition to the host destination's product and service mix, need to be treated (leveraged) accordingly. However, the question of how to leverage events in conjunction with the rest of the destination's product

and service mix, so as to optimise the desired economic, social and/or environmental benefits, still remains debatable. The current study's results reveal that, in the context of home-grown sport events, the sport event and other tourism-related offerings cannot be treated separately, as such events naturally complement each other. For the aforementioned reason, event leveraging in the home-grown context requires strategic integration into the host destination's product and service mix. Demonstrating the importance of integrating events, like the Absa Cape Epic, with other of the destination's key tourism products (such as Table Mountain, which is a key tourism attraction in Cape Town), a key informant in sport event marketing explained:

> There is a massive value around tourism and events. The messages have to be a multilayered, integrating marketing mix, and sport is just one of those hugely important messages. It is a huge important leveraging point, because it is like a brand activation, a demonstration of the product. You can have these great images, such as Table Mountain, in Cape Town, but it means nothing if this product is not leveraged with the sport event[s,] like the [Absa] Cape Epic (R8).

Another respondent in the provincial government exemplified a water-based sport event (the Berg River Canoe Marathon) that runs through four different municipalities in the Western Cape as, if effectively integrated with municipal products like 'hospitality', 'catering', 'shopping malls', and 'tourism activities such as museums' (R1), offering the possibility of enhancing their destination brand value, and of promoting future tourism visits. Extending the value of integration between home-grown sport events and other tourism products and services, Respondent 3 noted the significant role played by tour operating companies in offering pre- and post-event tour packages to and from the event location to other South African cities. The service is believed to "promote domestic travel", "enhance the tourist experience" [in terms of the broad South African destination brand], as well as "demonstrate positive product promotion" (R3). In short, Respondent 3 stated: "… for the sport and tourism industry to work together is critical".

Therefore, by providing a somewhat practical solution involving the use of tour operating companies, the current discussion clears up the debating question of Chalip (2014), as to how to leverage events in conjunction with the rest of the destination's product and service mix, so as to optimise the desired economic, social and/or environmental benefits. The discussion further consistently asserts the importance of varied stakeholder involvement in sport and tourism to work together jointly to derive key branding benefits though home-grown

leveraging. Thus, the association of stakeholders cannot be separated from the conceptualisation of event leveraging for the attainment of destination branding outcomes.

Key insights relating to objective three, referring to the use of stakeholder strategies for the leveraging of sport tourism events for the attainment of brand-related benefits, are further discussed in the following chapter. The chapter covers a variety of themes concerning stakeholder objectives and strategic partnerships around home-grown leveraging for destination branding outcomes for the South African brand. For the purpose of the present chapter, it was important to articulate the key terms, or concepts, of the current study, and to provide a background to the evolution of the South African context.

7.5 Chapter summary

The current findings and discussions chapter set out to address the key objectives linked to the conceptualisation of the central ideas of the current study area in connection with destination branding, home-grown sport tourism events, and sport event leveraging. Doing so broadened the scope of the sport mega-event literature to include the results of the home-grown context, as well as extending the context of the extant destination branding studies to include the emerging destination brand.

While the results underpinned the literature, in that destination branding still widely denotes a modern form of tourism promotion, clearly several aspects, or components, of a destination may either augment, or impede, tourism that is directed towards gaining destination branding benefits. Especially in terms of the developing South African context, the components of the destination's global brand positioning and brand awareness, together with the diverse brand images, and the social issues relating to safety and security, are key for establishing brand value and equity with regards to the transmission of positive destination brand messages to both the domestic and the international visitors. What is clear across all stakeholder responses is the significant role of, and the impact of home-grown sport on, the South African destination brand. While the literature posits that South Africa is a prime destination for tourism, with it being rich in diversity, with much to offer (Lepp & Gibson, 2011), the literature is seldom validated by the influence of the home-grown event. The current chapter provided evidence of the stakeholder perceptions of distinct destinations, such as Johannesburg, Cape Town, Durban, and Port Elizabeth, having the ability to invest in home-grown sport, so as to boast their world-class destination brands. As a result of their investment

in sport, it was argued by the respondents that the cities mentioned had the ability to attract destination branding benefits from effective sport event leveraging.

The present chapter further discussed home-grown sport, finding that the concept was not easily conceptualised across the respondents. Having cogitated about the concept, the respondents unanimously agreed that a home-grown event is one that is iconic and conceptualised, initiated, started and hosted by those living in a particular location. Arguably, the events start on a local domestic scale, with only a few participants, and, over time, grow into a domestically organised event, with a wide audience for its international participants and spectators. What sets the home-grown event apart from the mega-event is the scope and size, as well as the requirements and demands, for outstanding economic and environmental investment. According to the current study's results, the respondents consistently viewed home-grown events as being ideal for leveraging pre-, during and post-event visits, and as being empirically proven to yield significant economic and social benefits for the host destinations concerned. Especially as home-grown events now extend to the relatively small host destinations of regions and towns, the peripheral areas of the country's destinations can also enjoy the benefits of tourism and investment, which is usually not possible with a mega-event that is hosted in the major city locations. A list of home-grown events was provided that indicated the hosting nature (whether city, regional, or township) involved, which indicated the increasing amount of interest that is being drawn to such events in South Africa.

The final concept discussed in the present chapter was linked to event leveraging. From the literature and the study's findings, it was apparent that the strategic element of the planned tactics of the stakeholders was emphasised. The essence of leveraging is usually to yield benefits beyond the event phase, with it being critical for the growth of the destination's tourism brand, especially in terms of economic development. The current study advocates that sport events should be leveraged, together with other tourism products and services of a destination, from a local and relatively broad South African perspective. Thus, according to the respondents, effective event leveraging occurs through the integration of strategies consisting of a wide range of tourism products. Such integration can be achieved through the offering of tour packages around an event, through the different municipalities, or cities, stimulating tourism. The results obtained consistently advance the need for stakeholder engagement in sport and tourism.

Subsequently, the following results and discussions chapter covers themes around stakeholder engagements, by highlighting the stakeholder objectives and the strategic partnerships around home-grown leveraging for destination branding outcomes for the South African brand. Through the above-mentioned discussion, key stakeholder challenges are highlighted. Thereafter, the themes concerning the addressing of opportunities for leveraging are discussed, and the recommendations for the leveraging of future events, as per the stakeholder perceptions, are emphasised. The discussions subsequently address the rest of the study's objectives.

CHAPTER EIGHT

STAKEHOLDER APPROACHES TO LEVERAGING HOME-GROWN SPORT EVENTS FOR DESTINATION BRANDING BENEFITS

8.1   Introduction

Chapter Seven thematically presented the current study's findings in relation to the research objectives, namely; to broaden the scope and context of the extant destination branding literature, by way of exploring the home-grown sport events in the context of a developing South African destination. As the previous chapter revealed, the empirical results obtained, as seen from a South African destination brand's perspective, therefore offer consequential implications for the stakeholders concerned in the developing destination context.

The current chapter thematically sets out to present the findings in relation to the stakeholder strategies aimed at sport event leveraging and at related practices around home-grown events for destination brand development, and for sustainable long-term benefits. The results presented in the chapter emerged from themes referring to interview questions regarding stakeholder involvement, and contribution, to sport event leveraging for destination branding purposes. Therefore, the themes relating to stakeholder objectives, the importance of strategic partnerships, and the role and responsibility of stakeholders in the development and branding of South Africa through home-grown sport events can be seen to have become important. Moreover, stakeholder strategies for sport event leveraging emerged as an important theme from the codes pertaining to the leveraging of resources, opportunities and derived benefits, or to the means of generating sport event leveraging. A further theme, relating to the recommendations made in relation to sport event leveraging, in particular, for the South African destination brand, emerged from the key codes linked to 'missed opportunities for leveraging' and to the 'need for effective stakeholder collaboration'.

8.2 Stakeholder engagement in sport event leveraging

As the literature review undertaken for the current study articulates, a known complexity of destination branding is that it consists of a multiple group of stakeholders (Anholt, 2007b). Hankinson (2004), Sheehan et al. (2007), and Hanna and Rowley (2011) mention the importance of establishing a 'relational brand network' consisting of stakeholder relationships including the consumers, the brand infrastructure, the media, and the primary services. Each stakeholder in such a relationship is believed to contribute critically to the development and

advancement of the destination brand involved. With reference to the event hosting, Munien and Majola (2012) note the importance of pre- and post-event stakeholder engagement, especially in terms of building local awareness and preparedness, as well as in regard to establishing networks and relationships among the stakeholders who might benefit not only from the event, but also from the destination brand. Numerous case studies of countries like Australia, Germany and London show that the respective nations effectively achieved destination branding outcomes through sport event leveraging, Such examples show that the key stakeholders in sport, public and private entities, as well as in non-for-profit organisations, play a pivotal role, in terms of collaborative relational networks and stakeholder management, in securing all the stakeholder objectives envisioned. Despite the wide support gained through such collaborative stakeholder relationships, what remains unclear is the responsibility of each stakeholder within the collaboration concerned (Ooi & Pedersen, 2010), with such lack of clarity being believed to impede the efficacy of sport event leveraging for destination branding benefits. To the above end, the following subsections provide empirical results of stakeholder engagements in relation to their objectives, roles, responsibilities, and collaborative efforts in sport event leveraging for the South African destination brand.

8.2.1 Stakeholder roles in context

To establish their unique role in stakeholder engagement, the respondents were asked what their organisational contribution was towards sport event leveraging and destination branding for the South African destination brand. Immediately, it was clear that the roles of sport event organisers were to "stage spectacular events with a guaranteed unique experience" (R4). Respondents 2, 4 and 8 agreed that the role of sport events was to ensure the event was well-organised and effectively implemented, as well as being without any disruption. From a marketing point of view, Respondent 4 expressed a strong belief that a sport event plays a critical role in marketing the destination beyond the sport event participation, as part of their promotional packages of the event for both the domestic and the international audience. For instance, Respondent 4 stated: "Our event has the ability to attract people from across the world, so we need to incorporate the host destination in all our marketing." In addition, another key informant involved in sport event marketing frankly asserted:

> The thing is, everything is marketing, and everything is leveraging. So, if we stage our events, it is marketing, [and] it is leveraging. So, it is part of what we do (R8).

From a public stakeholder perspective, the respondents from the local and provincial government were understood to provide unique contributions linked to both the financial and the in-kind assistance associated with the traffic, security and emergency services, among others, so as to ensure that sport events can take place effectively. Through their critical role played in ensuring the smooth running of events, the key informants of the local and provincial government believed that they, perhaps inadvertently, played a role in branding the destination through sport events. A key informant in the provincial government summed up their role as follows:

> We believe that, by contributing financially to the events, we also contribute to pick[ing] up other type of expenses that then allow the marathon and other sport organisers as a whole to … have comfort and peace, so that they can organise the event, and then make sure that the other upstream economy and destination brand is then promoted (R1).

From an urban perspective, a key informant in the local government representing tourism and destination branding affirmed their financial investments made in promoting home-grown sport events. However, beyond their annual monetary contribution, the organisation concerned also considered some form of tourism and destination marketing of the city involved through sport event leveraging. The respondent stated that the significance of co-branding identities and images of sport and destination brands is key to effective leveraging practices. The following excerpt illustrates such a response:

> Cash is only one way, in terms of the brand, [that] we invest in tourism destination marketing and also the marketing of the city as a brand, through our marketing agencies and marketing events. We have the slogan, and we push that into our events. Therefore, marketing, co-marketing, co-branding, television rights, and sharing in the income stream of that, makes our leveraging possible (R6).

From the aforementioned quotations, it is clear that the roles of local and provincial government are twofold. Firstly, from a home-grown sport event organising and hosting perspective, their roles are reflected through financial and in-kind assistance, and, secondly, from a destination marketing perspective, their roles are reflected through co-branding activities with the sport event itself. In addition, from their collaboration with sport events, it can be said that the government role players fulfil an important role in enabling and bringing the key partners together. Such performance supports research, in terms of the important role played by stakeholders within the sport tourism domain, according to which the stakeholders are seen to collaborate in the strategic planning and management of sport tourism events (Tichaawa et al., 2018).

From the national government perspective, however, its role, together with that of the Department of Tourism, is believed to be limited to "providing access for people to travel to South Africa" (R7). The extent to which the governmental entity contributes to home-grown sport tourism event marketing and leveraging is, therefore, questionable, and it does not extend beyond the tourism experience of the South African destination (whether in a city, region, or the country as a whole). For example, while the stakeholders in sport event marketing held the view that the National Department of Tourism (NDT) could play a greater role in sport leveraging for the South African destination brand than at present, they also mentioned clear challenges that they were experiencing, such as the lack of funding and support that they received from the NDT, which, according to the respondents, inhibited the overall sport tourism experience. From a national tourism standpoint, Respondent 7 described their role as follows:

> We do not have a direct contribution [to event marketing and leveraging]. What we do is, we provide access to visitors, and, yes, I agree that with partnerships with home-grown events there are wonderful opportunities. We come in with our own expertise that can enhance the experience of tourists. So, if we were to say that we link up with events, for example the Two Oceans Marathon, through establishing tour companies or tour officials and graded establishments, we could play a role (R7).

A key informant involved in tour operations recognised the lack of personal touch from the service industry in their role of providing an "authentic experience to visitors" (R9). Moreover, Morgan et al. (2003) challenge destination marketers to make the destination brand 'live', so that the visitors can experience the promoted brand value and the unique authenticity of the place, with Respondent 11 defining their role as follows:

> Our role as tour operators is to create a memorable golfing experience, so that people go back home promoting the South African golf experience. However, not all upstream services deliver that personal touch by cultivating the tourism experience in their sport-related visits (R9).

To provide a relatively personal touch to the tourist experience, Respondent 11 suggested that the service industry employees, especially those in the accommodation and tour operating subsectors, should incorporate promotional messages in their introductions and conversations not only about the destination, but also about the sport event in which the visitors are participating during their stay there. The respondent held that, from the time of their initial contact with the guests, the service industry organisations and establishments could make a strong impact by revealing the "true brand" (R11) of the destination visited. According to the respondent, the visitors could experience the promoted brand value and the unique

authenticity of the place, which should serve to alleviate concerns regarding the 'live' destination brand, as postulated by Morgan et al. (2003).

8.2.2 The important role of the media

In the South African context, and from a developing destination brand perspective, the respondents strongly emphasised the key role played by the traditional broadcasting media and social media in sport event leveraging. Respondents 3, 4, 6 and 8 highlighted the critical contribution made by the media partners in their ability to expose, and showcase, destinations as being of a world-class standard. For example, Respondent 8 explicitly mentioned: "There is a lot of value in terms of exposure for showcasing the [hosting] areas or destinations to the rest of the world."

Consistent with the extant literature on the role of media in sport leveraging (see, for example, Brown et al., 2004; Higham & Hinch, 2009; Jago et al., 2003), with regards to social media and brand exposure, the respondents expressed a belief that the social media play a "huge role in showcasing experiences in a particular destination" (R6), which further creates brand awareness. Moreover, Respondent 8 considered that the social media might prove to be a highly valuable marketing tool for reaching a broad international audience. If they were used in such a way as to create "nostalgia" or "FOMO" (i.e. the fear of missing out), they could create an online following, and subsequently induce potential participation and future visits. However, Respondent 6 argued that "exposure means nothing until the eyeballs are converted into visitors" (R6), thus signalling the significance of capitalising on event tourism through the media as an opportunity for leveraging, as advocated for by Chalip (2004).

Despite the important role of the media (both traditional and social) in creating brand awareness and online brand exposure, a few of the respondents argued that, specific to the South African context, "media is skewed in many cases" (R6). For example, a respondent in the local government argued:

> Media and social media has [i.e. have] made all the issues of the country so prevalent, and it has become so visual and disturbing that there is little room for brand exposure in a positive way (R11).

Another respondent involved in tourism and destination branding admitted to the important role of such media, while acknowledging the skewed views that they portray of South Africa.

The respondent expressed their view in the following way:

> Media plays a very big role. The challenges that we [South Africans] have is that the media predominantly focus on the negatives and the sensational issues, which is not the total picture, and it is skewed in terms of representation of many negative incidents and very few positive incidents, where the reality is just the converse (R6).

From an event leveraging perspective, Germany taught that media partnerships can be used to communicate positive messages about the destination brand image both pre- and post-event, through planned strategies relating to the destination (see Grix, 2012). Consequently, a concerted stakeholder effort is required, in the case of South Africa, to adopt the appropriate strategies and tactics for broadcasting messages that centre on new and innovative sport- and education-related projects, so as to instil a sense of confidence in the minds of potential future visitors.

While the roles of stakeholders were clearly defined, a follow-up question was posed to the respondents who were responsible for sport event leveraging, with a view to determining what their responsibilities should involve, in terms of leveraging practices for destination branding benefits. The following subsection of the findings discusses the insights of key industry stakeholders in the above regard.

8.3 Stakeholders responsible for sport event leveraging for destination branding benefits

The respondents were asked who they believed were responsible for sport event leveraging for purposes of destination branding in South Africa. In addition to the stakeholder roles, it was important to establish a clear understanding of who was responsible for sport event leveraging, especially since there were still arguments existing around who should take responsibility for the formal leveraging of sport in terms of the destination's brand (see Smith, 2014). Smith (2014) clearly argues that individual entities with expertise in terms of particular destination branding portfolios (for example, social, economic or environmental policies) should, separately, take responsibility for leveraging practices, while Chalip (2014) posits the importance of a collective group of stakeholders in terms of social, economic and environmental development for purposes of leveraging.

In the current study context, the following list of stakeholders was held to be responsible for sport event leveraging and for destination branding in South Africa (see Table 8.1 below).

Table 8.1: Perceived stakeholders responsible for sport event leveraging for the accessing of destination branding benefits

Perceived stakeholders responsible for sport event leveraging for destination branding benefits.
Sport event organisers
Sport federations
Municipalities
NDT
Local businesses
NGOs
DMOs
Small (local) businesses
Media (television broadcasts and social media)
Communities
Service industries (tour operators, hotels, catering firms, etc.)

Drawing on examples of previous research by Chalip (2014) on sport event leveraging, especially in the well-documented case of Australia (see also Chalip, 2002), it is believed that the stakeholders listed in Table 8.1 closely correspond with those who were involved in the successful leveraging of the 2000 Olympic Games, including local business, local government, and local service organisations. However, from the above list it can be seen that, for the South African destination brand, 'community', 'non-governmental organisations (NGOs)', and 'media' were uniquely mentioned in the context of a developing nation, with them also being perceived as key role-players in terms of sport event leveraging. The inclusion of such entities differs from those that are typically stated in the developed destination context by such researchers as Chalip (2014). Moreover, Table 8.1 also reflects 'sport event organisers' and 'federations' as having a responsibility towards sport event leveraging, "due to the amount of sport brand sponsorships and television broadcasts that it attracts" (R8). However, as Smith (2014) declares, the involvement of sport event organisers is limited to event hosting, and it is not really their responsibility to mastermind long-term sustainability for social and economic developments. Thus, the chief responsibility still lies with those operant in local and national governmental organisations.

Furthermore, the respondents consistently agreed with Chalip (2014) on the "collective responsibility" (R7) that is involved in the process of sport event leveraging for destination branding outcomes. Smith (2014) posits that event leverage initiatives are separate from, but related to, the delivery and management of event projects, which makes it difficult to assign responsibility for the formulation and implementation of the projects to an entire range of stakeholders. Smith (2014), therefore, advocates for organisations with expertise in leveraging

projects to take responsibility for the relevant policy. For example, if the project is linked to a social objective, it should be led by the local authorities with the social mandate and appropriate expertise. Similarly, economic projects would, then, be the responsibility of the local economic partnerships.

