

The strategic contribution of sport mega-events
to nation branding: The case of South Africa and
the 2010 FIFA World Cup

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Abstract

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Nation branding is an emerging and contested discourse at the convergence of diverse fields such as business management, tourism, social and political sciences. Sport mega-events have previously been associated with some degree of brand-related benefits for the host nation. However, there have been no studies that have clearly revealed these opportunities or investigated their impact on the development of brand equity for a nation. Furthermore, no studies have examined the inherent characteristics of a sport mega-event that create such opportunities. The contemporary emphasis on the ability of sport mega-events to deliver legacies also raised the question of how nation branding benefits can be sustained post an event. While sport mega-event leveraging studies have begun to emerge, none of these has focused on the manner in which brand stakeholders can leverage and sustain nation branding opportunities specifically. This study therefore aimed to identify the strategic branding opportunities created by a sport mega-event for a host nation and to indicate how brand stakeholders could leverage and sustain these opportunities.

The study used a mixed methods, sequential, qualitative-dominant status design (quan → QUAL). The case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup was selected as the study context, as it represented an emerging nation that specifically stated its aim of using the sport mega-event to develop its brand. In order to assess brand image perceptions and the degree to which these were impacted by the mega-event, a quantitative study investigated international visitors' nation brand perceptions during the event (n=561). Informed by the results, a qualitative study was designed to elicit the experiences, lessons and insights of selected, definitive nation brand stakeholders and experts (n=27), with whom in-depth, semi-structured interviews were conducted, two to three years post the event.

This study clearly identifies the strategic manner in which a sport mega-event creates equity for a nation brand. Furthermore, it reveals the inherent characteristics of a sport mega-event that create such opportunities. It also challenges the conceptualisation of legacy, rather promoting the strategic activities of stakeholders in order to sustain event benefits. The findings will assist policy makers and stakeholders to leverage the opportunities created by an event more effectively and make more informed policy decisions regarding the bidding and hosting of events.

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Preface

This thesis represents a culmination of work, study, enquiry and personal academic development over a five-year period from the time of enrollment and development of the proposal. More accurately, it represents a collection of thoughts and enquiry stimulated over a much longer period of time. My academic background in marketing management and branding, combined with my passion for sport, led me to pursue a career in the sport marketing industry. A short time later, the opportunity to further my academic knowledge and contribute to the growing field, all the while engaging with students, academics and practitioners, led me to begin an academic career at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, while studying further part-time.

At the time of finishing my Masters degree in sport management, the sport event environment in my home country, South Africa, was brimming with opportunity, pinnacle by the impending FIFA World Cup. I became involved in sport tourism research related to the event and served on industry advisory boards and university committees that aimed to leverage the event for associated and varied benefits. During this period, the importance of legacy as part of the event planning process was highlighted to me. With the local organising committee (LOC) overtly stating that a primary aim and expected legacy of the 2010 mega-event was to improve the image of the country and the continent around the globe, my interest turned to the emerging discourse of nation branding.

Around the same time period, I was selected to lead a postgraduate student group that conducted research at the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. The sport tourism study focused on the intention of sport tourists to visit the 2010 FIFA World Cup and elicited their perceptions of South Africa prior to the event. The experience of the mega-event and the results of the study further stimulated my interest in the opportunities created by sport mega-events for nation branding. In the years since the 2010 FIFA World Cup, I have been fortunate to be part of research projects that have taken me to experience other mega-events, notably the 2012 London Olympic Games and the 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil.

As a part-time student and full time lecturer, the past five years have been formative ones in my academic development, mentored by two outstanding supervisors, both recognised and respected academics in their fields. I have had opportunities to travel nationally and internationally, sharing my progress and results with academics from diverse backgrounds and regions of the world. Through conference presentations and journal submissions, my thoughts and discoveries within this study area have been challenged and sharpened. This thesis

appears too short to capture all of these learnings, discoveries and interactions, yet each of these has contributed to this ultimate reflection of the study and its contribution to theory, policy and practice. Personally, this thesis not only represents the culmination of this study, but also the emergence of a new post-PhD season that envisages continued engagement with these themes and a lifetime of academic contribution, participation and mentorship.

Acknowledgements

There is an African saying that states, “It takes a village to raise a child”. I would like to borrow this expression to acknowledge the collective support of a broad global ‘community’ of colleagues, friends and family in the production of this thesis. The realisation of this project is a reflection of their encouragement and support. There are many individuals and organisations that have contributed to the completion of this project and to my own personal progress, development and welfare, although I would like to acknowledge and thank the following people and organisations in particular:

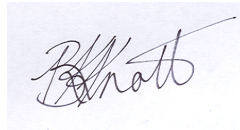
- School of Tourism, Bournemouth University: I would like to thank the school leadership for the generous offer of a study grant to cover the international student fees. I also appreciate the opportunity that was granted me to remain based in Cape Town while studying through Bournemouth University and the efforts of all in the school who have facilitated the ease with which this has been possible.
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- To the many other members of my family and friends who have lent their support and encouragement over the past five years, I thank you for your patience and sacrifice. A special thank you to my church community for their support and ultimately to my God, for making all these things possible.

Author's declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at Bournemouth University or any other institution.

Signature: _____

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'B Knott', is placed over a light blue rectangular background. The signature is written in a cursive style with a prominent initial 'B'.

Printed name: Brendon Kevin Knott

List of abbreviations

- AMA: American Marketing Association
- BRICS: Trade association of five major emerging national economies, namely Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa
- CBBE: Customer-based brand equity
- CHEC: Cape Higher Education Consortium
- DMO: Destination marketing organisation
- FIFA: *Federation International de Football Association.*
- IOC: International Olympic Committee
- LOC: Local organising committee
- OGGI: Olympic Games Global Impact study
- PLC: Product life cycle
- SPSS: Statistical (software) Package for the Social Sciences
- SRSA: Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa
- UNWTO: United Nations World Tourism Organization
- WTO: World Trade Organization

Chapter One: Introduction & rationale for this study

1.1 Introduction

The opening chapter of this thesis introduces the emerging discourse of nation branding and raises questions related to its application in the context of sport mega-events. Not surprisingly, gaps in this relatively new body of knowledge are identified. These, coupled with the increasing prevalence of the subject area in the industry, highlighted a pertinent research problem and associated questions that have fuelled this investigation. This context gave rise to more specific research questions and aims for this study. The chapter also provides a brief overview and justification for the methodological framework and the methods selected to address these questions and aims and concludes with a description of the thesis structure.

1.2 Background to the study

While branding theory has developed as a means of differentiation and competitive advantage for products and services in an increasingly competitive and cluttered global marketplace, the brand concept has more recently been extended and applied beyond consumer marketing to a number of different environments, including places, such as cities, destinations and countries. Globalisation has led to countries competing in a number of markets, for the attention, respect and trust of investors, tourists, consumers, donors, immigrants, media and governments (Anholt 2007a). Although there was initial uncertainty over whether a country could be considered a brand (Olins 2002), many today would agree with Kapferer (2012, p.2) who stated, “whether they like it or not, (countries) act *de facto* as a brand - a summary of unique values and benefits”. A sub-set of the broader place branding theory, nation branding has strong ties with mainstream branding theory as it contends that a nation’s brand needs to be skillfully created and carefully managed in order to realise its competitive potential. Creating a powerful and positive nation brand is viewed as a means of creating a strong competitive advantage for a country.

Fan (2010, p.98) pointed out that despite the “huge growth” in publications in this field in the first decade of this century, there has been a “disappointing lack of progress in conceptual development”. Fan also stressed the process and actions of brand stakeholders and the central activity of nation image management. The leadership and control of a nation brand is a particular challenge as a nation brand is not owned or controlled by a single organisation, but rather jointly developed and delivered by a network of public and private sector organisations (Hankinson 2010).

The opportunity presented by nation branding is of particular interest to countries that either do not have a strong brand identity and reputation or that have an image that is either misplaced or unhelpful to its broader developmental aims. Freire (2014) explained how nation branding has become increasingly important to African nations in particular. Recent years have seen greater periods of relative peace and stability rather than warfare, which plagued the continent in much of the post-colonial period. This, combined with a more prevalent process of democratisation in many nations, has made Africa a more attractive investment opportunity. For many African nations, an increased flow of investment and the development of improved business and tourism infrastructure, combined with the emergence of a stronger middle class, led to greater competition between the nations. Nation branding has been viewed as a means of assisting African nations to overcome what Anholt (2007a) refers to as the “Brand Africa” dilemma, where all African nations are viewed as a collective by outside nations, usually associated with the many negative aspects of the continent that are continually in the media, such as violence, corruption and disease (with the recent ‘Ebola’ outbreak a pertinent example of this). This context has left very little opportunity for differentiation, although, as Freire (2014, p.32) suggested, nation brands are viewed as a means to achieve this:

“Countries all over Africa have been making an effort to build their brands and to differentiate their offerings in order to attract tourists, investment and people”.

Sport can be a powerful agent in the imaging, re-imaging and branding of places, especially through the hosting of sport mega-events (Getz 2003; Higham & Hinch 2009). There has been a growing awareness of the potentially significant brand-related impacts that hosting sport mega-events can have for a country. None of these event-impact studies have specified a link with nation branding, however, choosing instead to refer to brand-related aspects and terms such as country image, destination image, reputation or international visibility. Some authors have linked this with political ambitions of nations, describing sport mega-events as objects of political policy or global diplomacy (Nauright 2013) for an increasing number of states in the world, especially “as a means to gain international visibility in some ways” (Cornelissen 2007, p.242), or as a means of achieving international prominence and national prestige (Essex & Chalkley 1998). Berkowitz et al. (2007, p.164) were among very few to connect these impacts with the nation brand, stating that sport mega-events create “a great branding opportunity” for nations. Anholt (2007b) similarly confirmed sport mega-events as providing an opportunity to create or promote a host nation’s image and also re-brand a nation, although this was not empirically investigated.

Indeed, the perceived brand-related opportunities that a mega-event provides for a host nation have been mentioned among the primary reasons for a nation bidding to host such an event, particularly so among the recent number of emerging or “middle-income” mega-event

host nations such as China (Beijing 2008 Olympic Games), South Africa (2010 FIFA World Cup), and Brazil (2014 FIFA World Cup and Rio 2016 Olympic Games) (Tomlinson et al. 2011, p.38). Table 1.1 indicates the sport mega-events hosted by the BRICS emerging nations since 1990, alongside their nation brand ranking. Heslop et al. (2013, p.13) noted the perceived nation brand benefits for emerging nations from hosting sport mega-events, stating that:

“Many emerging nations have risked a great deal in betting that hosting of a mega-event can be a fast-track to world recognition and reputation enhancement, and there is considerable evidence that this bet has payoffs in positive impacts on country images and reputations as producers of products and as tourism destinations.”

Table 1.1: BRICS emerging economies & sport mega-events		
Country:	Sport mega-events hosted (post-1990):	Nation Brand Index Ranking (FutureBrand 2014):
Brazil	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2007 Pan-American Games • 2014 FIFA World Cup • 2016 Olympic Games 	43
Russia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2014 Winter Olympic Games • 2018 FIFA World Cup 	31
India	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2010 Commonwealth Games • 2011 Cricket World Cup 	50
China	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2008 Olympic Games • 2015 IAAF World Athletics Championships 	28
South Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 1995 Rugby World Cup • 2003 Cricket World Cup • 2010 FIFA World Cup 	40

Sport in itself has been proposed as a means of generating and communicating a strong and coherent brand for a nation, whether in the form of sport events, teams or places (Rein & Shields 2007, p.73). Rein and Shields explored sport as a branding platform for emerging, transition, negatively viewed or newly industrialised nations. They identified the particular advantage of sport as its ability to generate passion and create a connection with its fans, which they described as stimulating “an emotional heat between the participants and the audiences” (Rein & Shields 2007, p.74).

While sport events occur on many different scales or levels, the largest of these levels is the ‘mega-event’. Of all event types, a mega-event is regarded as having the greatest significance for a host nation. Although event impact studies have focused on the tangible impacts such as economic growth, infrastructure development and tourism promotion, less tangible impacts, such as benefits for the national image and identity, are now also recognised.

Beyond event impacts, the focus more recently has turned to creating legacies from sport mega-events (Cornelissen et al. 2011; Chappelet 2012). As Cornelissen (2007, p.248) explained:

“Leaving appropriate long-term legacies has become a discourse which has left an indelible mark on the way in which planning for today’s sport mega-events takes shape.”

Legacy has therefore become a crucial aspect of sport mega-event planning, although Cornelissen et al. (2011) noted that there was still little consensus on the definition of legacy, what it entails and how it should be measured. This inability to define legacy with any precision is a major reason why some academics are advocating a new focus with an emphasis on ‘leveraging’ (e.g. Chalip 2004; Weed & Bull 2009; Jago et al. 2010).

The case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup presented an example of a nation particularly interested in the hosting of sport mega-events for strategic nation branding benefits. Cornelissen (2008, p.486) suggested that the hosting of the mega-event was part of a larger national agenda for nation building as well as showcasing the state as a “global middle power”. Indeed, the Department of Sport and Recreation of South Africa’s (SRSA) draft national strategy for bidding and hosting major international events identified two main reasons for the national importance of hosting sport mega-events in general for the country: the sport mega-events attract tourists to destinations that may otherwise be overlooked; and the events generate global media exposure, from which the host nation inevitably benefits (Kent 2003, p.4). The importance of sport mega-events to the nation is manifested in its hosting of a series of major and mega sport events, such as the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the 1996 African Nations Cup (football) and the 2003 Cricket World Cup. However, the 2010 FIFA World Cup represented by far the largest sport event to be hosted by the nation.

The first ever FIFA World Cup on African soil was awarded to South Africa, and took place from 11 June to 11 July 2010. From the outside, South Africa appeared to be a good choice as it represented Africa’s most developed economy, boasted the wealthiest football league system in Africa and was host to the continent’s largest sports’ media and television companies (Knott & Swart 2011). The success by South Africa in attracting the FIFA World Cup to its shores was particularly remarkable in that it was only re-admitted to FIFA twelve years prior to the decision being made, after decades of sporting isolation as a result of its ‘Apartheid’ political policies. With Nelson Mandela, the new democracy’s first president, in attendance at the final announcement, the hosting of the World Cup appeared to confirm the transformation of the nation from political outcast to the hub of a new breed of developing countries. Although South Africa had also had its share of publicised problems, such as rising crime rates, high unemployment, a lack of access to basic services such as housing and education, and a high

HIV infection rate (Donaldson & Ferreira 2009), the hosting of the World Cup symbolised hope for the country and a chance to prove that this emerging nation could host an event of this magnitude as efficiently as the developed economies who had hosted the previous editions of the event, namely Germany (2006) and Korea and Japan (2002), as well as other emerging nations that had hosted or bid to host mega-events, such as China, Russia and Brazil (Tomlinson et al. 2011).

Proclaimed as “Africa’s World Cup” due to FIFA’s newly-instated rotational hosting policy, the following quotation by the CEO of the 2010 Local Organising Committee (LOC) made it clear that the vision for the event, and one of its main objectives, was to improve and reposition the image of the country:

“[The World Cup] is about nation-building, it’s about infrastructure improvement, it’s about country branding, it’s about repositioning, it’s about improving the image of our country, and it’s about tourism promotion. It’s also about return on investment, job creation and legacy. These are the things that drive not only our nation but the nations of the world” (Allmers & Maennig 2009, p.500).

South Africa’s experience of hosting (and winning) the 1995 Rugby World Cup is an example of the role of sport mega-events in national identity, social cohesion and the repositioning of the country’s international image - in South Africa’s case, as a unified ‘rainbow nation’. However, Tomlinson et al. (2009) argued that this was a transient moment, with the legacy more mythical than practical, and perhaps rather short-lived. A decade later, Mandela was no longer president and the nation faced a host of issues affecting its international reputation. In addition, the heightened media attention on the nation in the lead up to the 2010 mega-event highlighted many negative aspects such as inflation, crime and xenophobic riots (Tomlinson et al. 2009), casting doubt over the country’s ability to successfully and safely host the event. The 2010 FIFA World Cup was therefore promoted as a platform for the nation to be showcased through one of the largest global media platforms, creating an opportunity to destabilise common stereotypes about Africa and dispel Afro-pessimism (Donaldson & Ferreira 2009) as well as positioning the nation alongside its emerging-nation economic trade partners, most notably Brazil, Russia, India and China (collectively known as BRICS) (Tomlinson et al. 2011).

While the sentiment within the nation was that the event was a resounding success (Cape Town Tourism 2010) and a government report concluded that the event resulted in many important intangible legacies for the nation (SRSA 2011), there was little empirical evidence of the impact and legacy of the event for the nation brand. In the immediate pre- and post-event period of the tournament there was a proliferation of evaluative literature (for example, special journal issues of *Urban Forum*, 2009; *Soccer & Society*, 2010; *Development Southern Africa*, 2011; and *African Journal for the Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance (AJPHERD)*, 2012). The majority of these papers reviewed the historical, social and political

context of the event, emphasising the importance of the event in national identity formation and political symbolism for the host nation. Resident's perceptions, expectations and fears, particularly of crime and safety, were also topics frequently covered. According to Tomlinson et al. (2011, p.38), a central issue of much of the post-event literature reflected the change in image and identity of South Africa (and by association Africa), both domestically and internationally. A number of these papers also raised the question of whether these changes were sustainable, especially in the light of post-event domestic political, social and economic struggles.

Among the many diverse stakeholder groups involved in the delivery of the event, there did not appear to be any critical assessment of the nation branding impact, nor did there appear to be any communications regarding plans to leverage and sustain the branding benefits post the event. Would this be just another transient moment for the nation brand, like the 1995 Rugby World Cup, or would it result in a longer-lasting legacy, as was promised? As Tomlinson et al. (2011, p.46) put it, "with regard to the legacy of the 2010 World Cup for South Africa's image and identity, much is still dependent on what happens next". This question, along with the gaps identified in the broader nation branding and sport tourism theoretical setting, led to the formulation of the research problem statement for this study.

1.3 The research problem and its setting

It is clear that sport mega-event host nations have aimed to use the event as an opportunity to create or portray a revised or desired image and identity for the nation. Especially in the case of emerging nations, this appears to be driven by political and commercial ambitions seeking to position the nation among the world's elite and exhibiting the competence and skill of the nation. Assessments of these event impacts seem to confirm a mega-event's ability to positively influence these external perceptions and national identity. While this indicates a link between sport mega-events and nation branding, the question still remains: What strategic branding opportunities does a sport mega-event create for nation branding and how can these opportunities be leveraged and sustained by brand stakeholders?

Despite the growing industry awareness of the nation branding impacts from mega-events and increasing academic acknowledgement of intangible legacies of sport mega-events, there is still a need to understand the strategic contribution that the context of a sport mega-event provides for the brand development of a host nation. Although branding theory has been extended to nations, there has been little exploration of how more recent developments in branding theory can contribute to the understanding of nation branding in the context of a sport mega-event. There is nothing to suggest a specific set of strategic branding applications or opportunities that arise from hosting mega-events, nor any evidence as to how the

opportunities are created or can be leveraged and sustained post the event. Furthermore, as increasingly more emerging nations host mega-events, there is very little indication of how these opportunities may transfer to different host nations.

The following gaps in knowledge related to sport mega-events and nation branding were specifically identified:

- **Theoretical gaps:** As part of the broader place branding literature, nation branding as a concept is still a relatively recent one. Particularly in Africa, Freire (2014) notes that it is not as well grasped as one might expect. The concept is not yet fully incorporated within either the research or political communities, evidenced by an absence of articles originating from Africa itself (Freire 2014). Furthermore, there is a dearth of research in the area of nation branding through sport mega-events. This is especially so for sport tourism research that relates to the intangible legacies of sport mega-events. While legacy studies have increased in frequency, there is a suggestion that they are becoming rather outmoded, with several authors (most notably, Chalip 2006) preferring to investigate 'leveraging'. However, the contribution of sport mega-events to nation branding remains largely under-researched as an isolated, intangible legacy. Furthermore, the strategic leveraging of a sport mega-event by nation brand stakeholders remains uninvestigated.
- **Policy gaps:** The growing interest and competition among nations bidding to host sport mega-events points to an acknowledgement of the expected benefits and legacies for host nations. The 2010 LOC and the South African national government clearly expressed their aims of leaving a legacy for the nation's brand image from the event. However, without definitive and longitudinal empirical studies to assist them, decision-makers cannot confidently adopt policies that advocate the bidding for sport mega-events. The relevance and currency of this topic for policy makers is affirmed by the UNWTO (2014) selecting "Tourism and mega-events: Building a lasting legacy" as the theme for their annual, global Ministers Summit in 2014. One of the key thrusts of the summit was the question of how destination brands can be developed through mega-events.
- **Practice gaps:** For nation brand and sport mega-event stakeholders, there is very little knowledge of how to leverage the opportunities arising from the hosting of sport mega-events. FIFA does not formally have any transfer of knowledge programmes to assist with stakeholder lessons being passed on between these mega-events. With the diversity of stakeholders involved in nation branding and the short-term nature of many

of the event stakeholder collaborations, there is little formal knowledge sharing opportunities among stakeholders within or between host nations.

1.4 Statement of the research questions

Based on the context outlined above and the more detailed literature review to follow, the following primary research question emerged:

RQ 1: What is the strategic contribution of sport mega-events to nation branding for a host nation?

In order to answer the primary question more fully, the following related questions were clarified:

RQ 1a: What are the inherent characteristics of a sport mega-event that create strategic nation branding opportunities for a host nation?

RQ 1b: What strategic nation branding opportunities are created by hosting a sport mega-event?

RQ 1c: How can stakeholders leverage and sustain a nation branding legacy from a sport mega-event for a host nation?

Providing answers to these questions will specifically address the following aims of the study.

1.5 Aim of the study

In order to answer the questions set out above, the following aim and objectives were defined. The primary aim of the study was:

To critically assess the strategic contribution of a sport mega-event to nation branding for a host nation.

Furthermore, a set of specific objectives for the study, linked to the primary aim, were defined as:

RO 1: To contribute to the emerging knowledge of nation branding by extending the application of branding theory to nations and identifying the strategic branding opportunities created in the context of a sport mega-event;

RO 2: To extend the sport tourism literature by critically evaluating the leveraging of nation branding as a legacy from sport mega-events for a host nation;

RO 3: To critically evaluate and propose an appropriate methodology for this study;

RO 4: To empower policy makers with increased understanding of the contribution of sport mega-events to nation branding;

RO 5: To propose a framework that clarifies the strategic opportunities created by sport mega-events for nation branding and assists stakeholders to leverage and sustain these opportunities.

1.6 Overview of the methodological approach & methods selected

With tourism research emerging from a strongly “positivist” tradition, sport tourism event impact and legacy studies have been dominated by quantitative assessments, albeit that a lack of standardised methods for this field of studies was observed. Contrastingly, qualitative assessments, stakeholder analyses and case studies have predominated within nation, place and destination branding studies. With this study a combination of these two distinct study areas, a mixed methods approach was justified in order to fully answer the research questions and aims. The justification of the case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup has already been mentioned.

Both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods were used in a mixed methods, sequential, qualitative-dominant status design (quan → QUAL). The quantitative first phase consisted of questionnaire interviews conducted among 561 international visitors during the 2010 mega-event in two different host cities. The analysis of the findings indicated a number of nation branding benefits for the host nation. The quantitative study identified core themes and influencing factors in this process and generated questions that needed to be explored in further depth.

In order to address the research questions more fully, the second, qualitative phase of the study featured in-depth, semi-structured interviews that were conducted among 27 nation brand stakeholders and subject area experts. Although a definitive set of nation branding stakeholders is not evident in the literature, stakeholders were selected using Mitchell et al.'s (1997) model of power, urgency and legitimacy. Nation branding and event-specific stakeholders from urban and rural centres, as well as from neighbouring countries, were selected. A number of international experts with experiences from other events and nations were included in order to add to the credibility and transferability of these findings.

1.7 Delineation of the study

This study focussed on the in-depth assessment of one sport mega-event and the opportunities created through it for nation branding. Although the limitations of a single case study are recognised, it provides a depth of understanding of the branding impacts that may otherwise not have been possible. However, in order to generalise and apply the discussion to other contexts, both literature and primary sources related to other events or originating in other nations are brought into the discussion. Therefore, although this study may be of greatest

relevance to the specific host nation in this case, many of the study findings are regarded as transferable to other contexts, especially other similar emerging nations, with the later discussion justifying this position.

It is also important to state what this study did not cover. Chiefly, this was not an event impact study per se. Although the study does indicate aspects of the impact and legacy for the host nation, it does not provide an audit of these impacts and does not take into account the costs of attaining these benefits. It is also not an audit of the leveraging activities of stakeholders, as stakeholders themselves provided examples of activities and an assessment of their effectiveness during the interview process. Furthermore, this study did not attempt to answer more philosophical questions related to the merits of nation branding and the application of branding terminology to nations or the extent to which this can and should be done. In this regard, the context of a sport mega-event was the delineating factor.

1.8 Key terms used

The key terms used in this thesis are briefly defined below for clarification:

- Nation branding: Although this and other definitions are challenged in the thesis, nation branding can be understood to refer to branding and building brand equity in relation to national (country) identity. Nation branding is a representation of identity, building a favourable internal (with those who deliver the experience) and external (with visitors) image (leading to brand satisfaction and loyalty; name awareness; perceived quality; and favourable associations) (Govers & Go 2009).
- Sport mega-event: Events occur on many different scales or levels, with the largest of these being the 'mega-event'. Hall and Hodges (1997, p.3) describe mega-events as "distinctive, identified by the volume of visitors it attracts, economic revenue generated, and its psychological impact on attendees, that is, whether or not it is a 'must-see' event". They explain that mega-events usually require significant public funds to stage, and are thus unusual, or infrequent in occurrence. These events have significant economic and social impact, which is affected by the extent of the international dimension of the event. The FIFA World Cup is the world's largest single-sport event and fits the definition of a mega-event. Although other forms of the term were encountered in the literature, such as 'mega sport (or sporting) event', this thesis conforms to the more commonly adopted 'sport mega-event'.
- Legacy: The most prevalent definition of legacy at the time of this study was: "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" (Preuss 2007, p.208). However, this understanding is critically evaluated in the course of this thesis.

- Leveraging: Chalip (2004, p.228) defines leveraging as "the processes through which the benefits of investments are maximised." In the case of mega-events, leveraging relates to stakeholders maximising the longer-term benefits that arise before, during and after an event has taken place.
- Stakeholders: Freeman's classic definition is rather broad and generalised and aimed at the corporate organisation but is nonetheless the most widely accepted: "A stakeholder is an organisation (that is, any group or individual) who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation's objectives" (Freeman 1984, p.46). No definition of nation brand stakeholders was found in the literature, although this is explained and proposed in the following chapter.

1.9 Thesis layout

The remainder of this thesis is designed to flow according to conventional research processes. The two chapters following this one (Chapters Two and Three) discuss the literature associated with the broad fields of nation branding and sport tourism. The chapters discuss the key theoretical perspectives, identifying gaps in knowledge that led to the formation of the research questions. The chapters identify the conceptual frameworks that formed the basis of the investigation.

Following the theoretical perspectives, Chapter Four begins with an overview of the methodological considerations within the fields of nation branding and sport tourism and justifies the adoption of a mixed methods approach for this study. The research process is described along with rationale and details of the methods selected and how they were implemented.

Two chapters (Chapters Five and Six) set out the findings of the primary investigation. Much attention is given to the exact details and contexts of the responses by including direct quotations from stakeholders. The responses are set out according to the key themes that emerged. In Chapter Five, the focus is on defining the study context and the understanding of stakeholders related to the broader theoretical issues and perspectives, while Chapter Six is more applied in its approach, setting out the experiences, observations and recommendations of stakeholders.

Chapters Seven, Eight and Nine discuss the findings in the context of the earlier theoretical perspectives. The chapters are designed to answer the research questions specifically, and are structured according to the proposed model of nation brand development.

Chapter Seven identifies the inherent characteristics of sport mega-events and indicates how this creates brand equity for a host nation. Chapter Eight identifies specific strategic branding opportunities created by sport mega-events and discusses the manner in which these translate into brand equity for a host nation. Leveraging and sustaining these opportunities is the focal point of Chapter Nine, identifying key focus areas for nation brand stakeholders.

Finally, Chapter Ten concludes the thesis by assessing the attainment of the research objectives. The chapter re-caps the key findings of the study and their implications for and contribution to theory, policy and practice. Limitations of the study are acknowledged and further gaps in knowledge are indicated as areas for further research.

An epilogue follows the conclusion, featuring personal reflections on areas of personal and professional growth and development through the research process in its entirety. These aspects are summarised in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Core thesis layout		
Chapter:	Theme/ section:	Content:
Chapter 1	Introduction	Background to the research theme; problem setting; aims; and rationale of the study
Chapter 2	Literature review	Key theoretical perspectives within nation branding literature
Chapter 3		Key theoretical perspectives within sport tourism & mega-event literature
Chapter 4	Methodology	The methodological context and design of the study
Chapter 5	Analysis of findings	Understanding of the research context: nation branding; mega-events; and legacy
Chapter 6		Stakeholder perceptions and lessons learned: expectations, experiences and missed opportunities
Chapter 7	Discussion	The development of nation brand equity through sport mega-events and the characteristics of these events that facilitate this.
Chapter 8		The strategic branding opportunities created by sport mega-events
Chapter 9		Creating legacies by leveraging and sustaining the nation branding opportunities
Chapter 10	Conclusion	Critical review of the study; discussion of the conceptual conclusions as they relate to

		theory, policy and practice; limitations; and further research areas
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1.10 Summary

This introductory chapter has outlined the study context and rationale, research questions and aims of the study. Introducing the nation branding discourse, it has highlighted the lack of conceptual development and dearth of research in relation to the opportunities provided by sport mega-events. The sport tourism literature pertaining to event impact studies, legacy and leveraging also fails to attribute many of the brand-related intangible benefits for a host nation to the context of nation branding. South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup provided the case of an emerging nation brand intentionally seeking to gain brand-related benefits from the hosting of a sport mega-event. The primary aim of this study was therefore defined as critically assessing the strategic contribution of a sport mega-event to nation branding for a host nation, based predominantly on the in-depth study of this case.

The remainder of this thesis is structured to address this aim and answer the research questions. The following two chapters examine the key theoretical perspectives relating to nation branding and sport tourism respectively, that have a bearing on this study. Firstly, the following chapter reviews the development and conceptualisation of nation branding as a discourse, highlighting theoretical frameworks and advances in branding literature that are proposed to have significance for mega-event host nations.

Chapter Two: Branding Places & Nations

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the key theoretical perspectives of branding and how this relates to nations. It begins with the broader perspectives on the origins of branding and its definitions. The key strategic elements within current branding discourse are reviewed in the context of nation branding. Furthermore, the chapter synthesises the key challenges facing strategic nation branding that emerged from the literature. Ultimately, this chapter defines the context of the study, identifies the gaps in knowledge and proposes conceptual frameworks for strategic nation branding.

Much of the criticism or scepticism surrounding nation branding is attributed to the use of the term 'branding' as opposed to terms such as national identity, national image or national reputation (Olins 2002; Simonin 2008; Anholt 2010c). Although the understanding of a nation as a brand has grown in acceptance and use, there is still debate around the application of 'branding' to nations (Anholt 2010c, p.2). Therefore, before looking at the specific application of branding theory to nations, the following section engages with the literature pertaining to branding definitions in order to clarify the meaning of the terms 'brand' and 'branding'.

2.2 Clarification of 'branding'

While Jones and Bonevac (2013, p.113) surmised that "the concept of a brand may be the central concept of marketing", there is surprisingly little consensus over how to define a brand. A study by De Chernatony and Dall'Olmo Riley (1998) that surveyed the literature and responses of senior advertising consultants, found twelve different kinds of brand definitions. As a result of that study and similar later studies that confirmed the 1998 findings, Jones and Bonevac (2013, p.114) used the phrases "lack of consensus", "confusion" and even "conflict" to describe the problem that marketing professionals face when defining a brand.

Branding has been used for centuries, having its roots in economic history and having evolved from a concept of ownership and identification (Ndlovu 2009, p.52). The word 'brand' is derived from the Old Norse word "brandr", which means "to burn", as brands were and still are used by livestock farmers as a means to identify their animals by marking them (Keller 2008, p.2). This historic origin led to one of the earliest and most widely held definition of a brand, as conceptualised by the American Marketing Association (AMA), that defined a brand 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 competition” (Keller 2008, p.2).

This definition already makes it apparent that there is a distinction between what a brand is (i.e. the logo or design) and what its intention or purpose is (i.e. to identify and differentiate). This distinction is perhaps an area that causes debate within the differing definitions and will be discussed later when reviewing further definitions.

From these earliest origins, the understanding of branding has evolved to signal far more than merely ownership through the creation of names, logos, terms, symbols and designs. A brand is viewed as more than merely a trademark. As Jones and Bonevac (2013, p.114) argued, obtaining a trademark, copyright or other legal protection does not constitute establishing a brand. They further argued that a name, sign, symbol or logo is neither necessary nor sufficient in the establishment of a brand.

Avis (2009) explained that the problem with the AMA definition is that whilst being relatively straightforward, it fails to account for the consideration of intangible brand attributes into brand theory. Kotler (1997, p.443) acknowledged that further to this definition, brands are even more complex symbols of meaning, suggesting that brands can convey up to six levels of meaning, namely:

- Attributes: Brands convey the physical attributes of the products themselves;
- Benefits: More than the attributes, brands suggest benefits to the consumers;
- Values: Brands say something about the producer’s values;
- Culture: Often brands convey the culture of the country or region of origin;
- Personality: Brands can project a certain personality; and
- User: Brands suggest the kind of consumer who buys or uses the product.

When an audience can visualise all six dimensions of a brand, it is considered a “deep” brand. Conversely, if this is not so, the brand is considered “shallow”. Kotler (1997, p.443) argued that the better brands are “deep” ones, defined along all six of these dimensions. He reasoned that marketers should not focus on merely attributes or benefits, as competitors can easily copy these. The most enduring meanings of a brand are deemed to be its values, culture and personality.

Amongst practitioners, brands represent more than the AMA definition suggests. Keller (2008) found that practitioners highlighted the awareness, reputation and prominence in the marketplace that branding achieves. Illustrating this view is the rather more complex definition of a brand offered by Aaker (1996, p.68):

“A brand is a multidimensional assortment of functional, emotional, relational and strategic elements that collectively generate a unique set of associations in the public mind.”

Notable in this definition is the mention of ‘emotional’ and ‘relational’ elements of a brand, beyond merely the more functional or tangible attributes. These aspects have gained increasing prominence in branding theory development, seen in the more recent emphasis on aspects such as ‘relationship marketing’ and ‘customer engagement’, which are discussed later. Also notable in this definition is the mention of ‘strategic brand elements’ that reflects an increasing importance of strategic thinking within brand management. As the definition implies, and Aaker (1996) further asserts, branding integrates each of these elements into one success formula.

Other definitions of branding often emphasise the benefits of, a rationale for, or the results of effective branding, adding to the overall understanding or clarification of what constitutes a brand. From the different definitions of branding found in the literature reviewed, the following themes emerged:

- Brands add value through ‘differentiation’

Brands are believed to add value to a product or company through increased awareness or enhanced reputation and prominence. The earliest definitions, such as that by King (1973) (see Table 2.2.1), explained the value that brands convey and how a brand is distinct from a product. A product is anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use or consumption that might satisfy a need or want. This is equally applicable to physical goods and less tangible goods or services. Keller (2008) explained that a brand is more than a product, because it can have dimensions that differentiate it in some way from other products designed to satisfy the same needs. These differences may be rational and tangible, related to product performance of the brand, or more symbolic, emotional and intangible, related to what the brand represents. Keller (2008, p.5) clarified this:

“What distinguishes a brand from its unbranded commodity counterpart and gives it equity is the sum total of consumers’ perceptions and feelings about the product’s attributes and how they perform, about the brand name and what it stands for, and about the company associated with the brand.”

This distinctiveness or ‘differentiation’ role of branding has become increasingly important in today’s global economy, characterised by what Anholt (2010c, p.206) refers to as the “rapid advance of globalisation”. In this environment, Keller (2008, p.10) argued, “the key to branding is that consumers perceive differences among brands in a product category”. As a result, marketers can use brands to their benefit whenever consumers are in situations requiring choices to be made. Given the competitive business environment and global plethora of choices now available to consumers, branding has increased in importance to

organisations. Brands are used to create competitive advantage, either through tangible aspects, like product performance, or through non-product, intangible aspects. By creating perceived differences among products, brands create value that can translate into financial profits for an organisation (Keller 2008).

Keller (2008) took this added value of brands even further arguing that the most valuable assets that many corporations have are not their tangible ones, such as plants, equipment and real estate, but rather their intangible assets, such as management skills, marketing, financial and operations expertise, and most importantly, the brands themselves. Jones and Bonevac (2013) illustrated this using the example of McDonalds. Considering a choice between purchasing every property and franchise (all the bricks and mortar) currently owned by McDonalds, but without their name, or rather the name, without the bricks and mortar – which should one choose? The argument is made for the value of the name of the company and what it symbolises being of far more worth than the sum of its tangible assets.

- Brands represent ‘promises’ of consistent value and performance

Kotler (1997, p.443) described a brand as “a seller’s promise to consistently deliver a specific set of features, benefits and services to the buyers”. More than a decade later, Kotler and Gertner (2011, p.35) still maintained that ultimately, “brands represent a promise of value and performance”. However critics of this definition argue that although a promise of customer satisfaction may be implied by a brand, the promise itself does not necessarily distinguish the brand from its competitors (Jones & Bonevac 2013). The issue of brand ‘consistency’ in this definition is an important element raised. It implies that a brand is built around longer-term, consistent benefits and values and not merely ‘once-off’ experiences. This is of particular importance to nation brands, as will be discussed later.

- Brands are ‘perceptions of reality’

Already alluded to in the previous definitions, a brand is described as residing in the minds of consumers. Keller (2008, p.10) described a brand as “a perceptual entity rooted in reality”, reflecting the perceptions and even perhaps the idiosyncrasies of consumers. Marketers aim to influence these perceptions by providing brands that have an identity (i.e. a name or a label) and provide meaning (i.e. the competitive advantage or differentiation). Branding therefore helps consumers to organise their knowledge about products and services by creating mental structures that aid the decision-making process, adding value to the organisation.

Brand definitions are sometimes critiqued as being open-ended, illustrating diverse approaches to branding, where each expert appears to come up with his or her own definition, or nuance

to the definition (Avis 2009). However, Blichfeldt (2003, p.10) contended that two distinct approaches underlie almost all definitions of brands (up until the early millennium that is). These two fundamentally different conceptions can be labeled: “product plus” and “holistic view” respectively. According to the “product plus” view, closely related to the AMA definition, the brand is an addition to the product. This perspective holds that the brand is only one of several additions to the product, among other equally important additions such as packaging, pricing, and promotion. The two main purposes of branding are perceived to be: the identification of the product and/ or seller; and the differentiation of the product and/ or seller from competition. As a result, in a “product plus” perspective, branding is primarily concerned with consumer mass communication (Blichfeldt 2003, p.10). This approach is more common among the early brand definitions. For example, the definition by King (1973) (see Table 2.1) illustrates the “competitive advantage” focus of this typically “product plus” perspective.

Contrary to this traditional or historic view of branding, Blichfeldt (2003, p.10) explained that the “holistic view” (see Ambler 1992 and Ambler & Styles 1997 in Table 2.1) focuses on the brand in a holistic sense. This view acknowledges that brands reside in the minds of consumers. The holistic view of branding is present in Murphy’s (1990, p.45) analogy where brands are compared to the psychological concept of “gestalt”. From this perspective, “nothing is simply the sum of individual parts” and “a brand acts as a ‘gestalt’ in that it is a concept which is more than the sum of its parts and which takes a long time to establish in the mind of the consumers” (Blichfeldt 2003, p.10). This understanding is clearly evident in the more embracing definitions of Fanning (1999) and Prasad and Dev (2000) (see Table 2.1).

The more recent definitions or additions to the understanding of branding (such as those by Olins & Hildreth (2011) and Jones and Bonevac (2013) appear to emphasise the essence of the brand, promoting an internal focus on identity and values before aligning this with the external perspectives. These definitions, together with the definitions already discussed are set out in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Chronological development of brand definitions	
1960: AMA (as cited in Keller 2008, p.2)	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 competition.
1973: King	A product is something that is made, in a factory; a brand is something that is bought, by a customer. A product can be copied by a competitor; a brand is unique. A product can be quickly outdated; a successful brand is timeless.

1991: Bulmore	People build brands in their heads – whether or not the owners of that brand intend them to.
1992: Ambler	The promise of the bundles of attributes that someone buys and that provide value. The attributes that make up a brand may be real or illusory, rational or emotional, tangible or invisible
1996: Agres & Dubitsky	The brand does not reside on the shelf even if the product does, but rather in the mind of the consumer.
1996: Aaker (p.68)	A brand is a multidimensional assortment of functional, emotional, relational and strategic elements that collectively generate a unique set of associations in the public mind.
1997: Ambler & Styles	A brand is a bundle of functional, economic and psychological benefits for the end user. It is the aggregation of all accumulated attributes in the mind of the consumer, distribution channels and influence agents, weighted by their importance, which will enhance future profits and cash flow.
1997: Kotler (p.443)	A seller's promise to consistently deliver a specific set of features, benefits and services to the buyers.
1999: Fanning	The word "brand" is used to represent everything that people know about, think about or feel about anything.
2000: Interbrand Group	A brand is a simple thing. It is in effect a trademark, which, through careful management, skilful promotion and wide use, comes in the mind of consumers to embrace a particular and appealing set of values and attributes, both tangible and intangible. It is also much more than merely a label.
2000: Prasad & Dev	A brand symbolises the essence of the customers' perceptions.
2003: Knox & Bickerton (as cited in Blichfeldt 2003, p.11)	A corporate brand is the visual, verbal and behavioural expression of an organisation's unique business model.
2008: Keller (p.10)	A perceptual entity rooted in reality

2011: Olins & Hildreth (p.55)	Altering the outside to match the inside, with an eye to making the inside stronger. Branding is a manifestation – partially a visual manifestation – of belonging.
2013: Jones & Bonevac (p.117)	A brand is a definition of a particular company or product.

The definitions of a brand have thus developed from the earliest definitions that focused on the functional and tangible aspects of the brand (such as the AMA definition) to include the intangible, more complex and more holistic views of a brand (such as the definition of Aaker, 1996). However, the key strategic purpose of brands as set out in the AMA definition remain, namely that of identification and differentiation. In order for this strategic purpose to be effective, the recent emphasis appears to be on defining the essence of the brand before aligning this with the external perceptions.

The discussion so far leads to the proposal of a conceptualisation of brand definitions (see Table 2.2), distinguishing between the two major perspectives and their associated focus areas. The product-plus perspective leads to a focus on the more tangible, functional and rationale elements of a brand, while the holistic perspective adds less tangible aspects such as personality, character, values and relationship. However, both perspectives note a common strategic intent of creating value (in some cases ‘profit’) for a company or organisation, chiefly through ‘identification’ and ‘differentiation’.

For the purposes of this study and its later applications to places and nations, a definition of branding needs to include an acknowledgement of both the ‘product plus’ and ‘holistic’ views, recognising the intangible and more complex aspects of a brand. The further discussion of branding and its attributes and applications has far more in common with the definition of Aaker (1996) than the AMA definition, as holistic combination of the functional, emotional, relational and strategic elements of a brand are explored, recognising the strategic intent of ‘adding value’ for the brand stakeholders.

Table 2.2: Conceptualisation of branding definitions: perspectives, focus & intent		
Branding perspective:	Focus:	Strategic intent:
Product Plus	Tangible elements Functional features Benefits Rational thought	Creation of value or profit through: - Identification - Differentiation

Holistic	Perceptions Emotions Relationship Values Culture Personality	

Davies and Chun (2003) discussed the formation and use of ‘metaphors’ within branding conceptualisation. In their critical review of destination branding, Pereira et al. (2012, p.85) cite examples of current metaphors used in branding such as: brand identity; brand image; brand personality; and brand reputation. All of these metaphors have applied characteristics more associated with human beings to inanimate objects, products and services. The ‘metaphor’ of a brand has even been extended to nations in what has been termed ‘nation branding’ – the focus of the remaining sections.

2.3 Branding of places & nations

It is widely agreed that branding can be universally applied to different product types, such as (Keller 2008, p.11): physical goods; services; retailers and distributors; online products and services; people and organisations; sports, arts and entertainment; ideas and causes; and geographic locations. Although it is this final aspect, geographic locations (that can refer to countries, regions, cities and destinations), that still evokes some debate as to its application. The next sections look at the development of ‘place branding’ and ‘destination branding’, noting the similarities and aspects of difference as they overlap with ‘nation branding’.

2.3.1 Place & destination branding

Although branding first appeared in marketing literature about 50 years ago, it mostly related to consumer goods marketing (Pike 2005). However, as the width and depth of the mainstream branding domain has increased, through the emergence of elements such as corporate and services branding, non-profit branding and internal branding, for example, the development of the place branding domain began to take shape (Hankinson 2010). Hankinson noted that corporate branding shares several characteristics that align it with place branding and that, similarly, the service nature of the place product also means that place branding can benefit from the development of services branding literature.

The emergence of the domain of place branding has been formed, according to Hankinson (2010), as a result of a convergence between the academic domains of urban policy, tourism and mainstream branding. Dinnie (2004) added a number of other fields that have influenced this development, such as: sociology, history, national identity and politics. Hankinson (2010) cited the development of the place branding domain as related to the academic literature on what was called 'place promotion' that began to emerge in the 1970s in the urban policy and tourism domains. These domains were largely isolated from each other and separate from mainstream marketing and branding domains. Hosany et al. (2007) noted the application of classical branding theories to places as a relatively new area of academic investigation.

Despite the increased reference to place branding, particularly within the tourism literature, the relationship between branding and places is not always straightforward and not well understood (Morgan et al. 2010). A simplistic and rather broad definition of place branding was given by Govers and Go (2009, p.17) as: "branding and building brand equity in relation to national (country), regional and/ or local (city) identity". This is clearly aligned to the earlier branding definitions, noting the strategic intent of value (equity) creation, although in this case, emphasising the focus on 'identity'. They clarified this assertion, explaining that place branding is "a representation of identity", specifically describing the aim of place branding as:

"building a favourable internal (with those who deliver the experience) and external (with visitors) image (leading to brand satisfaction and loyalty; name awareness; perceived quality; and favourable associations)" (Govers & Go 2009, p.17).

Pike (2005) attributes the growing importance of place branding to the increased choice and availability of destinations that has made places increasingly substitutable and difficult to differentiate, especially from a tourism perspective. Although similar and overlapping concepts, 'destination branding' and 'place branding' differ in scope and purpose. The tourism focus of destination branding can be seen in the definition by Blain et al. (2005, p.331), who defined destination branding as:

"The marketing activities that: (1) supports the creation of a name, symbol, logo, word, mark or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates a destination; (2) conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; and (3) serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience, all with the intent purpose of creating an image that influences consumers' decisions to visit the destination in question, as opposed to an alternative one."

From this definition, it is clear that the consumer referred to is the potential tourist. However, Morgan et al. (2011) argued that the notion of a 'destination' is a problematic concept within tourism. Explaining the link between destinations and places, they stated that a place only becomes a destination "through the narratives and images conveyed by tourism promotional material" (p.4).

Pike (2005) proposed that the place name is in effect the destination brand. However, different from mainstream branding, this name does not provide an explicit association with the position sought in the travel market. Pike (2005, p.258) cited a rare occasion of a place name being changed to increase its appeal to travelers, namely the town of 'Elston' along the Australian east coast that changed its name to 'Surfers Paradise' in the 1930s.

While place branding does include aspects of tourism and destination branding, it is a broader concept that aims at attracting tourism, investment, talent and trade for a place (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Govers & Go 2009), which implies a number of different consumer types (e.g. tourists, investors, importers, international consumers, and skilled individuals or students). Govers and Go (2009) argue that although these seem to be separate categories and that different markets may be looking for different aspects of place, place branding is essentially all about attracting people - people who want to experience a place in order to be inspired through being relaxed and absorbed in its culture, or to determine whether they would want to live, invest, or do business there.

In 2003, Dinnie (2004) characterised place branding as a domain that was very much practitioner-led and where academic research had been slow to follow. However, higher levels of academic interest in the topic have since begun to materialise. Place branding research has only appeared relatively recently: the first academic conference session was convened in 1996, the first journal articles appeared in the late 1990s, and the first book was published in this field in 2002 (Pike 2005). In the period between 1990 and 2000, only nine original articles were published in scholarly publications (Gertner 2011a, p.116). The following are referred to as landmark texts that made a contribution to the early development of the place branding literature (Dinnie 2004; Hankinson 2010; and Gertner 2011a):

1. 'Destination Branding: creating the unique destination proposition' (Morgan, et al. 2002) gathered a collection of articles and papers on diverse topics related to destination branding. The third edition of this book was released in 2011 and continues to be a collection of landmark texts in this field. Interestingly, the 2011 edition is subtitled: "Managing place reputation" - making an even closer link between the destination and place branding theory;
2. Also in 2002, a special issue on nation branding in the Journal of Brand Management (April 2002) featured ground-breaking articles and viewpoints by some of the world's most eminent academics and practitioners, such as: Olins (2002) and Kotler and Gertner (2002). Both of these articles in particular are still widely referred to and form the basis of many arguments justifying the adoption of branding applications by

nations. Furthermore, Kotler and Gertner (2011) have continued to provide meaningful substantiation of nation branding from a branding theory perspective;

3. Simon Anholt's (2003) seminal text 'Brand New Justice: The upside of global branding', addressed the issue of how emerging market economies can brand both their exports and their countries in order to compete more effectively in the global economy. Anholt, who first coined the term 'nation branding' in 1996, has followed this book with other notable additions to the literature, such as 'Competitive Identity' (Anholt 2007), which detailed what countries, regions and cities can do to build and sustain their competitive identity; and 'Places' (Anholt 2010c) that focused on country identity, image and reputation. Anholt continues to be widely referenced in the place and nation branding literature and industry.
4. The first specialised journal in the domain, the 'Journal of Place Branding' was published in 2004. It has since been renamed the 'Journal of Place Branding and Public Diplomacy' and continues to contribute to the emerging body of knowledge.

Although place branding includes countries, there appear to be unique aspects of the nation branding theory development that indicate a number of unique differences. The following section discusses the emergence of nation branding as a separate, although overlapping, discourse.

2.3.2 The emergence and development of nation branding as a discourse

Widler (2007, p.145) referred to nation branding as a "discourse", explaining this as "a body of shared knowledge about a particular thing in the world". Fan (2010, p.98) points out that despite the "huge growth" in publications in this field in the first decade of this century, there has been a "disappointing lack of progress in conceptual development". This section discusses the developments within nation branding literature to date, stressing the areas of conceptual consensus as well as debate.

While much of the place branding and destination theory and definitions can apply to countries, there are also some distinctions, highlighted throughout this section, but especially noticeable in the following definitions. According to Dinnie (2009, p.15), a nation brand is:

"the unique, multi-dimensional blend of elements that provide the nation with culturally grounded differentiation and relevance for all its target audiences".

This definition acknowledges the multi-faceted or complex nature of the nation brand. One of these complexities is that there are numerous powerful stakeholders interested in shaping the nation brand (e.g. representatives from government, commerce, not-for-profit organisations, tourism and the media) to appeal to multiple target audiences (Dinnie 2009). The definition is

linked to the 'holistic' view of branding, i.e. acknowledging that a brand is more than merely the designed or created aspects, but includes the perceptions and images that reside in the consumer's mind. The core branding objective of providing differentiation is also mentioned. The wording "culturally grounded" implies that Dinnie favoured a bottom-up approach to nation branding, ensuring that the brand identity is rooted in the identity, history and culture of its citizens. Fan (2010, p.101) proposed a slightly different emphasis in his definition:

"Nation branding is a process by which a nation's images can be created, monitored, evaluated and proactively managed in order to improve or enhance the country's reputation among a target international audience."

This definition stresses the process and actions of brand stakeholders and the central activity of brand image management. Similar to Dinnie's definition, it notes that nation brands are constructed and managed by stakeholders and don't simply come into existence on their own. Furthermore, there is a strategic intentionality to the process, namely that it is expected to result in positive reputation. The focus is clearly the international audience and the definition reveals Fan's conclusion that it is not possible to develop "one core message that can be used by different industry sectors in different countries" (p.103). This is in contrast with Dinnie's definition that implies a single nation brand that has relevance for all markets. (This aspect is further debated in section 2.5.1 on 'umbrella brands'.)

Olins (2002, p.241) observed that the concept of the nation as a brand seems to excite 'visceral animosity' in some people who argue that a nation cannot be considered a brand, as it does not belong to an organisation or brand managers. Indeed, Dinnie (2009) noted that if the nation brand does in fact 'belong' to someone, it is to the nation's entire citizenry. Olins (2002) examined the history of the nation as a brand, and tried to understand why, in the light of what he argued to be clear historical evidence, so many people find the idea of a nation brand objectionable. Olins (2002, p.241) concluded that it is not the concept that they detest so much as the word 'brand', which appears for some people to have "trifling and superficial implications unworthy of the national idea". Olins (2002) dismissed opponents of nation branding and argues that if instead of using corporate expressions like 'brand', terms such as 'identity', 'national image' and 'national identity' seem to be more acceptable to all. To this effect, Anholt (2007a, p.75) has of late preferred to use the term 'competitive identity' to describe the synthesis of brand management with public diplomacy and with trade, investment, tourism and export promotion. This term stems from the proposal that a powerful, positive nation brand provides a strong competitive advantage for a nation (Olins 2002; and Anholt 2007a).

Anholt (2007b) explained that in the struggle for competitive advantage, national reputation is becoming more and more significant as countries compete for the attention, respect and trust

of investors, tourists, consumers, donors, immigrants, media and governments. Confirming this, Van Ham (2001, p.2) stated:

“In today's world of information overload, strong brands are important in attracting foreign direct investment, recruiting the best and the brightest, and wielding political influence.”

Van Ham also claimed that the unbranded state has a difficult time attracting economic and political attention, and that image and reputation are becoming essential parts of the state's strategic equity. Olins (2002) lends support to this view, claiming that a successful nation brand will be seen as a key national asset.

Although the understanding of a nation as a brand is increasingly accepted, it seems the conceptualisation of and application of branding techniques to nations is the area of greatest debate. Despite being the first to publish the term 'nation branding', Anholt (2010c) has more recently made a great effort to clarify what is meant by the term and has advocated substituting the term with 'competitive identity' to clarify its distinction from mainstream branding. His main area of concern is that stakeholders adopt branding principles to attempt to brand nations in the same manner as they would any other consumer product. He is especially critical of nation branding being viewed merely as the creation of communication programmes, slogans or logos - which he believes have never succeeded or could ever succeed in directly altering international perceptions of nations in themselves. Anholt, among others, instead advocate a more holistic, strategic and longer-term management approach to nation branding.

Dinnie (2004) noted that there are increasingly more reasons why nations must manage and control their brands, such as the need to attract tourists, factories, companies and talented people, and to find markets for their exports. Similarly, Kotler and Gertner (2002) explained that country images are likely to influence consumers' decisions related to purchasing, investing, changing residence and travelling. They reasoned that even when a country does not consciously manage its brand, images of the country brand exist. They therefore proposed that countries adopt 'conscious' branding if they are to compete effectively on the global stage. Thus, in spite of the confusion related to the use of 'branding' for nations, Simonin (2008, p.20) went so far as to say: “the relevant question today is not whether to pursue nation branding, but rather how to do it right”.

Indicative of the holistic understanding of nation branding, Anholt (2003, p.11), in an early definition, referred to a 'strategic vision'. He defined the activity of nation branding as:

“determining the most realistic, most competitive and most compelling strategic vision for the country, and ensuring that this vision is supported, reinforced and enriched by every act of communication between the country and the rest of the world.”

The understanding of a 'strategic vision' has implications that lead to the later discussions on nations as 'umbrella brands'. This definition also highlights the importance of communication within nation branding (see section 6.4 for more on this aspect).

In 2002, Kotler and Gertner identified three main objectives of nation branding, namely: managing the country image; attracting tourists; and attracting factories and companies. While these are still regarded as major broad objectives, a few others have been added or expanded upon. For example, Dinnie (2009, p.17) added the objectives: increase currency stability; improve international credibility and investor confidence; reverse international ratings downgrades; increase international political influence; stimulate stronger international partnerships; and enhance nation building. Although Fetscherin (2010) largely repeats these aspects, he more broadly added the objective: creating positive perceptions and attitudes in the target markets. Similarly, Simonin (2008, p.23) referred to the "four pillars", "critical dimensions" or "marketing spaces" of nation branding being: public diplomacy; tourism; exports; and foreign direct investment. He acknowledged that other dimensions have been advanced, such as: people; and culture and heritage. Figure 2.1 depicts these pillars or spaces graphically, distinguishing between the four conventional pillars and the two additional proposed pillars, and also includes the typical associated objectives under each pillar. Fan (2010, p.98) supports these assessments, although he simplified it in his assertion that nation branding is concerned with "a country's whole image on the international stage, covering political, economic and cultural dimensions".

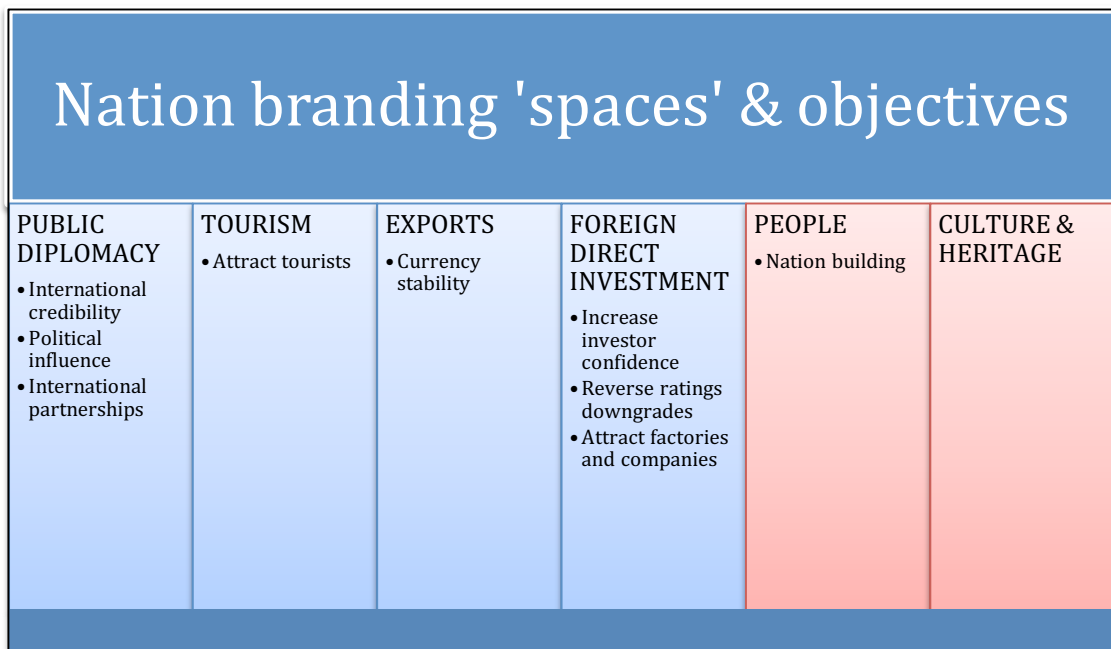


Figure 2.1: The nation branding pillars or spaces & associated objectives

Nation branding appears to have developed from three broad theoretical bases that incorporate very different fields of study. The writer proposes that it is these origins that create a particular distinction between nation branding and place, city and destination branding. These origins are summarised as: country-of-origin; public diplomacy; and national identity, with their relevance now discussed in more detail:

- Country-of-origin

From a strategic global marketing perspective, nation branding emerged from the literature related to 'country-of-origin' (COO) effect. As Kotler and Gertner (2002) explained, in many countries, mandatory product labelling requires marketers to disclose a product's place of origin. This legal requisite has raised the interest of marketing researchers and practitioners in understanding consumers' attitudes toward foreign products. According to Kotler and Gertner (2002), country names amount to brands and help consumers evaluate products and make purchasing decisions. They are responsible for associations that may add to or subtract from the perceived value of a product.

Kotler and Gertner (2002) claimed that research has supported the idea that consumers are more willing to buy products from industrialised nations as a result of country equity. For example, products bearing a 'Made in Germany', 'Made in Switzerland' or 'Made in Japan' label are commonly regarded as high quality, due to the reputation of these countries as top world manufacturers and exporters, while a 'Made in Myanmar' label may raise doubts about the quality of the products due to the low country brand equity. Dinnie (2004), however, believed that the assumption that consumers construct nation brand perceptions purely on their experience of product purchase from the country in question is a simplistic and unsubstantiated assumption. In his literature review of the emerging place branding field, he further claimed that there are many more determinants of country image perceptions than merely the purchase of a product from a certain country. For example, the personal experience of visiting a country as a tourist may contribute far more strongly to a consumer's perceptions of a country.

The COO influence is not limited to product exports, but also extends to cultural products such as films, books, music, entertainment, media and special events that all play a part in determining a country's reputation and image (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Dinnie 2004; Simonin 2008). Crucially, Dinnie (2004, p.110) noted that the significance of sport as a determinant of country image perceptions has been "massively underestimated" in existing country-of-origin research.

Particularly relevant to the African and emerging nation context, negative views and associations are also often powerful image associations for nations. Not only are product

categories such as perfumes, electronics, precision instruments, wines, cars and software strongly identified with certain places, but so also are societal ills such as HIV Aids, political riots, civil rights violations, attacks on the environment, racial conflict, economic turmoil, poverty and violent crime (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Simonin 2008). Anholt (2007a) specifically mentioned that the continent of Africa receives much negative media coverage along these lines. He referred to the 'Brand Africa' effect, where every nation in the continent takes on all the associations of the most negatively viewed nation within the continent. When there is little differentiation between the countries in a region, negative equity will always transfer to the entire group (Anholt 2007a). Contrastingly, he noted that for unknown reasons, positive equity appears to migrate in a far less even-handed way.

Perhaps epitomising the corporate marketing origins of nation branding, Olins (2002, p.246) placed the parallels between corporate and country brands in a historical context, provocatively stating: "companies and countries learn from each other as we gradually see a mutation of corporations into national institutions and of nations into brands".

- Public diplomacy

The historical link between public diplomacy and nation branding is still evident today. One of the very few journals focused on place and nation branding is titled "Place Branding and Public Diplomacy". Anholt (2007b, p.12) explained that the United States Information Agency was the first to use the term 'public diplomacy' in the early 1960s, in an attempt to communicate what is meant when a modern state manages its reputation abroad. At the time, this term encompassed "the cultivation by governments of public opinion in other countries".

Wang (2006, p.41-42) explained that public diplomacy is "fundamentally a communications process", seeking to "promote a nation's policies and ideals through government-sponsored programmes" that aim to "inform and influence foreign publics". This typically happens through radio and television broadcasts, films, books, magazines (similar to what was noted in the COO effect) and cultural and educational exchanges. Simonin (2008, p.24) adding that public diplomacy requires managing overall perceptions of the country as well as developing durable relationships with key individuals and organisations.

Wang (2006, p.42) described the changes that have occurred in public diplomacy, especially noting how communication has shifted from "government-to-government" to today's environment that is more focused on "government-to-people". Modern public diplomacy seeks to incorporate the views of its citizens and other significant role players such as big business. Interestingly, Wang (2006, p.44) highlighted a modern challenge for

public diplomacy being the wide array of communication channels now available, in particular new media such as mobile phones and the Internet, necessitating more strategic choices and placement of communications.

Although there appears to be a great deal of synergy with the intentions of public diplomacy and nation branding, Simonin (2008, p.19) noted that the overlap of the two is not always harmonious. He described it as “two parallel universes colliding” - where country states, rich in history, culture and tradition, economic trade, statecraft, diplomacy and nobility, contrast with the marketing universe depicted by consumer needs, persuasion, jargon, concepts, images and professional management. Of particular relevance to hosting sport mega-events, Simonin (2008, p.24) also claimed that public diplomacy can be seen as a way to exercise “soft power”, and especially as a means for developing nations to “raise public awareness and appreciation for the country”.

- National identity

The third sphere of origin for nation branding is national identity theory. Smith and Seokho (2006) explained that the world we live in is primarily organised in nation states that are based around one predominant nationality or ethnic group. National identity acts as the “cohesive force that both holds the nation states together and shapes their relationships with the family of nations” (Smith & Seokho 2006, p.1). A by-product of this identity can be national pride - the positive feeling a citizen develops towards his or her country.

National identity, just like culture, is not permanent or predetermined, but rather shaped by various processes and continuously undergoes changes, redefinition and reconstruction (Kersting 2007). Grossberg et al. (2006, p.56) defined national identity as:

“an awareness of the affiliation with a nation that gives people a sense of who they are in relation to others, or infuses a sense of purpose that makes them feel at home”.

Of particular interest to this study is that one of the defining features of national identity formation includes “common myth” and “historic memories” that relate to shared experience of a significant event for a nation (Grossberg et al. 2006, p.56). The author proposes this includes the hosting of a sport mega-event. Kersting (2007) examined the role of sport in national identity formation and, in particular, the role of sport mega-events. Using the case of the 2006 FIFA World Cup, he commented on the national pride exhibited as a result of the perceived successful hosting of the mega-event and the success of the national team at the event.

Although national identity is viewed as an origin of nation branding, Fan (2010, p.101) cautioned that these two constructs, although related, are totally different. He clarifies that when mentioning nation brand identity, one is referring to the specific nation brand and not

to the nation as a whole. Nation branding relates to “a set of associations that brand strategists seek to create or maintain”, rather than the national identity, described as the “characteristics of a nation that its people perceive to be central, distinctive and enduring”. Fan asserts that “nation branding is not about building or re-moulding the national identity”, but rather to align, or narrow the gap between, the nation’s image and reality.

Kaneva (2011) identified three categories of nation branding research that indicate parallels with the three origins stated above. The first of these, accounting for more than half of the publications, is termed the ‘technical-economic approach’ and stems from a marketing or management orientation that relates to the COO literature. Overall this approach is described as adopting a “functionalist perspective”, regarding nation branding as a “strategic tool for enhancing a nation’s competitive advantage in a global marketplace” (Kaneva 2011, p.120). The second is the ‘political approach’ that focuses on public diplomacy. The smallest and most recent group of studies makes up the ‘cultural approach’ that is most concerned with national identity. It therefore appears that the three origins of nation branding may still influence to a large degree the research agenda relating to nation branding.

While there is a great deal of overlap between nation branding and place, city and destination branding, the writer proposes that it is the three fields of origins that create the key distinctions between them. Furthermore, two other studies indicated some significant differences: Firstly, Caldwell and Freire (2004) applied the ‘Brand Box Model’ to countries, cities and regions and found that there are differences in factors that affect the brand image of each, concluding that branding a nation is different from branding a region or city. Secondly, Martinez and Alvarez (2010) examined the difference between country and destination image. They reasoned that the tourism literature fails to differentiate between the image of a country and that of a destination as a tourism product. They particularly highlighted this important difference for developing nations suffering from negative country stereotypes. Their study confirmed these differences although they proposed that the tourism destination image of a country might positively influence the nation’s brand image and the impact on trade and investment.

Heslop et al. (2013) observe that while place and destination branding evolved in quite separate disciplines, researchers have more recently recognised the overlap of the two foci and the value to be gained from integrating frameworks of study. Despite the differences noted, they proposed that there is a significant overlap of image and reputation of places and destinations.

Having examined the definitions, origins of branding and how this led to branding of places and nations, the following section takes a more strategic perspective, identifying and applying strategic branding elements to nation branding.

2.4 Strategic nation branding

The literature on nation branding conveys a change in focus over the course of this millennium. Most of the papers and books in the early part of the previous decade debated or promoted the notion of 'brand' being applied to nations. More recently, though, the literature has developed to include applications of branding or branding principles to nations. As Simonin (2008) noted, the debate has moved from whether a nation should pursue branding, to how best they can do this. A more strategic approach to nation branding is promoted and a number of further branding applications and metaphors have been suggested.

Beginning with an understanding of strategic nation branding, this section identifies the strategic branding elements that have relevance for nation branding. Recent advances in the branding literature are highlighted and their application for nation brands discussed.

2.4.1 Brand equity through strategic nation branding

Anholt (2007b) distinguished between a 'brand' and 'branding', defining the latter as "the process of designing, planning, communicating and managing the brand" (p.4). Keller noted that there has been a shift of emphasis from mere 'branding' to 'strategic brand management'. Blichfeldt (2003) also noted that most leading academics today acknowledge the strategic importance of branding. The strategic brand management process involves the design and implementation of marketing programmes and activities to build, measure and manage brand equity (Keller 2008). According to Aaker (1997) the most important reasons for engaging in strategic brand management are to protect the company's profits from erosion and to obtain a sustainable competitive advantage.

For a nation, strategic brand management concerns the enhancement of a country's competitive position in the global marketplace (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Anholt 2010c). Kotler and Gertner (2002) urge that the process must involve a combination of government, citizens and businesses, all with a shared vision. It requires setting and delivering the incentives and managing the factors that might affect buyers' decisions, such as image, attractions, infrastructure and people.

Anholt (2007a) recommends that a nation's image needs to be skillfully created and carefully managed, just like any other brand. However, unlike corporate brands, nation brands are not directly under the marketer's control (Dinnie 2004). This can therefore be seen to pose considerably complex challenges in terms of strategy development and implementation. Anholt (2003, p.11) gave a good explanation of strategic nation branding, as follows:

"A national brand strategy determines the most realistic, most competitive and most compelling strategic vision for the country, and ensures that this vision is supported,

reinforced and enriched by every act of communication between the country and the rest of the world.”

These acts of communication include the kinds of brands which the country exports; the way it promotes itself for trade, tourism, inward investment and inward recruitment; the way it behaves in acts of domestic and foreign policy and the ways in which these acts are communicated; the way it promotes and represents and shares its culture; the way its citizens behave when abroad and how they treat strangers at home; the way it features in the world’s media; the bodies and organisations it belongs to; the countries it associates with; the way it competes with other countries in sport and entertainment; and what it gives to the world and what it takes back (Anholt 2003). If done well, such a strategy can make a huge difference to both the internal confidence and the external performance of a country (Anholt 2003). Part of the strategic management approach for nations that Kotler and Gertner (2002) proposed, highlighted the selection of industries, personalities, natural landmarks and historical events that could provide a basis for strong branding.