Undoubtedly, the respondents unanimously believed that the government (both local and national) has considerable responsibility in terms of leveraging off sport events to promote a destination within the relevant host municipality. Such governmental responsibilities are highlighted in the following subsections.

8.3.1   Key responsibilities of the stakeholders in the local and national government

As a result of the potential economic and tourism benefits for the hosting municipality, the respondents held that the sense of responsibility for sport event leveraging should, at least in part, rest on the local and provincial governments. Well aware of their derived benefits and responsibilities in relation to the leveraging of sport for further benefits, a key informant in the local government explained: "We benefit immensely from events of this [home-grown] nature, so we have a huge responsibility, also, to leverage for further benefits" (R12).

Also, from the broad South African perspective, a number of respondents, particularly those involved in sport event marketing, believed that, while it is not reflected in practice, the NDT has a sense of responsibility towards the leveraging of sport events for the benefit of the entire country, so as to promote the South African destination brand. Accordingly, a key informant involved in sport event marketing emphasised:

> I believe that, for home-grown sport events, it is [the departments of] Tourism and Economic Development, because they should be branding South Africa through events. We are driving tourism, and, in promoting the event in Cape Town, we are promoting South Africa as a destination … to leverage off – that is only good for the country (R4).

While sentiments regarding the importance of the NDT were echoed across other respondents, it is apparent that stakeholder involvement, from a national perspective, has been absent for a long time. The result is that the stakeholders in sport event organising have become very frustrated, as they do not feel as though they are receiving the support and commitment at a national level that they believe they should receive.

Illustrating their frustrations, the following quotations are presented from a variety of stakeholders in sport event marketing:

> National government, and particularly [the] Tourism Department, is not looking at the kind of investment that [the] local governments are making in these type[s] of events to leverage off that, and [to] embrace the concept of golf for the whole of South Africa (R2).

Another respondent involved in sport event marketing passionately stated:

> The challenge [that] I have as an event [marketer] is that I get no support from National Tourism at all, [and neither from] National Trade and National Economic Development. So, we are left with our own devices to promote and leverage the event on a national level. My hope is for [the] government to ultimately see that if they are able to assist in funding these niche markets, they could benefit off them (R4).

Mirroring the above-mentioned frustrations, a key informant involved in exhibitions and marketing alluded to the lack of value that is seen in events, which might be the reason for the lack of commitment from a national government perspective:

> There are home-grown events, like the IRONMAN that does well for the city of Port Elizabeth. Look at the Grahamstown Arts Festival for example, also positioning the city as a destination for events. However, and you can understand my frustration if [the] government doesn't see the value, you got to lobby with [the] government for support to grow and expand across the entire country (R3).

Acknowledging their lack of commitment to a current sport event strategy, a key informant in national tourism and destination branding recognised the 'space' for a dedicated sport strategy, including the home-grown event. However, while it is believed that their organisation "do[es] not see the value" (R3) of sport events, the respondent concerned clearly emphasised the value of sport for the South African brand, which was believed to call for a more serious commitment from the national government perspective. To the above end, a key informant involved in national tourism and destination branding referred to establishing a committed sport event strategy as follows:

> We haven't gone yet to partner with a Cape Town Marathon, [a] Soweto Marathon, or a Comrades Marathon, but we know the value it is bringing. So, that is the space we need to play in. We are seriously looking at our strategy, because there was never a dedicated sport strategy (R7).

While the existence of a sport event strategy was questioned by Respondent 3 in terms of the "lack of understanding to get this strategy to the next level [i.e. the implementation phase]", a key informant in national tourism and destination branding stated with certainty that the

strategy would soon be finalised, and subsequently implemented. The mentioned sport strategy was believed to position South Africa as a prime destination for home-grown sport.

From the above discussion, it is evident that leveraging sport events for the benefit of the entire country, so as to promote the South African destination brand is a huge responsibility.

Beyond it being the responsibility of the national government to commit to the funding and marketing of home-grown sport events for sustainable long-term benefits, the above-mentioned discussions also clearly advocate for potential stakeholder collaboration across the role-players of the public and the private entities of sport and tourism, as further suggested by Kelly and Fairley (2018). What is more, as the respondents stipulated their clear roles and responsibilities in contributing towards destination branding and leveraging practices for the South African brand, the discussion seems to clarify issues of clarity around the responsibility of each stakeholder within the collaborative partnerships involved, as highlighted by Ooi and Pedersen (2010).

8.4 Strategic partnerships in sport event leveraging for the South African destination brand

Despite the perceived absence of stakeholders in the national government that might lead to the impeding of stakeholder collaborations across the role-players in sport and destination branding organisations, there was a clear indication, across the respondents, that having strategic partnerships with both national and international businesses is extremely important to the sustainability of home-grown sport events, and to future marketing and leveraging practices. From a sport event perspective, notable strategic partnerships have been realised between sport event organisers and international event-related businesses.

For example, from a cycling perspective, the Cape Town Cycle Tour has, together with other international cycling events, created the World Association of Cycling Events (WACE) series, which consists of countries like Sweden, Italy, France, the UK, and the USA. The above was done to achieve effective marketing and leveraging through the hosting of global cycling events. The partnership is believed greatly to benefit both the marketing of South African sport (cycling) and, albeit inadvertently, the destination branding of Cape Town and South Africa as a whole. Such marketing is held to allow the Cape Town Cycle Tour organisers free access to market directly through another international partner's database, thus setting up a good platform for leveraging off the events for further tourism to South Africa. A key

informant involved in sport event marketing gave insight into the partnership in the following words:

> Strategic partnering is huge, it is immeasurable. Look what you can do for your country through your event, not just for the event, but also [for] your city and country. You bring in these tourists, and they see what South Africa has to offer. We have this partnership with WACE to market directly to event participants and their families. So, it works for me, as we are leveraging the event to market the country through these other events around the world … So, strategic partnerships are absolutely key (R4).

Another respondent emphasised the importance of strategic partnerships, in particular with the media, and noted that, through such media platforms as television and magazine broadcasting agents, their event could reach, and attract, new international markets to South Africa, as well as deriving some form of insight into the destination's brand image through event hosting. The respondent argued:

> We have strategic partnerships with the National Geographic Channel (a cable/satellite television network), and I am busy with a partnership with Bloomberg (a newspaper and magazine media source) to market South Africa through our event. We don't have an office in the Middle East, for instance, but, through these partnerships, the Middle East becomes a target market, and we use these [i.e. the] variety of media platforms to get the message of South Africa across (R8).

While Respondents 4 and 8 demonstrated their strategic partnerships with their international partners for purposes of sport event leveraging, from a South African perspective, strategic partnerships were believed to depend on stakeholder objectives and various mandates in terms of their business operations. Taks (2013) underscores that, as home-grown events occur more frequently than do mega-events, and are coupled with their accessibility to a wide variety of host cities and towns, they require tight local partnerships and human resources for their staging. However, in terms of the previous discussion on the absence of the NDT, it is plausible that strategic partnerships, in terms of collaborative relationships between sport and national tourism organisations, are lacking. The above could, further, be linked to the stakeholders' varied objectives, as described by the respondents in the following subsection.

8.5 Stakeholder objectives in terms of home-grown sport event leveraging

The respondents were asked to detail what their organisational strategic objectives were during the hosting of (home-grown) sport in South Africa, so as to elicit measurable results from various stakeholder contexts. From a sport event perspective, it is clear that the objectives in the above-mentioned regard were "purely self-motivated" (R4), and mainly linked to profit. Whether such profit was "raised for charity" (R4), or for investment in new

"developing programmes for sport" (R4), the end objective, from an event perspective, was profit-driven. In saying so, a key informant involved in exhibitions and event marketing stated the importance of the business of events for cities as follows:

> As private events companies, obviously our objective is to make money – that is why we are in business. But, in making money, we are also bringing in business to the cities. So the cities are dependent on the number of events that you are bringing into … cities (R3).

However, the cities and the national government's objectives were found to be linked to very different imperatives that might be socially driven, rather than profit-driven. For example, a respondent explained: "For government, you can say objectives are associated with social priorities like job creation, like poverty, education, and those kinds of things" (R11).

Moreover, from a National Tourism perspective, Respondent 7 shared the sentiments pertaining to crafted objectives, in terms of which the cities were not only driven to make a profit. Rather, the focus of such objectives was on providing "access for people to visit South Africa" (R7), with benefits accruing to other industries, like "hotel groups, tour groups and airlines" (R7).

Noticeably, in terms of the above results, the stakeholders have varied objectives and very different perspectives, which are both business and socially related. For the above reason, Respondent 5 provided insight into the stakeholders of sport events, who requested national support without consideration for other imperatives linked to the government's objectives. The respondent noted: "It might be your organisation's objective as a sport event, but it is not necessarily the national objective."

For reasons such as those provided above, it also makes sense that the stakeholders in sport events would rather strategically partner with other businesses with similar objectives.

However, as was strongly argued by Respondent 3, the government needs to leverage home-grown events, despite their varied objectives, so as to combat their priorities related to socio-economic development in South Africa. Providing the context from previously conducted research that had been undertaken in 2015 for their organisation, Respondent 4 enunciated on the value of exhibitions and events in particular, proving their economic and social benefits for South Africa.

From the above-mentioned point of view, the respondent stated:

> You can argue that there are other priorities that [the] government has to address, social priorities like job creation, [and] priorities in education and poverty, and those type[s] of things, but events have to [have the] ability to create and sustain jobs. Your hotels, restaurants, tour operators, and anybody associated with events, benefit if these events are regularly hosted in [i.e. at] the destination. So, I feel [that] it is the city and government … [that should] … make it their objective to leverage off that, to use the event to bring more events, so that you keep the economy going (R4).

Consequently, despite the varied strategic objectives of stakeholders in sport event organising and the government, in terms of their respective mandates, it is clear that, in connection with sport event leveraging, the imperative for mutual objectives lies in the elicitation of funding and support for local socio-economic enhancement. The imperative also lies in establishing strategic public and private partnerships, so as to combat unique social challenges and to cultivate the event and destination branding, which are believed to be two important means for developing destination brands in the developing country context.

While the current section of the present thesis has discussed stakeholder strategies for sport event leveraging, it has also recognised the important role and responsibilities of strategic partnerships, especially in the South African context, where socio-economic development is a key imperative for the national destination brand, and where it can be achieved through the maintenance of strategic private and public partnerships. As the benefits that are derived from leveraging extend beyond the event itself, the discussions make clear that stakeholder strategies are key to actively and consistently augmenting tourism and destination branding benefits. The present section, therefore, contributes to, and extends, stakeholder policies and practices on the marketing and leveraging of sport events for their current organisational practices, as is articulated in the final chapter of the current study. To propose a framework of recommendations for home-grown sport event leveraging for developing destinations, the following section delves into the discussion of sport event leveraging in the South African context. Through the above-mentioned discussion, the final two objectives of the current study are addressed.

8.6 A framework for leveraging home-grown sport in the context of South Africa

8.6.1 Leveragable resource as the sport event itself

According to some studies that have focused on leveraging events, the leveragable resource refers to the sport event itself (see, for example, Chalip, 2004; Weed, 2008), which, through planned strategies and tactics, is used as the profitable means by which to yield sustainable tourism and destination branding benefits for the host destination (in the above case, the city

or country involved). Chalip (2004) indicates a portfolio of events, consisting of both the sport mega-event and of other annual events from which to derive similar benefits by way of a range of tourism markets. From a rather practical study perspective, however, Boukas et al. (2013) found that, for Athens, beyond the Olympic Games, cultural heritage was a critical element in Athen's destination brand image. Thus, the current research widely supports the proposition that the element of cultural heritage should be considered a viable leveragable resource. Moreover, on the basis of their research, Boukas et al. (2013) recommend the adoption of a modified strategic planning framework for leveraging, which allows for opportunities for cross-leveraging, and for capitalising on, tourism in terms of both sport and cultural events, so as to maximise the benefits available therefrom.

Despite the concept of the 'mega-event' being widely regarded in the context of sport event leveraging, from a South African perspective, the respondents who participated in the current study agreed with Chalip (2004) that home-grown sport events are critical leveragable resources, due to their "recurring" nature (R1). The above suggests that strategies for leveraging can be employed more frequently, and that, more importantly, stakeholders can learn from, and improve on, strategies for new events. Chalip (2006) confirms that the ultimate objective for leveraging practices is to learn from implemented strategies, so as to improve future leveraging activities and efforts.

Furthermore, the current study's results reveal that South Africa has hosted a variety of home-grown sport events, as well as arts and culture events unique to the South African brand. Some cities have, in fact, adopted a formal events calendar that includes a variety of events (sporting and otherwise) that signify the importance of having a developed portfolio of events for achieving a wide range of brand-related benefits. Moreover, the respondents' views strongly confirm those of Boukas et al. (2013), who argue that the potential that is afforded from post-event hosting will remain unrealised, due to the lack of strategic cross-leveraging synergies between the actual sport event and the cultural tourism offering. Ziakas and Boukas (2014) recognise that events are assets that generates the need for cross-leveraging with the host city's other assets.

Based on the above-mentioned opinion, the synergy achieved in leveraging opportunities, as well as sport, cultural and other destination assets, is promoted. Inferring the cross-leveraging of sport event and other tourism offerings in the South African context, a key informant of sport event marketing stated:

So, we have a unique opportunity to market the country through our event. This country offers an incredibly diverse set of opportunities, [ranging] from tourism to business, and they cross over quite nicely. We could potentially leverage sport together with the other offerings, such as wildlife or business, that lends itself [i.e. lend themselves] to those opportunities (R4).

From an event portfolio perspective, in Melbourne, Australia, hallmark events have been successfully adopted as part of their annual major events portfolio, acting as a strategic positioning tactic for their global destination brand (see Getz et al., 2012). Much like with the above-mentioned situation, South Africa is also believed to be capable of benefiting greatly from an established portfolio, or calendar, of events for the achieving of sustainable long-term benefits. The importance of having such a calendar or portfolio in place for home-grown sport is discussed in the following subsection.

8.6.2   Scheduling of home-grown events as part of a calendar of events

Respondents 1, 2, 3 and 6 alluded to the importance of scheduling home-grown events as part of a year-round calendar for the country. In doing so, they agreed that such a calendar of events would not only serve to "attract regular, year-round tourism" (R1), but that it would also augment a state of constant "global brand awareness" (R2). Such sentiments can be seen to have been summed up in a response that was recorded from a key informant in the provincial government, who mentioned:

Everyone knows … that, in South Africa, in March, you have the Cape Town Cycle Tour [and] the [International] Cape Town Jazz Festival. Everyone knows there is a Comrades Marathon in KwaZulu-Natal in May or June, and the Cape Town Marathon in September, for example. To have these kind[s] of global calendar[s] of event[s] is huge for attracting year-round tourism, with the potential to keep maturing the destination and [the] economy (R1).

The existing evidence might suggest that Melbourne in Australia is one of the world's major destinations that has successfully adopted an event portfolio, and that has, subsequently, leveraged off home-grown, recurring events to globally position their competitive destination brand (Getz et al., 2012). In the current study, Respondents 3, 4 and 12 thought that South Africa has the potential for global recognition and positioning, provided that there is a formalised events portfolio with key annual events, [and] with set leveraging strategies and tactics for the maximisation of benefits. Moreover, the home-grown events that make up the portfolio require sufficient investment from both private and public partnership ventures to achieve successful leveraging benefits. An insightful recommendation into a public and

private partnership model was proposed by a key informant in terms of exhibitions and event marketing:

> A long-term strategy is needed as a framework to build awareness of South Africa as an events destination … [and] to create an events department within [the] government, South African Tourism, or [a] national department to look at a private–public partnership model, very similar to what has happened in Melbourne, Australia. They have this events company … You have [the] government and [the] private sector investing a certain amount of money in this independent company, and the focus is to support [i.e. on supporting] major home-grown events, in terms of which events we will invest in and leverage off (R3).

While a strategy for investing in a formalised calendar of events is advocated through such a private and public partnership model on the national level, from an urban perspective, Cape Town is seen to scoop multiple accolades for being the world's leading festival and events destination, as the result of its adopted event portfolio. Such a status compares favourably with that of other cities, like London, Montreal, Sydney, Rio de Janeiro, Dubai, Seoul, Shanghai, Singapore, Danang, and Guayaquil. As a direct result of its event portfolio, which consists of home-grown sport and culture events, Cape Town has continuously affirmed its place as the capital of Africa and as the 'Gateway for Events' in the rest of Africa, as was previously postulated by Hemmonsbey and Knott (2016). Respondent 3 noted that the existence of a competent events department, as recommended in the above quotation, greatly assisted the city to achieve such accolades, leading to the entire country being recommended to follow suit.

However, Respondent 6 posited that there is a 'dry period' in the events industry, during winter, in terms of the events being held in certain cities, as the weather does not permit the hosting of outdoor sports at such destinations. Thus, ample opportunities are provided for the initiation of new events for the cities concerned, which, essentially, would form part of the country's events calendar. In view of the above, Respondents 3, 4 and 8 suggested school sports as a new avenue of investment for the South African sport brand, due to the number of South African schools and universities hosting, and traveling domestically for, championships and tournaments. Insight into the significance of school sports as an integral part of events, especially during 'off-peak' periods, is provided in the following quotation:

> I have mentioned the winter periods. We should be looking at creating a lot more opportunities for school sports during that period, because it is an empty period in the sport calendar … Parents travel for a week, and it is all good for the city, so what do we do? We have got to partner; we have got to leverage (R3).

Moreover, the hosting of conferencing and conventions is also believed to be capable of filling the gap created by the dry periods for events during winter, with such hosting being suggested by Respondents 3, 4 and 7 not only as compensation for the fairly quiet time (or season) in the sport industry, but also as a means by which to "showcase South Africa's business brand" (R3). In terms of recognising the value of other sport- or non-sport-related business opportunities, various South African provinces have set up conventions and events bureaus for supporting both sport and business conventions. A key informant in the exhibitions and event marketing subsector stated:

> Gauteng tourism has set up a Gauteng Conventions and Events Bureau. So has [i.e. have] a few other provinces … South African Tourism now has the National Conventions and Events Bureau. The focus of these Bureaus are [i.e. is] not only on conventions and exhibitions, but it [i.e. they] also supports [i.e. support] sport and cultural events. They have now realised the need for this type of entity that is going to support events (R3).

By adding conventions, exhibitions, sport, and cultural events to the list of attractions on the events calendar, South Africa could competitively position its brand amongst other leading global conference and convention hosts, such as Australia, which has successfully achieved brand positioning as a result of its sport event leveraging (Chalip, 2002).

The above discussion not only emphasises the importance of having an established calendar of events, chiefly for South Africa's global competitive destination brand, but it also suggests the opportunities that are available for the cross-leveraging of other events with home-grown sport events, as advocated for by Ziakas (2018). The above speaks directly to the current policies of stakeholders in the various South African municipalities, which aim at exploring multiple event types for the sustainable benefits that are linked to tourism and economic development.

8.6.3   Leveraging of opportunities for the accessing of South African destination branding benefits

The opportunities for leveraging in the literature are usually linked to event visitors, and to the trade and event media (Chalip, 2004). The respondents in the current study agreed with the leveraging opportunities, in that "events bring in immeasurable opportunities for repeat visits" (R12). Mirroring such a sentiment, Respondent 6 accentuates that sport event leveraging signifies an "opportunity for retaining business and tourism" (R6) through the pursuance of strategic on-brand actions. Also, as the holding of additional events (such as school sport and university games) and business conventions/exhibitions was advocated by the respondents, the above indicates new opportunities for tourism and trade. For example, from a business

perspective, Respondent 3 stressed that "the value of both trade exhibitions, for example, Decorex (a kitchen and bathroom fair), as well as the Design Indaba (a furniture and home expo) goes into millions of (South African) Rands", hence outranking the value of certain sports events. Thus, the opportunities that are available for trade and investment are immense, and they should be leveraged accordingly.

Where media are concerned, Chalip's (2004) work clearly shows that it is important to consider them to be a key opportunity, as they enhance the destination's image through broadcasting. While the importance of the media was advanced in the previous sections of the current study chapter, it is evident that they are considered to play a significant role in enhancing the image of South Africa around sport events, due to the dominant messages of crime and socially unsettled issues currently plaguing the country. While such negative media perceptions have not necessarily impacted on visitation numbers for avid sport event fans, as is espoused by Tichaawa and Bob (2015), Respondent 8 emphasised that media partnerships are important for conveying positive messages of the destination. A key informant involved in national tourism and destination branding made the following practical recommendation:

> There are opportunities to establish relationships with media houses and journalists around events, to deliberately brand the event and South Africa as a destination. When there is an event, we would take care of the travelling sports journalists. We will entertain them; we will show them what South Africa is all about. We have a hosting programme as well, where we host journalists from around the world, so it's how do you align the hosting of sports journalists to get positive messages across (R8).

In addition to the opportunities mentioned by Chalip (2004) in his event leveraging model, the respondents also emphasised the opportunities that have become available for strategic private and public partnerships. Such partnerships were discussed at length in the previous subsections, with key references being made to the practices of stakeholders in sport, business and government that are aimed at achieving comprehensive benefits for the South African destination, The above is especially in the light in terms of the associated brand-related socioeconomic challenges that receive priority from a selected group of stakeholders. However, if they are effectively applied, the opportunities that are made available for this type of partnership can yield significant means towards attaining benefits.

A concluding thought on this statement was presented by a key informant involved in sport event marketing:

> I would see this [i.e. these] partnerships in local, provincial, [and] national government, together with sport and federations, benefiting the NGOs and communities, and various charities from the sport itself, and, then, various entities that work together (R4).

The above-mentioned quotation also shows that public and private partnerships are supportive of stakeholder collaboration, which can further be seen as a strategic objective for sport event leveraging. Strategic objectives were discussed in an earlier subsection, as part of the stakeholder objectives towards the leveraging of home-grown sport for attaining strategic destination branding benefits. However, as reiterated here, the fostering of stakeholder collaboration has become a clear imperative, in addition to the strategic objectives, as mentioned in the event leveraging model by Chalip (2004). Also, the statement on public and private partnership speaks to the need to support social enhancement through funding and investment, which, from the empirical findings of the current research on the South African destination's brand, apply uniquely to destinations in the developing context. Despite the key leveraging opportunities recommended for the stakeholders in the current study, opportunities missed in previous years in terms of sport event leveraging were identified by the respondents. Such lapses are believed to have impacted on the deriving of means from sport event leveraging.

8.6.4 Missed opportunities for sport event leveraging

While the previous subsection clearly highlights leveraging opportunities for South African destination brand development, a few of the respondents, especially those having to do with sport event organising and marketing, highlighted the few occasions in the past where events could have been leveraged more effectively than they were, to the benefit of the South African tourism and destination brand. As a result of the above, key opportunities were missed for the leveraging of home-grown sport events, as identified by a selected group of key informants and sport event organisers. The so-called 'missed opportunities' were linked to "using the event to attract more sport and business tourism" (R3); the "use of media around the event for brand exposure" (R8); the "fostering of strategic partnerships" (R3); and "the need for brand activation" (R8). Table 8.2 below summarises the missed opportunities identified, and the associated recommendations made, by the respondents.

Table 8.2: Identified missed leveraging opportunities, and associated recommendations

Respondent	Identified missed opportunity	Associated recommendation
Respondent 3	Sustainable event sport tourism and business	The holding of additional exhibitions and conventions around sport event business interests
Respondents 3 and 8	Event media exposure	Investing in televised brand exposure
Respondents 2, 3, 4 and 6	Private and public partnerships	The establishing of stakeholder collaborations
Respondent 8	Brand activation practices	Engaging with advertising media and broadcasting agents for brand awareness and activation

While Table 8.2 above illustrates the identified missed leveraging opportunities linked to sport and business tourism; the use of media; the fostering of strategic partnerships; and the need for brand activation, the table further proposes the recommendations made by key informants involved in sport. The recommendations that are linked to the mentioned opportunities for the effective leveraging of sport events in the context of South Africa are associated with an increase in the number of conventions and exhibitions to attract tourism and business opportunities; with investing in media and television exposure for brand exposure; with collaborative stakeholder partnerships; and with engaging in media advertising and broadcasting agents for establishing brand awareness and for activating the South African destination brand.

Demonstrating both the need for sustainable event tourism and business, as well as the need for private and public partnerships, Respondent 2 argued:

> … no-one … is embracing the opportunity to partner and say, "Listen, we would like to come on board." … We are not after sponsorships in terms of money, but at least invest in some money in a TV [television] proposition, or seek counsel on how to use us [i.e. the sport event] and [how to] leverage [us] to expose South Africa (R4).

Due to the missed opportunities identified, the expected destination branding outcomes and strategic stakeholder objectives might not be achieved effectively. If strategic partnerships are not appropriately applied, and media coverage is not capitalised on, to the benefit of South African destination branding development, sport event leveraging becomes a fruitless endeavour in the context of developing nations through home-grown sport tourism events. The means and outcomes derived from sport event leveraging are further discussed in the next subsection.

8.6.5   Means and outcomes derived from sport event leveraging

An articulation of the expected means and outcomes from the immediate strategies in Chalip's (2004) model shows themes of economic development through (return) visitor spending and sustainable business relationships. As for the long-term strategies involved, the means by which long-term leverage can be achieved are associated with the advertising, promotion and reporting of events through the event media (Chalip, 2014). An updated sport event leveraging model that was practically applied to Athens, in association with the 2004 Olympic Games, advances Chalip's (2004) model, with it demonstrating two types of means to be gained from event leveraging, namely grounding means and derivative means (see Boukas et al., 2013). The grounding means are believed to establish the foundation for employing further strategies and tactics. Subsequently, the derivative means emerge from the grounding means, which are believed to sustain the value of the event legacy for the host destination. The current study perspective shows that the means that emanate from stakeholder objectives are mainly linked to brand exposure and community (i.e. social) benefits. From a brand exposure perspective, it is important to cultivate the destination associated with the sport event. For example, Respondent 9, who was involved in tour operations, mentioned: "Apart from the economic benefits, it [i.e. sport event leveraging] also creates destination brand exposure for tourists, and it is all about experiences with tourists, so brand exposure becomes imperative."

Another respondent emphasising brand exposure as a derivative means from stakeholder objectives was a key informant in provincial government: "We need to gain exposure as a country, it is no use you host events and you miss out on that, so for me, I think brand exposure as a country is a big one" (R1).

From the community perspective, a significant number of the respondents considered event leveraging to benefit the community in which the sport event takes place. Therefore, to use the event to alleviate social challenges can be seen as important. The following responses provide insights within such a context:

> We make a huge amount of money to put back in[to] the community, so we tick those boxes into [i.e. in] community upliftment and social development. So, those imperatives are met though [the] leveraging [of] sport events (R4).

> Through event leveraging, you can achieve more than the economic benefits – one may say that social, or community, upliftment takes place. Things like jobs are created, poverty is lifted, new opportunities for sport participation is [i.e. are] encouraged, and sport development … these [aspects] are huge and very valuable for us (R3).

What is evident, however, is the means of lengthening visitor stays post home-grown sport event hosting. The above is a consistent means throughout leveraging studies (see, for example, Chalip, 2004; Weed, 2008). The above was also emphasised by the respondents as being one of the main reasons for staging events, and, more so, for the leveraging of events. Among most of the respondents, an emphasis was placed on the 'lengthening of visitor stays' as a derivative means in relation to the brand value of South Africa as a destination for hosting home-grown sport. For example, Respondent 4 stated: "The brand value is whatever they want to create, but it needs to reflect in tourism. Through events, it is an extension of visitor stays in our cities."

Another respondent involved in tourism and destination branding enunciated:

> The brand value means nothing if we cannot get a return on investment from events in terms of lengthening visitor stays and experiencing our accommodation, catering, hotels, attractions, and sport at large (R6).

Neither Chalip (2004) nor Weed (2008) describes the attraction of conferences/exhibitions as a means of event leveraging. However, in terms of an advanced empirical study, Boukas et al. (2013) account for the attraction of conferences/exhibitions as a derivative means. The empirical findings of the study clearly show that, for South Africa, a perceptible derivative means involves addressing conventions, exhibitions and/or conferences as an imperative for the creation of future sport and business opportunities that could correspond with the findings of Boukas et al. (2013). The similarity between the empirical findings of the current study and those made in the study by Boukas et al. (2013) regarding Athens, Greece, implies the significance of conferences and exhibitions for both the developed and the developing country contexts.

The discussion on leveraging has provided insights into the stakeholder perceptions of home-grown sport for strategic destination branding in the South African context. It addressed the study objectives linked to proposed recommendations for the leveraging of home-grown sport within the developing context. The discussion recognised that home-grown sport introduces numerous benefits to the host destination in its brand exposure, which results in brand value, as well as in community, or social, benefits and business opportunities, through key stakeholder collaborations. While missed opportunities are noted in areas that are mainly linked to the establishment of stakeholder partnerships in event media, recommendations are

also proposed by the stakeholders in terms of events and destination branding through the putting in place of brand activation practices for effective sport event leveraging. The current discussion is, therefore, believed by the current researcher to contribute to stakeholder policies and practices for further leveraging.

8.7 Chapter summary

The present chapter addressed the study objective linked to the proposing of a framework for the making of recommendations for the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events by eliciting stakeholder responses in terms of their respective roles and responsibility, and strategic objectives and partnerships, in regard to sport event leveraging. While it is clear that the stakeholders in sport events, tourism and destination branding, as well as in national tourism, have distinct roles and objectives, they are, however, advised to cooperate in establishing collaborative partnerships so as to achieve effective leveraging, and, in turn, to augment any mutually beneficial relationships. Moreover, with regards to home-grown sport in South Africa, due to the acknowledged absence of the involvement of the National Tourism Department in the provision of funding and support for home-grown sport events, there is a strong emphasis on private business and international investors. The existence of such a strategic partnership is, further, believed to position the South African sport brand in terms of the global sport tourism markets.

The current chapter also discussed the framework for leveraging home-grown sport in the context of South Africa, with it presenting empirical findings in tandem with the existing literature on sport event leveraging models presented by Chalip (2004), Weed (2008), and Boukas et al. (2013). It has found that having an established calendar of events in place is imperative for South Africa, where several iconic events occur on a regular year-round basis. Destination branding benefits are evident in the case of Cape Town, where there is a formally adopted calendar of events that are hosted and leveraged for the accessing of specific tourism and economic benefits. It remains to be seen whether South Africa, and other major cities, will follow suit.

Where the opportunity for leveraging is concerned, the respondents expressed the belief that, although opportunities for sport event leveraging were clearly missed, following through on the recommendations made for future leveraging should prove to be instructive for the future. Media exposure, which was seen as a key missed opportunity, was believed to be valuable, especially for the South African brand, where social issues tend to be the pivotal branding

message portrayed. For the above-mentioned reason, the development of a relationship with media partners and journalists is advocated, so as to be able to portray the authentic and positive messages of South Africa concerning sport event hosting.

As for the means derived from the leveraging, the key imperative for the respondents was clearly linked to brand value in terms of exposure, as well as in terms of converting such exposure into the extending of visitors' stays. The above is believed to be evidence of the true value to be gained from sport event leveraging. Community and social upliftment was also mentioned as a unique benefit for South Africa that is attainable through the implementation of planned strategies around home-grown event leveraging. In addition to the shared interests that are commonly mentioned in the existing literature on the derivative means to be obtained from sport event leveraging, the study postulates that conventions and exhibitions are key to the creation of further sport and business opportunities. The aforementioned finding complies with the propositions made in terms of Boukas et al.'s (2013) advanced model.

The current chapter is significant for the policies and practices of stakeholders in the South African context, and also for other developing nations facing similar branding challenges and opportunities for leveraging through home-grown sport. As chapters 7 and 8 thematically presented the empirical findings obtained from a stakeholder perspective on the areas of destination branding, home-grown sport and sport event leveraging, they addressed the in-depth qualitative contribution of the research concerned. The following findings and discussions chapter, Chapter Nine, sets out the discussion of the results of the quantitative contribution made to attendee perceptions on the destination brand of South Africa through home-grown sport event hosting.

CHAPTER NINE

SPORT EVENT ATTENDEES' PERCEPTIONS OF SOUTH AFRICA'S DESTINATION BRAND

9.1   Introduction

The previous results chapters presented a thematic discussion of the generated and emerging qualitative data analysis in relation to the current study's objectives. Chapter Seven discussed the main concepts as they pertain to the current study area, as posited by the key industry stakeholders in sport, tourism and destination branding. Chapter Eight debated the insights of South African stakeholders into sport event leveraging, while highlighting the key issues of stakeholder engagement in home-grown sport event leveraging. A significant discussion on sport event leveraging with respect to developing destination branding is deliberated on, while the implications for the South African brand are offered. Together with the relevant literature reviewed, the results are presented in the context of developing destination brands.

The present chapter further seeks to provide insights into the perceptions of the South African brand, by way of hosting home-grown sporting events by unpacking the views of event attendees. It was important for the study, in addition to the views of the stakeholders, actively to explore the views and perceptions of event attendees to authenticate, strengthen and reiterate insights into the perceived brand messages of South Africa, in particular. The outcomes of the results from the sport event attendees also serve to justify the need for, and the importance of, leveraging home-grown sport tourism events for South Africa, as advocated by the related relevant studies (see, for example, Chalip, 2017; Weed, 2008; Ziakas, 2018). The above was achieved through conducting an inquiry into the subjects' travel behaviour, as well as into their intentions and motivations to visit the event destination. The focus, as detailed in the methodology chapter, was on two home-grown sport events (i.e. the Comrades Marathon, and the IRONMAN triathlon). The results presented subsequently consisted of n=403 valid responses that were collected from the non-locals present at both events. In conjunction with the integration of the key literature sources and the content analysis, a discussion of the findings made, in relation to the key informant interviews, is integrated with the central flow of the text, where applicable, thus displaying the triangulation of data analysis. The above is done in cognisance of the study's research questions and objectives, as were detailed in the previous chapters.

9.2 Demographic profile of the study sample

The demographic results illustrated in the current section profile the study subjects, who typically attend home-grown sport tourism events in South Africa. The profiles are given in relation to their race, gender, age, and disposable monthly income. Such sociodemographic variables are believed to influence the perceptions of market-related offerings linked to home-grown sport tourism events, as well as the overall destination brand image from a global perspective. In the current study context, analysing perceptions in relation to such variables, in terms of further establishing sport-specific opportunities as they advance the local economy of South Africa. For the aforementioned reason, it is important not only to define the demographic profile of event attendees, but, moreover, to establish clear insights into their perceptions of the South African brand.

9.2.1 Race of the respondents

Table 9.1 demonstrates the historical classification of the event attendees (*n*=403) at the sport events, showing the make-up of four historical racial categories, namely white/Caucasian, black, Indian, and mixed race. The large majority of the event attendees were white (69.6%), with the second highest number being black (18.9%), and the third being mixed race (7.8%), followed by the Asian (2.0%) and Indian (1.7%) attendees. The above clearly indicates that most event attendees at outdoor sport events in which there is mass participation are white.

Table 9.1: Race of the respondents (*n*=403, in %)

Race	%
White/Caucasian	69.6
Black	18.9
Indian	1.7
Asian	2.0
Mixed race	7.8

9.2.2 Gender of the respondents

Table 9.2 shows that, in terms of gender, mostly men (51.4%) tended to attend sport events of an outdoor, participatory nature. However, sporting events of such a nature are also well supported by women (48.6%). The results obtained show that the subjects were almost equally split, and they clearly indicate the growing population of women with respect to the attending of home-grown tourism events. From a home-grown event perspective, a study conducted by Zhang, Bob and Swart (2008), on the Two Oceans Marathon event run in South Africa, reveals that, of the sport event spectators, 57.5% were men and 42.5% were women. The above might have been due to the woman's increased interest in terms of supporting such

sport activities in which their families and/or friends participated. The results of the current study, undertaken a decade later, found an increased percentage of 48.6% female attendees. Due to the increased rate of women attendees at such events, the marketers of both events and destinations alike should seek to adjust their sport marketing strategies to appeal to different kinds of attendees.

Table 9.2: Gender of the respondents (*n*=403, in %)

Gender	%
Male	51.4
Female	48.6

9.2.3 Age of the respondents

In relation to the age groups of the sport event attendees, the subjects were asked to indicate their current age. Due to the age range usually assuming a wide range of classifications, the total sample of the age ranges was divided into six groups, as is shown in Table 9.3 below.

Table 9.3: Age of the respondents (*n*=403, in %)

Age (in years)	%
18–25	10.3
26–35	32.6
36–45	33.7
46–55	11.3
56–65	8.9
65 or above	3.1

Table 9.3 clearly shows that, of the subjects who attended both the Comrades Marathon and the IRONMAN events, the highest age distribution (of 33.7%) was indicated to be between 36 and 45 years old. Closely following was the age group between 26 and 35 years old (32.6%). The fewest subjects fell in the age category 56 to 65 years old (8.9%), and 65 years old and above (3.1%). Almost equal proportions in both age groups represented the 18- to 25-year-olds, and the 46- to 55-year-olds, being 10.3% and 11.3%, respectively.

An analysis of the results shows that the 26- to 35- and the 36- to 45-year-old categories yielded significant differences in terms of age, especially compared to the older age category, with percentages below 10%. According to Logan and Baker (2007), different sports require different sets of physical skill and expertise, therefore leading to the differences experienced in terms of age at sporting events. For the Comrades Marathon and the IRONMAN event, while experience, in relation to age, might be a valuable factor in terms of achieving success in winning, the physical stamina that is required from the participants is of a nature that matches the young to middle-aged range. Hence, from a participation perspective, the general

age group of those between the ages of 26 and 45 years old is supported. Atkinson (2009) further supports the fact that particular age groups identify with, and share, particular cultural experiences, due to their personal histories. As a result of the above-mentioned shared experiences, it can be said that events of this nature are one of the experiences that can be positioned to attract the particular market to a destination, being, in the present case, South Africa. Moreover, destination branding practices should clearly emphasise the demographic age group mentioned, in terms of the marketing and leveraging activities of sport events and other general tourism. In the current case, additional tourism attractions could be cross-leveraged with the event prior, during and post the event, so as to retain this fragment of the sport tourism market.

9.2.4 Monthly disposable income of the respondents

The subjects were asked to indicate their monthly disposable income in South African Rands, with disposable income referring to the outstanding amount, after the deduction of taxes from the overall gross income. The results given in Table 9.4 show that a significant number of the subjects surveyed (47.3%) indicated a monthly income between R25 001 and R30 001 per month. The income bracket noted was the highest category. Only 12.8% of the respondents indicated the second highest income category of between R20 001 and R25 001 per month, with the third and fourth disposable income categories ranging between R15 0001 and R20 000, and between R10 001 and R15 000 per month, with percentages of 11.6% and 10.5%, respectively. The large majority of sport event attendees might, therefore, be assumed to be high-end earners, with earnings or extra money to spend on travel and tourism relating to sport and recreational activities, such as the Comrades Marathon and IRONMAN events. The rest of the respondents indicated that they either had no income (10.1%), or that they ranged from less than R1000 per month (1.2%), through between R1001 and R5000 per month (2.3%), to between R5001 and R10 000 per month (4.3%). The results, therefore, indicate that a significant portion of the home-grown sport event attendees were from the upper to middle income groups. However, the range of disposable income differed significantly. Cognisant of the fact that there was a large make-up of international attendees, as illustrated in the geographic profile of the following section, the results, in relation to income, were to have been expected. Especially due to the current global performance of foreign currency (US Dollar and Euro) compared to the South African Rand, such a result was relatively predictable. The question relating to monthly disposable income was asked in the above-mentioned particular context on the basis that the respondents were able to estimate the exchange rate, cognisant of the fact that they had already stayed a number of days prior to the

event. More so, the fieldworkers were trained to provide relevant conversion rates, using online conversion tools for the respondents, where necessary.