In light of this discussion on strategic brand management, Blichfeldt (2003) noted that the increased reference to brand equity is also an indication of the shift in marketing focus from ‘tactics’ to ‘strategic decision-making’. The concept of brand equity arose in the late 1980s, becoming popular among brand academics and practitioners (Blichfeldt 2003; and Keller 2008). Although definitions vary, brand equity is generally regarded as “the marketing effects uniquely attributable to a brand” (Keller 2008, p.37). Essentially, brand equity explains the difference in economic value of a branded product as opposed to the same product that is not branded (Keller 2008, p.37). Aaker (1996, p.7) more clearly defined brand equity as:

“a set of brand assets and liabilities linked to a brand, its name and symbol, that add to or subtract from the value provided by a product or service to a firm and/ or to that firm’s customers”.

It is interesting to note Aaker’s inclusion of customers in this definition, acknowledging that brands add value for customers as well as for the brand owners. The value added by a brand with high levels of brand equity for a traditional consumer company can take the form of: increased sales; price premiums; customer loyalty; lower costs; and increased purchase intent (Pike 2010). Although the measurement of brand equity remains a highly debated area, the concept of brand equity has emphasised the value of branding within marketing strategies (Keller 2008, p.37) – a value that is manifested in terms of financial, strategic and managerial advantages (Blichfeldt 2003).

Blichfeldt (2003) contends that the main contribution of the concept of brand equity has been an increased understanding of the lifespan of brands being infinitive or at least considerably longer than the lifespan of individual products (see section 2.5.3 for more on the

brand life cycle). The concept enables brands to be defined as long-term investments, the values of which may be increased or diluted by means of managerial actions. This understanding of brand equity therefore shifts the focus of branding and brand management from what Blichfeldt described as “short-term, tactical, communication focused decision-making” to “long-term, strategic activities” (p.12).

In this thesis it is argued that a sport mega-event could be such a landmark/ historical event as it features prominently in the world media and allows the host nation to compete on the global stage both in terms of team performance as well as organisational capacity. This section raises the question of whether a sport mega-event contributes towards strategic nation branding, or more specifically, does it add value to the nation brand by developing a sustainable competitive advantage in the global marketplace? The next section focuses on aspects of strategic brand management of particular relevance to nation brands.

2.4.2 Brand salience – a foundation for nation branding

In Keller’s customer-based brand equity (CBBE) model, he proposed that brand equity occurs when the consumer has a high level of awareness and familiarity with the brand and holds some strong, favourable and unique brand associations in memory (Keller 2008, p.53). Pike (2010) explored the application of the CBBE model to destination management, conceptualising a hierarchy of destination brand development, where brands move through developmental phases from brand salience to brand associations to brand resonance and ultimately to brand loyalty. This hierarchy incorporates perceptual and behavioural measures for branding (as depicted and summarised in Figure 2.2).

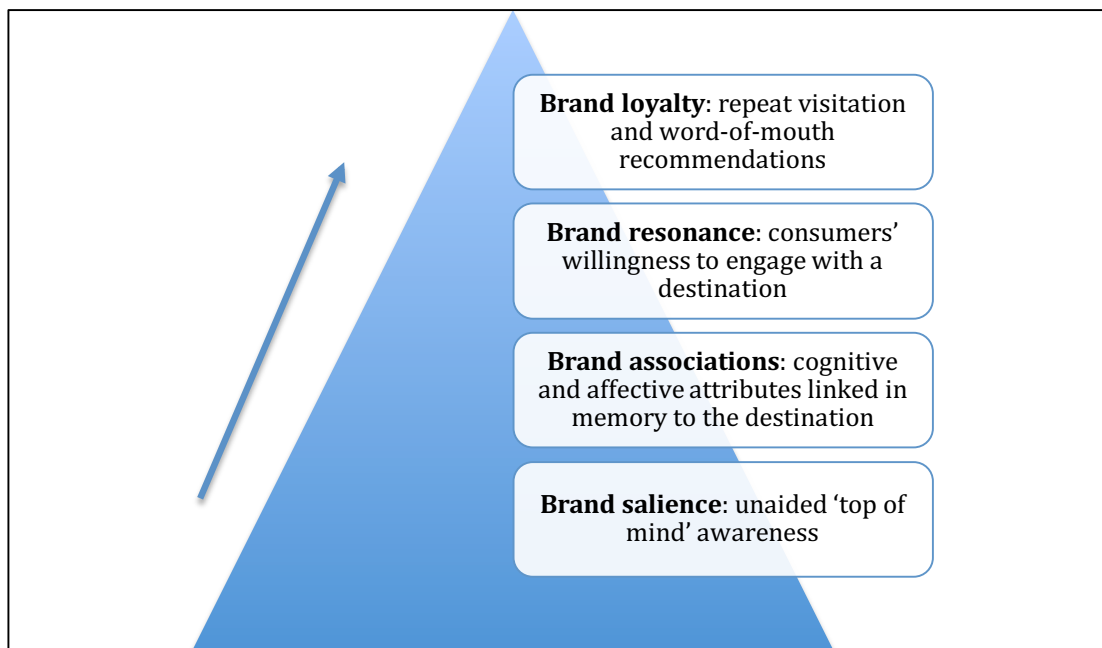


Figure 2.2: Hierarchy of CBBE applied to destination brands (adapted from Pike 2010, p.7)

Brand salience forms the foundation or starting point of this model of brand equity development. Keller (2008) explained that 'salience' refers to brand awareness and consists of brand recognition (the consumer's ability to confirm prior exposure to the brand) and brand recall performance (the consumer's ability to retrieve the brand from memory when given a product category). He added that, generally, customers are more adept at recognising a brand than at recalling one.

Brand salience creates value or brand equity through three main advantages: learning; consideration; and choice (Keller 2008, p.54). 'Learning' advantages refer to the ease with which the brand aspects are stored in the consumer's mind, and the degree of ease with which additional aspects of the brand can be added to this in future. Brand awareness increases the likelihood that the brand will form part of the consumer's consideration/ evoked set - the handful of brands that will receive serious purchase consideration. Higher brand awareness can affect the choice of a brand within the consumer's consideration set.

From this foundational aspect of brand equity, the discussion now moves onto the next step in this process – the development of brand associations. This is discussed in two parts, firstly, brand identity and secondly, brand image and reputation.

2.4.3 Brand identity

The brand identity is the core concept of the product, clearly and distinctively expressed (Anholt 2007b, p.5). It generally refers to the more tangible and controlled aspects of the brand, such

as the logo, slogan, packaging and design. Identity is therefore different from the concept of image, which resides in the mind of the consumer (explained later in section 2.4.4). Pike (2010) explains that brand identity is the image desired by marketers, while brand image is the actual image held by consumers. Although general marketing practice assumes that by manipulating the aspects of brand identity, brand image can be altered, Anholt (2007b) disputes this.

Morgan and Pritchard (1998) explained that place identities are constructed through historical, political, religious and cultural discourses; through local knowledge, and influenced by power struggles. National, cultural, natural, social and religious assets become important identifiers of this identity. Govers and Go (2009, p.17) referred to the “true identity of a place” as the full set of unique characteristics or set of meanings that exist in a place and its culture at a given point in time, nevertheless realising that this identity is subject to change and might include various fragmented identities. They urge that this true identity should be the foundation on which to build the place brand propositions. The place brand identity links with the discussion in the next chapter on sport tourism place identity (see Chapter 3).

2.4.4 Brand image & reputation

Hosany et al. (2007, p.3) claimed that brand image is “an essential part of powerful brands”. The most common and widely accepted definition of brand image is: “the perceptions about a brand reflected as associations existing in the memory of the consumer” or “the way people think about a brand abstractly, rather than what they think the brand actually does” (Keller 2008, p.65). Similarly, Dobni and Zinkhan (1990, p.112) stated, “Where brand image is concerned, the perception of reality is more important than the reality itself.”

Brand image refers to the more intangible aspects of a brand that represent associations formed directly through customer experiences or indirectly through advertising, word of mouth, or other sources of information (Keller 2008). Keller (2008, p.56) confirmed this, adding that there are a variety of ways other than marketing activities that can influence a consumer’s brand image formation, identifying examples of such sources as: direct experience; information from other commercial or nonpartisan sources or media vehicles; word of mouth; assumptions or inferences consumers make about the brand itself, its name, or logo; or identification with a company, country, channel of distribution, or person, place or event. Similarly, Hosany et al. (2007) summarised three potential ways in which associations are formed as: direct experience with the product/ service; information sources; and inferences from pre-existing associations. However, the source of the association may be less important than the manner in which it is formed (Keller 2008, p.56).

Brand image is a “critical concept when we’re talking about nations, cities and regions” and is an important driver of consumer behaviour (Anholt 2007b, p.5). Nation brand image refers to the current perception of the country in the marketplace. This is not to be confused with brand identity (as previously discussed), which is more concerned with the perception that the country seeks to create. Pike (2010) explained that a destination brand comprises the supply-side desired identity and the demand-side image of the destination held by the consumer. Similarly, Simonin (2008, p.22) clarified these two concepts from a managerial orientation, stating that identity has an internal and production focus, while image has an external and market focus. He explained that a gap that may exist between the two reflects a disconnect between the original intent and perceived quality.

Place image has also been referred to as a “mental portrayal or prototype” of the travel experience, where the image of a destination consists of “the subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist” (Govers & Go 2009, p.18). Govers (2011) referred to place brand image as consisting of “networks of associations about places, products, objects or other people”.

Brand image is a multi-dimensional construct and consists of functional and symbolic brand benefits (Hosany et al. 2007). Anholt (2007b), among other proponents (such as Olins 2002; and Kotler & Gertner 2002) supports the notion that a nation’s brand image is made up of a collection of: images, symbols, history, perceptions, media, experiences, observations and stereotypes. The most commonly cited definition of nation brand image is: “the sum of all beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a nation” (Baloglu & McCleary 1999; Kotler et al. 2003; Hosany et al. 2007; Kotler & Gertner 2011). Kotler and Gertner (2011, p.37) pointed to the extensive and diverse nature of nation image drivers, explaining, “a country’s image results from its geography, history, proclamations, art and music, famous citizens and other features”.

The entertainment industry and the media are mentioned by Kotler and Gertner (2002) as playing an important role in shaping nation brand perceptions. They suggested that this may be especially so where negative aspects such as HIV Aids, political riots, civil rights violations, racial conflict, poverty and violent crime (for example) are repeatedly and strongly associated with certain places – as is the case with most African nations, including South Africa.

Baloglu and McCleary (1999, p.892) found that “word-of-mouth recommendations from friends and relatives” was the most important source of information in forming destination brand images. Other influencers of place image include: direct experiences or those of relatives and friends (Govers 2011); and mainstream or social media (Govers 2011). Beyond these factors, Govers (2011) highlighted the influence of other factors such as place leaders (e.g. presidents or prominent achievers, like Nelson Mandela’s global association with South Africa);

partnerships (e.g. celebrities who buy property in a region, such as the Beckham's in Dubai); and popular culture (e.g. movies, such as the 'Borat' movie effect on Kazakhstan). From the discussion in this section, the list of elements that influence a nation brand, from a tourism destination perspective to other perspectives of the brand, are summarised in Table 2.3:

Table 2.3: Influencers of nation brand image	
Direct travel experience	Keller (2008); Govers (2011)
Word of mouth experience of family or friends	Baloglu and McCleary (1999); Govers (2011)
Entertainment industry or popular culture (e.g. music, movies)	Kotler & Gertner (2002); Govers (2011)
Mainstream & social media	Govers (2011)
Leaders & famous people	Anholt (2007b); Govers (2011)
Partnerships	Govers (2011)
Geography	Kotler & Gertner (2011)
History	Kotler & Gertner (2011)
Proclamations	Kotler & Gertner (2011)
Art and culture	Kotler & Gertner (2011)
Products	Govers (2011)

Two related and yet distinctive elements of brand image are brand personality and brand reputation, both of which are now discussed:

- Brand personality

Brand personality refers to “the personality traits generally associated with humans that consumers perceive a brand to possess” (Hosany et al. 2007, p.8) or “the set of human characteristics associated with a brand” (Aaker 1997, p.347). A distinctive brand personality can create a set of unique and favourable associations in consumer memory and thus enhance brand equity (Keller 2008). Hosany et al. (2007) claimed that it serves as “an enduring basis for differentiation” (p.8) and is thus an important factor for the success of a brand in terms of preference and choice. They further noted that a well-established brand personality could result in consumers having stronger emotional ties to the brand, greater trust and loyalty.

‘Destination image’ and ‘destination personality’ are related concepts. Hosany et al. (2007, p.4) defined destination personality is “the set of personality traits associated with a

destination". They noted that tourism literature increasingly acknowledges the importance of destination personality, particularly with regard to leveraging the perceived destination image and influencing tourist behaviour.

- Brand reputation

Anholt (2007b, p.5) referred to brand image as "virtually the same thing as reputation". Both Anholt (2007b) and Morgan et al. (2011) refer to nation branding as reputation management. Illustrating the importance of reputation management, Anholt (2007a) used the case of South Africa. He stated that South Africa faces branding challenges similar to most developing nations, given the unfamiliarity of its brand and also having potentially incorrect, out-dated or stereotyped associations. The 'Brand Africa'/ continent brand effect which results in all African nations being associated with the same attributes (Anholt 2007a). For "Brand Africa", these tend to include all of the negative problems associated with the continent, such as crime, civil-war, famine, disease and corruption. An additional challenge is that country images can be long lasting and difficult to change and may require a significant event or experience to alter (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Anholt 2007a).

However, if the earlier definitions are taken into account, brand image appears to be more than reputation, composed of a mixture of the physical reality of the product and the beliefs, attitudes and feelings that have come to be attached to it. Nation and destination literature increasingly differentiate between brand image and reputation (Morgan et al. 2012). Heslop et al. (2013) cautioned that while some authors refer to brand image and 'reputation' interchangeably, there is a distinction. They explained that a brand's reputation is the specific aspects of the brand's image concerning its ability to be or do something, defining reputation as "specific images or belief structures formed around the brand's history and evidence of and capability to be or do something of importance to the perceiver" (Heslop et al. 2013, p.9). Reputations involve evaluative judgments of images held and are therefore argued to be of particular importance to consumers in directing behaviour.

Heslop et al. made reference to the multi-dimensional measure of country reputation developed by Yang et al. (2008, p.424), who noted reputation as a "by-product of relational actions between an organisation and its multiple stakeholders, which is often evaluative". As with brand image, Yang et al. (2008) noted that a country's reputation might be based on considerable or very little information and personal experience. They affirmed that reputations formed on the basis of direct experience are more strongly held, although coherent images are developed in many ways, including through media, reports of others or exposure to products made in the place.

From this discussion of brand identity and image, it is important to note an important development within nation branding theory, namely that of co-creating the nation brand image and identity.

2.4.5 Co-creating nation brand identity & image

Brands as artifacts of communicative interactions are influenced by culture including historical perspectives and local contexts that together make up cultural codes (Schroeder 2009). These inform not only the process of how meanings are ascribed but which meanings are ascribed. The fluidity of these interactions would aggregate a sense of collective co-creation of meanings and collective brand experience. Understanding that brand meanings are socially constructed, culturally dependant and communally 'owned' promotes a radical shift in understanding brands and brand ownership (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007). This understanding contests the conventional definition of a brand as "the sum of individual perceptions" (Fournier, 1998 p. 344) and suggests instead that brands are "a shared reality, dynamically constructed through social interaction" (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, p. 365).

The co-creation of brand meanings by consumers shifts brand 'ownership' from the managerial and legalist sphere of intellectual property rights and trademarks (Schultz & Schultz 2004) to consumers and brand users. This idea widens the scope of brand image and the meanings that create and nurture the brand image, to consider not only the number of stakeholders that would influence the brand with different perspectives, but also how the interaction of multiple perspectives generate new meanings. As a consequence, the nature of brand image is a continual process of iteration, as is the brand itself. The acceptance that brand meanings are created by shared beliefs and realities as a result of the interactions between suppliers, stakeholders and consumers (in a firm-based context) is central to the paradigm of co-creation (Grönroos 2000). Grönroos (2000) referred to the emergence of "brand communities" (p.31), where a continuous creative and interpretive process of brand meanings creates a stronger sense of brand ownership among consumers.

When co-creation is applied to places and destinations, it also includes stakeholders such as citizens or residents. Hakala and Lemmetyinen (2011) highlighted the importance of managing the nation brand 'bottom up', in other words starting from the people (residents). Aitken and Campello (2011) emphasised the role of the co-creation of brand meaning and the collective experience of communities in the development of a brand identity. They explained that brand meanings are constantly co-created and re-presented by the community, reflecting the everyday experience of its constituents. This results in a brand essence that is dynamic, authentic and, as they deem most important, collective. They propose that this is likely to influence both brand sustainability and authenticity. Ultimately, they concluded that the

development of a brand strategy based on a co-created experience empowers the community with decisions around brand positioning, representation and brand ownership.

The following section moves on to the next section of the hierarchy of brand equity formation, namely 'brand resonance'.

2.4.6 Brand resonance: from brand experiences to brand engagement

Keller's Customer Based Brand Equity (CBBE) model is based on the premise that "the power of a brand lies in what customers have learned, felt, seen and heard about the brand as a result of their experiences over time" (Keller 2008, p.48). This perspective notes the challenge for marketers aiming to build brand equity is to ensure that customers have the right type of experiences with products and services and their accompanying marketing programs so that the desired thoughts feelings, images, beliefs, perceptions and opinions become linked to the brand.

The development of the experiential branding literature has its origins in service quality theory. A brand experience can be defined as: "A subjective, internal consumer response (sensations, feelings and cognitions) and behavioural responses evoked by brand-related stimuli (design, packaging, identity, communications and environment)" (Hollebeek 2011, p.562). In their landmark text, "Welcome to the experience economy", Pine and Gilmore (1998) reflected on changes in the business marketing environment, advocating a move from merely offering services to creating customer experiences. Their model of experience formation proposed that the creation of active and immersive experiences (involving some degree of customer involvement in the experience creation) lead not only to greater customer satisfaction, but also allow for higher brand premiums while at the same time fostering customer loyalty. A key conclusion from their paper is that brands will no longer be defined by the services that they offer, but rather by the customer experiences linked with the brand.

More recently, the experiential marketing theory has been expanded to include the concept of 'brand engagement'. Hollebeek (2011) explored this emerging concept noting that while practitioners have been using it more widely, the scholarly understanding of the term has been slow to develop. Most of the literature pertaining to this concept has been published only in this decade (since 2010). The emergence of the concept appears to be most closely linked to an extension of "brand experience" theory. According to Hollebeek (2011, p.562), in contrast to brand experiences, brand engagement does not assume a motivational state of the customer, involving "more proactive customer cognitions, emotions and behaviours". Hollebeek (2011, p.565) proposed a definition of customer brand engagement as: "The level of a customer's cognitive, emotional and behavioural investment in specific brand interactions". Furthermore,

he identified three core components of brand engagement, namely: immersion; passion; and activation.

Kapferer (2012) also identified brand engagement as a new key element of strategic brand management, highlighting consumer passion as central to customer relationship development. However, he added that brands need to move beyond the 'activation' level, to what he called "brand activism" (p.132). Such brands raise debates and stimulate issues, showing concern for the future and the wellbeing of their consumers. Combining this level of activism with the power of the Internet, Kapferer further argued that today's brands need to recognise their social influence and their ability to become "community builders" (p.132).

Anholt (2010c, p.12-13) listed five new ideas within place branding that represented "a genuinely new approach to the way in which places need to be managed". As the first of these, he stated, "Places must engage with the outside world in a clear, coordinated and communicative way" (p.12). While the application of the concepts of brand experience and engagement do not appear to have been explored directly in the nation branding literature, it is proposed that these advances in branding theory are of great relevance for nations. This is particularly so when it comes to hosting sport mega-events, which are active, immersive customer experiences at their core. Furthermore, the concept of 'engagement' specifically adds the dimension of customer 'passion' – a natural and core association with sport mega-event consumers. From brand engagement, the following section moves on to describe brand loyalty and attachment – the final stage of the brand equity hierarchy.

2.4.7 From loyalty to brand attachment

This section describes another emerging concept within branding, namely 'brand attachment'. Emerging from 'relationship marketing' theory and sharing similarities with 'brand loyalty', brand attachment differs from these in its emphasis of the affective components of a brand, such as 'passion' and 'self-connection' (Japutra et al. 2014, p.3). According to Japutra et al. (2014), brand attachment is deemed to result in the following positive effects for a brand: brand loyalty and intention to recommend, purchase and revisit; and resilience to negative information or unethical behaviour, to the point of defending the brand.

Although there is no literature linking brand attachment to nation branding, the possible positive effects for a nation brand from such an orientation are evident. Once again, the centrality of 'passion' and 'connection' between consumers and the brand may be of particular relevance for nations hosting sport mega-events, where these emotions and behaviours occur more naturally. The writer thus proposes that the concept of brand attachment may be a more useful one than loyalty, especially in relation to nation brands.

The advances in the branding literature and the application of these principles to nation branding as discussed so far led the writer to propose a modified hierarchy of CBBE applied to nation brands (as depicted in Figure 2.3).

All of the elements discussed thus far help to differentiate the brand from others and influence and direct the competitive positioning of the brand. In particular, as Anholt (2007b) explained, place image influences positioning and ultimately consumer behaviour towards other places. This is supported by Kotler et al. (2003), who state that place image is a clear antecedent of quality, satisfaction, decision-making and post-purchase behaviour. The following section moves beyond the formation of brand equity to describe brand differentiation and positioning, as well as three related elements that assist in the strategic nation branding process.

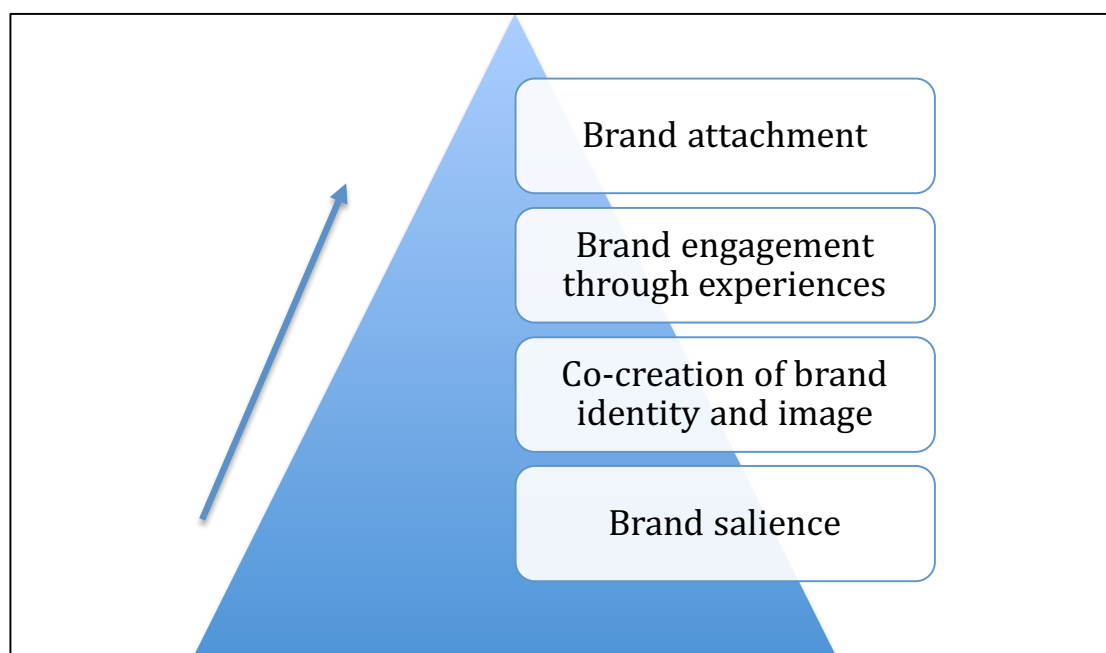


Figure 2.3: Proposed modified hierarchy of CBBE applied to nation brands

2.5 Differentiating & positioning a nation brand for competitive advantage

The essence of brand positioning is identifying and communicating a sustainable competitive advantage or unique selling proposition (Keller 2008). However, most brands share some associations with competitors. Shared associations help to establish category membership and define the scope of competition with other products and services (Keller 2008). Even if brands do not share product-related associations with other brands, they can still share more abstract associations and face indirect competition in a more broadly defined product category. A product or service category can also share a set of associations that include specific beliefs about any member in the category as well as overall attitudes towards all members in the category. This relates to the discussion by Anholt (2007a) about the 'continent brand effect',

where a lack of knowledge and awareness of individual nations means that every country on the continent ends up sharing the same associations.

While mainstream branding literature abounds with theory relating to re-imagining or re-positioning of brand image, some authors have noted that country images can be long lasting and difficult to change (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Anholt 2007b). Govers and Go (2009, p.18) referred to the “dominant image” of a place. They explained that different perceptions and projections are individual or community constructions and different individuals or communities may have different or fragmented insights. This leads to the tendency of stereotyping a place. Anholt (2010b) referred to place brands as ‘normative’ brands, which he described as people having rather fixed mental associations that will surface in any commercial interaction with a place, be it as a tourist, investor or migrant. Linked to this, Govers (2011) explained how stereotyped images are formed for places that people do not know much about: people classify associations into a particular category and assume that the category associations also apply to each member of the group. Kotler and Gertner (2002) stated that different persons and groups are likely to hold different stereotypes of nations since the mental phenomenon is inherently subjective. However, sometimes they are widespread and pervasive across elements of the same group - social cognitions, mental representations shared by members of a given society.

Country images, or knowledge structures related to places, or “place schemata”, are commonly used as “short cuts for information processing and consumer decision heuristics” (Kotler & Gertner 2002, p.251). The manner in which the media disseminate news related to an event often creates or perpetuates stereotypes (Kotler & Gertner 2002). They argued that to improve a country’s image, it might be easier to create new positive associations than try to refute old ones. However, they acknowledged that country images could be assessed and measured as well as managed and influenced by place marketers.

Similarly, Gilmore (2002) stated that active repositioning of a country through branding can be done successfully and holds great potential for countries. He argues that thoughtful brand positioning gives a country a competitive advantage over other nations. In their later work, Kotler and Gertner (2011, p.40) promote ‘strategic image management’, which they described as:

“the ongoing process of researching a place’s image among its audiences, segmenting and targeting its specific image and its demographic audiences, positioning the place’s benefits to support an existing image or create a new image, and communicating those benefits to the target audiences”.

To be effective, a desired brand image must be close to reality, believable, simple, appealing and distinctive (Kotler & Gertner 2011). Gilmore (2002) explained how the core of a country's

brand must capture the spirit of its people and how it can be developed into a brand positioning after consideration of four essential factors: macro-trends; target groups; competitors; and core competencies. Keller (2008, p.67) advocated marketing efforts that link “strong, favourable and unique” associations to the brand in the memory of the consumer. Two factors that strengthen a brand’s association with any pieces of information are its personal relevance and the consistency with which it is presented over time. Keller added that direct experiences create the strongest associations and that these are particularly influential in consumers’ decisions when they accurately interpret them. Kapferer (2012, p.130) proposed that today’s brands need to go beyond ‘relevance’ of brand associations, to create “meaningfulness” for the consumer through meeting higher-level consumer needs. Strong brand associations should therefore be meaningful to consumers and delivered consistently.

Three main tools that brand managers use to position and differentiate a country’s image include (Kotler & Gertner 2002, p.254): slogans (such as ‘Spain - Everything Under the Sun’); visual images or symbols (such as the Eiffel Tower in Paris); and events (including hallmark sport events like the Wimbledon Tennis Tournament, England). This final aspect is especially relevant to this thesis.

Besides these three, other aspects may also have a role to play in the differentiating process. ‘Design’, for example, has emerged as a critical strategic advantage for many companies, described by Montana et al. (2007, p.829) as an “unequivocal source of differentiation” and “a key element for branding”. Not only does design refer to the creation of aesthetically pleasing products and services, but it also may serve as the cohesive factor for all elements that configure a brand experience. Consumers can better understand what a brand stands for and what it does for them when all of its brand elements are consistent – which Montana et al. (2007) argue can be achieved through design. Although this has not specifically been related to nations within the theory, the writer questions whether a sport’s mega-event may provide an opportunity for design elements that are part of a nation’s identity (such as historic landmarks) and those created specifically for an event (such as iconic stadia) could be considered as part of the process of brand differentiation through design?

The following three sub-sections consider the usefulness of three applications of branding theory for nations that assist in the differentiation and positioning process.

2.5.1 A nation brand as an ‘umbrella brand’

The nation branding domain has been developed and strengthened through some direct applications of mainstream branding (both corporate and services branding). One of these is the ‘umbrella brand’, used to describe a certain type of relationship between brands. The term

'umbrella' or 'family' brand has been used in marketing theory to represent a brand applied across a range of product categories (Keller 2008, p.450).

Kotler and Gertner (2002) recommended the development of an 'umbrella nation brand' that would cover and be consistent with all of the separate branding activities of a nation. Anholt (2010a, p.4) explained that a nation brand provides "reassurance, glamour or status to the products or services that are marketed under their auspices". For example, he referred to destination or export brands as 'umbrella brands' for the various hospitality providers, attractions, national carriers or exporters that operate within the country, region or city. Govers (2011, p.227) expanded this understanding, noting that the 'umbrella brand' concept might be a useful metaphor for place brands, although cautioning that its application may be more complicated than for mainstream umbrella brands. However, Govers contended that a place brand is more than merely the sum of its associated sub-brands. Therkelsen and Halkier (2008) suggested a reason for this being that not all place brands are the same. While some may be directed at one specific functional context (e.g. tourism destination), others might span several functional contexts and aim at attracting the attention of a variety of consumers (e.g. tourists, business people, investors and residents). Nation brands would be considered in the latter type.

Therkelsen and Halkier (2008) also raised the question of whether a common place brand should be developed to represent each distinct market or whether different brands should be developed for each. While they acknowledged that communicating a uniform message about a place in a multitude of contexts should pave the way for a strong place profile that stands out among other place messages, the differences in perceived interests may be so large that they can not be meaningfully combined into one common brand. The result may therefore be:

"either a heterogeneous or a bland profile with no unique qualities that appeals to none of the target groups in particular, or a skewed profile which focuses on the interests of one sector at the expense of the others" (Therkelsen & Halkier 2008, p.160).

Although noting these challenges, the umbrella brand metaphor appears to be a useful one for nation brands. Simonin (2008, p.29) argued that in order "to be meaningful, nation branding cannot be fully decoupled from the branding activities of its sub-parts". Although not specifically mentioned, Govers (2011) articulated the application and essence of the umbrella brand concept best when he argued:

"place branding, at a higher level, should be about creating an overarching brand strategy or competitive identity that reflects a nation's, city's or region's history, accomplishments and aspirations, regardless of the markets to be served" (p.227).

Kapferer (2012, p.89) briefly illustrated the role of umbrella branding through the example of the French brand architecture. He explained that the brand architecture of France is made up of a number of components, including the 'umbrella brand'. The nation brand is said to act as

a single, umbrella brand to attract tourism, immigration and investment. However, Kapferer pointed out that on other occasions, the nation brand acts more like an 'endorser' brand, providing an endorsement of products that originate within the nation. This indicates that the application of the umbrella brand concept may be of some use to nation branding in explaining certain aspects and roles of the nation brand, although it may not be a complete metaphor for nation branding in its entirety.

Although Fan (2010) agreed that a nation brand can be regarded as an umbrella brand, he clarified that this is merely one level of its interpretation. Another 'level' that is proposed is the nation brand as a 'co-brand', as is discussed in the next section.

2.5.2 Leveraging brand associations & alliances through 'co-branding'

Brand alliances or strategic associations can be a "powerful source of reputation and image spill over effects", representing opportunities to "raise brand awareness and strengthen brand positioning" (Simonin 2008, p.31-32). Simonin (2008) proposed that these brand alliances for nations could involve or be extended to: strong and iconic brands from the private and public sectors; famous events, performances and movies; and famous celebrity spokespersons. In Chalip and Costa's (2005) analysis of the role of sports events in building destination brands, they highlighted three areas, including that of forging partnerships for co-branding the event and destination. Although this application of branding theory relates more to the discussion of the role of sport mega-events in nation branding in Chapter Three, the branding theory of this application is briefly mentioned here as a strategic branding element. Co-branding theory emerged in the mid-1990s, defined as:

"a brand alliance that involves either short-term or long-term association or a combination of two or more individual brands, products and/ or other distinctive proprietary assets" (Xing & Chalip 2006, p.52).

Co-branding also includes products that have two creators and advertise this fact through double branding, according to Kapferer (2012, p.143), who attributed its rise in more recent use to the current corporate culture of alliances, partnerships and the networked economy. Kapferer (2012, p.144-146) also stated some of the reasons given for co-branding as being: to extend the brand's reach beyond the existing target market; to communicate with a new target market; to improve perceptions of product quality; to provide a 'buzz' around the brand; and to inspire confidence in the brand. The 'complementarity' or 'fit' between the brands involved in the alliance is said to be of strategic importance (Simonin 2008; Scott et al. 2011; and Kapferer 2012).

Essentially, co-branding aims to transfer aspects of the image of the one brand to the other associated brand. This was typically investigated in sponsorship or endorsement relationships.

It is usually understood to be a mutually beneficial relationship with image transfer flowing between both or all associated brands (Xing & Chalip 2006). Simonin (2008, p.32) cautioned, however, that due to the lack of control over the partner's brand equity, brand associations are also "vulnerable and subject to brand dilution and harm".

Without labeling it co-branding, Brown et al. (2002) commented on the image transfer process, claiming that destinations seek to change their image through hosting events. While less frequently investigated and mentioned, event owners too may seek to enhance their event's brand by capitalising on a favourable host destination (Westerbeek et al. 2002, p.305). Xing and Chalip (2006) found that there was indeed a transfer of image between the event and destination brands. Heslop et al. (2013) also note that image transfers and reputational impacts of the mega-event and the host location flow both ways between the co-brands. However, Xing and Chalip (2006) noted that the image transfer might not be symmetrical, concluding that events seem to have a more substantial impact on the destinations than vice versa. They also add that knowledge of a brand may moderate the image transfer effects.

Chalip and Cost (2005) and Westerbeek and Linley (2012) cautioned that not all events have strong enough brand images to be considered for co-branding. These types of events may rather form part of a destination brand 'extension' or even as a destination brand 'feature'. These remain alternative conceptualisations for events that cannot be considered as having a strong enough co-branding potential.

Heslop et al. (2013) asserted that corporate reputation research has given no attention to reputational transfers under conditions of co-branding in the context of mega-events and host countries. They explored two Olympic events (Beijing 2008 and Vancouver 2010), using data collected on reputational images two months before and two months after each event was held. Their analysis of variance and regression model results indicated that the Beijing Olympics were not successful in reputation and image enhancement of either the Olympics brand or of China, although the Canadian mega-event outcomes were positive for both partners. It is therefore proposed that the hosting of a sport mega-event could be viewed as a co-branding opportunity.

A third element to consider is that of the stage of brand development that the nation brand finds itself in, as this impacts on the strategic branding process. The next section discusses the implications of the brand life cycle.

2.5.3 The brand life cycle

Stemming from the 'product life cycle' (PLC) metaphor, some authors (such as Kotler 1997 and Kapferer 2012) make mention of a brand life cycle concept. Products are regarded as having

a life cycle, from their introduction onto the market, their growth in consumer adoption, to a leveling-off high level of usage during the maturity phase to a possible decline stage, with each different stage involving a different strategic focus. The focus changes for each stage, with the most common approaches being creating awareness during the introduction phase, differentiation during the growth phase, maintaining customer loyalty during the maturity phase and harvesting or deleting at the decline stage (Kotler 1997, p.363). Kapferer argued that it is not as clear when it comes to brands. Brands are not merely products, and while products may in fact become outdated or enter a decline, the brand may still continue to thrive as other or new products under the same brand name continue to exist. For example, Sony was initially associated only with 'Walkman' products, but even after the decline of the 'Walkman', Sony continues to thrive as a brand due to its innovations and extensions to its products. In this way, brands are less susceptible to a life cycle than products. Similarly, Kotler (1997, p.362) distinguished between a product and brand life cycle, although did not differentiate the two when it came to the stages of the life cycle nor the strategic objectives for each stage.

Bivainiene (2010) noted a key distinction between product and brand life cycles being that the modelling of a brand's life cannot be related to sales as an essential and decisive factor, as it is with the PLC. Instead, he proposed that the stages of the brand life cycle are characterised by brand identity and image development that occur during the traditional stages of the PLC. For example, during the earlier stages, the emphasis is on brand image formation, progressing then to initial brand awareness and recognition, while at later stages this shifts to longer-term brand awareness and attachment.

However, Bivainiene (2010) admitted that just as in the case of the PLC, the brand life cycle is not a fixed or even necessarily a linear process. This is in fact a major criticism of the life cycle concept. The fact that it is difficult for marketers to know what stage the brand is in led Kotler (1997) to propose that the concept should be used to interpret market dynamics rather than as a forecasting tool, with the life cycle better viewed as a consequence of brand strategies rather than as an inevitable course that brands follow. Kapferer (2012) concedes that not all brands appear to follow a life cycle, but warns that brands that are associated merely with one product or a single version of a product are far more susceptible to a finite life cycle. It may not appear obvious to apply this life cycle concept to nation brands, and indeed there is nothing in the literature to suggest this link. However, it is a useful consideration for nations to be aware of their 'product offerings' and the benefits that accrue from a multi-product offering and innovation in product offering.

This section has discussed the key strategic branding elements and highlighted the advances in branding theory that possess relevance for nation branding. However, the

complexities and challenges of nation branding that may mitigate the effectiveness of the application of these principles is the subject of the next section.

2.6 The complexities & challenges of nation branding

The literature highlighted numerous challenges and objections that must be overcome when branding nations. Anholt (2007b) argued that although nations, regions and cities may have a brand, they cannot be branded in the same way that products and services or companies can. Morgan et al. (2002) argued that places are too complex to include in branding discussions, noting too many stakeholders; too little management control; under-developed identities; and the fact that the general public does not perceive them as brands. This section summarises and synthesises the main complexities and challenges involved in nation branding.

2.6.1 Leadership & control

The most commonly cited challenge mentioned within the place, destination and nation branding literature is that of leadership and control. Govers and Go (2009) raised the complex question of who has the right and responsibility to define a nation's identity. Pereira et al. (2012, p.93) stated that the lack of clear ownership and control has led some to believe that destination branding is a "myth and a misleading notion". Pike (2005) identified a major challenge facing destination branding as the politics involved in the decision-making process. The issue of who decides the brand theme, and how they are held accountable, are critical. Fyall and Leak (2006) noted that one of the primary frustrations for many destination marketers is their inability to control the elements of the destination product as well as the marketing surrounding those elements. They explained that marketing campaigns could be undertaken by a variety of tourist businesses with no consultation or co-ordination on the prevailing message or the destination values being promoted. Dinnie (2011, p.69) confirmed this challenge, describing destination branding as a "highly political activity". Morgan et al. (2010, p.3) even noted a criticism of place branding being that "there are too many stakeholders and too little management control". Dinnie (2011, p.70) approached this challenge from an ethical perspective, raising two key issues: firstly, "Who has the legitimacy to act as the place brand manager?"; and secondly, "Who should decide upon the brand values that underpin the brand strategy?".

The issue of 'legitimacy' includes the debate surrounding place brand ownership. Aitken and Campello (2011, p.4) stated, "A place brand by nature belongs to the place and its people". They further explained that place branding is dependent on the relationships with its community, people, landscape, companies, consumers and stakeholders. Although a generic list of legitimate stakeholders is not defined in the literature, the following typical roles of key place brand stakeholders are mentioned (Anholt 2007a, p.73; Scott et al. 2011, p.230):

- Tourist boards: promote the country and its various destinations to holidaymakers and business travellers);
- Chambers of commerce or investment promotion agencies: promote the country to foreign companies and investors;
- Cultural institutes: build cultural relations with other countries and promotes the country's cultural and educational products and services;
- Exporters: promote their products and services abroad; and
- Ministry of Foreign Affairs: presents its policies to overseas publics in the best possible light, and sometimes attempts to manage the national reputation as a whole; and
- Government agencies: from a variety of sectors such as mining, agriculture and sport, who have a vested interest in the nation brand.

Besides these roles, in many countries, there may be other bodies, agencies, ministries, special interest groups, NGOs and companies all conducting a form of nation branding (Anholt 2007a). Scott et al. (2011) identified the attempt to accommodate this diverse group of stakeholders as a major challenge.

Although a number of stakeholders may be involved in nation branding, Anholt (2007a) lays the primary responsibility for this on government. Govers and Go (2009, p.14) also explained, "the people who create place (or nation) brands (or at least those who decide on what should or should not be created, stimulated or applied) are often working in government or semi-governmental organisations". They also noted an overlap with tourism and destination branding as, typically, destination marketing organisations (DMO) are involved.

Anholt (2007a) criticised the general lack of coordination with which nation branding is conducted, explaining that most of these bodies, official and unofficial, national and regional, political and commercial, are usually working in isolation. As a result, they send out conflicting and even contradictory messages about the country, so that no consistent picture of the country emerges, and its overall reputation. He argued that far more can be achieved if the work of these stakeholders is coordinated, of consistently high quality, and harmonised to an overall national strategy that sets clear goals for the country's economy, its society and its political and cultural relations with other countries. Anholt further argued that this is a role that none of the conventional disciplines of public diplomacy or sectoral promotion are able to perform alone.

Given that place brand stakeholders often comprise an "infinite number of groups and individuals" (Dinnie, 2011, p.69), a further challenge identified is the need for consensus. Polunin (2002, p.3) argued that if nation branding is to work, "there must be a common cause

and consensus” among stakeholders. Polunin claimed that the long process of consulting, co-opting and involving stakeholders, followed by distilling from their input the essence of a place’s personality, is “probably the toughest part” of nation branding (p.3). Pike (2005) explained that there is a fine balance to be struck between community consensus and brand theory and that a top-down approach to destination brand implementation is likely to fail. Critically, DMOs lack any direct control over the actual delivery of the brand promise by the local tourism community. Without buy-in from these stakeholders the strategy will fail.

Partnerships are therefore crucial to the success of destination brands (Morgan et al. 2010, p.xxv): “the brand must be owned across the destination and everyone from town planners and architects to retailers and transport companies must play a part in it”. “A synergetic interaction, unity and collaboration” among stakeholders is what Pereira et al. (2012, p.93) called for. Morgan et al. (2010, p.xxv) described the role of the “brand steward” who is tasked with keeping the brand development on track and ensure that the brand adoption and implementation runs through every aspect of the DMOs and its stakeholders’ marketing and activities. However, the external environment is still a challenging and uncontrollable area for the brand steward.

A further challenge for place branding is the heterogeneous interests of the diverse group of stakeholders, as noted by Pike (2005) and Fyall (2011). Counter to a market orientation where products are designed to suit market needs, DMOs are forced into targeting a multiplicity of geographic markets to attract a wide range of segments that might be interested in the existing and relatively rigid products. Allan (2011, p.81) explained that these stakeholders have “very different purposes, responsibilities, goods and services, with very different and potentially competing service and product brands”. However, Allan (2011, p.82) implied that the focus should rather be on what unites them, namely “their shared desire to improve their place, how it operates and what it offers to consumers and investors”.

In order to address these leadership challenges, Allan (2011) advocated a shared brand leadership. Similarly, Fyall (2011, p.94) depicted destinations as “collaborative networks”. While he (2011, p.92) admitted, “the need to ‘collaborate’, ‘partner’ or simply ‘work together’ is not unique to tourism destination management”, he advocated collaboration as a necessity for destinations to survive in the face of increasing competition and environmental challenges. Furthermore, Govers and Go (2009, p.17) proposed that place branding could actually be viewed as an opportunity to mobilise value-adding partnerships and networks among public and private actors in order to build a coherent product offering (which includes tourism, trade, temporary employment and investment opportunities).

With the lack of control and diverse leadership of a nation brand noted as a significant challenge, a further challenge is related to the substance of what the brand leadership communicates and how this relates to reality or experience.

2.6.2 Brand authenticity

Olins (2002) warned that nation branding could be counter-productive if it wasn't rooted in fact. Anholt (2003, p.12) echoed this sentiment, emphasising to nation brand stakeholders that "actions speak louder than words" and "don't talk unless you have something to say". Hornskov (2011, p.105) observed that authenticity has for some time been looked at with considerable scepticism. However, he noted that authenticity continues to be strategically vital, and has become even more important in the global, cluttered market of place brands. The notion of 'authenticity' is however problematic, as it is subjective, socially constructed and varies according to a person's point of view (Dinnie 2011, p.71).

Govers and Go (2009, p.9) examined the tension between "cultural identity and commercial interest". They explained that there is often a desire within the cultural community and public sector to project imagery that represents an authentic identity of place, whereas commercial actors are keen to stage desirable activities, or convenient commodities for consumption. This tension has led to a criticism of place branding as "an exploitative process", seeking to commodify the "multilayered richness of a place's culture and history" (Dinnie 2011, p.71).

Anholt (2003, p.12) explained authenticity as "the consumer's constant search for trustworthiness, character and distinctiveness". Similarly, Keller (2008, p.68) provided three dimensions of authenticity or credibility of a brand, namely:

- perceived expertise: competency, innovation, market leadership;
- trustworthiness: dependability and keeping customers in mind; and
- likeability: fun, interesting and worth spending time with.

Authenticity is also mentioned in explanations of place brand strategy involving more than the design of a memorable logo and catchy tag line (Allan 2011; Hornskov 2011). Allan (2011, p.81) alluded to authenticity in describing place brand strategy rather as "telling consumers the story of the offer and experience of the place" - as it has been, as it is and as it is desired to be in the future.

Relating to the authenticity of nation brands, Olins (2002) mentioned that when countries change, it can take quite a long time for damaging, left-over stereotypes to disappear. He further stated that place branding works when it projects and reinforces a changing reality.

Commodification and authenticity are important issues within tourism study. Interestingly, it is also an overlapping area in sport tourism research. Higham and Hinch (2009, p.145-158) devoted a chapter in their 'Sport and Tourism' book to the subject of authenticity as part of the sport tourism experience. They explained that both the tourism and sport industries are concerned at ever-increasing 'commodification'. Critics within tourism suggest that through "selling landscapes and culture" a destination is "sacrificing part of its soul" (Higham & Hinch 2009, p.147). They explained that sport, too, is experiencing perceived commodification by many critics who hold a similar view regarding the increasing professionalisation and commercialisation of sport.

What then of the role of sport tourism events? Do events facilitate commodification or rather do they aid authentic brand image perceptions for a host nation? Higham and Hinch (2009, p.145) referred to one of the fundamental criticisms of tourism being that it may lead to "pseudo-events that fail to reflect the true culture of a place". For example, a highly commercialised sport mega-event, such as a FIFA World Cup, could be criticised as an event that does not reflect the authenticity of the host nation's culture and indeed aids the commodification of both sport and tourism in the host nation. Critics refer to the destination becoming "a stage featuring performances by hosts who are removed from their real lives, their real homes and their real culture" (Higham & Hinch 2009, p.145). However, Higham and Hinch (2009) robustly defend the ability of sport-based attractions to in fact reflect authentic values, emotions and culture of a host society. They assert that sport-based tourism attractions have "unique qualities that facilitate authentic tourism experiences", mainly: the uncertainty of outcomes; the role of athletic display; the kinaesthetic nature of sport activities; and the tendency for strong engagements in sport (Higham & Hinch 2009, p.158).

This section clearly revealed that authenticity is a contentious debate within the nation branding discourse. However it also indicated that sport events might facilitate authentic experiences for sport tourists that would lead to more authentic brand image perceptions of the host nation. Related to the authenticity challenge is the broader issue of communication and the various new forms or channels of communication.

2.6.3 Communication & the digital challenge

Govers and Go (2009, p.17) identified communication as a critical element of place branding. Scott et al. (2011, p.230) noted, "Communicating a coherent image of a country is a difficult and complex process as a result of continual rearrangement of a country's attributes due to uncontrolled and uncontrollable events". This links with the previous challenge of 'control', already discussed. Revealing the importance of communication within strategic nation branding, Anholt (2003, p.11) in his definition of nation branding mentioned earlier, added the

need to “ensure that this (strategic) vision is supported, reinforced and enriched by every act of communication between the country and the rest of the world.”

Fan (2010, p.103) also recognised the importance of communication as part of nation branding. He explained that for a nation to change its brand image, it first needs to change its behaviour, but then, equally, important, it needs to tell the world about these changes. Communication therefore seems an integral part of aligning consumer perceptions with brand realities. These acts of communication may be in many varied forms though, from the kinds of brands which the country exports; the way it promotes itself for trade, tourism, inward investment and inward recruitment; the way it behaves in acts of domestic and foreign policy and the ways in which these acts are communicated; the way it promotes and represents and shares its culture; the way its citizens behave when abroad and how they treat strangers at home; the way it features in the world’s media; the bodies and organisations it belongs to; the countries it associates with; the way it competes with other countries in sport and entertainment; to what it gives to the world and what it takes back (Anholt 2003). Anholt (2003) explained that if done well, such a strategy can make a huge difference to both the internal confidence and the external performance of a country.

Linked with this communication challenge is the changing nature of consumer communication methods, particularly the evolving digital communication means. Munro and Richards (2011), in their paper entitled ‘The digital challenge’, explained that customers are engaging in more meaningful relationships with brands and demanding that brands humanise and personalise their communications with them. The paper described how digital communication channels have driven a radical shift in customer behaviour, arguing that customers now play a far more active role in shaping the dialogue with a brand and, ultimately, its reputation. Munro and Richards (2011, p.141) described this ‘new’ media (social media and its associated communication methods such as blogs and social networking) as being characterised by “openness, conversations, community and connectedness”. In this collaborative environment, the challenge for place brand marketers is therefore to harness these resources and mobilise them to fulfill their marketing objectives (Munro & Richards 2011, p.145).

Pride (2011) detailed a case study of the marketing of the nation brand of Wales. The central theme of the paper and title was the communication challenge, reflected in its title as the ‘Tone-of-voice challenge’. Pride (2011, p.138) concluded that a “distinctive tone of voice and engaging style” would help make people more willing to listen and respond to brand communications. He further raised the issue of the target market of brand communications, concluding that in the case of Wales, there needed to be an improvement in the communication

of the brand internally (to the people of Wales). He argued that too often the brand communication is focused exclusively on external markets, but advocates that the internal communication should be aimed at building a solid foundation of support for the brand story internally and thereby creating brand ambassadors who will help convey the story to outsiders.

While the centrality of communication in nation branding is evident and the challenge of communication tools is noted, a different aspect of communication is related to how and when messages are communicated - which leads to the following challenge of ethics and sustainability.

2.6.4 Ethics & sustainability

According to Dinnie (2011, p.69), the ethical challenges facing destination branding are “numerous and wide-ranging”. He explained that the ethical challenges are primarily a result of some of the other challenges highlighted already in this chapter, chiefly the stakeholder designation and brand leadership. While still advocating for brand management, Dinnie (2011, p.70) raised the important observation that the “days of total management control of a brand are largely over” for both consumer as well as place brands. This is mostly attributed to the increasing access that consumers have to information and choice, as well as the opportunity to convey their sentiments and experiences more widely and easily through digital and social media. Dinnie raised the ethical issue of democracy within place brand management. Linking with the earlier discussion on the leadership challenges, he advocated that place brand leaders act democratically, co-operating with residents and other role players. Furthermore, the brand strategy should not be imposed “top-down”, but rather evolve “bottom-up” (p.71). This approach should seek to benefit the general public rather than merely the interests of decision-makers.

Linked with the ethical management of place brands is the challenge of sustainability. Dinnie (2011, p.69) noted the importance of managing the place brand in such a way that it follows “a sustainable development trajectory” as perhaps the most significant ethical challenge. Despite the challenge of sustainability, he also noted that sustainability provides an opportunity for destinations to differentiate themselves. With consumers’ increasing awareness of environmental issues, destinations will need to “highlight their green credentials” as part of their brand identity (Dinnie 2011, p.76).

The final challenge discussed draws the attention once again to a strategic assessment of nation branding, the crucial elements of measurement and evaluation.

2.6.5 Evaluation & measurement of nation branding

Hildreth (2011, p.156) claimed that trying to measure the overall image of a place is “folly” and trying to compare the overall images of a number of places is “hopelessly problematic”. However, Hildreth (2011, p.156) gave a useful and succinct understanding of the measurement of the overall brand strength of a place as being “a summation of the number, type, quality and positivity of associations people have of a place”.

There are a number of different published surveys that rank city and nation brands, according to their market perceptions. While these may offer useful insights, revealing trends, challenges and opportunities for a place brand, they are criticised as not “uniformly useful” and “must be interpreted carefully and critically” (Hildreth 2011, p.165). The Anholt-GfK Roper ‘Nation Brand Index’ and the FutureBrand ‘Country Brand Index’ (CBI) are the most widely recognised measurements and benchmarking tools of a country’s global brand equity. Although they produce different outcomes and rankings, a strength of these surveys is that the results can be compared to reveal trends over time (Hildreth 2011).

This section highlighted the lack of clarity and consistency within the evaluation and measurement of nation branding activities. The lack of standardised or agreed upon measurement criteria and methods has raised important methodological challenges for researchers within this field. This is a topic that is discussed further in Chapter Four.

2.7 Summary

This chapter began by investigating the definition of brand and branding, as well as discussing the components of strategic brand equity development. The application of branding to places, destinations and nations was discussed, with a conceptualisation of the differences and influences of these related yet distinct elements proposed. The discussion then integrated recent developments within the branding literature with nation branding theory, ultimately proposing a modified hierarchy of nation brand equity formation. The nation branding metaphor was expanded to include the ‘umbrella brand’ and the ‘co-brand’ concepts.

The chapter finally looked more specifically at the challenges facing place brand management. These challenges were synthesized and summarised as:

- Leadership and control;
- Brand authenticity;
- Communication and the digital challenge;
- Ethics and sustainability; and

- Evaluation and measurement.

Although the chapter has alluded to sport mega-events possessing characteristics that may aid nation branding development in some way, the following chapter discusses the contribution of sport mega-events to nation branding in greater detail. The question is raised as to the ways in which sport mega-events are able to address these challenges that face nation brands and assist in the development of strategic brand equity for nations.

Chapter Three: Sport mega-events & their legacies

3.1 Introduction

This chapter continues the review of key theoretical perspectives, but moves from the discussion on nation branding to the context of sport mega-events and their potential to create a nation branding legacy. Once again, the review follows a 'funnel' design, beginning with broader discussions relating to the development of the sport tourism literature that gave rise to the study of sport mega-event impacts and legacies. The chapter reveals the opportunities created for nation branding among other key developments within the literature, such as the emphasis on 'leveraging' event impacts. A synthesis of the literature leads to the proposal of a set of specific characteristics related to sport mega-events that create the potential for nation branding.

3.2 The development of sport tourism

The study of sport mega-events and their legacies resides within the sport tourism body of knowledge. Increasing attention has been given to sport tourism from both the sport and tourism fields and from academics since the mid-1990s (Gibson 2006), with. The following sections clarify the context of sport and tourism and how these two semi-related areas overlap to form sport tourism.

3.2.1 The context of sport

In order to clarify the sport-related context of this study, this section sets out the core characteristics of sport that are of relevance to this study. Sport can broadly be defined 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” (Standeven & De Knop 1999, p.12).

This definition is rather broad and includes a wide array of different activities, pursued with different motives in mind and in different contexts. Some make the distinction here between 'sport' and 'physical recreation', while others see both as sport (Weed & Bull 2009). Weed and Bull (2009) traced these definitional uncertainties to sport's historical development. They contend that the term 'sport' has been socially constructed and has acquired different meanings at different times in its historical development as well as in different societies. For example, many contemporary, highly organised sports were at one time pursued in a very informal and unregulated manner, and are possibly still pursued in such a manner in different parts of the world.

Hinch and Higham (2001) explored the sociological origins of sport and concluded that it can be seen as being more than merely physical activity or active pursuits. They highlighted the 'ludic' nature of sport - a term derived from the Latin word '*ludus*', meaning 'play' or 'game' - and explain that this derivation conveys the ideas of "uncertainty of outcome" and "sanctioned display" (p.48). This uncertain nature of sport results in its ability to create excitement. 'Competition' is also seen as a defining characteristic of sport, although it is presented as a continuum ranging from recreational to elite (Hinch & Higham 2001).

Sport as a 'sanctioned display' broadens the realm of sport involvement to include spectatorship alongside participation. While sport participation has generally referred to those who actively take part in sport, Weed and Bull (2009) supported Hinch and Higham (2001) in arguing that this must include those that observe sport as well. Weed and Bull (2009) maintain that spectators make an important contribution to sport and may be equally motivated in their commitment as an active participant. Furthermore, spectators have had an important influence on the nature and development of sport itself, as those sports with significant numbers of spectators have developed to accommodate them, influencing both the way sport is played and the environment in which this occurs (Weed & Bull 2009).

Sport in recent decades has transcended the boundary from being considered as an active leisure pass-time to being recognised as having considerable social and economic influence in contemporary society (Standeven & De Knop 1999). Cornelissen (2007, p.243) refers to this as "the wholesome commercialisation that global sport has experienced over the past 30 years". This is especially seen in the deliberate restructuring of major sport sectors toward the goal of profit generation, most discernible in the FIFA World Cup finals and the Olympic Games - the two most important sport events for their magnitude, in terms of levels of spectatorship and financial value (Cornelissen 2007).

3.2.2 The conceptualisation of sport tourism as a field of study

Although there are many varied definitions of tourism, the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) defines tourism as:

"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 the exercise of activity remunerated from within the place visited" (1991, cited in Turco et al. 2002, p.17).

While this definition is rather restrictive, the British Tourist Authority, now known as 'Visit Britain', defined tourism using a far broader definition that encompasses an array of activities that the tourist undertakes, namely as:

“the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, and their activities during the stay at these destinations; it includes movement for all purposes as well as day visits and excursions” (Weed & Bull 2009, p.60).

A common dimension of these and other tourism definitions concerns the purpose or the activities engaged in during travel. For example, most definitions focus on leisure pursuits (of which sport forms a subset) as the primary travel activity (Hinch & Higham 2001; Weed & Bull 2009). Zauhar (2003) confirmed that sport has been a great motivator for travel and tourism throughout history.

It is therefore evident that sport is an important activity within tourism and tourism is a fundamental characteristic of sport. The earliest definitions of sport tourism, such as the one by Hall and Hodges (1997) link very easily with the commonly accepted definitions of tourism, emphasising travel, with a sport-related intention. Standeven and De Knop (1999, p.12) elaborated on this definition to reflect the changing nature of professional sport. They therefore included travel for sport-related activities that may be strictly-speaking non-tourist activities, such as professional sports people and those involved in the delivery of sports activities as their vocation as well as those enjoying these activities as part of their recreation.

More of a framework than a definition per se, Gammon and Robinson (2004) took a different approach to defining sport tourism, choosing to focus on consumer motivations. They categorised ‘sport tourism’ and ‘tourism sport’ as both having a ‘hard’ and a ‘soft’ definition (p.4). The hard definition of sport tourism includes active or passive participation at a competitive sporting event, where sport and participation at sport events is the prime motivation for travel. The competitive nature of these events is the distinguishing factor for the hard definition, whereas the soft definition includes travel for primarily active recreational participation in a chosen sport, for example skiing and cycling holidays. Tourism sport, however, includes participation in, actively or passively, a competitive or recreational sport as a secondary activity (the holiday or visit being the primary motivational reason for travel). The hard definition refers to the use of sport as a secondary enrichment to a holiday (passive or active). The soft definition involves visitors who as a minor part of their trip engage in some form of sport on a purely incidental basis. (See the full definitions in Table 3.1).

Although similar to these definitions, Gibson (2006) offers a more elaborate definition for the overlapping niche area of ‘sport tourism’, recognising three distinct areas and defining sport tourism as:

“leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities (active sport tourism), to watch physical activities (event sport tourism), or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities (nostalgia sport tourism)” (p.2).

Active sport tourism includes all those that travel to certain destinations specifically to participate in, officiate in or assist in any way in the production of a sport event or activity. Event sport tourism refers specifically to those that travel as spectators, be it as fans/ supporters or casual observers. Gammon and Robinson (2004) referred to these two aspects as (conventional) sport tourism. Gibson (2006) adds the third aspect, 'nostalgia', or as Turco et al. (2002, p.2) label it, 'celebratory' sport tourism, to include those that travel to reminisce, appreciate or educate themselves about sport or sport events (e.g. visiting sport stadiums or museums). This third aspect would usually fit with what Gammon and Robinson (2004) refer to as 'tourism sport'.

Table 3.1: The development of sport tourism definitions (in chronological order)	
Source:	Definition:
Hall & Hodges (1997, p.194)	Travel for non-commercial reasons to participate or observe sporting activities away from the home range
Standeven and De Knop (1999, p.12)	All forms of active and passive involvement in sporting activity, participated in casually or in an organised way for noncommercial or business/commercial reasons, that necessitate travel away from home and work locality
Gammon and Robinson (2004, p.4)	<p><i>Sport Tourism</i></p> <p>Individuals and/or groups of people who actively or passively participate in competitive or recreational sport, whilst travelling to and/or staying in places outside their usual environment.</p> <p>Hard Definition:</p> <p>Those individuals who actively or passively participate at a competitive sporting event. Someone who specifically travels to and/or stays in places outside their usual environment for either active or passive involvement in competitive sport. In this case sport is their prime motivation for travel and would encompass participation at sporting events e.g. the Olympic Games, Football World Cup. The competitive nature of these events is the distinguishing factor.</p> <p>Soft Definition:</p> <p>Someone who specifically travels to and/or stays in places outside their usual environment for primarily active recreational participation in a chosen sport; for example skiing and cycling holidays. The active recreational elements are the distinguishing factors here.</p> <p><i>Tourism Sport</i></p> <p>Persons travelling to and/or staying in places outside</p>

	<p>their usual environment and participating in, actively or passively, a competitive or recreational sport as a secondary activity.</p> <p>Hard Definition:</p> <p>Holidaymakers who use sport as a secondary enrichment to their holiday (passive or active). Competitive or non-competitive sport may be applied. Sport will act as a secondary reinforcement to their vacation.</p> <p>Soft Definition:</p> <p>Visitors who as a minor part of their trip engage in some form of sport on a purely incidental basis.</p>
Gibson (2006, p.2)	<p>Leisure-based travel that takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in physical activities (active sport tourism), to watch physical activities (event sport tourism), or to venerate attractions associated with physical activities (nostalgia sport tourism).</p>
Weed and Bull (2009, p.63)	<p>... arising from the unique interaction of activity, people and place</p>

While earlier definitions tended to conceptualise sport tourism as the sum of the parts of sport and tourism, more recent advances in the literature contend that sport tourism is far more than this - a synergistic phenomenon that cannot be understood as simply a tourism market niche or a subset of sports management (Weed & Bull 2009). The final definition in Table 3.1 is an example of this advance and is of particular interest to the scope of this study. It broadly notes the unique interaction of activity, people and place that, the writer proposes, results in unique opportunities and benefits for a sport event tourism host community.

This understanding appears to be based upon Hinch and Higham's (2001) three-dimensional definition of sport tourism (which was based on Leiper's attraction framework). These dimensions are: activity; spatial; and temporal. Sport is positioned as the activity dimension thereby highlighting its relationship to tourism's spatial and temporal dimensions. The spatial dimension includes aspects of location, region and landscape, while the temporal dimension refers to duration, seasonality and evolution. Using this construct, the relationship between sport and tourism becomes clearer. For example, a sport event provides the attraction, which is closely linked with a stadium, city or nation (spatial dimension) at a specific point in time or over a period of time (temporal dimension). The three areas of interaction - people, places and activities - form the structure for looking at sport tourism in further detail:

- People

Based on the sport tourism definitions, sport tourists can be defined. Gammon and Robinson (2004) distinguished sport tourists by the activities they undertake while travelling

and by their primary or secondary motivation to engage in sports while travelling. Travel to a destination may not only primarily be for sport. Tourists may be attracted by the destination's attractions and therefore fit the sporting activities into their plans to visit the destination (Turco et al. 2002). Sport therefore becomes a supplemental or secondary attraction that can further satisfy visitors' needs, extend their length of stay and stimulate economic activity (Turco et al. 2002, p.1). For the purposes of this study, the broader definition by Turco et al. (2002, p.4) is accepted, which defines sport tourists as "visitors to a destination for the purpose of participating, viewing or celebrating sport".

- Place

The sport tourism place or 'setting' (Kurtzman & Zauhar 1997) refers to the particular environment or specific facilities that are required for the activities to take place (Weed & Bull 2009). According to the framework developed by Hinch and Higham (2001, p.53), places form part of the 'spatial' dimension that includes locations, regions and landscapes. Kurtzman and Zauhar (1997) described the types of environments where sport tourism occurs as: human-made settings (e.g. stadiums, museums, cruise boats); social settings (e.g. bars, restaurants, fan parks, cities); economic settings (e.g. trade shows, conventions); natural settings (e.g. mountains, lakes, beaches, rivers); and cultural settings (e.g. rodeos in Texas, bullfights in Spain).

Weed and Bull (2009, p.64) argued that it is the location of the activity in an unusual place that contributes to the uniqueness of the sport tourism experience. Weed and Bull (2009) offered two broad perspectives on settings. The first relates to the physical characteristics and spatial patterns of sport tourism places, similar to Kurtzman and Zauhar's typology above, while the second adds to this the way in which such places are perceived and culturally appraised. The cultural appraisal perspective relates to the perceived quality of the location or setting, and more specifically, the utility of places and the desirability of the environment.

- Activities

Kurtzman and Zauhar (1997) categorised sport tourism activities into five unique areas, namely: resorts; cruises; attractions; tours; and events. Events are the most common type of sport tourism activity. These include a range of sporting events from small scale to hallmark and mega-events (see the following section for a clarification of event types). Sport tourism can also serve as a supplemental, secondary or peripheral attraction within host communities, used to further satisfy visitors' needs, extend their length of stay and stimulate economic activity (Turco et al. 2002, p.3).

Sport and tourism have become significant economic activities both in the developed and developing world (Swart & Bob 2007) and sport tourism makes an important contribution to local and national economies (Deery & Jago 2006). Globally, the sport tourism industry has seen significant growth over the past two decades (Cornelissen 2007, p.256). Cornelissen (2007) explains this as a result of both the development of international tourism and the commercial expansion of sport. The sport tourism industry is defined by Turco et al. (2002, p.23) as:

“all the people, places and activities that influence and are impacted by sport tourists. It is the collections of business, institutions, resources and people servicing sport tourists”.

Sport tourism has become a popular niche market, internationally recognised for its ability to reach and impact various parts of the world because of its global nature (Turco et al. 2002; Getz 2003; Neirotti 2003; Swart & Bob 2007). Tourism and sport managers have begun to realise the significance of the potential of sport tourism and are aggressively pursuing this as a niche market (Neirotti 2003). The ‘First World Conference on Sport and Tourism’, held jointly by the UNWTO and the International Olympic Committee (IOC) in Barcelona in 2001, revealed a number of trends at the time. The conference indicated that sport and tourism were gaining popularity and growing in demand worldwide. Of particular relevance to this study, it indicated that destinations are able to develop by reaping economic, socio-cultural and other positive benefits from hosting sport tourism events (UNWTO/ IOC, 2002).

This section has established the area of confluence between sport and tourism, noting the unique interaction between people (including spectators and participants), place (including nations) and activity (of which sport events form a major component). The following section clarifies the context of sport mega-events and their impacts.

3.3 Sport event tourism & the study of sport mega-events

This section clarifies the development and conceptualisation of sport event tourism, and then sport mega-events, within the study context.

3.3.1 Sport event tourism

Comprising a major segment of the sport tourism industry, sport events have become an increasingly important component of global tourism economies (Cornelissen 2007). Kotze (2006) stated that by the end of the 20th century, event tourism had emerged as one of the fastest-growing components of the leisure market. The second half of the twentieth century saw the rapid advancement of sport event tourism, with Weed and Bull (2009, p.11) listing a number of influences for this, including: increasing personal wealth; increasing leisure time;

improving transportation; changing attitudes and values (related to leisure and travel); globalisation; corporate capitalism; and the advancement of global media (especially the coverage of sports events). In particular, Weed and Bull (2009) attributed the development of sport mega-event tourism to the advancement of commercialisation and globalisation and the influence of these on sport professionalism.

Events are an important motivator of tourism, and figure prominently in the development and marketing plans of most destinations (Getz 2003). Although event tourism includes art festivals and cultural activities as well as sport events, the latter have played a key role in the growth of the event industry. Several studies have explored and conceptualised the role of sport events in destination branding: Brown et al. (2002) examined the role of events in destination branding for Australia. Similarly, Jago et al. (2003) noted the important role that sport events play in destination branding. Their study, based on interviews with leading destination and event marketers, concluded that further research was required into the best means to use events to build a destination's brand. Chalip and Costa (2005) also emphasised the strategic use of sport event tourism in destination branding. Westerbeek and Linley (2012) specifically explored the use of events to assist the development of city brands. A synthesis of the key findings and conclusions from these studies are set out below:

- Events portfolio: A strong event portfolio is recommended as it is viewed as an important means of creating long-lasting positive impressions about a destination and its image (Brown et al. 2002; Chalip & Costa 2005; Westerbeek & Linley 2012).
- Event 'fit': Destination managers need to carefully select events based on the desired 'fit' or compatibility between the event and the destination image (Brown et al. 2002). Jago et al. (2003) added to this the consideration of cultural synergy as well as other strategic types of 'fit'. This is also explored as part of event and destination 'co-branding' effects (Chalip & Costa 2005; Westerbeek & Linley 2012).

These studies also identified particular characteristics of events that aid successful destination branding, such as:

- Longevity: Re-occurring events become more associated with a place over time (Brown et al. 2002). Jago et al. (2003) added that 'tradition' also plays a role in the image of long-standing events.
- Community support: Events that have strong support in their host communities are more successful as image-makers as they create excitement, gain media attention, promote the event and have an impact on community identity formation (Brown et al. 2002; Jago et al. 2003).

- Professionalism of organisation: The perceived expertise and management success of the event is transferred to the destination image (Brown et al. 2002).
- Media coverage: This is viewed as essential in the role the events play in destination branding. Media management is required (Brown et al. 2002; Jago et al. 2003).

Sport tourism events comprise those events in which the primary purpose for travel is participating in or viewing sport (Turco et al. 2002, p.74). Turco et al. (2002) confirmed that sport tourism events are globally significant in terms of their ability to generate popular appeal and that this strategy is used by communities to attract investment. As a result, interest in hosting sport events has increased worldwide as destinations aim to reap economic, socio-cultural and other benefits from hosting such events. Getz (2003) provided an explanation of sport event tourism from a supply side (from the destination's perspective) as, "the development and marketing of sports events to obtain community benefits". Examples of these types of benefits are examined in section 3.4, but first a clarification of sport mega-events is required.

3.3.2 Defining sport mega-events

There are many types of events that vary in size and impact. The largest of these levels is the 'mega-event' (Weed & Bull 2009), although there is no consensus in the literature as to what precisely defines a 'mega-event'. Sometimes interchangeably referred to as 'hallmark' or 'special' events, the distinction between these terms is not always easy to determine. However, the term 'mega-event' does appear to be consistently used in the more recent literature, with a pattern emerging of its key distinguishing features. The key characteristics of a sport mega-event in the literature were identified as the following:

- Media coverage: A distinction is often made on the basis of the target audience/ market and the type of media interest involved (Weed & Bull 2009). A central feature of contemporary mega-events is that they attract considerable media coverage and publicity at an international level (Hall & Hodges 1997; Westerbeek et al. 2002; Horne & Manzenreiter 2006). As an example of the media coverage, the 2010 FIFA World Cup featured 400 media broadcasters and over 15,000 journalists that attended the event (Emmett 2010). There were more than 200 hours of television coverage, with more than 700 million television viewers watching the final of the event alone (Du Toit-Helmbold 2011). These figures do not account for the coverage by independent and new media broadcasters. In terms of television audiences, over 700 million people tuned in to watch the FIFA World Cup final (Cape Town Tourism 2010).
- Visitor numbers: Westerbeek et al. (2002) referred to high levels of tourism generated by a mega-event. More specifically, Hall and Hodges (1997, p.3) described mega-

events as 'distinctive', identified by the volume of visitors they attract, which they propose to be over one million, although this figure has not been substantiated or supported by others.

- Prestige and symbolism: Getz (2003) claimed that mega-events are loaded with tradition. Both Getz (2003) and Westerbeek et al. (2002) explained that mega-events have a distinctive level of prestige associated with them. Hall and Hodges (1997) referred to the psychological impact on attendees, that is, whether or not they are 'must-see' events. Similarly, Lepp and Gibson (2011, p.214) referred to the Olympic Games and FIFA World Cups as "global spectacles imbued with significant symbolic capital".
- Technical competencies: Westerbeek et al. (2002) identified that for the hosting of mega-events, superior technical competencies are required compared to other event types. This is usually in the form of infrastructure requirements and technical hosting requirements such as new facilities, stadia and tourism services.
- Large number and diversity of stakeholders: In order to stage a mega-event such as a FIFA World Cup, a large and complex set of diverse stakeholders are involved. Westerbeek et al. (2002) identified the conspicuous involvement of national and regional government authorities. Weed and Bull (2009, p.180) noted that the provision of sport event tourism opportunities may be undertaken by the commercial (private business) or public sectors (government), or by a partnership between the two. In most cases, sports organisations are involved. In many cases, and especially in the case of sport mega-events, a 'voluntary' sector is also involved. Partnership between the public, commercial and voluntary sectors is imperative (Weed & Bull 2009, p.180).

Westerbeek et al. (2002) identified that broad support from both direct and indirect stakeholders is central to hosting a mega-event. Explaining the inter-related partnerships, Weed and Bull (2009, p.181) stated that government support is essential to winning the bid to stage the event, but in today's political and economic environment, they would not consider staging a wholly publicly funded mega-event. The public/commercial sector's involvement is required, usually in the form of sponsorship, management expertise, facility provision and equipment supply. In addition, the voluntary sports sector, through sports governing bodies, will be required to oversee the technical side of the sports competition. Although the provision of mega-events involves the partnership between these sectors, the initial impetus to bid for a mega-event will usually come from the city or country government/ public sector or in the case of individual sports, from the national governing body for that sport (Weed & Bull 2009, p.181).

Sport mega-events provide an opportunity for different economic sectors to work together. For example, Cornelissen (2007) proposes that the hosting of sport mega-events constitute occasions where the overlay between sport and tourism sectors, and the various activities of production and consumption that underpin them, can be cultivated. Employment creation, the development of tourism related infrastructure (e.g. airports, roads, stadiums, sporting complexes and hotels) and the promotion of specific sport destination brands are all associated with such events (Cornelissen 2007).

- **Competitive bidding process:** Bidding for sport mega-events has become increasingly competitive as more and more countries are bidding for and hosting events. As an example, the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa represented the first sport mega-event to be hosted on the African continent. Similarly, in recent years, countries less commonly associated with sport mega-events, such as China (2008 Olympic Games); Brazil (2014 FIFA World Cup and 2017 Olympic Games) and Russia (2014 winter Olympic Games and 2018 FIFA World Cup) have won competitive global bids to host.
- **Government policy instrument:** Hosting sport mega-events has become an object of policy for an increasing number of states in the world, either as a means to access global capital, to enliven national economies, or to gain international visibility in some ways (Cornelissen 2007, p.242). Sport event tourism has therefore emerged as a major policy instrument for governments seeking to market their cities or nation and boost local business as a result (Weed & Bull 2009). The degree to which politics and spectacle can be combined in an elaborate exhibition and deployment of host resources, culture and other facets of distinction has made sport mega-events an important instrument for policy-makers (Cornelissen 2007).

Another key feature of sport mega-events is that they are deemed to have significant consequences or impacts for the host city, region or nation in which they occur (Horne & Manzreiter 2006). These specific impacts and legacies of such events are clarified in the following section.

3.4 The impact, legacy and leveraging of sport mega-events

The decade beginning in 2000 ushered in a “systematic and theoretically grounded line of comprehensive event impact research” (Getz 2012, p.178). Dickinson and Shipway (2007) explained that the study of event impacts has been driven by a need to examine the positive and negative impacts of hosting events in order to justify public spending on events and a need to leverage the best possible benefits for communities that host events, often termed the ‘legacy’. They further described the event impact literature to date as “rather piecemeal”, with

a solid body of comparative evidence being slow to develop (p.1). They noted that event impact studies have been mostly applied studies, with economic analysis dominating. However, given the difficulty of comparing different cases and a tendency to predict economic impacts rather than undertake confirmatory analysis after events have taken place, there are various claims to the reliability or otherwise of economic impact studies and methodologies (Dickinson & Shipway 2007, p.2). The following sections look at the types of event impacts and then discuss event legacies and how this led to the concept of 'leveraging'.

3.4.1 The impact of sport mega-events

Mega-events have a wide range of potential positive and negative impacts for the host destination, both short-term and long-term (Jago et al. 2010). While much of the literature focuses on economic impacts (e.g., Kasimati 2003; Preuss 2007; Hudson 2008) and political impacts (e.g. Cornelissen 2007) more recent studies have also included socio-cultural and destination-related impacts.

Event impact refers to the variety of positive benefits and negative impacts which might accrue as a result of an event taking place. These impacts and benefits may be apparent before the event takes place, during the event or after the event and may be felt by a variety of stakeholders including participants, local businesses and the host community (Dickinson & Shipway 2007). Dickinson and Shipway (2007) explained that an event affects people in different ways. Thus, there may be inequity in the distribution of impacts and benefits. Typically, studies focus on one or more of the following impact areas (Dickinson & Shipway 2007; Jago et al. 2010):

- Physical infrastructure;
- Environmental impacts (including climate);
- Economic impacts;
- Tourism destination impacts;
- Image enhancement;
- Social impacts;
- Cultural impacts;
- Political impacts;
- Security; and
- Urban renewal.

However, often these impacts tend to be amalgamated and the distinction between different categories blurred. As a result, the further discussion will look at the following core clusters of impacts: Economic (including physical infrastructure and urban renewal); Socio-cultural

(including political and environmental); and Tourism destination (including image enhancement). The focus of this study is on the impacts that influence the nation brand. The following sections identify the key types of impacts that do so from each of the three categories, with an emphasis on the latter:

- Economic impact: Turco et al. (2002, p.53) defined economic impact as “the net change in the host community’s economy as a result of the spending that is attributed to the special event.” A well-organised event has the potential to deliver a range of benefits related to return on investments and triple bottom-line imperatives to localities or communities (Turco et al. 2002). Gratton and Preuss (2008, p.298) argued that all primary economic impacts come from the following three sources: consumption of the organising committee; tourism and exports; and investments in infrastructure. Table 3.2 summarises the key economic impacts of mega-events that are of relevance to the host nation’s brand development. In general, a mega-event creates investment potential and acts as a catalyst for job creation and economic development. However, there are also concerns raised that many of these benefits may be of a short-term nature, may divert resources from other potential development avenues and require high maintenance costs post the event.

Table 3.2: Economic impacts of a sport mega-event benefitting the host nation brand

Positive economic impacts:	Source:
Increase in investment potential	Cornelissen & Swart (2006)
Improve the institutional and infrastructural capacity of the region	Turco et al. (2002); Cornelissen & Swart (2006)
Construction of event-specific facilities and infrastructure	Kasimati (2003)
Encourage public/ private partnerships	Turco et al. (2002)
Linked with urban regeneration strategies	Turco et al. (2002); Hiller (2003); Kasimati (2003)
Associated with large-scale infrastructural projects	Kasimati (2003); Cornelissen & Swart (2006);
Short-term cash injection for local economy	Jago et al. (2010)
Job creation/ employment	Kasimati (2003); Jago et al. (2010)
Catalyst for regional economic development	Jago et al. (2010)
Foreign exchange earnings from international visitors	Jago et al. (2010)

Increased sales by local businesses and improved local business opportunities	Kasimati (2003); Jago et al. (2010)
Negative Economic Impacts:	Source:
High construction costs	Kasimati (2003)
Diversion of resources from other sectors	Turco et al. (2002); Jago et al. (2010)
Maintenance and use of new infrastructure	Jago et al. (2010)
Inappropriate development	Jago et al. (2010)
Increased employment and business activities only temporary	Kasimati (2003)

- Socio-cultural impact: Roche (2000, p.21) explained that international mega-events play an important role in shaping a form of “international public culture”. Saayman (2004) stated that sport events have social benefit effects and are encouraged by government policies as a means of acquainting citizens with other parts of their country and building appreciation for their homeland. Visitors have an effect on the way local people behave and their personal relationships when they visit. In return, the contrast of culture usually has an effect on the visitors and generally leads to an increased appreciation for qualities of life in the society visited. In the case of both of these groups meeting and becoming acquainted, a favourable situation develops in which an appreciation for each other’s character and qualities is formed. Importantly, he noted that a sporting event offers the ideal platform for this, as it is the right ecological setting, providing an absence of temporary restraints and a more relaxed environment.

Saayman (2004) further explained that events and festivals have the power to build social cohesion by reinforcing ties within the community. Furthermore, according to Roche (2000, p.21) international mega-events play an important role in the development of a collective identity of a nation and its residents. Waitt (2003) also noted the importance of the host-visitor relations in terms of ensuring a positive legacy, for example, hosts that are not friendly to tourists during the event can be damaging to the tourism industry in the long-term.

Residents’ perceptions of the impacts from hosting a mega-event have the potential to undermine public confidence in the event (Waitt 2003). Waitt (2003) explained that the harshest event critics were those who evaluated the public costs as excessive and perceived the event to be inconveniencing their personal lives. Kim et

al.'s (2006) study on South Koreans' perceptions prior to and post the 2002 World Cup indicate that residents had high pre-event expectations, especially in relation to economic and social benefits although they were aware that they could be at a cost. However, after the World Cup, the biggest disappointment was the lower than expected economic benefits (Kim et al. 2006). They add that the World Cup tended to produce more social and cultural benefits than economic ones.

Mega-events are often viewed as a catalyst for social change and promoting cultural understanding and tolerance (Bob & Swart 2009). Saayman and Rossouw (2008) stated that boosting local residents' national pride and morale serves to increase corporate involvement and generate public support. Several authors referred to the 'feelgood effects' of hosting mega-events (Turco et al. 2002; Allmers & Maennig 2009; Bob & Swart 2009). This is also linked with a boost in community pride and confidence.

Turco et al. (2002) and Bob and Swart (2009) mentioned skills development and training as a positive socio-cultural impact. This includes development of skills related to the type of event being hosted, for example, enhancing organisational, marketing, and bidding capability for local event organisers as well as event volunteers.

Beyond the economic and socio-cultural impacts, a lesser-mentioned impact set relates to the tourism destination benefits, as discussed next.

- Tourism destination impact: A host city and/or nation also benefits from effects related to the media coverage of the event. Green et al. (2003), for example, looked at the ways that cities can benefit from the media coverage related to the events that they host. The media attention focused on the host destination is expected to result in an improved profile or positive image (e.g. Turco et al. 2002; Auld & McArthur 2003; Saayman 2004; Jago et al. 2010) or international reputation for that place (e.g. Kasimati 2003). This acts as a form of indirect advertising or public relations for a region (Turco et al. 2002) and in turn is expected to result in longer-term tourism benefits to the host region (Kasimati 2003; Jago et al. 2010).

A potential negative impact for tourism destinations is the "crowding out" of usual tourist numbers to a region as a result of the event, as traditional visitors stay away or postpone an intended travel as a result of expected congestion or higher prices linked to the event (Kasimati 2003). Table 3.3 sets out these major impacts related to a tourist destination.

Table 3.3: Tourism destination impacts of sport mega-events	
Positive impacts:	
Reinforce a locality's profile and create awareness and a positive image for the region as a tourist destination	Turco et al. (2002); Auld & McArthur (2003); Saayman (2004); Jago et al. (2010)
Enhanced international reputation	Kasimati (2003)
Media coverage of events provide indirect advertising for the region	Turco et al. (2002);
Induced tourism (increased tourism after the event)	Kasimati 2003; Jago et al. 2010
Negative impacts:	
'Crowding out' of other visitors	Kasimati 2003

The discussion now moves from these specific event impacts to the context of 'legacy'.

3.4.2 The legacy of sport mega-events

The growing interest in examining the legacy of sport mega-events has to a large extent replaced the debate on mega-event impacts (Cornelissen et al. 2011; Chappelet 2012). The concept of legacy first appeared within sport event management discourse during the 1990s, when questions about the costs and benefits relating to the hosting of sport mega-events were first raised from an economic as well as social and environmental perspective (Chappelet 2012). Today, the notion of 'legacy' is considered "multi-faceted and far-reaching" (Chappelet 2012, p.83). According to Roberts (2004, p.30), "legacy encapsulates all that is positive about sport events and their ability to create positive change among individuals, communities and other stakeholders".

However, several authors contend that not all legacies are positive, nor can they always be planned (Cashman 2006; Preuss 2007; Cornelissen et al. 2011). Examples of unplanned or unintended, negative legacies were cited as: the 1968 Mexico City Olympic Games protests; the 1972 Munich Olympic Games terrorism attack; the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games bombing; and the debt incurred by the 1976 Montreal Olympic Games (Cornelissen et al. 2011). Preuss (2007, p.211) therefore conceptualised a 'legacy cube' that led to the following comprehensive definition of legacy in the context of sport mega-events:

"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".

Similarly, Chappelet and Junod (2006, p.84) provided a definition of legacy as:

“The material and non-material effects produced directly or indirectly by the sport event, whether planned or not, that durably transform the host region in an objectively and subjectively positive or negative way”.

Cornelissen et al. (2011, p.315) added the distinction to types of legacies as being ‘material’, ‘spatial’ or ‘symbolic’, without particularly explaining what constitutes each of these aspects. Poynter (2006) cited enhancement of a host country’s image as an example of an indirect, intangible legacy. This would possibly also be considered a ‘symbolic’ legacy.

The above definitions are vague concerning the duration of a legacy and its spatial parameters or ‘reach’. Despite the above, it is noted that there is still little consensus on the definition of legacy, what it entails and how it should be measured (Cornelissen et al. 2011). This is a concern noted by Thornley (2012) who argued that this inability to define legacy with any precision means that there is ample opportunity to make inflated claims.

Most of the research on mega-event legacy, similar to event impacts research, has tended to focus on economic and infrastructural impacts (e.g. Preuss 2007; and Higham & Hinch 2009). However, legacy is a far broader concept, with a wider spectrum of impacts increasingly being integrated into legacy assessments (e.g. social, environmental and political impacts) (Cornelissen et al. 2011).

The focus on legacy is particularly relevant in the context of emerging countries, such as South Africa, China and Brazil, which are increasingly utilising sport mega-events to promote socio-economic development and image enhancement (Swart & Bob 2007). For example, the City of Cape Town expected the lasting legacy of the 2010 FIFA World Cup to be the creation of a more desirable destination for leisure and business travelers, investors and residents post 2010 (Allmers & Maennig 2009).

The literature revealed a wide variety of different types or categories of legacies that could result from mega-events. Chappelet and Junod (2006) compiled these into five types or themes, as follows:

- **Sporting legacy:** This includes the development of international standard sporting facilities and related infrastructure upgrades. These often become ‘emblematic symbols’ for the host city and depict its link with sports (Swart & Bob 2007). An increase in sport participation, support and sponsorship may also result as legacies of a mega-event.
- **Urban legacy:** This refers to buildings which were built for the mega-event but which serve no sporting function. Included here are changes made to the urban structure of the host city as well as the development of new urban districts and specialised areas (Poynter 2006).

- **Infrastructural legacy:** This refers to the different types of networks, ranging from transport to telecommunications, which are renovated or developed for a mega-event and maintained after the event is complete. New access routes by air, water, road or rail are also part of the infrastructural legacy. An event may also trigger the modernisation of basic services, such as water, electricity and waste treatment.
- **Economic legacy:** This would include changes in the number of permanent jobs created and changes in the unemployment rate of the host region; economic investment opportunities; foreign investment attraction; and small business development/ entrepreneurship. Chappelet and Junod (2006) included the tourism impact as an economic legacy, as a result of the increase in tourists to a host region that stimulates the local economy. Despite economic impacts generally regarded as the most important aspect and constituting a primary reason why governments bid to host mega-events, ex post studies of many events have shown inconclusive or negligible impacts (Cornelissen et al. 2011). As a result, Allmers and Maennig (2009) argued that intangible effects, such as image/ branding, may be of greater significance.
- **Social legacy:** Social legacies could include nation building and contribution to national pride; changed perceptions of residents of the host city or region; education; racial harmony; and environmental awareness. Cornelissen et al. (2011, p.313) stated that social impacts of sport mega-events have been neglected in the literature, possibly as a result of being more difficult to measure.

However, there are a number of other legacies not included in this list that may be equally as important as those mentioned above. These are added and explained below:

- **Environmental legacy** (Jago et al. 2010; Cornelissen et al. 2011): Although environmental awareness is one aspect of this that has been included as a social legacy above, this environmental impacts of mega-events has demanded increasing attention. Key aspects are reducing the carbon footprint of an event and integrating greening principles. It also includes 'climate-responsiveness', which Jago et al. (2010) refer to as "the transformation to the green economy" (p.32).
- **Political legacy** (Cornelissen et al. 2011): This includes the promotion of democracy and human rights and improved governance. New tasks for government actors may result in enhancement of capacity within the public sector, as well as the improvements in skills and human resources capital in public and private sectors. Communities may benefit from interventions by government or non-government organisations aimed at skills development. Cornelissen (2007) noted how governments have used mega-

events to promote or redress their national image, especially as it relates to issues of governance and democracy.

- Image/ branding legacy (Swart 2008; Higham & Hinch 2009; Jago et al. 2010; Cornelissen et al. 2011): This includes destination-profiling; host-region exposure; setting or changing the image of a host destination; changes in tourist image and reputation; and brand marketing for a host region. For developing countries, a mega-event may be a catalyst for destination development and provides a base for creating an international profile that will help attract visitors in the longer term (Cornelissen & Swart 2006; Jago et al. 2010).

The following figure (Figure 3.1) illustrates the different aspects of legacy. Adapted from Cornelissen et al. (2011), it uses the five aspects of Chappelet and Junod (2006) and adds the additional three elements discussed above. Similarly, it places tourism as part of the economic legacy, and combines urban legacy with infrastructure.

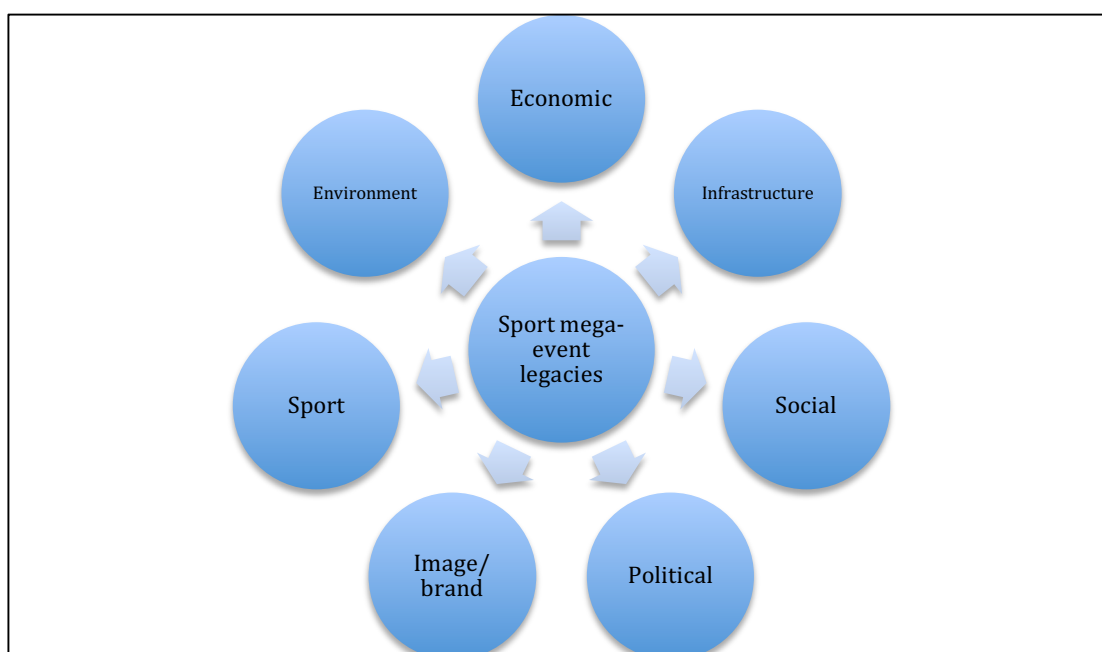


Figure 3.1: Sport mega-event legacies (adapted from Cornelissen et al. 2011, p.311)

Chappelet (2012) argued, however, that continuing to propose ‘typologies’ of legacy seems futile since it is possible to segment all that remains after a mega-event almost ad infinitum. He therefore distinguishes three major dimensions of legacy, relating to their material, territorial and sporting nature. While the distinction between ‘tangible’ and ‘intangible’ legacies (also referred to as ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ legacies) is fairly common, the distinction that Chappelet makes between ‘territorial’ and ‘personal’ legacies is more unique. He argued that there are legacies that are attached to the territory that hosts the event (such as city image improvement) and

others that belong to those who have experienced it but can easily leave the host territory (e.g. the competencies and skills acquired by the individuals who have worked on the event). He further adds the dimension of 'directly related' to or 'unrelated' to sport. For example, first-class sport facilities that remain after an event (directly sport related) as opposed to improved public transportation systems in the host city (unrelated to sport). According to this typology, legacies that relate to a host nation's image would be considered 'intangible', 'territorial' and 'unrelated to sport'.

Legacies are crucial and must be factored into the planning of mega-events (Weed & Bull 2009; Jago et al. 2010). Legacy is no longer a desirable extra but an essential priority for any host destination, sport federation, or organising committee responsible for bidding, winning and delivering a major sport tourism event. Cornelissen (2007, p.248) maintained that "leaving appropriate long-term legacies has become a discourse which has left an indelible mark on the way in which planning for today's sport mega-events takes shape".

Legacy has been introduced as a formal part of the bidding process for the Olympic Games (Jago et al. 2010), although not as formally as yet for a FIFA World Cup. The Olympic Games Global Impact (OGGI) project sets out to assess the economic and other impacts of Games from their initial conceptualisation, through to the bidding processes and their hosting, with the aim of evaluating the costs, legacies and yardsticks yielded by the experiences of Olympic host cities (IOC 2006). The legacy promise of the London Olympic Games was a major feature of the original bid, with Thornley (2012) regarding this as one of the elements that contributed to its perceived success. It received more pre-Games attention than in any other host city.

Although recognising the increased emphasis on legacy planning, Chappelet (2012, p.82) argued, "It is impossible to plan everything". He explained that certain legacies occur without being planned, both positive and negative, and cited the example of how tourism increased in Beijing before and after the 2008 Olympic Games without the organising committee or the Chinese tourism state agencies planning for it. Majumdar (2012) noted an interesting 'accidental' legacy for Delhi and India from the 2010 Delhi Commonwealth Games. He claimed, "Delhi 2010 did not reorder the city, did not herald the start of a new era in Indian sport, did not showcase India before the world in ways expected of it, and resulted in the building of many white elephants". However, this perceived failure of the event in many ways, triggered "unprecedented mass mobilisation against corruption" that has become a "pivotal event in India's sporting and, more importantly, political history". This is also an example of how positive legacies are not guaranteed for mega-event hosts.

Chappelet (2012, p.80) raised the critical question, "Who is in a position to consider that a particular consequence of a mega event is a legacy?" He distinguished three stakeholder

perspectives as: the local population; the urban regime i.e. the political and economic leaders of the host region (including the organising committee); and the owner of the event. Cornelissen et al. (2011) noted the importance of the latter two stakeholder relationships in legacy planning, claiming that governance relationships that exist in the host city or country and the management structures that are set up to stage an event are among the strongest predictive factors for leaving a positive legacy. However, Jago et al. (2010) suggested that if legacies are to be realised, there needs to be a separate group to the event organising body responsible for legacy, with a separate budget from the event operations budget.

While this section has set out the general consensus over the conceptualisation of mega-event legacy, there is not the same degree of agreement or standardised approach to its measurement. This has complicated the measurement of event legacy (Horne & Manzreiter 2006). Preuss (2007) discusses the issues surrounding mega-event legacy measurement, noting the following three issues that create challenges in developing a standardised measurement approach (p.214-215):

- The same event creates different legacies if staged twice in one city/ nation: Both the events and the cities/ nations staging them are continuously developing such that the event has different requirements at a later stage of hosting and the host city/ nation has different environmental factors to consider (e.g. FIFA Football World Cup in Germany hosted in 1974 in comparison to 2006).
- Different events create different legacies if staged in the same city/ nation: Differing infrastructural requirements, social interests, media exposure, and location requirements result in a unique legacy, although Preuss did note that some legacies of mega-events are similar. This confirms the different legacy expectations in South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup compared to previous mega-events hosted by the nation.
- The same event creates different legacies in different cities/ nations: This may be a result of a number of factors, including different infrastructure of the cities/ nations and the political targets pursued for the event. For example, Atlanta (host of the 1996 Atlanta Olympic Games) could not reach the same tourism attractiveness as Barcelona (1992 Olympic Games host).

These assertions raise a potential challenge for the transfer of knowledge and learning from one event to the next. Nonetheless, the large number of case studies that predominate the legacy literature indicate the need for shared learning among stakeholders from different contexts and events. Furthermore, the IOC (2014a), for example, have implemented a formal Olympic Games Knowledge Management (OGKM) programme that aims to promote learning and sharing, especially related to legacy features, from one mega-event LOC to the next. This

again indicates the possibility of transferable knowledge from one host nation context to another.

Besides these, there are a few other complexities, challenges and critiques of legacy that are raised by a number of authors that should be considered when evaluating legacy:

- Determining 'net' rather than 'gross' legacy: Preuss (2007) and Dickson et al. (2011) noted the need to consider 'opportunity costs' when evaluating legacy. For example, without staging the event the city would invest its resources in alternative projects that could result in similar impacts, and 'crowding out' of traditional tourists during an event period can obscure the measurement of a tourism legacy.
- Legacy is a subjective value judgment: Legacy can be either positive or negative depending on the point of view or on (subjective) personal opinion (Chappelet 2012). Preuss (2007, p.214) noted that legacy can be regarded as a "subjective judgment of value", especially as in some cases, the same legacy can be perceived as both positive and negative at the same time. Cashman (2006) raised concern that legacy should not be assumed to be solely positive, noting that event organising committees, in particular, tend to do so. Chappelet (2012, p.82) also raised the question of 'causality': "What is really caused by a mega event, and what is not?" For example, should the construction of general infrastructures or sports facilities for mega-event be considered a legacy or is it rather a case of planned work being carried out earlier because of the event? Once again, this may be a value judgment. The stakeholder reflections on legacy revealed later in this thesis are therefore interpreted as subjective value judgements.
- 'Temporal dimension' of legacy: Preuss (2007) noted the difficulty of evaluating the legacy effect over time, especially as in the long-term the legacy effects are more difficult to isolate from other developmental impacts of a host city or nation. Cornelissen et al. (2011) stressed that legacies are those aspects that are sustained for a significant period after the event and have long-lasting effects. Due to the long-lasting effects of legacy, they suggest that legacy should be evaluated up to 20 years post an event. Dickson et al. (2011, p.290) also supported the need for consideration of the time frame (or "temporal dimension") over which legacy occurs, beyond the immediacy of the event. Chappelet (2012) therefore proposed a distinction between short- or medium-term legacy (for example one or two years after the event) and long-term legacy (one or two decades after the event). This study that reflects on the period from two to three years post the event is therefore considered to indicate the 'medium-term' legacy for the nation brand.

- Geographic dispersal or ‘spatial dimension’ of legacy: Legacy impacts are most acutely experienced near to where the mega-event is held, especially in host cities (Cornelissen et al. 2011). Dickson et al. (2011, p.290) therefore urged that consideration be given to the “geographical dispersal of legacies beyond the limits of the event venues and host communities”. Chappelet (2012) supported this argument claiming that the legacy of a mega-event can have an extremely variable territorial extent, with the potential to affect its local, regional, national or global environment. Although the focus of this study is on the host cities, it does also consider the legacy effects for non-host cities, regions and neighbouring nations.
- Sustainability: Cornelissen et al. (2011) concluded that considerations of sustainability usually require a long-term outlook and necessitate “a holistic and integrated view at both global and local levels” (p.315). Yet mega-events are by nature “intense and of fixed duration” (Cornelissen et al. 2011, p.315). Similarly, Chappelet (2012) explained that the concept of legacy has developed as a result of hosting once-off sport mega-events, noting that once-off events alone cannot bring lasting legacy. He argued that recurring events have less need of the concept of legacy because the fact that they continue to be organised means that they are considered to be valid by their stakeholders and bring legacies to their cities. Chappelet therefore advocates a “public hosting policy” as an effective mean to foster a sustainable legacy that continues beyond a single event (p.84). Nonetheless, the IOC (2014b) maintains that creating sustainable legacies from the hosting of sport mega-events is a fundamental commitment of the Olympic Movement.

Preuss (2007) noted the importance of future research attempting to develop more generic approaches and methodologies to address these measurement obstacles Dickson et al. (2011) therefore proposed a new, more flexible, legacy ‘radar’ framework that aimed to facilitate a more dynamic approach to researching mega-event legacy. Based on the earlier ‘cube’ model of Preuss (2007) but adding recognition of the temporal and spatial dimensions mentioned above, as well as including an assessment of the ‘costs’ incurred in the attainment of legacies. All of these challenges, however, have also led to a growing interest in studies related to the ‘leveraging’ of mega-event impacts and legacies - the topic of the next section.

3.4.3 ‘Leveraging’ mega-event legacies

Dickinson and Shipway (2007, p.2) explained that there appears to be a widely held assumption that there is a legacy from events. However, more recently, studies have questioned the positive benefits from events and the equity of their distribution. Weed and Bull (2009, p.43) suggested that the event impacts framework may be a “outmoded” and, supported by a number

of other authors (Chalip 2004; Dickinson & Shipway 2007; Jago et al. 2010), indicated that a new focus with an emphasis on 'leveraging' may be more applicable.

According to Weed's (2009, p. 621) meta-review of sport tourism research, "the nascent literature around the strategic leveraging of sports mega-events for specific purposes represents a welcome shift from a dominant focus on measuring post-hoc impact assessments". 'Leverage' rather broadly refers to "those activities...which seek to maximise the long-term benefits from events", and "the processes through which the benefits of investments are maximized" Chalip (2004, p.228). Smith (2014) described leveraging as:

"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" (p.15); and where "mega-events are reconceived as windows of opportunity within which to undertake initiatives" (p.16).

The focus on leveraging therefore represents a shift to a more forward-thinking, proactive, strategic approach (Chalip 2004; Smith 2014), explained in the following quotation by Chalip (2004):

"Unlike impact assessments, the study of leverage has a strategic and tactical focus. The objective is to identify strategies and tactics that can be implemented prior to and during an event in order to generate particular outcomes. Consequently, leveraging implies a much more pro-active approach to capitalising on opportunities rather than impacts research which simply measures outcomes" (p.228).

Similarly, Smith (2014) also explained the difference between event impacts and leveraging, stating that impacts are the 'automatic effects' of event projects, that may be unintended or negative (as mentioned earlier). This is different to outcomes that have been deliberately leveraged by attaching initiatives to events so that they deliver more optimal outcomes.

Leveraging can relate to short-term or 'immediate' activities by event hosts (e.g. maximising visitor spending) or long-term activities, both before and after the event has taken place (e.g. "to build the host community's image in order to enhance the quality of its brand or market position") (Chalip 2004, p.228). Linked to this strategic focus, Grix (2012, p.309) described leveraging activities as "systematic and purposeful". Weed (2008) also added that leveraging can be as important in minimising undesirable effects as it can be in maximising benefits.

Smith (2014) aided the conceptualisation of leveraging by distinguishing two different sets of approaches:

- Event-led vs. event-themed leveraging: Event-led leveraging includes imaginative activities that aim to optimise event impacts, whereas event-themed leveraging involves the design and organisation of a wider set of non-essential projects that aim to address key priorities.

- Prominence: Leveraging activities vary according to their prominence within the event project. Where key strategic objectives are core in the rationale for staging an event, there is an opportunity for leveraging to be central to the event project. However, in many projects, leveraging is an afterthought.

Australia is noted as the first country to take advantage of the Olympic Games to vigorously pursue leveraging activities for the benefit of the whole nation. Morse (2001) and Brown et al. (2002) described how the Australian Tourist Commission undertook the re-imaging of Australia as an international tourist destination through the development of promotions with Olympic sponsors, conference, convention and incentive travel initiatives associated with the event, visiting media programmes and close consultation with television broadcasters.

Contrasting with legacy measurement, there may be more generic means of leveraging legacy that can “transcend geographical place and ideological regime type” (Chalip 2004; Grix 2012, p.309). Grix (2012) produced a rare study that used Chalip’s (2004) conceptualisation of ‘leverage’ to investigate the strategies used to leverage nation brand image legacies of the 2006 German FIFA World Cup. Grix explained that a key for Germany was that it planned meticulously in the lead up to the event, devising a number of campaigns targeted at different groups and including a wide array of partners from business, government, civil society, culture and sport. For example, Grix observed six means or ‘tactics’ of leveraging used to achieve its legacy aims: innovative ‘Fan Zones’ that enticed visitor spending (tactic 1); creating an atmosphere that would make people choose to stay in the country longer (tactic 2); retaining event expenditure within Germany e.g. Deutsche Telekom as media partner (tactic 3); enhancing business relationships through the ‘Land of Ideas’ campaign (tactic 4); a multitude of campaigns designed to showcase and advertise the event (tactic 5), a number of posters, banners and other promotions (tactic 6). Grix concludes that Germany’s example suggests that while many hosts hope the impact of staging a sports mega-event will be positive, Germany employed a number of leveraging strategies to ensure its success.

Despite the meticulously planned strategies employed by Germany, Grix (2012, p.304) also noted a number of ‘missed opportunities’. Similarly, Kissoudi (2010), who discusses the longer-term legacy of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games for the host nation, detailed the lack of planning and leveraging that led to “some hopes remaining unfulfilled aspirations” (p.2780). The paper described the post-Olympic era as “characterised by missed opportunities”, and mentioned the utilisation of the Olympic venues as an example of a potential legacy that was hampered by bureaucracy and a lack of long-term planning. In reference to legacy and leveraging planning, the study noted “there was no plan for the day after” the mega-event (p.2789).

Smith (2014) detailed four major issues or challenges with leveraging:

- Ownership: Smith asks the question, “Who should design and implement leveraging initiatives?” (p.23) and advises that it should be organisations that have expertise (and a long-term stake) in the relevant policy fields to deliver projects.
- Funding: Leveraging activities add to the overall financial burden of the event and should not add unnecessarily to the costs of staging an event. Event sponsors are suggested as an alternative source of funding for leverage initiatives.
- Branding restrictions: Most leveraging activities rely on on publicising the event connection. However, the often rigid restrictions placed on event brands means that organisations can often not make official connections to the events.
- Research and evaluation: As a result of leveraging, researchers now find it harder to separate the impacts of the events from the effects of supplemental activities associated with the events.

The following section delineates the ways in which sport mega-events contribute toward nation branding and discusses specific examples of sport mega-events that resulted in a nation branding legacy for the host nation or city.

3.5 The contribution of sport mega-events to nation branding

Due to the growth and recognition of the benefits from event tourism, cities, regions and countries have been increasingly incorporating events into their marketing mix (Chalip 2004). In particular, there has been a growing awareness of the potentially significant impact that hosting sport mega-events can have on a country’s brand image (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Gibson et al. 2008). Sport mega-events have been described as a “unique publicity platform and opportunity for place marketing” (Essex & Chalkley 1998), or, as Berkowitz et al. (2007) put it, “a great branding opportunity” for nations (p.164). Heslop et al. 2013 (p.13) noted the perceived nation brand benefits for emerging nations from hosting sport mega-events:

“Many emerging nations have risked a great deal in betting that hosting of a mega-event can be a fast-track to world recognition and reputation enhancement, and there is considerable evidence that this bet has payoffs in positive impacts on country images and reputations as producers of products and as tourism destinations.”

The following sections identify the key ways in which sport mega-events contribute to the development of a nation brand, citing examples of empirical studies that have examined these impacts and legacies from a number of events in emerging as well as in developed nations. Table 3.4 below summarises the key empirical studies (in chronological order) - their aim, focus,

methodology and key contribution. These studies together with other supporting narrative literature are discussed in the next sections.

Table 3.4: Empirical studies related to country image impacts of sport mega-events				
Authors:	Event/ city/ nation:	Impact investigated:	Methodology:	Key findings/ conclusion/ contribution:
Ritchie & Smith (1991)	1988 Calgary Olympic Winter Games	Monitor and assess the extent to which mega-event impacted the international levels of awareness and the image of the host city.	Longitudinal (5-year) study; awareness and image data collected annually (1986-1989) in 20 centres in USA and Europe.	The event dramatically increased levels of awareness and substantially modified the image of the city of Calgary. However, cities must also anticipate a significant rate of awareness and image decay, and take steps to counter it.
Kim & Morrison (2005)	2002 FIFA World Cup, Korea	Change in host nation destination image among foreign tourists	Quantitative, in-person questionnaire interview, of international tourists; 3-4 months post event.	Significant image differences and improved negative images post event, e.g. tourists less concerned about 'safety'. An internationally significant event can change the image of a tourism destination in a short period of time and may cause temporal changes in the overall national brand image.
Smith (2006)	Three English cities: Birmingham, Manchester, and Sheffield.	The tourism destination image effects of strategies such as regular sport fixtures, 'mega' sport events, and event bids	Semi-structured interviews with a representative sample of potential tourists.	In general, sport events encouraged positive connotations amongst potential tourists. This has positive implications for cities deploying sport events as re-imaging or branding tools.
Heslop et al. (2010)	2008 Beijing Olympic Games	Views of residents and foreigners of Olympic event image and host country destination image	Quantitative; cross-national; pre- and post-event; mall-intercept questionnaire interview.	The first study to measure both national and international country image perceptions. Post event assessment overwhelmingly lower in both cases. Possible reasons suggested but stated as an area for future research.

Lee (2010)	2008 Beijing Olympic Games	Change in host nation brand image through a large-scale sport event. Investigated the alignment of nation brand image with the Olympic brand image.	Quantitative, telephone questionnaire interview, Hong Kong residents, pre- and post-event (2005 & 2009)	The event image is better perceived than the nation image before and after event and the gap between the two increased as a whole post the event. (This supports co-branding theory, although it is not mentioned.)
Harris & Lepp (2011)	2010 Ryder Cup, Wales	The media portrayal of a host nation in the pre-event period and its impact on the host nation's tourism destination brand.	Qualitative, interpretive, analysis of a range of media sources linked to the event.	Highlighted the challenges of developing a nation brand profile and portraying a particular image in a competitive environment. Promotes qualitative approaches for studies on brand image through sport tourism strategies.
Lepp & Gibson (2011)	2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa	Role of media coverage of sport mega-event in "re-imaging" a nation brand	Quantitative, pre- and post-event study of US college students, self-administered questionnaire.	Positive image associations with the nation increased post event. Media coverage of major sport events may be quite influential and should be managed to achieve desired outcomes.
Armenakyan et al. (2012)	2010 Vancouver Winter Olympic Games	Impacts of the Vancouver Olympic Games on images of the host country, Canada, and the Olympic Games.	Cross-national, longitudinal study of Canadian and US respondents; Questionnaires; pre- and post-event;	Little change was seen in OG images and interest among Americans, but major improvements occurred among Canadians, confirming domestic bias effects. Hosting the OG contributed to improved images for Americans of Canadians, Canada as a country and as a destination. Canadians evidenced increased pride in their own country. Indicates mutual positive benefits for country and event images.
Bodet & Lacassagne (2012)	2008 Beijing Olympic Games	Hosting major sporting events represents a relevant strategy to brand a place 'internationally' through brand association	Social representation theory; an abductive research strategy; survey among British citizens to identify their	Although there was a transfer of elements from the sporting event to the place, few clearly positive elements were transferred and several negative associations remain. The results do not explicitly corroborate the transfer of

		transfer and to identify whether or not it should be seen as co-branding process.	opinions about the Olympic Games and the city of Beijing; post-event.	associations from the place to the sporting event. The paper confirms the value of sporting events in place branding strategies but highlights some limitations such as the transfer of negative elements and the lack of media control. It also highlights the importance of the place selection process to protect the sporting brand.
Fullerton & Holtzhausen (2012)	2010 FIFA World Cup, South Africa	The effect of international sport events on country reputation	Quantitative, pre- and post-event, quasi-experimental test on representative sample of US population.	Some demographic variables such as age, gender, ethnocentrism and knowledge of the country moderate the reputational impact. Should not expect blanket improvement of reputation among all citizens in all countries.
Grix (2012)	2006 FIFA World Cup Germany	Determine the rationale for and leveraging strategies used by Germany to develop its national image through the mega-event.	Qualitative; in-depth, semi-structured interviews with 9 commentators with knowledge of, or direct involvement in the event; conducted 5 years post event; 'skeleton' interview protocol.	'Soft power' provides a useful lens for understanding emerging countries' rationale for hosting mega-events. There are generic 'means' of leveraging legacy. A systematic and purposeful leveraging strategy can be used to alter a nation's image.
Harris et al. (2012)	2010 Ryder Cup, Wales	The impact of the event for the host nation image.	Quantitative, two weeks pre- and post-event study of image perceptions of US college students.	Highlighted some of the complexities and challenges involved in promoting a nation and pointed towards the many layers of identities shaping particular images. They note the relative small number of viewers of the event as an influencing factor.
Heslop et al. (2013)	2008 Beijing Olympic Games and 2010 Vancouver	Co-branding; reputational image transfers of mega-events	Used data collected previously pre- and post both events (see	Beijing Olympics were not successful in reputation and image enhancement of either the Olympics brand or of China. However, the

	Winter Olympic Games	and host city/nation.	Heslop et al. 2010 and Armenakyan et al. 2012 above).	Canadian mega-event outcomes were positive for both brands.
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3.5.1 Creating awareness through the media

Sport mega-events have become increasingly important in the contemporary era, with their hosting becoming an object of policy for an increasing number of nation states in the world, most notably “as a means to gain international visibility in some ways” (Cornelissen 2007, p.242). Mega-events “generate intensive media-coverage and international broadcasting” (Heslop et al. 2013, p.12). The importance of the media for sport mega-event host nations is also noted by Custódio and Gouveia (2007), who explained that what journalists write can have a major reputational impact on how foreigners view a country.

Ritchie and Smith (1991) appeared to be the first to measure an increase in city awareness as a result of hosting a sport mega-event, in this case Calgary and the 1998 Winter Olympic Games. Over the five-year period of their study, they found that the event dramatically increased levels of awareness and substantially modified the image of the city of Calgary. However, they also noted what has become a legitimate concern of event sceptics, namely a significant rate of awareness and image decay post the event. They suggest that cities should anticipate this and take steps to counter it if they wish to remain visible and competitive.

Destinations commonly seek to host events as a means to enhance consumer awareness of a destination, which is usually justified on the basis of the media coverage of the event (Brown et al. 2004). The high media profile of mega-events can be harnessed to increase the prominence and standing, or ‘salience’ of host cities and nations (Higham & Hinch 2009; Westerbeek & Linley 2012).

Horne and Manzenreiter (2006) also agreed that sport mega-events have become valuable promotional opportunities for cities and regions. They suggested two reasons for this, both related to the media coverage of the events: firstly, new developments in the technologies of mass communication, especially the development of satellite television, have created unprecedented global audiences for events; and secondly, the formation of a ‘sport-media-business’ alliance has transformed professional sport through the idea of packaging, via the tri-partite model of sponsorship rights, exclusive broadcasting rights and merchandising that has attracted sponsors due to the vast global audience exposure that the events achieve. This confirms Swart and Bob’s (2007, p.373) contention that the 2010 FIFA World Cup provided South Africa with an opportunity for the country to “engage in high profile promotion of their products on a global scale”.

Florek and Insch (2011) cited the case of Sydney and the Olympic Games of 2000 that accelerated the awareness of Australia as a destination by up to ten years. Chalip (2004) identified a key leverage activity that contributed to the success of this event as being the media management strategies used during the Games, whereby members of the media were taken on tours around the country and provided with material that could be used in travel magazines, sports coverage or newspaper articles, for example. This leveraging strategy helped to induce the desired images to be portrayed, giving stakeholders some form of control over this.

Despite these positive assessments, two concerns for the image benefits from mega-events are that the media attention is short-lived and that the stakeholders have little control over the imagery portrayed. Panagiotopoulou (2012, p.2343) used the case of Athens and the 2004 Olympic Games to warn that although a mega-event may be a “key moment in attracting the whole world’s attention”, this promotion opportunity does not last for long. Gratton and Preuss (2008) further noted that the exposure of the event, the host city and its culture depends on the media representatives and cannot be entirely controlled. They gave the examples of negative incidences such as “a bomb attack, hooligans, organisational shortcomings or just bad weather” that can influence the host nation image and, of particular relevance to this study, noted, “poverty and crime create doubts about a potential tourism destination” (p.1928).

This section therefore highlights the significant media attention for a mega-event host while also noting that this attention cannot always be controlled and may be short-lived. The following section moves the discussion from creating awareness through media publicity to how the event can assist the development of the brand identity of the host nation.

3.5.2 A catalyst for place identity development

Events contribute to place marketing by making cities more livable and attractive to investors (Getz 2012). Getz (2012) explained that events ‘animate’ cities, resorts, parks, urban spaces, and venues (making them more attractive and utilising them more efficiently); and that events act as catalysts for urban renewal, infrastructure development, voluntarism, and improved marketing capability.

Sport mega-events produce “cultural ideas, cultural identity and cultural products”, claimed Gratton and Preuss (2008, p.1929), who gave the example of opening ceremonies that included a cultural-artistic aspect that is a condensed display of the host country’s culture. The ability of sport mega-events to influence the identity of a host nation is expressed in the following remark by Roche (2000, p.6), who described sport mega-events as:

“important in the ‘story of a nation’, a people, a nation. They represented and continue to represent key occasions in which nations could construct and present images of themselves for recognition in terms of other nations and ‘in the eyes of the world’...in

which a...national past, present and future (national 'progress', potential and 'destiny'), could be invented and imagined not just for leaders and citizens of the host nation, but also by and for the publics of other nations."

Although there is no specific mention of nation branding here, the essence of this statement is aligned with the branding theory on nation brand identity. Of particular interest is that Roche appears to affirm the context of a sport mega-event as an opportunity for a nation to define, invent or imagine its future and how it desires to be perceived by other nations. It is also useful to note the inclusion of stakeholders in this process as leaders as well as citizens of the nation.

Also aligned with the brand identity theory stating that identity should be based on reality, Alekseyeva (2014) used the Russian context of the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games to outline the potential and the perils of attempting to project a new self-image without fundamentally altering social realities.

Besides providing the opportunity for nation brand identity development, the area of greatest research and literature attention is that of brand image development for a host nation - to be discussed next.

3.5.3 Image development

Further to awareness and identity, events are sought as a means to enhance or change a destination, city or nation's image; create positive images for a destination; and help to 'brand' a host destination, city or nation (Brown et al. 2004; Higham & Hinch 2009; Florek & Insch 2011; Getz 2012). Sport mega-events are described as having the potential to serve as an agent of change in terms of imagery and place meaning (Higham & Hinch 2009), providing an opportunity to create or promote an image and also re-brand a nation (Anholt 2007b). For example, the Olympic Games have long been used to serve the imaging or re-imaging of places (Higham & Hinch 2009). Florek and Insch (2011) cited the case of Germany's image being 'softened' and 'boosted' through the hosting of the 2006 FIFA World Cup. Dinnie (2004) added the examples of the Olympic Games in Australia (2000) and Spain (1992) of how sport mega-events change perceptions and reposition host nation brands.

Kotler and Gertner (2002, p.254) described several tools that brand managers use to promote a country's image, including events, like the Rio Carnival (Brazil) and the Wimbledon tennis championships (United Kingdom). Events constitute an important stimulus factor in the image formation process of a destination (Mendes et al. 2011). Florek and Insch (2011) investigated the interrelationships and interdependencies between the two overlapping sets of event and place images, concluding that the potential to build and enhance the image of a destination through a mega-event is 'unlimited'.

Mendes et al. (2011, p.371) referred to the experiential nature of events, explaining that an event provides a chance for visitors to “carry out a gratifying experience with access to the local cultural scene”. Although this may be limited to the moment, its value remains as a memory and contributes to the process of image formation for a nation (Mendes et al. 2011).

Not only can mega-events create positive associations for the host place brand, but they could also assist improve the negative images associated with the place. For example, Kim and Morrison (2005) found that the 2002 FIFA World Cup improved negative associations of security for tourists in Korea. This could be an important consideration for South Africa as it has been historically associated with high levels of crime, among other negative factors.

Despite the discussion above, a positive image effect for a host city or nation is not guaranteed. On the negative side, Essex and Chalkley (1998) gave the example of Atlanta (host of the 1996 Olympic Games) that is remembered for its logistical problems and traffic congestion.

Fullerton and Holtzhausen (2012) found that there was certainly a short-term improvement for the South African country reputation among US residents from before to after the 2010 FIFA World Cup, especially related to the ‘affection’ factor. However, they noted that demographic factors, ethnocentrism and prior knowledge of the country as mediating factors in this improvement and therefore concluded, “no country should expect blanket improvement of its reputation among all citizens in all countries” (p.281). As a result, they recommended that strategic brand communication efforts be focused on specific audiences most likely to respond to these and particularly on consumers already having some familiarity with the nation.

Swart and Bob (2012) commented on the 2010 FIFA World Cup as the first mega-event viewed as a means to benefit the image of an entire continent. Characterised by its pan-Africanist stance and reinforced by logos and slogans such as ‘It’s Africa’s turn’ and ‘Ke Nako: Celebrate Africa’s Humanity’; the ‘African Legacy Programme’ and ‘Win in Africa with Africa’ initiatives, the event aimed to improve the international image of the continent and combat ‘Afro-pessimism’ (p.7).

Although acknowledging the nation branding potential of sport mega-events, Pangiotopoulou (2012) raised a serious concern related to the longevity of the brand image benefits. The example of Greece and the 2004 Athens Olympic Games is a particularly poignant one. After the successful delivery of the Games, it was reported that the event “helped to re-brand Greece as a country” as “mythological and traditional images combined with modern, dynamic design” (p.2343). Panagiotopoulou (2012, p.2343) claims that six years after the event, Greece has lost any advantage, with the country currently in a “severe image crisis”. This led him to conclude:

“The Olympics, as an event, does not automatically do anything for a country’s brand. It is a media opportunity, not a branding activity” (p.2343).

Once again, this links with the emphasis on leveraging activities in order to sustain benefits from mega-events. For example, Panagiotopoulou (2012, p.2343) advocates that in the case of Greece, a consistent nation brand strategic plan that was consistently followed before and after a mega-event could have protected the nation from the negative media coverage that followed the event period.

The types of images conveyed or the manner in which they are changed may be also be linked to the event brand image. This is the focus of the following section.

3.5.4 Co-branding & image transfer

Brown et al. (2004) proposed that images associated with an event may be transferred to the host destination. In this way, the destination brand may be strengthened, enhanced or changed. They referred to this as a “co-operative branding activity” (p.283) or what is more commonly called ‘co-branding’ in the branding literature (see Chapter Two). Empirical studies by Armenakyan et al. (2012) and Heslop et al. (2010 and 2013) confirmed mutually positive benefits for country as well as event images. This was particularly so in the case of Canada and the 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympic Games. However, Heslop et al. (2010 and 2013) note that the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games did not have as positive an impact for either of the country or event brands. This points to the importance of host country and event brand synergy.

Brown et al. (2004) also discussed the degree of ‘match’ between the event and the destination as important in this process. This has implications for the strategic selection of events, based on event characteristics and the desired image of the destination. Similarly, Florek and Insch (2011) suggested that the congruence of event-destination image should be leveraged, and advocated an analysis of and strategic selection process for such events. Brown et al. (2004, p.299) concluded that the challenge for destination marketers is to “find the best ways to use event images, stories and emotions to capture the consumer’s attention and build the destination’s brand”.

Bodet and Lacassagne (2012) explored British perceptions of Beijing and the 2008 Olympic Games in order to ascertain a transfer of image between the brands. They found that although there was a transfer of elements from the sporting event to the place, few clearly positive elements were transferred and several negative associations remained. They also highlighted some limitations in this image transfer process such as the transfer of negative elements and the lack of media control. They concluded that the co-branding impact has important implications for the host venue selection process in order to protect the sporting brand.

While most of the discussion thus far has assumed the stakeholder perspective, mega-events are also perceived from a political perspective - the topic of the following section.

3.5.5 'Soft power', political signalling & international relations

Higham and Hinch (2009) noted that the Olympic Games have long been used to serve the imaging or re-imaging of places, often to serve political ends. Furthermore, Nauright (2013) specifically linked the nation branding aims of host nations with global diplomacy. He claimed that increasingly, diplomacy has evolved into "shaping international views of nations as sites for business development and tourism" (p.23). Similarly, Alekseyeva (2014, p.159) cited the case of 2014 Sochi Winter Olympic Games as an attempt by the Russian government to "signal its strength in the contemporary international order".

Grix (2012) concluded that 'soft power' provides a useful lens through which to capture the motives of advanced capitalist states and, increasingly, 'emerging' states, for bidding for and hosting sport mega-events. He noted the increase in willingness of governments "of all political hues" to stage sport mega-events and that many "states have and do 'instrumentalise' sport to promote their country's image or 'brand' and attempt to gain prestige" (p.289). For example, Majumdar (2012, p.126) reports on the 2010 Commonwealth Games in Delhi, stating that it was an attempt by the government to portray to western nations "what they call a 'truly modern' India".

Similarly, Santos (2014) depicted the role that hosting sport mega-events have played in relation to Brazil's international politics. He described the bidding for and hosting of sport mega-events such as the 2002 South American Games, the 2007 Pan-American Games, the 2014 FIFA World Cup and the 2016 Olympic Games as part of a wider government strategy that has become one of the most important aspects of Brazil's international politics at the beginning of the twenty-first century. De Almeida et al. (2014) support this proposition, agreeing that winning the rights to host sport mega events has given the country "recognition and symbolic power in the international arena" (p.271). Their paper revealed how sport mega-events have been used as a strategy of foreign policy to improve the country's 'soft power'.

The 2008 Beijing Olympic Games were described by Panagiotopoulou (2012, p.2343) as the Chinese government's attempt to use the "platform to demonstrate [China's] economic and technological achievements and organisational capacities". However, the paper notes that the slight improvement in its international reputation during the event period seems not to have lasted long for China. The paper concluded that the successful organisation of the Olympic Games, an internationally admired opening ceremony and the stunning results of Chinese

athletes was not enough to offset concerns and negative associations of the international public linked to the decline of political freedom and human rights violation.

Sport mega-events can therefore be considered a “significant player in public diplomacy efforts” (Nauright 2013, p.26). Linked with the political significance of mega-events is the emotional and symbolic value that sport in particular adds to the dimension of events - to be discussed further in the following section.

3.5.6 The emotional & symbolic value of sport mega-events

Although the focus of the literature is on sport mega-events, much of what has been discussed so far could relate to other types of mega-events. However, it appears that the nature of sport does add a unique significance to the impact of mega-events on nation branding. Gratton and Preuss (2008, p.1927) described sport mega-sport events as having “tremendous symbolic significance and form”. This symbolism may be used for political aims (as mentioned above) but may also relate to the emotional value for the citizens of the host nation. Gratton and Preuss (2008) described how citizens may become ‘emotionally involved’, exhibiting increased levels of national pride as the sport events create a context for “local identification, vision and motivation” (p.1928). The Olympic Games in Seoul 1988 is given as an example of an event that created a national feeling of “vitality, participation, and recognition” (p.1928). They also noted that negative emotions might be caused.

Rein and Shields (2007) explored the role of sport in strategies for differentiating, in particular, ‘emerging, transitional, negatively viewed and newly industrialised’ nations. They claimed that sport is a rather underutilised “place branding platform”, and could be used effectively either as a primary or secondary tool for differentiation (p.74). Importantly, they explained how sport stimulates an “emotional heat” between the participants and the audiences that can “symbolise the energy, vigour, and strength of an emerging nation in ways that eco-branding, museums, and other cultural attractions, for example, cannot” (p.74).

Higham and Hinch (2009) explored how sport exerts a significant influence on the meanings that people attach to space. They explained how the cultural dimensions of sport are readily harnessed by sports organisations, destination management organisations and media to represent and disseminate the lifestyles and ways of living associated with specific places. This may be significant in terms of the decision-making processes and experiences of tourists. They further noted that sport mega-events have become increasingly important as part of the strategies used by sport and tourism destination managers, to build place identity and to position destinations as being interesting, attractive and unique.

Sport events offer the potential to build strong associations between specific people (participants and spectators) and particular places. Higham and Hinch (2009, p.242) noted the growing prominence of sport in terms of place identity and the potential for sports to offer “authentic cultural experiences of place”. They explained that place identity can be constructed through both natural and built elements of the sports landscape. In particular relation to sport mega-events, they mention that iconic elements of design (such as new or revamped sports stadia) have the potential to contribute in powerful ways to place identity and place promotion.

The role of sport in nation branding is not limited to events, but also includes the success of national sport teams. Dinnie (2004) states that a country’s sporting achievements can project an extremely powerful image upon which nations may partly construct a nation brand. He cited the New Zealand (‘All Blacks’) rugby team and the Brazilian football team as examples of national sport teams that enjoy iconic status and symbolise national pride (p.5). Dinnie acknowledged “the important role of sport as a key facet of place branding”. He further suggested that the role of sport in nation branding can be expected to increase in prominence, largely as a result of the increased coverage of sport through digital and satellite media.

Another important aspect that sport adds is that of ‘liminality’. Chalip (2006) noted that sport mega-events can result in ‘liminality’, ‘communitas’ or a ‘feel-good’ factor for the host nation. Grix (2012, p.307) added to this description, a “sense of celebration and social camaraderie”. He further described the manner in which Germany harnessed liminality benefits from the 2006 FIFA World Cup through some innovative ways in which they created and fostered sociability (e.g. the Fan Zones). He concluded that stakeholders need to capitalise on the social effects that events like this generate by creating the right atmosphere. It therefore appears that sport itself adds extra dimensions to the opportunities for nation branding through mega-events.

3.6 Summary

This chapter began by defining the contexts of sport and the emerging discipline of sport tourism. Within the sport tourism framework proposed by Hinch and Higham (2001), the link between sport events and their host environment (city or nation) is clear. Accordingly, the study of event impacts has emerged as a means to examine, understand and possibly justify the multiple benefits of hosting an event for a city or nation. While economic impacts have predominated, there is an increasing awareness of other impacts, such as socio-cultural, environment and branding/ image-related impacts. Furthermore, the literature emphasised a legacy perspective on event impacts, highlighting the longer-term, positive or negative, planned or unplanned, tangible or intangible nature of impacts that remain for a host nation after an

event. The awareness of legacies has grown from the predominantly tangible aspects to include less tangible ones, such as image and branding benefits for the host city or nation.

More recently, scholars have suggested that the event impact framework may be outdated, preferring a focus on leveraging. This represents a significant shift, from measuring event impacts in terms of outcomes, to a more strategic and tactical, pro-active approach, that measures the degree to which opportunities have been capitalised on.

The final section of this chapter identified the nation branding opportunities that sport mega-events provide for a host nation. The literature revealed that there are multiple opportunities that align very clearly with the branding theory, including brand salience, brand identity and brand image. Additionally, the co-branding framework is supported by the event tourism literature. The chapter concluded with assessing the unique aspects that sport contributes to the mega-event impacts.

Despite the growing literature in this area and a number of case studies that have supported these assertions, it is not clear what the brand stakeholders perceive the key branding opportunities to be. Furthermore, in light of the primary aim of this study, namely: “To critically assess the strategic contribution of a sport mega-event to nation branding for a host nation”, the past two chapters have given an indication as to what can be expected, as well as the challenges perceived to this effect. However, the central question of this thesis remains unanswered - “How can a sport mega-event be leveraged to create and sustain nation branding benefits for a host nation?” The following chapter sets out the methodological considerations and methods adopted in an attempt to answer this central question.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction to the research methodology

Research is 'reiterative' (Gratton & Jones 2010, p.5), meaning that it is based upon previous knowledge that it aims to advance and may itself generate further questions to be answered by future research. The previous chapters have discussed the literature and studies that led to the generation of research questions and the rationale upon which this research project is based. The findings and conclusions of this thesis will in turn identify areas for future research.

Chapter One indicated that the primary research question of this study was: "What is the strategic contribution of sport mega-events to nation branding for a host nation?". Three subsequent questions to this were:

- What are the inherent characteristics of a sport mega-event that create strategic nation branding opportunities for a host nation?
- What strategic nation branding opportunities are created by hosting a sport mega-event?
- How can stakeholders leverage and sustain a nation branding legacy from a sport mega-event for a host nation?

Having identified the conceptual framework for the study of nation branding in the context of sport mega-events, the next step was to identify an appropriate methodology to answer these questions and achieve the research objectives. This chapter specifically discusses the methodological context of the investigation, rationalising and detailing the choice of a mixed methods research design as well as the procedures used and the analysis process undertaken. The ethical considerations during each of these stages are also detailed.

The overall flow of the research methodology adopted for this study is depicted in Figure 4.1, based on the quant → QUAL annotation (Leech & Onwuegbuzie 2009). The remainder of this chapter rationalises and details the selection and implementation of this approach. The chapter starts, however, with a broader contextualisation of the sport tourism and nation branding methodological considerations and ends with the consideration of reflexivity and an assessment of the methodology adopted.

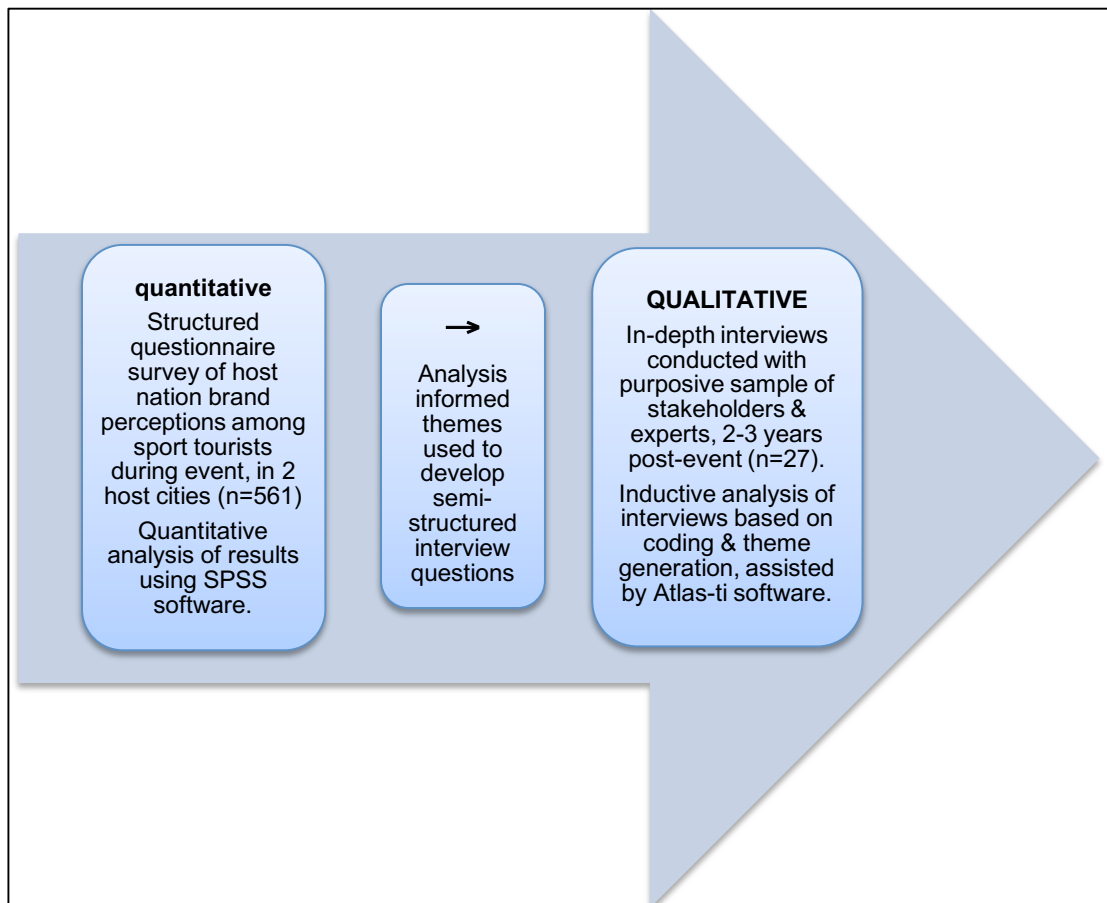


Figure 4.1: Graphic depiction of the mixed methods approach used in this study

4.2 The philosophy of knowledge as it pertains to nation branding & sport tourism

Before describing the precise methodological decisions of this study, this section identifies the research paradigms and approaches that underpin sport tourism and nation branding research, in order to justify the selection of the mixed methods approach. Key developments in sport tourism and place or nation branding research are reviewed to provide context to the methodological approach adopted. The main differences in approaches between these discourses and the unique aspects and methodological decisions facing researchers when combining a study from these divergent yet overlapping fields are debated.

Commenting on the relationship between the sub-field of sport tourism and the longer-established subject areas of sport and of tourism, Weed (2006) suggested that sport tourism is clearly related to, but more than the sum of, sport and tourism. As a consequence of this relationship, Gibson and Pennington-Gray (2005) suggested that sport tourism researchers should draw on concepts and theories from the more mature subject areas of sport and of tourism. According to Weed (2006), a key aspect of the relationship between sport, tourism and

sport tourism is that the former two can and should inform the latter. According to Weed (2006), a long-standing issue in sport tourism research has been the way in which sport impacts upon (or is utilised to promote) tourism. However, Weed (2006) cautioned that the extent to which research into the relationship between sport and tourism can inform knowledge about sport and about tourism should not be overlooked. As an example of this, Weed (2006) cited the understanding of legacy and leveraging, developed largely by researchers in the sub-field of sport tourism, that has a great deal of potential to be applied to sport management as well as to tourism and event management.

At the outset, tourism research drew on “extradisciplinarity” (Tribe & Airey 2007, p.3), meaning that knowledge was not generated by academic study but rather largely generated from the context of practice, management and government. The first substantial body of academic knowledge came mainly from economists, although other areas of sociology, geography, psychology, philosophy and anthropology have also had an influence (Tribe & Airey 2007). Tribe and Airey (2007) therefore described the study of tourism as having two separate fields: one field related to a business and economic orientation; and the other to the cultural, social and other non-business areas. Already by the mid-1990s, the business field was described as “having some coherence and structure and a framework of theories and concepts” (Tribe & Airey 2007, p.4). There is evidence of a “strong management tradition” in tourism research (Tribe & Airey 2007, p.9). However, Graburn and Jafari (1991, p.7) commented:

“No single discipline alone can accommodate, treat or understand tourism; it can be studied only if disciplinary boundaries are crossed and if multidisciplinary perspectives are sought and formed”.

Weed (2009) also noted this multidisciplinary nature within sport tourism research. This is evident in the current study that fits within a general business orientation, but draws on the applied management areas of marketing (branding); event management (event impact studies); and sport tourism (mega-event legacy and leveraging) studies.

4.2.1 Strengths of this approach

Tourism research is commonly labeled as ‘quantitative’, ‘qualitative’ or ‘mixed’ (Xin et al. 2013, p.66). Tribe and Airey (2007) noted that the early predominance of economics led to the dominance of ‘positivism’ in tourism epistemology. Riley and Love (2000) found that quantitative studies predominated in academic journals up to 1996. However, Dann and Philips (2001) noted a trend in tourism research moving toward a more qualitative approach. More recently, Tribe and Airey (2007) noted that the business oriented tourism research is substantially in the positivist tradition, while the non-business research areas provide more qualitative analysis. They did, however, note that the boundaries between these two groups

are often blurred. Tribe and Airey (2007) comment on the development and maturation of tourism research:

“The totality of tourism studies has now developed beyond the narrow boundaries of an applied business field and has the characteristics of a fledgling post-modern field of research. A sign of increasing maturity is the emergence of more reflexivity and there is evidence of an increasing range of tourism research which offers a counter-balance to tourism as a business practice and which encourages researchers to follow innovative and radical lines of enquiry” (p.6).

Innovation in tourism research was further encouraged by Chambers (2007, p.243), who urged that cutting-edge research in tourism “should embrace novel methodologies, methods, practices and pedagogies in and of tourism which will inspire new ways of seeing, being and knowing”. Chambers (2007) further noted that such research should be self-reflective in declaring and critiquing its own paradigmatic assumptions. This thesis therefore provides a reflective critique on the choice of methodology for this study and suggestions for the future studies within a similar context.

Similar to this development in tourism, Weed (2011, p.102) suggested that sport tourism research is maturing from what he earlier described as a “positivist hegemony”, to include a heterogeneous range of methodologies, methods and techniques. Weed (2009, p.624) advocated that sport tourism researchers build on, rather than merely repeat, previous research, and “pay attention to methodological and epistemological concerns in constructing their research, rather than simply applying methods on the basis of current practice and convention”. The following paragraphs indicate some of the common methodologies within the sport tourism and place branding fields.