Table 9.4: Monthly disposable income of the respondents (*n*=403, in %)

Monthly income category	%
No income	10.1
Less than R1000	1.2
R1001–R5000	2.3
R5001–R10 000	4.3
R10 001–R15 000	10.5
R15 001–R20 000	11.6
R20 001–R25 001	12.8
R25 001–R30 001	47.3

9.3 Geographic profile of the study sample

Subjects were asked to indicate the country from which they came, and, from the list of results in Table 9.5, 40.9% of the event attendees clearly indicated that they were from South Africa. An analysis of the representative international countries in Table 9.5 shows that the majority of the international attendees (7.8%) were from the USA. The second largest group (5.4%) was from Germany, and the third largest group (5.1%) was from the UK. Further depicting the international key markets for home-grown events in South Africa were those from Australia (4.7%), Spain (4.4%), Canada (3.7%), and Argentina (3.0%).

Statistics South Africa (2018) reveals the top international countries and the key tourism markets visiting South Africa. The countries are: the UK; Germany; the USA; France; the Netherlands; China; India; Australia; Sweden; and Switzerland. An examination of the numbers indicates that half of the top ten markets improved in numbers between February 2017 and February 2018, with the percentage growth during the period considered being indicated by the article as follows: China (23%); India (25%); the USA (8%); Germany (2%); and Australia (2%). Moreover, the results of a study by Turco et al. (2003) confirm that, for Durban, and for the Comrades Marathon in particular, the key international markets are travellers from Europe (mostly from the UK and Germany), as well as from Australia.

Furthermore, from the key informants' responses, the additional international markets were perceived as being key sport tourism markets, in terms of which home-grown sport is imminent. From the markets mentioned, it can be seen that the international African markets form part of the key travel markets for home-grown sport. A key informant involved in sport event organising stated: "We attract markets from the USA, Brazil, UK, France, Netherlands, Germany, India, China, New Zealand, Australia, Angola, Nigeria, and the Middle East" (R2).

198

Another respondent mentioned "Zimbabwe and Zambia" (R1), which countries were also included in Table 9.5, with regards to home-grown event attendance. Interestingly, Kenya, which was also identified by Respondent 1 as being a key sport tourism market, was not indicated in the attendees' perceptions of home-grown sport events. Nonetheless, the inclusion of African nations extends the ambit of the developing nations' involvement in sport. More importantly, in relation to destination branding, the above serves to open up new opportunities for the leveraging of opportunities from a pan-African perspective.

With the top four of the current study's subjects representing the key South African tourism markets, as posited by Statistics South Africa (2018), and with them being further supported by the findings of Turco et al. (2003), it is plausible to assume that the markets' travel intentions are typically related to sport and leisure niche segments, such as home-grown sport tourism events, like the Comrades Marathon and IRONMAN events. Inherently, the international sport tourists take home the brand messages of South Africa and, more importantly, the brand messages in relation to the planning, organising, and hosting of home-grown sport are positively reiterated in the recurring international markets. Thus, events of such a nature should be positioned by the stakeholders concerned to retain the current markets, as well as potentially to expand into other international markets, especially those that are prominently featured, such as other European and Asian markets. The above will be beneficial for the South African sport tourism brand, as well as for the relatively broad tourism industries in the country.

Table 9.5: Source country of the respondents (*n*=403, in %)

Country	%
Argentina	3.0
Australia	4.7
Austria	1.4
Belgium	0.3
Brazil	1.7
Canada	3.7
Chile	0.3
Columbia	0.3
Croatia	1.0
Czech Republic	1.0
Denmark	1.4
Fiji	0.3
Finland	1.0
France	1.7
Germany	5.4
Ghana	0.3
Hong Kong	1.7

Italy	1.7
Macao	0.3
Malawi	1.0
Mexico	1.0
Montenegro	0.3
Netherlands	2.0
New Zealand	1.0
Peru	0.7
Scotland	0.3
Singapore	0.3
South Africa	40.9
Spain	4.4
Sweden	0.7
Turkey	0.7
UK	5.1
USA	7.8
Zambia	0.3
Zimbabwe	1.7

However, Table 9.6 below surmises that, albeit that they were spread across various international countries, 59.1% of the subjects who participated in the study were international in origin. Thus, irrespective of the high degree of local appeal (40.9%), it is certain that events of a home-grown nature have extensive international sport tourism appeal.

Table 9.6: Summary of the respondents' country of residence (*n*=403, in %)

International	59.1
Locals (South Africans – non-locals)	40.9

In relation to the domestic sport tourism markets, the subjects were asked in which province they currently resided (see Table 9.7). The importance of establishing their current residence was to determine whether the South African subjects were domestic travellers for sport and events, or local residents of the host province. The above essentially determines the influence of home-grown sport on the domestic, non-local tourism markets. An analysis of Table 9.7 shows that, in relation to the Comrades Marathon (hosted in the Eastern Cape Province) and the IRONMAN triathlon (hosted in KwaZulu-Natal), there was a high attendance of non-locals residing outside the provinces concerned, such as in Gauteng (25.5%), and in the Western Cape (21.7%). However, one of the host provinces, the Eastern Cape, still dominated with 30.8% local attendance. In keeping with the hosting province of the event case study, it is clear that the local KwaZulu-Natal residents represented only a small percentage of the sample subjects (12.5%). Overall, the Northern Cape (0.8%), the North West (0.8), Free State (5.8), and Limpopo (1.7%) showed significantly low figures in the analysis of the results,

showing that the residents concerned tended not to be attracted by the holding of home-grown sport tourism events.

Correspondingly, the results of the current study are supported by those of Turco et al. (2003), who analysed domestic tourists in the context of home-grown sport tourism events in the KwaZulu-Natal Province. Their study highlights the position of KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng, the Eastern Cape, the Western Cape, and Mpumalanga (bordering the Gauteng province region) as key domestic markets. The above is not only a clear reiteration of the domestic sport markets, in terms of which domestic sport tourism can be capitalised, but it also influences the local geographic brand positioning, especially as it links to the value proposition of sport and sport-related facilities.

Table 9.7: If South Africa, in which province respondent currently resident (*n*=403, in %)

Province	%
Western Cape	21.7
Eastern Cape	30.8
Northern Cape	0.8
North West	0.8
Free State	5.8
KwaZulu-Natal (KZN)	12.5
Gauteng	25.5
Limpopo	1.7

Table 9.8 further illustrates the results obtained as to the province from which the domestic tourists originally came, as not every local necessarily originated from their current place of residence. The results revealed that the attendees were mainly originally from KwaZulu-Natal (30.2%). Also, the respondents from the Eastern Cape (25.9%) were the second highest percentage indicated, followed by those from the Western Cape province (19.0%), and then those from the Free State (14.7%). With a dragging percentage indicated for the other provinces, such as the North West, 5.2%; Gauteng, 2.6%; the Northern Cape, 1.7%; and Limpopo, 0.9%. The results proved to be somewhat consistent with the previous findings made in terms of the residing province, as they indicated the Western Cape, the Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, and Gauteng as being the main tourism markets for home-grown sport tourism events.

When analysing home-grown sport tourism events in the South African context, the majority of sporting events are hosted by the key domestic markets, namely the Cape Town Cycle Tour, the Two Oceans Marathon, the Volvo Oceans Race, and the Absa Cape Epic in the

Western Cape province; the Comrades Marathon, the Dusi Canoe Marathon, and the Midmar Mile swimming event in KwaZulu-Natal; the IRONMAN triathlon and the Herald Cycle Tour in the Eastern Cape province; and annual and recurring mainstream sport events, such as those for rugby, cricket and soccer, in the Gauteng province, which play a prominent part in terms of the sport-loving nature of the province. Thus, in the context of South Africa's domestic markets, in relation to traveling for sport, the presence of the sport-loving non-locals should be capitalised on by the host destinations in terms of prominent sport and events. Further, in the context of leveraging off domestic tourism spending, host destinations, in tandem with event organisers and tour operating companies, should create year-round sport-related tourism offerings that bring in regular, active domestic visitors who are likely further to stimulate the South African economy, as well as to encourage domestic travel.

Table 9.8: Original source province of the respondents (*n*=403, in %)

Province	%
Western Cape	19.0
Eastern Cape	25.9
Northern Cape	1.7
North West	5.2
Free State	14.7
KwaZulu-Natal (KZN)	30.2
Gauteng	2.6
Limpopo	0.9

9.4 Main purpose for visiting the destination

The respondents were asked what the main reason for their visit was, with the results in Table 9.9 clearly showing that their attendance of the event itself was cited by the vast majority of the sample (81.5%) as being their primary intention, and motivation, for traveling to the event host destinations (i.e. Durban and Port Elizabeth). The finding mirrors those of Tichaawa et al. (2018), who found that the motivation for attending sport tourism events, from the perspective of the participant, whether event attendee, competitor, or event official, tends to be intentional, thus their priority is attending the sport event itself, and other tourism activities, if any, in which they participate can be considered secondary. The intrinsic motivations for travel to sport tourism events, especially from the perspective of the event attendees, have direct outcomes that are linked to the excitement and enjoyment of the actual sport event, and, equally, of the destination at which the event is held, as well as to the economic contribution made to the host destination from visitor spending, and the destination image promotion and marketing through sport event hosting (Tichaawa et al., 2018). The findings further show the great influence of home-grown events on travel behaviour, and that

the outcomes of sport event visits inherently impact on the destination brand. Consequently, the stakeholders in both sport events and destination branding should jointly leverage events to gain the associated tourism and destination branding benefits. Sport events generally hold a social entertainment component, in terms of which individuals interact with the locals and fellow event participants (Valek, Lesjak, Bednarik, Gorjanc & Axelsson, 2015), thus the stakeholders could explore opportunities for pre- and/or post-sport event tours within the host community that, subsequently, intensify the sport tourism experience.

Albeit a significantly small percentage compared to the event as rationale for visiting, business (8.1%) also featured as a main reason for doing so. In the South African context, the proportion of business tourism indicates a healthy percentage. As business tourism is an important market for South Africa, evidently a few such tourists tend to organise their business travels to coincide with the event. Thereafter, equally indicated was general tourism/ sightseeing and the visiting of friends and family (5.2%).

Table 9.9: Main reason for respondents' visit (*n*=403, in %)

Reason	%
To participate in the event	81.5
General tourism/sightseeing	5.2
Business	8.1
To visit friends and family	5.2

The existing literature that is associated with the hosting of sport events has shown that event attendees and participants tend to extend their stay beyond the actual duration of the event, with the intention of experiencing the destination offerings (Boukas et al., 2013; Chalip, 2017; Turco et al., 2002). Moreover, the respondents who were interviewed in the current study consistently emphasised the importance of "extending visitor stays" (R3) as a means derived from home-grown sport event leveraging for South Africa, as it is believed to result in increased brand value and equity, thus reinforcing the significance of tourism beyond the event phase. When asked whether the subjects would extend their stay after the event, 51.6% indicated 'yes', and 48.4% indicated 'no' (see Table 9.10). With a significant number of people indicating their lengthening of their stays beyond the duration of the actual event, the result obtained in the above regard, therefore indicates the derived destination brand value which can, subsequently, be converted, and measured, in terms of economic value from tourism spending.

Table 9.10: Likelihood of extension of stay post the event (*n*=403, in %)

Whether respondent likely to extend stay at destination post event	%
Yes	51.6
No	48.4

Of the respondents who had indicated that they would extend their stay, 41.9% indicated that they would stay 1 to 2 days after the event, and 30.1% indicated that they would stay between 3 and 5 days afterwards. A significant number (27.9%) indicated that they would extend their stay for longer than 5 days after the event (see Table 9.11). While the highest percentage of visitors indicated an extended stay of 1 to 2 days, it is clear that, generally, post-event visitation is significant, and that the respondents' evaluation of their experience of both the sport event and South Africa as a host destination was positive. The above might further influence their behavioural intentions regarding future visits to South Africa.

Table 9.11: If yes, length of proposed stay (*n*=403, in %)

Number of days intended to be spent at destination	%
1–2 days after	41.9
3–5 days after	30.1
Over 5 days after	27.9

In relation to the previous results obtained, indicating the main reasons for visiting, it can, thus, be concluded that, even though the event could be seen as the main attraction, there was an element of an after stay. For the above-mentioned reason, home-grown events should be cross-leveraged with other tourism amenities and attractions to ensure not only a consistent brand message for South Africa across a variety of tourism niche markets, but also to encourage equal economic impacts for the host destination long after the event has passed. To recap on a study by Ziakas (2014), the task for event planners and policymakers is to capitalise on cross-leveraging single events with other events in the host community, so as to create synergies among different events from which to derive associated economic, tourism, leisure, sport, or sociocultural objectives. The effective practice of cross-leveraging home-grown sport tourism events with general tourism in terms of what South Africa has to offer should further help eradicate the findings of Saayman and Saayman (2012), in the unequal spread of economic impacts across the pre-, present, and post-event phase.

Table 9.12 additionally shows that most of the sport event attendees' arrivals were 3 to 5 days before the event (45.7%), followed by the percentage of 39.7% 1 to 2 days before, with only 14.6% indicating more than 5 days before the event. Unlike the visitors' decisions to stay post-event, the pre-event visits might have been due to the sport event participants requiring

sufficient preparation and training for the race. Also, the international visitors, especially those from the USA and Australia, needed to adapt to the local time zones, as well as to recover from the long distances that had to be travelled to the southern tip of Africa. They also needed to acclimatise to the differences in altitude and environment. Furthermore, the duration of mass participation sporting events, such as marathons, cycle races and triathlons, is typically a number of hours, approximately 6 to 8 hours, compared to the duration of mainstream sport matches, which tend to last between 80 and 90 minutes. Thus, for the active participants to have sufficient rest prior to the races is critical. Moreover, an event usually has an exhibition one day prior to it taking place, for which the event attendees tend to arrive early, which adds another day to their travel time. While such factors might explain the early arrival times, such 'time' could also be capitalised on, and leveraged to educate, excite and stimulate sport tourists about the South African brand. In terms of the above, leveraging events with exhibitions and conventions offers opportunities for networking, education and sharing regarding travel and tourism in South Africa, as advocated by Ramirez, Laing and Mair (2013).

Importantly for the South African destination brand, such extended stays can bring in additional revenue for the South African tourism economy and associated tourism benefits, especially within the upstream tourism markets, like hotel and catering services. Critically, based on the visitors' monthly income that indicates the extra earnings that might be available for sport tourists to spend pre-, during and after events, the destination brand of South Africa has immense potential for capitalising on the significant foreign spending on the destination's tourism offering, which, subsequently, advances the South African destination brand value.

Table 9.12: How long before the event respondents arrived (*n*=403, in %)

Days spent at destination before the event	%
1–2 days before	39.7
3–5 days before	45.7
Over 5 days before	14.6

9.5 Awareness of destination branding and sport event leveraging

Exploring how sport event attendees comprehend key concepts of the study that are related to destination branding, leveraging, and home-grown sport events is important, so as to attain a general understanding of the knowledge that such event attendees have of the study context. Table 9.13 presents the results that were found in terms of a five-point Likert scale with ratings of 'poor', 'fair', 'average', 'good', and 'excellent' for the various concepts concerned.

Table 9.13: Respondents' rating of own understanding of concepts (*n=403, in %*)

Concept	Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
Destination branding	8.5	13.6	23.1	26.1	28.8
Leveraging	14.2	12.9	26.8	23.1	23.1
Home-grown sport events	5.4	8.8	24.1	26.5	35.0

The results in Table 9.13 show that the home-grown sport event concept was perceived as good by 26.5%, and as excellent by 35.0%. However, the average understanding of the home-grown sport event concept (24.1%) presented a significant number of subjects with some understanding of the concept. With a mean of 3.77, and a standard deviation of 1.178, as presented in Table 9.14, the analysis of the result shows that the concept was understood very well indeed. The destination branding concept was also knowledgably comprehended by the event attendees. The results show that the subjects' understanding of the concept ranged between 'average' (23.1%), good (26.1%), and excellent (28.8%). The mean, indicating 3.53, and the standard deviation, of 1.269, moreover prove that the destination branding concept ranged between 'good' and 'excellent'.

Table 9.14: Means and standard deviations relating to concepts

Concept	Mean	Standard deviation
Destination branding	3.53	1.269
Leveraging	3.28	1.334
Home-grown sport events	3.77	1.178

The leveraging concept, however, was the least understood concept across subjects, with the mean representing below 3.5. The highest percentage is presented in the average column (26.8%), thus showing that the sampled respondents do not entirely comprehend the concept of 'leveraging'. The above consequently indicates the intricacy of the concept in relation to the practice of the sport event attendees. Despite the growth in academic literature around sport event leveraging, as shown by numerous studies, such as those of Chalip (2002, 2004, 2017), Chalip and Costa (2005), Ziakas and Costa (2011), Grix (2012), Ziakas and Boukas (2014), Chien et al. (2018), and Ziakas (2018), the concept of leveraging still remains relatively complex, with it not easily being understood in practice. Leveraging talks about the collection of strategies and tactics, be it linked to event-related marketing, programmes, or packages, that are employed to enable the generation of desired long-term sustainable branding benefits for the host community, stakeholders and the tourism industry is of strategic importance (Chalip, 2014). The above is especially key for the international markets visiting South Africa to attend home-grown sport events, as leveraging practices aim to retain such markets and to encourage the lengthening of their visits, or to guarantee future visits as a

direct result of the event. Knowing about sport event attendees thus becomes critical to the degree of awareness of sport and destination brand-related benefits resulting from their overall experience of home-grown sport in South Africa. Such knowledge might lead to positive implications for the South African destination brand.

Conversely, the 'destination branding' and 'home-grown sport event' concepts were relatively easily understood across the sport event attendees. Such an understanding might have been influenced by the fact that the type of sport tourists concerned has had to travel to particular destinations to participate in events, thus any research involved is usually done in advance on the events and host destinations. In looking into destinations to visit, especially the international subjects come across the relating concepts, comprehending them in the context of their own involvement in sport tourism events. With regard to their responses demonstrating good and excellent for both the destination branding and the home-grown sport events, their knowledge and perception of, as well as their familiarity with, the South African brand, especially through sport event hosting, is good. The above proves that the event image itself is a strong hook for destination branding practices in the South African context, and that there is a similarity between the event and the destination brand that further agrees with co-branding, in terms of which the event image correlates with the destination brand (Westerbeek & Linley, 2012).

9.6 Attendees' perceptions of the entities responsible for destination branding though home-grown sport

Sport is believed to be a powerful agent for destination branding, especially for emerging and newly transitioned destinations (Hanna & Rowley, 2008; Knott et al., 2017). From a developing destination perspective, Pillay and Bass (2008) and Knott and Swart (2018) postulate on the leveraging of sport tourism events for the South African brand. The authors emphasise that a key objective in the bidding for, and the hosting of, sport events is to capitalise on tourism, as well as to establish South Africa as a powerful tourism destination. As a way of improving upon its international brand image and tourism promotion, South Africa has been at the forefront of hosting numerous sport tourism events. To advance their destination brands, and to augment further tourism and destination branding benefits, the evidence might suggest that an increasing number of South African cities and stakeholders invest in the home-grown sport form, which is further believed to position the destination brands of various municipalities as global destinations for sport (Hemmonsbey & Knott, 2016). Therefore, the importance of event management and stakeholder collaboration across

the role-players of sport event, tourism and destination branding organisations is crucial for effective branding and leveraging practices.