Getz (2012) explained that within event management research, methodology is largely derived from economics (especially for impact studies) and consumer behaviour (e.g. marketing-related studies). However, he noted that other aspects of management theory are now also being applied to event studies, such as stakeholder and institutional theory. Getz further noted that a broader view of impacts and how to assess them, making greater use of mixed methods, is influencing event management.

Place and nation branding studies have taken quite a different approach to the sport tourism impact literature. While quantitative approaches have predominated in the sport tourism event impact literature, the majority of place/ nation branding literature is based on qualitative approaches. Gertner (2011b) conducted an analysis of the place branding literature between 1990 and 2009, observing that the journal papers produced in this period were predominantly qualitative. However, he noted that many of these were largely descriptive or based on disparate and unique case studies and marketing campaigns carried out by places and notes that only a small number made an attempt to adopt a specific method, such as

ethnography, textual analysis, focus groups, in-depth interviews, literature review, historical approach or hermeneutics, with the majority being rather subjective or anecdotal. Alarming, he noted that most of the qualitative articles did not advance any research questions or even explain the methodology used in the study. However, he did suggest that the field was reaching maturity as he viewed the emergence of new authors and the acceptance of an increased number of papers in various journals with strict methodological demands as encouraging more robust and rigorous research in the field. Gertner therefore implored place branding scholars and practitioners to evolve from a descriptive to a normative stage, in order to build a more robust theory base.

This section has highlighted the complexities of the study context and the lack of standardised methods for mega-event impact, legacy and leveraging and place branding research. With this study situated at the confluence of place branding, sport tourism and event impact studies, a mixed methods case study approach was selected as an appropriate means to answer the research questions. The following section defines mixed methods and discusses its application for this study in greater detail.

4.3 A rationale for mixed methods research

The previous section indicated the divergent approaches used in researching sport tourism, mega-events and place branding, although all of these fields advocate new approaches and innovative methods to strengthen the emerging theory. For this study that focuses on the convergence of these fields, the researcher selected a mixed methods approach. Chan and Marafa (2013) consider the approaches used by place brand researchers to be limited, especially in topic areas such as place identity, projected image and stakeholder relationships. They note that qualitative and quantitative approaches have typically been utilised separately, with only 11 per cent of the studies they reviewed involving integrated approaches. Zenker (2011) reviewed the approaches to place brand measurement and criticised the very limited number of methodical approaches employed. The paper advocated that a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches is necessary for evaluating a place brand. Chan and Marafa (2013) support this view, stating that:

“An integrated approach utilising mixed methods may, in some of these topic areas, yield the most useful analytical results, especially when the measurement of place brands is a complicated task that involves the disclosure and exposition of perceptions of different stakeholders” (p.245).

They further advocated the adoption of a mixed method approach, emphasising that this approach “can sometimes deliver a more comprehensive picture and provide more interesting analytical results that help shed light on the research problems at hand” (Chan & Marafa 2013, p.246).

Multi-method research has become increasingly prominent in the social sciences over the past three decades (Wagner et al. 2012, p.161). In the disciplines of marketing, management and sociology, mixed methods research has become increasingly accepted, to the point where it is widely acknowledged as the third major paradigm after quantitative and qualitative (Daymon & Holloway 2011). Creswell (2014, p.217) noted that mixed methods originated around the late 1980s and early 1990s, based on the work of individuals in diverse fields of study, the likes of evaluation, education, management, sociology and health sciences. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) outlined the developmental phases that the methodology has gone through, beginning with the formative stage, the philosophical debates, the procedural developments, and more recently, reflective positions. Illustrating the acceptance of this methodology, today several journals now emphasise mixed methods research, such as: 'The Journal of Mixed Methods Research'; 'Quality and Quantity'; 'Field Methods'; and 'The International Journal of Multiple Research Approaches', among others that actively encourage this approach (Creswell 2014, p.216). Research books and textbooks solely devoted to mixed methods research have more recently emerged, including: Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010); and Creswell and Plano Clark (2011).

Many different terms for this approach have been used over the years, such as: integrating, synthesis, quantitative and qualitative methods; multi-method; or mixed methodology, although recent writings tend to use the term 'mixed methods' more uniformly (Creswell 2014, p.217). As a result of these varying terms, the definition of mixed methods has evolved from rather rudimentary definitions that focused on the combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study, to more holistic ones that include both methods as well as a philosophical orientation, such as the following definition by Creswell and Plano Clark (2011):

"As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases of the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analyzing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone" (p.5).

The above quotation illustrates how the development of mixed methods research stems from a pragmatic rather than a purist approach (Daymon & Holloway 2011). A pragmatic rationale for mixed methods includes the following advantages (Daymon & Hollow 2011, p.351): its multi-dimensional nature allows for the exploration of a range of different aspects and levels within a single project; it enables the simultaneous answering of confirmatory and explanatory questions, both verifying and generating theory through the same study; and it has the potential to overcome disadvantages associated with any mono-method research.

Despite these benefits, Daymon and Holloway (2011) noted some disadvantages and concerns relating to mixed methods research. For the researcher, a mixed methods approach is more complex and time consuming than a single method approach. Some combinations of mixed methods are difficult to integrate or blend as a result of their divergent underlying beliefs. Many mixed methods researchers integrate the different approaches rather than presenting the two separate studies in one. A further critique is that much of the mixed methods research is still of the positivist paradigm and therefore gives preference or dominance to the quantitative aspects at the expense of the qualitative. While noting these concerns, the researcher adopted a mixed methods approach as a pragmatic means of addressing the research questions. On the whole, mixed methods studies are utilised to answer questions that cannot be answered by one paradigm alone (Leech & Onwuegbuzie 2009, p.266). For this study, the main benefits of using mixed methods were considered to be:

- Complementarity: the elaboration, enhancement and clarification of results from one method with results from another method; and
- Expansion: extending the breadth and range of enquiry by using different methods.

Johnson et al. (2007) described mixed methods as a continuum between the 'pure' qualitative and quantitative research paradigms. As such, they categorised mixed methods as either "pure mixed" (or "equal status") or qualitative or quantitative dominant research. The latter two are depicted as "QUAL+quan" and "QUAN+qual" respectively. This study fits the quantitative dominant mixed methods research type, i.e. QUAN+qual, which Johnson et al (2007, p.124) defined as:

"the type of mixed research in which one relies on a qualitative, constructivist-poststructuralist-critical view of the research process, while concurrently recognizing that the addition of quantitative data and approaches are likely to benefit most research projects."

Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009, p.267) also distinguished between the pure and dominant status mixed methods, but referred to these respectively as either "fully" or "partially" mixed methods. More recently, Creswell (2014, p.220) identified three basic mixed methods designs that emphasised the timing of each of the methods as opposed to merely the dominance as identified by Johnson et al. (2007). The three designs were identified as:

- The 'Convergent Parallel' approach: Using both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods simultaneously, with the results compared and contrasted before a joint interpretation.;

- The 'Explanatory Sequential' approach: Using a dominant quantitative study initially that is followed up with a qualitative study that aims to explain the initial findings in further detail by looking in-depth at a fewer number of cases;
- The 'Exploratory Sequential' approach: Using a qualitative dominant initial design that assists to build an instrument or factors that can be tested through a quantitative study.

This study adopted a combination of methods, fitting the mixed methods definitions and approaches discussed. An initial quantitative study was designed as a means to explore the impact of the mega-event on sport tourist perceptions of the nation brand, giving an indication of the degree to which these perceptions were affected by the event and the factors that influenced this. This is best measured using a quantitative approach, in order to obtain a statistically significant representation from a large sample population of the mega-event tourists, using a structured questionnaire constructed according to similar place brand image assessment studies. However, the results from such a study need to be placed in context, by assessing the stakeholder aims, activities and perceptions of the nation branding opportunities created by the event. This context therefore required a qualitative approach, as a purposive sample would be selected and an inductive approach toward knowledge generation through semi-structured, in-depth interviews. The themes emanating from the initial study could then be used as a broad structure for the interviews, allowing for greater depth and completeness to the findings.

The quantitative and qualitative strands of enquiry were designed to have an independent level of interaction, with the two studies conducted separately and sequentially. The design chosen is most similar to the 'Explanatory Sequential' design mentioned above, where a quantitative study informs a qualitative study. However, there is a far greater emphasis in this study on the latter, qualitative study. Using the typologies discussed (Johnson et al. 2007; Leech & Onwuegbuzie 2009, Creswell 2014), this study can be described as sequential, qualitative dominant mixed methods research. Using the notation system of Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009, p.273), the following notation is used to describe this study, indicating the sequence and dominance of the qualitative approach:

quan→ QUAL.

Across both phases of this study, a case study approach was adopted. Case study enquiry is "associated with an intensive investigation of a specific phenomenon in its natural context" (Daymon & Holloway 2011, p.114). The focus is on examining an issue, event, process or problem within a particular context. It offers the benefits of a deep, narrow investigation, is detailed and descriptive, and is useful for theory building and theory testing. Daymon and

Holloway (2011) explained that case study research is not a method but rather a broad methodological approach or research design – an umbrella that encompasses multiple methods. The case study approach therefore fits naturally within a mixed methods study, as multiple sources of evidence are used in a holistic and intensive examination of a single phenomenon (such as an event) within its social context, bounded by time and place.

In this instance, a single case study was selected in order to undertake a deep but narrow exploration. The sport mega-event selected was the FIFA World Cup that took place within the social context and location of South Africa. However, although the event took place in 2010, this study is not bound by that exact time period as it aims to reflect on the event period as well as the post event period, as is the practice for event impact and legacy studies. This case was selected for both reasons of intrinsic interest, as well as instrumental reasons. Aligned with the pragmatic approach to this study, the researcher chose the case as it was: occurring at a good time for the period of the study (with the largest sport mega-events occurring only every two years); was accessible for the researcher, who was living in the host nation and therefore understood the culture, language and context; and provided access to a number of definitive stakeholders through the researcher's network of contacts. However, the case also held instrumental value in that it was openly stated that a primary aim of the event was to influence the global brand perceptions of the host nation. Furthermore, the nation provided a fairly rare opportunity to explore the context of a mega-event in a developing nation, and the first such event to be held on the African continent.

A notable criticism of the single case study approach is the ability of the study results to be generalised for other cases (Daymon & Holloway 2011), such as future FIFA World Cups and Olympic Games in other host nations and cities. In order to limit this disadvantage, the research design included questions for stakeholders that reflected a degree of comparison with other sport mega-events and also selected a small number of key informants who had direct experience with other mega-events and contexts both preceding and following the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Furthermore, beyond the specific aspects of this case, the discussion and conclusions of this thesis also draw attention to theory-based generalisation from this study that are more applicable to other contexts.

Having justified the selection of the mixed methods approach and the choice of the case study, the two strands of enquiry and their specific data collection methods, instrumentation, sample selection and data analysis methods are now discussed in further detail.

4.4 Phase one: Quantitative strand of enquiry

Preuss (2007) suggested looking at event impacts at three time periods: before (pre-event), during and after (post-event) the event, although none of the studies found in the literature attempted to do so. As mentioned in the previous chapter, most event impact studies examining the brand-related gains for a host city or nation from a mega-event have involved either a quantitative pre- and post-event sampling, or a sampling at one of these points in time. These event impact studies have not followed a prescriptive approach to the selection of a population, with studies drawing samples from: tourists (e.g. Kim & Morrison 2005; Smith 2006), international observers (e.g. Ritchie & Smith 1991; Bodet & Lacassagne 2012; Fullerton & Holtzhausen 2012; Harris et al. 2012; Heslop et al., 2013); residents (Lee 2010; Armenakyan et al. 2012); or the media coverage of the event (Lepp & Gibson 2011; Swart et al. 2013).

With the researcher beginning this study in early 2010, the FIFA World Cup event in South Africa occurred very early in the research process. As such, it was not possible to conduct a typical impact study, measuring pre- and post-event impacts. However, the timing of the event presented a good opportunity for an initial study phase that aimed to identify evidence of an improved image for the host nation as a result of perception changes among the international mega-event visitors.

The Phase One study was therefore designed to give the researcher an indication of impact that the mega-event had on international visitor perceptions of the nation during the event period, and to propose factors that influenced these perceptions. This would provide the researcher with a contextual understanding of the study area. The findings from this first phase study would provide themes and questions to be explored in further detail in the second phase of the study.

4.4.1 Selection of method

During the event period, it was expected that there would be in the region of 400,000 international visitors to the host nation, with very little prior knowledge existing about who these tourists would be. The researcher therefore adopted a positivist approach to the design of the Phase One study, selecting the quantitative method of questionnaire survey. This is a suitable method for assessing largely predetermined responses to structured questions among a large, undefined population group. The questionnaires were administered using a face-to-face interview, through a mall-intercept approach. This method was selected as the best approach to reach the intended target population in locations where they were likely to be found, given the fact that no other details relating to the population were known. Face-to-face engagement with the potential respondents also had the advantage of enabling the researcher to verify the

consent and suitability of the respondent, explain the purpose of the study and establish a rapport with the respondent in order to elicit accurate and detailed responses through probing or clarifying the meaning of questions where necessary.

4.4.2 Selection of sample

For the Phase One study, the population was deemed to include all international visitors to South Africa during the time of the FIFA World Cup, regardless of their reason for travelling to the nation or whether they had visited the nation previously. Using the definition of a 'sport tourist (as in Chapter Three), the population included those travelling to the nation, outside of their home environment, for more than a 24-hour period of time and not specifically remunerated in the nation as a result of their travel. It included those whose primary purpose for travel was to attend the event as well as those for whom it was a supplemental reason for their travel, although this was clarified in the interview. Citizens and domestic tourists were excluded, along with temporary residents of an international origin, such as international students.

Consistent with impact studies conducted by Gibson et al. (2008), where respondents were surveyed within a confined location, such as a fan park or stadium precinct, a spatially-based probability sampling approach was selected. This method ensures that the survey is not skewed towards a particular area or group of respondents within the survey location. By selecting every n^{th} (typically 3rd, 5th or 7th, and in this case 5th) potential respondent and only one respondent within a particular group of fans/ visitors, this approach ensures a more representative sample of interviews across the entire demarcated area.

The official FIFA Fan Fest (fan park) and stadium precinct were selected as locations for the interviews as they were expected to be high traffic areas for sport tourists. Fan parks were found to be especially suitable for the interview approach. These are designated public viewing areas that are intended to accommodate members of the public and international visitors who are not able to purchase tickets or to travel to match venues, enabling them to watch all events on large television screens and to enjoy other entertainment in an access-controlled environment (Swart et al. 2008).

The choice of sample also included the days selected to conduct the interviews. In order not to bias the results towards a particular fan or nationality grouping, the research was spread across a number of match days that featured different teams. The researcher selected four match days in Cape Town and two match days in Durban. However, due to slower than expected initial progress as a result of rain in Cape Town, three additional non-match days were added to make up for the time missed. In total, 561 surveys were completed on nine days

across the two cities, consisting of three days surveying in the stadium precincts and six in the fan park areas. These all took place during the period 11 June to 7 July 2010, as set out in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Questionnaire interview scheduling		
Date:	Match:	City & location
11 June	Uruguay v France	Cape Town, stadium
18 June	England v Algeria	Cape Town, stadium
19 June	Non-match day* Netherlands v Japan; Ghana v Australia; Cameroon v Denmark	Cape Town, fan park
23 June	Non-match day* Slovenia v England; USA v Algeria; Australia v Serbia; Ghana v Germany	Cape Town, fan park
25 June	Portugal v Brazil	Durban, stadium
27 June	Non-match day* Prelim: Germany v England Prelim: Argentina v Mexico	Cape Town, fan park
03 July	Quarter Final: Germany v Argentina	Cape Town, fan park
06 July	Semi Final: Netherlands v Uruguay	Cape Town, fan park
07 July	Semi Final: Spain v Germany	Durban, fan park

4.4.3 Questionnaire design

From the literature reviewed, there did not appear to be one standard questionnaire suitable for the needs of this study, therefore a questionnaire was designed using questions similar in content to an event impact destination image study by Gibson et al. (2008) and adding questions related to Anholt's (2007b) nation brand hexagon and Kersting's (2007) conceptualisation of national identity. The questionnaire design was structured, using predominantly closed-ended questions and Likert-type scales, dichotomous and multichotomous (fixed alternative) questions. Open-ended questions and options were provided in some cases in order to test unaided prior and current perceptions of the brand image. Questions were of an undisguised nature (the purpose of the investigation having been explained by the interviewer). A problem associated with fixed alternative questions is that although this form of question may prove reliable, it may lose validity if the options given fail to reflect the respondent's answer. To account for this, an 'other' category, as well as an 'unsure' option, was included in some of the multichotomous questions. Fixed alternative questions were used mainly to collect data on attitudes, intentions, awareness, behaviour, and categorical characteristics, where the responses sought were fairly well-known, limited in number, and definable. As far as possible, the alternative responses were mutually exclusive, and

collectively exhaustive. For some of these questions, a Likert-type rating scale was used to ask for the level of agreement with a batch of statements, from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree,' with a neutral response allowed for.

The format of the questionnaire was designed to fit a double-sided A4 page for ease of administration and to keep the interview brief in duration, bearing in mind that the respondents were event spectators on their way to or watching an event. In order to facilitate handling, the length of the questionnaire was a prime consideration. In view of the interviews taking place in a fan park or within a stadium precinct, the questionnaire would need to be short enough and clear enough to encourage cooperation from potential respondents and to effectively capture their responses. Responses were entered directly onto the questionnaire itself, either by ticking the applicable box or entering the response into the space allocated for open questions. It was originally envisaged that the questionnaire would be administered electronically, using iPods. However, timing constraints, a lack of internet access in the survey locations and potential safety concerns eventually led to the use of paper and pen surveys. However, the researcher would favour the use of such technology for future surveys as it has the potential to significantly decrease the time spent on data capturing.

The structure and order of questions was also an important consideration. Potentially more sensitive demographic questions were limited to nationality, age, gender and ethnic origin (self-rated). All of these, except one, were placed at the end of the questionnaire, to allow for rapport development before asking for these responses. 'Nationality', however, was used as the first question in order to screen out any potential local citizens. A second screening question checked that the respondent had actually watched events live at a stadium or at a fan park. A set of questions then aimed to assess the travel behaviour and purpose of the respondents, asking respondents about their travel to previous FIFA World Cup events, previous travel in South Africa or in Africa and if the mega-event was the primary reason for their travel. Next, three open, unprompted questions were asked relating to respondents perceptions of the host nation prior to travelling as well as how and why these perceptions of the nation brand may have changed. Respondents were supplied with a series of potential factors that influenced the formation of their perceptions prior to travelling and were asked the degree to which these factors had influenced their perceptions (using a 5-point Likert type scale). A list of pre-determined brand attributes were presented to the respondents, who again were asked to indicate their level of agreement with endings to the statement "Do you believe that South Africa is/ has...?" (using a Likert type scale where 1 = "no, strongly disagree" to 5 = "yes, strongly disagree"). The batch of attributes was generated from Anholt's (2007b) Nation Brand Hexagon (i.e. related to tourism promotion; investment, government policy; exports; arts and culture; and people). Using the same scale, the impact of the brand perceptions on tourism behaviour was

tested by asking respondents for their level of agreement with ten endings to the question: “Has your visit to South Africa encouraged you to...?”. The behaviour attributes ranged from repeat visitation to emigration, based on the national identity formation scale (Kersting 2007). Respondents were also asked if they had heard of 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”. Finally, respondents were asked to provide their e-mail address if they consented to being interviewed in a follow-up survey, in case the researcher should choose to do so.

The questionnaire pre-test is a vital test of how the questionnaire performs under actual conditions of data collection (Churchill 1995, p.436). The questionnaire was assessed by two international sport tourism academics (one in the UK and the other in the USA, both of whom have significant experience with event impact analysis). Slight modifications were made to the question sequence and wording based on their recommendations. The questionnaire was then pre-tested on a group of 26 international visiting students to Cape Town before the event, although these were self-administered, aimed at checking the clarity of the questions for an international audience. Once again, some minor adjustments were made to the question wording, general layout and the introductory instructions. The full questionnaire is included in this thesis as Appendix A.

4.4.4 The questionnaire survey procedure

The researcher conducted the interviews in Cape Town, together with the assistance of senior and post-graduate Sport Management and Tourism Management students from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology who were briefed and supervised by the researcher. One of the students conducted the interviews in Durban. A benefit of using the students to assist was that a number of them could speak foreign languages such as French, Spanish and German. This assisted with developing rapport between the respondents and to explain the interview process. However, all interviews were conducted in English.

As mentioned earlier, it was found that the fan park areas were far more suitable interview locations than the stadium precincts, especially as there was less noise in these areas (mostly a result of the very loud ‘vuvuzela’ instruments played more frequently in the stadium precinct areas). Respondents were also more relaxed in this environment as they were not in a rush to enter or leave the stadium, like they were in the stadium precinct. As a result, the respondents were far more willing to participate in the interview in the fan park environment.

Access to the fan park and stadium precinct locations can pose a challenge for researchers, especially as the perimeter areas set for security screenings are often placed a

long way from the desired locations, and unaccredited researchers do not get access to these areas without tickets or express permission from the organising authorities. The researcher therefore applied for accredited access to the areas through the Cape Higher Education Consortium (CHEC), who arranged for permission from the relevant city authorities in Cape Town and Durban. The researcher and the students assisting with the fieldwork, were supplied with formal identifying accreditation, attached to lanyards worn around their necks, and carried a copy of the letter of permission from the city authorities to conduct research in those areas. Figure 4.2 depicts a map of the survey locations used in the City of Cape Town, pointing out the Cape Town Stadium at the top centre of the figure and the fan park at the lower centre, with the 'Fan Walk' joining the two locations.

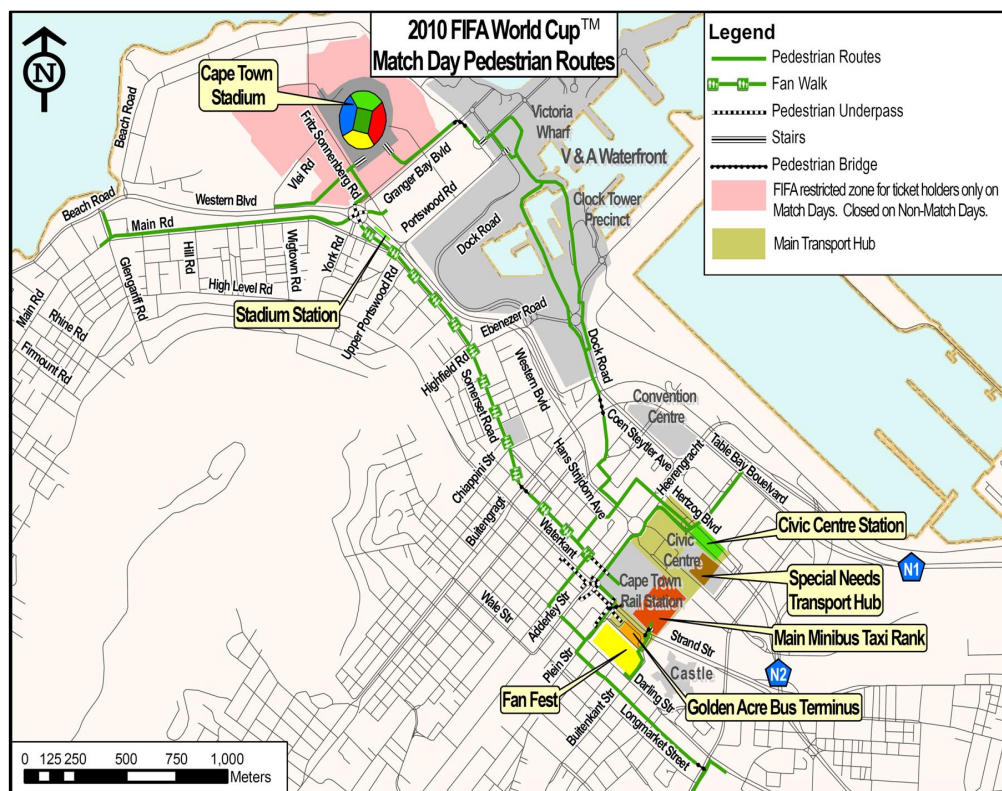


Figure 4.2: Map of the survey locations in Cape Town – FIFA Fan Fest and stadium precinct (source: City of Cape Town 2010).

4.4.5 Data capturing & analysis

The researcher kept a daily check of the number of completed responses in order to assess the progress of the fieldwork. Each interview was numbered sequentially immediately as it was received and checked for completeness. At the completion of the tournament, the process of preparing the data for analysis began. The completed questionnaires were again inspected for completeness. All closed-ended questions had been pre-coded (assigned a numerical value) for ease of capture, while the open-ended responses were captured word-for-word at this stage.

The data was captured into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet that could be easily imported into the software programme SPSS (the statistical software package for the social sciences) for further analysis.

Basic statistical functions, such as maximum, minimum, and means, were used to check that the data had been entered and imported correctly. Further tabulation and analysis was done using the SPSS package, including: simple tabulation (frequency counts, calculation of means, medians, and maximum and minimum values) and cross-tabulation (using the Pearson Chi-Square test for significance) was conducted. For the purposes of this Phase One study, these analysis tools were deemed to be sufficient. The validity, reliability and ethical considerations of this Phase One study are included with the assessment of the qualitative study, towards the end of this chapter (see sections 4.5 and 4.6). The following section reveals the key findings from the quantitative study phase.

4.4.6 Interpretation of results & implications for the second phase

This section provides an overview of the key findings from the Phase One study and discusses the implications for the second phase. The following results informed the development of themes and questions to be addressed through the subsequent qualitative study.

- Tourism impact of the mega-event

The event attracted a high proportion of first-time visitors to the nation (75% of respondents). The vast majority (77%) of the respondents stated the mega-event as their primary reason for travel. The majority were from the traditional tourism source markets for the nation (western Europe and north America), while smaller numbers came from non-traditional markets such as South America and Asia. The findings indicate that the mega-event sport tourist is a distinct tourism niche, as it reflects a predominantly male (77%) and young (mean 32 years) segment. This distinct niche is also confirmed by the fact that over a third of the respondents had travelled to previous FIFA World Cup events. The fact that more than half of the respondents (51%) indicated that they would not have travelled to the host nation were it not for the mega-event, indicates the power of the mega-event to attract this niche market of travelers. These results are set out in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: A profile of the 2010 FIFA World Cup sport tourists	% (n=561)
Nationality (region):	
- Europe: (UK: 27.1%; Netherlands: 11.1%; Germany: 10.3%)	57.2
- North America (USA: 15.3%)	16.2
- Africa	6.8
- Australasia (Australia: 5.8%)	6.7
- Central & South America	6.6
- Central Asia & Far East	4.7
- Middle-East	1.8
Gender:	
- male	77
- female	23
Age:	
- mean age: 32 years	
- younger than 40 years	77
Travel profile:	
- Have travelled to previous FIFA World Cup	37
- Would not have travelled to South Africa if no World Cup event	51
- First-time visitors to South Africa	75
- World Cup was primary reason for travel	77

- Brand perceptions & perception changes

The findings revealed that knowledge and perceptions of the nation were rather limited, with respondents indicating that they held few clear perceptions of the nation prior to the mega-event. The unprompted response of the respondents indicates that these pre-event perceptions were mostly linked to the traditional tourist strengths. The top three post-coded categories of responses that received the most mentions were: “natural beauty”; “abundance of wildlife”; and “diversity of cultures and people”. While these are largely positive attributes, especially in terms of the tourism component of the nation brand, there was a negative attribute that was also mentioned, namely: “crime / safety and security fears”. This is consistent with a pre-event study that revealed that more than a third of tourists to South Africa were worried about their safety before travelling to the country (Donaldson & Ferreira, 2009). There were also other negative associations mentioned to a far lesser extent, such as with the nation’s oppressive Apartheid past (i.e. “racial tension”), and the more commonly associated negative African perceptions, such as: “dirty”; “undeveloped”; “poverty”; “income inequality”; and “disease/ HIV AIDS”. These aspects are potentially damaging for the tourism as well as the investment aspects of a nation brand.

The respondents indicated that their pre-event perceptions were mostly influenced by international media (37%) and event-specific news and media, including the Internet (29%). This highlighted the role that international media plays in creating perceptions of nation brands.

However, attending the 2010 mega-event appeared to have a significant impact on re-enforcing the positive perceptions and decreasing the impact of the negative aspects. Nearly three quarters (74%) of respondents who indicated they were first-time visitors agreed that their perceptions of the nation had changed since attending the World Cup in the country. The full set of responses to the prompted perceptions is set out in Table 4.3. The top two prompted perceptions were similar to the pre-event perceptions, namely: “beautiful scenery and natural attractions”; and “many friendly, welcoming people”. The event experience clearly re-enforced these positive aspects. There was also strong indication of South Africa’s perceived competency to host sport mega-events. These attributes that were agreed with most indicated a strong support for the tourism component of the nation brand. Other post-coded categories of unprompted, new perceptions included (in order of frequency): “clean”; “modern/ developed”; “not as dangerous as expected”; “not as much poverty as expected”; and “more urban/ large cities than expected”.

However, brand components related to business, investment and immigration were far less supported. Compared to the positive tourism assessments, respondents did not as clearly agree that the nation was perceived as offering good investment opportunities, a stable government and political leaders or considered a favourable place to live. The brand attributes that scored less highly (such as those related to aspects of politics and leadership; business/ investment opportunities; and social segregation) tended to consist of high “unsure” responses, illustrating a lack of knowledge or understanding related to these issues. These are perhaps more nuanced or complex factors that would require greater information or learning to change or create stronger perceptions.

It was also interesting to note that although “crime/ safety and security” had been mentioned as a negative prior perception, two thirds of respondents (67%) agreed or strongly agreed that the country is “a safe destination to visit”. It is also interesting that the study by Becker (2010) also revealed a similar change in perceptions of safety and security among non-travelling German fans. Although this was not one of the top associations, the positive improvement in the perception of this attribute could be regarded as a significant impact of the event for the nation brand.

The most significant reasons given for the changes in perceptions were noted as: “travelling in South Africa” and “interacting with South Africans”.

Although it is difficult to isolate the impact of the mega-event in changing perceptions, compared to the normal tourist experience of travelling in the country, the findings do however highlight the important role of tourist experiences in the formation of nation brand perceptions, and the role that mega-events play as part of this brand experience. The fact

that respondents strongly agreed that the event itself was successfully hosted may also have led to improved perceptions of the nation through the image transfer process from event to destination, as Florek and Insch (2011) described.

Table 4.3: Prompted brand perceptions of sport tourists						
<i>"Do you believe that South Africa has/is... ?"</i> (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=unsure; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree) (In %, n=561)						
	1	2	3	4	5	Mean :
beautiful scenery and natural attractions	0.7	0.2	0.9	18.5	79.7	4.8
many friendly, welcoming people	0.9	1.4	3	27.5	67.2	4.6
a good climate for tourism and sport	0.7	0.9	6.5	29.2	62.7	4.5
many diverse cultures	1.1	1.1	6.3	39.9	51.7	4.49
a competent host of the football World Cup	1.3	1.8	4.7	40.1	52.2	4.4
a world-class tourism destination	0.7	1.4	6.4	41.3	50.1	4.4
an excellent destination to host future sport mega-events	1.4	1.1	12.9	35.3	49.3	4.4
world-class sport facilities	1.3	2.7	11.1	46.9	38.1	4.2
a number of successful sport teams and participants	2	5.6	23.8	42.5	26.1	3.8
a desirable country to live in	3.6	6.5	28.4	37.7	23.9	3.7
a safe place to visit	1.8	8.3	23.6	49.5	16.9	3.6
a segregated (divided) social society	6.5	10.7	30.2	34.4	18.3	3.5
many business or investment opportunities	6	9.7	40.3	28.3	15.7	3.4
a stable democratic government	7.4	12.4	54	17.4	8.8	3.1
well-respected political leaders	9.9	14.2	38.6	28.2	9.2	2.9

- Impact of perception change for the nation brand:

Table 4.4. reveals the impact of these new brand perceptions on the tourist behaviour, indicating the impact of the event for different components of the nation brand. Respondents indicated a high intention to travel to South Africa again and to encourage others to travel, which represented valuable repeat tourism and word-of-mouth marketing. However, the sport tourists were not as positive (generally "unsure") in their indication of future travel in other African nations. This brings into the question the nation branding impact of the event for other African nations. Once again, these responses indicated that the impact of the event was most positive for the tourism brand component. The behavioural intent responses linked to other brand components, namely "immigration", "investment" and "business", scored more poorly, although it should be noted that these elements require greater personal commitment, potential risk or behaviour change for the respondents.

Table 4.4: Influence of brand perceptions on consumer behaviour

<i>"My visit to South Africa has encouraged me to..."</i> (1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=unsure; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree) (In %, n=561)						
	1	2	3	4	5	Mean:
visit South Africa again	1.4	0.7	3.4	30.8	63.6	4.54
encourage others to visit South Africa	1.1	0.2	3.9	33.8	61	4.54
become friends with South African people	1.3	2.2	11.6	37.9	47.1	4.27
appreciate South African food, music, art and dance	0.9	3.4	14.7	35.7	45.3	4.21
visit other African countries	5.5	2.9	20.4	32.4	38.8	3.96
return to South Africa to watch or participate in sport events	4.3	6.5	18	33.7	37.5	3.94
pay more attention to news or media relating to South Africa	3.8	4.8	25.5	34.6	31.2	3.85
buy South African products more easily	9.4	8.8	27.7	36.6	17.5	3.44
do business or invest in South Africa	17.9	15.5	35.2	18.6	12.8	2.93
consider emigrating to South Africa	28.5	24.4	23.3	11.6	12.3	2.55

This first phase study was written up as a stand-alone paper and published in the Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management (Knott et al. 2013). The findings from this phase assisted the researcher to develop an understanding of the nation branding and mega-event context. The findings indicated that the event context created an opportunity among sport tourists for greater awareness and knowledge of attributes of the nation. This was primarily among first-time visitors, most of whom would not have travelled to the nation if it were not for the event. The mega-event context enabled clearer and more authentic brand images to be established among these respondents. The findings note the importance of the media in the formation of nation brand perceptions as well as the role of engagement with local citizens in changing these perceptions.

However, it is difficult to isolate the impact of the event on these perception changes, compared to other factors that may have influenced this, for example, the activities of stakeholders that may have influenced the image change process. Additionally, while the respondents tended to reveal factors of importance mainly to the destination brand component of the nation brand, there is little to suggest what the impact may have been for the business and investment related component. The respondents were most impacted by the nation brand experience during the event period, but this study did not indicate the brand experience for those who did not travel to the event or the extent of the impact beyond the borders of the host nation. The results hinted that the internal brand component (among national citizens) was influenced through the event, although this was not clarified. As the study was conducted during

the event period, there was also a question over the longevity of the new perceptions. The second phase of the study therefore aimed to address these shortcomings and questions.

Although taking a lesser significance in the ultimate discussion and conclusion of this thesis, the results of the Phase One quantitative study were of significant importance to the researcher in terms of developing an understanding of the study context and the potential impact of the sport mega-event. It specifically assisted the development of the themes and semi-structured interview format for the qualitative study (see Table 4.5). The following section describes the second, qualitative phase of this study.

4.5 Phase two: Qualitative strand of enquiry

The first phase of the study established an indication of changes in perception of the host nation among international visitors as a result of the event. It identified a number of themes and questions that needed to be explored and elaborated upon. It highlighted that the nation branding impact could not merely be assessed among event visitors at a point in time. Furthermore, the nation branding impacts aimed to influence other markets beyond tourism or general global population of sport fans, most notably, business and investment arenas. In addition, the assessment of 'legacy' should be undertaken post an event as it seeks to gauge the longevity or sustainability of the impacts.

As the literature revealed, the nation branding process is led, managed and influenced not by a single person or entity, but rather by a wide variety of different stakeholder groupings. When it comes to a sport mega-event, the number and types of stakeholders involved in the decisions that influence the nation brand increase. In order to answer the research question of what type of branding opportunities the mega-event created and how these were or could be leveraged to leave a legacy for the host nation, the reflections and actions of these brand and event stakeholders would need to be considered.

4.5.1 Selection of method

Semi-structured, in-depth interviews were selected as the most appropriate method to glean the richness of experiences and observations from the stakeholders and experts. Daymon and Holloway (2011, p.223) described the aim of qualitative interviews as developing "understanding and collaborative explanation by delving into the past and present experiences of participants in order to discover their feelings, perceptions and thoughts". They explained that in the field of marketing communications, qualitative research is often primarily associated with interviewing. While interviews can be utilised in both quantitative and qualitative approaches, this study selected the latter perspective, drawing on the notion of the interview as "conversation with a purpose" (Daymon & Holloway 2011, p.220). This approach values the

interview's flexible nature, allowing the opportunity to develop an understanding of the perspectives of respondents. The researcher is given freedom to prompt for further information and is not restricted to a rigid set of questions as with a quantitative interview. There is also scope for the responses from earlier interviews to "inform the evolving conversation" (Daymon & Holloway 2011, p.221). This method has some precedent as it was also adopted by Grix (2012) who conducted a qualitative study on mega-event leveraging five years post the 2006 FIFA World Cup, using in-depth, semi-structured interviews with nine stakeholders with knowledge of, or direct involvement in the event.

With the intention of discovering the stakeholder perceptions, experiences, activities engaged in relating to nation branding and its legacy for the host nation, there was the potential that the information could be sensitive, reflect personal opinion and perhaps refer to the actions of other organisations. The researcher therefore chose to conduct the interviews one-to-one in all cases and face-to-face, where possible. Before elaborating on the interview procedure, the following section explains how the interview guide was developed.

4.5.2 Design & development of the interview themes & questions

The range of interview designs was described by Daymon and Holloway (2011, p.224) as a "continuum", ranging from the unstructured to the structured. For this study, a semi-structured design was chosen, to keep the interview focused on the range of topics and themes identified, to address the specific areas of expertise of the respondent and yet still to allow for flexibility within the interview permitting the interviewer to probe or clarify issues raised and to explore particular areas of experience or expertise of the respondent. An interview guide was therefore developed, consisting of a set of questions related to broad themes identified through the literature and by the analysis of the quantitative study.

The interviews were designed to elicit personal experiences, observations and perceptions of the respondents related to the core themes and questions identified. The following themes were explored, with some examples of questions relating to these themes given in Table 4.2. However, the qualitative interview approach allows for flexibility and adaptation of the interview guide from one respondent to the next, therefore the guide is not necessarily the order of the questions to be asked to each respondent nor is it necessary for all of these questions to be asked to each respondent. The full interview guide is included in this thesis as Appendix B.

Table 4.5: Development of themes & questions

Theme:	Example questions:	Justification:
<p>1. Nation branding opportunities provided by a sport mega-event:</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do you understand or define a mega-event? • How do you understand or define nation branding, and is this different from destination branding? • Leading up to 2010, what do you believe were the general expectations of how the event would/ could impact Brand SA? • Overall, do you believe that the event failed/ lived up to/ exceeded expectations • Do you believe that sport mega-events can play a role in the nation brand development of countries? If so, how would you best describe this role? • What advantages do sport mega-events offer in terms of facilitating nation brand development compared to other event types (i.e. non-sport or smaller scale events)? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literature: Increasing link noted between mega-events and image benefits. Nation branding is not always understood. What is the relationship between destination- and nation branding? • Phase 1 study: The sport event appeared to attract a different market to the nation, mostly younger, more male and from non-traditional markets. There was much media attention on the nation in the lead up to the event. Respondents' perceptions of the nation changed during their visit.
<p>2. Brand messaging & brand development:</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What do you believe were the main brand messages conveyed during SA's hosting of the World Cup, and by whom? • Do you believe that these messages were consistent and/ or co-ordinated before during and after the event? Please explain. • Overall, would you say that the event had a positive impact on the development of the SA nation brand? • Do you believe that the event had any particular negative impacts on the nation brand? • Do you believe that the brand image perceptions of SA were aided by being associated with the FIFA World Cup? • Conversely, did the FIFA World Cup brand benefit from its association with South Africa? • Has the impact on the nation brand affected other city/ regional/ destination/ product brands in the country? • Do you believe that the branding impact of the event went beyond SA to other African nations or to the African continent in general? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literature: Co-branding theory has been applied to nation brands. A mega-event adds the event owners (e.g. FIFA) possibly as a temporary influence. A nation brand is sometimes understood as an umbrella brand for cities, regions and products/ services. • Phase 1 study: The respondents' prior perceptions related to safety fears and mostly wildlife and natural beauty perceptions. More urban and advanced developmental imagery as well as images of friendliness and a decreased fear of crime were key perception changes. There were no apparent changes for

		the image of other African nations.
3. Factors influencing perception change:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who/ what were the main factors that contributed towards/ influenced this impact (both positive and/or negative)? • There were a number of infrastructural changes/ developments for South Africa in the lead up to the World Cup. Which of these do you believe were the most significant in terms of assisting the nation brand development of SA? • What do you think were the main things that visitors or viewers observed, experienced or perceived during the event that relate to the nation brand associations? • Do you think the event reinforced, reversed or created new perceptions of South Africa? Please describe. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literature: levels of brand meaning. Infrastructure developed for a mega-event. • Phase 1 study: main influences were: local residents; an urban environment that was modern, developed, clean; the safety of the event. New perceptions included urban imagery. The media plays the largest role in shaping perceptions prior to visiting.
4. Legacy & leveraging:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do you understand or define legacy (of a mega-event)? • How would you summarise the nation branding legacy that has been left by the event for the nation? • Would you say that any of the following aspects of the nation brand were impacted more than others: tourism; investment/ immigration; governance/ policy; culture/ heritage; people; exports/ product brands; other. • Do you believe that there were any nation branding opportunities lost or not utilised fully related to the event? • Do you believe that the nation branding gains of 2010 are being leveraged post the event? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literature: Many varied aspects of legacy. Intangible legacies not often planned for or focused on. Greater current emphasis on planning for legacy and leveraging benefits from events. • Phase 1 study: The main areas of legacy noted by respondents were the enhancement of country image and a tourism legacy. Although business and investment legacies were not rated highly by respondents, these legacies may be longer-term.
5.Brand stakeholders:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Who would you regard as important stakeholders in the nation branding development process? • Would you say that the role that you have described above creates any difficulties or tensions in terms of your/ your organisation's influence or impact on nation branding in the context of hosting a mega-event? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Literature: Nation brands face challenges related to leadership & partnership, communication and co-creation. • Phase 1 study: A key influencer of perceptions was the media. The local residents were also influential in shaping new perceptions of the nation.

4.5.3 Selection of stakeholders & key informants

A purposive sampling approach was used to select stakeholders and key informants to be interviewed. Although a generic list of legitimate stakeholders is not defined in the literature, the following typical roles of key nation brand stakeholders are mentioned (Anholt 2007b, p.73-74; Scott et al. 2011, p.230): tourist boards; chambers of commerce or investment promotion agencies; cultural institutes; exporters; Ministry of Foreign Affairs; government agencies; and possibly a variety of other bodies, agencies, ministries, special interest groups, NGOs and companies all conducting a form of nation branding. Further to this list, in the case of a sport mega-event, sport organisations, federations and event owners and organisers should be added (Weed & Bull 2009, p.180).

The framework of 'power, urgency and legitimacy' by Mitchell et al. (1997) was applied to these lists, clustering stakeholders according to their degree of power or influence in brand development; the degree of legitimacy or recognised authority or brand leadership that the stakeholder exhibits; and the extent to which the stakeholders had a measure of urgency or vested interest in the specific organisation and success of the FIFA event. The framework describes stakeholders that have high levels of each of these aspects as "definitive" stakeholders (p.878). Key informants were therefore purposively chosen to represent definitive stakeholders. The selection of definitive stakeholder sectors was identified as the following:

- Event 'owners' or rights holders, responsible for the national event organisation (i.e. FIFA OC);
- Regional government event management and strategic co-ordination;
- Host city (local government) event management and strategic co-ordination;
- National government agency for tourism promotion;
- National government agency for nation branding (domestic and international);
- National government department for sport and recreation;
- Regional (Southern Africa) tourism destination promotion agency;
- Tourism destination promotion agency at a host city level;
- National tourism destination and services providers;
- Business and investment promotion agency at a host city level;
- Top-tier event sponsor
- Research co-ordination for sport event tourism and consultation at a national level; and
- National academic researchers in mega-event impacts and sport event tourism studies.

Furthermore, the researcher was a member of the '2010 Technical Update Committee' of the Provincial Government of the Western Cape (representing the regional academic sector and

event-related research). This committee was formed in 2008 as a platform for communication and information dissemination between the major host city and provincial event and brand stakeholders within the Western Cape provincial region. The researcher used this database of stakeholders as a starting point for contacting representatives of the definitive stakeholder sectors identified. Five stakeholders were selected from this committee, namely: Provincial Government of the Western Cape; the City of Cape Town; Cape Town Tourism (local destination promotion agency); Accelerate Cape Town (local business and investment marketing organisation); and the Cape Higher Education Consortium (CHEC) that represented the local universities and event-related research co-ordination. These committee members assisted the researcher to source additional representatives at a national level and counterparts in other host cities across the country. Similar counterparts to these organisations were then included for the host cities of Johannesburg and Pretoria; Durban; and a smaller host city of Nelspruit ('Mbombela'). Representatives at a national level were included, namely the official "brand custodians" of the nation brand, "Brand South Africa"; and the national government departments of sport and tourism. Three additional tourism-specific stakeholders were included to represent the destination brand stakeholders, namely: the South African National Parks (SAN Parks) board that represents the game parks in the host nation; and the South African Tourism Services Association (a general representative of tourism services in the nation). A Regional tourism destination marketing organisation (RETOSA) was added to reflect the experiences of neighbouring nations. The research consultancy company employed by Tourism South Africa was included as their predictions and assessments pre and post the event were widely publicised and acknowledged.

Figure 4.3 shows a map of the nine host cities during the 2010 FIFA World Cup. While the Phase One interviews were conducted in Cape Town and Durban, the Phase Two interviews included representatives from these as well as an additional three host cities, namely Johannesburg, Pretoria and Nelspruit.



Figure 4.3: Map of South Africa showing the 2010 FIFA World Cup host cities (Source: Supersport.com 2014)

While all of the above have a recognised power, urgency and legitimacy in relation the nation brand and its related destination brands, two groups of stakeholders were specifically linked with the organisation of the event and the brand and co-branding link between the event and the host nation brand. These were: the national-level LOC and the event sponsors. Coca-Cola was selected as a sponsor to include, as they appeared to make additional efforts to link their brand with the event and national brand characteristics through their sponsorship leveraging activities.

In order to provide an informed external perspective of the 2010 event and its impact on the host nation brand as well as additional examples and experiences from other sport mega-events, the researcher selected a small number of key international informants who were not specifically involved in the 2010 FIFA World Cup to be interviewed. These respondents were regarded as mega-event or nation branding experts due to their experience in other mega-event contexts (such as Manchester 2006 Commonwealth Games; London 2012 Olympic Games; and Glasgow 2014 Commonwealth Games), or as consultants to nations and cities bidding to host mega-events, or regarded as leading academic researchers in this field of study. The researcher made use of opportunities to engage with such experts through the attendance of three international conferences related to the study context, namely: the ‘International Conference on Tourism and Events: Opportunities, Impacts and Change’, Belfast, 20-23 June 2012; ‘Sport Events and Tourism Exchange’, Durban, 12-13 September 2012; and ‘Destination Branding and Marketing IV’, Cardiff, 5-7 December 2012.

In total, 27 interviews were conducted among 19 brand and event stakeholders and an additional eight key informants/ experts. In every case, a representative from the selected

organisation was available to be interviewed. In only one case, the person approached referred the researcher to a colleague as a more suitable respondent. The researcher is aware that the extremely positive response from the stakeholders in terms of their availability to be interviewed was a result of either the researcher's prior familiarity with the tourism and event sector in the nation or the researcher's supervisors who were able to initiate some of the international expert interviews. Furthermore, some of the earlier interviewees were able to provide contact details for other intended candidates, and in some cases, even helped to facilitate an interview with these candidates.

This sample size is regarded as large, especially for a mixed methods study, although still within an expected size range. For example, Grix's (2012) qualitative study already mentioned selected nine stakeholder respondents. In other broader place and destination branding stakeholder-related studies reviewed, up to 32 candidates (Marzano & Scott 2009) were selected for in-depth interviews. Some authors recommend between 5 and 25 interviews (e.g. Creswell 2014). Others assert that you need to interview "as many individuals as necessary to find out what you need to know" (termed the "saturation" point), with this said to occur even within the first 12 interviews (Hanna & Rowley 2013, p.1794). The reason for more than 12 interviews conducted in this study was so that the different brand and event stakeholder groupings that had been identified would be represented. Furthermore, it was also decided to add different viewpoints from stakeholders in smaller cities, neighbouring regions and sponsors, for example. In addition, through what Miles et al. (2013, p.33) label "multiple case sampling", the international expertise of key informants added confidence and transferability to the findings through their experiences from other events and host nation contexts. Tables 4.3 and 4.4 set out the full list of respondents interviewed in chronological order of the interviews, stating the industry sector, the organisation, the respondent's job title and the location of the interview.

Table 4.6: List of stakeholders interviewed: (n=19)				
Sector:	Organisation:	Respondent's position/ title:	Place:	Date:
FIFA	2010 FIFA Organising Committee	CEO	Johannesburg	7 March 2012
Local government – large host city	City of Cape Town	Director, 2010 Operations	Cape Town	9 March 2012
Local government – large host city	City of Cape Town	Director of Communication and Official Spokesperson 2010 World Cup	Cape Town	23 March 2012

Academia – tourism & events, South Africa	Centre for Tourism Research Africa (CETRA), Cape Peninsula University of Technology	Professor & Director of CETRA	Cape Town	22 May 2012
Government-Cape Town Tourism	Cape Town Tourism	Communications Manager	Cape Town	31 May 2012
Provincial government	Western Cape Provincial Government	CEO, 2010 Unit	Cape Town	31 May 2012
Business-Cape Town	Accelerate Cape Town (Business DMO)	CEO	Cape Town	1 June 2012
Government; Tourism	SA Tourism	Business development director, Thebe Exhibitions & Projects	Johannesburg	6 June 2012
2010 event research consultancy – South Africa	Grant Thornton	The Principal	Johannesburg	6 June 2012
Government - National	Brand South Africa	UK Country Manager	London, UK (telephone)	7 June 2012
Tourism	SA Tourism Services Association (SATSA)	CEO	Durban	12 Sept 2012
Tourism-National Parks	SA National Parks (Game parks)	Managing Executive: Tourism and Marketing	Pretoria	28 Nov 2012
National government - sport	Department of Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA)	Chief Director	Pretoria	28 Nov 2012
Academia – tourism, South Africa	University of Pretoria	Professor, Tourism Management Department	Pretoria	29 Nov 2012
Tourism & Events-Durban/KZN	Durban International Convention Centre & KwaZulu-Natal Business Tourism	CEO	Cardiff, UK	7 Dec 2012
Government; Tourism	Brand South Africa	Research Manager	Johannesburg	27 May 2013
Tourism DMO-Southern Africa	RETOSA (Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa)	Marketing and Communications Director	Johannesburg	27 May 2013
Local government	Mbombela Local Municipality (Nelspruit)	Senior Manager, Local Economic Development, Tourism and Trade.	Florida, USA (Skype call)	9 Oct 2013

– small host city				
Event sponsor	Coca-cola	Market Operations Manager	Zurich, Switzerland (Skype call)	4 Dec 2013

Table 4.7: List of key informants/ experts interviewed: (n=8)			
Sector:	Respondent's position/ title:	Place:	Date:
International country DMO – 2012 mega-event	2012 Games Director, Visit Britain	Belfast, UK	20 June 2012
International mega-event host city DMO	Director, Visit Manchester	Belfast, UK	20 June 2012
International host country DMO	Policy Manager, Visit England	Belfast, UK	20 June 2012
Academia, international - sport tourism	Professor & Associate Dean: Community and International Engagement, University of Alberta	Belfast, UK	21 June 2012
International event bidding & hosting consultancy	Senior Consultant, Vero Communications	Durban	12 Sept 2012
International host country DMO – events	CEO, Event Scotland	Durban	12 Sept 2012
International nation branding consultancy	Managing Director, Bloom	Cardiff, UK	6 Dec 2012
International destination consultancy	Managing Director, Yellow Railroad	Cardiff, UK	6 Dec 2012

4.5.4 Interview procedure

One-to-one, face-to-face interviews were the preferred method of interview. This was possible for all except three interviews, one of which was conducted telephonically and the other two via Skype (voice-over-Internet-Protocol) call. Owing to the semi-structured nature of the interview, and the desire to probe or clarify issues raised and to explore particular areas of experience or expertise of the respondent, the researcher ideally wanted to be able to interact and engage with the respondent in person, being sensitive to body language and other environmental factors that may be prevalent. Where this was not possible, with the respondent being based internationally and there not being a likely chance of meeting in person within the study

timeframe, a compromise solution was employed, using the Skype platform. This medium of communication also allows for a visual link between the callers that aids rapport development and the sensitivity that the researcher aimed to establish. An additional benefit is that it is a cheaper communication medium and can be easier to digitally record than a telephonic interview (depending on the type of telephone systems employed). In only one case, it was not possible to obtain either an in-person or Skype-based interview, and it was therefore conducted over the telephone.

The interviews took place between March 2012 and December 2013, although the majority (20) of these were conducted between May and December 2012. It was believed that this period of time after the event would give the respondents a degree of objectivity in assessing the legacy of the event as well as any leveraging strategies that were undertaken post the event. For legacy and leveraging studies, Cornelissen et al. (2011), among others, advocate a longer post-event study period, from two years to twenty years post the event. However this is a contentious issue without general consensus. The leveraging study by Grix (2012) was conducted five years post the 2006 FIFA World Cup.

The one challenge that this provided was that some of the stakeholders had changed jobs in that period or their job positions during the event no longer existed after the event. However, in each case, the stakeholder was traced to their current place of employment and in only one instance, an alternative representative from the organisation was identified. Although this was a long period of time over which to conduct all the interviews, the researcher was able to begin the interview transcription process and preliminary analysis from the first interviews while still conducting further interviews. It also facilitated reflection on the interview process and the submission of a paper based on the first eight stakeholder interviews conducted to the 'Journal of Destination Marketing and Management' (Knott et al. 2014).

In each case, an email was sent to the selected respondent with an explanation of the study purpose and a request for an interview. An indication of a preferred time and date was usually given, to assist with the timeframe of the study and to coincide with travel arrangements where required. The researcher was pleasantly surprised at the willingness of candidates to respond to the interview request. In many cases the researcher either had some degree of familiarity with the respondent or was referred to the respondent through a mutual acquaintance. This perhaps assisted the respondents' degree of willingness to participate. A typical email request for an interview is shown in Figure 4.4, with the name of the respondent removed.

From: Brendon Knott [mailto:KnottB@cput.ac.za]

Sent: 25 May 2012 02:06 PM

Subject: Nation Branding interview

Dear

I trust you are well. We last met at the SETE conference last June where I mentioned my current PhD research study on nation branding and the influence of the FIFA World Cup for South Africa. As part of this, I am in the process of interviewing a number of key brand and event stakeholders and international experts. I would very much like to interview you about your perceptions and experiences prior to, during and now after the event.

I would like to conduct the interview during the next two weeks (28 May - 8 June) if possible. Please could you let me know which date would suit you, and a time and location of your convenience. We would need to plan for about 45 minutes.

Thank you sincerely!

Kind regards,

Brendon Knott

Figure 4.4: Sample of interview request email correspondence

Often the candidates even indicated their enthusiasm to be interviewed. For many it appeared a chance to reflect on an extremely positive and satisfying period of their career, although equally a chance to voice concerns and frustrations with the post-event outcomes. Most indicated that it was useful to reflect on their experiences and pass on their observations and lessons learned, noting that there had not been many such opportunities to do so. This highlights the need to record the knowledge and experiences of mega-event stakeholders.

For in-depth interviews, it is extremely important to find a suitable location for the interview. It should be an environment that is quiet (to facilitate recording) and free from distractions and interruptions (as far as possible). In this case, where the researcher was comfortable with being in the usual office surroundings of the respondent, the respondent's office or meeting room in the office building was suitable. In other cases, a neutral, public, yet quiet venue was suggested, such as a coffee lounge or hotel lobby. The Skype and telephone interviews were conducted from the researcher's home office.

Due to the semi-structured nature of the interviews, the interview times varied considerably per respondent, ranging from 30 to 75 minutes, although the majority were approximately 45 minutes in duration. The researcher began each interview with an overview of the study focus and the progress to date. The respondents were asked for their permission for the interview to be recorded. The researcher explained that the interview was designed to elicit their personal experiences, observations and perceptions and that their responses would not be taken to

represent the perspective of their organisation, unless they specifically stated it as such. At the end of the interview, respondents were thanked for their involvement in the study and given the opportunity to request future published materials that resulted from the study, such as conference presentations, publications or the final thesis.

The interviews were digitally recorded using an electronic voice-recording device. The researcher also took brief notes during the interview to supplement the recordings and highlight the key points of interest from the interview as well as to assist the researcher with further probing and line of questioning within the interview. The digital interview recordings were downloaded onto a computer and manually transcribed verbatim.

At the end of each interview, the researcher went through the interview notes and recording in order to get a preliminary understanding of how to reduce the data and what themes were emerging from the interviews. After the first eight interviews had been fully transcribed, more thorough data reduction was conducted in order to assess the themes emerging at this early stage. The following section details the analysis and coding process more specifically.

4.5.4 Data analysis & the coding process

'Thematic analysis' is a general approach to analysing qualitative data that involves identifying themes or patterns in the data (Wagner et al. 2012, p.231). An inductive or 'bottom-up' approach was used for the development of codes, meaning that keywords were selected and generally used as codes, with new codes being added for each new keyword that emerged from each new transcript. The "constant comparative" approach was used, with each new piece of data compared to the previous collected and coded data (Wagner et al. 2012, p.231). After further conceptualisation of the findings, this large list of codes was then reduced to clusters of slightly broader themes. Once these codes were established, broader "code families" were collected, which ultimately led to the defining of the key data themes.

A variety of options are available for data coding and analysis, from manual coding to computer-assisted coding or even computer-generated coding. The researcher chose the computer-assisted approach, using the qualitative data assessment software programme 'Atlas.ti' that assists and facilitates the manual coding process. This programme is useful as a repository for the transcribed interviews; allows researchers the ability to code and cluster codes into themes very similarly to manual coding; and furthermore offers a number of other useful analysis tools such as word counts and graphical representations of the thematic analysis that would not be as easily reproduced through manual coding.

The transcribed interviews were inductively (open) coded, following guidelines set out by Miles et al. (2013). Although the coding of qualitative data can be a rather subjective process,

Miles et al. (2013) provide a useful guide to coding data that assists researchers with a step-by-step process and explanation of the best approaches to use. The analysis began with the open coding of the interview transcripts and the grouping of these into categories. The data were coded initially according to individual codes that best described the focus of the sentence, paragraph or section of text. Often more than one individual code was assigned to the same text, or sub-sets thereof. Each new piece of text that contained new subject area or information received a new individual code name. This process was followed by looking for relational aspects or patterns between and within the individual codes. From the long list of 96 individual codes that emerged during the coding process, clusters or categories were developed. After further conceptualisation of the findings, this large list of codes and categories was then reduced to seven broader core themes. The full list of codes, clusters and themes is set out in Table 4.5.

In order to ensure reliability, the researcher checked the interview transcripts thoroughly, comparing them to the voice recordings and to the researcher's notes made during the interviews. Following the coding process, the researcher took steps to ensure that there was not a shift in the meaning or definition of codes, by constantly comparing data with the codes. The first eight interviews that were coded earliest were reviewed again at the end of the process to check for this consistency.

Table 4.8: Development of codes and code families from the data analysis

Core theme:	Cluster category:	Individual code:
1. Branding	Brand identity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Authenticity • Culture • Place • Story • People
	Brand image & perceptions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Image & perceptions pre-event • External brand image legacy • Africa perceptions • Co-branding • Co-branding - FIFA • Co-branding - sponsors • Credibility • Crime • Iconic images • Infrastructure • Technology
	Brand impacts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Branding aims & opportunities • Brand messages conveyed • Brand development • Brand exposure • Publicity • Competitive advantage

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opportunities missed • Umbrella brand for Africa • Umbrella brand for cities & regions
	Nation branding definition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Country of origin effect
	Nation branding impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nation branding impact • Nation branding legacy • Main brand component to benefit • Negative nation brand impacts
	Stakeholders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership • Nation brand stakeholders • Stakeholder relationships • Stakeholder relationships - FIFA
2. Tourism	Destination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Destination branding definition • Destination brand impact • Sport destination
	Tourism impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Displacement effect • Tourist experience • Mega-event sport tourist • Tourist numbers • New tourism markets • Tourism impact – major host cities • Tourism impact - smaller cities/ towns • Tourism impact – game parks & attractions • Tourism impact - Africa • Tourism legacy
3. Business & Investment brand component		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relationship between business/ investment and sport event tourism • Business & investment opportunities • Business & investment impact • Business & investment legacy
4. People	Internal brand component	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internal brand component • Residents_Mobilising SOUTH AFRICA • Residents_Mobilising Africa • Residents_support
	Internal brand legacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capability • Education • Pride • Social cohesion
5. Media		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Media hosting • Media negativity pre-event • Media exposure • Media impact • Media legacy • Social media
6. Events	Mega-event	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mega-event definition • World / global / international • National

	Role of Sport ME in NB development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sport/s • Soccer/ football • Fans/ followers • Sponsors • Stadium • Connection • Engagement • Platform • Showcase • Catalyst
	Bidding & hosting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bidding for events • Olympic Games • Previous SME hosts • Future mega-event bids • Emerging nations
	Event management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Event operations • Resources
7. Opportunities	Aims & expectations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Aims & expectations pre-event • Delivered on expectations • Benefits
	Impact	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Positive • Negative
	Legacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legacy definition • Sustainability • Tangible • Intangible • Value • Legacy – government
	Leveraging	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leveraging activities during event – Africa • Leveraging activities during event – business • Leveraging activities during event – tourism • Leveraging activities post event • Leveraging benefits post event

The full set of findings is discussed according to these themes in the following chapters. However, before doing so, it is necessary to discuss the issues of quality control as they relate to both the qualitative and quantitative elements of the study, as well as the ethical considerations faced during the study.

4.6 Assessment of research quality

The assessment of quality for a mixed methods research approach poses some challenges. For quantitative data, an assessment of validity and reliability of the research process and instruments used are frequently referred to. While these can be applied to qualitative research, these measures do not have the same connotations within qualitative data analysis as they do for quantitative analysis. Other terms and assessment approaches are used, and perhaps

preferred, for qualitative assessments, namely: trustworthiness; authenticity; and credibility (Daymon & Holloway 2011; Creswell 2014).

Validity refers to the soundness and rigour of the research process and the extent to which the research measures what it intended to (Daymon & Holloway 2011). Validity can be referred to as 'internal' (a measure of the research participants own assessment of the research validity) and 'external' (the degree to which the research can be applied to other contexts, not only in terms of the results, but also in its approach and methods). The latter term is noted as rather contentious as the degree of generalisability for qualitative studies is frequently debated (Daymon & Holloway 2011). Qualitative "generalisation" is a term that is used in a limited way within qualitative research, where the emphasis has rather been on "particularity" of the findings and themes developed in the context of a specific site (Creswell 2014, p.203). However, it is more frequently apparent that a degree of generalisation can be made for certain studies, where the terms 'transferability' or 'confirmability' are also used to convey this meaning. However, whereas generalisability refers to the findings reflecting a broader population in other contexts, transferability relates to the applicability of the findings, particularly of case studies, to other contexts. In the context of this study, transferability is the preferred term.

In terms of the transferability of the findings from this study, the following can be noted: Although the internal validity was not explicitly tested, the researcher was able to present preliminary findings at conferences where industry participants including some of those interviewed in this study, were present. Feedback from these presentations provided the researcher with an indication of the perceived internal validity of the findings. Relating to the external validity within this study, many of the stakeholders interviewed were able to relate their experiences with previous mega-events, sport and other types, in South Africa that they have been involved with or had knowledge of. Most of the study area experts interviewed had gained experience at other sport mega-events and in other nations besides South Africa. The findings therefore reflect the respondent comments that contrast the South African experience with other events and other nations. The discussion also brings together these experiences with the literature and cases of other sport mega-events and nations. This therefore gives this study a greater degree of transferability for other host nations and for other sport mega-events.

Closely related to validity is the issue of reliability. Qualitative reliability indicates that the researcher's approach is consistent across different researchers and different projects (Creswell 2014) or that it can be easily replicated as a result of the researchers audit trail (Daymon & Holloway 2011). It is the intention of this chapter to provide sufficient detail for the study or parts thereof to be replicated in different settings. The researcher has indicated where

aspects of this study are similar to previous studies or where they differ in approach or method used.

As mentioned earlier in this section, for qualitative research, the alternative or more preferred criteria for assessing quality are captured by the demonstration of trustworthiness and authenticity (Daymon & Holloway 2011). Authenticity refers to the “fairness, the sharing of knowledge and action” (Daymon & Holloway 2011, p.84). Daymon and Holloway (2011) explained that a study is deemed to be authentic when the strategies used are appropriate for the true and fair reporting of participants’ ideas. Specifically, trustworthiness includes an assessment of: ‘credibility’ (similar to a measure of internal validity, it concerns readers recognising the meaning that the study has for them in their own context); ‘transferability’ ‘dependability’ (the study is carried out in a stable and consistent manner, with the data derived considered consistent and accurate); and ‘confirmability’ (a judgment of how the findings and conclusions achieve the aim of the study).

Both Creswell (2014) and Daymon and Holloway (2011) explained that these aspects of research quality can be assessed by observing the researcher’s awareness and implementation of a number of procedures that check for accuracy of the findings. Within this study, the following measures have been taken to ensure suitable quality of the research process:

- Demonstrating an audit trail: This chapter has documented the details and procedures of the methods used and has given evidence of the audit trail wherever relevant. The management of the data using quantitative and qualitative data analysis software such as SPSS and Atlas.ti also provides a useful audit trail and repository of the interview data and analysis procedures. Original interview transcripts from both the Phase One study and the in-depth interviews are kept in folders at a secure office location for future reference, should they be required. Multiple electronic copies of interview transcripts and the software analysis are stored and backed up electronically.
- For the display of the data in the following two chapters, rich, thick descriptions of the findings are included, wherever appropriate, to allow the reader to engage with the original context as far as possible. Creswell (2014, p.202) explained that this is intended to assist in ‘transporting’ the reader to the setting and give the discussion an element of shared experience.
- Negative or discrepant information that may run counter to the themes is also presented. By presenting any contradictory findings, the account is intended to be more realistic and more valid.

- The researcher was able to engage with the setting of the study, experiencing the 2010 mega-event in its entirety, as well as living in the host nation during the lead up period and post-event period. The researcher was also present in a number of stakeholder planning and communication meetings in the lead up to the event. Since this period, the researcher has had the opportunity to experience first-hand other mega-event contexts, such as the 2012 London Olympic Games and the 2014 FIFA World in Brazil. Although this is discussed in further detail in the later section on reflexivity, this engagement with the research setting is viewed as a positive influence for the assessment of the quality of the research process.
- The researcher did not employ 'member checking', a process whereby participants are asked to reflect on the accuracy of the interview transcripts and the interpretation thereof. However, as mentioned earlier, the researcher was able to present some of the data analysis at industry conferences and forums where some of the participants were present, and this served as a form of member feedback.
- Peer debriefing was viewed as an excellent means of checking quality. Two papers, one based on each of the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the study, were submitted to peer-reviewed journals. Comments from the reviewers were extremely helpful in assisting the research process and the data presentation and interpretation specifically. The researcher also approached a handful of researchers with similar field knowledge or methodological experience to read through the thesis or parts thereof and provide assistance or feedback. This took place formally through visits to Bournemouth University and less formally through discussions with relevant academics in other settings, such as conferences.

Furthermore, besides these measures, the ethical considerations throughout the research process are considered as another crucial aspect of the quality of the research process.

4.7 Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations play an increasingly important role in current research practice. A number of aspects of this study required careful consideration, formal, institutional approval as well as participant consent. These aspects played an important role in the selection of the methods used, the interview procedure as well as the analysis and interpretation of the data.

In general, the researcher undertook to abide by the ethical policies and practices as set out in Bournemouth University's 'Code of Practice for Research Degrees' (September 2010). Both the Phase One study and the in-depth interviews were reviewed for ethical compliance by Bournemouth University (see the Bournemouth University ethical clearance approval form

attached as Appendix C). Additional ethical clearance was obtained from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology for the first phase study in order to involve the postgraduate students in the first phase study.

For the first phase study, ethical considerations related to the consent of the participants, the age of the respondents, the sensitivity of the questions asked, and the environment in which the survey took place. To comply with ethical requirements, only respondents who were over the age of 18 years and who consented to the interview were selected. Although demographic questions were asked, these were sensitively requested and placed at the end of the survey to increase the degree of confidence and rapport between the interviewer and respondent. The responses remained anonymous and e-mail addresses were only gathered from those who consented to a possible follow-up survey. The surveys were conducted in areas where the respondents would not feel threatened by health or safety risks, i.e. in the controlled access fan park areas.

For the in-depth interviews, the above issues were also of relevance. Further to these though, the disclosure of respondent identities raised important ethical considerations for the researcher. Ethical preference would usually advocate confidential interview responses. However, in this study, the stakeholders were deliberately selected because of the institution or organisation that they represented or for their role during the 2010 mega-event or their particular related expertise. It was therefore believed that associating a response with a particular sector or organisation would be necessary to provide greater context and allow for more meaningful interpretation of the data. As a result, the researcher obtained voluntary informed consent from the participants for their organisation and job title to be linked to their response, although the full names of respondents would not be used. Permission to be interviewed was requested via email and the consent for the above disclosures was requested verbally at the start of the interview (see the Interview Guide, Appendix B). The full list of the respondents (job title, organisation, sector and date of the interview) is reflected in Tables 4.2 and 4.3 earlier. In addition, the interviews were conducted in a non-threatening environment of the participant's selection, which was typically their own office or an alternative neutral venue.

4.8 Reflexivity

For qualitative researchers, reflexivity (the ability to critically reflect on the role and assumptions of the researcher that may influence any of the stages of the research process) is an important consideration (Daymon & Holloway 2011). With the predominant aspect of this study being qualitative in nature, this section reflects the actions, feelings, assumptions, and relationships of the researcher with the research environment, the participants and the research process.

The researcher acknowledges that his own research background in business studies and history of research within a positivist, quantitative paradigm, influenced the selection of the research question. However, the researcher has learnt a tremendous amount regarding the nature of qualitative research and its potential value for research within a business or managerial framework. The researcher appreciated that the mixed methods approach allowed for flexibility in the research process and the combination of quantitative and qualitative paradigms, although challenging, provided a fuller investigation and deeper analysis of the research problem.

As a South African citizen and living in the country during the 2010 FIFA World Cup period, the writer was exposed to the research environment for a great deal of time. Although this was mentioned earlier as a positive aspect for this study, the researcher was aware that this could cause personal observations to influence the interpretation of the findings, particularly in the highly positive aftermath of the event. However, being based in the nation for the period following the event has also allowed the researcher to have a measure of objectivity, as legacy aspects become more apparent. Furthermore, the opportunity to experience other similar mega-events, such as the 2012 London Olympic Games and the 2014 FIFA World Cup as a spectator and research participant (for other studies), provided a greater reflexivity for the researcher regarding the South African case, highlighting similarities and differences that may aid the transferability of this study.

Furthermore, the researcher had access to a number of key event and brand stakeholders as a result of involvements and representation of event research in the lead up to the 2010 event. This gave the researcher an indication of the activities of stakeholders and of the relationships between the various groups. It also provided the starting point for determining a list of suitable stakeholders (as mentioned earlier) and helped to gain access to key stakeholders possibly more easily than otherwise might have been the case. The familiarity to some degree with a number of the stakeholders (or at least a referral through a mutual source) allowed a greater deal of freedom and confidence in the interview process and aided the degree of trust within the interviews.

Overall, the researcher acknowledges these factors as positive influencing aspects, but also for their potential to frame the study, making the researcher very much aware of the need to reflect the findings accurately and richly and to approach the findings and conclusions with an open mind. Indeed, the researcher has delighted in the fact that (as the following chapters will reveal) the study has revealed many unexpected results that have surprised or challenged the general assumptions or expectations of the researcher.

4.9 Evaluation of methodology

This chapter has revealed how a pragmatic approach was adopted in order to answer the research question, resulting in the selection of a mixed methods approach. Using a combination of qualitative and quantitative methodologies and methods, created distinctive challenges for the researcher. The sequential nature of this approach also meant that more time was used for data collection and analysis than what possibly would be required for a single method approach. It was apparent from an early stage that the initial quantitative study would not be the predominant study and therefore the research design would not follow a typical 'explanatory sequential' approach. However, this modified approach is believed to be well suited to the needs of answering the research question and study aims. Although taking a lesser significance in the ultimate discussion and conclusion of this thesis, the Phase One quantitative study was of significant importance to the researcher in terms of developing an understanding of the study context and the potential impact of the sport mega-event. It also greatly assisted the development of the themes and semi-structured interview format for the qualitative study.

Every effort was made to ensure the quality of the research process at all stages of the study. The researcher is therefore of the opinion that this study reflects the quality criteria, whichever terminology is favoured, considered valid, reliable, trustworthy and authentic.

4.10 Summary

The methodology and methods used in this study add a number of significant contributions to the fields of nation branding and sport tourism event impact studies. This chapter began with a review of sport tourism research philosophies and highlighted the differing approaches between the tourism event impact studies and place branding studies. With tourism research emerging from a strongly "positivist" tradition, sport tourism's event impact and legacy studies have been dominated by quantitative assessments, although a lack of standardised methods for this field of studies was noted. Contrastingly, qualitative assessments, stakeholder analyses and case studies have predominated within nation, place and destination branding studies. With this study a combination of these two distinct study areas, a mixed methods approach was justified in order to fully answer this study's research questions and aims.

Both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods were used in a partially mixed method, sequential explanatory approach that featured a qualitative dominance. The quantitative first phase featured questionnaires distributed among 561 international visitors during the 2010 mega-event. The chapter detailed the lessons learnt through the research process that can be of use to future event impact studies, such as the selection of a fan park as a favourable location for interviews with sport tourists. The findings from this first phase

enabled the researcher to learn about the subject area, the nation branding impact of the mega-event for sport tourists, and indicate a number of themes to be explored in greater depth among event stakeholders and experts.

Following this, the qualitative phase featured in-depth, semi-structured interviews that were conducted with 27 nation brand stakeholders and experts. The selection of these stakeholders adds a valuable element to nation branding and event assessment studies, as a definitive list of stakeholders is not evident in the literature. This chapter clearly identified the types of definitive stakeholders involved in nation branding and added to the list a number of event-specific stakeholders that also need to be considered, such as event organisers, rights holders and sponsors. The selection of stakeholders also emphasised the need to include a diverse array of respondents, such as those from urban and rural centres, as well as from neighbouring countries. In order to add to the credibility and transferability of this case study, international experts with experiences from other events and nations were also included.

The transcribed interviews were inductively coded using the Atlas-ti software programme and analysed according to a thematic approach. The final parts of the chapter assessed the quality of the research process and the ethical considerations as well as the reflexivity of the researcher within the process. The following two chapters now set out the findings from the second phase, qualitative study, before discussing the implications of these findings in terms of answering the research questions.

Chapter Five: Defining the study area

5.1 Introduction

Having considered the impact of the mega-event on tourist perceptions and behaviour intentions, the study now focuses on the perceptions, experiences and observations of selected brand and event stakeholders and other key informants. As mentioned in Chapter Four, all 27 interviews were transcribed verbatim and then coded using the software programme Atlas-ti. The transcripts were then analysed using codes that represented themes that emerged from the data.

The findings are discussed in two separate chapters, according to categories, highlighting the themes that emerged from the interview analysis. This chapter looks at the stakeholder understanding of the study context in order to define, or in some cases, to re-define the core elements of the study area. Most interviews began by asking respondents “How do you understand or define the following:...?”

- a mega-event;
- nation branding;
- destination branding; and
- legacy (of a mega-event).”

Besides these definitional questions, other related and more in-depth questions are included in the relevant sections. The responses to these questions are set out in this chapter, drawing out the key themes emerging for each topic. The chapter begins by defining the context of nation branding.

Note that all responses are designated by “R” and a number that is of no other significance than to distinguish between respondents. This is used to maintain confidentiality of the respondents and to allow the responses to be highlighted rather than the particular stakeholder or entity represented. However, in some cases where it is believed to be relevant, an indication of the organisational sector represented is given. Throughout this and the following chapter, direct quotations are used extensively to represent the original data as accurately as possible. Each quotation was selected according to its perceived contribution to the study, assessed according to: the degree to which it represents a common response among respondents; clearly illustrates or explains a phenomenon or theme; or provides unique examples or perspectives on the subject.

5.2 Defining nation branding

This section seeks to identify the understanding of stakeholders of nation branding, their understanding of the key challenges of nation branding and the distinction between nation and destination branding. At the beginning of the interview, respondents were specifically asked to define their understanding of nation branding and then, in a follow-up question, to distinguish this from destination branding. This section looks at the key themes that emerged from answers to these specific questions as well as descriptions that emerged at other stages of the interview process but relevant to this discussion. Initially the key aspects of nation branding are looked at, while later the challenges that were mentioned are set out and finally a distinction between nation branding and destination branding is made.

Respondents consistently implied that although they agreed that a nation can be considered a brand, it is different from mainstream brands or “unlike any other brand” (R24). The definitions and explanations given varied significantly, with responses including: an “holistic umbrella concept” (R18) that “represents multiple sub-components” (R25); an “ideal” (R20) or “vision” (R25) for the nation; a representation of the nation’s “unique identity” (R24); and even an “intangible asset” (R20). The definitions are clustered according to two different approaches in the section below. The explanations also highlighted a number of challenges for nation branding and explained who is involved in the development and control of the nation brand. All of these aspects are looked at in this section.

5.2.1 Components of nation branding

A key distinction appears to be made between a more business oriented approach, that views nation branding in terms of image, perceptions and market place positioning, and an internal approach, that focuses on brand identity and authentic representation. These different views and components of a nation brand are now set out:

- Global perceptions

Nation branding was often linked to consumer perceptions and even stereotypes in the stakeholder responses. This view of nation branding focuses on the process of consumers (usually assumed to be non-residents and either not having visited the nation or visiting the nation for the first time) developing perceptions of a nation. The following two quotations illustrate this perspective:

“[Nation branding] is the process by which people develop perceptions about the country. What the country stands for, the people of the country and what they expect from the country when they go there” (R5).

“It’s always, really and truly, the perception by people of the brand – how do they see it? What are the first things that come to mind when people think of South Africa?” (R7).

This perspective emphasises the role of tourism in shaping perceptions through the visitor experience. There is also a link between tourism expectations prior to travelling and perceptions of the nation brand. It’s “what they expect from the country when they go there” (R5). Respondents also linked nation branding with generalised, strongly engrained perceptions or stereotypes. One respondent (R3) explained nation branding as, “generalised perceptions of nations”. “You have the German efficiency and the laid back Mediterranean countries. Very broad-brush things” (R3). This response implies a challenge for nation branding to not only counter the ‘broad brush’ perceptions and stereotypes, but also to add depth and authenticity to the consumer understanding of the brand. This will be explored further under the challenges section.

Also related to this ‘broad brush’ view, nation branding may be seen as an accumulation and amalgamation of many different inputs, sources of information and experiences that form a perception. This perspective assumes that consumers would pay attention news, media, current affairs and history of a nation. It includes national icons such as political leaders and celebrities. A response that illustrates this perspective described nation branding as: “A cumulative view of historical events and leadership, or a lack thereof” (R3). For example, Respondent Eight described key aspects of the South African brand, including global icons and world leaders, celebrities and businessmen:

“We have people who have become global icons. Not just Nelson Mandela, but others like Mark Shuttleworth (entrepreneur) and Charlize Theron (actress) who have excelled in their fields” (R8).

A number of respondents also mentioned the country’s flag as a symbol of the brand and its identity. Many of the later descriptions of leveraging campaigns (such as the “Fly the flag” campaign by SA Tourism) and signs of national identity formation (such as descriptions of people waving flags and draping flags from their cars) are centred on the visibility of the national flag.

- Competitive positioning

Still from this business orientation, respondents pointed out that the nation brand is broader than just relating to tourism, relevant to a number of other sectors that have an international dimension to them, most notably, business, trade and investment:

“It goes way beyond tourism. It goes to trade, diplomatic and investment relationships. The value of your currency and a whole bunch of things are embodied in aspects of your nation brand. It has everything that has an international dimension to it where your country relates to other countries” (R7).

Once again, the emphasis is on a summation of a number of different inputs, but now including business, trade and investment perceptions. Respondent Eighteen describes the nation brand as a “holistic umbrella concept” that has “some sub-components such as an industrial leg, a tourism leg and a cultural leg” (R18). Further expanding this holistic concept and linking this understanding with the earlier definitions based on image, the respondent explained, “Ultimately, [a nation brand] will embrace the totality of that country in terms of the image it communicates and how it wants to be positioned in the market place” (R18).

Linked to this reference to trade and investment and market place positioning are references to what the literature refers to as the origins of nation branding found in the “country-of-origin effect”. It also reflects the competitive differentiation for a nation, for example, as one respondent explained, linking “German cars” with “German efficiency” (R3). Respondent Five explains the country-of-origin effect and its link with nation branding as well as the historical South African brand:

“If a product comes from a place how do people perceive that product? So, if you look at South African products in the 1970’s and 1980’s, if you had ‘Made in South Africa’ on them there was a good chance they would have been boycotted or thrown out of the window. Whereas, if you look at Apple products that have ‘Designed in California’ written on them - that’s a place brand that’s extremely powerful” (R5).

While the above example shows more of a response to a product that stems from a perception of the nation (country-of-origin), there is also the example given of how the perception of a product brand can influence the perception of the nation of its origin. The example is given of Japan and how they managed to re-brand their nation using their export products:

“Let’s look at Japan. What made people start buying Japanese products and investing in Japanese companies? It certainly didn’t happen in the beginning. After the Second World War, their whole thing was to make ‘cheap junk’. So ‘Made in Japan’ was actually like a signal that it was going to break. But building a change in perception over time, they got better and better at what they did and they continuously pushed out the perception that actually Japanese products are very good quality. And look at where it is now - if it’s Japanese it’s probably pretty good” (R5).

This quotation also highlights the importance of brand management over time, and the ‘consistency challenge’ that is further elaborated on in the discussion on challenges later. However, before looking at these challenges, it is important to look at a very different perspective of nation branding, from a more internal view.

- Internal identity

While the literature and stakeholders agree that “all brands have an internal element to them” (R7), there has not always been a clear understanding of what this refers to and what role this internal component plays in the brand development process. Furthermore, while most agree about this internal component, some respondents define nation branding quite differently from the more consumer approach discussed above - deriving a definition from an internal, stakeholder perspective.

One response illustrates this perspective, describing it as follows: “For me, nation branding is really about defining who you are as a nation” (R5). It’s even referred to as: the “ideal behind the nation” (R20) and “the vision”; “what the country stands for”; and “the principles” (R24) of the nation. This “ideal” or “vision” notion is expanded in the quotation below:

“It’s not just about who you’ve been, but it’s about who you would like to be. It’s not just about repositioning your image, but repositioning your identity as to who you want to be as you look forward to your future” (R11).

This perspective highlights the difference between brand identity and brand image, as well as the relationship between the two brand perspectives. Respondent Eleven further explained this, referring to a possible “mis-match” that is further discussed in the section on authenticity as a nation brand challenge (see section 5.2):

“You need to think about the key differences between identity, ‘who I am’, and image, ‘how others see me’. If you have a mis-match between these, you’re not going to be very sustainable or productive” (R11).

Clearly, nation branding is viewed here as far more than creating a logo or a tactical marketing campaign. These explanations seem to imply a more holistic approach to nation branding, where the starting point is defining who you are. This also implies a more inclusive approach to nation branding, where internal stakeholders, including citizens, are crucial to this understanding of who the nation is and who they desire to be.

From this perspective of nation branding, one expert motivated that “we need to go beyond ‘place branding’ – the term that is used a lot here – to ‘place making’: what it means to the people who actually live in the place; who they are; and who they think they are” (R11). A further aspect of the internal component is the link with nation branding and national pride. Respondent Seven explained this link and how this can provide a competitive advantage for a nation:

“Nation branding has a national pride element to it. So if you can build the understanding internally and instill pride in the brand, it will be conveyed externally also” (R7).

Linking this national pride aspect with the earlier descriptions of place identity, Respondent Eleven explains that place identity can be “a touchstone for various individuals and groups in terms of who they are in the global community in which they live” (R7).

As it relates to nation branding, it appears the aspect of national pride could also be considered national ‘confidence’. Linked to the earlier discussion of country-of-origin, a respondent explained the situation in South Africa: “We have a lack of self-confidence where we think that the rest of the world will not want to buy if they know that it’s a South African company” (R5). Figure 5.1 summarises the core components of a nation brand that emerged from the respondents’ definitions, explanations and examples.

Linked to the descriptions of what nation branding is considered, stakeholders referenced many challenges facing nation branding. These are now set out.

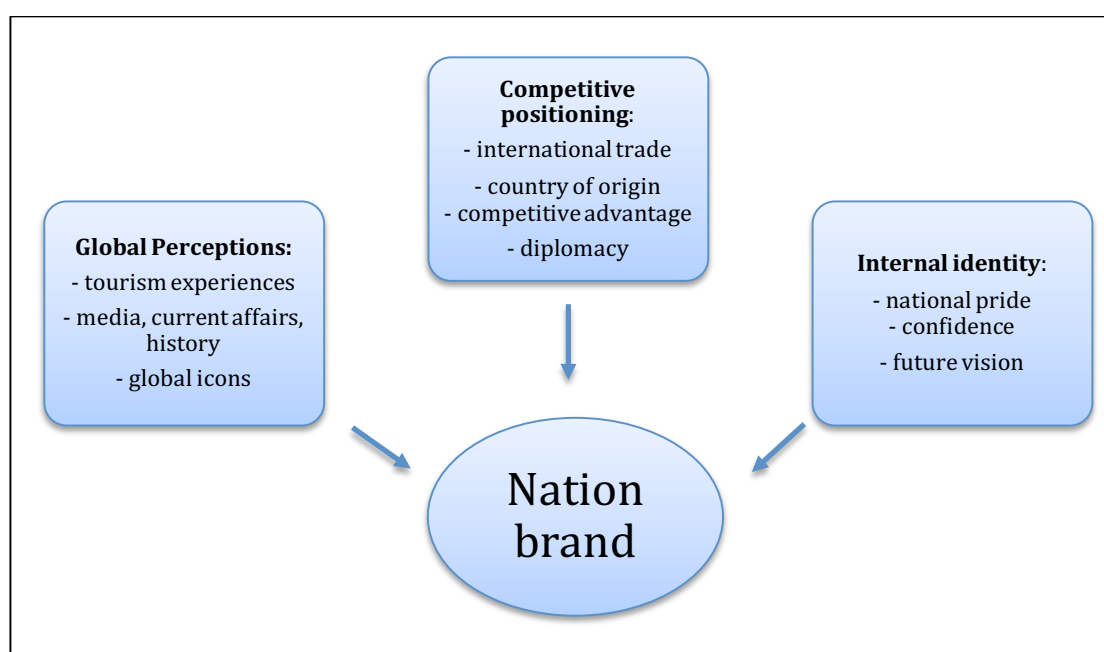


Figure 5.1: Perceived core components of a nation brand

5.2.2 Nation branding challenges

Despite an overall positive sentiment towards the adoption of nation branding, stakeholders referred to a variety of challenges for the emergent discourse. These have been clustered to form six key categories as set out in Table 5.1 and discussed further below:

Table 5.1: Perceived nation branding challenges

- Complexity
- Communication
- Management
- Consistency
- Authenticity
- Ownership & control

- The complex nature of a nation brand

Stakeholders referred to the complexity of the nature of a nation brand compared to mainstream consumer brands. This has become more apparent as stakeholders have engaged in active and intentional nation brand management:

“In the last few years it has become a much more active process to try and brand and market a country in the way you would a product, but obviously a country’s brand is far more complex than a product brand because there are so many more factors that contribute to the perception about it” (R5).

- Communication

The complexity of the nation brand also represents a communication challenge for stakeholders who highlighted the importance of being able to communicate a complex brand so that it is understandable by every resident:

“You have to be able to explain this to a person who cleans the street. That’s the big challenge. Not to keep it up there, but to democratise it for everybody to understand what it is and embrace it” (R20).

This statement also reveals a greater challenge within nation branding – beyond communicating the brand, obtaining brand resonance in the form of stakeholders and citizens embracing the brand. The ‘democratisation’ aspect mentioned above relates to the challenge of ownership, described later.

- Management over time

Linked to the earlier quotation referring to nation branding these days as a “more active process” (R5), stakeholders mentioned the need for intentional management, intervention or brand control. The following quotation echoes the earlier example of how Japan re-branded itself, through careful management over time: “With a lot of work, one can rebrand and reposition a nation in a global market place” (R3).

- Consistency

The earlier quotation of how Japan changed its brand showed the importance of a consistent brand quality message. Another respondent shared this sentiment, saying: “You

have to live the brand. It's critical if you want to keep your brand message consistent and out there" (R7), while another respondent echoed that you need to "live that concept" (R5).

- Authenticity

The importance of authenticity in nation branding was highlighted by a number of respondents. An example was given of a promotional campaign run by South African Tourism during the World Cup that illustrates the importance of authenticity through the sharing or 'story-telling' of honest tourism experiences.

"During the World Cup, we got a couple from Brazil and a couple from Germany and followed them with a camera. We developed a campaign around it. 'This is what they did while they were in South Africa.' Looking at it from the consumer's eyes - these people telling their story. It's about them telling their story, very honestly, not staged. This gave an honest experience of their time in the country and it became a very authentic campaign" (R4).

One respondent (R11) described watching a sport event in itself as an "authentic experience" firstly because "you don't know what the outcomes are going to be" and secondly because they described a sport event as "a display of culture" and a "cultural attraction".

Another aspect of authenticity is highlighted by the fact that the media attention during a mega-event would also allow the world to see the nation's less desirable aspects along with what it wanted to showcase. A stakeholder involved in city management for one of the host-cities described how political leadership and city management deliberately decided that they were not going to conceal some of the city's social ills during the event, possibly because they would not be able to even if they did want to:

"We said that we can't put a band aid on our social problems. We cannot hide poverty. We cannot have billboards running along the (national road from the airport) to hide the shacks. We also can't have a street clean up and put people in a safety camp because you would be able to see it from the sky (and) because we have 230 informal settlements. We accepted that and the political leadership said that up front, so I think that set us in good stead" (R10).

This quotation highlights the vulnerability that a host nation needs to accept. The realities and authentic views and images of the nation would not always be able to be avoided.

- Ownership & control

Respondent Twenty explains that from his experience, "there are a lot of institutions that want to manage the brand". However some of the challenges of brand management and ownership are discovered when you look at "who has the budget for it, and who is accountable" (R20) if somebody does something wrong? A challenge therefore for countries is that a nation brand is "public property" and "because it's an intangible asset, it

is very difficult to protect” (R20). This final challenge of ownership and control is further explored by looking at who is considered a nation brand stakeholder, in the following section.

5.2.3 Nation brand stakeholders

Respondents were specifically asked, “Who would you regard as important stakeholders in the nation branding development process?” While there were a variety of different answers that included an emphasis on different sectors, there was one overall commonality, described as: “They’ve all got a reason to want the nation to be portrayed or to feel like it’s a certain thing” (R5). The respondents identified the following groups and sectors:

- National residents: Respondent Five stated, “The entire population is one stakeholder group”.
- Public sector: The public sector includes “government and their multiple departments. Some departments look internally (e.g. ‘Home Affairs’) and some look externally (e.g. ‘Foreign Affairs’)” (R5).
- Private sector: Within the private sector, “exporters” were specifically mentioned:
“Big exporters and South African companies going abroad are very important. They have a huge role to play in taking the nation brand out to the rest of the world” (R5).

It also includes the entire private sector, as explained below:

“The private sector bodies are incredibly important. All the private sector in a way that our nation brand affects overall confidence in our country, which then affects the interest rates and currency exchange rates and stuff that affects you even if you are not an international trading and investment company” (R5).

- Destination marketing organisations (DMOs): Respondents also mentioned more tourism-related organisations specifically. While this may be explained by the overlap between destination and nation branding (see section 5.3), these are included here as responses given by stakeholders. These were mentioned as organisations associated with “tourism marketing and communications and tourism agencies” (R2).
- Sport mega-event specific: For the context of a sport mega-event, respondents added a few additional nation brand stakeholders that included: “the different sporting bodies” (R5); the organising committees; and the host cities. Table 5.2 provides a summary of these stakeholder groupings mentioned by respondents.

Table 5.2: List of perceived nation brand stakeholders	
1. National residents	
2. Public sector and related departments/ affiliations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National & provincial government departments • Home Affairs • Foreign Affairs • Brand South Africa • Tourism Department • SA Tourism • Department of Sport & Recreation • SASCOG (national Olympic committee) • National Treasury
3. Private sector	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exporters • Entire private sector
4. Destination marketing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tourism marketing & communications bodies • Tourism agencies & associations • Tourism industry (e.g. big hotel groups) • Events industry
5. Sport mega-event	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • National & international sports federations (e.g. FIFA) • Local organising committees • Host cities & provinces • Sports marketing companies • Sponsors

5.3 Distinguishing between destination & nation branding

The respondents noted that although there are “a lot of synergies” (R18) between destination and nation branding, there is also a distinction between the two terms. As this respondent explains, “Destination branding is predominantly taken from a tourism perspective” (R18). Further distinctions or synergies between the terms are now looked at in further detail.

The element or focus on “place” as opposed to “people” is mentioned as distinguishing factor between the two, with nation branding broader in its sphere of reference and including elements of the people of that place rather than focusing on a specific geographical location. Respondent Twenty-four explained this distinction as follows:

“For me, the destination brand is about the place, the location, whereas the nation brand is about the people, it’s about the nation and its not so localised” (R24).

Although, the distinction regarding the people of the nation is contradicted later (see 5.2.3), this quotation is useful in delineating the “place” that the brands represent. For a nation brand, this is clearly defined within literal borders of a country, whereas for a destination, the place may be more “localised”, representing a segment of the broader nation.

Secondly, the purpose behind the brand appears a good way to distinguish between the concepts, with destination branding having much more of a tourism purpose with a specific desired outcome being increased travel. Nation branding does not necessarily involve this motivation or outcome. The following two quotations explain this aspect:

“Destination branding is very much about getting people to come to the place, whereas nation branding is much more holistic” (R5).

“It doesn’t have to be a destination brand to have a positive place brand associated with it. And I guess South Korean cars, these days, are probably an example of that. I look at a Korean car and I think that’s probably a high quality, affordable product. (But) it doesn’t make me want to go to Korea” (R5).

Although recognising the distinctions mentioned, stakeholders also described synergies between destination and nation brands, with destination brands viewed as part of the broader umbrella nation brand. For example, a stakeholder described how “destination branding is interwoven and inter-linked with the umbrella branding – the nation branding” (R18). Similarly, another respondent advocated the umbrella brand framework for understanding the relationship between a nation and destination brand:

“Destination branding is the tourism destination brand. It should ideally sit in an umbrella framework for the nation brand” (R7).

A stakeholder representing a smaller, regional destination brand made reference to the umbrella brand concept as they noted that they “tried to have (their brand messaging) in line with what SA Tourism was doing at that point in time” (R26). The umbrella brand concept does raise challenges though. Although not always directly mentioned, respondents alluded to ‘competition’ between destinations, particularly the host cities. A stakeholder representing a smaller, regional destination brand mentioned the challenges of competing with the bigger cities.

“There was competition between the host cities. Everybody was trying to draw people to their area. For us it was little bit more difficult because we were competing with the bigger cities” (R26).

This lends particular emphasis to the response of Respondent Eighteen who advocated “the seamlessness, coordination, cohesion and collaboration” that needs to exist between diverse stakeholders within this umbrella framework.

A further similarity or synergy is that, similar to a nation brand, a destination brand reflects a complex mix of elements. The following two quotations suggested that the “people” of a place are crucial to the destination brand, among a variety or “mix” of other elements that are considered to make up a “tourism package”:

“The destination itself is made up of a number of things: people are obviously the big asset, which really makes up your nation. The people were at the centre of our brand as a destination. But there are other things that a destination needs to project, like

infrastructure, scenery, and all the experiences that people can enjoy. All of that makes up the package as a destination” (R4).

“It is about the mix of experiences, the mix of people, natural beauty, the skill of the people, the fact that we have four universities – that all goes into the positioning of our destination” (R3).

The next theme central to defining the study area, is that of the sport mega-event, which is discussed next.

5.4 Sport mega-events

It was important to clarify the context of a sport mega-event among the stakeholders, as this sub-set of events have particular characteristics that may aid the development of a nation brand differently from other types of events. It is worth considering firstly what the stakeholders and experts consider to be mega-events and how they interpret their distinguishing features. It was thought that their definitions may also shed light on the aspects of a mega-event that are important in terms of the nation branding opportunity for a host nation.

Most respondents were adamant that only a handful of international events could be considered mega-events, namely: “the soccer world cup, the rugby and cricket world cups, the Euro (football championships), pretty much those are the only ones” (R7). “There are not that many mega-events in the world”, stated Respondent Three, adding the summer and winter Olympic Games to this list. Another respondent (R13) added the Commonwealth Games to this list, having been involved specifically in this event in the past. While the respondents did not agree on a definitive list of sport mega-events, there was undoubted agreement that both the Olympic Games and FIFA World Cup events are to be considered mega-events.

Importantly, non-sports mega-events were also given as examples, such as: “COP 17 in Durban and the World Summit for Sustainable Development in Johannesburg - big UN-type meetings” (R3). These are obviously more context-specific, which raises the question of whether an event might be considered a mega-event depending on its host location or context. While certain events seem to be clearly deemed a mega-event around the globe, others may be more context-specific. For South Africa, the two examples mentioned above are possibly illustrations of this, along with the more popular sports of the nation such as rugby and cricket. Other context specific or localised mega-events mentioned by respondents included the ‘J&B Met’ horseracing annual event and the ‘Cape Town Jazz Festival’. A list of all events mentioned by the stakeholders is set out in Table 5.5.

Table 5.3: Examples of ‘mega-events’ given by respondents

Sport:	Non-sport:	Localised:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Olympic Games (summer and winter) • FIFA World Cup • Cricket World Cup • Rugby World Cup • Euro Football Championships • Commonwealth Games 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • COP 17 • World Summit for Sustainable Development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • J&B Met (horseracing event, Cape Town) • Cape Town Jazz Festival

Although the earlier responses gave an indication of a finite number of events that can be considered ‘mega’, the varied responses may indicate that a definition of a mega-event is more related to its context and its impact on that host context. This leads to the discussion of the key themes that emerged as the distinguishing features of a mega-event.

Respondent Two defined a mega-event as “distinguished from other sorts of more general events, just in terms of its size, its appeal - a global appeal, and its stature”. This definition generally summarises the three broad themes - distinguishing characteristics of mega-events - that emerged from the responses. These are now discussed, using slightly differing terms to the definition above:

5.4.1 The scale of a sport mega-event

The scale of the sport mega-event was reflected in a number of different aspects, as follows:

- International magnitude: Although the distinction between domestic and international events is made later, stakeholders tend to agree that the scale of the mega-event is significant enough to be considered “global” or “international in scope” (R18).
- Multiple stakeholders: The number and type of stakeholders may be an important distinguishing characteristic. Although only one respondent clearly noted “having multiple stakeholders, private and public” (R3) as a key aspect in their definition of a mega-event, the number of different stakeholders involved in the FIFA World Cup, and the relationship between them, across the private and public sectors, emerged a number of times from the interviews.
- Risk level: The scale of the event is such that there is considered to be a “high level of risk in hosting such an event. The risk could be financial or otherwise” (R24).
- Impact: A mega-event is distinguished by the scale of its impact on the host community. It is expected to have a “major impact on a destination” (R18).

5.4.2 The appeal & reach of a sport mega-event

The appeal and reach of a sport mega-event also related to a number of different aspects, as follows:

- Spectators and visitors: The numbers of spectators was a common distinguishing characteristic and was cited by most respondents. However, the details of what type of audience, such as live spectators or followers via other media, appears to be more flexible or less defined. Respondent Five explained that, “traditionally, it would be an event that attracts tens of thousands of people and usually, probably, in a one-off situation”.

Similarly, another respondent (R7) argued that while:

“a big event might [attract] 2000, 5000 or 8000 people, I don’t think that’s a mega-event. I think it has to be much bigger than that to be a mega-event.”

Another respondent proposed a significant number of spectators, stating, “Mega-events have a major international appeal of over one million spectators” (R13). Translating this into tourism terms, a mega-event would attract “significant numbers of international visitors” (R3) to a host city or nation.

- International participation: A number of stakeholders referred to the participants of the event. Either the numbers of participants needs to be significant, or else the type or status of participant needs to be of a top-class level, as the following two quotations explain:

“[A mega-event] has a significant number of countries involved, as in participating on some basis. Both participants and spectators. One or both of those need to be a significant number” (R7).

“You will need very high profile, what I call ‘marquee’, players to be a part of it to make it a mega-event” (R25).

- Domestic or international level: There was a distinction made between being a domestic or international level mega-event. For an international level event, “we would say it would attract about 30% foreigners into the country, either as participants or spectators”. However, “a domestic mega-event would attract 30% of people from outside the province to that event” (R4).
- Type of sport: One respondent (R3) raised the debate that events may be considered a mega-event in some nations, while not in others, depending on the type of sport. It may depend on “the chief sports in the country, so the IRB (rugby) World Cup would be a mega-event in our country (South Africa), but not necessarily everywhere” (R3).

- Media reach: To be considered a mega-event, there should be “more than just a national media reach” (R24), with one respondent even proposing that a mega-event “reaches a television audience of over one billion people” (R13). Similarly, Respondent Four explained, “The foreign (media) coverage of the event is important in determining whether it’s a mega-event”. The same respondent cites the example of the BMX World Championships hosted in South Africa:

“That event didn’t bring in a lot of foreigners, probably about 3000 foreigners, but the media impact of the event was unbelievable – it reached 25 countries across the globe. So the reach of the event was quite significant” (R4).

- Social media: The issue of place for a sport mega-event has become more complex with the advent of social media and multiple media platforms. “In today’s world, [the] spectators don’t all have to be in the same place” (R5). This respondent cites a very interesting and unique example of the Volvo Ocean Race event:

“The way they have used social media and they way they have used Discovery Channel (television) and those kinds of things is in itself, you could say, a mega-event. It’s got tens of thousands of followers all over the world. So from a branding perspective, it can be quite huge” (R5).

5.4.3 The status - emotional & symbolic value of a sport mega-event

Respondents clearly alluded to a less tangible aspect of a sport mega-event, namely its emotional and symbolic value, especially as this is perceived by the host nation:

“It’s that ‘wow factor’ - that big moment. That’s what a mega-event delivers... It’s on a level that we, in South Africa especially, will never see another event like that in our lifetime. It was such a momentous occasion” (R2).

Although a mega-event is seen to be of “global importance” (R3), it also is something of great importance to the host nation - “something that would need the full nation’s attention” (R3). A respondent representing a top-tier mega-event sponsor noted that the FIFA World Cup, for example, represents a “captive environment” for reaching their target audience, and described football in particular as one of the “passion points” of their consumers, around which they build sponsorship campaigns (R27).

The level of importance of an event to the host community would “depend on the content and the context of the event” (R25). This is rather more subjective, as the respondent gives the example, once again referring to the impact and status of the event for the host community:

“Depending on [your] perspective, if you have an event of 1500 high profile delegates or, let’s say, you’ve got an event with about 3 - 400 presidents at one place - the number is not big, but if you think of 50 heads of states at one place to stay for a day or two or three, I would consider that [a mega-event] because the impact would be very big” (25).

From these responses, the key identifying characteristics of sport mega-events are considered to be its scale; its appeal and reach; and its status (as depicted in Figure 5.2). Each of these factors may also be viewed in a subjective manner depending on the context of the event and its impact on the host context.

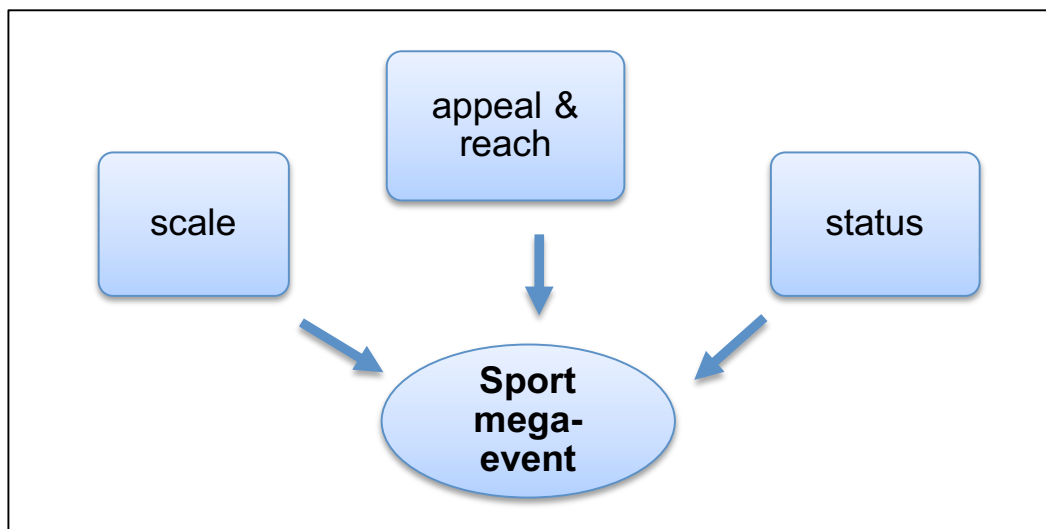


Figure 5.2: The perceived defining characteristics of a sport mega-event

5.5 The characteristics of a sport mega-event that assist nation branding

Having discovered what defines a sport mega-event, this section describes respondents' perceptions of the unique characteristics of sport mega-events that play a role in the nation branding process. The interview guide contained two specific questions related to this aspect, namely:

- “Do you believe that sport mega-events can play a role in the nation brand development of countries? If so, how would you best describe this role?; and
- “What advantages do sport mega-events offer in terms of facilitating nation brand development compared to other event types (i.e. non-sport or smaller scale events)?”

There was very definite agreement in general that mega-events play a significant role in nation brand development, although the responses highlight some differences in what this role is and how effectively it can do so. The following quotation is typical of many responses, with a positive agreement as to the role of sport mega-events, while cautioning that mega-events are not stand-alone brand development agents, but rather that they play a part, along with other important elements:

“Hosting sport mega-events is a very important part of building a country brand along with its tourism offer, its investment track record, its return on investment, it’s national icons like Mandela and Tutu. It’s an important part of it” (R8).

This response is aligned with the earlier definitions of a nation branding, where it was shown that there are multiple inputs, factors and messages that convey a nation brand. Assuming that sport mega-events do have a role to play, the more important question is then, "What are the key characteristics of a sport mega-event that make it an important part of building a nation brand?" The different themes that emerged from this question as well as other related questions and discussion are now set out:

- A sport mega-event gains the attention of a sizable, global market

The global appeal and reach of a sport mega-event was mentioned as key defining characteristic of a sport mega-event, but re-iterated as one of the primary reasons for its ability to provide nation branding opportunities. The context of sport gains the attention of and appeals to a wide global audience. The number of sport fans of a particular sport make was noted as making up a very sizeable market. For example, the FIFA World Cup was described as an event so big that "people who are not normally a soccer fan will watch the soccer World Cup" (R7). The respondent continued to explain:

"It depends on the sport. Some have niche following, whereas the big ones that have a big following are phenomenal. The difference is the fact of broad viewership and interest" (R7).

- Experiential nature of a sport mega-event creates 'connection' and 'emotional attachment' with fans

Beyond gaining attention from a global audience, a sport mega-event creates opportunities for brand experiences. A crucial nation branding opportunity was noted as "the kind of experience that you deliver at the (mega-event) and whether it jives with the controlled story" (R11). The respondent elaborates on this, emphasising the role of the local residents in creating this experience:

"The key is the 'residents' - the kind of connection that the visitors and the television audiences get with the local residents of the host city" (R11).

This quotation adds the aspect of "connection" to the understanding of creating an experience. The experience that the mega-event tourists have during the event is believed to lead to a greater connection and attachment with the nation. Interestingly, this particular respondent also included television viewers in this assessment. Another interesting description of how the experiential nature of a sport event captures or showcases a sense of place identity is given in the quotation below:

"Sport is a unique tourist attraction. Sport gives you a window or portal into a place. If you want to get a sense of a place, go to the local cricket oval, the local ice rink. There's all sorts of ways to experience a place through sports - especially at the sport (event). Taking part, you get a physical embodiment of place" (R11).

The same respondent takes this argument of sport events as a showcase for place identity further, indicating how there is also the element of “emotional attachment” that is fostered between the event and the sport event fan. The respondent argues that this emotional attachment and connection is also transferred to the setting of the event, in this case the host nation:

“A key thing I would like to emphasise in terms of sport as an attraction is that there’s an emotional attachment. They (fans/ spectators) are connected to that event and therefore, I would argue, to that place” (R11).

- Opportunities to tell a “controlled” story of the nation brand

A mega-event was described as providing opportunities for a host nation to tell a “controlled story” of the nation brand. This refers to branding narratives that are consciously developed and communicated through a number of platforms, such as opening ceremonies, the media and promotional campaigns. Although many aspects of a sport mega-event are uncontrollable and not all messages can be controlled or interpreted in the manner intended, respondents noted that a mega-event nonetheless does provide controlled messaging opportunities. The example of opening ceremonies from the Beijing 2008 and London 2012 Olympic Games were given to illustrate one such opportunity created for a more ‘controlled’ story-telling for the host place brand, among other types of campaigns and media coverage. The following quotation links these elements and stresses the importance of the controlled story in creating competitive positioning:

“These major events are all into articulating place identity. So the opening ceremony of the Beijing Olympics was a narrative very consciously developed about ‘who we are’. London used the picture of middle-England as one picture of who they are. There are also challenges with that. So opening ceremonies; controlled stories; ways that you host the media; promotional campaigns. These are all ways to get your message out as to who you are and what competitive advantage you have as a destination, as a place for investment and as a player in the global marketplace” (R11).

- Catalyst for transformation

A mega-event was described as having an extraordinary ability to fundamentally change certain physical attributes of a host city or nation and thus the way in which it is perceived. Barcelona was given as an example by several respondents of a city whose brand image was transformed through the hosting of a sport mega-event, namely the 1992 Olympic Games. The first quotation reveals how this event impacted the long-term perception of the city’s tourism destination brand:

“Barcelona is a great case study in terms of transformation of the city. It’s now in the top six in tourism city breaks. They totally changed that city’s perception out of the Olympic Games” (R15).

The example of Barcelona was given again and expanded by another respondent who described the fundamental change to the city's overall brand image through the hosting of the sport mega-event. Barcelona's image was described as having changed significantly from the rather unsophisticated image it held prior to that. The new perceptions are perceived as a positive legacy for the city, having endured more than 20 years post the event:

"An example like Barcelona – a fundamental change in the way that people perceived Barcelona as a place. And the impact that has had on that city is endless. I often talk about the fact that in the '70s you had Fawlty Towers (British sitcom) and Manuel who is not Spanish. The only thing you needed to know about him was that he came from Barcelona. That was all the explanation you need to know why he was so stupid and unsophisticated was because he was from Barcelona. If you were to do that show today you would never choose Barcelona as the place to have an automatic association of being stupid and unsophisticated. So they have worked it very, very well to put Barcelona on the international map and change the mindset about Barcelona. That for me is a very positive legacy of a mega event" (R5).

A key contributor to this change in Barcelona's brand perception was mentioned as the transformational power of the mega-event in terms of city regeneration. It also appears that it's not merely the fact that infrastructure is built in a city, but rather how it is sustained and leveraged within the city that creates the legacy for the brand. The example of Barcelona is continued in the following quotation to illustrate this:

"[using] the infrastructure for the Olympics in a much more sustainable manner. They built it in the city, they used it to upgrade the city, they rehabilitated the coastline, they built a yacht basin, they used the housing for the athletes - they put it in an area that is now a desirable area" (R5).

A further example of this was cited as Manchester, host of the 2002 Commonwealth Games. The mega-event was described as "a catalyst for regeneration" (R13) in the city. The reference to the event as a "catalyst" for other outcomes is explored next.

- Global integration and engagement

One respondent captured a very interesting aspect of a mega-event, particularly in light of South Africa's history and place in the global community. Explaining the importance of sport mega-events, they said:

"It's also very important in terms of global integration. South Africa has had a lot of catching up to do in terms of integrating its global economy and being part of the globalised world. And sport is a great global thing, obviously the pinnacle being the Olympics, which remains 3000 years later as the forum of international competition and sportsmanship. Hugely, hugely important. I don't think one can really over-emphasise the importance of sport as a theme and mega sporting events as a focus for building that kind of re-branding and international engagement. That is very important" (R8).

Another respondent explained the same aspect, giving the example of Qatar, that they claimed is “leveraging sport as a key pillar for growing the brand of the country” (R14) and explained this more fully below:

“Hosting major sporting events does connect them to the rest of the world – it builds those bridges. Sport has been chosen strategically as one of the drivers for that. They’ve got the FIFA World Cup in 2022. They’ll bid again for the Olympic Games. Just the process of bidding actually gains them exposure, very much so positively. And ultimately winning gets them on the map. How many people can say they visited or even heard of Doha ten years ago, but now it’s firmly on the map. Sport has been a key driver in making that happen” (R14).

This final aspect may be of particular importance to emerging nations seeking to stake their place in the global environment. It is interesting that these quotations use the words “engage” and “connect” rather just “gain the attention of” the world. This seems to imply a greater degree of opportunity and leveraging activities for the host nation. Sport as a great “connector” of people is also referred to by respondent five, who gave the example of the Australian Business Club - a business and investment promotion organisation that was established to leverage the opportunities provided by the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games:

“They started it specifically for the Olympics and now they continue it around major events. They specifically focus on sports events. They were at Beijing at the Olympics and they will be at London. They recognise that sport is a great connector. People from all sorts of industries love sport and they actually use it as a way to drive business connections” (R5).

Sport mega-events certainly provide this opportunity through the vast media attention and other characteristics for a nation’s people, industry and leaders to engage with other nations of the world more intentionally. Table 5.4 summarises the key characteristics of a sport mega-event that were identified by stakeholders that indicate their potential to assist nation branding.

Table 5.4: Perceived key characteristics of a sport mega-event that highlight its nation branding potential

- Gain attention of sizeable, global market
- “Experiential” nature creates connection & emotional attachment
- Opportunities to tell a controlled story
- Catalysts for transformation
- Global integration and engagement

The following section concludes the contextual themes of the responses, revealing the stakeholders’ understanding of ‘legacy’.

5.6 Legacy

Legacy was a term used widely by stakeholders in the lead up to the mega-event. It may be a widely used term, yet it appears to have many diverse interpretations and applications. This section highlights what the key stakeholders and experts understand by the term and sets out the suggestions and recommendations of respondents for planning and managing legacy, while the following chapter will look specifically at legacy examples from the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

5.6.1 Stakeholder understanding of legacy

There were four key aspects to the definitions of legacy provided by stakeholders. The following quotation summarises a number of aspects of legacy that are then described in more detail:

“Legacy to me means there are some ongoing, sustainable, positive or negative - but you’re looking for the positive – impacts, for any different aspect of the destination. Sometimes it’s for a city, (whereas other times) it’s a national spread. They can be tangible or intangible” (R7).

These aspects are set out in Table 5.5 and then elaborated further:

Table 5.5: Respondents’ understanding of legacy
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Legacy is both tangible and intangible• Legacy is positive• Legacy should be sustainable

- Legacy is both tangible and intangible: Legacy elements were described as being either tangible or intangible. Some stakeholders pointed out the importance of intangible legacies in particular, although one of the stakeholders noted the challenge with defining and evaluating intangible legacies, as revealed in the following quotations:

“And then you get the intangible legacies, which I see as perhaps even greater than the tangible ones” (R23).

“Personally, I look at legacy in two [components] – intangible and tangible, or as some people would say, ‘software’ and ‘hardware’. ... The tangibles are very simple and clear but the intangibles are a lot and very difficult for us to measure” (R25).

- Legacy is positive: Although legacy can refer to positive or negative aspects, both the earlier quotation and the one below explain that the focus of legacy, and certainly legacy planning, is on the positive aspects:

“I always talk about a positive and a negative legacy. Positive legacy is what we were looking for. You had an Olympics in Montreal (1976) that for years owed money and was known as the ‘Big 0’. So it was about working for positive legacy” (R3).

- Legacy should be sustainable: Sustainability was a key word used in many responses linked with legacy. It was used in relation to many different aspects of legacy, from

infrastructure to image to the natural environment. The many references to sustainability indicate an acknowledgement that legacy is more than just what remains at the end of an event, but rather it is how what remains is used, managed or reinforced on an on-going basis. The following quotation refers to infrastructure, a tangible legacy, and illustrates the importance of sustainability:

“I put emphasis on sustainable, because the world is littered with examples of mega-events that have led to the building of massive amounts of infrastructure that then don’t get used. If you look at Sydney for example for the [2000] Olympics, I haven’t seen the infrastructure, but I believe that it was built in an area that people don’t want to be. So there’s a great bus system out there, but [the area] is dead. That’s not sustainable. An example like Barcelona is a very different example. They used the infrastructure for the [1992] Olympics in a much more sustainable manner. They built it in the city; they used it to upgrade the city; they rehabilitated the coastline; they built a yacht basin; they used the housing for the athletes; (and) they put it in an area that is now a desirable area” (R5).

“For me legacy has to be understood in a sustainable development approach and that is why we had the three legs of: economic development, social cohesion and environmental integrity. So whatever we did and spent money on needed to pass a consideration to how it contributed to sustainable development” (R3).

The following quotation uses the context of image as an external, intangible legacy to explain some important shifts in the understanding of legacy.

“The external legacy is very much about image. It’s about improving the image of the place. For me the legacy element of that is improving it on an ongoing basis. So it’s not just about the euphoria of having the event in the destination and people love it for a while and then forget about it because the next big thing has come along.... People’s perception and attention focused on a place wanes over time and it’s very important to keep that momentum going for the image of the place... [to] rekindle that interest” (R5).

This quotation refers to improvements on an “ongoing basis”, and the need to “keep the momentum going” and even “rekindle interest”, possibly through further event bids.

5.6.2 Planning & managing legacy

Continuing from the previous quotation that mentions building on the momentum, Respondent Four similarly explained, “Any legacy that an event leaves behind, you have to build upon it” (R4). The respondent continued to explain the alignment of legacy planning and management with longer-term strategic objectives:

“Whatever legacy you want to leave behind from a mega-event has to be aligned to your strategic long-term objectives that are set for the country. Your economic and social objectives are what define what legacies you want to leave behind after the event” (R4).

These responses certainly imply that legacy post an event needs to continue to be planned and managed. Ensuring a legacy is an active task and needs to be continued and leveraged.

5.7 Summary

This chapter has set out the findings from the responses of stakeholders that relate to their understanding of the key study concepts. The chapter synthesized the findings to identify three core components of the respondents' understanding of nation branding, namely: global perceptions; competitive positioning; and internal identity. Although the stakeholders were supportive of nation branding, they perceived a number of challenges relating to: the complex nature of the nation brand; communication; management; consistency, authenticity; and ownership and control. Respondents identified nation branding stakeholders as representing residents, the public and private sectors, DMOs and other specific entities related to a sport mega-event.

It then revealed the respondents' understanding of what characteristics distinguish a sport mega-event from other event types, and found these elements related to three aspects, namely the scale of the event, the appeal and reach of the event and its symbolic status. They further identified six characteristics of sport mega-events that highlight its nation branding potential.

Finally, the respondents' understanding of legacy confirmed that legacy can be tangible and intangible, although it needs to focus on the positive elements. Respondents noted the importance of sustainability and planning to ensure that legacies contribute on-going benefits to a host community.

The following chapter moves beyond these key study concepts to examine the experiences and reflections of the 2010 mega-event stakeholders and experts relating to nation branding expectations, the opportunities that occurred, activities that were used to leverage these opportunities and the legacies that resulted.

Chapter Six: Stakeholder aims, expectations & perceptions of nation branding opportunities & legacies

6.1 Introduction

“Opportunities” was one of the most frequently emerging words emanating from the stakeholder interviews. Gradually, the researcher became more aware that this word was a core theme expressed by the stakeholders that related to the aims and expectations preceding the event, as well as their reflections of the impacts, legacy and leveraging post the event. While the previous chapter explored the more theoretical context of the study, this chapter focuses on the case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup more specifically and the opportunities that were provided for nation brand development.

Beginning with the discovery of stakeholder aims and expectations preceding the event, this chapter sets out the perceptions of stakeholders relating to the nation branding opportunities created by the 2010 mega-event, especially concerning the core thematic areas of: nation branding; tourism; business and investment; people (the internal brand); and the media. The chapter concludes with stakeholder reflections on the implications for future mega-event bidding and hosting. The chapter reveals the stakeholder responses in three distinct parts: the aims preceding the event; the opportunities created during the event period; and a post-event assessment of legacy and leveraging.

6.2 Stakeholder aims, expectations & fears

From the literature reviewed, the researcher knew that the government and the LOC officially touted brand-related benefits as one of the key objectives for the hosting of the 2010 mega-event in South Africa. In order to assess whether this was in fact a widespread expectation, the stakeholders were asked to reflect on the pre-event period, with the question posed, “Leading up to 2010, what do you believe were the general expectations of how the event would/ could impact the South African brand?” Three distinct areas of expectations or opportunities emerged from the responses, namely: the expected impact for the international brand image; the tourism industry impact; and the business and investment impact.

6.2.1 Nation brand development expectations

The respondents mentioned a variety of different expectations relating to nation brand development. For the majority, perhaps as expected, the event was viewed as an opportunity for re-branding and re-positioning of the national brand image, as well as to counter negative

brand associations with the nation, among a broad international audience. It was stated very clearly from the outset that one of the main goals of the 2010 mega-event for South Africa was to change and enhance the international image of the nation. This was confirmed by a respondent representing the LOC, who stated, when reflecting on the main goals of hosting the event, “It was about the rebranding, repositioning, or the... almost an image make-over for the country” (R1). The same respondent also explained the aim of the event being, “to influence public opinion around the globe”, although precisely what this referred to and why this was important was not explained specifically. Respondent Twenty-three explained some of the international perceptions and images that the national government expected to change through the hosting of the event:

“...to change the perceptions of the country; largely, the negative perceptions abroad in respect of the state of development, crime and all these other indicators” (R23).

Furthermore, there was an aim to change perceptions of the African continent and counter what is viewed as ‘Afro-pessimism’. Respondent Eighteen explained that the event was marketed as “Africa’s World Cup”, exhibited through the event slogan “*Ke Nako*”, meaning “Africa’s time has come” (R18). This was a message pushed by the LOC as well as national government, as explained below:

“I think from a government perspective, certainly at national level, one of the key outcomes was to produce a world class event”, that was seen as “being hosted by Africa, not just South Africa. It was seen as an African mega-event, although it was localised in South Africa” (R23).

Respondent One mentioned the branding opportunity that went beyond the host nation, to the African continent in general, saying: “This [event] provides a golden opportunity to change perceptions about Africa”. Referring to the national government aims, Respondent Twenty-three explained that the primary aim was to change the continental perceptions:

“The outcome was to use the event to change the perceptions of the country, firstly, and then secondly, to change the perceptions of the continent” (R23).

Elaborating on this perception change and indicating the type of message that they were seeking to convey. This very much links with the business and investment-related aims of competitive positioning discussed a little later in this section, as indicated below:

“South Africa is the gateway into Africa. Twenty-two of the fifty fastest growing economies in the world are African countries. So, Africa [today] is not the Africa of the 1970s, 1980s or even the 1990s” (R1).

Besides the external brand image aims, there was also an expectation for the event to assist the internal brand development. The LOC was aware of both the internal and external opportunities for nation brand development, stating, “It was an opportunity to portray a more positive image of the country both internally and externally (R2)”. Internally this was referred to

as building “the South African spirit - the ‘Rainbow Nation’ (R2).” This is a reference to the term that was widely associated with the nation building legacy of the 1995 Rugby World Cup for South Africa. Possibly as a result of this 1995 legacy, “social cohesion” and “nation building” were mentioned as key national government aims for the event, by a government department (R23).

Despite these positive expectations, stakeholders also noted an awareness of the potential risks, fears and uncertainties in the lead up to the event that could have a negative brand impact. Reference was made to the risk for the brand if something went wrong. Although the Delhi Commonwealth Games was hosted shortly after the 2010 FIFA World Cup, it was cited as an example of a mega-event that potentially damaged the nation brand. Respondent five explained this as follows:

“There was also the concern about the risk involved to our image, because if something had gone wrong it would have been terrible. Just look at what happened in Delhi with the Commonwealth Games. It must have been immeasurable the damage it did to their image. If the same thing had happened here, if one of our stadiums had collapsed or something like that, it would have been an utter disaster” (R5).

Further concern and anxiety was related to the media negativity in the lead up to the event, with the overall international media sentiment towards South Africa and the FIFA World Cup perceived as negative. The negativity and criticism related to a variety of aspects, from the readiness of the country to host the event, to negative aspects of the nation as a tourism destination, and most notably, to the perceived danger awaiting visitors to the nation, in the form of crime and violence. Respondent Three stated that “safety and security and crowd control as well as individual safety and security” was a prominent theme of media messages preceding the event. The following quotation confirms the general media negativity in the lead up to 2010 FIFA World Cup:

“We got portrayed really badly in the English press. There was a lot of stuff about how expensive we were, how it was bloody dangerous and you needed to wear your flat-jacket. Now that got into the tabloid press in England” (R7).

This quotation also alludes to the potential sensationalism of the media, especially through the ‘tabloid’ press. With England mentioned as a traditional key source tourism market, this was a potentially damaging aspect for the brand image and a deterrent to tourism in the event period as well as post the event. However, it was not just the British media that reported on crime. Other major international networks also focused on this aspect, even until just before the event began:

“Six months before the World Cup I was still being interviewed by Al-Jazeera and CNN, asking me ‘How can this ever work? You have all this crime?’ (R9).

There was a media report that urged fans to buy and wear 'flat jackets' for their personal protection and safety during the event. Apparently this report began in the German media as "a bit of a joke", although it became a more widespread news report from there (R9). This wasn't the only outrageous rumour given credence in the media, as the following stakeholder explained:

"Four months before the World Cup this one reporter from Al-Jazeera [was interviewing me]. So we are standing in front of the castle and this woman is talking to me about development issues and economic development and so on and then she asks me: 'I believe that Cape Town is building a concentration camp for street children. Can you please comment?'. Now this is lies and is broadcast all over world. Four months before the Word Cup stories like that surfaced. I actually thought she was joking and then I realised she was deadly serious. I said it was difficult for me to believe that a station of that stature could ask a question like that, but I told her we have a plan and so forth" (R9).

This section has highlighted the primary aims and fears relating to the nation brand. The following section reflects specific tourism related expectations affecting the tourism element of the nation brand.

6.2.2 Aims & expectations for the tourism destination brand component

Three key areas were highlighted in reference to expectations for the local tourism industry. These were, firstly, the opportunity to promote and position the destination internationally; secondly, to expand the tourism market; and third, the expectation that large numbers of tourists/ fans would travel to the event.

A key aim, as expressed by a tourism destination stakeholder, was "to promote South Africa as a travel destination using the World Cup as a platform to do that" (R4). The opportunity that the event offered for this is explained by Respondent Four, as the ability of mega-events to create a "captive audience" and therefore "to use the event to position South Africa as a travel destination". Reflecting the aims of the national tourism authority, the respondent continued to explain:

"Our long-term objective was to ensure [we reached] the billions of viewers out there that follow the World Cup, [which] was more important to us than the actual people who were coming here during that time. South Africa Tourism's mandate during the World Cup was not to promote the World Cup, but to promote South Africa as a destination. So the strategies we employed were geared more toward long-term brand awareness of the destination. Our role was to ensure South Africa was top-of-mind in our core markets" (R4).

This quotation reveals that the focus was more on the international viewers through the event-related media than on the sport event tourists. It is also of interest that the opportunity was perceived as a longer-term one. Top-of-mind awareness of the nation's destination brand component is revealed as the primary aim.

Although this stakeholder reveals that the focus was on the existing core tourist markets rather than any potential new markets that the event could provide access to, some of the other stakeholders contested that the event provided an opportunity to expand the tourism market to reach new and potential or emerging key markets and specifically those tourists who had not travelled to the nation before, possibly due to negative perceptions of the nation. The same respondent as earlier (R4) also seemingly contradicted himself by stating that the national tourism authority had in fact “specifically targeted people who had never travelled to South Africa and whose perceptions [of the nation] were negative” in the lead up to the event. He continued to explain that many of the countries that participated in the World Cup, although not existing core tourism markets, were perceived as potential “key markets for South African tourism” (R4), mentioning countries such as China, Korea and the South American nations. The opportunity to reach new potential tourism markets through event visitors as well as event-related media, was described as an opportunity for “many of these people to see the country for the first time” (R1). It was believed that this would assist new markets to gain “much knowledge and understanding of the whole country” (R1) – which illustrates a broader destination brand development aim than merely top-of-mind awareness.

A further key tourism-related aim for the national government was to capitalise on the event to “increase the number of foreign tourists, particularly in the host cities” and “to increase the footprint of our hospitality industry” (R23). This however was communicated to the tourism industry in terms of creating unrealistic expectations. The anticipated number of international visitors expected to travel to the nation specifically for the event became one of the biggest areas of debate and disagreement within the tourism industry in the lead up to the event. It also created tension for stakeholders as it brought uncertainty to the planning processes, as explained the following quotation:

“The biggest thing was that people expected a whole lot of foreigners just to come to South Africa. The numbers in the beginning were just ridiculous, something like a million foreigners that would come. There was that expectation amongst the industry and we were constantly asked to plan for those numbers” (R4).

A respondent that was responsible for the ‘official’ tourism forecasts as the appointed consultant to national government authorities, commented similarly on the confusion and lack of communication surrounding the expected tourism numbers and implies that the incorrect expectations should have been managed better. She implies that although there were more realistic forecasts available, most notably through her own organisation, this was perhaps not communicated, understood or accepted by the tourism industry as a whole:

“There were a lot of crazy expectations that got bandied around, which muddied the waters for the more realistic expectations that were also out there. Many expectations were wrong and we did not manage those expectations” (R7).

Linked with this expectation of numbers is the impact that this uncertainty created for the tourism and hospitality industry and even the general public in terms of being prepared for the visitor numbers and capitalizing on the expected financial windfall related to this, as explained below:

“The other expectation was that it was a time to make a lot of money, so a lot of investment went into building hotels. Cape Town built a lot of 5-star hotels and now they cannot fill those hotels. This was short-sighted. SA tourism warned people not to have high expectations, to plan for the long term and not to plan for the event. There were people extending their houses and planning bed and breakfast facilities. That was the biggest challenge for us to deal with – the issues around numbers and preparing for those numbers” (R4).

Continuing with the unrealistic expectations of tourism numbers, the following quotation shows how this stakeholder was caught up in the unrealistic expectations communicated and passed this on to other members of the tourism industry:

“I think one of the unfortunate aspects of the Soccer World Cup was that it definitely raised serious expectations. I was heavily involved with a drive to try and encourage all of the hoteliers and accommodation providers to sign up with an organisation called ‘Match’ [official FIFA ticketing and hospitality provider]. We were all convinced that we were going to have thousands upon thousands of people descending on Durban and KZN for very long periods of time and I was a firm believer in that and actually encouraged a lot of our accommodation providers to sign up and, unfortunately, that level of occupation taken never materialised” (R19).

Despite some positive and even inflated or unrealistic expectations by many stakeholders, some mentioned that they had experienced major or mega-events (such as the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the 2003 Cricket World Cup and the World Summit for Sustainable Development) previously and were sceptical that the 2010 event would be any different from these events. This was explained as a result of the many short-term business operations attracted to the event and also a result of the unrealistic expectations and promises made that weren’t delivered on. This is explained by Respondent Seventeen:

“I’ve had a bit of an insight into a big event where a lot of people are coming into the country and a lot of expectations are created and a lot of the fly-by-night-type businesses come around during that time but also a lot of the promises that are peddled originally and then what actually comes out at the end. So I was quite sceptical of the whole thing in the beginning”.

Perhaps linked with this scepticism or experience of previous events, some stakeholders anticipated a drop in tourism numbers after the event. One stakeholder mentioned discovering this through research of previous World Cup events, as explained below:

“We did some research and discovered that actually, after every World Cup, there was a dip [in tourism numbers]. That was the displacement issue, firstly, and secondly, that everybody is so focused on [the World Cup] that they forget about their other business. The whole country just focuses on that. Anything beyond that, nobody is worried about. Nobody is worried about the day that they all leave, who is coming” (R17).

From this quotation it seems that certain stakeholders were seemingly better prepared for the event than others, basing their expectations on facts, research and experience rather than industry or government hype or communication. The stakeholder raises the very important issue of planning beyond the event itself - a theme that will be focused on the section related to legacy and leveraging later in this chapter.

There was also a fear that the event could cause damage to the destination brand. For example, the destination might be perceived as expensive due to anticipated inflated prices during the event. A stakeholder explained, "One of our concerns was that we might be perceived as an expensive destination because prices were higher for the World Cup" (R4). Overall, the sentiment within the tourism industry was one of uncertainty. Not just related to the visitor numbers, but also as to the capability of hosting a successful event. The following quotation explains this feeling in the industry as:

"Its interesting. We sort of knew we could do it. But we also sort of knew that we didn't know if we could do it. So we had much to prove to ourselves as a country that we were capable of hosting these [mega-] events" (R21).

The same respondent explained that the tourism and events industry believed that they could host this event successfully, based on the previous event hosting experiences that were very positive. Although many of these may be regarded as "relatively smaller events, it showed what we were capable of" (R21). The respondent elaborated:

"We were helped by the history of events we've had in this country and with a huge number of congresses coming through, and each one took us to another level in terms of what we can handle" (R21).

6.2.3 Aims & expectations for the business & investment brand component

While the tourism industry was perhaps overly optimistic in its expectations of tourist numbers and the financial opportunity linked with that, the general sentiment in the business community was not as positive. As the following quotation reveals, this was linked to the expectation of event management and readiness or competence to host the event:

"In the business community you had a lot of pessimism about whether we'd be able to manage it. How are we going to handle all this traffic? Where are people going to sleep? We haven't got enough hotels. There was a lot of pessimism about it being a mess, which was completely misplaced, but there was that" (R5).

Besides the pervading negative sentiment, the business and foreign trade sectors still aimed for positive outcomes from the event. From the national government perspective, a core aim of the event was "to improve and increase foreign direct investment in the country" (R23). The goal was to convey messages through the event that would result in increased foreign direct investment in the nation. A potentially successful event could result in international credibility and help to advance South Africa's global competitiveness. The response from Respondent

Eight below explained the perceived link between a successful event and the enhanced global competitiveness for the host nation:

“We were trying to convey the message ultimately that our objectives are to get more foreign direct investment so we can get the kind of development that we need in the country. That’s what we need in South Africa. The primary objective was to say “Look, here is what South Africa has undertaken to deliver - an outstanding, vibrant and different World Cup”, and then “Judge us on what we deliver.” And then leverage that advantage of having built up the international credibility of delivering what we promised, and to transform that into economic competitive advantage” (R8).

This quotation raises a few other themes that will be discussed in further detail later, especially ‘leverage’; ‘international credibility’; and ‘competitive advantage’. Table 6.1 summarises the stakeholder aims, expectations and fears preceding the 2010 mega-event.

Table 6.1: Stakeholder aims, expectations & fears		
	Aims & expectations:	Fears/ uncertainty:
Nation branding:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Re-brand and/ or re-position brand image internationally • Change perceptions about Africa • Build the internal brand 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative impact of perceived event failure or negative incident • Negative media coverage highlighting crime, safety & poverty
Tourism destination brand component:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promote the destination • ‘Top-of-mind’ in core markets • Reach new and/ or strategic tourist markets • Attract large numbers of mainly first-time visitors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uncertain visitor numbers • Sufficiency of tourism infrastructure & accommodation • Possibility of being perceived as an expensive destination • Scepticism • Decrease in tourism numbers post event
Business & investment brand component:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International credibility • Global competitiveness • Foreign direct investment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Readiness/ competence fears

Having identified the aims, expectations and concerns of stakeholders preceding the event, the following section reveals the opportunities that actually transpired during or immediately after the event period and how this impacted the nation brand and its components.

6.3 Nation branding opportunities created by the event

There are a number of key themes and categories considered in this section that reveals the stakeholder experiences and perceptions of what transpired during the event and what impact this had on the South African brand. Although many of the sections overlap and are sometimes difficult to separate, the key categories that will be looked at are: the delivery on expectations;

the brand messages conveyed; the tourism impact; the media exposure; the impact on the South African people (the internal brand impact); the business sector impact; and lastly the impact on the brand stakeholders and their relationships.

6.3.1 Delivering on expectations

Post the event, there is a clear agreement among stakeholders that the event at least met, but mostly exceeded their expectations in general. The following two responses are typical of the positive way that stakeholders referred to the meeting of expectations:

“I think it was better than expected, definitely. We exceeded expectations - our own expectations and definitely international expectations - of our ability to deliver on it” (R5).

“We delivered on the event better than expected. On the world stage and for our own people, much better than everyone’s expectations” (R7).

The exceeding of expectations was linked to a wide variety of accomplishments and positive impacts. Before looking at the specific impacts in each sector, the following three factors were mentioned frequently as a measure of the event success, namely: event organisation and management; the fact that there were no major negative incidents; and the international recognition of success.

The event was seen to be successful because of the high-end infrastructure that was delivered for the event, most of which had never been accomplished in the African context before. A stakeholder claimed, “We managed to deliver this high-end infrastructure in a very complicated context” (R24). Stakeholders repeatedly mentioned that the event went off without any hitches or major incidents. This is seen as crucial to the perceived success, as the following quotation suggests: “Certainly the event was a success, with no major incidents.” (R10). Gaining the commendation of the international community was also seen as a measure of success, as explained below:

“I think the way we presented this event was exceptional. We had international recognition for a lot of the stuff that we did” (R9).

However, with the benefit of hindsight and reflections on the expectations as set out earlier, the stakeholders made a few important recommendations. There was a fairly widespread feeling that “perhaps national government created unfair expectations of the World Cup” (R23). The stakeholder continued to explain that although “the messaging was positive, people thought their lives were going to change during and after the World Cup. So I think they created an unnatural expectation” (R23). This may have been more the case for certain groups of stakeholders than for others, and especially for the smaller stakeholders, as explained by Respondent Eighteen:

“In some stakeholder groupings, expectations were created that could not be met. Particularly the smaller stakeholders who [expected] more benefits that didn’t materialise”.

This led to a respondent proposing “expectation management” as a “critical challenge for the future” (R18). Linked with this, the respondent recommended, “communication between the stakeholder groupings, because a lot of good things were happening but were not always communicated across the spectrum” (R18).

6.3.2 Positive brand messaging

During the event, there were “a lot of positive messages” (R18) conveyed that had the potential to impact the brand and influence brand image perceptions. This section reveals what the stakeholders believed to be the main brand messages that were conveyed and what they believed visitors and event followers experienced and observed about the South African national brand. Some of these aspects are explored more fully in later sections that look more in-depth at the tourism, media, people and business impacts.

The event was described as an opportunity to showcase different aspects of the nation. Some of these opportunities were more controlled or scripted by the stakeholders than others. For example, the opening and closing ceremonies were described as opportunities to showcase the cultural and technological aspects of the nation. This was explained by Respondent Four as follows:

“The technological aspects were very much what we wanted to portray. We wanted to display South Africa as an advanced destination, a country that excelled in technology development. So what you saw in the closing ceremony was very much the technological aspects that we wanted to showcase. The opening was more of a cultural showcase where we wanted to show South Africa’s culture, whereas the closing was more of a technological showcase” (R4).

This quotation reveals brand messaging opportunities for a nation brand through a mega-event, notably through the scripted opportunities such as opening and closing ceremonies. However, although the ceremonies provide a controlled environment for brand messaging, the same respondent also noted the challenge of who gets to control or give input into this opportunity. He mentioned that this particular showcasing opportunity was controlled by the LOC. Despite being among a small group of stakeholders invited to give input into this, the national tourism authority appears to have had little control over the messaging produced. The respondent described the situation as follows:

“The opening and closing ceremony was an LOC function. They involved the Department of Arts and Culture. [SA Tourism] were there as a partner and attended the meetings, but it was never something that we drove. It wasn’t a core area of our responsibility. Certain elements of the ceremonies they used some of our footage and we gave some ideas from a brand point of view what we thought made sense” (R4).