The event attendees were asked who they thought were the entities responsible for branding South Africa through home-grown sport tourism events. The results in Table 9.15 show that 33.5% of the sport event organisers were believed to be the most responsible for the destination branding practices concerned. Following the sport event organisers was the government, with 32.7% which, together with the sport event organisers, were also perceived to be responsible for branding practices around the South African destination brand in relation to sport event hosting. Private investment companies / sport brand sponsors were deemed responsible for destination branding by 18.0% of the respondents, with the community and tour operating companies, with 8.1% and 7.7%, respectively, being perceived to be the least responsible for destination branding practices.

According to Ooi and Pedersen (2010), the stakeholders of destinations need to cooperate to ensure effective destination branding. However, it is noted that destination branding practices, through sport event leveraging, require strategic integration into the host destination's product and service mix. The responsibility for leveraging should lie with the host destination that is responsible for economic, social and environmental development, including the local business, government, and service organisations (Chalip, 2014). Furthermore, the responsibility and role of sport event organisers in leveraging is deemed limited to the duration of the implementation phase of the event (Smith, 2014). Thus, the role that the government and local business, such as tour operation companies, play in branding the South African destination brand through sport event leveraging should extend beyond the event, and occur on a more regular basis than it does at present.

Contrasting with the findings in the literature, however, the current study's results show that the responsibility for branding practices falls almost equally on the government and on the sport event organisers. Such responsibility not only signifies the importance of establishing joint partnerships between the key stakeholder groups, but it also emphasises the exclusive responsibility for the entities, and clearly disregards the role played by the tour operators and by other service organisations as key role-players.

Table 9.15: Which entities are most responsible for destination branding practices concerning the hosting of home-grown events (*n*=403, in %)

Entity	%
Government	32.7
Sport event organisers	33.5
Tour operating companies	7.7
Private investment companies / sport brand sponsors	18.0
Community	8.1

9.6.1 Entities benefiting from the hosting of home-grown events

Following on the previous section on the entities responsible for destination branding through sport events, the Likert scale tabulated in Table 9.16 indicated that the event attendees perceived the entities to benefit from the hosting of home-grown sport tourism events in South Africa in terms of the following categories: *no benefit*; *small benefit*; *reasonable benefit*; and *great benefit*. An analysis of the results shows that the service-providing companies, like hotels and catering (72.2%), were indicated as those that greatly benefited from events of a home-grown nature. As was expected, due to their direct involvement in event organising, sport event organisers are also indicated as being a main beneficiary of home-grown events (70.1%). Albeit not as much as the upstream tourism, but still falling within the category of service providers, the tour operators (55.8%) were also indicated to benefit greatly from the events. Also, in terms of high percentages, the government (at 55.1%) and the private companies/ sport brand sponsors (at 50.9%) fared outstandingly well. The two aforementioned entities were almost equally believed to benefit from the above-mentioned hosting, as home-grown sport events are usually linked to a private entity in terms of sponsorship, while, for the most part, also partnering with the government (local or provincial), albeit for very different aims. Moreover, the community was held to benefit the least from home-grown events (31.7%). From the stakeholder responses, the imperative of community as one of the main beneficiaries of home-grown events in South Africa was constantly emphasised by the key informants of the study as consisting of the profits that were made from many of the events, and that were ploughed back into the community. Moreover, the community and social upliftment was mentioned by the key informants as a unique benefit that was achieved for South Africa through the planning of strategies around home-grown event leveraging, reiterating the importance of the community in the developing destination context.

While the community is seldom conceived to be a major beneficiary of sport event hosting and leveraging, Kellett et al. (2008) and Taks et al. (2013) emphasise the importance of considering the community as the beneficiaries of sport events. However, the link to the

community is mainly made via sport team identification and sport participation. As the current study focused on the attainment of destination branding outcomes through sport event leveraging, the community may be viewed as a beneficiary for other brand-related outcomes, such as "social cohesion, community sport programmes, training and education facilities" (R4), as implied by a key informant involved in sport event marketing.

Table 9.16: In the respondents' opinion, to what extent the entities benefited from the hosting of home-grown sport events (*n*=403, in %)

Entity	No benefit	Small benefit	Reasonable benefit	Great benefit
Government	2.7	8.6	33.2	55.1
Sport event organisers	0.3	2.0	26.9	70.1
Tour operating companies	0.3	6.8	37.1	55.8
Private companies / sport brand sponsors	1.0	7.2	40.6	50.9
Community	12.6	27.0	28.3	31.7
Hotel and catering industry (upstream tourism)	0.3	5.4	22.0	72.2

Table 9.17 further indicates the mean of 3.66 for upstream tourism, and of 3.48 for tour operators, which shows that the two entities greatly benefit from sport event hosting. Such benefits can be assumed mostly to be linked to economic outcomes, due to the nature of the entities involved. As a result of the benefits derived from sport tourism events, the service organisations should have similar responsibilities, in respect of the branding of South Africa around sport event hosting, as do those who derive equal benefits therefrom, which ties into the data contained in Table 9.15, in relation to their brand-related responsibilities. From the results obtained, however, it is clear that, while tour operators are believed to benefit greatly from sport events, their role and responsibility in branding South Africa through sport is in stark contrast to their benefits achieved. A key informant involved in sport event organising who participated in the interviews in the current study debated the point in relation to service-providing companies (i.e. tour operators and upstream tourism), and therefore advocate for the entities to establish a more prominent role and additional responsibilities, in terms of branding and leveraging sport tourism events for the purpose of attaining destination branding outcomes. The respondent argued:

> In South Africa and any city, your hotels, your restaurants, your tour operators, any [service provider] that is associated with events will benefit, if tourism events are hosted in the destination. So, I feel that they [the service-providing companies], together with the city, has [i.e. have] a responsibility to leverage off that. And it's not just about that event, it is about how you use that event to bring more events into your destination, so that you keep that economy going (R3).

As is indicated in Table 9.16, sport event organisers are believed to benefit greatly from home-grown sport, resulting in the highest mean score of 3.69 being obtained, as indicated in Table 9.17. Also, the government (55.1%), with a mean of 3.42, demonstrated that the entity derives reasonable to great benefits from sport events of such a nature. In relation to their perceived responsibility across the event attendees and literature alike, as could be seen in the previous discussion section, the entities were equally held responsible for branding and leveraging, as they augmented the benefits from sport event hosting. Since a considerable amount of image awareness is associated with sport event and destination brands, especially among the international markets, it is believed that the benefits referred to in the present context do not merely denote economic stimulus of the event and the destination, but also benefits for the sport and destination brand image, as perceived by the sport event attendees.

With a mean score of 3.42, the results show that the private companies / sport brand sponsors fell between reasonably to greatly benefiting from the home-grown sport tourism events held in South Africa. With the media following up on events, as well as the return on investments obtained from the sponsoring of events, especially in the international context, it is apparent that the sport brand sponsors are likely to benefit greatly from home-grown sport event hosting. In relation to the hosting of home-grown events in the South African context, the entities concerned, thus, play a crucial role in leveraging sport through their association with the event, which should serve to guarantee and enhance the cognisance of the South African destination brand in the international media.

Further analysis of the results shows that, compared to the other entities, the community had an underwhelming mean score of 2.80. The score was certainly linked to the varied perceptions of sport event attendees and stakeholders, indicating that the benefits involved for the community were not as clear to the sport event attendees as they were to the sport event stakeholders.

Table 9.17: Means and standard deviations relating to entities

Entity	Mean	Standard deviation
Government	3.42	0.767
Sport event organisers	3.69	0.539
Tour operating companies	3.48	0.638
Private companies / sport brand sponsors	3.42	0.678
Community	2.80	1.035
Hotel and catering industry (upstream tourism)	3.66	0.595

9.7 Attendees' perceptions of the South African brand

In the following subsection, a five-point Likert scale was used to determine the sport event attendees' perceptions of the South African destination brand through sport event hosting. The categories used to indicate the responses ranged as follows: 'strongly disagree'; 'disagree'; 'neutral'; 'agree'; and 'strongly agree'. Table 9.18 below indicates the results obtained concerning whether certain variables had encouraged specific behaviour, in terms of visiting, supporting or promoting the event host destinations to others, as a result of the subject sample's attendance at home-grown sport events in South Africa.

Subjects were asked whether their attendance at the particular home-grown event had encouraged them to perceive, to promote, or to support the South African destination brand, by referring to key variables. The results in Table 9.18 show that the subjects were in strong agreement with the following variables: visiting/encouraging others to revisit the host city (57.8%) (V1); returning to the host city to spectate/participate in the event again (V2) (54.1%); visiting other South African cities/provinces (V4) (52.4%); supporting local South African business (V5) (53.6%); and promoting the host city to family and friends (V6) (54.6%). Albeit not above 50%, spectating/participating in similar events in other South African cities (V3) (47.3%) was also strongly agreed upon across the entire subject group. Almost split between agreeing (37.2%) and strongly agreeing (44.3%), the subjects believed that the event changed/reinforced their perceptions of the host city (V7).

Table 9.18: Whether the respondents' attendance at event encouraged them to … (*n*=403, in %)

V no.	Respondents encouraged to…	SD	D	N	A	SA
V 1	Visit/encourage others to visit the host city again	1.0	0.7	6.5	34.0	57.8
V 2	Return to the host city to spectate/participate in the event again	0.7	0.3	11.5	33.4	54.1
V 3	Spectate/participate in similar events, in other South African cities	2.7	2.7	14.5	32.8	47.3
V 4	Visit other South African cities/provinces	2.0	0.7	12.2	32.8	52.4
V 5	Support local South African business	1.0	2.4	12.5	30.5	53.6
V 6	Promote the host city to family and friends	0.0	0.7	12.5	32.2	54.6
V 7	Change/reinforce perceptions of the host city	1.7	3.0	13.9	37.2	44.3

Subsequently, Table 9.19 below indicates the mean scores and the standard deviations of the results obtained. The mean score of 4.7 in relation to V1, as demonstrated in Table 9.19, shows that a direct result of home-grown sport events encourages subjects to visit, or even encourages others to visit the host city in the future (whether it be for sport, or for other tourism activities). As their encouragement mainly emphasises the repeat visitation of the host and the non-host cities of sport events, and not necessarily spectating or participating in

similar events within other South African cities, it, therefore, is noted that tourists are curious of tourist to experience other South African tourism products and services. The above reiterates the need to cross-leverage sport events with other events, or non-event-related products and services, and thus to compile event portfolios that cater to year-round travel. Demonstrating the sentiments of Ziakas (2018) to establish event portfolios consisting of home-grown recurring events that will attract regular tourism to the destinations, the cross-leveraging of sport and events allows the South African destination brands to optimise their reach in terms of the number of tourism segments they attract to such annual events. Such optimisation should also be achieved in terms of frequency, regarding the number of times that there is international exposure and support of a destination during sport and event hosting. The above is particularly important in the context of the current study, with the somewhat inconsistent South African brand and economy potentially yielding substantial benefits from regular media exposure beyond the regional and national boundaries.

Table 9.19: Means and standard deviations relating to whether respondents encouraged to…

Respondents encouraged to…	Mean	Standard deviation
Visit/encourage others to revisit the host city	4.47	0.737
Return to the host city to spectate / participate in the event again	4.40	0.757
Spectate / participate in similar events, in other South African cities	4.19	0.967
Visit other South African cities/provinces	4.33	0.866
Support local South African business	4.41	0.860
Promote the host city to family and friends	4.19	0.731

9.7.1 South African brand messages conveyed through sport event hosting

The respondents were further asked whether they believed that the South African brand conveyed certain brand messages though sport event hosting. In terms of the prominent destination brand messages conveyed through sport event hosting in South Africa, the results in Table 9.20 show that South Africa boasts of the characteristics of: being a capable host of sport and events (62.8%); of welcoming its visitors (61.8%); of being both friendly and scenic (59.5%); of being diverse (56.6%); of being a competitive destination for home-grown sport event hosting (56.4%); of having a good climate (54.1%); and of having a rich heritage (43.7%). All the variables were strongly agreed upon across the sport event attendees, as being the main brand messages of South Africa.

Table 9.20: The brand messages of South Africa conveyed through sport event hosting (n=403, in %)

V no.	Brand message	SD	D	N	A	SA
V 1	Friendliness	0.0	0.0	5.1	35.5	59.5

V 2	Being welcoming	0.0	0.3	4.1	33.8	61.8
V 3	Having diversity	0.0	0.7	9.8	32.9	56.6
V 4	Having scenery / natural attractions	0.0	0.0	10.8	29.7	59.5
V 5	Having a rich heritage	1.7	2.0	17.6	34.9	43.7
V 6	Having political stability	17.3	13.6	35.3	14.6	19.3
V 7	Being safe	6.8	12.8	30.4	25.7	24.3
V 8	Offering business opportunities	2.7	5.8	27.1	34.2	30.2
V 9	Having a good climate	0.7	0.7	8.8	35.5	54.1
V 10	Being a competitive destination for home-grown sport event hosting	0.0	1.0	8.1	34.5	56.4
V 11	Being capable of hosting sport and events	0.3	0.0	6.8	30.1	62.8

Gauging the results of a similar study conducted by Knott et al. (2013), on the brand messages of South Africa made available through sport mega-event hosting, shows that somewhat comparable results, in terms of South African brand messages, were perceived by the international event attendees. The scenery and natural attractions (80.0%) were, however, most strongly perceived, indicating the dominant feature in terms of which brand developers, planners and marketers can capitalise on their marketing activities. Home-grown sport events require a natural setting, like beaches, coastlines, mountains and hills, and roads, thus the above-mentioned result might be justified. Moreover, friendliness and the ability to be welcoming (67.0%) made up a significant amount of the responses, which was similar to the results of the current study. The above-mentioned fact might either be linked to the locals who come into contact with the international visitors, or to the service providers offering a friendly service and a warm welcome to the visitors. Almost equally perceived in both the current study and in that of Knott et al. (2013) was diversity (52.0%). A good climate (63.0%) was also among the variables that were highly rated among sport event attendees, which further indicates the similarities that were detected in terms of the results of the present study's findings.

The variables that scored less favourably, and which indicated a neutral response, were political stability (35.3%) and safety (30.4%). Also, there were consistent neutral responses to the business opportunities offered. However, the responses indicated to in the agreed column (34.2%) illustrated a somewhat higher score, signifying additional interests in terms of business opportunities, as presented by the South African brand.

Compared to the other variables, Table 9.21, therefore, demonstrates the extremely low mean scores (below 4) that were obtained for the three variables. The political stability and safety aspects in South Africa can be seen to be somewhat nuanced and complex, requiring in-depth knowledge to alter fairly strong perceptions, especially among the international sport tourists.

Thus, the overwhelming 'neutral' responses were linked to the two variables, as had been expected. While the perceptions of an unsafe destination brand remain unchanged among sport tourism event attendees in relation to similar studies, such as that of Knott et al. (2013), the perceptions further appear to be consistent in relation to the perceptions of the South African brand image, as reported in the literature by Donaldson and Ferreira (2009) and by Bob et al. (2010). Whether or not the perception is often perpetuated in the international media, it is unclear how the perceptions around the brand message are likely to alter, especially beyond sport event hosting.

Table 9.21: Means and standard deviations relating to brand messages

Brand message	Mean	Standard deviation
Friendliness	4.54	0.592
Being welcoming	4.57	0.590
Having diversity	4.45	0.698
Having scenery / natural attractions	4.49	0.684
Having a rich heritage	4.17	0.906
Having political stability	3.05	1.323
Being safe	3.48	1.184
Offering business opportunities	3.83	1.012
Having a good climate	4.43	0.765
Being a competitive destination for home-grown sport event hosting	4.46	0.688
Being capable of hosting sport and events	4.55	0.652

9.8 Factor and reliability analysis

The attendees' perceptions of the South African destination brand through home-grown sport event hosting was investigated. Two constructs were derived theoretically with each factor consisting of subconstructs, namely: Brand messages and Encouragement. The construct items were analysed to test for construct validity. The two constructs were individually factor analysed to determine the underlying dimensions, using the principal component analysis with varimax rotation method.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sphericity value for the brand messages construct was 0.792, exceeding the recommended value of 0.6, and Bartlett's test of adequacy was statistically significant, shown by the ρ-value of 0.000. The results indicate three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, contributing 34.548%, 15.162% and 10.214% of the variance, respectively, as shown in tables 9.22 and 9.23.

The Encouragement construct showed a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sphericity value of 0.770, exceeding the recommended 0.6 value, while the Bartlett's test of adequacy was statistically significant, shown by the ρ-value of 0.000. The results show two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1, contributing 37.853% and 13.787% of the variance, respectively, as shown in tables 9.22 and 9.24.

Table 9.22: The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sphericity and Bartlett test results

Factor	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test of sphericity	Bartlett's test of sphericity	df	Approximate chi-square
Brand messages	0.792	0.000	45	715.516
Encouragement	0.770	0.000	28	501.263

Table 9.23: Factor analysis results for Brand messages

Factor	Factor loading	% of variance	Eigenvalue
Factor 1: Primary brand messages			
Having a rich heritage	0.657	34.584	3.458
Having scenery / natural attractions	0.656		
Having diversity	0.564		
Being welcoming	0.377		
Factor 2: Secondary brand messages			
Having political stability	0.758	15.162	1.516
Being safe	0.629		
Offering business opportunities	0.613		
Factor 3:Tertiary brand messages			
Being a competitive destination for home-grown sport event hosting	0.749	10.214	1.021
Being capable of hosting sports and other events	0.638		
Having a good climate	0.376		

Table 9.24: Factor analysis results for Encouragement

Factor	Factor loading	% of variance	Eigenvalue
Factor 1: Primary travel intentions			
To visit other South African cities/provinces	0.669	37.853	3.028
To spectate/participate in similar events in other South African cities	0.612		
To return to the Eastern Cape province to spectate/participate in the event again	0.520		
To support local South African business	0.505		
To visit/encourage others to revisit the Eastern Cape province	0.370		
Changing/reinforcing of previous perceptions of the Eastern Cape	0.698	13.787	1.103
Promoting of the Eastern Cape province to family and friends	0.618		
Friendliness	0.235		

Reliability analysis tests whether the items studied all measure the same underlying construct. In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used to test for internal consistency, while an ordinal scale was used to test for the respondents' perceptions. The categories used were: strongly disagree (1); disagree (2); neutral (3); agree (4); and strongly agree (5).

The brand message subconstructs had good internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.689 (~0.7), 0.717 and 0.733 for Primary brand messages, Secondary brand messages, and Tertiary brand messages, respectively. Two of the subconstructs had Cronbach's alpha values higher than the acceptable level of 0.7. Primary brand messages had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient value of 0.689, below the 0.7 acceptance level. However, according to Pallant (2007), constructs with 10 items or less, with an inter-items correlation mean value between 0.2 and 0.4, show good internal consistency (refer to Table 9.25).

The Encouragement construct reliability results indicate that the Primary travel intentions subconstruct had a good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient value of 0.735, exceeding the accepted level of 0.7. The Destination brand promotion subconstruct had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient value of 0.546, and an inter-item correlations mean value of 0.278, indicating good internal consistency (refer to Table 9.26).

Table 9.25: Cronbach's alpha value for Brand

Subconstruct	Cronbach's alpha coefficient	Inter-item correlation mean
Primary brand messages	0.689	0.362
Secondary brand messages	0.717	0.465
Tertiary brand messages	0.733	0.579

Table 9.26: Cronbach's alpha value for Encouragement

Subconstruct	Cronbach's alpha coefficient	Inter-item correlation mean
Primary travel intentions	0.735	0.361
Destination brand promotion	0.546	0.278

9.8.1   Testing for differences in perception

9.8.1.1 Respondents' age

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the attendees' perception of the South African destination brand through home-grown sport event hosting, according to their age groups. Five age groups were derived, with group 1 = 18–25-year-olds; group 2 = 26–35-year-olds; group 3 = 36–45-year-olds; group 4 = 46–55-year-olds and group 5 = 56-year-olds, or older.

No significant difference was found in the respondents' perceptions, based on their age group for both the Encouragement and the Brand messages subconstructs. Encouragement (Primary travel intentions): $F(df = 4, n = 290) = 0.613$, ρ-value $= 0.654$; and Encouragement (Destination brand promotion): $F(df = 4, n = 290) = 0.572$, ρ-value $= 0.683$. Primary brand messages: $F(df = 4, n = 290) = 0.733$, ρ-value $= 0.570$; Secondary brand messages: $F(df = 4, n = 290) = 0.907$, ρ-value $= 0.460$; and Tertiary brand messages: $F(df = 4, n = 290) = 0.235$, ρ-value $= 0.919$. The above-mentioned result, thus, communicates consistent Brand messages of the destination across a wide age range of both domestic and international participants. In terms of brand associations linked to image, identity and personality, the South African brand also promises to deliver clear and consistent messages. Moreover, in comparison with the sentiments of Kavaratzis and Dennis (2018), through the value proposition of home-grown sport tourism events, the South African brand identity is effectively and actively used to promote and leverage sport, so as to yield rewarding brand-related benefits, and, further, so as also to encourage future sport and non-sport-related travel.

Table 9.27: Encouragement

Demographic	Primary travel intention		Destination brand promotion	
Age (in years)	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value
18–25	4.4000	0.654	4.3556	0.683
26–35	4.4037		4.3649	
36–45	4.3000		4.3639	
46–55	4.3636		4.4545	
56 or above	4.2629		4.4952	

Table 9.28: Brand messages

Demographic	Primary brand message		Secondary brand message		Tertiary brand message	
Age (in years)	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value
18–25	4.3083	0.570	3.5111	0.460	4.4500	0.919
26–35	4.4658		3.5895		4.5368	
36–45	4.4541		3.3350		4.5000	
46–55	4.3939		3.4848		4.4848	
56 or above	4.3643		3.4286		4.5714	

9.8.1.2 Respondents' gender

The difference in perception between the male and female respondents on the Encouragement and Brand messages subconstructs were tested using the independent samples T-test. The results indicated that there was no significant difference in the perception of the male and female respondents on the five subconstructs: Primary travel intentions, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.897, with mean values of (M = 4.35) and (M = 4.34) for the male and female respondents, respectively; Destination brand promotion, indicated by the ρ-value of 0.642,

with mean values of (M = 4.37) and (M = 4.40) for the male and female respondents, respectively; Primary brand messages, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.366, with mean values of (M = 4.45) and (M = 4.39) for the male and female respondents, respectively; Secondary brand messages, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.0508, with mean values of (M = 3.41) and (M = 3.49) for the male and female respondents, respectively; and Tertiary brand messages as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.433, with mean values of (M = 4.48) and (M = 4.53) for the male and female respondents, respectively. Both the male and the female respondents shared similar perceptions regarding their encouragement to visit South Africa, as well as their perceptions regarding the Brand messages of South Africa, especially as they were grouped in their primary, secondary and tertiary associations. The above might have been as a result of both the gender groups' intentions and motivations for travel, which were primarily linked to the sport event itself, with the encouragement for visiting coming solely as a result of the particular event attended. Subsequently, due to their similar interests, in terms of Brand messages, it is natural that similar messages will be perceived across both gender groups.

Table 9.29: T-test results for Encouragement (1)

Demographic	Factor 1		Factor 2	
Gender	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value
Male	4.3470	0.897	4.3664	0.642
Female	4.3381		4.3963	

Table 9.30: T-test results for Brand messages (1)

Demographic	Factor 1		Factor 2		Factor 3	
Gender	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value
Male	4.4454	0.366	3.4128	0.508	4.4768	0.433
Female	4.3899		3.4860		4.5315	

9.8.1.3 The event attended by the respondents

The current study was conducted on the respondents who attended one of two sporting events, the Comrades Marathon or IRONMAN. The difference in perceptions between the respondents of the two events was tested using the independent samples T-test. The results indicated a significant difference in the perceptions of: Primary travel intentions, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.001, with the mean value for the Comrades Marathon being (M = 4.26), and that for the IRONMAN being (M = 4.50); Destination brand promotion, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.002, with the mean value for the Comrades Marathon being (M = 4.31), and that for the IRONMAN being (M = 4.51); Primary brand messages, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.006, with the mean value for the Comrades Marathon being (M = 4.36), and that

for the IRONMAN being (M = 4.53); Secondary brand messages, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.014, with the mean value for the Comrades Marathon being (M = 3.36), and that for the IRONMAN being (M = 3.63); Tertiary brand messages, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.045, with the mean value for the Comrades Marathon being (M = 4.46), and that for the IRONMAN being (M = 4.60). The IRONMAN respondents were more positive in their perceptions than were the Comrades Marathon respondents. The IRONMAN is a triathlon comprised of three races, namely swimming, cycling and running, compared to the Comrades Marathon, which consists only of running. The triathlon event uses a variety of natural settings, like the ocean and the beachfront, thus offering more extensive experience of the host destination during the event than does the Comrades Marathon. Also, the IRONMAN brand is observed to have a huge international fan and media following. Based on the above-mentioned factors, in conjunction with the very different destinations in which the events are hosted, it can be said that the event attendees at the IRONMAN were likely to have had greater experience of the hosting community than did those at the Comrades Marathon, which, consequently, might have influenced the former's perceptions differently to the latter's.

Table 9.31: T-test results for Encouragement (2)

Event	Primary travel intention		Destination brand promotion	
	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value
Comrades Marathon	4.2602	0.001	4.3108	0.002
Ironman	4.4962		4.5128	

Table 9.32: T-test results for Brand messages (2)

Event	Primary brand message		Secondary brand message		Tertiary brand message	
	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value
Comrades Marathon	4.3589	0.006	3.3559	0.014	4.4557	0.045
Ironman	4.5321		3.6394		4.6010	

9.8.1.4 International versus local South African residential status

The difference in perceptions between the respondents, based on their South African residential status, was tested using the independent samples T-test. The groups compared were South African residents and non-South African residents. The results indicated a significant difference in the perception of Destination brand promotion, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.000, with the mean value for South African residents being (M = 4.24), and with that for non-South African residents being (M = 4.78); and in the perception of Primary brand

messages, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.009, with the mean value for South African residents being (M = 4.32), and that for non-South African residents being (M = 4.48). The non-South African residents were more positive than were the South African residents. The above might have been as a result of the lack of knowledge of the relatively nuanced and complex social, economic and political issues of the non-South African residents. As the non-South Africans temporarily experienced the South African destination brand, only to return home shortly after the event, their knowledge of the country as a permanent and lasting destination brand was restricted to their limited amount of time spent at the destination. Thus, their perceptions were altered by the brand promotions around sport events, compared to the perceptions of South African residents, who had greater insight into, and a more complete and permanent experience of, the South African destination brand.

However, no significant difference was found in the perceptions of: Primary travel intentions, as was indicated by the ρ-value of 0.211, with the mean value for South African residents being (M = 4.29), and that for non-South African residents being (M = 4.38); Secondary brand messages, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.382, with the mean value for South African residents being (M = 3.40), and that for non-South African residents being (M = 3.50); Tertiary brand messages, as indicated by the ρ-value of 0.527, with a mean value for South African residents of (M = 4.53), and that for non-South African residents being (M = 4.49). The Brand messages, as they link to primary, secondary and tertiary associations, are based on generalised associations, with them not necessarily being subjected to the South African destination brand. Thus, as applied in the South African context, home-grown sport tourism events could be seen to play a significant role in terms of observing the associations.

Table 9.33: T-test results for Encouragement (3)

Demographic	Factor 1		Factor 2	
Country of residence	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value
South African residents	4.2913	0.211	4.2389	0.000
Non-South African residents	4.3784		4.4792	

Table 9.34: T-test results for Brand messages (3)

Demographic	Factor 1		Factor 2		Factor 3	
Country of residence	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value	Mean	ρ-value
South African resident	4.3243	0.009	3.3972	0.382	4.5333	0.527
Non-South African resident	4.4848		3.4953		4.4886	

9.9 Chapter summary

The current chapter presented an in-depth analysis of the results, as they pertained to the sport event attendees' perceptions of the South African destination brand, in the context of home-grown sport tourism events. The results clearly show that home-grown events attract an equal number of male and female participants to support events of the aforementioned nature. The subjects concerned are typically international visitors, who can be seen as representing key sport tourism markets, namely the USA, the UK, Germany, and Australia. However, a sizable number of those who are attracted by such events come from the population of domestic non-local South Africans of particular geographic regions, where prominent year-round sport and events are hosted, like the provinces of the Western and Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, and Gauteng. The findings made are strongly supported by the previous studies that were conducted on home-grown sport event attendees, by such researchers as Turco et al. (2003).

In relation to the subjects' travel intentions regarding sport and events, an analysis of the results show that the sport event itself is the main attraction, and that general tourism is perceived as being secondary to the sport event itself. The Primary destination brand messages of South Africa, as perceived by the event attendees, are, thus, consequently influenced by their involvement in, and by their association with, the sport event brand image. To recap, the Primary brand messages were linked to: having a rich heritage; scenery / natural attractions; and diversity; and to being welcoming. The secondary associations of the South African brand were linked to having political stability; being safe; and offering business opportunities. The Tertiary brand messages attained through home-grown sport event hosting in South Africa related to being a competitive destination for home-grown sport event hosting; being capable of hosting sports and other events; and having a good climate.

With regards to the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events, it is apparent that opportunities for sport and for generally related tourism are promoted through the lengthening of the stays of the international participants in particular (who tend to stay between 3 and 5 days after the event). Moreover, the respondents' views indicated their intention to return, and

222

to encourage others, to visit South Africa in the future, presenting clear opportunities for cross-leveraging through the implementation of an event portfolio, as advocated by Ziakas (2018).

However, the debate around the role and the responsibilities of stakeholders involved in destination branding and leveraging practices still remains unclear across the event attendees. In both the literature and in the current study's results, responsibilities are strongly linked to benefits. For example, those stakeholders who benefit from home-grown sport tourism events should have a degree of responsibility for branding the South African destination through sport. Yet, the main responsibility for branding is still reflected in the perceptions of the government and sport event organisers.

The following chapter concludes the study, while presenting a framework of recommendations for further study in the area of home-grown sport tourism events, in terms of developing the appropriate destination brands.
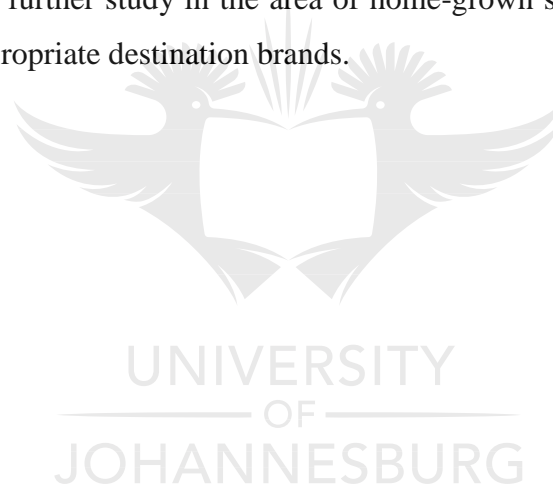
CHAPTER TEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

10.1   Introduction

The present thesis began by indicating the gaps in the literature pertaining to the current study's area of destination branding and sport event leveraging, and by grounding it within the context of developing destinations and home-grown sport tourism events. The destination branding, sport tourism and sport event leveraging literature was reviewed to identify the most recent theories and concepts that could assist the researcher in conceptualising a framework for destination branding though home-grown sport event leveraging. While there was no set methodological approach for adopting such an approach, given that no known study in the public domain is, as yet, centred on the current study foci, the researcher chose a mixed methods approach to account for the different geographical study areas. The above was done with a view to answering the research questions, and to achieving the study's objectives, as set out in the introductory and methodological chapters. The results of the study are discussed together with the extant literature to propose a conceptual framework for the leveraging of sport events in the context of developing destination brands through home-grown sport tourism events. The present final chapter rounds off the study. In it, the researcher summarises the study's key findings and objectives, and their main contribution to the existing theory, policy and practice generally, but, more specifically, in terms of the developing South African context. It further presents the adopted framework that is developed for sport event leveraging for strategic destination branding practices, and it proposes the recommendations for future research foci.

10.2 Revision of the research questions and methodology

To recap, although there has, fairly recently, been an increased body of literature that explores sport event leveraging for purposes of destination branding (see, for example, Grix, 2012; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2012; Knott et al., 2013; Swart & Bob, 2012; Tichaawa & Bob, 2015; Ziakas, 2018), the sport event leveraging theory remains an emerging discourse at the convergence of such diverse fields of sporting events as the small-scale, or home-grown, event. Moreover, a dearth of destination branding research considers the developing, Global South context for economic development though tourism and destination branding benefits. Therefore, what remains little understood in theory and practice is the concept of home-grown

sport event leveraging for destination branding outcomes, especially as it applies in the developing destination context. With the emergence of wide-ranging home-grown sport tourism events as a powerful agent for achieving brand-related benefits for destination branding purposes in South Africa, the present researcher asked how home-grown sport tourism events could be leveraged successfully for strategic destination branding outcomes. The study differs from previous studies related to sport tourism and destination branding, as it extends the current scope beyond the mega-event towards home-grown sport. It further extends its context from the developed context towards an emerging, African context, which has, so far, been neglected in the current literature.

The primary research question that guided the study, therefore, pertained to how home-grown sport tourism events could be leveraged for strategic destination branding outcomes. Related to the above-mentioned question, and based on the literature reviewed, as well as so as to achieve the set research objectives, the following six key secondary questions were developed, namely: 'What are the essential characteristics of South Africa's destination brand as it is linked to brand associations (such as brand value, brand messages and brand image)?'; 'What is the importance of home-grown sport tourism events for destination brand development in the developing, African context?'; 'How is the South African brand promoted among visitors through home-grown sport event hosting?'; 'How do visitors rate their experience of South Africa as a destination before, during, and post sport event hosting?'; What are the opportunities for competitive brand positioning through home-grown sport events, and how do they differ from those created by sport mega-events?'; and 'What are the leveraging activities that stakeholders have successfully employed from hosting home-grown sport tourism events?'. The researcher designed the study to address the above-mentioned questions, and to identify the existing gaps in knowledge, policy and practice.

To answer the aforementioned research questions, a mixed methods approach was used to collect the data from which both the qualitative and the quantitative results were obtained. In relation to the qualitative semi-structured interviews, 24 key South African industry stakeholders in sport, tourism and destination branding organisations, in both private and public entities, were selected to elicit the perceptions and opinions of, and insights into, destination branding and sport event leveraging for the South African brand. Quantitative methods were, further, employed to explore the perceptions of sport event attendees regarding the South African destination brand during sport event hosting, as well as to establish the sport tourism travel intentions and behaviour to come about as a result of the home-grown

sport tourism events hosting. A total of n=403 event attendees were surveyed at selected home-grown events (i.e. the Comrades Marathon and IRONMAN) in two cities in South Africa (i.e. Durban and Port Elizabeth).

10.3 Summary of the key findings made

A summary of the study's key findings is presented in relation to the current study's objectives, which were previously delineated in Chapter One, so as to address the issues raised by the research questions that guided the study.

10.3.1 Summary of the profile of home-grown sport event attendees and key informants

In terms of the profile of the event attendees, an almost equal number of male and female participants took part in the study. Such respondents were largely international participants from the USA, the UK, Australia, Spain, Canada, and Argentina, who were representative of the key international tourism markets for home-grown events in South Africa. A large representation of event attendees also consisted of domestic South Africans, mainly from the Western and Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng.

With regards to the key informants, the stakeholders in a number of sport event organisations, who were involved in the marketing, organising and executive roles of home-grown sport events, participated in the study. Another group of stakeholders included those in the municipal, provincial and national government departments who were the key decision-makers in terms of policies on sport and event leveraging. Moreover, the stakeholders in destination branding organisations who engaged in tourism and destination branding practices were key informants in the study. Representatives of tour operating companies also participated in the study.

10.3.2 Objective one: To broaden the current scope of the sport mega-event literature, by means of critically assessing how home-grown sport can be used for accessing destination branding benefits

The purpose of objective one was to critically assess the key informants' and sport event attendees' understanding of home-grown sport events and their significance for destination branding outcomes. The study has particularly focused on the home-grown sport event, as such events are often neglected in the extant destination branding and sport event leveraging research foci. Consequently, the extent to which the home-grown concept is described, and practically applied, in destination branding and sport event leveraging theories is limited, especially compared to in the case of the sport mega-event.

10.3.2.1 Understanding the nature of home-grown events

Both the event attendees and the key industry informants displayed a reasonable understanding of the home-grown sport concept. An articulation of home-grown events by the respondents revealed that such events were conceptualised, initiated, created and implemented by the local sport event organisations. In addition, the events, which usually started off with a small number of participants, had the ability to grow into international events, attracting large numbers of both domestic and international sport tourism audiences.

Typically, the home-grown sport event concept is understood by the key informants as differing in size and scope, particularly in terms of the sport mega-event, in that it includes not only local city events, but also events that occur in smaller regions and towns, compared to sport mega-events that require bigger host cities and locations (Arnegger & Hertz, 2016). However, the iconic nature of such home-grown events ties in closely with the concept as to how the hallmark event is generally conceptualised (see Law, 2002). Furthermore, unique to home-grown events is their mass participatory nature, compared to the nature of the mega-event denoting spectator sport. Although not explicitly articulated in terms of home-grown events are the unique hosting venues of such events, which, by and large, form part of the natural environment, or setting. The above, then, further pronounces the iconic status of such events to the host destination, which subsequently offers considerable opportunity for destination branding through home-grown sport event hosting.

10.3.2.2 The scope of home-grown events in terms of destination branding

Home-grown events in South Africa consist of a variety of sporting disciplines, like cycling, running, mainstream sport, mountain bike, social/cultural, sailing/water sport, multidisciplinary, and golf events. The findings of the current study reveal that, based on the overall participant numbers at such events, cycling events are the most prominent home-grown sport events in terms of which destination branding benefits are achieved. Correspondingly, marathons also attract a large number of sport tourists (participants and spectators), thus being key to destination branding practices. The number of events of the above-mentioned nature have certainly increased in South Africa, as destinations (cities, regions and towns) are increasingly investing in such home-grown events. Reminiscent of the mentioned home-grown sport events reported on by Brand South Africa (2004), the study's findings reveal similar events in the South African context that are considered key for destination branding benefits. However, along with the typical home-grown event that is linked to sport, additional events that are pertinent to destination branding include such

cultural events as the International Cape Town Jazz Festival, and such multidisciplinary sport as the IRONMAN triathlon event.