Brand messaging was also conveyed through iconic images, design and infrastructure created for the event. Stakeholders argued that the stadia that were built for the World Cup played a role in the nation branding impact beyond merely facilitating the event. A number of stakeholders commented on the “unique design” of the stadia, even described as “iconic”. The stadia sent out “a message of a country with not only high-end skills and abilities [in order to produce such engineering achievements], but also a kind of creativity” (R24). The following quotation echoes this perspective, adding that they were also perceived as reflective of “African” design:

“The stadiums did an amazing job on the brand perspective. We produced three (or perhaps all) that were beautiful, iconic stadiums. Cape Town is beautiful and Soccer City [in Johannesburg] and Durban were superlative. They made a statement about African iconic development and infrastructure” (R7).

Similarly, another stakeholder spoke about the iconic imagery for Cape Town and how the stadium became a new symbol of the city, explaining how “the image of the stadium at night” and “the views of Table Mountain in the background” became as identifiable and recognisable with the city as a “Nike [swoosh] sign is identifiable with the Nike brand, anywhere in the world” (R23).

The brand messaging also includes the images of the festive atmosphere and the friendly people. The nation as a whole was seen as “free and fun-loving” (R23), as confirmed in the following quotation:

“The first thing they saw was the lavish, vibrant, colourful, happy and welcoming nation. It was that friendliness, that festive atmosphere, like a ‘Mardi Gras’. Apart from the soccer tournament, it was that vibey, friendly nation” (R7).

Further to these observations, other cultural brand messages were portrayed as the nation was perceived as an “outdoors and nature” loving culture (R23). There was also a strong message about “*Ubuntu*” (a South African value and expression of community), which showed, “we are a caring people” (R23). This is in stark contrast to the expectations of crime and fear of safety preceding the event. The message portrayed during the event was, “It was a very safe... place” (R10). During the event there was seen to be, “no crime, no public disorder” (R10). The message sent out to the world was not to say that the nation was “crime-free, but the idea that crime is under control - low crime” (R23).

6.3.3 Opportunities for the tourism & destination brand component

Specifically referring to the tourism destination promotion aim, one respondent reflected:

“From a marketing point of view, we were pleasantly surprised. We didn’t expect that kind of response to our campaigns. There was really significant positive response to the kind of campaigns we launched” (R4).

Even after the event it seems there is not uniformity in agreement as to the exact numbers of event visitors and whether this was a 'good' number. Officially numbers were revised down quite considerable in the lead up to the event. There were two main reasons given for this: Firstly, the global economic downturn that began in 2008 resulted in a world-wide reduction in travel and tourism in general; and secondly, the ticket distribution for the event was negatively impacting visitors from other African nations. (The ticketing system was criticised for its lack of fairness towards African nations in particular as it required access to the online booking system and a credit card.) Other factors mentioned as mediating the travel numbers were the fact that South Africa is a long-haul destination for most of the key travelling fan markets and the fact that there was much negative media attention in international media in the lead up to the event. The following two quotations explain the impact of these factors on the expectations and the final numbers of tourists:

"SA Tourism came out with 440,000 visitors. We revised numbers down twice, once the year before and once in the April of the year of the event. And the reason for revising down was twofold: the perceptions we had that the ticket distribution wasn't happening (African perceptions and travel expectations was looking lower than anticipated); and the global economic crisis, which was driving travel and interest down" (R7).

"What really happened though was that we went through an economic crisis and those projections started dropping from a million to 500,000 then eventually to 350,000. In the end we had close to 500,000 people in the country at that time, which was quite significant as it is a long-haul destination and with all the negative publicity that we had in the build up to the World Cup, I was quite surprised that we actually got those numbers" (R4).

This respondent was then asked to clarify this number of 500,000 as his organisation had officially stated a number of 309,000 visitors. This important difference is explained further:

"Specifically here for the World Cup the numbers were around 309,000. SA Tourism does departure surveys at all border posts around the country and at this time they asked specific questions that resulted in the figure of 309,000. That number excluded the FIFA family (teams, administrators, global sponsors). All of them make up the FIFA team and that number we were given was about 150,000. So that's why I say there were about 500,000 here in total. The numbers reflect visitors specifically here for the World Cup, who stayed for an average of 10 nights" (R4).

This was the only stakeholder to mention the additional number of FIFA delegates as part of the tourism numbers. The extra 150,000 visitors is an important and considerable number that is not included in any official statements. It is also significant that the average tourist stayed for ten nights.

Despite the lower than expected visitor numbers and hotel occupancy as a result, some stakeholders still performed very well from a business perspective. Respondent Seventeen explained in the following quotation that when MATCH was unable to use its accommodation bookings, it compensated the providers for potential lost revenue with a cancellation fee. In

addition, this excess capacity could be released to the market again, and in particular, the domestic market took this up very quickly:

“Because of our cancellation fee process, the cancellation policy that we had negotiated with [MATCH], we actually managed to do very well out of the World Cup, financially, even though occupancy wasn’t where we wanted to be. However, when they released accommodation, we were able to put that back into the market through our website into the domestic market very quickly and it was taken up very quickly. So the World Cup actually ended up as our highest performing year ever. We ended up better off at the end of the day” (R17).

The majority of the visitors that came to South Africa for the event were very distinct from the traditional tourists the nation attracts. It’s clear that these differences presented opportunities as well as challenges for the tourism industry and certainly influenced the overall tourism impact and legacy. These differences are now explained.

The “traditional leisure market for South Africa is mainly from Europe”, but looking at the tourists that came and which markets they represented, “about 70 percent came from Africa and 30 percent came from around the world” (R4).The respondent elaborated on the significance of this as follows:

“It gave us an opportunity to speak to people that we had not spoken to before. So it gave us a new market that we could talk to” (R4).

The World Cup was seen as “attracting a new market – a market that is young, lower to middle income groups” (R7). The respondent contrasts this with the typical South African tourist profile as “your middle to upper income group - retired people and young professionals without any children” (R7). In the opinion of one stakeholder, the visitors “never came to the World Cup because it was in South Africa. They came the World Cup because it was the World Cup” (R17).

An interesting sub-group of event visitors was mentioned by Respondent Twenty-one as “sponsors and their guests”. The respondent explained, “Big sponsors like Coke or Adidas will bring out five to six thousand [5,000 - 6,000] people, and they will all be incentive groups.” So the sponsors, it is argued, “all brought a significant amount of people” (R21).

Despite these positive sentiments, a number of stakeholders also acknowledged that there was a displacement effect on tourism surrounding the World Cup period. However, as the event occurred during the low season for international tourism, the effect was not necessarily negative for the industry as in some cases the tourism numbers increased at other times of the year.

“There was a displacement effect. That is usually a quiet period in South Africa, our low season. Our core markets are experiencing summer then and don’t usually travel here. We find that our summers are more attractive to the foreign market than our winters. So there was not that much of a displacement. There was displacement, but

it was not significant. What we found though, especially from SAN Parks [South African National Parks], their numbers were pretty low during that period. Your traditional game park visitor decided not to come. But then the numbers in August and September increased, because those people decided to come back then. So there was a displacement but I don't think it was a negative thing for the country. I think it was actually positive because it allowed those visitors who were here to get accommodation at that time" (R4).

One stakeholder mentioned that they "mobilised an appropriate displacement strategy" (R19) as a means to countering the displacement effect. This included a campaign to encourage domestic tourists to visit the city and other areas of the province "that were not going to be seriously impacted by the event" (R19). Beyond the nation's borders, the Southern African nations of Namibia and Zambia claimed that they were affected by what they termed "the displacement of traditional markets that would have come during that time", noting that some of their markets were affected by "the flights [that] were full" and the fact that "there weren't enough cars" (R18).

Compared to the pre-event expectations, the event may have been "lower in terms of numbers of tourists, but it was better in terms of the tourist experience" (R7). Many stakeholders mentioned the visitor experience as a highly successful aspect of the event. The following three quotations capture this sentiment:

"People had a great experience while they were here" (R4);
"The tourists had a ball" (R7); and
"People who came here had a wonderful experience" (R10).

The explanations of these positive tourism experiences highlighted the following key aspects, giving a better indication of what the visitors saw and experienced while in the nation. The festival nature of the sport mega-event created a unique, even "electric" (R24) atmosphere that influenced the visitor experience, as further illustrated in the following two quotations:

"Tourists felt welcome" (R10).
"What mattered was that everyone who came was having fun and it was a fantastic picture of urban tourists having fun" (R21).

The experience of those attending the matches and watching in the fan parks was particularly impactful, with one respondent stating, "The stadium experience stood out for me" (R13). The fan parks, fan walks and areas surrounding the stadium itself were all included in descriptions of the stadium experience. Two respondents refer to the stadium experience as "colourful", with one respondent describing the stadium precinct and fan walk in Cape Town as "a spectacle of colour and spirit" (R10).

Besides the football, the visitors also enjoyed other activities, from the natural environment to city socialising. This added to the visitor experience, with one respondent explaining, "It's a helluva [sic] nice destination with so much to enjoy like beaches, nightlife,

mountains” (R7). Visitors to Cape Town also experienced “a clean city, a friendly city [and] beautiful scenery” (R10). A few stakeholders referred to the tourism and event infrastructure that added to the visitor experience. For example, there were “no transport delays” (R10).

While the above impacts mostly relate to the host cities, it is important to compare this with the impact in the smaller towns. Overall, it seems that the tourism impacts mentioned above were largely restricted to the biggest of the host cities, as the following quotation reveals:

“It ended up that only the main cities really benefited. I sit on the Board of the Tourism Council, and virtually all the little B&B’s and the ‘mom and pop’ businesses that were set up for the World Cup to try and benefit were really a dismal failure. They never benefited” (R17).

The stakeholder reasons that this was because they had “a situation where the market was flooded with hotel rooms in the main city areas” (R17). Another reason given for the lack of tourism activity in the smaller regions was the distinctiveness and the motivation of the mega-event sport tourists, who were primarily in the country for the event, as explained below:

“I think some people went into the regions, but generally they were here for the soccer. They were not here for any other reason” (R17).

However, a stakeholder representing a smaller host city indicated a number of positive tourism impacts for that city arising from the event. It is therefore uncertain whether it was rather the smaller non-host cities and destinations that struggled to benefit.

6.3.4 Media opportunities

The negative media coverage in the lead up to the event has already been mentioned. Although there weren’t specific questions asked during the interview process regarding the role and impact of the media, this emerged as a major theme from the interviews. When one looks at the responses and examples given of the media impact, the way in which the media was ‘managed’ or ‘hosted’ and the change in the media broadcasting during the course of the event, it is evident that this was an important theme within the context of this study.

The media plays a crucial role in the dissemination of images to a global audience, allowing the impact of the event to extend beyond the event visitors. Furthermore, it assists the development of perceptions among its audiences. The importance of the media coverage is highlighted in this quotation: “Media plays a huge role in the perceived ability of a country to host an event and the perception of the success of the event” (R5). This section first looks at the media reach and then at the media content, before looking at two related media themes mentioned.

- Extent of the media reach

The media reach during the event extended to very large numbers of people all around the world. As an indication of this: “In terms of just the final, we had 700 million people watching” (R1); and for the Final Draw alone, “there were 206 television crew from all over the world” (R1). The same respondent further explained the significance of this media exposure and the value of the amount of positive exposure gained by the nation as a result of the event:

“So, on a daily basis from the morning, if you switch on Sky and BBC and CNN and Aljazeera and all these [news channels], it was about South Africa, it was about the World Cup. Now if you think, what will it cost to have 30 days, everyday, focus on your city [or nation] and the message is positive? It’s not about drugs. It’s not about crime. It’s a good story. It’s about the wonderful mountain [in the background]; it’s about people celebrating in the street; people walking, people happy, people smiling. You can imagine for 30 days those images are what people saw in their houses throughout the world. What is the sum total of that? And what will it cost you if you want to achieve that through a marketing, branding plan?” (R1).

This quotation illustrates how the media coverage is viewed similarly to publicity, in a marketing sense. As such, there is very little control by the subject, in this case the nation, over the content of the publicity. The quotation mentions the fact that the publicity was positive, although this highlights the subjectivity of assessing the content of the publicity and not merely the audience reached.

- The content of the media ‘showcase’

It is apparent that the media publicity reached a large global audience. But what did viewers actually see and what aspects of this had relevance for nation branding? The media was described as ‘showcasing’ many aspects of the nation, most notably, the natural environment, the local people, and urban imagery.

The natural beauty of the country has traditionally been a strength of its tourism destination brand, with wildlife and the natural environment featuring prominently in media and marketing imagery and promotions. It is not really surprising then that the media coverage of the event also highlighted these natural aspects of the nation brand. However, some media houses chose to maximize the natural setting and displayed such imagery very prominently in their coverage. For example, the following quotation by a UK-based respondent explains how the BBC studio located in Cape Town maximised the opportunity to showcase the natural setting in Cape Town for its studio and how this impacted his perception and potential travel behaviour as a result:

“Something that I noticed about the BBC during the World Cup in terms of nation branding – they got a brilliant studio position. Every night you had Gary Lineker with Table Mountain in the background looking stunning. It was quite an enticing

view to have. It was part of why I wanted to go to Cape Town. I kept on seeing it on television every night. It was brilliant” (R11).

The media also portrayed the local South African people very prominently, mostly in the event-related settings such as fan parks and stadium precinct areas. This assisted a change in perception too, as many of the existing images of the nation brand related to negative aspects of the local people, such as segregation, racism and crime. However, during the event, the media portrayed images of the local people that were different to many of these perceptions or stereotypes. The resulting impact was that during the course of the event and through the associated media coverage, “In the eyes of the International community, they saw a different South Africa. They saw South Africans differently. (R1).” Different to much of the media coverage of Africa in general with its associated problems of poverty and violence, the images seen by television viewers across the world are described as: “people celebrating in the street, people walking, people happy, people smiling” (R1). Interestingly, South African Tourism designed their World Cup campaigns to highlight the “friendly side of South Africa”, aiming to show that “South Africa is a fun place and that they [South Africans] like to party” (R4). Previously, the national tourism promotion organisation believed there was a perception that the country was considered to be “very unfriendly and unwelcoming”, which they attributed to the Apartheid past.

The media coverage of the local people in this positive manner is especially important, as traditional destination marketing for South Africa had “tended to focus on wildlife and scenery” (R4), possibly at the expense of showcasing its people. This is highlighted by the comment from Respondent three, that “what the World Cup did was to show the rest of the world that we had much more than just our natural attributes.”

The third notable feature of the media coverage and another aspect beyond the natural attributes of the nation brand, was the focus on urban imagery. Linked to these media images of people and safety was a notable focus on urban imagery and a modern society, with images showing: “a dynamic, workable society” and “a vibrant urban setting that is relatively safe” (R5). The event “showcased our cities as vibrant urban destinations that are working, that are dynamic and embracing and showcased the culture of the people that are friendly and that extend themselves to the visitors” (R5). South Africa was seen as a country with “world class infrastructure” (R1) and “technologically advanced” (R2). These new images were noted as contrasting with the “more negative stereotypes that are associated with South Africa and Africa more broadly (such as) crime and afro-pessimism” (R2) and the ‘Brand Africa’ effect noted in the literature review.

- New and social media

The impact of the media coverage is not only concerned with the traditional media coverage of the event. With the advent of smart phones, the travelling tourist is today able to collect and distribute their own images and observations of the event and the nation through a variety of new and social media platforms. These more personalised, authentic and experiential-based images, words and videos “went out viral on social media – YouTube, Facebook, Twitter – and people sending videos” (R24). The respondent further explained the power of this media form and the branding opportunities that it created:

“The people who came were upmarket people who came with 3G phones and they found a country with first world infrastructure. They were first world, savvy, tech-conscious people. So in their own languages they were sending the message home: ‘You guys should be here!’ The moment they got off the aeroplane they were overloading the network as they were sending messages. Even just the fact that they could carry on with their normal daily life, doing the social stuff, just showed them that this is a normal country. So that message got out” (R24).

The significance of the social media platforms is clearly that the visitors themselves can become brand ambassadors for the nation, if they are reporting on positive experiences. Furthermore, besides the messages that they convey, the fact that they are able to use these platforms in the nation contributes to the technological advancement aspects of the nation brand image. The scale with which the social media was used by event visitors as well as global fans resulted in what at the time was “the biggest [social media] event in history” (R1). According to measures of social media trends, “the first day of the World Cup was bigger than the inauguration of Barack Obama” (R1). This clearly indicates the scale of a mega-event and the growing usage and importance of social media within the tourism and sport environments.

6.3.5 Internal brand development opportunities

Besides the external image change, the World Cup was also expected to provide an opportunity to build a more positive image of the country among the host residents – i.e. positively impacting the internal brand component. In the context of describing the internal impact, Respondent Ten explained, “The World Cup was a defining moment” for South Africa. Summarising how residents felt at this time, he stated, “The most important thing is that for once [people] felt together, proud, capable, happy” (R10). These four aspects summarise the general responses given by stakeholders and are now further elaborated.

Increased civic or national pride is often mentioned as a social impact or legacy of a mega-event for the local population. However the following quotations reveal that the pride was clearly linked with residents feeling that they were playing a role of ‘ambassadors’ for the nation

as they played an important role within the branding process of the mega-event through engaging with foreign visitors directly during the event or indirectly through the global media.

“It was a radical ratcheting up of the South African pride levels and the engagement of South Africans with foreigners“ (R8).

“They [South Africans] felt proud to be ambassadors” (R10).

The emotional and symbolic nature of sport and mega-events is alluded to in the descriptions of the event experience for the local residents. The event experience was described by Respondent Two as “a celebration - people coming together” (R2). The excitement that the event created for local residents was seen to contribute to a national “feel-good factor” (R2), or as another respondent described, “an emotional high” (R10) for residents. A respondent explained that one of the enduring impressions from the event is of a “country that’s together, that’s passionate, that’s welcoming, and that’s exciting”. All these “positive virtues” that relate to the people of the nation and the internal brand came across “quite strongly” (R18).

There were a number of different reasons given that contributed towards this. Overall, it seems it was as a result of “exceeding our own expectations” (R6) at delivering a successful event. The event was viewed as an “achievement” for all South Africans, and as such there was a feeling of celebration. Although the aspect of social cohesion was mentioned by respondents, it was evident that this aspect did not have the same impact for the nation as was experienced in the case of the 1995 Rugby World Cup.

There is also an indication that the population liked the way the country was during the event, meaning that it became an example of the potential for the nation. Perhaps this was linked with the lack of crime and a feeling of safety that was mentioned by a number of respondents, with one noting, “They [residents] could move around. They were safe” (R10). Besides feeling safer, residents seemed to have a distraction from other negative aspects of their lives:

“There was no negativity at all during that period and it was something so much bigger than the smaller daily things that people regularly complain about” (R8).

Illustrating these different aspects, Respondent One summed up the feeling of the residents at the time:

“[South African] people said, ‘You know what? This is the South Africa we want to live in. This is the country we want.’ Everyone was a proud South African, a patriotic South African, an appreciative South African and just a South African that was probably celebrating the fact of our special achievement” (R1).

Linked with this sense of achievement, another reason given for the increase in national pride was the new sport stadia that were built, described as “beautiful” and “iconic”, with the significance of this revealed in the following two quotations:

“They [the stadia] made a statement about African iconic development and infrastructure. [And] they were built on time and functioned well” (R7).

“It gave us the self-confidence and belief in ourselves that we could pull something like this off successfully” (R10).

Some of this self-confidence was re-enforced through FIFA’s own endorsement of the event.

Respondent Nine recalls:

“Jerome Valcke [FIFA Secretary General] stood up at the Final Draw saying that this is the best Final Draw ever in the history of FIFA. That counts for a lot. So the belief that we got from that was huge.”

6.3.6 Business & investment brand opportunities

For the non-tourism business sector, brand-building opportunities through the 2010 mega-event proved more challenging. Representatives of the business and investment sectors noted that there was not always as clearly an opportunity for the industry to directly capitalise on the 2010 FIFA World Cup, as it was for the tourism industry.

“From a business perspective, it was quite a difficult thing for them to take advantage of in any way” (R5).

This was partly attributed to the tight commercial control by FIFA and the restrictions relating to reference to the event by non-sponsoring businesses. Non-sponsor companies were limited in how they could link with the event or benefit from association with it directly as the commercial rights were “so tightly held by FIFA” (R5). However, through a number of creative initiatives the business community found ways of benefitting from the event, mainly through stimulating team-building or corporate morale-boosting among its employees. The following quotation explains how local companies capitalised on the excitement of the event among the local population to build cohesion internally and boost confidence and corporate morale. The quotation also reveals the unique social setting in South Africa, where a history of social divisions has left a diverse society still largely segregated, confirming the ability of sport, and in this case the shared experience of the sport mega-event, to unite people:

“I think more where businesses got involved was internally, using it as a team-building, spirit-building, proudly South African-building process. People dressing up on Fridays for the football in their football outfits. It really got people together in a work environment. You had something that actually brought people together. In an environment in a country where we have such diverse cultures, that have absolutely nothing in common, now you’ve got a topic that everyone can sit around in a canteen and talk about it and get excited about it. It has a big impact on morale, on team building within an organisation where you’ve got something like that” (R5).

At a broader, nation branding level, investment promotion agencies capitalised on the event by encouraging networking and brand engagement opportunities among local and international businesses and international trade partners and investors. A regional business and investment promotion agency recognised that influential business people and investors would likely be in

the nation as a result of the event. They leveraged this by creating a series of networking, “connecting” and “engagement” opportunities within the local business industry and among the international corporate and investor visitors during the event. The quotation also reveals how learning or knowledge transfer between stakeholders from one mega-event to the next can result in effective leveraging activities being replicated. It also reveals the power of partnership between stakeholders, especially in the business sector, to effectively leverage such opportunities:

“We recognised the power of having the people that were going to be here in town. So we created a concept called ‘Connected Cape Town’ which we cribbed completely from the Australian Business Club that was set up for the Olympics in 2000. The whole idea was they knew there would be a whole lot of people, very powerful people, business people, coming into Sydney on hospitality packages as guests of companies, sponsors etc. So they set up the ABC as a place where visiting business people could be brought together with local business people. It was so successful for them that they went around the world to other events. So we cribbed that Australian model and we created ‘Connected Cape Town’ which was an umbrella brand that covered WESGRO, the Cape Town Partnership, Cape Town Tourism, The Premier’s Office, the Mayor’s Office, Cape Chamber etc. A whole range. We all worked in partnership. We ran three major events, breakfasts, during the World Cup. One where we worked with the British Consulate on the day of the England-Algeria match. We had Boris Johnson the mayor of London as our guest speaker where we had about 250 people at the breakfast at the ICC. We did one with the French consulate and the SA French Chamber of Business where we had about 170 people at (...) restaurant. We had a Vice President of GDF-Suez and Helen Zille [Provincial Premier] as the guest speakers. Then we did one with the Dutch (consulate) and the SA Netherlands Chamber where we had Clem Sunter and a Dutch speaker and there we also had about 180-190 people. Three weeks in a row. It was really an opportunity, working with the consulates, to have visitors connecting with locals and drive some of those business connections” (R5).

Such leveraging activities were not restricted to the borders of the host nation. A stakeholder representing the South African nation branding authority gives the following examples of how business networking opportunities were leveraged internationally, in this case in the United Kingdom, during the World Cup period. The aim of the event-related activities was to strengthen the South African network abroad and to encourage the sense of national pride within this network as well as to engage with the international business and investment community:

“The main focus was to build the Global South African Network that we call the South African expat community into a more solid resource in assisting in the nation building project of South Africa. We have this network here called Global South African Network which consists of people from the very high end, CEO’s and chairmen of major companies through to the science community and the legal, financial services, sporting communities, you name it. But there’s a core of them. So the first objective was to build that network and the second objective was to engage the South African companies which have a presence on the stock markets here, what we call the Big 6 (Anglo, Old Mutual, SAB-Miller etc.), as well as big British companies who have a major presence in South Africa, for example Barclays, Vodafone, and Diageo and so forth. We had workshops with those companies and encouraged them to hold events.

So for instance on the opening day of the World Cup while in Trafalgar Square the game was being screened on a big screen, at Deloitte's headquarters they were using their big auditorium for an invited event to watch the game and we had 'vuvuzela's' etc. During the course of the four-week period, various companies and charities had events around the World Cup. Those kind of corporate events were very important in both building confidence in South Africa and giving those companies more of a South African profile than they tend to normally have" (R8).

6.3.7 Stakeholder relationship opportunities

During the interviews, stakeholders described their relationships with other key stakeholders. This was not something that was originally planned in the interview brief, however it emerged as a theme through the natural flow of conversation as it related to a number of other key areas discussed. References to other stakeholders included the relationships between different types of event and nation branding stakeholders as well as relationship with FIFA in particular.

A number of emotional terms were used to describe the interactions between stakeholders. In the lead up to the event, some stakeholders mentioned that they experienced a great deal of "tension" and "frustration". This resulted from a lack of communication or as one stakeholder said, "breakdown in communication between major role players" (R5). There was also general uncertainty within the private sector around "what you were and weren't allowed to do" (R5). This uncertainty referred to the strict licensing and regulatory controls implemented for the event, mostly to protect the rights of FIFA and their sponsors. The tension was also related to operational differences between the private and public sectors that don't often have to work as closely together as was required for the 2010 mega-event. As Respondent Seven described, "There were times when the private sector was frustrated with what the public sector would or wouldn't do".

However, the assessment of stakeholder relationships and partnerships during the event period was far more positive, with descriptions and examples of successful partnerships that were formed. Some of the organisations worked together or collaborated to leverage the opportunities provided, in one case even forming a new umbrella brand, as the following quotation describes:

"We created 'Connected Cape Town' which was an umbrella brand that covered WESGRO, Cape Town Partnership, Cape Town Tourism, The Premier's Office, The Mayor's Office, The Cape Chamber etc. A whole range [of organisations]. We all worked in partnership" (R5).

Despite the initial difficulties and tensions, the public-private sector partnerships functioned more effectively during the event. The mega-event provided a context for these sectors to work together and a much-needed impetus to make this relationship work for the greater success of the event. A number of stakeholders referred to the improved working relations between private

and public sector agents as a result of working together on event-related projects. The following quotation reveals the dynamics of this interaction from a private sector perspective:

“The public and private sectors worked relatively well together at a City and Provincial level on related projects. I think government in South Africa has always struggled to work with the private sector. The public sector had to trust the private sector here. Normally the sectors don’t trust each other. There were some issues, but they managed to go past that” (R7).

Besides the public-private sector interaction, the mega-event also required different levels of public sector organisations to work together. Although differences and challenges were noted in these interactions, a city government stakeholder explained that the mega-event forced the local government to find “alignment with National and Provincial Government, along with other role players” (R10), with the same respondent elaborating:

“For once, national, local and provincial governments aligned budgets, planning and energy and that inspired some outstanding results” (R10).

The mega-event forced these departments to budget and plan together and also added an ‘energy’ to the cooperation. Another key to finding this alignment between different levels of government as well as with other stakeholders appears to be open communication channels between the various parties. A city government stakeholder commented, “It was important to have a good relationship with the LOC, with FIFA and the National Government. We kept open lines of communication with them” (R10).

The relationship between the stakeholders and FIFA specifically was an important one mentioned by most stakeholders. The relationship and interaction between stakeholders and FIFA appeared to be a tenuous one. Especially in the early, pre-event period, the relationship between stakeholders and FIFA were difficult, confrontational and demanding, as the following quotation makes clear:

“We had a difficult relationship in the beginning. We had to fight hard for what we wanted. But eventually we succeeded. There were lots of fights, lots of arguments, but we needed to get to a point where we understood each other” (R4).

A possible reason for this was the power and unequal negotiating position that FIFA held compared with that of the many other event stakeholders, as illustrated in the following quotation:

“Clearly they [FIFA] were here to organise an event according to set standards and to protect the interests of their sponsors and to ensure that the event was a success. They came here with this very strong leverage: ‘Here’s the deal – do you want it?’”(R10).

The tension was also related to specific restrictions on stakeholder activities or uncertainty over what was allowed, particularly around branding and promotions, as the following two quotations explain:

“I had a huge fight with FIFA because I was the only [Director of Operations for a host city] that charged them for putting up branding on our poles” (R9).

“We wanted to use the FIFA logo in all our communications and promotions around the world and they just refused point blank in the beginning” (R4).

Despite these initial tensions, there is evidence that the relationships improved over time. The latter quotation above was followed by an explanation of how the stakeholder was able to convince FIFA that they were not working against them and that they were in fact benefitting them. It appears that the stakeholder needed to explain to FIFA that it was a co-branding relationship and there were mutual benefits from co-branding activities. The stakeholder also makes an important observation that the stakeholders needed to realise that it was FIFA's event and not an event that belonged to the nation or to the stakeholders collectively, as explained below:

“But then they began to understand that we were actually helping them. We were not just promoting South Africa, we were promoting their brand, promoting the World Cup. They understood that we had the capacity to actually deliver. That's when they started making trade-offs. We had to understand that it's not a South African event, it's a FIFA event. Therefore we've got to respect how they used their [trade]marks, how they protect their [trade]marks, how they protect their partners. Once we understood this we ended up having a really great relationship with FIFA” (R4).

Another stakeholder similarly noted that in the end they had a “good working relationship” with FIFA, commenting, “We settled into a comfortable relationship where there was a great deal of trust” (R10). From each of these quotations it appears that relationships were able to function once a certain level of understanding and trust was reached. One stakeholder even explains the good relationship that was achieved that resulted in a number of benefits and opportunities for the stakeholder as well, once again confirming a co-branding relationship between stakeholders:

“We had a lot of benefits from our relationship with FIFA. Through our relationship we convinced FIFA to open fan parks all around the world. So they funded six fan parks around the world, in Berlin, Brazil, in Australia and other places. They gave us an opportunity to activate at each of those fan parks, reaching over 3,5 million foreigners who didn't come to South Africa for the World Cup. So there was some really positive stuff happening with FIFA. They loved our campaigns. They supported our campaigns wherever they could. Wherever we went around the world we always had the Secretary-General or someone senior from FIFA with us. They understood it was in their best interest to work with us” (R4).

Although there were these positive examples of cooperation, two stakeholders highlighted lessons that they learned and gave suggestions as to how to relate to similar event stakeholders in future. Both of these stakeholders referred to the level of negotiation that was required preceding an event, stating that stakeholders need to be more assertive in their pre-event negotiations, as described in the following two quotations:

“With the benefit of hindsight, we could have negotiated better” (R10).

“Some people internally would say that we didn’t stand up to FIFA as much as we could have done. [But] because FIFA is so powerful, it would take a union of countries to stand against them. We could have done better if we’d been more assertive in how we dealt with MATCH [FIFA accommodation partner]” (R7).

However, a very positive experience of a relationship with FIFA and another example of a co-branding relationship, is noted by one of the event’s top-tier, long-term sponsors, who also noted a similar relationship with another mega-event brand owner, the International Olympic Committee (IOC):

“With FIFA there’s a strong relationship. They need the sponsors. Everything is paid for by the companies that sponsor. Everything is done in collaboration with FIFA. We need to get their approval. It’s the same with the Olympics. We present our full marketing plan to FIFA or the IOC” (R27).

The same respondent also mentioned partnership with other sponsors as well as the LOC:

“We partner with and have strong association with Adidas, because they are the clothing sponsor and there’s a good link there. And we link with Sony. Wherever there is opportunity for relationship we try build each other up. There’s a lot of interaction with them. With local organising committee, interaction with local tourism bodies, national government - all the way through. We have relationships with all of these stakeholders” (R27).

Overall, the World Cup was described as increasing productivity and adding focus to the work of the event and brand stakeholders. One stakeholder mentions the “added energy that the World Cup gave us” and that “the World Cup gave us much needed focus” (R8).

This section has revealed the observations, experiences and perceptions of the respondents regarding what transpired during the event period. The following section focuses on the post-event period, reflecting on the longevity of the branding benefits.

6.4 Nation branding legacy

Although stakeholders were asked specifically to identify legacies for the nation brand from the event, this section draws together responses made throughout the interview that describe aspects of legacy, or impacts that lasted beyond the event period. Given that the interviews took place between two and three years post the event, stakeholders were in a position to reflect on the post-event period, after the initial event period euphoria and success had subsided. Although some aspects of tangible legacies were mentioned, such as: improved infrastructure (e.g. new bus transport system in Cape Town; revamped Cape Town train station; new airport for Durban; upgraded airports at Cape Town and Johannesburg), the focus of this section is on the aspects of the legacy particularly related to the nation brand, and most of these were intangible legacies.

The 2010 mega-event was regarded as leaving a legacy for the nation brand, most notably in terms of a change in brand image for the host nation. This was identified as the

foremost legacy of the event for the nation. It's important to understand the impact of the event within its historical context for the nation. Respondent Eight compared the nation brand legacy of the event with the other significant transitional period events in the nation's recent history:

"[The 2010 World Cup] had a hugely positive impact on the South African brand. The only comparative boost to the South African brand is 1990-1994, the negotiated transition, the democratic elections and Mandela" (R8).

A number of respondents echoed similar responses to that of Respondent Two who claimed, "The biggest benefit (for the host country) has been the change of image and perception of South Africa internationally". As another respondent phrased it, "The world started to see South Africa in a different way" (R4). Similarly, this legacy is summed up by Respondent Five:

"I think the key nation branding legacy is the switch from a very negative view of South Africa to one that is quite positive" (R5).

This new positive perception of the nation brand included changes in perceptions was mostly related to a few specific brand attributes. In particular, redressing the negative media focus and international perceptions of safety, security and crime, was a notable factor mentioned by many of the stakeholders. For example, Respondent Five claimed that the country is now viewed as a place where "you won't necessarily get stabbed when you're walking down the road". Similarly, Respondent One commented:

"After the World Cup, no one talked about crime. Everyone said this was a wonderful event. It was safe. We walked in the streets" (R1).

Another key perception change was affected by the changed perceptions of citizens of the host nation. Respondent Five claimed that post the event, South Africans were perceived as more hospitable, asserting that this change resulted in his observation that, "The event changed perceptions on the hospitality of the nation" (R5). As another respondent noted, before the event, "People didn't know that we have very friendly people" (R4).

The third most notable change in perception of the host nation related to technology and advancement or development. Respondent Two described the legacy as South Africa being viewed post the event as, "a more, let's say, first-world, technologically advanced nation" (R2).

Despite these very positive views, there was a concern that some negative events following the 2010 mega-event may detract from these branding gains. It was mentioned that after the event there were a series of negative occurrences and news stories coming from the nation relating to things such as political tensions and labour strikes. These were viewed as detracting from the euphoria surrounding the event, although not significant enough to completely eradicate the nation branding gains from the event. Respondent Seven addressed the impact of these events and explained how in her view there was still a 'net gain' for the nation brand as a legacy two years post the event:

“We got knocks here and there - the strikes and the [South African President] Zuma antics, the Secrecy Bill, nationalisation of mines. But it depends on what markets you talk about. A lot of people won't hear about that. We probably went five steps forward and two back. We haven't maintained as high as we got to, but we certainly haven't gone back to where we were. We have a net gain.”

Although the stakeholders felt that most of the tourism benefits from the World Cup were limited to the host nation, there was some support for a brand image legacy that spread across the continent:

“There were a lot of comments that it was the best World Cup ever - that Africa's time has come. It really did a lot to dispel some concerns or negative perceptions” (R18).

Agreeing with this, Respondent Two claimed the World Cup portrayed a “more positive image” of Africa as a whole. This related to being seen as having a “more First-World, technologically advanced image, as opposed to some of the negative stereotypes” that are historically associated with Africa.

The changes in perceptions of the host nation and African brand image were closely linked with the changes in the media portrayal of the nation during the event. An important legacy for the nation brand was therefore noted as the media reporting that was expected to be more authentic as a result of the journalists' experiences in the country during the event. One respondent described this legacy for the nation brand as, “having had 18,000 journalists in the country who have now seen it for the first time through their own eyes” (R6). The respondent continued by highlighting the significance of this for the nation brand, namely that these journalists create perceptions:

“This definitely had an impact on the kind of reporting that happens about South Africa. Before, a lot of the reporting...was done by people who had never been here. They [used to just] read our newspapers and translate it into their own flowery enhanced language about how it is here. You must see the comments that Cape Town Tourism has [collected from journalists post the event]. A long list of people saying, ‘That was just amazing’. They were all completely blown away by it. They're travel writers, they're sports writers. And they create perceptions.”

The following sections reveal the legacies mentioned that relate to specific components of the nation brand, namely the tourism, business and investment, and the internal brand components.

6.4.1 Legacy for the tourism destination brand component

Many stakeholders described why they believed that the tourism component of the nation brand benefited significantly in terms of legacy from the event. Although there was a drop in tourism arrival numbers straight after the event that was described as a “slump” or “hangover” that “happens all over the world after a big event”, the “lag has now gone and now it's starting to

pick up” (R5). An example of this was given as “Cape Town airport had its busiest year in history this last year [2011-2012], and in the middle of an economic crisis” (R5).

The event appeared to enhance the global brand awareness of the country as a tourism destination. From a destination perspective, the event gave the nation “positive brand awareness” (R4). Linked to this, Respondent Four gave an example of a specific destination brand change, such as being recognised as a value for money destination: “People feel we are a value for money destination” (R4).

This positive brand awareness also extended to new tourism markets for the nation, creating further opportunities post the event, as explained in the following two quotations:

“It gave us an opportunity to speak to people we had not spoken to before. So it gave us a new market that we could talk to” (R4).

“What it’s done, especially in new markets, it’s raised an awareness of South Africa as a place to visit. In South America, for example, there is a significantly increased awareness of South Africa as an option from a tourism perspective” (R5).

However, another respondent claimed that despite the exposure to new markets, there has not been a change in the key tourism source markets:

“We haven’t seen a major shift in visitors coming from those countries. We still have our five top markets that are remaining and we’re not seeing anything change there” (R17).

The mega-event provided an impetus for the establishment of a number of critical agencies within the tourism and events sector that can assist in the promotion and management of events in future, as explained below:

“I’m convinced that the world Cup has got people to think about the establishment of critical agencies like convention bureaus [and] event bureaus. It was given a lot of lip service in the past but I think the World Cup helped accelerate those ideas around these critical event organising agencies that need to be in place...” (R19).

Apart from the overall destination brand for the country, stakeholders also described benefits for the different host cities. There were differences in how the destination brand of certain cities benefited from the World Cup, with some cities described as benefitting far more than others. Cape Town, for example, is the second largest city in South Africa and hosted a semi-final match during the event. It was in a different destination brand position compared to the other cities. “Cape Town was already an iconic destination” (R7) brand prior to the event and “by far the most popular international destination in the country” (R1). Even so, the stakeholders agreed that the image and position of the city was further enhanced and developed as a result of the event. The following two quotations qualify this:

“Cape Town has strengthened its profile as the international destination in South Africa” (R1).

“It’s certainly done a tremendous amount for Cape Town. It is far better known than it was before the World Cup” (R5).

Besides being better known, Respondent Five explained from his personal travel experience how more than global awareness and knowledge of the destination, affiliation for and desire to visit Cape Town has improved significantly in the two years post the World Cup:

“Yes, Cape Town had a strong presence [prior to the World Cup], but the one thing that one has to keep in mind is that having heard that Cape Town is there and having heard that it’s a nice place to visit is very different to having a whole bunch of people tell you, ‘You’ve got to go to Cape Town!’ That’s very different. And that’s definitely improved, that’s definitely changed. The number of people that I speak to internationally now that say, ‘Ah Cape Town, I’ve heard so much about Cape Town. I’d really love to go to Cape Town.’ That definitely wasn’t the case before, and I’ve been travelling for many years. I’ve gone from the stage where it was, ‘What country in South Africa?’ - never mind Cape Town, it was like ‘Africa’ - to now, where there’s this perception of Cape Town as being ‘one of those places I would love to see. I would love to come to Cape Town someday’. It has improved remarkably in the last two years” (R5).

The city of Durban’s destination brand legacy also benefitted from a lasting legacy, although this was described quite differently from that of Cape Town. Durban is the third largest urban centre in the host nation and like Cape Town, hosted a semi-final match during the event. However, Although Durban also has benefited from a very positive destination legacy, it was seen as coming off a lower destination brand image base, having a weaker or even more negative brand image prior to the event.

“Durban has a bit of a tarnished image and needs to upgrade its image and the World Cup was used fairly well to insist on upgrading its image. I think Durban underestimated what the World Cup could do for them” (R7).

Durban was largely unknown as a destination brand globally prior to the World Cup, so the event left a legacy of brand awareness. The legacy for Durban is described as “stimulating radical awareness of Durban and KwaZulu-Natal, particularly international awareness” (R19). The event is described as putting Durban “more firmly on the international map” (R19) and promoting the city’s ability to host mega-events, which the following quotation fully explains:

“There were two incredible newspaper articles that were written about Durban over the Soccer World Cup. I think the one was the leading newspaper in New York and a leading newspaper in Washington. I remember the headlines very clearly which was, ‘Durban - Where, oh where have you been?’ This journalist was just giving an account of the incredible experience that he had had in Durban over the Soccer World Cup and that he really hadn’t been aware of Durban and how he felt that Durban had coped so well with the Soccer World Cup and the incredible experiences that Durban and KwaZulu-Natal could offer and the fact that people needed to be made more aware of the incredible offering of our tourism destination. So that, to me, was an incredible aspect of the Soccer World Cup. It definitely elevated the image of Durban. It definitely increased the level of awareness of Durban and it’s ability to cope with mega events” (R19).

Besides the global awareness gained, it was also explained that the World Cup changed the destination brand perceptions of the city and provincial region surrounding Durban, among its domestic tourism market, which is an important market for the city:

“What the Soccer World Cup did for Durban as well was to revitalise and renew its image. Durban was a very tired city. People were beginning to become very negative about Durban. International tour operators, the residents of Durban, domestic tourists and other South Africans were constantly reporting in very negative terms about Durban. Durban was seen to be a very tacky, dirty, tired, unsafe destination. [But now] you find that South African domestic tourists that are now visiting Durban and KwaZulu-Natal have a much more positive perception of Durban” (R19).

Interestingly, although the greater Johannesburg or Gauteng Province area played a key role in hosting the event and is the nation’s largest metropolis, there is not much reference from the interviews that indicate any legacy for the tourism destination brand for that region. In fairness though, the region is the commercial hub of the nation and is not regarded as a major tourism destination in the country, compared to Cape Town and Durban. However, one respondent mentions that “Soweto [part of the greater Johannesburg city area and where Soccer City stadium is located] has done very well out of this”, even though the benefit is described as relating to the domestic tourism market with “a lot of South Africans [having] gone into Soweto that never went there before” (R17).

Apart from these three major urban host cities, for the smaller host cities, it was not as clear as to whether there was a significant destination brand legacy. In the case of one of these, the respondent noted, “For the smaller cities it meant a lot because it gave us an opportunity to position ourselves somewhere among the bigger cities” (R26). However, another respondent eludes to missed opportunities for the smaller cities:

“Polokwane, Nelspruit, Bloemfontein and Rustenburg didn’t do anything much to benefit from the World Cup [as a destination]. Well, Rustenburg got a bit of an improved image as the English fans that stayed there had an amazing time. They thought it was great. Not really Rustenburg, but Northwest Province. But they’re not going to go back there. They’ll go back to Sun City [nearby tourism resort], but not to Rustenburg. Port Elizabeth should have used the opportunity to upgrade its image on the back of the World Cup” (R7).

One stakeholder suggested that an unexpected legacy of the mega-event was the realisation that there needs to be a more inclusive and coordinated approach to the city brands that reside under the umbrella of the nation brand. The following quotation also highlights the differences between city and nation brands:

“What has come out of the World Cup is to say, ‘Can we have a more coherent approach to marketing the country?’ Because what you find is that each city has its own crest, its own brand position, its own approach to marketing - as if it’s not part of the country. So we said that there must be a country brand and the cities must be consistent [and] be represented in the architecture of the country brand. And so there must be greater coordination and I think we will see the results” (R1).

6.4.2 Legacy for the business & investment component of the nation brand

Beyond tourism destination benefits, the brand image changes also left a legacy for the business and investment component of the nation brand. Firstly, a number of legacies related to the internal confidence and skills enhancement among the local workforce. The business sector was perceived to have benefitted from an increase in national self-confidence. Respondent Five explained his personal experience of how, as a South African businessperson, the pride in the nation's achievement of hosting a successful event translated into greater business confidence:

“You can now go into a business dealing with your head held high because you're South Africa and you've now proved to the world that you can do something massive as well.”

Another internal legacy related to the enhancement of skills learnt through directly being involved in the mega-event. This was described as benefitting everyone involved in the event, even on a temporary or voluntary basis, as indicated below:

“Everyone who was employed, even on a temporary basis, would have learnt a great deal, would have had their horizons widened” (R10).

One of these skills mentioned in particular was project management. Individuals would have gained these increased skills, although this can also be viewed as a collective gain in knowledge and skills for the nation, especially as it was not a strength of the nation prior to this time:

“To deliver, manage and build and get projects done on time – which is something that we aren't very good at. It's a key legacy” (R7), or as another stakeholder phrased it, “The institutional knowledge of how to deliver a major event” (R9).

Specifically linking this to the hosting of mega-events, Respondent Four noted that South Africa “demonstrated to the world that we have the capacity and the infrastructure” to host events and that “we can host events safely”.

Linked with the skills and confidence gained by many employees, respondents also described the successful hosting of the event as displaying a sense of “capability” for the nation as a whole that related to areas far beyond merely the hosting of mega-events. The legacy of the nation brand in the business environment post the event was described as South Africa being seen by the international business community as a “capable, serious player” (R6). The World Cup was described as giving a “huge boost to the international perceptions of South Africa as a country which can deliver and play in the big league” (R8). The link between hosting a successful event and improving the business and investment component of the nation brand is expressed by Respondent Three:

“If you’re capable of running an event successfully, then you’re capable of hosting tourists successfully, then you are capable of keeping your residents safe, then you are capable of growing an economy through more investments.... So for me the World Cup was indicative of what we can do in this country”.

Although it is very difficult to specifically link the World Cup with many of the important economic developments for the nation post the 2010 event, two stakeholders gave examples of the nation’s invitation to international trade and investment forums post the event resulting from its new-found global status from hosting the event. South Africa’s inclusion in the BRICS trade association just one year post the mega-event is highlighted as one of the most significant of these opportunities. The two quotations below describe these tangible, significant nation brand legacies attributed to the 2010 mega-event:

“Of course the continued participation in many forums throughout the world... There were economic forums, the BRICS forums that have been formed and many other engagements” (R1).

“I fairly firmly believe that the successful hosting of the World Cup had something to do with South Africa becoming one of the BRICS. If we had cocked it up there’s no way they would have invited us to play with them. But they saw what we were capable of doing. They saw that we’re a serious player. We may not be as big as South Korea or Turkey that would like to be one of the BRICS, but we’re a major player and we’re able to consolidate the SADC [Southern African Development Community] region” (R5).

6.4.3 Internal brand legacy

The earlier section on the internal brand impact during the event period highlighted the significant impact of the event on the local residents. Some of the lasting legacy of this aspect was perceived to be increased self-belief or confidence and enhanced skills as well as behaviour changes related to recycling and appreciation for the environment. The primary legacy for the internal brand component was described as the sense of pride and self-belief of the citizens. In the opinion of Respondent Seventeen, the citizens of the host nation realised the benefits and possibilities for the nation through a collective effort and focus such as the mega-event provided, noting, “If we work together as a country, we can do so well” (R17). Interestingly, stakeholders did not refer to this as national pride. They referred rather to the national identity aspects of ‘morale’, ‘self-belief’ and ‘confidence’ as a legacy, as described in the four quotations below, which also clearly link this event legacy with the nation brand:

“It’s given the country brand a good boost and indeed it gave the morale of South Africans back home a huge morale boost and consolidation of identity” (R8).

“South Africans are now, I think, engaging the world from a very secure base and are confident” (R1).

“It gave us the self-confidence and the belief in ourselves that we could pull something like this off successfully” (R10).

“The belief that the City [residents] got in themselves – ‘We can do this’. It lives in the Cape Townians’ [city residents] minds that we can do this” (R9).

The last quotation above indicates that this confidence is expected to be a longer-term legacy for the brand as the memory of the event remains in the minds of the citizens. However, it was also noted that the extreme levels of pride and euphoria surrounding the event did not remain for long after the event, bringing into question the longevity of this internal legacy, as noted in the following quotation:

“Everyone was smiling and hooting and had flags on their cars, but after the event, it went down” (R18).

A different legacy aspect, still related to the internal brand, is the changing of behaviour of citizens relating to recycling and environmental sustainability. Although there is no mention that this behaviour change was specifically assessed post the event, Respondent Three mentioned this as an internal legacy emanating from the emphasis on environmental issues during the event period:

“And then, of course, behavioural change. There was a lot of work around ‘Green Goal’ and its projects and objectives. Everyone was encouraged to recycle and use public transport. That was about behaviour change and that is very important for legacy” (R3).

This section has revealed the key legacies perceived by the stakeholders. The following section indicates the leveraging activities of stakeholders in the post-event period and reflects on missed opportunities.

6.5 Leveraging the nation branding gains

During the course of the interviews, stakeholders gave examples of a number of leveraging activities that they or other organisations implemented either in the lead up to, during or post the event with the intention of capitalising on the expected or perceived event impacts. While the pre-event and event-period activities have already been detailed where appropriate, this section reviews the stakeholder perceptions of the post-event measures undertaken in order to extend the legacy or positive benefits emanating from the mega-event.

Although there were details given of some positive leveraging activities that occurred in the post-event period, overall the stakeholders were extremely critical of the lack of planning and activity that characterised this period. According to Respondent Three, there was “much too little attention paid to post tournament leverage”. The stakeholder offered two possible reasons for this, either that there was “a lack of budgeting” or “because people were just exhausted at the end of the event”. A tourism industry stakeholder explained his own disappointment and the frustration of the tourism industry at the lack of leveraging activity post the event. He offered a third possible explanation for the lack of leveraging activity being that the perceived success of the event caught the stakeholders by surprise, as explained below:

“I am not aware of that and I know the industry has complained bitterly that there has been nothing that we can speak of to say that there was a campaign after the World Cup to go out there. Maybe because we were surprised that we did so well and we weren’t prepared to do so well. I was very disappointed” (R17).

In fact, some stakeholders were so critical of this post-event period that they described it as a period of “brand silence” and “a bit of a lull” when there was the opportunity to capitalise on the success of the event, as the two quotations below reveal:

“As a nation brand, I think we had an outburst of brand silence after the World Cup” (R21).

“There were a lot of things that hype and momentum built up, which really could have taken the brand to the next level, but then there was a bit of a lull” (R18).

The brand silence is most likely a result of the fact that within the tourism industry there did not appear to be a clear strategy or policy for leveraging in the post-event period, and if there was, this was certainly not communicated to the stakeholders, as confirmed in the two quotations below:

“I think there wasn’t a strategy to leverage all those things optimally afterwards. My key comment would be that I think the event as such was great, but I think that the event really created a lot of global awareness, interest, positivity, but I think it wasn’t optimally leveraged in the three, four, five months after the event, the way it could have been” (R18).

“I think in terms of policy, there didn’t seem to be a structured policy that said this is how we are going to leverage off it. There was no master plan to say that we’ve hosted the World Cup, let’s leverage off it in these ways to make it clear” (R19).

Some of the stakeholders were particularly critical of the lack of post-event leveraging, particularly within the tourism industry. They also offered potential solutions for leveraging from future events, relating to strategy, policy and actions that should be implemented. One stakeholder noted the need to “gather the lessons learned” (R3) from the event as a possible platform for further leveraging of the benefits gained. Another advocated, “We need to put some actions in place to make sure we reap those rewards and benefits” (R19). The stakeholders certainly supported the need for a post-event strategy or master plan to leverage the post-event period. One stakeholder uniquely named this a “warm-down strategy”:

“There should be some sort of a master plan that’s associated with events and the master plan should revolve around the build-up to the event, managing the actual event and the managing of the warm-down strategy” (R19).

Ironically, another of the stakeholders mentioned that he was involved in pre-event planning and consultation that had actually proposed a three-phased strategy such as this, but that the post-event strategy had failed to materialise post the event:

“We actually proposed a three phased approach in terms of having a pre-event strategy, an events strategy and a post-event strategy. We actually went as far as to propose a post-event committee to manage the post-event opportunities, which didn’t really happen” (R18).

This same stakeholder therefore proposed a useful strategy for the future relating to a dedicated team to implement the post-event leveraging:

“I think the lesson we have to learn is that when you have a mega-event of this magnitude, to have a dedicated post-event strategy and a post-event team to manage it, because people get so focused on making the event a success that they want to take a holiday after the event. But after the event is when there’s an opportunity to leverage and sustain” (R18).

The leveraging imperative and the lessons learned from past mega-event hosts in this regard was certainly not lost on the international stakeholders involved in the London 2012 Olympic Games. Two of the international experts interviewed reflected on the importance of post-event leveraging. The first of these reflected on his organisation’s long-term post-event campaign that was planned to run from the completion of the 2012 mega-event until the end of 2015. Referring to this post event campaign, the stakeholder described how his organisation had learned the importance of these activities from reviewing the experience of previous mega-event hosts and advocated that post-event leveraging places the organisation in the best position to deliver on its objectives:

“It was always part of the plan, always budgeted for, for the past 18 months. It keeps the momentum going. ... This was partly a result of looking back at other host countries and seeing people thinking, ‘Brilliant job done’, but then they fall off the cliff. Who’s to say we won’t, but if you don’t put something in place, you’re definitely going to fall off the cliff. So this puts us in the best possible position to deliver” (R12).

Similarly, the second international expert also reflected on the experiences of previous mega-event hosts as he highlighted the importance of the post-event period in terms of delivering a legacy:

“Most countries spend a lot of time concentrating on the delivery. They’re so focused on the delivery and not on what happens after the event. We won’t get it right, but we’ll get it more right than most. Sydney was an absolute hiatus after the event. Sydney Olympic Park is just starting to recover now, 12 years on. Athens is closed. It’s grass” (R15).

As reflected earlier, the focus on event delivery at the expense of post-event leveraging appears to be the problem in the case of South Africa too, with many of stakeholders critical of the lack of post-event planning. However, there were some clear examples given of effective post-event leveraging activities undertaken by some of the key stakeholders. A few examples were given of the tourism and business sectors continued leveraging of the 2010 World Cup gains or the continuation of projects or ideas originating from the event period. The following quotation describes the continuation of a successful business and investment promotion initiative that originated from the World Cup:

“Subsequently we have continued to do that. So ‘Connected Cape Town’ still continues to operate. We identify opportunities when we know that there will be

significant foreign business people here. If it hadn't been for the World Cup we definitely wouldn't have come up with this idea" (R5).

The host city of Durban has leveraged its association with the 2010 event by continuing to use a marketing tagline that was adopted specifically for the mega-event. Durban "changed its tagline for the World Cup to 'the warmest place to be', which they still use". This was seen as "a clever tagline to use, especially as they have a wonderful climate in winter and the World Cup was in winter" (R7).

As a result of what they perceived as new perceptions of the South African people post the event, the tourism marketing authority capitalised on this in their post-event destination marketing campaigns, emphasising the friendliness, fun and culture aspects of the brand over the traditional wildlife attributes:

"In all our campaigns...after the World Cup, it was about projecting this fun, positive, cultural image of South Africa, rather than the wildlife, Table Mountain, the beautiful sceneries that we have. People know that about us. But people didn't know that we have very friendly people" (R4).

The nation brand government authority has continued to use sport mega-events hosted elsewhere around the world as a platform for branding activities that leverage the benefits from the 2010 World Cup. For example, they created a project called 'iKhaya' (meaning 'home' in a South African indigenous language) that functioned as a home base for the national sport team/s as well as a base for business, arts and culture and the media to engage during the sport mega-events, drawing attention to the nation brand. This activity is fully described below:

"Since the World Cup rugby in New Zealand [2011], we have this project called 'iKhaya', which is a base for the sporting teams. We're setting this up in the UK for the [London Olympic] team here.... We are busy with the final stages now, negotiating... where they will engage, do press conferences, meet people. And around that you'll have arts and culture events, African arts and crafts being sold, performers, drummers, musicians, a fashion show, performing in the lobby of the Southbanks Centre. So you'll have all that activity trying to capture the attention of the huge global city with many different distractions. But in the end we hope to be able to leverage that in a way that we will benefit the country brand. I don't think we'll get into any too many specific investment events or tourism events, but the whole brand will be on show" (R8).

Further leveraging the nation branding opportunities surrounding sport mega-events, the same stakeholder revealed another project, a tourism road show that was planned for the UK in the months before and after the 2012 London Olympic Games:

"Tourism is doing a travelling road show. We're doing a big South Africa presence at the Edinburgh Festival in August. The tourism road show kombi will be parked in the square at Edinburgh for those four weeks and then it will also go and visit Cardiff, Dublin and Bristol. We plan to continue that leveraging at least three months after the Olympics" (R8).

However, these leveraging events at other sport mega-events are placed in context by being compared to the nation branding opportunity created by being the host nation of the 2010 FIFA World Cup:

“We also have to be realistic. You can’t start comparing the potential of having your very small Olympic team in London along with 50 other countries compared to the World Cup where you exclusively have the focus of the world on your country. It’s a small but important opportunity to be able to leverage the presence of the South African team here” (R8).

Although acknowledging these positive leveraging activities, stakeholders also mentioned a number of missed opportunities and noted potential opportunities to leverage the branding gains beyond 2010. This was described as “a missed opportunity to keep the momentum” going, with stakeholders criticised for “not leveraging the benefits actively enough” (R6). Quite a few stakeholders mentioned that legacy was either not planned for sufficiently, or else it was planned but not implemented. The main criticism of this was that the focus of the stakeholders was to deliver a successful event.

“We had a whole legacy planned that we never got to. We could have had a better legacy than we ended up with” (R5).

Stakeholders were adamant that the positive impacts of the event need to be sustained, leveraged and built upon, with one stakeholder noting, “We still need to build on the success of the World Cup” (R4). Some specific areas that need to be leveraged post the event, in some cases referred to as missed opportunities, were mentioned by stakeholders and are detailed as follows:

- On-going, positive brand exposure in the media is needed

Although the positive media coverage received during the event was significant for the brand, stakeholders mentioned the importance of on-going, positive media exposure. This was described as “just as important as the positive publicity received during the tournament,” and that “building on the momentum” that the World Cup provided was vital (R5). The need to improve the image on an on-going basis is explained further in the quotation below:

“For me the legacy element of [an improved brand image] is improving it on an ongoing basis. So it’s not just about the euphoria of having the event in the destination and people love it for a while and then forget about it because the next big thing has come along. Obviously there’s an element of that. We’ve seen with ‘Tripadvisor’: Cape Town was [ranked] number one [tourism destination] the year after the World Cup. Now it’s number 23. Whereas London is now up near the top. People’s perception and attention focused on a place wanes over time and it’s very important to keep that momentum going for the image of the place. And just incidentally, that is one of the reasons why we were very strongly in support of the bid for the ‘World Design Capital’ [awarded to Cape Town for 2014], because it rekindles that interest” (R5).

This respondent clearly sees events or a series of events, such as the ‘World Design Capital’, as a means to sustain momentum, interest and the positive branding gains. Interestingly, this is not a sport event, which suggests that different types of events could be used to portray the same branding messages, rather than necessarily a series of mega or major sport events. The same respondent continued to explain the importance of keeping global attention and interest in a destination, particularly amidst diverse competition for attention from other destinations and events. The example of Sydney was given to show how a very successful event host city can still struggle to leverage the event benefits if it does not continue to sustain the momentum built:

“The one thing Sydney has not done is that it has not kept the momentum going. They got huge kudos, huge amounts of interest, but they didn’t keep the momentum up. They didn’t keep their foot on the accelerator in terms of making sure that people continued to be interested in Sydney. The impact that it has had on tourism has been quite negative. Tourism arrivals have dropped steadily over the last ten years or so. Little by little over time because they just haven’t been keeping Sydney in people’s minds. And I think that’s a lesson that we have to learn here. People will forget about us because there are other places. There’s Brazil next. So we have to find other reasons to keep making people remember that we are here and it was a great place and we did a fantastic job and all that sort of stuff” (R5).

- Create a clear positioning for the nation brand

One stakeholder argued that despite the many positive nation branding legacies of the event, South Africa missed an opportunity to define and clearly position its brand and use the event to convey a single-minded message to the world. The problem is noted as a lack of planning, although these are noted as significant strategic branding issues. The stakeholder gives the example of Germany (2006 FIFA World Cup hosts) who is viewed as having successfully achieved this:

“I don’t believe we defined ourselves to the rest of the world as [for example] Germany did very successfully. Germany said ‘make a friend’ so what that they achieved with their World Cup was changing the perceptions of Germans being quite stern, quite unfriendly to a friendly nation. From a branding point of view there was not one single-minded message here in South Africa. We didn’t define what we wanted South Africa to be known as. The perception of South African people was good, but it was not planned” (R6).

- Communicate the legacy & educate citizens and stakeholders

Communication was noted as an imperative for leveraging the post event branding gains. A number of respondents mentioned this, noting the need to clearly communicate the gains for the nation from the mega-event and thus educate local citizens and all stakeholders involved so that they understand the benefits from hosting such events. Respondent Eighteen emphasised communication between the stakeholder groupings as a critical

challenge, noting, “A lot of things were happening that were good, but this was not always communicated across the spectrum” (R18). This failure to communicate resulted in confusion or misunderstanding related to the event gains, as expressed in the following quotation:

“We probably didn’t send the message clearly enough. People still believe we overspent. There’s not enough understanding of what we gained from this event” (R7).

Agreeing with this and adding an extra dimension to this need for community education around the benefits of events, Respondent Nineteen explained:

“I don’t think we did enough in terms of trying to instil an understanding amongst our community of the incredible impact that events can have on them as members of the community and I think that is something we need to do more in South Africa. There’s a need for education and why events are important.... There needs to be a lot more community education around how events can actually benefit the community at large” (R19).

Related to the education of stakeholders was the suggestion that expectations also need to be managed. It was noted by the same stakeholder that:

“In some stakeholder groupings, expectations were created that could not be met, particularly the smaller stakeholders who thought the event would bring more benefits, which didn’t materialize” (R19).

- Engage with the fans who visited, especially to reach new tourism markets

As mentioned earlier, the profile of the event visitor was quite different from the traditional South African tourist. Accordingly, this was described by many of the stakeholders as an opportunity for the country to expand its tourism market base and reach non-traditional markets. However, the perception was that this opportunity was not taken, as explained below:

“The World Cup offered us an opportunity to move more into the middle market. Not cheap, not budget, but slightly more middle compared to our regular high-end segment, and start stimulating that market to come here. [But] We didn’t use it for that. SA Tourism’s own plan for the event says that they’ll use the event for the global profiling but they’re not going to use it to expand into new markets, they’re going to stick with the regular market. That doesn’t change. Those are the ones they’ve decided to target. [So] We didn’t use the World Cup for as much leveraging in new markets as we could have” (R7).

Some stakeholders suggested ways in which this might have been done post the event, citing creative strategies for fan engagement and the use of social media and traditional campaigns to communicate the success of the event in order to entice fans to revisit or to become effective brand ambassadors for the nation, as the following quotation reveals:

“I haven’t seen a change or a campaign saying, ‘Listen to us world, this is what you said and this is what really happened. This is what we can do, now come and

see for yourself. Those who haven't seen, come now and experience.' Or a campaign to say, 'You came for the World Cup, now how do we get you back for a holiday?' I haven't seen those campaigns" (R17).

The following quotation highlights the opportunity to reach a new market segment based on the event traveler profiles:

"We know we had a huge contingent from South America, which we would never have got if it weren't for the World Cup. How do we now go into those markets? There should be something that keeps bringing up, 'You were there, now come and see for yourself!'" (R17).

Respondent Eighteen confirmed the above sentiment and clarifies the potential power of the event visitors to act as brand ambassadors for the nation post the event:

"If you think of all those brand ambassadors who left here, what did we do through social media to invite them back again? I'm talking about the players, opinion leaders, media, visitors, spectators, everybody that was there. What did we do to engage them as brand ambassadors? I don't think we did so much. They could spearhead or open up gates to new markets" (R18).

- Leverage the stadiums that were built for the event

One stakeholder mentioned that there was a perception that two of the major stadiums built for the mega-event in Johannesburg and Cape Town were considered 'white elephants'. The stakeholder advocated for these stadiums to be linked with multi-purpose, commercial activities in order for them to remain economically viable, citing the example of Durban stadium that features a bungee jump, retail and restaurant attractions and has hosted a variety of other sport and charity-linked events. Beyond the economic viability though, the stakeholder believed that the stadiums should be managed as key domestic and international tourist attractions in their own right, forming part of the destination branding mix of these cities, as expressed in the quotation below

"I think the stadium and the stadium management need to think outside the box with regards to leveraging. You know if a person goes to Barcelona and they don't go to Barcelona stadium, it's like they haven't been to Barcelona. ... They have got to make sure that it's part of the destination branding in the sense that it must be on the tourism route, there must be a path" (R23).

- Grow the events & conventions industry by pursuing future events

Two stakeholders specifically mentioned the post-event period as an opportunity to grow the events industry in South Africa through actively, or even aggressively, pursuing future events as a result of the event infrastructure that remained in place. Respondent Four even advocates for the lobbying of government as part of this process, and above all, emphasises the importance of activity rather than expecting something to happen as a matter of course:

“We need to build on the success of this World Cup. What happened in Barcelona, for example, after the ‘92 Olympics? The Olympics creates a platform for you to start growing your events industry. Barcelona is where they are today because they aggressively went after events. South Africa is missing a great opportunity if we don’t follow that kind of thinking. It’s fine to host a World Cup, it was a successful World Cup, we’ve got great infrastructure, but if we sit back and think that things are just going to happen, well its not. People are not going to come to the country just because they hosted a successful World Cup. We have to go out there and pro-actively start bringing events into South Africa. I think that’s a problem in this country, that people aren’t seeing it this way. It is important, as an industry, we need to start lobbying Government to play a more active role in growing the events Industry” (R4).

Besides events, a respondent gave the practical example of creating a ‘Convention Bureau’ to leverage the post-event benefits, although commenting that this appeared to be happening two years post the event rather than in the immediate event aftermath:

“For a long time it has been suggested that South Africa should have a Convention Bureau. This would give us a really good focus and events strategy for the nation. This would include assessing the events that we go for and why we go for them and supporting them. We’ve been saying that in the conference industry since 1992. We said it again in the National Tourism Strategy in 2010. They finally put a National Convention Bureau in place now (2012) and it’s still a watered down version of what it could be. So when it finally gets going in its watered-down version, we’ve missed two years of what it could have been. We should have put this in place one and a half years before 2010. We didn’t really do things as well as we could have” (R7).

This section has reflected the respondents’ assessment of the post-event period, noting the leveraging activities undertaken and the missed opportunities perceived. This naturally leads on to the following section that reviews the stakeholder’s standpoint on the implications for the hosting of future sport mega-events or other event types by the host nation.

6.6 A critique of sport mega-events & implications for future event hosting

The stakeholder interviews elicited a mixture of criticism and support for the hosting of sport mega-events, pertaining to the legacy that they deliver. This section looks at these varied points of view as well as the specific recommendations of the stakeholders for future event hosting, particularly within South Africa.

The confidence gained from staging a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup led many some stakeholders to suggest future mega-event bids for the host nation. Some believed that the successful hosting had made the nation a more desirable host venue for future events:

“The World Cup proved that we can cut it in the big league. Certainly the event was a success... so it could only enhance our scorecard and our appeal for future events” (R10).

A stakeholder pointed out that the “blueprint” for a future mega-event is already in place, given the infrastructure created and the lessons learnt and skills gained from hosting the 2010 mega-event. Ominously, the stakeholder cautioned that this blueprint needs to be “kept alive”:

“We’ve got the track record, the infrastructure and the transport and security plan. The blueprint is there. It’s just about keeping it alive” (R9).

An Olympic Games bid was specifically mentioned by a few stakeholders, possibly as it has been considered by the national government, and in light of the perceived success of the 2010 FIFA World Cup and some of the legacies realised. The quotation below also mentions the aspect of cost versus benefit, in this case arguing that the benefits outweigh the cost of hosting:

“I would like to see South Africa host the Olympics. It’s a very expensive exercise and it’s a hell of a job, but it is worth it. It does raise the profile. It galvanizes productivity” (R5).

Some of the stakeholders who were positive about a potential Olympic Games bid cautioned about the timing of such a bid or the need to build capacity for a multi-sport mega-event bid through hosting a range of other sport events. The previous respondent continued:

“I would not like to be in Brazil with the Olympics and the World Cup straight after each other. It helps to have it a little bit spread out” (R5).

Another respondent was in support of staged process, using smaller events a “building blocks” for hosting this mega-event:

“Rather than saying lets go for the Olympics, there are other events we should be looking at as building blocks” (R4).

However, some stakeholders warned about the costs involved in such a bid and the implicit risk involved, especially for an emerging economy nation:

“The Olympics is very expensive for a developing country. [And] There are a lot of things that can go wrong” (R18).

Besides the Olympic Games, there were a few other major and mega-events mentioned as possibilities for the nation to bid for. These included: Youth Games; Commonwealth Games; and the World Athletics Championships.

Apart from hosting future sport mega-events, some stakeholders suggested alternative events that might not be of a sporting nature, or not as large in scale. A Cape Town city stakeholder mentioned his city’s bid for the World Design Capital 2014 (which was successful), also pointing out other scales of sporting events besides mega-events in the quotation below:

“You know, you don’t have to choose the mega-events. If you have a good portfolio of small to medium range events you can be as profitable and as successful as you could be with a big event” (R10).

There was similar support for a range of other event types such as “smaller, regular, local [home-grown] sporting events”. One reason given in support of these event types is the degree

of control that local organisers and stakeholder have compared to “bringing in international ones where you are relying on an international body” (R17). These events “can be managed well, [and be] sustainable” (R17). The quotation below adds to this recommendation, suggesting other benefits to smaller events, such as lower hosting costs and more niche benefits:

“We need to be careful we don’t get hung up on mega-events as being the sole solution.... Maybe there are a lot of smaller events that we can get on a regular basis that are not so cost intensive, that we can leverage, and where we can really target the special interest market” (R18).

Similarly, an international expert spoke in more general terms regarding the value of sport mega-events compared to other smaller events. He argued that a mega-event is worthwhile if it provides the expected return on investment, specifically through tourism and investment. If not, he perceives the mega-event having an internal legacy but argues that this could occur through other event types and may cost a lot more to achieve:

“It’s good if it brings the money back. Otherwise, it’s good internally for structuring and pride, but it’s as good as any other and maybe it’s a big cost” (R20).