Moreover, the increased number of smaller destinations participating in event hosting, such as Port Elizabeth, extends the scope for tourism and destination branding benefits to a wide range of South African cities through home-grown sport event hosting. From a once-off mega-event perspective, smaller, less conspicuous cities are less likely to bid for, and essentially to host such events, often due to the high costs that are associated with the event hosting, thus limiting the number of opportunities that are available for regular tourism and destination branding benefits through mega-events. Arguably, great potential exists for destination branding benefits derived from home-grown events, they serve to increase the reach and frequency of such benefits, as posited by Chalip (2014).

Thus, the conclusions that are espoused above are considered, by the current researcher, to extend the scope of the mega-event literature and to conceptualise intricate concepts linked to the home-grown events, which, to date, have not yet been conceptualised in the known literature, especially in relation to destination branding studies. Home-grown sport events are, in most cases, seen as being domestically conceptualised, created and organised, with an element of international sport tourism appeal.

10.3.3 Objective two: To broaden the context of extant destination branding studies by means of investigating emerging destination brands

The study contextualised destination branding for a developing destination by means of examining the South African destination brand. Research into destination branding is certainly skewed toward the developed nation, thus the number of theoretical and practical applications of such literature to the developing destinations is circumscribed.

10.3.3.1   Awareness of South Africa's destination brand

Similarities between the key informants in the current study and the extant destination branding literature by Anholt (2005), Hanna and Rowley (2008), and Boisen et al. (2018) exist in terms of the conceptualisation of destination brands, in that it denotes the modern form of tourism promotion. In addition to the above-mentioned findings, the results also reveal similarities across key informants on the influence of sport on destination branding, which signals a value proposition for destinations from which to derive brand-related benefits. In the developing destination context, an association between destination and sport event brand image is imperative in regards to brand awareness and tourism product offerings linked

to perceptions that visitors hold in relation to the people, products and information about a place. Such perceptions, according to Giraldi et al. (2018), are important for the positive and effective formation of destination brand associations. Accordingly, brand familiarity, in the context of home-gown sport event associations, are linked to the importance of an established brand provenance, or to the country of origin. An identified sport brand that achieves brand provenance in its host destination is the Cape Town Cycle Tour in Cape Town, which, through its association with the host destination, creates a sense of familiarity and awareness of either the event or the destination brand, depending on which brand association is more dominant in the minds of those concerned. Related to the finding is the fact that on-brand strategic activities are announced through sport event leveraging activities, so as to achieve brand provenance.

10.3.3.2 Expressive brand messages in relation to South Africa

From a developing Global South perspective, destination brand identities need to be defined clearly, so as to compete in the advanced global market for tourism and investment (Baker, 2007), especially against the countries that are situated in the Global North, where destination brands are relatively well-established, and uniquely distinguished. For South Africa specifically, the key informants and sport event attendees advocated for a distinctive brand, in relation to the key components linked to the outdoor, wildlife, safaris, culture, food, conferencing, and events, to be created and, more importantly, positioned for the conveying of clear and consistent brand messages, and so as to yield economic development and tourism outcomes. Similarities between the sport event attendees and the key informants emphasise that a primary South African brand message is linked to the nation's diversity. Despite the dominant link to sport events, and the ability of home-grown sport to establish such brand positioning, South Africa is still believed to be a diverse country, with a multilayered geography, offering a wide range of tourism, including sports and other attractions.

Relating to the perceived brand messages, evidently no significant differences existed in terms of sport event attendees in relation to their age and gender profiles. However, significant differences were present in the perceptions based on their residential status, in terms of which the non-South African residents perceived the South African brand more positively than did the South African residents. The current study concludes that the lack of knowledge of the nuanced and complex social, economic and political issues of the non-South African residents potentially influenced their perceptions of the South African brand.

Similarities across the key informants existed in relation to the unique social issues of safety and security, such as crime, of the South African destination brand, which corresponded with the findings of Knott et al. (2013) on the perceptions of international visitors of the levels of crime in the national context. At the same time, akin to the findings drawn by Cornelissen et al. (2011), the media were found to play a key role in perpetuating the associated negative brand image in the international broadcasts made. For the above-mentioned reason, the role of media has become a key platform for the promoting of both positive and authentic brand messages, especially in the developing context, which should serve to alleviate negative perceptions. While the current study has not delved deeply into the role of the media, the importance of the media for destination branding, in terms of attaining relatively positive global perceptions of South Africa, was greatly emphasised.

Developing destinations like South Africa still apparently face branding challenges regarding the brand associations that are linked to brand awareness, as well as to negative image perceptions, due to the propagated social issues that are linked to issues of safety and security. Thus, it is possible to conclude that, without having an established relationship with the role-players in sport event organising for the brand affiliations and media partners concerned to be able to render positive brand messages, the negative and unfamiliar brand image associations might remain in place. The current study, thus, advocates the need for stakeholder strategies that are geared towards destination branding, so as to include active stakeholder engagement. The results obtained contribute to the extant literature on destination branding, so as to include the unique brand identity and the associated challenges of a developing destination.

10.3.4 Objective three: To identify stakeholder strategies for the leveraging of sport tourism events for brand-related benefits

The focus of objective three was to identify whether there were stakeholder strategies in place for the leveraging of home-grown sport, for the attainment of destination branding outcomes, and, if so, what they were, and how they were achieved. The discussions across the key informants, and the results from the sport event attendees, similarly revealed that 'leveraging' was the least understood concept of all the concepts discussed. Therefore, there is a need for further advancement and clarity on the concept for the industry stakeholders, especially in their attempts to develop policies and practices for purposes of sport event leveraging. Despite conveying such views on leveraging, the findings denoted leveraging to be a strategic, forward-thinking approach to deriving sustainable, long-term economic benefits through tourism spending beyond the immediate event phase, which, correspondingly, agrees with the extant leveraging literature (see Chalip, 2014; O'Brien & Chalip, 2008).

Various South Africa cities can be seen to derive tourism and economic benefits through the hosting of home-grown events, as revealed by their extended pre- and post-event stays, in line with the opinions expressed by the sport event attendees. Certainly, the diverse South African destination brand offers increasing opportunities for the stakeholders in sport and destination branding to integrate sport as part of the destination's other tourism products. An instance of the above is the Absa Cape Epic mountain bike race, with the prominent Table Mountain as a key tourist attraction. In addition, Cape Town's hospitality, catering, shopping and entertainment, and museums create wide-ranging tourism experiences for sport event attendees in the pre-, during and post-event phases. The monthly disposable income, particularly for the international key tourism markets of home-grown events, indicates that such markets are a means of spending related to the additional tourism experiences, over and above the event.

As much as stakeholder strategies to leverage brand-related benefits lie, in their collaborative efforts and strategic partnerships, somewhere between private and public stakeholder relations, only those entities with expertise in terms of particular destination branding portfolios that are linked to social, economic or environmental policies and practices should take responsibility for the leveraging programmes concerned (Smith, 2014). The current study's findings reveal similarities in those who are responsible for leveraging, thus according with the works of Chalip (2014). However, what is different in the above regard is that, beyond those who are involved in local business, local government, and local service organisations, in the context of the home-grown, and the developing nation, the community, as well as NGOs and the media, also play a key role that differs significantly from that which is played in the developed destination context. Nevertheless, sport event organisers are still held to be main beneficiaries of sport event leveraging, despite their responsibilities for leveraging being limited to the event hosting phase (Smith, 2014). Further similarities exist between the event attendees and the key informants in terms of the responsibility of the government to leverage home-grown sport for destination branding benefits. However, as is often linked to a lack of involvement of especially the National Tourism departments, it can be concluded that wide-ranging benefits for the entire South African brand are not capitalised on from a National Tourism perspective.

In the above regard, it can be concluded that the varied stakeholder objectives may impede stakeholder collaboration to develop clear strategies for leveraging, as the objectives concerned do not necessarily complement the other party's mandate. Sport event

organisations set out to profit (albeit a mandate of theirs is to give back to the communities and to the NGOs), and the governmental organisations set their objectives on socio-economic development. While the objectives involved are achieved through sport event hosting, there still seems to be disconnect in terms of stakeholder collaboration, with sport being used for leveraging practices, so as achieve governmental objectives. For the above-mentioned reason, the recognised value of sport, in terms of the national government departments of tourism and development, is often questioned. Consequently, due to the varied objectives of the sport event organisers and of the government, the sport event organisers partner with other sport events, with similar marketing objectives, to promote an event, and so as to attract tourism to the host destination. From a local government perspective, the local municipalities seem to carry the costs of not only funding in-kind services, but also of co-marketing and branding for the attainment of related branding benefits.

10.3.5 Objective four: To propose a framework for recommendations for the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events in a developing destination context

Objective four aimed to assess the leveraging of sport events according to how it has been applied and achieved in known leveraging studies, and in terms of what has been empirically reported from a stakeholder perspective, so as to be able to propose a framework of recommendations for the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events in a developing destination context.

The discussion of results reveals that similarities exist within the literature, and among the key informants, in terms of treating the actual event as the leveragable resource for the yielding of brand-related benefits. The findings of the present study revealed that South Africa hosts a variety of home-grown sport events, as well as arts and culture events that are unique to the South African brand. Some cities, such as Cape Town, have, in fact, adopted a formal events portfolio that includes a variety of events (sporting and otherwise), which signify the importance of developing a portfolio of events achieving a wide range of brand-related benefits. As a result of the above, Cape Town, in particular, boasts of a number of awards, with a recent one being that of being the top city (i.e. destination) in the world for events and festivals for the fifth consecutive time, over international destinations, including Sydney and Rio de Janeiro, that are perceived as destinations for festivals and events. While the rewards for Cape Town are evident in the amount of tourism that it attracts, in turn it boosts the local economy, as well as international brand awareness, through having a formal events calendar. However, it is unclear whether other South African cities share a similar vision. Other major South African cities invest in an event portfolio consisting of both sport and other tourism

attractions. For example, Johannesburg, which is pronounced as both a major city for sport, and as a hub for business tourism, should consider devising a portfolio to include both sport and business. Similarly, other cities could develop their leveragable resource based on their unique tourism attractions.

In addition to the recommendation of formally integrating and cross-leveraging sport events with other tourism-related resources, the need to establish a public and private partnership model is recommended to yield significant benefits related to the socio-economic imperatives, and to the tourism and destination brand development of the South African brand. The recommendation came as the key informants consistently recognised opportunities for brand activation though sport, especially through global media channels and global sport event-related advertising, as well as through engaging in regular business, like conventions and exhibitions, in addition to sport. The opportunity for the creation of a public-private partnership was explicitly recommended by the key informants for the achieving of effective leveraging, in terms of which South Africa, as a developing destination, still needs to dispel many negative perceptions through the international media. Formulating such partnerships is further believed to attract new international markets, like the Middle East, where potential networks and partnerships are enthused over.

From a destination branding outcomes perspective, as a result of sport event leveraging, the derivative means for South Africa can be seen to emanate from stakeholder objectives that are mainly linked to brand exposure and to community (social) benefits. From a brand exposure perspective, cultivate destinations through sport events is important, and informants from the community considered event leveraging to benefit the community in which the sport event takes place. Therefore, to use the event to alleviate the stress of social challenges has become an important outcome for destination branding. The results that were obtained in relation to the lengthening of visitor stays were consistently, in terms of both the sport event attendees and the key informants, believed to coincide with those obtained in the same regard by Chalip (2004) and Weed (2008). For developing nations, however, there is a need to convert brand exposure into actual tourism visits, so as to achieve destination outcomes that are effectively linked to brand value and equity.

10.3.6 Objective five: To propose a conceptual framework for destination branding, especially as it applies to home-grown events, towards developing strategic destination branding practices

Objective five was to propose a conceptual framework for destination branding, as it applies to home-grown sport tourism events towards developing destination branding practices developed from stakeholder strategies and leveraging processes, as outlined by the key informants of the current study, especially as it links to objectives three and four. The adapted event leveraging model that includes the key aspects for developing nations is presented in Figure 10.1 below, with it being discussed in detail in the following subsections.
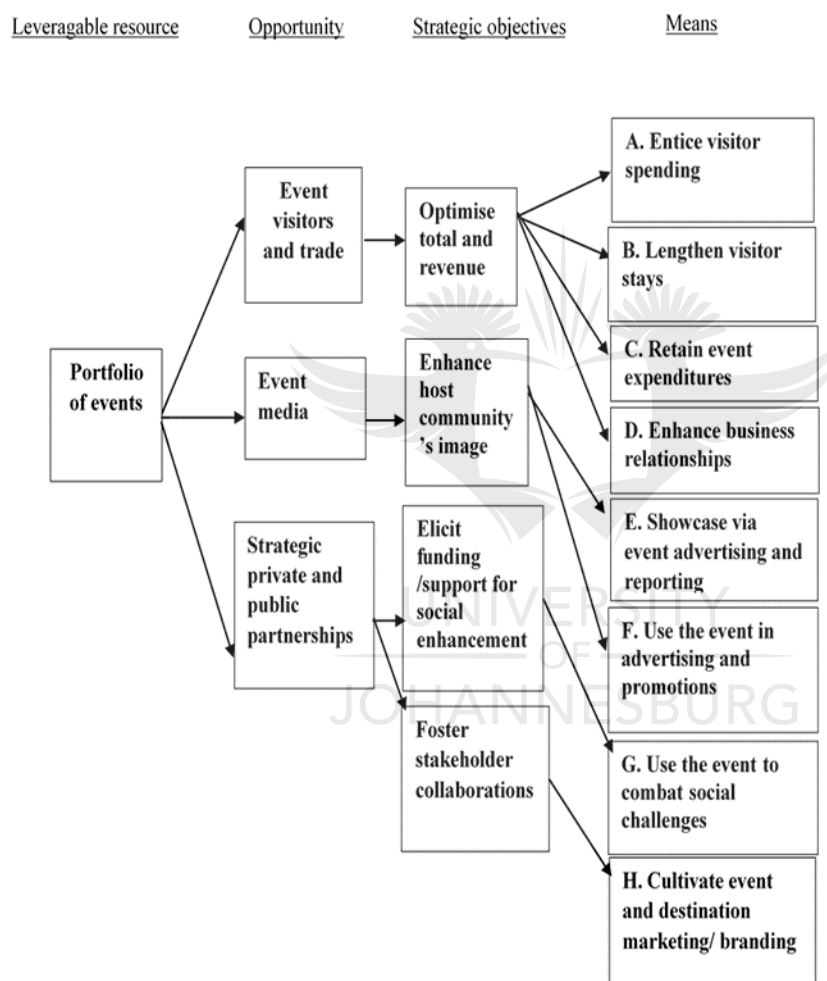
Figure 10.1: An adapted event leveraging model in the context of a developing nation

Various distinguishing factors affect the South African destination brand, compared to the branding of most developed nations, which are perceived to be more experienced in terms of sport event hosting, as well as being socially and economically mature, and politically stable, with an enhanced perceived brand image. For example, views relating to safety and security, and to other social issues like job creation, health and the educational services of the country, have led the stakeholders in the government to prioritise their objectives around such

challenges. Therefore, more attention, commitment and resources goes into achieving the key socio-economic challenges over the priority in committing to enlarged sport marketing budgets. For the above-mentioned reason, the sport leveraging model, as proposed by Chalip (2004), Weed (2008), and Boukas et al. (2013), cannot be generalised for the developing destinations. The following subheadings outline the aforementioned framework in the context of a developing nation.

10.3.6.1   Outline of the conceptual framework adopted

Leveragable resource

Consistent with Chalip (2004), a portfolio of events, consisting of both home-grown sport and other major events linked to mainstream sport, is advocated for South Africa in order to achieve a range of sport and marketing objectives set out by the stakeholders in sport and destination branding. South Africa hosts a variety of home-grown sport events, including arts and culture events that are unique to the national brand, and which, in essence, propel the portfolio of events to reach a wide range of tourism markets. Many cities, regions and towns are viewed as being capable hosts of home-grown events that have the potential to grow internationally, therefore such events as those that can be included in a portfolio of events, when they are effectively cross-leveraged with other sport, or non-sport, events, could position smaller, less conspicuous destinations for the gaining of similar benefits.

Leveraging opportunity

The development of such a portfolio could be leveraged through creating event media hype, pre-, during and post the sporting event, entailing the changing of the perceptions of visitors on unique issues of the country. As was previously stated, South Africa faces many social challenges that are unique to other parts of the world, especially to the developed nations. Conceivably, the use of event media could critically, and strategically, set the tone for showcasing favourable images and brand messages of the authentic South African brand. As the opportunity for event visitors and trade is also positioned as a key opportunity through sport event leveraging, it, seemingly, only speaks to a selected group of stakeholder objectives that are linked to sport-related business and economic development in terms of upstream tourism. Event visitors and trade, as well as event media, were both key aspects in the leveraging models of Chalip (2004) and Weed (2008). The adapted framework of the current study, thus, intends that event leveraging could, perhaps, be relatively effectively achieved through the granting of suitable opportunities for strategic private and public, or government, partnerships. The opportunity for developing strategic partnerships should help to ensure the

impetus of not only funding such aspects, but also of enhancing the granting of national and international support for the development of the South African brand.

Strategic objectives

For reasons such as those mentioned in terms of the opportunity for strategic partnerships, strategic objectives that are linked to the key imperatives for stakeholders in the developing context, including the granting of funding/support for social enhancement, as well as the fostering of stakeholder collaboration through co-branding strategies, are promoted. Such objectives exceed what Chalip (2004) mentions in terms of optimising the total amount of revenue to be gleaned from events through tourism and trade, and in regards to enhancing the host community's image through event media coverage, which is also imperative for the South African destination brand. Setting such strategic objectives could allow for the expansion of viable marketing opportunities for both the event and the destination brands.

Leveraging of means

It is safe to hypothesise that, from the developing nation's perspective, one of the means of including social cohesion that encompasses the promotion of basic education, health, unemployment, and even political stability, is through the portfolio of home-grown domestic sport. Therefore, to leverage a portfolio, which includes the presence of strategic partnerships that, in essence, provide the desired impetus for funding and marketing, could be viewed as the event combating the identified national social challenges. In addition, stakeholder collaborations could, perhaps, serve to cultivate more effective marketing arms for branding the South African destination and, more importantly, use sport for branding benefits. Albeit the aforementioned means are specific to the developing contexts, they are mentioned in tandem with the rest of the means, as posited by Chalip (2004). The above were linked to enticing visitor spending through the cross-leveraging and co-branding of events and other tourism related products and services, as well as through tour operating packages by way of event leveraging, which also leads to the lengthening of the visitor stays. Retaining event expenditure through sport event leveraging was equally critical for the stakeholders, as events are usually privately owned, with all the profits involved tending to be ploughed back into the events companies themselves. However, linked to the above means, due to the social imperatives of certain areas in certain South African communities, the profits usually go towards uplifting the community resources, as well as towards sport participation and educational programmes. Also, enhancing business relationships with other international sport event and sport brand sponsors tends to elevate the sport and destination brand in regard to

global audiences, therefore supplying the means for additional business relationships is vital. As was earlier mentioned, the media benefits derived from the event leveraging that is linked to event advertising and promotions are key for the developing nations, in terms of the perpetuation of social issues that are displayed through international media sources.

10.4 A reflection on the conceptual framework adopted

A brief reflection on the conceptual framework used for the current study is presented in the present section, and its relevance, and recommendations, to advance, or to extend, the theoretical understanding of home-grown events when leveraging sport for destination branding benefits within the context of developing destinations is stated. Specifically, South African cities' aiming to position their destination brand through sport has provided the present study with a unique opportunity to examine sport event leveraging through home-grown sport, which has seldom been attempted in previous research.