A South African stakeholder offered a similar caution for the nation based on the return on the investment of hosting events, although more generalised for all event types. He explained the need for the stakeholders to consider the return on investment that events provide:

“What we have to understand is do we actually get more out of it than what we put in? I’m not convinced we do as a country” (R17).

Related to these critiques of mega-events and the return on investment from all event types hosted, were a few suggestions by stakeholders for the improvement of the event sector in the nation. For example, one stakeholder proposed that the country consider a national events strategy, where a number of stakeholders collectively decide upon the events that are beneficial for the nation and the objectives for each event that is hosted, as the following quotation further explains:

“We should start at the beginning [by asking] ‘Why do we want a mega-event?’ We should sit down as a country, not as FIFA and SAFA, and say, ‘These are our objectives. This event can fulfil these objectives and that event can fulfil those objectives. OK, we’re going to go for that one to fulfil that objective. OK, let’s make sure we have a plan to fulfil objective one, objective two, objective three and then lets measure after the event - did we achieve those objectives?’ We didn’t do this around FIFA [2010 World Cup]. There was generic noise about what the benefits would be. Nobody for the country said we are doing it because it will deliver X, Y or Z and then manage it. We need an events strategy. The new Conventions Bureau should consider a national events strategy and they should assess which events to go for and why. And then going for your objectives and delivering on them” (R7).

Interestingly, another stakeholder pointed out that there is in fact a national events strategy, similar to what is being called for above, currently in the making. This stakeholder identified

some of the key challenges in this as identifying the key stakeholders to be included in this process and bringing them together. The stakeholder explained:

“We are looking at putting a strategy on the table to guide the country to look at what events to bid for and bring to South Africa. Research is being done - Where are the opportunities globally? We’re looking at what’s happened over the past decade - What are our strengths? What do we need to do to bring events to South Africa? Lets put some practical things in place to make this thing work. I think we’re on a good path. The challenge for us now is to bring in all the role players, to define their roles, and for them to start putting common bids together” (R4).

Perhaps summing up the ambitious nature of the South African sport, tourism and events industry, a stakeholder reasoned, “We need a pipeline of events to show what we can do as a country” (R21).

6.7 Summary

The in-depth study of the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa in this chapter has revealed a number of nation branding aims, opportunities, legacies and missed opportunities as perceived by the brand stakeholders and experts. This chapter revealed the expectations, aims and even fears that stakeholders held for the event prior to 2010. Nation branding was clearly identified as a key aim for the nation, its cities and regions, as well as for the continent of Africa.

Although the aims were clearly stated, there were fears about the capability for successful event operations and confusion over anticipated visitor numbers, the capacity and preparedness of the nation, and confusion or miscommunication over the resulting benefits to be expected, especially for the tourism industry. Despite some of these fears and uncertain expectations, the event was hailed as successful, exceeding expectations of stakeholders and their industries, particularly as safety and security fears were diminished and in the light of global media acclaim for the event.

There were many impacts of the event for the nation brand, including greater awareness of the nation; increased knowledge and authenticity of perceptions of the country through media showcasing; enhanced international image, especially related to safety, urban development and people-related images such as friendliness and culture. There was also a suggestion that the impact of this image improvement spread beyond the borders of the nation to the African continent. There were beneficial impacts for the tourism industry in terms of: destination brand image; the numbers of tourists, especially from new markets; and tourism infrastructure improvements. Business and investment impacts mentioned were the enhanced pride in capability and skills developed. The people of the nation were mentioned as one of the major aspects to be impacted by and indeed impact the nation brand, as the local population were mobilised in support of the event in general and united in their pride of their nation. The media

impact was significant in terms of the tone of reporting that changes from negative to positive. Stakeholder relationships in general appeared to be tense at first, but then strengthened through the lead up to the event.

Although acknowledging the positive impacts highlighted above, stakeholders also revealed a number of missed opportunities and noted opportunities to leverage the branding impacts beyond 2010, strongly advocating the sustaining of the momentum that the event provided. The stakeholders were optimistic for the future of the sport, events and tourism sectors in the nation, although divergent in their support of smaller level or mega-events as nation branding opportunities.

The following chapters discuss these findings and set them in the context of the research questions and the literature reviewed.

Chapter Seven: Building nation brand equity through sport mega-events

7.1 Introduction

This chapter and the following two reflect on the literature reviewed in Chapters Two and Three as well as the findings set out in Chapters Five and Six in order to answer the research questions and propose a model that conceptualises the strategic role of sport mega-events in nation branding.

Figure 7.1 depicts the proposed framework. It indicates the specific characteristics of sport mega-events that facilitate nation branding. It reveals a set of strategic branding opportunities created by sport mega-events that have the potential to translate into brand equity for a host nation. The mediating role of a variety of leveraging activities is indicated as crucial in this process of realising brand equity. Ultimately, the nation brand is conceived as an umbrella brand, with the brand equity benefits from a sport mega-event benefitting a variety of constituents summarised as ‘people’, ‘place’ and ‘product’.

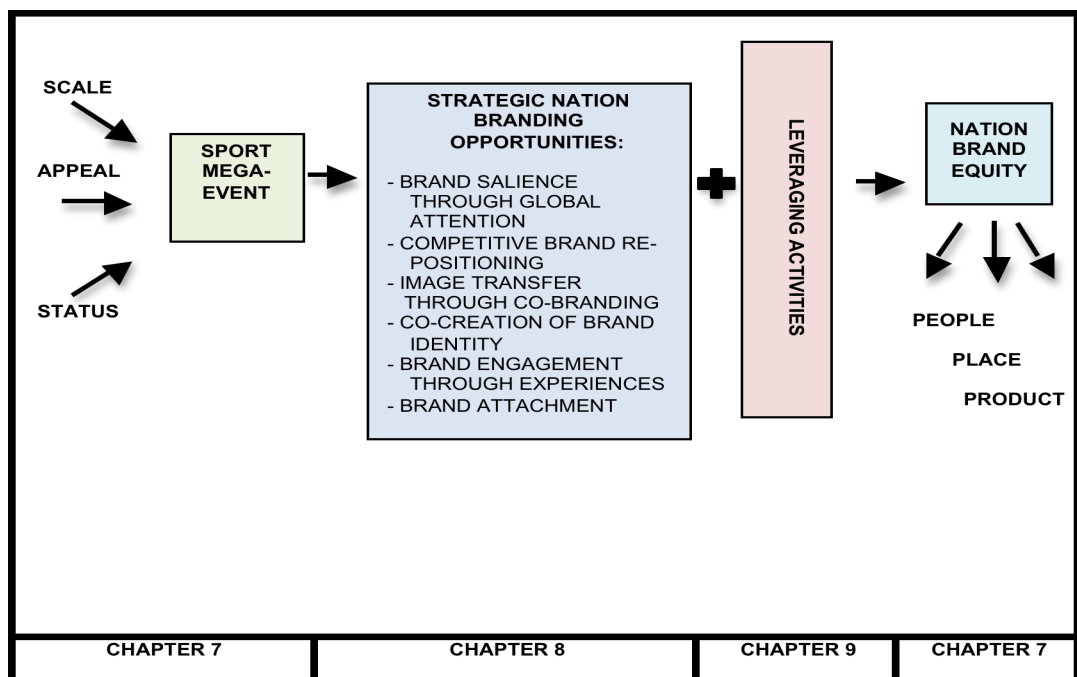


Figure 7.1: The role of sport mega-events in developing nation brand equity

This chapter discusses the key aspects at either end of the proposed model. Firstly, the chapter discusses the characteristics of a sport mega-event that set it apart from other event types in facilitating the development of nation brand equity, thus answering the research question (1a),

“What are the inherent characteristics of a sport mega-event that create strategic nation branding opportunities for a host nation?” Secondly, the chapter endorses the metaphor of a nation as an umbrella brand and identifies three broad components that can benefit from enhanced brand equity as a result of a sport mega-event. The chapter concludes by discussing the context for strategic nation branding before the following two chapters engage with the central aspects of the framework.

7.2 The inherent characteristics of a sport mega-event that create strategic nation branding opportunities

This section proposes answers to the research question 1a: “What are the inherent characteristics of a sport mega-event that create strategic nation branding opportunities for a host nation?”

First of all, it is important to note that there is no clear definition or delineation of what a mega-event is and what types of events constitute ‘mega-event’ status. Although Hall and Hodges (1997, p.3) described mega-events as “distinctive”, there is little consensus in the literature to suggest exactly what this distinctiveness refers to. The numbers of spectators, the media reach, and the economic impact for the host nation are all aspects mentioned as distinguishing factors, and yet may also apply to many other types of events.

From the literature and the responses of stakeholders, a FIFA World Cup is certainly confirmed as a mega-event. When asked to define mega-events, the stakeholder responses and the examples they gave confirmed the lack of clarity that is evident in the literature. The responses confirmed the debate about whether there is an exclusive list of mega-events or whether it can be argued for the delineation of an event as ‘mega’ depending on its characteristics or its impact for its host location or context. However, respondents were clear that only a handful of events provide the types of benefits that are associated with an event like the FIFA World Cup. Indeed, the only events agreed upon by all stakeholders were the FIFA World Cup and Olympic Games. Beyond these, a variety of other events were mentioned, although there was no general consensus.

While certain events such as the Olympic Games and FIFA World Cups are clearly regarded as mega-events around the globe, there is an argument that the delineation of other events as ‘mega’ based on the context of the host nation. For example, a cricket world cup in the Indian sub-continent might be considered a mega-event within that region, while the same event if hosted in a region not traditionally supportive of that sport, such as North America for example, may not be a mega-event. Furthermore, some stakeholders made mention of localised, annual events that are considered mega-events within that specific host community.

Overall though, there was general agreement among respondents that large-scale multi-sport events as well as single-sport world championship events for most professional sports are likely to be considered mega-events.

Adding to this debate is the fact that the respondents considered not only sport events to be mega-events. A number of other events were mentioned as fitting the definition of a mega-event. However, from the literature and stakeholder responses, there appear to be certain defining characteristics for all events that can be used to delineate them as “mega”, for both sport and non-sport events. There are also certain characteristics that are more pronounced for sport mega-events alone. The following three key characteristics of sport mega-events are proposed, with the discussion also indicating why these defining characteristics are of strategic interest to nation brand stakeholders.

7.2.1 The large scale of a sport mega-event makes it a transformational catalyst

The large scale of a mega-event sets it apart from other types of events. The fact that the adjective “mega” can be substituted with the synonyms “extra-large”, “super” or “mammoth” (Compact Oxford Dictionary and Thesaurus 2009, p.577) is already an indication that a mega-event is the largest type of event in terms of its scale. Westerbeek et al. (2002, p.304) described mega-events as “so large that they affect whole economies and reverberate in global media”.

The responses from the stakeholders revealed the following attributes related to the scale of a mega-event:

- A mega-event is “global” in scale, either attracting significant international spectatorship or participation, or usually both;
- A mega-event necessitates large numbers of stakeholders, public and private, working together to facilitate the event;
- A mega-event is associated with large-scale construction, both specifically for the event itself, in terms of facilities and stadia, as well as associated or related public and or private construction of transportation hubs, media facilities, accommodation and urban regeneration projects; and
- As a result, a mega-event involves high levels of financial commitment by local, provincial and national host governments.

These elements of scale indicate the transformational potential that a sport mega-event holds for a city or nation. The respondents described mega-events as having an extraordinary ability to fundamentally change certain physical attributes of a host nation. A mega-event was described as a “catalyst for regeneration” (R13) of host cities such as Manchester and Barcelona.

While these factors of scale might pose a high level of risk for a host community, the mega-event is perceived to pose the highest level of potential positive impact for its hosts. The stakeholders confirmed that the expectations in South Africa in the lead up to the 2010 event were somewhat cautious and perhaps unsure of whether the event would be successful. However, at the same time, there was a general high expectation of a positive economic impact from the event, especially as a result of an expected influx of international tourists and high levels of positive media exposure. The sense of risk, uncertainty and yet high expectations is not isolated to the South African context. In Brazil, public protest surrounding the 2014 FIFA World Cup showed the concern of citizens over inflated expectations and the perceived costs of hosting the event compared to the perceived benefits for citizens (De Onis 2014).

All opportunities arising through sport mega-events that could benefit the nation brand would therefore be at the highest scale, compared to other events selected. Although not often mentioned in the literature, the risk associated with mega-events could lead to potential problems or detractions from the brand, confirmed by the stakeholders who mentioned their pre-event 'anxiety'. In the lead up to the 2010 mega-event, it was not assumed that the impact for the brand would necessarily be positive. Respondent Five made reference to this 'risk', giving the example of the 2010 Delhi Commonwealth Games that they believed had negative consequences for the nation brand.

A sport mega-event therefore has higher elements of associated risk, although it also offers the highest potential benefits for a host nation. Beyond the scale of the mega-event, the second inherent characteristic that creates nation branding opportunities is its wide appeal and connection with a sizeable global audience.

7.2.2 The widest 'appeal' & 'connection' with a sizeable global audience

Through the medium of sport, a mega-event is able to generate a very high level of international attention, appeal and interest. As a result, it stimulates considerable media coverage distributed to the widest global audience during the event period as well as significant levels of media attention in the lead up to the event. This is a key distinguishing feature of a sport mega-event, as one respondent explained:

“the difference is the fact of broad viewership and interest. The [mega-] event is so big that people who are not normally a soccer fan will watch the soccer World Cup” (R7).

Besides the global media audience, a mega-event also attracts significant numbers of international visitors to the host nation during the event period, with the literature mentioning amounts varying from 300,000 to over a million visitors. However, one respondent contested this aspect, saying that for some events it may not be possible for large numbers of visitors to travel to the event, but the media appeal and reach of the event may be of such a high extent

that it could alone determine an event as 'mega'. In the case of South Africa, the mega-event was claimed to have brought a sizeable number of new or non-traditional tourists and a high proportion of first time visitors to the nation during the event. This confirmed the findings of the Phase One study that found that 75% of sport tourists were first time visitors and that these visitors represented a different demographic to the conventional tourist for the nation. The stakeholders regarded the event as creating new tourism market opportunities. Official figures stated approximately 310,000 mega-event tourists during this period, while one stakeholder noted that this did not include the large number of the rights owners' and sponsors' special guests who visited, which, if included, would take this figure to around the half a million mark.

Social media was also mentioned as a distinguishing feature, with a mega-event expected to generate the highest levels of social media content. The opening match of the 2010 FIFA World Cup was noted as "the largest social media event in history" (R1) at the time. While it doesn't seem possible to define the exact numbers of spectators, visitors and media reach required in order to determine 'mega' status, these are certainly expected to be at the highest levels compared to other types of events. Confirming this social media appeal of sport mega-events, the social media giants Twitter and Facebook acknowledged that the FIFA World Cup in Brazil was the "top global topic" and "most talked about global moment" of 2014 (Finn 2014).

Beyond merely reaching and gaining the attention of a sizeable global audience, a sport mega-event is an experiential phenomenon. It has a unique ability to connect with fans and create emotional attachment and engagement with the event and with other fans through the shared passion of sport. One respondent argued that this also extends to an attachment with the host nation:

"A key thing I would like to emphasise in terms of sport as an attraction is that there's an emotional attachment. They [fans/ spectators] are connected to that event and therefore, I would argue, to that place" (R11).

The ability of a sport mega-event to generate a wide global appeal and connection or even attachment is of great value to nation brand stakeholders, especially as they noted the challenge of gaining global attention in a cluttered competitive environment. The third inherent characteristic of a sport mega-event that indicates its nation branding potential, is the symbolic significance of the event for the host nation.

7.2.3 A mega-event confers "status" & holds symbolic value for a host nation

Getz (2003) explained that mega-events have a 'prestige factor'. Confirming this, a respondent referred to the sense of "momentous occasion" and the "wow factor" (R2) that a mega-event delivers, compared to other events. Attending a mega-event or hosting such an event in one's own country is perceived as a rare occasion or a "once in a lifetime" (R2) opportunity. The

increasingly competitive bidding process and high demand for mega-events currently means that very few nations would host the same mega-event more than once in an average person's lifespan.

Also linked with the competitive event-bidding environment is the symbolic value of the events for a host nation. A mega-event creates political symbolism for a nation, where the prestige of hosting and basking in the media attention may be used for political signaling and public diplomacy, as Nauright (2013) explained. For example, in the case of Brazil, host of the 2014 FIFA World Cup and 2016 Olympic Games, de Almeida et al. (2013, p.1) concluded, "Sport mega events support and reflect the intention of many Brazilian political officials intention to increase the status of Brazil in the international sphere". Similar political symbolism and prestige has been attributed to sport mega-events through many decades, most notably, the 1936 Olympic Games in Berlin and the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games.

Through the symbolic status of the mega-events, host nations are given opportunities to position or re-position their brand. The events themselves also create public diplomacy opportunities and assist in brand identity formation. These are discussed further in the following chapter.

These three inherent characteristics are depicted in Figure 7.2, which forms the first element of the proposed framework (see Figure 7.1). While the strategic nation branding opportunities that these characteristics create is the focus of the following chapter, the next section clarifies the context of strategic nation branding.

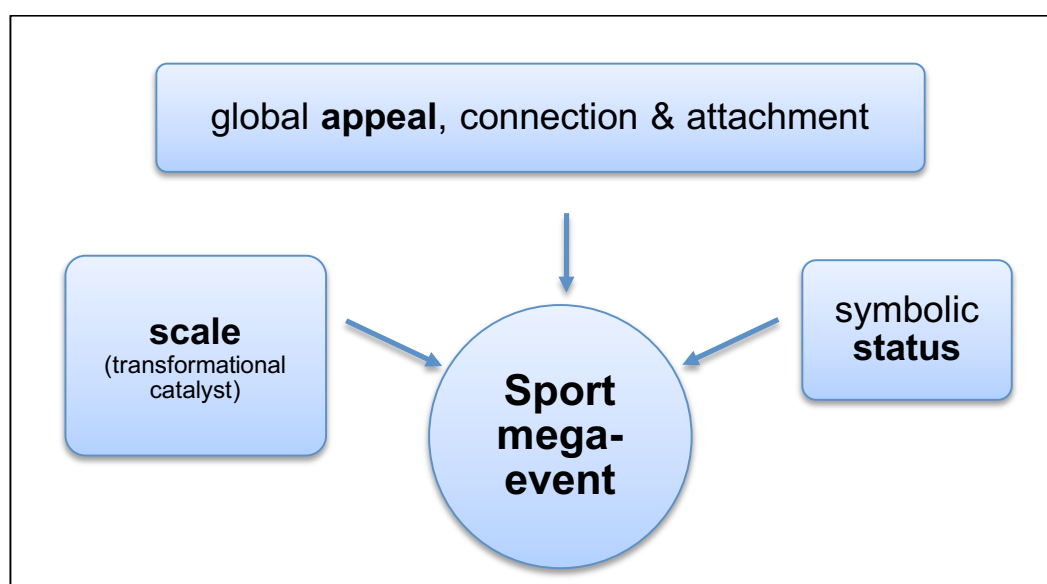


Figure 7.2: Inherent characteristics of sport mega-events that create strategic nation branding opportunities

7.3 Strategic nation branding

The literature indicated that the development of nation branding as a concept has been influenced by a number of different perspectives. Academics and practitioners from backgrounds as diverse as marketing, political science, tourism and geography have all made contributions to this emerging discourse. Most notably, the origins of nation branding derive from an understanding of country-of-origin (in the consumer marketing context); national identity; and public diplomacy. It is also an overlapping area of destination branding and a subset of place branding. This section clarifies the context and development of strategic nation branding, identifying the key aspects and components of a nation brand. The section further endorses the umbrella brand metaphor for nation brands.

7.3.1 The application of strategic branding principles to nations

The early literature pertaining to nation branding focused on the application of the brand metaphor for nations - whether a country can in fact be considered a 'brand'. Kotler and Gertner (2002), Olins (2002) and Anholt (2003) all sought to explain and validate the use of the term in the country context. The proposition of a nation brand was the cause of some discontent among academics. However, subsequent papers revealed that the term 'nation brand' became widely accepted within the industry, especially among government departments and tourism destination marketers. A contributing factor to the acceptance of a nation as a brand is understanding what constitutes a brand to begin with.

Definitions of a brand have broadened and developed to include a more holistic view of the complex and wider array of attributes that constitute a brand, compared with the earliest definitions that focused on tangible manifestations of identity. For example, Aaker (1996, p.68) defined a brand as "a multidimensional assortment of functional, emotional, relational and strategic elements that collectively generate a unique set of associations in the public mind". Definitions such as these and others indicated in Chapter Two, paved the way for the wider acceptance of branding concepts being applied to a host of other entities, including countries.

Olins (2002, p.241) stated that the concept of the nation as a brand seems to excite 'visceral animosity' in some people who argued that a nation cannot be considered a brand and instead find words like 'identity', 'national image' and 'national identity' more acceptable. To this effect, Anholt (2007a, p.75), who originally coined the term, has distanced himself from the term nation branding and instead prefers to use 'competitive identity'. However, among the stakeholders and experts interviewed, there were no objections to the use of the term nation brand or the proposal of a more preferable one.

The responses revealed a great deal of acceptance and general understanding of what nation branding entails. Although, despite the acceptance of the term and its widespread use among stakeholders, there was neither clear definition nor consensus among stakeholders as to what constitutes a nation brand. Respondents consistently implied that a nation brand is “unlike any other brand” (R24). However, based on the variety of responses, is it an “holistic umbrella concept” (R18) that “represents multiple sub-components” (R25), an “ideal” (R20) or “vision” (R25) for the nation, a “perception” (R6) or representation of the nation’s “unique identity” (R24), or even an “intangible asset” (R20)? Perhaps it is a combination of all of these elements, as the literature does not rule out any of these interpretations.

From the responses of stakeholders and experts it is also clear that there is a distinction between a destination and nation brand, supporting the literature to this effect. Nation branding is consistently referred to as a broader concept, incorporating tourism but also extending to other aspects. As one respondent explained, a nation brand “goes way beyond tourism”, incorporating “trade, diplomatic and investment relationships” (R6).

There remains much debate in the literature related to nation branding, but the discourse has progressed from the earlier consternation over the consideration of a nation as a brand to the question of whether a nation can be ‘branded’. If a nation can be considered a brand, then surely it can also be branded in a similar manner to other products and services? It is this question relating to the strategic branding activities of stakeholders that has caused considerably greater debate over the past decade. Even Anholt (2007b) argued that although nations, regions and cities may have a brand, they cannot be branded in the same way that products and services or companies can. Furthermore, even for those who agree that a nation can be branded and that this could result in beneficial results for a country, there is no consensus as to the best way to do so. As Simonin (2008) noted, the debate has moved from whether a nation should pursue branding, to how best they can do this. A more strategic approach to nation branding is being promoted and a number of further branding applications and metaphors have been suggested.

A central premise of this paper is that nation brands are not static. Rather, they can be influenced, aided or developed, either directly, through the actions of a variety of stakeholders as well as direct tourism experiences, or indirectly, through every act of communication and engagement between a nation and the rest of the world. This was highlighted in Fan’s (2010, p.101) definition:

“Nation branding is a process by which a nation’s images can be created, monitored, evaluated and proactively managed in order to improve or enhance the country’s reputation among a target international audience.”

This statement acknowledges that although there may be certain uncontrollable aspects of a nation brand, there is also a role for the strategic and deliberate actions of stakeholders to monitor, evaluate and actively manage this process. The findings of this study support the view of nation branding as an active, strategic process. One stakeholder clearly expressed that in his view, nation branding has become “a much more active process” (R5). The details of stakeholder actions and activities mentioned throughout the interviews clearly indicated the role of stakeholders in the process of managing the nation brand.

However, even among those who accept the benefits of deliberate, strategic branding activities for a nation, none assume that a country can be branded in the same way as a corporate product or service can. The literature revealed a number of peculiar complexities involved in this process. For example, the central question of brand ownership and leadership for a nation brand generally results in a lack of clarity, strategic direction and control of the brand. The large numbers of diverse stakeholders makes brand identity difficult to define. The cultural distinctions, history and social nuances within a nation cannot be distilled into a simple logo or slogan to attract tourists and investors.

The respondents clearly indicated a very positive view of nation branding and its ability to add value to their activities. Although this was not specifically asked of the respondents, there were none who questioned whether the term should be used or whether branding activities should be adopted or applied to nations. Their responses implied support for strategic nation branding.

Furthermore, based on these developments within nation branding theory and the responses of the stakeholders interviewed, the writer proposes that there are two key components of nation branding, namely: competitive positioning (linked to the external reputation and image of the brand); and internal brand identity (or brand ‘vision’). The following sections explain the development and significance of these two components.

7.3.2 From “reputation management” to “competitive positioning”

A key difference between nation branding and mainstream branding is the degree of product control by brand managers. Morgan and Pritchard (1998, p.147) explained that place brand stakeholders have very little direct control over their product attributes. They cited this as a reason for the general focus on the promotional element of the marketing mix by place brand marketers. This led them to label place branding activities as “consistent, focused communication strategies” (Morgan & Pritchard 1998, p.147).

‘Consistency’ in communication is a significant challenge for stakeholders who have very little control over all brand communications. The issue of brand ‘consistency’ is important,

and a core aspect of a brand's identity, with Kotler's (1997, p.443) definition of a brand making reference to "a seller's promise to consistently deliver a specific set of features, benefits and services to the buyers". This implies that a brand is built around longer-term, consistent benefits and values and not merely 'once-off' experiences. A respondent shared this sentiment of consistency, saying, "You have to live the brand. It's critical if you want to keep your brand message consistent and out there" (R7).

The challenge of consistency has led some authors to refer to nation and destination branding as 'reputation management' (e.g. Anholt 2007b and Morgan et al. 2011), once again indicating a tactical marketing perspective, with a strong emphasis on communication and public relations activities. Anholt (2007b) cited the competitive environment within which countries operate in the global environment as the reason why national reputation is becoming increasingly significant. Countries compete for the attention, respect and trust of a variety of markets, including investors, tourists, consumers, donors, immigrants, media and governments. Brands are seen as playing an important role in gaining this competitive advantage. Similarly, Van Ham (2001, p.2) stated, "Strong [nation] brands are important in attracting foreign direct investment, recruiting the best and the brightest, and wielding political influence".

This perspective also includes the public diplomacy sphere of nation branding, which involves the efforts of governments to manage their international reputation. Interestingly, there was not strong reference to the public diplomacy aspect of nation branding by the stakeholders interviewed. Although some mentioned that the term includes governments and how a "country relates to other countries" (R7), there was also no particular mention of the role of governments using nation branding as an instrument of foreign policy. However, this may be an indication of the profile of the stakeholders, which, although including government department representatives, were more associated with the tourism, business and investment sectors than public diplomacy per se.

The respondents indicated an understanding of nation branding as managing international perceptions or the image of the country in order to improve its global competitive advantage, or 'positioning', within a number of diverse market sectors. One respondent described nation branding as "...how [a country] wants to be positioned in the market place" (R18). The stakeholders also linked this focus on competitive advantage and positioning with the 'country-of-origin' conceptualisation. They described country names and flags amounting to brands that help consumers evaluate products and make purchasing decisions. The brands are responsible for associations that may add to or subtract from the perceived value of a product such that, for example, "German cars" are associated with "German efficiency" (R3)

and German companies are therefore able to leverage this brand equity through higher price premiums and ultimately profitability. There were a number of other such examples given by stakeholders in their descriptions of nation branding.

The country-of-origin theory proposes that building nation brand equity leads to greater profitability for all brands related to the nation brand as they operate in the global marketplace. In most cases, the individual products or brands benefit from their association with the nation brand. However, one of the respondents provided an example where the consistently competitive positioning of products from a nation aided the development of a more competitive brand image for the nation as a whole. The example was given of Japan and how the nation re-branded its image using their export products, resulting in a change in perception over time, from what was considered “cheap junk” to what is now perceived as “pretty good quality” (R5). It therefore seems the argument can be made for both the nation brand influencing product brand image as well as the product brands influencing the nation brand image. Either way, these examples lend support for nation branding as a means of driving competitive positioning.

Anholt (2007b) made a case for re-defining nation, city and region brand management as ‘competitive identity’. Although he still refers to the importance of reputation management, he adopted a more competitive focus to the role of nation branding. He explained that the inclusion of ‘identity’ is a shift in focus from how the brand is perceived internationally (brand image) to how the nation desires to be perceived (brand identity). While the focus on brand identity is crucial to nation branding (and is discussed in more detail in the following section), the writer proposes that using the term ‘competitive positioning’ is closer to the stakeholder interpretation of nation branding and implies a more strategic, market-focused understanding of the term that is relevant for the competitive sectors of business, investment and tourism.

7.3.3 “Nation making”, internal brand identity & brand “vision”

Fundamental to brand management is defining the brand identity - the “core concept of the product, clearly and distinctively expressed” (Anholt 2007b, p.5). For conventional marketing, brand identity refers to the image desired by marketers (as opposed to brand image which is the image perceived by consumers). However, the writer argues that within nation branding, brand identity is far broader than this. Place identities are more complex constructions than product brands. They are typically an amalgamation of historical, political, religious and cultural discourses, and local knowledge, and influenced by power struggles (Morgan & Pritchard 1998). National, cultural, natural, social and religious assets become important identifiers of this identity. Govers and Go (2009, p.17) referred to the “true identity of a place” as the full set of unique characteristics or set of meanings that exist in a place and its culture at a given point in time, also noting that this identity is subject to change and might include various fragmented

identities. They imply that an important foundation of nation branding is to define these unique characteristics that form the brand identity.

Defining the nation brand identity thus involves a more introspective search for these unique characteristics. It also implies a broader and more inclusive approach to branding – one that recognises the culture, history and social assets of a nation and people. However, rather than purely a historic reflection of the brand identity, there is also an argument made for the brand identity to reflect the future or desired identity for the nation. The responses of the stakeholders were particularly illuminating in this regard. Clearly referring to brand identity formation, respondents used the following phrases to describe nation branding:

- “defining who you are as a nation” (R5);
- the “ideal behind the nation” (R20);
- “the vision”, “what the country stands for”, “[its] principles” (R24);
- “what it means to the people who actually live in the place; who they are; and who they think they are” (R11); and
- “a touchstone for various individuals and groups in terms of who they are in the global community in which they live” (R7).

One respondent in particular captured the essence of brand identity in his description of nation branding, also highlighting how it is more than merely image or reputation management:

“It’s not just about who you’ve been, but it’s about who you would like to be. It’s not just about repositioning your image, but repositioning your identity as to who you want to be as you look forward to your future” (R11).

The same respondent argued more broadly that in order to achieve this, “we need to go beyond ‘place branding’... to ‘place making” (R11). This latter emphasis on ‘nation making’ emphasises the link between nation branding and national identity theory. National identity can be defined as:

“an awareness of the affiliation with a nation that gives people a sense of who they are in relation to others, or infuses a sense of purpose that makes them feel at home” (Grossberg et al. 2006, p.56).

The “sense of who they are” and “purpose” elements of this definition clearly link with the nation brand identity descriptions by the respondents. Of particular interest to nation brand stakeholders, Kersting (2007) noted that national identity is not permanent or predetermined, but rather shaped by various processes and continuously undergoes changes, redefinition and reconstruction, implying that there may be a means of influencing or assisting the national identity development process.

A bi-product of national identity can be 'national pride' - the positive feeling a citizen develops towards his or her country. Once again, this aspect clearly links with nation branding, with one respondent noting, "nation branding has a national pride element to it" (R7). The same respondent implied that part of the role of nation branding is to instill national pride in the citizens of the country, explaining, "So if you can build the understanding internally and instill pride in the brand, it will be conveyed externally also." The writer argues that in the context of nation branding, national pride could also be considered national 'confidence'. For example, a respondent explained nation branding in South Africa linked with the nation having "a lack of self-confidence" (R5). From these statements it seems that nation brand stakeholders need to build the understanding of the nation brand identity and what the desired image is and then encourage pride in this vision of the nation. The stakeholders believe that this internal identity will then be communicated externally and implies it will impact the image and competitive positioning of the brand.

The discussion on brand identity in this section clearly adds new perspectives to the more widely held view of nation branding as primarily involving external brand communication or reputation management. Acknowledging the role of developing the brand identity places greater emphasis on the inclusion of stakeholders and local citizens in the brand identity formation process, along the lines of the "bottom-up" approach to nation brand development. Although the brand identity is a complex amalgamation of many historic factors, the identity can be influenced as it is subject to change over time. The brand identity should therefore not only be grounded in the historic or prevalent identity, but also include the desired image or a more visionary perspective of the brand identity. The role of nation brand stakeholders also includes communicating these desired aspects and instilling a sense of pride among all stakeholders, including its people (citizens). Given the challenges of ownership and leadership in the context of nation branding, brand identity should not be seen as the image desired by the marketers, brand custodians or those specifically tasked with the responsibility, but rather a reflection of the desired image by all nation brand stakeholders, including the citizens of the nation.

Having discussed these two core components of nation brand equity, the writer endorses a useful metaphor for understanding the role of nation branding in benefiting its various constituencies and target markets, proposing that a nation brand can be considered an umbrella brand for three core constituencies, namely people, place and product.

7.3.4 The nation brand as an "umbrella" brand for people, place & product

Dinnie (2009, p.15) provided a definition that resembles much of the discussion so far, defining a nation brand as:

“the unique, multi-dimensional blend of elements that provide the nation with culturally grounded differentiation and relevance for all its target audiences”.

This definition implies a bottom-up approach to nation branding, noting the need for inclusion of culturally-grounded or, as the writer prefers, “authentic” elements that provide differentiation for the brand. However, the addition of the “relevance” aspect is especially interesting. It implies that the elements identified as the differentiators should be in line with the strategic vision of the nation brand and also be of value and interest to the diverse target audiences. This gives credence to the ‘umbrella brand’ concept for nation branding.

Govers (2011, p.227) expanded the corporate use of the term, noting that the ‘umbrella brand’ concept may be a useful metaphor for place brands, although cautioning that its application may be more complicated than for the corporate umbrella brands. Govers also contended that a place brand is more than merely the sum of its associated sub-brands. While nation branding does include aspects of tourism and destination branding, it is a broader concept that aims at attracting tourism, investment, talent and trade for a nation (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Govers & Go 2009), which appears to refer to a number of different consumer types (e.g. tourists, investors, importers, international consumers, and skilled individuals or students). The nation brand is said to act as a single, ‘umbrella brand’ to attract tourism, immigration and investment (Kapferer 2012, p.89). Simonin (2008, p.29) argues that in order “to be meaningful, nation branding cannot be fully decoupled from the branding activities of its sub-parts”.

There was strong evidence among the responses of the stakeholders to support the umbrella brand concept. Respondents were generally of the view that “a nation brand is a collective of multiple sub-components” (R25). One respondent referred to a nation brand as an “holistic umbrella concept” that has “some sub-components such as an industrial leg, a tourism leg and a cultural leg” (R18). Destinations, for example, form part of this ‘tourism leg’. The same stakeholder described destination branding as “inter-woven and inter-linked with the umbrella branding – the nation branding” (R18). Similarly, another respondent supported the umbrella brand metaphor, advocating that destination branding “should ideally sit in an umbrella framework for the nation brand” (R7). Besides these overt references, many others included an understanding of this conceptualisation in their descriptions.

Govers and Go (2009) argued that although these seem to be separate categories and that different markets may be looking for different aspects of place, place branding is essentially all about attracting people - people who want to experience a place in order to be inspired through being relaxed and absorbed in its culture, or to determine whether they would want to live, invest, or do business there. The one aspect of nation branding not covered by this description however, is the role of a nation brand in supporting or promoting its consumer

products in a global marketplace, linked with the country-of-origin theory. Nonetheless, the writer concurs with Govers' (2011) statement that nation branding "should be about creating an overarching brand strategy or competitive identity that reflects a nation's history, accomplishments and aspirations, regardless of the markets to be served" (p.227).

Besides the focus on reaching different markets with the same brand, the umbrella brand concept also supports the idea of sub-brands (e.g. city, regional and destination brands) benefitting or being influenced by the overarching umbrella nation brand. In this study, there were a number of different examples to support this type of relationship between brands. Stakeholders from large host cities as well as smaller, regional towns all agreed that their brands had benefitted from the general nation brand gains made during the event. Furthermore, a stakeholder representing the regional destination brand of neighbouring Southern African nations (itself an umbrella brand) also agreed that these neighbouring brands had been positively influenced by the nation brand benefits of the host nation. It was confirmed by an event stakeholder that a primary aim of the event was not only to improve perceptions of the host nation, but also to improve the overall perception of Africa as a whole. This may be another indication of the importance of the umbrella brand concept.

Ultimately, this discussion leads the writer to propose that a nation brand is essentially an overarching, umbrella brand for the nation's 'people', 'place' and 'products'. Simonin (2008) expanded the set of nation branding objectives identified by Kotler and Gertner (2002) to propose four pillars of nation branding (i.e. tourism, public diplomacy, exports and foreign direct investment), although he acknowledged that two other pillars (i.e. people and culture and heritage) have since been proposed as additional to these (see Figure 2.1). However, based on these pillars and the responses from this study, the writer proposes that in the context of a sport mega-event, these components of the nation brand can be reduced to three:

- 'People' refers to the nation's citizens and incorporates their history and culture. It includes the nation's celebrities, leaders, icons and sportspeople. Increased brand equity for the nation brand results in benefits for the people of the nation such as increased confidence, a sense of global connection, international credibility and political influence.
- 'Place' refers to the destinations, cities and regions of the nation. It mostly relates to the tourism and destination aspects of the brand, but also includes immigrants and students who are attracted to the nation. Increased brand equity for the nation brand is expected to result in benefits for the place component, mainly in the form of a competitive destination positioning, positive word of mouth promotion, brand loyalty

and attachment. It also includes the attraction of talent (in the form of immigrants and students) to the nation.

- Lastly, 'product' refers to the business and investment component of the nation brand. It includes the commercial products and brands traded in the global marketplace. Improved brand equity for the nation is expected to result in product benefits, such as increased global acceptance of products, improved investor confidence, the attraction of foreign direct investment, and increased trade participation.

This conceptualisation is depicted in Figure 7.3 and forms the final aspect of the proposed framework (as in Figure 7.1).

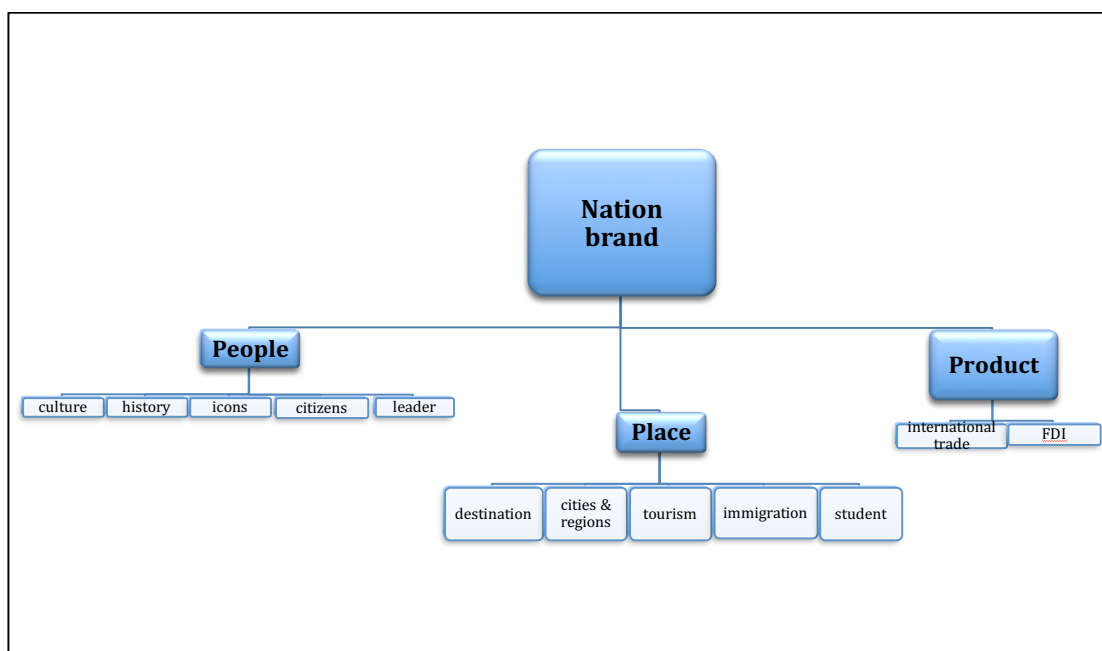


Figure 7.3: The nation brand as an “umbrella” brand for people, place and product

This section has indicated that the application of the umbrella brand concept may be of some use to nation branding in explaining certain aspects and roles of the nation brand, although it may not be a complete metaphor for nation branding in its entirety.

7.3.5 Strategic nation branding – an “active process”

All of the above discussion areas have highlighted the importance of strategic planning for nation brand stakeholders. Anholt (2003, p.11) explained strategic nation branding as follows:

“A national brand strategy determines the most realistic, most competitive and most compelling strategic vision for the country, and ensures that this vision is supported, reinforced and enriched by every act of communication between the country and the rest of the world.”

The link between vision and strategic nation branding has already been discussed, especially as it links with the desired brand identity and competitive positioning. This is the focus when developing the brand identity. The second part of this explanation alludes to the strategic activities of the brand stakeholders to ensure that the brand identity that has been created is consistently portrayed and communicated. The strategic brand management process involves the design and implementation of marketing programmes and activities to build, measure and manage brand equity (Keller 2008, p.38). Aaker (1997) mentioned that one of the most important reasons for engaging in strategic brand management is to sustain competitive advantage. The increased reference to brand equity is also an indication of the shift in marketing focus from 'tactics' to 'strategic decision-making' (Blichfeldt 2003). The concept enables brands to be defined as long-term investments, the values of which may be increased or diluted by means of managerial actions. This understanding of brand equity has shifted the focus within brand management to long-term, strategic activities. One stakeholder implied that nation branding involves longer-term strategic planning, noting, "Whatever legacy you want to leave behind from a mega-event has to be aligned to your strategic long-term objectives that are set for the country" (R4).

Summarising these developments, confirmed by the stakeholder reflections (and adapting the description by Kotler & Gertner 2002), strategic brand management for a nation brand therefore involves the processes undertaken, by a combination of government, citizens and businesses, all with a shared vision, in order to set, deliver, manage and sustain a competitive advantage for the nation.

The description of strategic nation branding by Anholt (2003) mentions "every act of communication between the country and the rest of the world" (p.11). One stakeholder mentioned that sport was chosen "strategically" as one of the "drivers" for nation brand development (R14). One of these strategic opportunities that nation brand stakeholders may aim to leverage is the hosting of sport mega-events. The following section now discusses the nature of sport mega-events, providing reasons why such events can be considered of strategic interest to nation brand stakeholders.

7.4 Summary

This chapter introduced the proposed conceptual framework that indicates the opportunities created for nation branding through a sport mega-event and how this translates into brand equity for a nation. This study set out to explore the strategic opportunities created by a sport mega-event. Three inherent characteristics were identified that highlight the role of sport mega-events in creating such opportunities. These are: the large scale of the event that facilitates transformational development; the global appeal, connection and attachment that a sport

mega-event creates with a sizeable audience; and the status and symbolic value of the event for a host nation. All three of these inherent characteristics indicate the potential impact for nation branding.

The chapter broadened the understanding of nation branding and the development of brand equity for a nation brand, particularly as it has considered the stakeholder perspective. From this perspective, nation branding is viewed as consisting of two major constituents - competitive positioning and internal identity formation. Nation branding is therefore extended beyond the realm of reputation management to account for the deliberate creation and promotion of perceptions aligned with a desired competitive positioning among a variety of key markets and constituents. The internal identity formation highlights the involvement of a multiplicity of stakeholders, including citizens, in the creation of a shared vision for the nation. The metaphor of the nation brand as an 'umbrella' brand is endorsed, as its brand equity benefits other brands linked to it that may serve diverse target markets with distinctive offerings. These offerings are summarised as relating to 'people', 'place' and 'product'. The umbrella brand concept is of particular relevance to this case as the 2010 mega-event aimed to influence brand perceptions of not only the host nation, but also the continent of Africa. The stakeholders take a strategic perspective towards nation branding. This perspective assumes deliberate, active processes undertaken by stakeholders in the management of nation brands. Such a perspective values opportunities for communication and engagement to change or reinforce brand associations.

Building on the strategic branding approach described in this chapter, the following chapter engages with the branding theory to propose a specific set of strategic branding opportunities that are created by sport mega-events for nation branding stakeholders.

Chapter Eight: The strategic nation branding opportunities created by sport mega-events

8.1 Introduction

The previous chapter revealed the conceptual framework that indicates the role of a sport mega-event in creating nation branding equity. The chapter discussed the context of nation branding and indicated the specific set of characteristics that define sport mega-events and point to their potential for nation branding. It was indicated how branding in general has evolved from its origins as a communication strategy to the current emphasis on strategic brand management. Branding was defined as “the process of designing, planning, communicating and managing the brand” (Anholt 2007b, p.4). For a nation, strategic brand management broadly concerns the enhancement of a country’s competitive position in the global marketplace (Kotler & Gertner 2002; Anholt 2010c). This chapter therefore builds on this foundation of strategic nation branding to discuss the context of a sport mega-event and the opportunities that it provides for brand development. This forms the central section of the proposed model (see Figure 7.1), offering answers to this study’s research question (1b): “What strategic nation branding opportunities are created by hosting a sport mega-event?”

The chapter draws heavily on branding theory and integrates this with the stakeholder responses to propose a set of branding opportunities that are created by a sport mega-event and to indicate their contribution to developing nation brand equity. These opportunities and their potential contribution to brand equity are discussed in the sequence of the adapted version of Pike’s (2010) model of CBBE creation (see Figure 2.4). This highlights that a sport mega-event creates opportunities to build brand equity at each of the developmental phases of CBBE creation. These opportunities are summarised in Figure 8.1 and form the central component of the proposed framework.

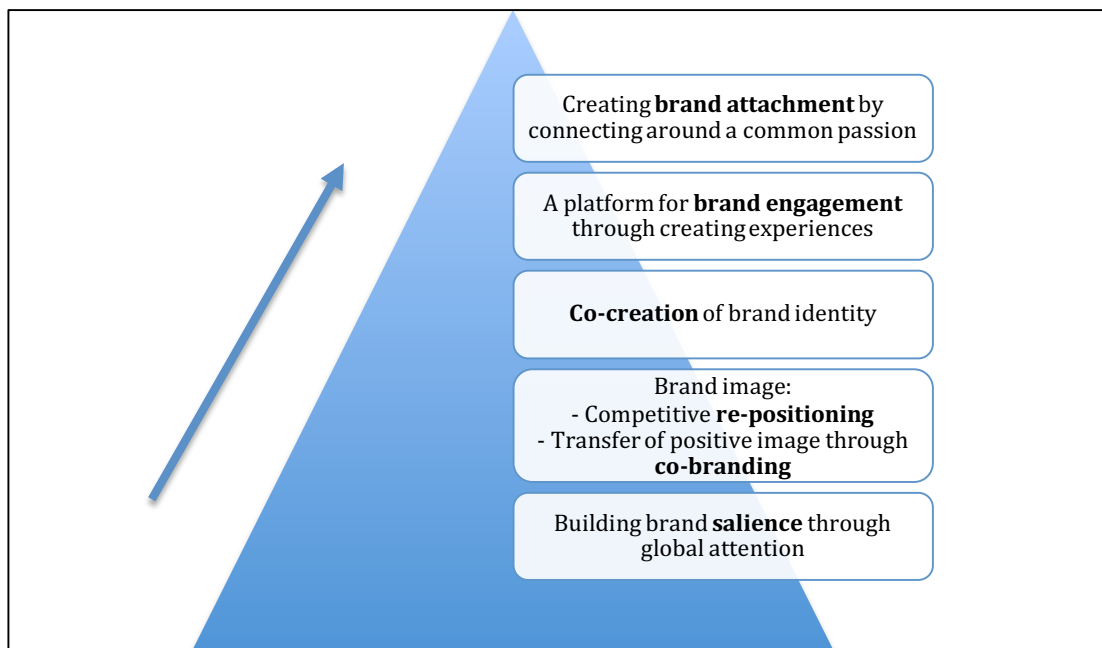


Figure 8.1: The strategic nation branding opportunities created by sport mega-events

8.2 Building brand salience through global attention

Brand salience forms the foundation or starting point of brand equity development. ‘Salience’ consists of brand recognition (the consumer’s ability to confirm prior exposure to the brand) and brand recall performance (the consumer’s ability to retrieve the brand from memory when given a product category) (Keller 2008). Brand salience creates value or brand equity through three main advantages: increased ‘learning’ or knowledge of the brand; the inclusion or ‘consideration’ of the brand among the consumer’s choice set; and improving the likelihood of brand selection or ‘choice’ (Keller 2008, p.54). Brand awareness plays a key role in this process, increasing the likelihood that the brand will form part of the consumer’s consideration/evoked set - the handful of brands that will receive serious purchase consideration. Higher brand awareness can affect the choice of a brand within the consumer’s consideration set.

The ability to gain attention and create awareness for a brand is increasingly valued by brand managers within today’s crowded and competitive global market space. Although this study does not reflect on the ‘purchase considerations’ of potential tourists or investors (for example) as a result of the 2010 mega-event, it considers the degree of interest, attention and exposure that the brand was able to gain as a measure of brand salience potential. This is consistent with branding theory that links the increased exposure and attention that a brand receives to increased awareness and salience.

Much of the event impact literature has focused on brand exposure and awareness as anticipated brand impacts for a mega-event host nation. Indeed, the stakeholders mentioned

the significant media coverage and attention for the brand as a key expectation preceding the event. The reflections post the 2010 mega-event indicate that this expectation was met and in many cases exceeded. An example of the ability of the event to generate awareness for a brand was given as the city of Durban, for which the World Cup was stated as “stimulating radical awareness” (R19), particularly internationally. The opportunity that the event creates for brand awareness is linked with the ability of a sport mega-event to capture global attention and interest and generate positive media coverage on a large scale and with a vast global reach.

A sport mega-event enables a host nation to capture global attention and interest on a scale and reach that would not normally be possible or affordable. For a small, developing nation like South Africa that does normally captivate such attention for positive reasons, this is of great significance for the brand. The global population and media agencies increase their attention and generate stories relating to a host nation, providing the country with the opportunity to increase its awareness and consideration among many markets that may not previously have done so. Stakeholders particularly mentioned that the event reached non-traditional tourism markets, such as geographic markets in South America and Asia and demographic markets that included younger, less affluent travelers. This confirmed the sport tourist profile of the Phase One study.

A mega-event has the ability to capture “global attention” (R18). For brand managers, this was described as gaining access to a “captive audience” (R4). This attention is driven through the media and broadcast channels, but also evidenced through the new media and social media. The role of the media was a major theme emerging from the interviews, with its importance mentioned by all stakeholders, especially in terms of the widespread global coverage that the mega-event generated. As an indication of this: “In terms of just the final, we had 700 million people watching” (R1); and for the Final Draw alone, “there were 206 television crew from all over the world” (R1).

The value of the media reach was not just concerning the actual matches broadcast though. The stakeholders mentioned how the world’s largest news channels also carried stories and focused on the host nation, featuring news items surrounding the matches and events and often showcasing other elements of the nation apart from the football. The amount of media coverage and the extent of its reach is clearly of significant value to brand stakeholders. One, in particular, noted that it would not be possible for the nation to afford to ‘buy’ or gain such coverage through conventional branding campaigns. He especially noted the value of what he perceived as the ‘positive’ coverage, that he explained was of great importance for a nation that had previously received vast amounts of negative media coverage related to its turbulent social and political history. The following abbreviated quotation explains the value of the

positive coverage for the brand and its global reach, gaining the attention of the globe through the event-related stories and news coverage:

“So, on a daily basis from the morning, if you switch on Sky and BBC and CNN and Aljazeera and all these [news channels], it was about South Africa, it was about the World Cup. Now if you think, what will it cost to have 30 days, everyday, focus on your [nation] and the message is positive? It’s not about drugs. It’s not about crime. It’s a good story. ... What is the sum total of that? And what will it cost you if you want to achieve that through a marketing or branding plan?” (R1).

The media coverage was not only from the traditional media sources. Stakeholders also noted the importance of the non-accredited, new media and social media. At the time of the event, the opening ceremony and opening match of the tournament was noted as producing the largest social media activity ever recorded – possibly the strongest indication of the importance of sport in generating global attention and interest. This study therefore confirms that a sport mega event provides a nation brand with significant global attention throughout the course of the event. This may be through television and traditional media coverage as well as through new media, non-accredited media and social media.

Although the 2010 stakeholders referred to the media attention as ‘positive’, it is not assumed that this will always be the case. Stakeholders noted the negative media themes in the lead up to the 2010 event. In South Africa’s case this was linked to crime, readiness and the disputed capability of the nation to host the event. However, the result of hosting a successful and incident free event led to positive publicity and attention, with stakeholders acknowledging a significant change in tone of reporting as the media became far more positive in their portrayal of the host nation. The stakeholders also noted that while there have been a number of newsworthy events and occurrences since the 2010 mega-event, none of these have been as positive media opportunities as the FIFA World Cup was.

Some respondents observed that negative media attention is a common feature in the lead up to many mega-events, citing the cases of London 2012 and Brazil 2014. The literature confirmed this, noting significant negative media attention in the lead up to Brazil 2014 (relating to the lack of readiness, stadium completion and the national protests) (De Almeida et al. 2014) and Sochi 2014 (also relating to the lack of readiness of facilities) (Alekseyeva 2014).

The discussion of brand awareness through the media coverage does not generally reflect an assessment of the themes covered by the media or an assessment of the degree to which the coverage is beneficial to the brand. This confirms the challenge of the lack of control that stakeholders have over the content of the media coverage received and the subjective manner in which it is often assessed. This is a factor that is distinctly different from generic consumer branding, and an acknowledged distinction and challenge for nation branding in general. For example, there is little possibility that a large-scale corporate brand would receive

the same amount of “uncontrolled” media coverage as a nation receives during a sport mega-event. In addition, judging the positivity of media attention is a subjective activity, making the assessment of this opportunity for nation branding more challenging. Assessing the content of the media coverage is a study area in itself, as seen in the event impact literature (e.g. Lepp & Gibson 2011; Harris et al. 2012 and Swart et al. 2013). This study therefore acknowledges the importance of such content analysis of the media coverage surrounding a mega-event in assessing the value of the coverage for the brand.

A further example of the ability of sport mega-events to generate global awareness for a nation brand was cited as Qatar, claimed to be “leveraging sport as a key pillar for growing the brand of the country” (R14). The stakeholder elaborated on this case in the following quotation, highlighting the strategic longer-term potential of a sport mega-event to create awareness and brand salience for a nation:

“They’ve got the FIFA World Cup 2022. They’ll bid again for the Olympic Games. Just the process of bidding actually gains them exposure, very much so positively. And ultimately, winning gets them on the map. How many people can say they visited or even heard of Doha ten years ago, but now it’s firmly on the map. Sport [events] has been a key driver in making that happen” (R14).

Although the literature notes that a sport mega-event generates significant brand exposure and media attention for a host nation, this study proposes that this creates brand awareness and salience for a nation brand. Beyond this, there are also opportunities for the brand image to be re-positioned - as discussed in the next section.

8.3 Nation brand image enhancement

The nation branding literature revealed that brand image is considered a “critical concept when we’re talking about nations, cities and regions” (Anholt 2007b, p.5). Brand image refers to “the perceptions about a brand reflected as associations existing in the memory of the consumer” (Keller 2008, p.65). It relates to the more intangible aspects of a brand that represent associations formed directly through customer experiences or indirectly through advertising, word of mouth, or other sources of information (Keller 2008), with Keller advising that brand image is formed through a number of different activities and sources, both marketing and non-marketing related. Importantly, in the context of this study, Keller (2008, p.56) includes “direct experiences” and “word-of-mouth” with “people”, “places” and “events” in his list of image formation sources. This was confirmed by the Phase One study that noted the experiential role of travelling in the nation and interacting with its people in creating new brand image associations among the sport tourists.

A nation’s brand image has generally been accepted to consist of the sum of all beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a nation (Baloglu & McCleary 1999; Kotler et al.

2003; Hosany et al. 2007; Govers & Go 2009). This conventional view perceives brand image formation as a fairly static process. However, the findings of this study are more in agreement with the view of brand image as a 'social construct'. Rather than the conventional definition of brand image as the sum of individual perceptions, this view regards brand image as "a shared reality, dynamically constructed through social interaction" (Ballantyne & Aitken 2007, p. 365). Brand image formation is thus viewed as a dynamic process formed through a continual process of iteration. In light of this view, the role of a sport mega-event in brand image formation becomes clearer, as it serves as a stimulus and platform for shared reality (or brand experience) and co-creation of brand image, for example, as this chapter proposes.

Marketers seek to create a brand image based on "strong, favourable and unique" brand associations (Keller 2008, p.67). This is a particular challenge for nation brands, especially for less prominent, emerging nations like South Africa. Kotler and Gertner (2002) explained that most country brand images are in fact stereotypes, extreme simplifications of the reality that are not necessarily accurate. They might be dated, based on exceptions rather than on patterns, on impressions rather than on facts, but are nonetheless pervasive. This was certainly the general case relating to the international perception of the South African brand image prior to 2010. The Phase One study revealed that many stereotypes linked with the broader 'Brand Africa' effect, as well as many outdated perceptions relating to South Africa's segregated history and incorrect associations linked with a lack of urban development, prevailed prior to the 2010 mega-event. Of particular concern to nations and to developing nation brands like South Africa is the belief that "the perception of reality is more important than the reality itself" (Dobni & Zinkhan 1990, p.112).

The 2010 FIFA World Cup was therefore anticipated as a means of changing these perceptions of the nation and even the continent in general. It was stated very clearly from the outset as a primary aim of the 2010 mega-event to change and enhance the international image of the host nation and indeed the continent as a whole. Stakeholders confirmed that the event was viewed as an opportunity for re-branding and re-positioning of the nation brand image and to counter negative nation brand associations among a broad international audience. However, they noted that the pre-event period was characterised by negative media coverage and a particular focus on crime and violence. Stakeholders admitted that they feared that a positive impact for the nation brand was not a certainty. They also noted the general concern that a failure to host a successful event would entrench the negative associations for the nation brand and the continent.

The expectation for the mega-event to change international brand perceptions was not unfounded. Event impact studies have investigated the changes in consumer perceptions of

cities, nations and destinations as a result of hosting a sport mega-event. These studies point to a mega-event having the potential to create or influence positive perceptions in general. Examples were cited among stakeholders, and appeared in the literature, of host nations such as Germany (2006 FIFA World Cup) and China (2008 Beijing Olympic Games) that were able to use a mega-event as an opportunity to improve aspects of their brand image internationally, although in different manners. For example, Germany was said to have enhanced its 'softer' associations with 'friendliness' and 'fun', while China signalled its emerging status as a global political and economic power.

However, these impact studies do not indicate the significance of these image changes for the brand equity of a host nation. Neither do they mention how these positive brand image changes can be achieved, influenced or affected through the actions of stakeholders in the context of a sport mega-event. The remainder of this section therefore discusses the opportunities created by a sport mega-event for brand image enhancement, integrating the literature with the experiences and observations of the 2010 mega-event stakeholders and the other experts interviewed.

8.3.1 Competitive re-positioning of the nation brand image

More than merely reputation enhancement, a mega-event creates potential to directly alter and reposition the brand image. Re-positioning is a strategic branding initiative that seeks to correct or align a brand image with its intended identity, in order to enhance the brand's competitive differentiation. In the case of a nation, this competitive differentiation may be related to enhanced competitiveness as a tourism destination or as a business or investment location, among other competitive aims. This section discusses the opportunities created by a sport mega-event for competitive brand re-positioning, indicating how this creates equity for a nation brand.

The stakeholders and experts interviewed clearly indicated and provided examples of the ability of sport mega-events to positively influence a nation brand's perceived image and enhance its competitive positioning. One respondent specifically labeled one of the primary aims for the 2010 mega-event as follows: "It was about the re-branding, re-positioning, or the... almost an image makeover for the country" (R1). As the Phase One study revealed, the brand perceptions of South Africa prior to the 2010 event were related to the wildlife, scenic beauty and natural environment of the host nation. On a more negative note, there were strong associations with crime and violence. None of these are helpful associations from a competitive positioning perspective in either the tourism or business investment sectors.

However, the examples given of how these associations changed through the course of the event indicated new perceptions associated with brand attributes that are more useful for the competitive positioning of the nation brand. Stakeholders noted a significant change in the predominant brand image of the nation prior to the event to afterwards, confirming the Phase One study that found that 74% of first-time visitors changed their perception of the nation during the course of the mega-event. Important for the nation's developing global status and competitive positioning, the nation brand image post the event was perceived as "more first-world, technologically advanced" (R2). The event particularly showcased urban imagery of the host cities. Infrastructure, modern transportation and iconic stadia highlighted a different side of the nation compared with the traditional media and promotional imagery.

Gilmore (2002) explained how the core of a country's brand should capture the spirit of its people. Respondents indicated that this was an aspect of the brand that was aided through the showcasing of the warmth and vibrancy as well as diversity of the South African residents. The event imagery was described as portraying residents of the nation as warm and exuberant. The pre-event fears of safety and security fuelled by the international media were allayed. The perception of crime was reduced as a result of the event having no serious incidents reported during the event period. Once again, this was consistent with the Phase One findings that revealed a very similar change in brand image perceptions.

The 'Brand Africa' effect meant that South Africa had been associated with many of the general images related to the African continent, such as poverty, under-development and corruption (Anholt 2007a). This actually posed an interesting dilemma for the nation brand as it sought to distinguish itself from these generalised African perceptions, yet the 2010 mega-event was marketed as 'Africa's World Cup'. However, one stakeholder explained this seeming dichotomy by clarifying that the aim was to first change perceptions of South Africa and then change perceptions of the continent as a whole. From the responses though, there was little overall suggestion that the event changed perceptions of Africa specifically. In fact, the success of the host nation may even have entrenched the differences between itself and the rest of the continent. However, a useful competitive positioning emerged from this, with one respondent (R23) claiming that post the event, the nation was more likely to be viewed as the "gateway to Africa" for trade and tourism. This appears to be a more useful competitive positioning for the nation, differentiating itself from the negative continental association and yet leveraging its strategic continental location.

These new images were not seen as replacing the previous images of nature and wildlife, but rather providing a more balanced, authentic image of the nation as a whole. Although crime is still a major factor for the country, the new perceptions post the event were

more balanced and reflected an improved understanding of the fact that the tourism experience can be a safe one. This is expected to benefit tourism in the country as tourists see that they can enjoy urban environments besides the traditional safari experiences. It further provides an incentive for business investors in the longer-term. A further boost to a more authentic portrayal of the brand image in the longer-term was stated as the fact that 18,000 international media actually visited the nation in person. For an emerging nation, and especially in light of the host nation's tumultuous political history and global alienation, this was viewed as a significant legacy for the brand. This is a clear indication of how a sport mega-event can assist with the previously noted nation branding challenge of 'authenticity'.

Gilmore (2002) stated that active repositioning of a country through branding can be done successfully and holds great potential for countries, arguing that thoughtful brand positioning gives a country a competitive advantage over other nations. While the 2010 sport mega-event appears to have aided the re-positioning of the South African brand, there is little to suggest that this was an entirely active, thoughtful or deliberate process. The brand re-positioning was in fact mentioned as a missed opportunity from the event, with a stakeholder noting that there was not a clear brand-positioning message that was conveyed and that the nation did not "define what (it) wanted to be known as" (R5). Much of the re-positioning success may have been dependant on the perceived success of the event and the manner in which the media portrayed the nation. Once again, this confirms the lack of control as a challenge for stakeholders.

It is this uncertainty and possible risk that is associated with a sport mega-event that makes the opportunity distinct from traditional strategic branding activities. Stakeholders noted that there was a perceived risk of damage to the nation brand if the event was not perceived favourably. The re-positioning gains made by the nation were therefore not guaranteed, nor was the process completely controlled. This risk was highlighted by Chadwick (2014), who used the example of Brazil to illustrate this. He stated that the media focus of the 2014 FIFA World Cup in Brazil was far more on the stereotyped imagery of beach and party and as a result, the nation may have missed an opportunity to re-brand itself.

In summary then, a sport mega-event creates opportunities for competitive repositioning of a nation brand. However, this process may be difficult to control and carries some risk, dependant mainly on the perceived success of the event and the extent of the media coverage. Stakeholders are urged to plan this process more deliberately in order to leverage the opportunity more effectively, possibly through some of the means highlighted in Chapter Nine. The following section is still related to the brand image re-positioning discussion, although it specifically discusses the image transfer process as a result of 'co-branding'.

8.3.2 Positive image transference through co-branding

A host nation's brand image can also be positively influenced through co-branding opportunities created by the mega-event. A co-branding relationship is, "a brand alliance that involves either short-term or long-term association or a combination of two or more individual brands, products and/ or other distinctive proprietary assets" (Xing & Chalip 2006, p.52). Brand alliances or strategic associations can be a "powerful source of reputation and image spill over effects", representing opportunities to "raise brand awareness and strengthen brand positioning" (Simonin 2008, p.31-32). Simonin (2008) proposed that for nations, these brand alliances could be extended to include famous events.

Co-branding aims for the transfer of aspects of the image of the one brand to the other associated brand. This has typically been used to explain sponsorship or endorsement relationships. It is understood to be a mutually beneficial relationship with image transfer flowing between both or all associated brands. Chalip and Costa (2005) proposed that a sport mega-event could contribute positively to a destination brand through forging partnerships for co-branding the event and destination. Other studies have noted that both destinations (e.g. Brown et al. 2004) and event rights holders events (e.g. Westerbeek et al. 2002, p.305) aim to enhance their brand image through hosting events. Other aims for co-branding include: to extend the brand's reach beyond the existing target market; to communicate with a new target market; to improve perceptions of product quality; to provide a 'buzz' around the brand; and to inspire confidence in the brand (Kapferer 2012, p.144-146).

The stakeholders were asked to reflect on the perceived benefits for the nation brand through the relationship with the rights holders of the 2010 mega-event, namely 'FIFA'. Despite the FIFA brand image being viewed rather negatively by many of the stakeholders, and certainly not held in the same esteem as the Olympic brand, respondents still believed that the association with the "very, very well-known, well-positioned" FIFA brand (R24) benefited the South African brand. A primary benefit for the host nation brand was described as being an 'endorsement' of the nation brand by FIFA. As the stakeholders reasoned, the fact that FIFA, a globally significant, "highly sophisticated organisation" (R25), selected the country to host the event renders an endorsement of the nation's capability, infrastructure and desirability as a nation and inspires confidence in the nation brand. This in itself is seen as a positive branding gain for a nation. The selection and bidding processes for sport mega-events have increased in complexity and competitiveness over recent decades, resulting in the winning host nation taking much pride in just winning this selection endorsement. From the moment that the bid is won, the event is co-branded with the names of both rights holders and the host nation, e.g. the '2010 FIFA World Cup South Africa', thus becoming a distinctive 'product' that merges

brand associations of both entities. Some stakeholders also gave examples of co-branding that referred to the names of the cities linked in official FIFA event promotional messages.

There is evidence suggesting that this co-branding effect may differ for other events. For example, the following quotation reveals the strength of the Olympic brand and how this adds value to a host city or nation's brand:

“The Olympic brand is seen in great esteem. For a city bidding for the Olympic Games or Youth Olympic Games, having the five rings attached to your city adds lots to the city's appeal. The heritage of the Olympic brand adds so much more value to the city's brand and profile....” (R14).

Furthermore, the link between the actual sport event and the host nation's brand image can result in an image association transfer from the event to the host nation. In other co-branding relationships such as sponsorships, this aspect has been well-established. In the case of South Africa, respondents described the event image associations such as “fun-loving”, “festival or party” and “welcoming” being transferred to the host nation brand image as a result of the mega-event.

There can also be an image transfer from the event hosts to the rights holders, although this may not be symmetric, as Xing and Chalip (2006, p.70) found. They concluded that the event or rights holder image usually has a more substantial impact on the destination brand image than vice versa. Consistent with this assessment, according to the stakeholders, South Africa gained more from the association with FIFA than the FIFA brand gained from its association with South Africa. Although this does not imply that FIFA did not benefit from the relationship. Although only one respondent mentioned this, the FIFA brand was believed to have gained from “opening up new markets by coming to Africa for the first time” (R2), which was deemed to be of great value for its sponsors and partners.

The degree to which the rights holder/ event brand benefits from the association may be influenced by the relative strength of each host nation brand, compared to the strength of the event brand. This may also explain why there are a number of emerging nations now competing to host sport mega-events with the aim of improving their brand image. Confirming this, an expert reflecting on the example of a far more developed nation brand explained how he believed Britain had benefitted the Olympic brand through hosting the 2012 London Olympic Games:

“Britain has actually built the Olympics brand. It's in a better position now than it was. Most definitely the Paralympic brand” (R15).

The event sponsors provide another aspect of the co-branding opportunity. The major global sponsor interviewed confirmed that the company has a long-standing relationship, described as a “partnership” with the event owners (R27), in which both partners are believed to gain from

the association. This is expected in most of the current, successful global sponsorship agreements. What is of greater interest is that the company confirms that it gives much consideration to the link with the host nation's brand in order to tailor its marketing promotional efforts. It confirmed that the host nation's brand does in fact influence its branding decisions surrounding the event sponsorship. This is most clearly portrayed in its usage of colour, design and music in its sponsorship leveraging activities. The sponsor also indicated that it seeks out partnerships with other sponsors as well as local host city stakeholders in order to optimise the branding opportunities and customise them to the local context.

A few aspects should be noted as a caution with regard to co-branding through events. Although respondents did not refer to this specifically, the 'complementarity' or 'fit' between the brands involved in the co-branding alliance is said to be of strategic importance (Simonin 2008; Scott et al. 2011; and Kapferer 2012). Nation brand stakeholders are therefore urged to select events, rights holders and sponsors that complement their brand. Failing this, Simonin (2008, p.32) cautions that brand associations are "vulnerable and subject to brand dilution and harm". One expert gave examples of such harmful associations, where a host nation caused damage to the rights holders (e.g. Delhi Commonwealth Games) and an event damaged a nation brand (e.g. Atlanta 1996 Olympic Games). In addition, not all events have a strong enough brand image to be considered as having co-branding potential (Chalip & Cost 2005; and Westerbeek & Linley 2012). This may limit co-branding opportunities to mega-events, while smaller events could rather be considered as a brand 'extension' or a brand 'feature'.