With regard to the destination branding theory, the current study has clearly proven that the value proposition linked to sport, in choosing to position the destination's brand, as well as to derive positive branding messages, especially from among international tourism markets, should be prudently announced. Whether through sport mega-events, or through events of a home-grown nature, destinations are believed increasingly to see the value of sport as a platform for achieving brand-related benefits. The findings of the present study reveal that home-grown events, as a result of their unique hosting nature and participation, are able to occur relatively regularly, and their ability to be cross-leveraged with the other tourism products and services of the destination through a formalised events portfolio often yield more frequent branding benefits than might otherwise be obtained. Moreover, sport event attendees are noticeably curious to experience other tourism products and services, in addition to attending home-grown sport opportunities, thus reiterating the need for the cross-leveraging of sport events with other event-, or non-event-related, products and services. Consequently, beyond the formulation of logos, slogans, and trademarks, and the providing of a memorable travel experience, the destination branding theory should focus on value propositions, in terms of establishing a destination brand. Consequently, the scope of the destination branding theory and application to include the value proposition of home-grown events is supported.

In relation to the sport event leveraging theory, the systematic development of the leveraging model in relation to leveragable resources, opportunities and strategies for derivative means that speak to tourism and destination branding outcomes is useful in understanding the

leveraging concept, as well as in appreciating its impacts for destinations. The study has revealed that there are sustainable long-term economic, social and environmental benefits associated with hosting sport events that comes about as the result of implementing a portfolio of events as a leveragable resource. The respondents in the present study acknowledged that there are key socio-economic imperatives that challenge the full potential of the destination brand development. Moreover, particular gaps in stakeholder collaboration, in relation to public and private partnerships, impede the effective achievement of destination branding through sport event leveraging. However, if such a partnership model is effectively employed, guaranteed support will be provided to overcome the perceived destination branding challenges. The current study contributes to understanding leveraging strategies on a national developing destination level. On such a basis, an assessment of wide-ranging home-grown sport events calls for leveraging frameworks in the future to exceed the mega-event and, moreover, to include the developing destination.

With reference to the stakeholder theory, general consensus exists on the networking of people or organisations that is required for effective destination branding and leveraging practices. Although the debate on stakeholders centres on the critical need for collaboration, the framework involved fails to provide guidance for the acquisition of knowledge of the unequivocal responsibility of each stakeholder within their respective roles in terms of destination branding through sport events, as well as the available insights into a definitive list of stakeholders for destination branding, in relation to sport events, being vague. The perspective that is provided on stakeholders in the current study, therefore, helps to provide additional understanding of the critical roles and responsibilities of the stakeholders concerned, with it giving added insight into the key stakeholders in destination branding, especially through home-grown event hosting. On the aforementioned basis, stakeholders are often recognised as being those who also have an indirect involvement in destination branding, such as communities and NGOs. Therefore, in the future, determining such stakeholders' involvement in, and eliciting their opinions and perceptions on, destination branding through home-grown sport should prove to be increasingly important.

10.5 Contribution made by the present study

Sport events have previously been associated with some degree of brand-related benefit for the host destination. However, the current study clearly conceptualised and identified the strategic manner in which the home-grown event can create opportunities for leveraging practices for destination brand stakeholders. The present study has, further, revealed

opportunities for the creation of brand awareness and strategic partnerships, as well as having identified challenges to sport event leveraging in the developing destination context. With the inclusion of home-grown events, the study challenges the mega-event concept that sees the creating of such opportunities as sustaining event impacts in the long term. The following subsections clarifies other aspects of the study's contribution to the existing knowledge and practice.

10.5.1 Contribution to the existing theory

The current study has extended the scope of the sport tourism literature pertaining to the brand-related benefits of sport created by the sport mega-event for the host destination's brand, and it has delved into the home-grown sport tourism event. Previous known studies do not link the benefits to the home-grown sport and destination branding in particular. While many of the sport tourism studies focus on the wide-ranging economic, social and environmental benefits of the mega-event, some authors have suggested that additional research is required to explore ensuring that a portfolio of events, including small-scale events, is capable of securing similar benefits (O'Brien & Chalip, 2008). The present study has, therefore, added to the emerging literature in the field of sport tourism, through clarifying the significance of home-grown sport for destination branding practices.

With a clear focus on the South African destination brand, the present study is distinguished by its focus on the emerging, or developing, destination brand, which is seldom neglected in the literature. The current study has realised branding opportunities for the developing destination, and the conceptualisation of destination branding in the developing context has provided a specific focus on new avenues for destination branding, especially as the developing nations face unique branding challenges that present very different opportunities for realising destination branding benefits compared to those that are available in the developed context. The present study, therefore, adds to the limited amount of knowledge that is available on the developing destination brands, and it could serve as a means of transferring knowledge and insights, through the discussion of lessons learned by South African stakeholders.

10.5.2 Implications for policy and practice

The current subsection indicates how the results of the present study contribute to policy and practice. A number of considerations for future policy and practice regarding the future of home-grown sport event leveraging are made through the current study's findings. In addition

to the large amount of support that is accessed for home-grown sport tourism events, in the case of South Africa, the stakeholders advocated for other home-grown events (including cultural events like music festivals, as well as for other tourism-related products and services, like safaris, wildlife viewing, natural landscape appreciation, historic attractions, and related businesses) to permeate the destination brand of South Africa. Much support was obtained for such events to form part of a cross-leveraging strategy, in the form of a formalised event portfolio. As adopting a portfolio of events as part of stakeholder policies has been proven to yield significant global brand-related benefits for Cape Town in particular, such a policy framework is strongly supported for stakeholders to take on board in the broader South African context. While the coordination of future destination branding policies in the form of a strategic event portfolio was viewed as being an important consideration for driving positive brand-related outcomes, the priority in terms of which the stakeholders conformed to the demands of commitment to such a policy was viewed as a great hindrance.

What is more, the present study advocates for a public–private partnership model that would assist not only with the prioritisation of stakeholder objectives, but also with achieving the stakeholders' respective objectives, through joint strategic collaboration across the wide-ranging South African destination brand. Stakeholder partnerships between sport events and National Tourism were, particularly, viewed as being notional, with them not considering the value of sport for the gaining of comprehensive tourism and destination branding benefits. While mutually beneficial relationships were largely supported, they were, however, not effectively realised by the entire group of stakeholders. Nevertheless, the current study encourages stakeholders to engage in the type of planning, pre-, during, and post-event leveraging, that would be likely to create symbiotic stakeholder relationships across the entire range of stakeholders in sport and tourism.

In terms of practice, the present study has identified key aspects of leveraging for long-term destination brand benefits, namely business and conventions, international media relations, and opportunities for brand activation through event-related advertising. While the aspects are largely viewed as being missed opportunities in previous leveraging practices, stakeholders are, therefore, encouraged to engage with other international businesses and media sources to derive, and sustain, tourism and destination branding benefits.

Stakeholders in the South African destination context should be assisted by the present study to make informed policy decisions regarding the conceptualisation and initiation of future

home-grown sport events at their various destinations. Although certain destinations were found to have an events strategy policy, or strategy, in place that addressed the objectives for leveraging, the degree to which such policies have been adopted and implemented in South African cities other than those surveyed in the current study is unclear. Explicitly stated by National Tourism was the absence of such a policy, and, therefore, the formulation of new policies around sport event leveraging for the key stakeholder group is recommended.

10.6 Recommendations for future research

The current section outlines the extensions of the current study as future research areas. Since the study has adopted a single case, namely that of South Africa, it certainly presents limitations, in relation to home-grown sport, to the degree of transferability that is possible to other host destination contexts. For the above-mentioned reason, a recommendation is made that opportunities and prospects for other destinations should be investigated. The above should ensure that more comprehensive findings support such a unique concept of home-grown events for destination branding in a variety of destination contexts.

The critical role played by the media (broadcast and social) was identified as being a crucial element in the realisation of destination branding, in particular in terms of the developing context. As the current study did not explicitly delve into the constituents of media, such views should be included in the assessments embarked upon in related future research. Moreover, as the study's findings recognise both the community and NGOs as the key constituents in destination branding through sport event leveraging, the two groups of constituents should also be included as key stakeholders in further assessments.

While the current study has proposed a conceptual framework for destination branding through home-grown sport tourism event leveraging, it is recommended that the framework be tested against a range of other home-grown events, including future, planned major events, incorporating input from business and other major tourism industries. A central limitation of the current study is that it delineates the leveraging framework for sport, thus making it additionally robust in terms of being a single niche industry. However, as Johannesburg, for example, is a major hub for business, the city consequently positions the city brand accordingly. Therefore, so as to ensure flexibility in terms of the above-mentioned framework, it is recommended that it be tested in the context of other major tourism industries, like conventional business.

10.7 Conclusion of the thesis

Through the mixed methods analysis of key industry stakeholder and sport event attendee perceptions, the current researcher has come to recognise the significant effects of major sport event leveraging for tourism and destination branding. The researchers further acknowledge that, in particular for emerging destinations such as South Africa, sport event leveraging holds various short- and long-term strategic benefits for the nation's developing brand. The benefits are mainly linked to enhancing the emergence of economic development and brand exposure, as well as to addressing the unique socio-economic challenges involved. Although destination branding and sport event studies remain skewed towards the developed context, the current study contributes to the body of knowledge regarding the developing Global South context, by providing the stakeholders concerned with empirically based recommendations regarding major sport event leveraging. While the current researcher purposed to contextualise sport event leveraging in relation to the South African destination brand, the limited extent of the research, in terms of the adoption of a single case study approach, somewhat hinders the study's findings from being applied to other emerging destination contexts. It is, therefore, urged that further related research should investigate other emerging destination brands as the way forward to enable drawing on more conclusive similarities and contrasts in relation to the effects of major events on the developing of destination brands. Empirically, the research concerned has provided a generalised sport event leveraging model that can be applied within a developing destination context.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix 1: Interview schedule

SCHOOL OF TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY – FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT

LEVERAGING OF HOME-GROWN SPORT TOURISM EVENTS FOR STRATEGIC DESTINATION BRANDING OUTCOMES

STAKEHOLDER INTERVIEW GUIDE

This interview forms part of the data collection tool employed towards obtaining data for use in a study undertaken as a partial requirement for a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degree at the School of Tourism and Hospitality, Faculty of Management at the University of Johannesburg. The research is on **the leveraging of sport tourism events for obtaining strategic destination branding outcomes in South Africa. The purpose for today is to obtain your insights into the opportunities that are available for the leveraging of home-grown sport tourism events for the accessing of brand-related benefits, so as to determine the influence of wide-ranging sport on strategic destination branding outcomes.**

You are kindly asked to participate in the study. The information that you provide is strictly confidential, and the personal details that you supply will remain anonymous and protected. The interview, which will be semi-formal, will last approximately 60 minutes. If, at any time, you feel uncertain about a question, please feel free to ask about it, or to opt out of the study, if you so wish.

The stakeholders who are selected to participate in this study have been purposefully selected, based on the organisation that they represent. The selection of stakeholders needed to include those representing national and local sport federations/brands, as well as national and local tourism and destination brand stakeholders (representing the South African national office and the five major municipal offices in Cape Town, Durban, Johannesburg, Port Elizabeth, and Bloemfontein).

SECTION 1: GENERAL CONCEPTS: DESTINATION BRANDING, HOME-GROWN SPORT, LEVERAGING

1. What is your understanding of / how would you describe **destination branding**?

2. What is your understanding of / how would you describe **home-grown sport events**?

3. What is your understanding of / how would you describe **leveraging** (of sport tourism events)?

4. In your opinion, what are the **strategic branding benefits** for destinations in the emerging context when hosting home-grown sport events (e.g. the Cape Town Cycle Tour in Cape Town, the Comrades Marathon in Durban/Pietermaritzburg)?

5. How do you identify and/or describe the **key characteristics** and the **brand associations** of the South African brand?

SECTION 2: LEVERAGING OF SPORT TOURISM EVENTS FOR SOUTH AFRICA

6. What do you think are the **main brand messages** that South Africa conveys during the hosting of home-grown sport events?

6.1 What is the role/impact of media (social media) during sport event hosting, and then on leveraging for destination branding?

7. Which home-grown sport events do you think are **key/important/significant/valuable/strategic** for potential leveraging? (Why?)

8. Which **leveragable opportunities** do you recognise, or realise, as being fundamental for the South African destination brand during home-grown sport event hosting?

9. What do you identify as a **leveragable resource** in terms of achieving benefits through sport event leveraging?

SECTION 3: STAKEHOLDER ROLES IN LEVERAGING SPORT FOR STRATEGIC DESTINATION BRANDING

10. How does your organisation **contribute** to the leveraging of sport tourism events and/ or destination branding of the South African brand?

11. Who do you believe are the **key stakeholders involved** in leveraging sport and destination branding in South Africa?

    11.1 How important are **strategic partnerships** for sport event leveraging?

12. How would you describe your **relationship with other key stakeholders** during the hosting of sport in South Africa? (in terms of collaboration and implementation)

13. What are your organisational **strategic objectives** during the hosting of (home-grown) sport in South Africa?

14. How were your **objectives reached**?

15. What are your organisation's **future strategies** for the leveraging of sport and events to achieve strategic branding outcomes?

Thank you for your participation in, and contribution to, this study. If you wish to have access to the research findings made, you are welcome to contact the researcher, and they will be made available on completion of the study.

Notes:

Appendix 2: The questionnaire

UNIVERSITY OF JOHANNESBURG

Attendee perception survey: The destination brand of South Africa through sport event hosting

This survey forms part of the data for a PhD study in the School of Tourism and Hospitality, University of Johannesburg. This study is exploring attendees' perceptions of the South African destination brand in relation to home-grown sport event hosting. You are kindly requested to participate in this survey. The information that you provide will be treated confidentially, and your identity will be kept anonymous. If you, however, feel uncomfortable at any given time during the survey, you can opt out of the study at any time.

Screening for interviewer to note: The respondent should not be part of the event planning, organising and implementing process. ONLY attendees spectating, and participating in, the event should be considered as viable interviewees.

Section A – Geographic profile
1. From which country are you? _____

1.1 If you are South African, in which province do you currently reside?

1. Western Cape	2. Eastern Cape
3. Northern Cape	4. North West
5. Free State	6. KwaZulu-Natal (KZN)
7. Gauteng	8. Limpopo
9. Mpumalanga	

1.2 From which province did you originally come? (If residing in the hosting province, please omit answering this question.)

1. Western Cape	2. Eastern Cape
3. Northern Cape	4. North West
5. Free State	6. KwaZulu-Natal (KZN)
7. Gauteng	8. Limpopo
9. Mpumalanga	

2. What is the main reason/purpose for your visit to the Eastern Cape?

1. For the event	2. General tourism/ sightseeing	3. Business	4. Visiting friends and family	5. Other (specify)

2.1 Will you extend your stay in the Eastern Cape?

1. Yes	2. No

2.2 If yes, for how long?

1. For 1–2 days after	2. For 3–5 days after the event	3. For more than 5 days after the event (specify)

2.3 How long before the event did you arrive in the Eastern Cape?

1. 1–2 days before	2. 3–5 days before	3. More than 5 days before (specify)

Section B – Awareness of destination branding & sport event leveraging

3. How would you rate your understanding of the following concepts?

		Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Excellent
3.1	Destination branding	1	2	3	4	5
3.2	Leveraging	1	2	3	4	5
3.3	Home-grown sport events	1	2	3	4	5

4. In your opinion, which of the following entities are mostly responsible for destination branding practices around the hosting of major sport events?

1.	Government
2.	Sport event organisers
3.	Tour operating companies
4.	Private investment companies / sport brand sponsors
5.	Community
6.	Other (Specify)

5. In your opinion, to what extent do the following entities benefit from major sport events? [1 = No benefit; 2 = Small benefit; 3 = Reasonable benefit; 4 = Great benefit]

	Entity	1 = No benefit	2 = Small benefit	3 = Reasonable Benefit	4 = Great benefit
5.1	Government	1	2	3	4
5.2	Sport event organisers	1	2	3	4
5.3	Private investment companies / sport brand sponsors	1	2	3	4
5.4	Tour operating companies	1	2	3	4
5.5	Community	1	2	3	4
5.6	Hotel and catering industry (upstream tourism)	1	2	3	4

Section C – Perceptions of the South African brand in relation to sport event hosting

6. Please use the following scale to respond to the questions below:
[1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Agree; 5 = Strongly agree]

Has your attendance at this event encouraged you to …					
6.1 Visit/encourage others to visit the Eastern Cape again	1	2	3	4	5
6.2 Return to the Eastern Cape to spectate / participate in the event again	1	2	3	4	5
6.3 Spectate / participate in similar events, in other South African cities	1	2	3	4	5
6.4 Visit other South African cities/provinces	1	2	3	4	5
6.5 Support local South African business	1	2	3	4	5
6.6 Promote the Eastern Cape to family and friends	1	2	3	4	5
6.7 Change/reinforce your previous perceptions of the Eastern Cape	1	2	3	4	5
The brand messages of South Africa conveyed through sport event hosting…					
6.8 Friendliness	1	2	3	4	5
6.9 Being welcoming	1	2	3	4	5
6.10 Having diversity	1	2	3	4	5
6.11 Having scenery / natural attractions	1	2	3	4	5
6.12 Having a rich heritage	1	2	3	4	5
6.13 Having political stability	1	2	3	4	5
6.14 Being safe	1	2	3	4	5

6.15 Offering business opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
6.16 Having a good climate	1	2	3	4	5
6.17 Being a competitive destination for home-grown sport event hosting	1	2	3	4	5
6.18 Being capable of hosting sport and events	1	2	3	4	5

Section D – Demographic profile

7. How old are you? (Please select the appropriate range.)

1. Between 18 and 25 years old	2. Between 26 and 35 years old	3. Between 36 and 45 years old	4. Between 46 and 55 years old	5. Between 56 and 65 years old	6. 65 years old or above

8. What is your marital status?

1. Single	2. Married	3. Divorced	4. Separated	5. Widowed	6. Other

9. What is your monthly income after deductions? (Please select the range)

1. No income	2. Less than R1000	3. R1001–R5000	4. R5001–R10 000	5. R10 001–R15 000	6. R15 001–R20 000	7. R20 001–R25 000	8. R25 001 or above

10. What is your race?

1. White/ Caucasian	2. Black	3. Indian	4. Asian	5. Mixed race

11. Gender (interviewer to note)

6. Male	7. Female

Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaire.

Appendix 3: Ethical clearance

FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT

FACULTY ETHICS COMMITTEE (FEC)
RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE FORM¹

PF* CHAIR NAME: _Prof C Rogerson_____   PF DATE: 2ㅗ/5/2017
(* PF – Proposal Forum)

RESEARCH COMPLIES WITH:	COMPLIANCE	NON-COMPLIANCE (flagged issues that need closer scrutiny)
Participants' right to privacy, confidentiality and anonymity		
Participants' right to equality, justice, human dignity/life and protection against harm		
Participants' right to freedom of choice, expression and access to information		
Participants' right to be informed, consent/letters of request		
Rights of the community and the scientific community		
The responsibility of presenting data that is accurate, truthful and not falsified		
The responsibility of acknowledging ownership of ideas, theories, contributions or concepts		
OVERALL RATING	01	02	03	04

CODE 01 -   Approved   CODE 02 -   Approved with suggestions without re-submission
CODE 03 -   Suggestions with re-submission   CODE 04 -   Not approved, re-application required

FACULTY ETHICS CODE: FOM2015-STH 0 _23_   (e.g. BM001)

STUDENT NAME: J. HEMMONS 027   SIGNATURE: _____

SUPERVISOR NAME: T. TICHAAWA   SIGNATURE: _____

CO-SUPERVISOR NAME: _____   SIGNATURE: _____

PF* CHAIR SIGNATURE: C M.   DATE: _2ㅗ-5-2017_

HOD SIGNATURE: _____   DATE: _24/5/2017_

FHDC CHAIR: _____   DATE: _____
FORM¹ - To be signed and submitted to FHDC with title registration