This section has clearly indicated that there are opportunities to build brand equity through co-branding for sport mega-event host nations. It seems surprising then that the co-branding relationship between the event and the host nation has not been explored in greater detail in previous studies. Furthermore, although the co-branding link between a sponsor and the rights holders/ event is well documented, the co-branding relationship between the sponsor and the host nation has not been explored. It is therefore proposed that these co-branding relationships be looked at in closer measure as this certainly plays a significant role in the brand image creation and transfer process for host nations from sport mega-events.

The following section now focuses on the internal nation brand identity formation through a sport mega-event.

8.4 Co-creation of nation brand identity

The experiences of the stakeholders indicated that in the context of a sport mega-event, nation brand identity is 'co-created'. The co-creation paradigm is rooted in the understanding that brand image development is a continual process of iteration. This widens the scope of brand

image to consider the number of stakeholders that influence the brand and how the interaction of these multiple perspectives generates new brand meaning. Co-creation accepts that brand meaning is created by shared beliefs and realities as a result of the interactions between suppliers, stakeholders and consumers (in a firm-based context) (Grönroos, 2000). The resulting brand essence is dynamic, authentic and, most importantly, collective. The co-creation paradigm calls for a more inclusive, integrative and comprehensive approach to identifying the meaning-making processes that constitute a brand. This section discusses both the role of stakeholders and the host nation citizens in the co-creation process.

8.4.1 Co-creation through stakeholder engagement

Within the context of a sport mega-event, there are a great number of stakeholders involved in either directly managing the nation brand and its related brands or indirectly managing the factors that have an influence on the brand. The stakeholders interviewed commented that the event created opportunities to improve relationships between stakeholders, especially between private and public sector organisations. A number of stakeholders referred to the improved working relations between private and public sector agents as a result of working together on event-related projects. Relations between different government levels and departments were also improved. Many of these working relationships were termed “partnerships”. In some cases these were formally established in order to leverage certain event-related opportunities (see Chapter 9.3.7). An example was given of an umbrella brand that was formed by a collection of stakeholders to leverage certain business promotion opportunities during the event. A sponsor described the close partnership they enjoyed with the event rights holders as well as with host city authorities and also how they partnered with other sponsors for leveraging activities.

Some of these working partnerships were not easy in the beginning with examples given of restrictions and many other related frustrations. However, many positive relationships emerged through effective communication that built trust among the partners as they began to see how they could benefit from working together. With hindsight, the stakeholders advocated an earlier start to pre-event negotiation among stakeholders.

The diverse leveraging activities described by the stakeholders indicate a wide variety of nation branding messages communicated during the event through a variety of means and to diverse target audiences. Although this may be perceived as a lack of coherence to some degree and highlights the challenge of brand control, it also reveals the manner in which nation brand meaning and identity is constructed and communicated – namely through the interaction of these multiple stakeholders.

Although this interaction might occur naturally at other times, the mega-event context heightens this period of activity and adds additional influential stakeholders to the process. For example, it was especially revealing to discover the extent to which an event sponsor described their aim to include authentic imagery, art and music that is of cultural relevance and distinctiveness, for each of the mega-events that they sponsor. The respondent described this as a long-term (beginning four years prior to an event), collaborative process, as their campaigns were subjected to the input of rights holders and broader host nation stakeholders before implemented. It is therefore argued that rather than creating increased brand confusion through the diverse actions of stakeholders, a mega-event provides a context for stakeholders to engage and even partner with each other to co-create brand meaning through the event.

Besides the stakeholders, the citizens of the nation also contribute to the co-creation of the brand identity, as the following section discusses.

8.4.2 Co-creation through the shared experience of citizens

Hakala and Lemmetyinen (2011) advocated the need to manage a nation brand from the “bottom up”, in other words starting the co-creation process with the local citizens. From the experiences of the respondents interviewed, a sport mega-event creates a context for a nation brand to do so through engaging its citizens in a shared experience.

The role of the local citizens in the image creation process through the mega-event emerged as one of the major themes from the Phase One interviews with sport tourists and was confirmed in the Phase Two stakeholder interviews. The media images and experience of the event visitors featured a diverse local population united in their celebrations and having fun in urban public spaces that were safe. This was said to have impacted significantly on the creation of an improved brand image for the nation as fun-loving, warm, hospitable and friendly. All of these are brand personality attributes most closely associated with the nation’s citizens and formed as a result of their shared engagement with the event and the event visitors. This engagement was actively encouraged or mobilised by other brand stakeholders such as SA Tourism and Brand South Africa. These organisations designed campaigns and activities aimed at stimulating citizen interest, support and pride in the hosting of the event.

As a result of the widespread support and enthusiasm of the local population and the pride they experienced through the perceived successful hosting of the event, the internal component of the nation brand was impacted very positively. As one stakeholder noted, it was “a huge morale boost and consolidation of identity” for the host nation citizens (R8). The stakeholders noted this translated into the workplace, with employees exhibiting a newfound national confidence. Citizens regarded themselves, their organisations and their nation as a

whole as more competent and capable of delivering large projects and overcoming infrastructural challenges. The capability and confidence of the citizens therefore became an important part of developing a new internal brand identity for the nation. These are also attributes that are significant for the re-positioning of the nation brand in the competitive global arena. Overall, the event appeared to have strengthened the nation brand identity most notably in terms of its rootedness in 'social-cohesion', 'diversity of culture' and 'hospitality'.

The context of a mega-event clearly brings stakeholders and citizens together, and thereby, either formally or unintentionally, co-creating brand identity. Despite this opportunity created by a mega-event, it should be mentioned that this opportunity is perhaps only a starting point for a more concerted effort at co-creation of the national brand. A bottom-up approach, starting with the residents', business' and other stakeholders' desired national identity and reputation for the nation, requires a longer-term initiative. However, for some nations, a sport mega-event may represent the starting point and catalytic opportunity to begin this process.

The following section integrates more recent advances in branding theory to discuss further brand equity formation opportunities through a sport mega-event.

8.5 Global brand engagement through brand experiences

This section proposes that the more recent focus in branding theory on customer engagement through brand experiences can be applied to nation branding, and especially so in the context of a sport mega-event. Keller's (2008, p.48) Customer Based Brand Equity (CBBE) model is based on the premise that "the power of a brand lies in what customers have learned, felt, seen and heard about the brand as a result of their experiences over time". The challenge for marketers seeking to build brand equity is therefore to ensure that customers have the right type of experiences with products and services and their accompanying marketing programs so that the desired thoughts feelings, images, beliefs, perceptions and opinions become linked to the brand.

From this understanding, the literature noted a change in the emphasis from 'creating experiences' to 'consumer engagement'. The consumer engagement literature recognises the importance of elements such as passion, immersion, activation, interactive experience and the co-creation of brand value (Hollebeek 2011). While practitioners have been using this concept more widely, the scholarly understanding of the term has been slow to develop (Hollebeek 2011). Anholt (2010c, p.12-13) appeared to endorse this application as he advocated a new management approach for nation brands, stating that, "Places must engage with the outside world in a clear, coordinated and communicative way".

In light of this theoretical development and from the stakeholder responses, this study proposes that sport mega-events create brand engagement opportunities on a global scale. While many stakeholders alluded to this, two stakeholders specifically mentioned the opportunity that the 2010 World Cup provided in terms of creating a “global engagement” opportunity for the host nation brand (R8). Even beyond specific references, it is clear from the stakeholder responses that the mega-event created opportunities for immersive brand experiences and engagement with a variety of market segments (i.e. tourists, business leaders and investors and the broader global population) through the context of a shared passion for sport. While this happened mainly through the media, the stakeholders mentioned a number of activities that were activated in order to leverage this global appeal and passion. Stakeholders designed and activated specific leveraging activities that aimed to capitalize on the event experience to reach these markets (see Chapter 9.3.6 for more on these activities).

Stakeholders revealed an understanding that those who were in the nation during the course of the event had a positive brand experience. In particular, many stakeholders pointed out that an emphasis was placed on the tourism experience of the international visitors during the event period. The mega-event was a catalyst for the improvement of many tourism related services and infrastructure such as airports, public transportation, accommodation and urban gentrification. Extra emphasis was placed on the safety and security of visitors during this period, which also would have improved the experience. The event itself also added an extra dimension to the traditional travel experience of tourists, creating a festival or carnival atmosphere in which to experience the nation. One stakeholder pointed out the uniquely South African “vibe” during this period, claiming that visitors “were really quite struck by how electric it [the atmosphere] was” (R25). The following quotation reveals a positive brand experience for event visitors:

“The South African experience in a broader sense was really positive – the hospitality, the diversity, the food, the culture. The overall impression I got was that the visitors’ expectations were exceeded in terms of hospitality and friendliness and overall just having a good time.... Everywhere you went people were having a good time” (R18).

This quotation also alludes to the importance of the event visitors’ connection or engagement with local residents in creating these positive brand experiences. Both the Phase One study and the respondents mentioned the local residents as crucially important to the kind of experience that is delivered at a mega-event. Although this was certainly the case in South Africa, there is evidence that this was not unique to the 2010 experience. One expert gave the example of Barcelona as a city that capitalised on the “experiential” opportunity for a city brand as a result of the 1992 Olympic Games (R15). Another pertinent quotation is given below from an expert who was referring to mega-events more generally than just the case of South Africa:

“The key is the residents. The kind of connection that the visitors and the television audiences get with the local residents of a host city” (R11).

A slightly different kind of global connection through hosting sport mega-events was also mentioned by respondents. For South Africa, hosting sport mega-events was described as a means of integrating and connecting with the global community, especially after the Apartheid-induced isolation period. Similarly, one expert used the example of Qatar’s bidding and hosting for sport mega-events as a strategy to connect the small, emerging nation to the larger global population, as described below:

“Hosting major sporting events does connect them to the rest of the world – it builds those bridges. Sport has been chosen strategically as one of the drivers of that” (R14).

On the basis of these comments and examples by the stakeholders and experts, a sport mega-event therefore creates significant brand experience opportunities for the host nation. The marketing literature notes that branding activities can be enhanced through the creation of more “immersive” and “active” experiences (Pine & Gilmore 1998). Stakeholders are urged to leverage the event with this in mind, with particular focus on the tourism experience and the interaction between visitors and local residents. While the tourism industry is by nature experiential, the context of a sport mega-event certainly enhances the tourism experience of the nation brand.

Further to creating engagement opportunities, a sport mega-event creates opportunities for brand attachment, as discussed in the following section.

8.6 Creating brand attachment by connecting around a common passion

The global ‘passion’ surrounding a sport mega-event provides a branding opportunity unlike other opportunities for a nation. It is hard to find other examples of events or occurrences that capture the attention of the global audience combined with the shared emotional attachment of passion, that transcends many global divisions such as language, race, religion and nationality. As Rein and Shields (2007, p.83) concluded, sport stimulates an “emotional heat” between participants and audiences and, more broadly, between places and their markets. The nature of the sport event links with or creates a passion among a widespread audience, such that the event is at worst noticed, but more likely, passionately followed by global fans.

The event sponsorship literature has long-promoted the ability of an event to transfer the passion of the fans to the event sponsors. It is suggested that the same transfer applies to the event and the host nation brand, with the collective global passion transferring into positive sentiments for the nation brand. Although sharing a common background with the previous section relating to experiential branding, brand attachment differs from these in its emphasis of the affective components of a brand, such as ‘passion’ and ‘self-connection’ (Japutra et al.

2014, p.3). Although there is no literature linking brand attachment to nation branding, the possible positive effects for a nation brand from such an orientation are evident. Once again, the centrality of 'passion' and 'connection' between consumers and the brand may be of particular relevance for nations hosting sport mega-events, where these emotions and behaviours occur more naturally.

During the 2010 mega-event, South Africa was perceived as 'passionate'. A respondent explained that one of the enduring impressions from the event was of a "country that's together, that's passionate, that's welcoming, and that's exciting" (R18). Furthermore, the common, global passion linked to sport is one of the distinguishing characteristics of a sport mega-event, most especially when it comes to football, which enjoys the widest fan support base of all sport codes.

The emotional attachment that supporters have with the event creates an opportunity for stakeholders to link that attachment with the nation brand, as the following quotation explains:

"A key thing I would like to emphasise in terms of sport as an attraction is that there's an emotional attachment. They (fans/ spectators) are connected to that event and therefore, I would argue, to that place" (R11).

The mega-event creates opportunities for nation brand experiences linked with the emotional attachment to the event, among travelling and non-travelling fans. The writer thus proposes that the concept of brand attachment may be a more useful one than loyalty, especially in relation to nation brands. Brand attachment is of great value to nation brands as 'attached' consumers become brand ambassadors, promoting the nation through positive word-of-mouth, and exhibit other beneficial characteristics such as high potential for repeat visitation, as the Phase One results indicated.

The branding theory further stresses that brand attachment can lead beyond loyalty to a more active advocacy for a brand. Kaferer (2013, p.132) terms this "brand activism", explaining the need for brands to raise debates and stimulate issues, showing concern for the future and the well-being of their consumers, recognising their social influence and their ability to become "community builders". While this is mentioned in a mainstream branding context, the application of such brand activism for nation brands is evident and useful for developing both the internal and external brand image. The passion and level of attachment that consumers have with a sport event may provide such a context for stimulating community debate and promoting the 'nation building' legacy of a sport mega-event, particularly if it has been leveraged for sustainable community development.

Having discussed the opportunities created by sport mega-events for nation brand equity formation, the following section concludes this chapter by discussing the transferability of these opportunities to other host nations and contexts.

8.7 The transferability of the nation branding opportunities

The case of South Africa has clearly revealed a number of significant opportunities for enhancing the nation's brand equity through the hosting of a sport mega-event. Applying the literature and the experiences of experts involved in other contexts has assisted with assessing the degree to which these opportunities may be transferable to other host nations or nation brands, especially those that may be at different stages in their brand development. The respondents indicated that there may be slight differences in how these strategic brand opportunities are perceived by different host nations. This section proposes to answer these differences through applying the metaphor of the brand life cycle.

While the product life cycle concept has gained broad acceptance in marketing theory, the concept is not as clear when it comes to brands. Kapferer pointed out that brands are not merely products, and while products may in fact become outdated or enter a decline, the brand may still continue to thrive. However, Bivainiene (2010) admitted that just as in the case of the PLC, the brand life cycle is not a fixed or even necessarily a linear process. He proposed that the stages of the brand life cycle are characterised by the focus area of the brand identity and image development that occurs during each of the traditional stages of the PLC. For example, during the earlier stages, the emphasis is on brand image formation, progressing then to brand awareness and recognition, while at later stages this shifts to longer-term brand awareness and attachment.

It may not appear obvious to apply this life cycle concept to nation brands, and indeed there is nothing in the literature to suggest this link. However, the findings from this study indicate that there are slightly different brand development opportunities or focus areas for different sport mega-event host nations. These differences are linked to the development stage of the nation brand.

Not linked directly to the life cycle concept, Grix (2012) nonetheless observed that the systematic and purposeful leveraging of a sports mega-event to alter a nation's image is easier for states that suffer or have suffered from a poor national image. Similarly, Tomlinson et al. (2011, p.38) proposed that mega-events offer what they term "middle-income countries" an opportunity for national perception development in a quite distinct manner to high-income countries. They referred to the example of the London 2012 Olympics that was presented as an opportunity for urban regeneration rather than for prospective gain to the image of the United

Kingdom. This indicates that opportunities may be different depending on the state of or stage of development of the nation brand, which is very similar to the brand life cycle concept.

The lifecycle stage of the host nation brand may be an influencing factor of the degree to which certain strategic opportunities are realised or leveraged successfully. From the responses of the stakeholders, there were noted differences between emerging and developed nations in terms of the nation branding gains as a result of hosting mega-events. For example, South Africa was a far more lowly rated and known nation compared to some other recent mega-event hosts such as Germany and the United Kingdom. These brands were already well-established, well-known, and well-defined prior to hosting a mega-event. This can be seen in the fact that these nations feature in the top brackets of most nation brand indices. Table 8.1 sets out the top three nation brands according to current rankings and lists the sport mega-events that they have hosted over the past two decades.

Table 8.1: World's top nation brands and their hosting of sport mega-events (post-1990)			
Ranking: (FutureBrand 2014)	Sport mega-events:	Ranking: (GfK Roper 2014)	Sport mega-events:
1. Japan	1991 IAAF World Athletics Championships 1998 Winter Olympic Games 2002 FIFA World Cup 2007 IAAF World Athletics Championships 2019 Rugby World Cup 2020 Olympic Games	1. Germany	1993 IAAF World Athletics Championships 2006 FIFA World Cup 2009 IAAF World Athletics Championships
2. Switzerland	2008 UEFA EURO Football	2. USA	1994 FIFA World Cup 1996 Olympic Games 2002 Winter Olympic Games
3. Germany	1993 IAAF World Athletics Championships 2006 FIFA World Cup 2009 IAAF World Athletics Championships	3. UK	1996 UEFA EURO Football 2002 Commonwealth Games 2012 Olympic Games 2014 Commonwealth Games

			2017 IAAF World Athletics Championships
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It is interesting to note that this small number of nations have hosted so many of the recent sport mega-events. However, for these brands, it appears that their branding aims from hosting their respective mega-events were more related to re-positioning, revitalising or re-enforcing their brand image. In contrast, South Africa was relatively unknown, associated with incorrect or outdated, stereotyped or even amalgamated negative continental brand images. At this earlier stage of brand development, it is not surprising that the nation would expect to focus on achieving greater awareness and knowledge of the nation, correcting the incorrect perceptions and establishing a global competitive positioning.

It is also useful to consider the life cycle of the event in this discussion. One expert raised a few of the hosting challenges currently being experienced by mega-event rights holders. This is especially pertinent given the small number of cities (two) currently bidding for the 2022 Winter Olympic Games and the number of cities that pulled out of the process due to expected hosting costs or lack of public support. The respondent claims that emerging nations are being viewed more favourably as host nations by rights holders seeking to engage new markets for the sports and for the sponsors, as well as finding host nations that are willing to invest in the event and its hosting requirements. This may be partly the result of these events reaching a level of maturity among the developed nations. This also confirms the co-branding benefits that exist for the rights holders and also why the consideration of the 'fit' between the event and the host nation brands is important. The following quotation explains this scenario:

“Developing nations (or possibly South Africa is rather an ‘emerging’ nation) are the ones that have the capital to make these things work. They are the ones that are really driving the sports hosting agenda, because the rights holders are facing many challenges right now. Many cities can’t afford to host events. Where do they take their events next? Many sports have a declining appeal especially among young people and they don’t have the investment coming in. Sponsors want to get access to new markets. So it’s the emerging nations that are capital rich that are in the driving seat right now. The examples from FIFA and the IOC are very clear: the 2016 Olympics will be in Rio, the 2018 winter Olympics will go to South Korea. They are exploring new markets, new territories to give those events access to new sets of fans that will help grow those events further. Sponsors will naturally be attracted to those markets and those sports will be able to grow with more people taking part. FIFA 2010 South Africa, 2014 Brazil, 2018 Russia and 2022 Qatar – they’re all going to new markets. Ones that have the ability to host, but also they help the rights holders grow their own asset” (R14).

Although the application of the brand life cycle is not as easily applied to nations, there is a continual ebb and flow of nation brand equity that sees countries enter different stages of development or maturity of their brand. Based on the findings of this study, the writer proposes that different brand benefits from hosting a sport mega-event may be enjoyed by nations

depending on the development stage of their brand. Similarly, brand benefits for the rights holders also vary according to the development stage of the host nation brand (a co-brand) and also the life cycle of the event within a particular market.

8.8 Summary

This chapter examined the central feature of the proposed conceptual framework, revealing the strategic branding opportunities created by a sport mega-event for a host nation. The chapter identified the branding opportunities created by sport mega-events at each of the developmental phases of the adapted CBBE model for nation brands. Beyond the familiar 'awareness' and 'image'-related opportunities commonly referred to in event impact studies, the chapter extends the application of branding theory to nation branding as it applies a number of contemporary strategic branding elements to the context of nation branding and sport mega-events. Firstly though, brand salience was confirmed as a branding opportunity, especially through the positive media exposure and attention generated.

Although the creation or improvement of brand image was certainly confirmed as an important branding opportunity in the case of South Africa, a number of opportunities and elements not previously suggested in the literature were proposed to account for this. For example, the application of co-branding theory to the mega-event context explains the opportunities created for brand image transfer between nation brand, the rights holder/ event brand and the sponsors. The new brand image for the host nation was viewed as a competitive re-positioning for the brand.

A sport mega-event creates significant opportunities for 'co-creation' in the context of nation branding. Through the engagement of both a multiplicity of stakeholders as well as host nation citizens, a new brand identity can be co-created for a nation. The 'experiential branding' theory and its extension, 'brand engagement' theory, are pertinent to the sport mega-event context. A mega-event also creates brand experience opportunities. The importance of this is highlighted, especially within the event tourism industry. Brand engagement, a relatively new brand theory extension, advocates the harnessing of passion and immersion - both naturally occurring elements with the sport event environment - to build brand equity. Beyond loyalty, a mega-event creates opportunities for brand attachment, more emotive and passion-led connection between consumers and places. All of these elements create significant opportunities for the development of brand equity for a nation brand through a sport mega-event. The findings do acknowledge that these opportunities may be different for nations at different stages of their brand development as well as for events at different stages of their life cycles.

However, the opportunities themselves do not lead to positive brand equity without the strategic initiatives of stakeholders. The following chapter now discusses the key mediating factors that determine the degree to which these opportunities can be materialised and sustained, proposing a number of leveraging activities that may sustain a nation branding legacy from sport mega-events.

Chapter Nine: Leveraging & sustaining the strategic nation branding opportunities created by sport mega-events

9.1 Introduction

It is clear from the previous chapter that sport mega-events provide significant strategic nation branding opportunities. However, the effects and benefits from a sport mega-event are not uniform nor are they necessarily positive for every host nation. Although the overall assessment of the nation branding impact of the 2010 event by the stakeholders was very positive, the respondents mentioned a number of leveraging activities undertaken prior to, during and post the event that were believed to have mediated this positive impact.

This chapter therefore integrates the stakeholder responses with the nation branding and sport tourism literature pertaining to legacy and leveraging in order to answer the research question (1c): “How can stakeholders leverage and sustain a nation branding legacy from a sport mega-event for a host nation?” This forms a central component of the proposed framework, depicted as mediating factors that determine the degree to which brand equity is realised through the hosting of a sport mega-event.

Although a noted challenge for nation branding stakeholders in general is a lack of direct control over the brand development process, the stakeholders indicated a number of areas that can be controlled or at least influenced to some degree through the strategic activities of the stakeholders. The chapter firstly rationalises the emphasis on leveraging in the proposed framework by challenging and re-defining the concept of ‘legacy’. It then discusses a cluster of leveraging focus areas, giving examples of specific activities mentioned by respondents, and discusses the implications for future sport mega-event policy and practice.

9.2 Redefining legacy from a stakeholder perspective

The large-scale commitment involved in hosting a mega-event holds an element of high risk for a host nation, but also a high expectation for perceived benefits that would last well after the final whistle had been blown. Beyond event impacts, the focus more recently has turned to creating legacies from sport mega-events (Cornelissen et al. 2011; Chappelet 2012). As Cornelissen (2007, p.248) explained, “Leaving appropriate long-term legacies has become a discourse which has left an indelible mark on the way in which planning for today’s sport mega-events takes shape.” Legacy has therefore become a crucial aspect of sport mega-event planning. Although attempts have been made to categorise legacies (such as the seven types proposed by Cornelissen et al. 2011), the notion of ‘legacy’ remains “multi-faceted and far

reaching” (Chappelet 2012, p.83). With nation branding-related outcomes stated as a key expected legacy from the 2010 FIFA World Cup, this study sought to define the stakeholder understanding of the term ‘legacy’ and compare this to the development of the term in the sport tourism literature.

Although there is not one accepted definition of legacy, Preuss’s (2007, p.211) conceptualisation of a legacy cube and aligned definition is the most widely acknowledged in the literature, 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.”

However, more recent advances in the understanding of legacy, such as the legacy ‘radar’ by Dickson et al. (2011), take into account the need for a flexible framework that facilitates a more dynamic approach and recognition of the temporal and spatial dimensions and ‘costs’.

Chappelet and Junod (2006)’s definition emphasised that legacy “durably transforms the host region in an objectively and subjectively positive or negative way”. The subjectivity of legacy assessment led Chappelet (2012) to later question who is in a position to consider that a particular consequence of a mega-event is in fact a legacy? With host city governance relationships and event management structures noted as among the strongest predictive factors for leaving a positive legacy (Cornelissen et al. 2011), an assessment of these stakeholders’ understanding of the term is justified.

The stakeholder responses add a number of valuable insights to the understanding of legacy that lead the writer to propose an amendment of this definition. The following sections discuss the key aspects highlighted by stakeholders and their implications for the development of the legacy definition.

9.2.1 Legacy can be planned, unplanned or unexpected

The stakeholder responses supported Cornelissen’s (2007) assertion that legacy forms a part of mega-event planning. Among mega-event stakeholders it appears that legacy is a term that is widely referred to and mentioned as part of the planning process. However, in a few instances, stakeholders admitted that even though legacies may have been planned, they were not implemented, as evident in the following quotation:

“We had a whole legacy planned that we never got to. We could have had a better legacy than we ended up with” (R3).

This revealing quotation indicates that the emphasis for realising legacies surely needs to shift from planning to implementation.

The assessment of the stakeholders also reveals that despite planning, some legacies arise that were 'unplanned' or 'unexpected'. The 2010 mega-event stakeholders noted certain unexpected legacies such as: project management skills; stakeholder partnerships; and self-belief or confidence for the host nation citizens. This supports the account of Majumdar (2012) who detailed an 'accidental' legacy for India from the 2010 Delhi Commonwealth Games.

With legacy increasingly used as a justification for mega-event bidding and, in some cases, specifically stated in event bidding documents, there has been an even greater emphasis on legacy planning. Acknowledging that unplanned and unexpected legacies may arise from mega-events, the increased awareness of legacies and their importance has led to a greater degree of legacy planning among stakeholders. However, it is the implementation of these plans that appears to be the greater challenge.

9.2.2 Legacy is positive

While Preuss' definition noted that legacy can be positive or negative, the stakeholders emphasised that legacy needs to be 'positive'. The following quotations from stakeholders reveal this emphasis on the positive:

"Legacy to me means there are some ongoing, sustainable, positive or negative - but you're looking for the positive - impacts...." (R7).

"I always talk about a positive and a negative legacy. Positive legacy is what we were looking for.... So it was about working for positive legacy" (R3).

The second quotation reveals that stakeholder's believe that their planning and actions have the ability to influence a positive legacy outcome. The quotations imply that although negative legacies may occur, no one plans for negative legacy. This positive emphasis is more in line with the definition of Roberts (2004, p.30) than that of Preuss, who stated, "Legacy encapsulates all that is positive about sport events and their ability to create positive change among individuals, communities and other stakeholders".

However, a challenge with legacy is that it can be regarded as a "subjective judgment of value" (Preuss 2007, p.214), especially as in some cases, the same legacy can be perceived as both positive and negative at the same time. Cashman (2006) also raised concern that legacy should not be assumed to be solely positive. He noted that event organising committees in particular tended to assume so, implying that certain stakeholders may have other motivations or influences informing their legacy understanding and assessment. Therefore, although the findings make a case for legacy being positive, the stakeholder reflections need to take into account any possible motivations that the stakeholders may have had in assessing legacy as positive.

9.2.3 Intangible legacies may be plentiful and difficult to measure, but are important

Stakeholders mentioned a number of tangible and intangible legacies achieved through the 2010 mega-event. It appears that stakeholders are quite aware of intangible legacies besides the more commonly cited tangible ones, while some even emphasised the importance of the intangible legacies, as the following quotation notes:

“And then you get the intangible legacies, which I see as perhaps even greater than the tangible ones” (R23).

Cornelissen et al. (2011, p.315) make a distinction between ‘material’, ‘spatial’ and ‘symbolic’ legacies. One stakeholder (R25) also used the terms “software” and “hardware” to label these distinctions. Although they may be plentiful and far more difficult to measure, a definition of legacy should at least affirm that there may be significant intangible benefits accruing to a host community as legacies and these should also be planned for and assessed.

9.2.4 Legacy & ‘sustainability’

There was one word used most often by the stakeholders in their descriptions of legacy that encapsulated their understanding of the term - “sustainability”. Yet, sustainability does not feature in any of the acknowledged definitions. Although the meaning of ‘sustainable’ could also encompass a variety of aspects, the responses indicated that they are referring to an event-related legacy that has on-going, positive benefits that accrue for a local community and impact positively on societal development. One stakeholder substantiated this, specifically explaining how legacy needs to contribute to the three pillars of sustainable development:

“For me legacy has to be understood in a sustainable development approach and that is why we had the three legs of: economic development, social cohesion and environmental integrity. So whatever we did and spent money on needed to pass a consideration to how it contributed to sustainable development” (R3).

This lends credence to Cornelissen et al.’s (2011, p.316) conclusion that noted the importance of integrating triple bottom-line principles into mega-event legacy planning, design and evaluation.

A further aspect linked to the sustainability responses related to the ‘on-going’ nature of the legacy. Stakeholders argued that something should not be regarded as a positive legacy merely because it exists, but rather on the basis of how it is sustained. For example, the fact that a new stadium exists after an event is not a positive legacy in itself. The legacy assessment depends on whether it can be used to benefit the local community through its ‘on-going’ usage after the event, as the following quotation indicates:

“Legacies are great, you can leave a lot of legacies behind, but if you don’t actually sustain it then those are missed opportunities and not positive legacies. A lot depends on how you drive these things forward” (R4).

Sustainability also confers a sense of the passing of time. While there is no clearly understood delineations regarding the time before, during or after an event that legacies can accrue, there is a common understanding that legacy is 'on-going' and derives long-lasting benefits for a host community. A definition of legacy should therefore include some reference to sustainability or indicate that legacy is more than just what remains at the end of an event, but rather how what remains is used, managed or reinforced on an on-going basis, in a way that is sustainable and beneficial to a host community.

9.2.5 From legacy to leveraging

The emphasis on 'sustainability' and the 'on-going', 'positive' nature of planned legacies, has far more in common with the concept of 'leveraging'. Cornelissen et al. (2011) noted that there was still little consensus on the definition of legacy, what it entails and how it should be measured. This inability to define legacy with any precision has resulted in opportunities for individuals and organisations to make inflated claims relating to the lasting impacts of events (Thornley 2012). As a result, some academics are advocating a new focus with an emphasis on 'leveraging' (e.g. Chalip 2004; Weed & Bull 2009; and Jago et al. 2010). Chalip (2004, p.228) defined leveraging as: "the processes through which the benefits of investments are maximised".

Leveraging has a strategic and tactical focus, implying a much more pro-active approach to capitalising on opportunities. The focus on leveraging therefore represents a shift to a more forward-thinking, proactive, strategic approach (Chalip 2004; Smith 2014), explained in the following quotation by Chalip (2004):

"Unlike impact assessments, the study of leverage has a strategic and tactical focus. The objective is to identify strategies and tactics that can be implemented prior to and during an event in order to generate particular outcomes. Consequently, leveraging implies a much more pro-active approach to capitalising on opportunities rather than impacts research which simply measures outcomes" (p.228).

The stakeholder understanding of legacy certainly includes many of these leveraging qualities, as the following quotation highlights:

"Whatever legacy you want to leave behind from a mega-event has to be aligned to your strategic long-term objectives that are set for the country" (R4).

The stakeholders certainly supported the need for a post-event strategy or master plan to leverage the post-event period, or "warm-down strategy" as one respondent named it. More than one stakeholder called for a three-phased approach to leveraging event outcomes, a pre-event strategy, an events strategy and a post-event strategy, as the following quotation explains:

“There should be some sort of a master plan that’s associated with events and the master plan should revolve around the build-up to the event, managing the actual event and the managing of the warm-down strategy” (R19).

Regarding the ‘ownership’ challenge of leveraging, Smith (2014, p.23) asked the question, “Who should design and implement leveraging initiatives?”. He broadly advised that it should be organisations that have expertise (and a long-term stake) in the relevant policy fields to deliver projects. The stakeholder responses proposed a separate committee or group to manage the post-event leveraging period specifically. This lends support to Jago et al.’s (2010) assertion that there is a need for a separate group to the event organising body that is responsible for legacy, as the following quotation explains:

“I think the lesson we have to learn is that when you have a mega-event of this magnitude, to have a dedicated post-event strategy and a post-event team to manage it, because people get so focused on making the event a success that they want to take a holiday after the event. But after the event is when there’s an opportunity to leverage and sustain” (R18).

Besides this ownership challenge, funding is also regarded as a reason for lack of leveraging (Smith 2014). Smith (2014) suggested event sponsors as an alternative source of funding for leverage initiatives. Based on the reflections of the one primary sponsor interviewed, this would certainly appear to be a possibility, especially in the pre-event and event period. The sponsor indicated a number of event-themed activities, often implemented in collaboration with other sponsors. The sponsor also indicated their consideration of event rights owners and host nation priorities and requirements when planning these activities. As such, although there may be fairly generic types of leveraging activities, these are tailored and adapted for each event and host nation taking these considerations into account. For example, the design, colours, imagery and music used in event-related leveraging activities by the sponsor for the 2010 event featured authentic African design and sounds, whereas the following World Cup in Brazil featured very different sets of colours, designs and sounds. Similarly, the formidable challenge of event-related branding restrictions, noted by Smith (2014) as well as many of the 2010 mega-event stakeholders, may be overcome through collaboration between stakeholders, sponsors or other event partners.

There has been little research and assessment of leveraging activities related to mega-events and this remains a challenge and an opportunity for future research. Despite the limited research and the challenges noted, this study has highlighted that the strategic and tactical activities of stakeholders during all three event periods, but most importantly, the post-event period, need to be recognised in a definition of legacy. A fundamental perspective shift from the Preuss definition (and other similar definitions) is that it is not the event itself that automatically creates legacies. It is rather the event stakeholders who do so through their

strategic planning and event-linked activities they undertake, before, during and following the event.

Smith (2014) also explained the difference between event impacts and leveraging, stating that impacts are the 'automatic effects' of event projects, in contrast to outcomes that have been deliberately leveraged by attaching initiatives to events so that they deliver more optimal outcomes. Smith (2014, p.15) further defined leveraging as, "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". A definition that makes reference to the involvement of stakeholders more specifically is therefore recommended. Although it is perhaps to be expected that stakeholders understandings of legacy would be rather more practical, strategic and tactical rather than theoretical, their experiences and reflections are certainly of great importance. The following revised definition of mega-event legacy is therefore proposed:

Legacy refers to the sustained benefits, tangible and intangible, that accrue to and positively aid the on-going development of a host society, usually as a result of strategic stakeholder planning and activities linked to a mega-event.

This section leads the writer to propose that in order for host nations to achieve their desired positive legacies, they should focus on strategic and purposeful leveraging activities. The remainder of this chapter elaborates on the strategic leveraging activities that moderate the nation branding legacy for a host nation as a result of a sport mega-event.

9.3 Key focus areas for leveraging & sustaining nation branding opportunities

Smith (2014, p.16) proposed that sport mega-events be "reconceived as windows of opportunity within which to undertake initiatives". The stakeholders interviewed certainly showed an awareness of mega-events creating opportunities for a number of leveraging activities.

Leveraging includes short-term or 'immediate' activities by event hosts or long-term activities before, during or after the event has taken place. Grix (2012, p.309) described leveraging activities as "systematic and purposeful". While not all of the activities and examples mentioned by the stakeholders reflect a highly systematic or purposeful approach in each instance, they do represent a level of strategic intention. The examples mentioned featured both 'event-led' (specific activities necessitated for the successful operation of the event but also addressing priorities beyond the event, such as infrastructure projects like new airports and transport systems that increase tourism capacity) and 'event-themed' activities (non-essential elements aimed at addressing key priorities, such as business and investment engagement and national pride or social cohesion), as Smith (2014) distinguished. Smith (2014) also noted that leveraging activities vary according to their prominence, and this was

certainly the case in the examples given, that featured larger scale, national campaigns to smaller niche market activities. However, it was not clear overall the degree to which leveraging was central to the event project. This is most likely reflected in the stakeholder assessment of many missed opportunities.

Preuss (2007) asserted that the same mega-event will create a different legacy in different locations, implying that the lessons learned from leveraging strategies may be not be transferable to other mega-event host nations. However, Grix (2012) argued that there are generic means of leveraging legacy that can transcend geographical place and ideological regime type. Grix (2012) observed six means or ‘tactics’ of leveraging that were used to achieve the general legacy aims from the 2006 FIFA World Cup for Germany. Unlike Grix, however, this study has focused only on the activities related to leveraging the nation branding legacy and is not a complete assessment of all leveraging activities undertaken by the LOC or other specific stakeholders. Respondents provided examples that they deemed relevant for the nation branding legacy, often citing examples of activities undertaken by other stakeholders and even compared activities with those of other mega-events. The remainder of this chapter discusses eight focus areas that describe general types of leveraging activities for stakeholders to maximise and sustain the nation branding legacy from a sport mega-event. These focus areas are summarised in Table 9.1.

Table 9.1: Strategic leveraging focus areas
1. Plan beyond an operational success or team performance
2. Leverage the event as a catalyst for sustainable development & transformation
3. Leverage the opportunity to showcase or create iconic brand elements
4. “Host” the media & embrace new media and communication forms
5. Mobilise the internal brand support
6. Create brand experiences & engagement opportunities with event visitors
7. Co-create brand value through stakeholder partnerships
8. Sustain the momentum through future events

9.3.1 Plan beyond an operational success or team performance

The literature does not specifically mention the operational success of an event being a crucial element of perceived brand image success, although it is likely implied in the assessment of an event. Successful sporting performance by a host nation is rather a bigger consideration. Assessments of sport mega-events such as Germany 2006 FIFA World Cup, London 2012 Olympic Games, Brazil 2014 FIFA World Cup, Sochi 2014 Winter Olympic Games and even Delhi 2010 Commonwealth Games all featured the sporting performance of the national team as a key element in national pride stimulation and the overall perceived success of the event. In Germany 2006, the resurgent performance of the national football team was viewed as a key aspect of the overall event success and the degree of national pride experienced by the host citizens. In Brazil 2014, expectations for the highest levels of success of the nation team at the tournament were widely mentioned (e.g. De Onis 2014). However, in the case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the national team performance was of surprisingly little relevance to the national pride and overall perceived success of the event. Only one stakeholder (R3) even mentioned the failure of the host nation team to progress to the second round of the event as a perceived negative aspect of the event, although this comment was not expounded. It is evident that the South African nation team is not on a par with Germany or Brazil in terms previous success and does not garner the levels of support and expectations associated with these teams.

While the performance of a host nation team's success may contribute to a nation branding legacy for some host nations, the South African case reveals that this is not necessarily of paramount importance. Host nations that have historically weaker performing teams or athletes can still benefit from nation branding opportunities through other means. This is of great significance for the upcoming FIFA World Cup host nations of Russia (2018) and Qatar (2022), for example.

What was of far greater consequence to the nation and the stakeholders in this case, was the perceived operational success of the event. The South African stakeholders explained how the focus in the lead up to the event for most stakeholders was on operational success. The stakeholders intuitively realised that an operationally excellent event would translate into positive brand benefits in itself. In their estimation, this would lead to an improved international perception and reputation of "capability" or "showing the world" that the nation had the capacity to deliver such an event (R3). In fact, the nation faced operational questions in the media in the lead up to the event, so it was important to counter these with a successful event. This is a fairly standard criticism in the media relating to mega-event hosts, with similar sentiments and

worries surrounding other mega-events hosts such as Sochi (Winter Olympic Games 2014) and Brazil (FIFA World Cup 2014).

This aspect may be of particular importance to developing nations such as these, where the operational capacity and capability is not taken for granted. In the case of South Africa, the 2010 FIFA World Cup followed the 2006 event hosted by Germany – a country especially renowned for its organisational capacity, efficiency and excellence. The host nation therefore understood that comparisons would be drawn between the two nations and any operational inefficiency would be highlighted. The disastrous effects of an operationally inefficient event can be seen by what occurred in Delhi, the 2010 Commonwealth Games host city, that failed to deliver accommodation and venues on time and received widespread negative media coverage. The resulting negative publicity has the potential to outweigh the positive publicity emanating from an event as it may reinforce negative perceptions of a host nation's capability.

The operational success also delivers brand messages to a number of important groups, such as investors, business and tourism. Although it appears a fairly self-evident statement, the primary strategic focus for stakeholders during a mega-event is to ensure an operationally successful event. This is the starting point for further leveraging of other brand legacies. However, this focus in many instances was noted as a detriment to the planning and implementation of legacy projects. The stakeholders raised concern regarding an over-emphasis on operational success at the expense of post-event legacy and leveraging planning needs to be heeded. This over-emphasis affects the degree of planning and implementing leveraging activities before, during and, most especially, post the event. A useful recommendation made by two of the stakeholders was to view the event planning process as three distinct parts all of equal importance, namely the pre-event, during and post-event periods. Each of these periods requires adequate planning, budgeting and staffing to ensure that the opportunities are leveraged most effectively.

9.3.2 Leverage the event as a catalyst for sustainable development & transformation

The legacy literature cites examples of mega-events used as catalysts for urban regeneration and event-linked or -themed sustainable development projects (e.g. Turco et al. 2002; Hiller 2003; Kasimati 2003). Although these studies did not specifically link this aspect with nation branding, Tomlinson et al. (2011, p.38) cited the example of the London 2012 Olympic Games that was presented as an opportunity for urban regeneration in London's East End, that was linked with improving the city's brand image. A host nation generally embarks on a number of related capital development projects in order to facilitate the event operations (such as new stadia), enhance the spectator experience (such as transportation improvements and urban regeneration projects), facilitate the anticipated increase in numbers of tourists (such as

airports, hotels and tourism services) and facilitate the media requirements (such as broadcast centres and technology investment). All of these have the potential to signal or reinforce the nation's capability and enhance its national reputation.

In relation to legacy planning, Cornelissen et al. (2011) encouraged the integration of triple bottom line considerations. Similarly, one of the stakeholders specifically mentioned that legacy projects were planned within a sustainable development context, aimed at assisting economic development, social cohesion and environmental integrity. Other respondents cited the examples of Sydney, Athens and Barcelona to explain the importance of sustainable development projects. The event-related developments in Sydney and Athens were viewed as unsustainable as they were not being utilised effectively post the event and had not contributed to urban transformation or development in any significant manner. Barcelona however was viewed as a city that utilised the event platform for developments that assisted with the brand image transformation for the city and revitalisation of its tourism appeal.

The stakeholders' experiences confirmed that a mega-event's perceived success and nation branding impact is in large part attributed to the event-linked urban development projects, especially those aimed at improving crucial areas of urban and tourism infrastructure. Besides the stadia, private and public entities in the host cities and provinces invested heavily in building facilities and infrastructure or in urban rejuvenation projects. For example, stakeholders mentioned that significant airport upgrades were made for Johannesburg and Cape Town international airports while a completely new international airport was built for Durban, among other major and minor renovations to domestic terminals around the country. Other transportation projects mentioned include the 'Gautrain' (a sophisticated new rail service in the Johannesburg and Pretoria urban area) and the launch of a new Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) transportation network and upgraded main rail terminal in the city centre of Cape Town. In both Cape Town and Durban, the areas from the fan park to the stadium precinct received an urban regeneration facelift. While many of these projects were public sector funded, there were also examples of private sector developments linked to the event. In Cape Town alone, five new five-star hotels were built in the lead up to the event – a significant boost to high-end tourist accommodation.

All of these developments were mentioned as contributing to the tourism, investment and overall nation branding legacy for the host nation. However, not all of these examples have been positively sustained post the event, with some of the new stadia mentioned as particularly worrying examples of this. Some cities were mentioned as having leveraged the event opportunity more effectively than others. For example, Durban was mentioned as an example where the event-linked development and regeneration provided a boost to the city's tourism

reputation. The stadium in Cape Town was mentioned as one that is not being utilised effectively enough and therefore not considered a sustainable legacy at the time of this study.

The stadia built for an event often come under heightened criticism for their unsustainable use post the event. One stakeholder mentioned that there was a perception that two of the major stadiums built for the mega-event in Johannesburg and Cape Town were considered 'white elephants' (R23). Sustaining the stadia is therefore an important part of the event leveraging. This relates to economic viability of the stadia as well as their other potential usage and benefit for the host city. Examples of more effective post-event leveraging of stadia were given, such as: linking with multi-purpose, commercial activities, e.g. the stadium in Durban that features a bungee-jump, retail and restaurant attractions and has hosted a variety of other sport and charity-linked events. Beyond this, the stadia can also be leveraged as key domestic and international tourist attractions in their own right, forming part of the destination branding mix of the host cities. A stakeholder alluded to the challenge of leveraging the stadia, urging stakeholders to "think outside the box" with regards to the leveraging activities that can be undertaken (R23).

A further criticism of mega-events is that they focus development in one particular area of a nation at the expense of others or that the benefits from an event only reach the largest urban centres. However, a stakeholder from a smaller host city confirmed that the Mbombela municipal area (Nelspruit) benefited significantly from infrastructural development projects such as a new stadium, road and transport improvements and other tourism services developments.

Although there were many more similar examples of infrastructure and urban development projects linked to the mega-event, all of these projects and activities were mentioned as adding to the perceived success of the event, enhancing the nation's international reputation and improving the event tourist's experience, thus positively impacting the nation brand. Investments in event-related infrastructure developments have the potential to provide an enabling environment not only for the particular purpose for which they were built, but also for the host community, its businesses, tourists and investors to benefit from, and possibly for the hosting of future large-scale events. If planned, built and managed in a sustainable manner, these developments create positive leveraging opportunities for nation branding. It is advised that these leveraging activities be considered within a sustainable development framework that considers the nation's strategic developmental objectives.

9.3.3 Showcase or create iconic brand elements

The mega-event creates opportunities to showcase brand-related icons. Stakeholders mentioned each of the following examples of brand elements that were showcased through the

event, namely: physical urban iconic development (e.g. the new stadia and urban scenes during event broadcasts), geographic icons (e.g. the BBC media centre featured the natural backdrop of Table Mountain prominently in its media coverage from the city of Cape Town), cultural icons (e.g. national history and dance showcased during the opening ceremony) and even political or celebrity icons (e.g. Nelson Mandela paraded at the closing ceremony). Similarly, experts involved in the London 2012 Olympic Games explained how they showcased existing cultural or historical design icons through the sport event, for example, using the Horse Guard's Parade as the backdrop for the beach volleyball competition and Buckingham Palace as the backdrop for the start and/ or ending points of a number of events such as the marathon, walk and triathlon. Importantly, these were all strategic decisions made by stakeholders in order to leverage the iconic showcasing potential of the sport mega-event.

Relating to the infrastructure and regeneration projects linked to the event, the respondents mentioned that it is not merely the creation of these tangible structures that added to the nation brand reputation and image development, but most importantly, the design, aesthetic and iconographic elements of these developments. In the case of South Africa, the new stadia constructed for the event featured eye-catching iconic designs that stakeholders believed had enhanced rather than detracted from the cities' skylines. There is also perhaps a link between the design elements and brand authenticity. In some cases these designs were seen to be authentically African design feats, such as the Mbombela Stadium in Nelspruit that features giraffe-resembling supporting structures and zebra-striped spectator seating and the Soccer City stadium in Soweto, Johannesburg, that was modeled on an African '*calabash*', a type of traditional wooden bowl.

Montana et al. (2007) argued that design can be successfully used as a competitive differentiating factor for brands. Although this has been more evident for consumer brands, it is proposed that it also applies to nation branding. With a sport mega-event generally resulting in multiple infrastructure construction or renovation projects, there is an opportunity to consider design as a branding element. Not all host nations have necessarily considered the benefits of iconic design in their event-related projects. The stakeholders cited Brazil as an example of a host nation that did not appear to be considering the importance of authentic or iconic design in the construction and renovation of the event stadia. However, the South African case certainly emphasises the role of showcasing authentic design and iconography as an important element that can be leveraged for nation branding benefits through a sport mega-event.

In some cases, there may be little direct control that a stakeholder might have in terms of showcasing iconography. In this case stakeholders might need to rather encourage the

showcasing of certain iconic elements. This leads directly to the following section that looks at the stakeholders' role in managing the media more specifically.

9.3.4 'Host' the media & embrace new media

The importance of the media's role in the nation branding legacy for the nation was evident in the stakeholders' responses. The role of the global media emerged as one of the central themes during the analysis. This also supports the number of mega-event impact studies that focus on the media coverage of the event by conducting content analysis studies. While the sport mega-event presents enormous opportunities for global brand exposure through the event-related media coverage, brand stakeholders usually have very little control over this coverage. Positive media coverage is never a certainty. Stereotyping or reinforcing of negative brand attributes may even be amplified.

Certainly in the lead up to a mega-event, negative media publicity seems to be a fairly common occurrence for a host nation. In Beijing (2008 Olympic Games host), the media focus was on security fears and the human rights abuses across the Chinese nation. This reached a high point during the Olympic Torch relay event pre-ceding the start of the Games. For Delhi (2010 Commonwealth Games host) the western media was noted as being particularly scathing in its criticism of the city's preparedness as well as widespread corruption surrounding the event (Mishra 2013). In London, the media scrutinised the costs of the event and reflected a perceived apathy or lack of support from the local population. For Sochi (2014 Winter Olympic Games host) the media was similarly critical in the build up to the event. For Brazil 2014, the media constantly highlighted the lack of preparedness by organisers and the social protests surrounding the event, especially during the Confederations Cup (prelude event to the FIFA World Cup) in 2013.

It is perhaps not surprising then that in South Africa, the stakeholders mentioned that negative media reports predominated in the lead up to the event. In this case, the reports related to safety and security issues as well as 'readiness'. One stakeholder even referred to this as "lies", and mentions his surprise at the negativity even from a reputable global media house (R9). However, in a number of these instances, especially true of the South African case, the media became far more positive during and after the event. While this increased positivity may not be entirely unexpected as the media focus more substantively on the event and the sporting achievements, it is not a certainty for every event host. The stakeholders and experts interviewed gave some insights as to how South Africa and the United Kingdom took several actions that aimed to address media concerns and promote more authentic reporting for the 2010 FIFA World Cup and London Olympic Games.

For both of these mega-events, there was a deliberate strategy and actions taken to “host” the media. For example, for the 2010 event, key media representatives were taken on a tour of the host nation the year preceding the event in order to show them a more authentic view of the nation and the extent of the preparations and facilities for the event. It was also a chance for the media to familiarise themselves with the nation before they came back for the actual event. During the event period, some of the host cities created media centres, separate from the official FIFA media and broadcasting centres. These were to allow accredited and, more especially, non-accredited media persons a place to base themselves during the event, where they would have access to an office area, information and interviews pertaining to the event and the tourist destination and in some cases, special offers and excursions for media representatives.

In London, during the Olympic Games, a similar centre was established to host the unaccredited media. These actions by the stakeholders were deemed of great importance in establishing and maintaining positive media relations and facilitating more authentic and meaningful media reporting among a highly influential target group. On the basis of the experience from both of these mega-events, it appears that hosting the media is a very important area to be leveraged, especially before and during the event. There were no examples given of similar or related activities post the event period however.

Besides the traditional media impact, stakeholders should be aware of leveraging activities through the increasing importance of new media and social media related to the sport mega-event. However, stakeholders need to be aware that the challenge of a lack of direct control over the media imagery is even greater when it comes to the new media forms. Despite this, stakeholders indicated that there are significant leveraging opportunities for nation brand stakeholders if they embrace these new media formats. Although the rate of change and progress for new media is rapid, meaning that the environment has changed significantly even since 2010, there are still some lessons to be learnt from the stakeholders interviewed.

At the time of the 2010 event, the opening ceremony and opening match of the tournament was mentioned as the largest social media event in history. This indicates the extent of the global interest in sport and sport mega-events as evidenced by new and social media trends. Respondents mentioned ‘Facebook’ and ‘Twitter’ as the two most utilised social media platforms globally. The travelling fans also made extensive use of such platforms. Advances in mobile telecommunications technology have made it easier and very accessible for travellers to connect and upload digital content as they travel. An example was mentioned of one of the 2010 event sponsors that is a national cellular communications provider. This company provided travelling fans with special data packages that took into account their social

media needs. Stakeholders need to realise the potential of the sport event visitors to acts as brand ambassadors through the use of their own user-generated content uploads and social network commentary. Stakeholders are therefore encouraged to make use of websites and social media tools to encourage and facilitate this important communication and engagement mechanism among travelling fans as well as international fans.

There are also great numbers of unaccredited media representing a diverse array of media forms, such as “bloggers” and social media website “journalists” who cover sport mega-events. These media members are usually not catered for through traditional media hosting mechanisms. From the experiences of both 2010 and 2012 brand stakeholders, it is clear that there needs to be a management plan to cater for and host the new media forms as well as the traditional media representatives. One of the ways that the stakeholders mentioned was to make sure that unaccredited media are given access to destination information, office and technology resources and interviews/ press conferences that usually are only available for the accredited and more traditional media representatives.

Post the event, stakeholders need to consider leveraging activities that stimulate ongoing, positive media exposure for the nation brand. This was described as “just as important as the positive publicity received during the tournament,” and that “building on the momentum” that the World Cup provided was vital (R5).

9.3.5 Mobilise the internal brand support

Corporate branding has realised the importance of internal branding for some time already. While most of the branding literature takes an external perspective, Keller (2008, p.125) argued that internal branding has become “a critical management priority”. Companies seeking to position their brand internally encourage their employees to “live the brand” and embody the corporate culture of their workplace. Perhaps lessons could be taken from the corporate branding environment for nation brand stakeholders, such as “engaging in continual open dialogue” (Keller 2008, p.125) with the internal audience. In the case of nation branding, this internal audience refers to the host nation citizens.

Two previous studies have noted the importance of the support of the host community/ residents/ citizens for destinations seeking to benefit from sport events. Jago et al. (2003) developed a conceptual framework for the use of special events within destination branding, emphasising ‘community support’ as one of three essential factors. Similarly, using this framework to analyse the impact of the 2010 Shanghai Expo on the destination brand, Yu et al. (2012) found that in particular, local support for the event was an important and integral part of both the event and host destination brands.

Support from the local population cannot be taken for granted, nor can it be directly controlled or manipulated by stakeholders. One only has to observe the environment in Brazil in the lead up to the 2014 FIFA World Cup to realise the importance of this aspect for the nation brand. Protests, and in some cases violent and disruptive riots, by local residents, related to local corruption and a lack of service delivery, marred the 2013 Confederations Cup event and the build up to the 2014 mega-event. This was widely reported in the media and there was a concern that many potential visitors to the event would be dissuaded from travelling as a result (De Onis 2014).

The stakeholder responses in this investigation certainly confirm these studies. The perceived success of the event is in large part attributed to the widespread and passionate support for the event by the local population. The respondents described this support manifesting in a number of ways, such as: national pride; wearing the national colours or national team's football shirt; large crowds of local population filling the fan parks and stadium; and even support for other national teams after the host team had exited the tournament. The support also translated into a friendly, welcoming environment for visitors and portrayed an exuberant, happy population through the media broadcast. The support for the event by local citizens therefore emerged as a key element influencing the nation branding impact of the event.

Although stakeholders don't have a great deal of control or influence over the degree of support shown by the local citizens, they mentioned a number of activities and campaigns that were implemented in the lead up to the event that were designed to activate and mobilise support, enthusiasm and national pride among the residents. Campaigns were mentioned such as 'Football Friday', that promoted the wearing of the national team shirt on Fridays, and the 'Diski Dance', that encouraged residents to learn a new dance in support of the event. These campaigns were widely regarded as very successful in mobilising support and enthusiasm for the event and creating a measure of social cohesion among the citizens even before the event began.

An important part of mobilising the internal support was mentioned as effective 'communication'. A number of respondents mentioned this, noting the need to clearly communicate the gains for the nation from the mega-event and thus educate local citizens and all stakeholders involved so that they understand the benefits from hosting events and therefore are more supportive of future events and bids. The need for communication or even community education around the benefits of events is emphasised in the following quotation:

"There's a need for education and why events are important.... There needs to be a lot more community education around how events can actually benefit the community at large" (R19).

The findings from this study reaffirm the importance of the citizen's support for an event's perceived success and the value that it adds to the nation brand image. Furthermore, the findings advocate a deliberate and strategic approach to mobilising or activating the support of the local population, coupled with effective communication and education about the benefits of events.

9.3.6 Create brand experiences & engagement opportunities with event visitors

It is argued that a positive tourist experience during the event period is closely linked to a positive nation brand experience and the subsequent enhancement of brand image. The degree to which positive event-related tourist experiences are created, managed and sustained for visitors has the potential to mediate the brand benefits from the mega-event. While the opportunity that the event creates for a nation brand experience has already been discussed in the previous chapter, this chapter highlights the activities that can leverage this opportunity.

Referring to the visitor experience, one stakeholder mentioned that during the event, "Everywhere you went people were having a good time" (R18). It was not just by chance that the experience was 'everywhere'. The rights holders worked together with the event management and host cities to create areas outside of the stadia for tourists and locals to enjoy the event experience in a more controlled manner. The official FIFA Fan Fests (fan parks) in each host city became places associated with the event experience, featuring live screenings of the matches combined with entertainment, food and beverages and other activities and experiences offered by official sponsors. The City of Cape Town extended the event experience further by creating a 'Fan Walk' (see Figure 4.2) that linked the fan park to the stadium and also to the main transportation hubs and prime tourist attractions in the vicinity. Essentially, the city created a 2,4km route for the fans, tourists and locals, that combined walkways, footbridges and major roads (that were pedestrianised on match days) and were filled with a series of organised events, street performers and vendors. The combined result was "a spectacle of colour and spirit" that became a feature of the event experience in Cape Town in its own right (R10). Stressing the importance of these experiential spaces, Respondent Ten noted that more people experienced the event through the fan park and fan walk (580,000 people) in Cape Town than through being in the stadium (506,000). These spaces extended the event experience and created innovative ways to experience the inner city.

There were examples given by stakeholders of activities that aimed to extend the positive event experience to other parts of the world. For example, FIFA set up official fan parks in cities across the world, including Tokyo, Sydney, Mexico City, Rio, Los Angeles, London, Paris and Akrah. These fan parks not only conveyed the images of the host nation and the event but also aimed to capture and replicate the South African experience more tangibly. The national

tourism authority viewed this as an opportunity to leverage the nation brand and used these fan parks to further convey tourism promotion messages. Similarly, the nation brand authority also leveraged international opportunities creating event viewing and cultural experiences to gather business leaders and international investors.

The stakeholders also mentioned the importance of non event-specific tourism infrastructure and services as crucial to the tourist experience. Hotels and accommodation, public transport, airports and the availability of other tourist offerings and attractions (such as safari's) are all noted as part of this experience. Stakeholders confirmed that although the sport tourists may be in the nation primarily for the event, they are also interested in other more usual tourist activities and attractions. One stakeholder described these activities as the "mix of experiences" that forms a destination "package" (R3).

Apart from getting the destination package or mix of experiences correct for the desired market, from a broader nation branding perspective, the experiences of the visitors and local residents need to be aligned with what one stakeholder refers to as the "controlled story" of the brand (R11). This follows the established service quality marketing theory that urges brand managers to narrow the 'gaps' that can exist between the communication by the brand that creates the service expectations and the perceived experiences of the consumers. It also relates to the discussion on 'authenticity' previously, with the need to ensure authentic experiences. The stakeholders described the event tourism experience in terms of creating greater "connection" and fostering higher levels of "emotional attachment" with the nation brand, terms consistent with the experiential branding theory.

Stakeholders are therefore urged to leverage the opportunities created for greater experiences linked to the nation brand. This may be related to event experiences but also to more traditional tourist experiences. At each opportunity, tourism stakeholders in particular should seek to create tourism experiences that foster greater connection and emotional attachment between the visitors and the nation brand.

Furthermore, stakeholders made reference to a missed leveraging opportunity by South Africa to follow up with the tourists who came to the country, especially those who were from non-traditional or different niche markets to the traditional tourist market. The profile of the 2010 event visitor was quite different from the traditional South African tourist. Accordingly, the event was described as creating an opportunity to leverage new tourism markets. The respondents therefore urged future event stakeholders to engage with the fans that visit, especially post the event. Examples of ways in which this could be done were cited as: creative strategies for fan engagement; the use of social media; and traditional campaigns. All of these means should be used to communicate the success of the event to these visitors in order to entice them to revisit

the nation, to encourage others to visit; and overall, to become brand ambassadors for the nation.

9.3.7 Co-create brand value through stakeholder partnerships

The 'leadership' challenge was noted as one of the key challenges for nation branding stakeholders. The question of ownership and power in terms of influencing and directing the nation brand is a significant one. While a sport mega-event will not resolve these major issues, the context provides significant opportunities for brand stakeholder partnerships that are able to co-create brand value.

A sports mega-event brings together a large and diverse group of stakeholders who have to work together more closely and with similar goals and deadlines. A number of stakeholders referred to the working relationship with other stakeholders as 'partnerships'. This indicates a close association between the entities, in order to achieve a set of common goals related to the opportunities created by the event. One stakeholder emphasised the importance of partnerships between different parties, insisting that his organisation looks for opportunities to partner with the rights holder, sponsors and the local organisers or host cities as they realise the potential of co-creating brand value:

"Wherever there is opportunity for relationship we try build each other up" (R27).

The stakeholders mentioned the improvement of relationships between private and public sectors, as well as the improved co-operation between different government levels and departments. While many of the partnerships may be of a more temporary nature, such as that of the LOC and event sponsors with local organisers, many may be of longer-term value to the nation brand, such as public and private sector organisations or departments related to tourism services and promotion, nation, destination or regional brand promotion, sport event management, business promotion, city management and facility management. In some instances, stakeholders noted difficulties and challenges working with different stakeholders, although these initial challenges were said to have improved over time, to a point where stakeholders expressed an intention for these partnerships to be sustained. In some instances, where there was initial conflict, a stakeholder needed to indicate how the cooperation between the parties would result in benefits for both. In this way, nation branding opportunities were leveraged through 'co-creation' between stakeholders.

An example was also given of different stakeholders collectively partnering to form an umbrella brand to achieve similar outcomes, in this case broadly leveraging the event opportunity to engage with the business and investment industry. This partnership was so

successful that it has continued to operate the umbrella brand at other sport mega-events post 2010.

Co-branding (as discussed in the previous chapter) is an explicit and close form of stakeholder partnership. Based on the evidence of this study, it is argued that the relationship between the host nation and cities and the rights holders also be considered a co-branding association, bestowing mutually beneficial rights to each party to maximise the leveraging opportunities associated with each. For example, the event rights holders (FIFA) created a set of strict legal guidelines and regulations for the use of event trademarks by anyone other than event sponsors. This created tension with national, regional and local government departments who wanted to leverage the association between the nation and the event. However, when mutually beneficial outcomes were pointed out to FIFA, some of these regulations were relaxed. The following abbreviated quotation highlights this mutually beneficial partnership that developed between FIFA and a tourism destination brand stakeholder over time:

“But then they began to understand that we were actually helping them. We were not just promoting South Africa, we were promoting their brand, promoting the World Cup. ... We had a lot of benefits from our relationship with FIFA. ... They loved our campaigns. They supported our campaigns wherever they could. ... They understood it was in their best interest to work with us” (R4).

The 2010 stakeholders therefore encouraged better and earlier communication and negotiation between such parties in the lead up to future mega-events in order to establish a relationship based on trust between the parties. Negotiating or establishing a co-branding relationship or even coming to an understanding of the co-creation of mutual value for the different stakeholder entities is therefore a crucial element of the leveraging process.

An expert with experience from the London 2012 Olympic Games mentioned that although there were limitations to their use of IOC intellectual property, “there are ways of working with the system, not around it” (R12). The respondent also gave examples of how they were able to leverage co-branding opportunities, from the use of logo’s on business cards, to partnerships with event sponsors:

“We have an IOC host-country license. It goes on our business cards. It’s been very useful to open doors with broadcasters and saying we’re part of the Olympic family.... We’ve also got an alliance with one of the main Olympic sponsors [named]. By having a marketing partnership with them we can use their Olympic rights. We can push our message out to their customers. It extends our reach” (R12).

While many of these relationships may be of a temporary nature for the purpose of the specific event, they may lead to opportunities to sustain the positive relationships through further co-branding or co-creation opportunities or through the hosting of future events, as proposed in the following section.

9.3.8 Sustain the momentum through future events

There was emphatic agreement among the stakeholders that the positive experience of the 2010 mega-event should be sustained through the hosting of future events. While the type and scale of the event was not agreed upon, stakeholders indicated this as one of the key ways to leverage the nation branding legacy. The confidence gained through hosting a successful mega-event, the knowledge and skills developed as well as the infrastructure and the event planning in place were all reasons for this support. The success of the 2010 event was seen as enhancing the appeal of the nation as a host of future events, with one stakeholder referring to the “blueprint” for a future mega-event already being in place (R9).

The specific types of events that would best suit the leveraging interests was a far more contentious issue. There was a great deal of support among stakeholders for the future bidding and hosting of sport mega-events in South Africa. A future Olympic Games bid was mentioned by a number of stakeholders, possibly as it has previously been considered by the national government. Cape Town bid unsuccessfully for the 2004 Olympic Games, and at the time of this study, there were media reports relating to government support for a national bid for the 2024 Olympic Games. However, there were also a number who were not in support of such a bid in the immediate future. These respondents urged for the building of capacity for a multi-sport mega-event bid first, through the hosting of a range of other smaller sport events, perceived as “building blocks” towards a larger-scale event (R4). To this effect, stakeholders referred to such other events as: Youth Games; IAAF World Athletics Championships; and Commonwealth Games (for which a bid for the 2022 edition has been submitted).

The timing of such a future mega-event bid is also important. An interesting response from one stakeholder indicated that it might not be in the best interests of stakeholders to host the biggest mega-events in a short space of time. The case of Brazil hosting the 2014 FIFA World Cup and 2016 Olympic Games was given as an example of what the stakeholder would not support, noting, “It helps to have [these mega-events] a little bit spread out” (R5). This also indicates an acknowledgement of the role of mega-events in sustainable development.

Besides mega-events, stakeholders were also in support of a range of other, smaller scale events, advocating “a good portfolio of small to medium range events” that could be as profitable and as successful as a bigger event (R10). There was support for “smaller, regular, local [home-grown] sporting events”, especially as this was viewed as a means of not having to deal with strict rules imposed by international governing bodies and rights holders such as FIFA. These types of events were also described as more easily managed and very importantly, perceived as more “sustainable” (R17). There was also support for hosting a range of smaller scale, regularly occurring events as these involve lower hosting costs and provide more niche

benefits that can be leveraged for special interest markets. The following quotation extract emphasises this viewpoint:

“We need to be careful we don’t get hung up on mega-events as being the sole solution.... Maybe there are a lot of smaller events that we can get on a regular basis that are not so cost intensive, that we can leverage, and where we can really target the special interest market” (R18).

Non-sport events, mega in scale or of a smaller scale, were also included in the types of events that could be hosted to leverage the 2010 legacy. Even seemingly unrelated events, such as Cape Town’s bid for the ‘World Design Capital’ in 2014, that features a large number of mostly non-sport events, conferences and exhibitions throughout the year, was perceived as a means of leveraging the improved nation brand image post 2010. Similarly, international conventions and conferences were also mentioned as potential leveraging opportunities. Stakeholders should therefore not feel restricted to sport events in order to leverage mega-event legacy.

A useful recommendation made by the stakeholders was the call for a national events strategy to manage and carefully leverage the post-2010 period. Such a strategy should include a number of stakeholders that collectively decide upon the events that are beneficial for the nation and the objectives for each event that is hosted. A challenge with this approach was noted as defining and gathering the correct key stakeholders in this process, defining their roles within the process and combining collaborative bids. A further challenge was also mentioned as competition between different host cities post-2010, with this a particular challenge for cities and regions wanting to leverage the gains from a collectively successful, national event. For example, an Olympic Games bid needs to be made by a city and not the nation as a whole, as in the case of the FIFA World Cup.

The overall emphasis on a portfolio of events in the post mega-event period in order to sustain the legacies should be noted. This emphasis also affirms the literature that highlights the importance of a portfolio of events in the establishment of a destination or place brand (e.g. Brown et al. 2002; Chalip & Costa 2005; Westerbeek & Linley 2012). One of the stakeholders specifically highlighted the need for an events portfolio as part of leveraging the nation branding legacy, using the example of Barcelona following the 1992 Olympic Games:

“We need to build on the success of this World Cup. What happened in Barcelona, for example, after the ‘92 Olympics? The Olympics creates a platform for you to start growing your events industry. Barcelona is where they are today because they aggressively went after events. ... It is important, as an industry, that we need to start lobbying Government to play a more active role in growing the events Industry” (R4).

More broadly, the future events do not necessarily need to take place in the original host country to be useful as post-event leveraging opportunities. Stakeholder responses mentioned a programme called ‘*iKhaya*’ as well as a tourism road show that were based around sport

mega-events in 2011 and 2012. The business promotion umbrella brand 'Connected Cape Town' was also planning to leverage events held internationally, based on the Australian Business Club model that has arranged similar leveraging activities since the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games. It's therefore evident that future events, of varying scale, type and even location, can provide useful leveraging opportunities and help to extend and sustain the nation branding legacy post the event.

9.4 Summary

Of the three chapters that discuss the findings of the study and highlight their relevance, importance and contribution to knowledge, this chapter raised the most practical examples for brand and event stakeholders. Legacy is an imperative for all stakeholders, but the study has revealed that while it may form part of the planning processes, it is the implementation and sustainability of these plans, especially in the post-event period, that are most neglected. Important suggestions by stakeholders concurred with the literature in this regard, as they emphasised the need for a three-phase legacy planning process, and empowering a separate team and budget to manage legacy in the post-event period.

The definition of legacy was challenged too, especially as established definitions fail to take into account the effect of the strategic actions of stakeholders in the creation of positive, sustainable and enduring legacy. The stakeholders' understanding of legacy had more in common with the concept of leveraging. The chapter therefore identified eight generalised focus areas for stakeholders to leverage the nation branding legacy from a sport mega-event. Some of these key areas have a relation to certain aspects of existing knowledge, although in most cases, the synthesis of the theoretical underpinning with the practical examples given by the stakeholders represents a new contribution to the sport mega-event legacy literature. Throughout the chapter, the mediating role of strategic stakeholder activities was emphasised. A positive nation branding legacy for a mega-event host nation is not a certainty. It is influenced, created and sustained through purposeful and planned strategic stakeholder involvement.

The following, final chapter concludes this thesis, reflecting on the work presented, emphasising the contribution of the findings to the broader body of knowledge and making recommendations for future research in this field.

Chapter Ten: Conclusion

10.1 Introduction

This thesis began by indicating the gaps in the literature pertaining to the emerging study area of nation branding and setting it in the context of sport mega-events. Nation branding and sport tourism literature was reviewed to identify the most recent advances within these fields that could assist in the conceptualisation of a framework for this study. With no standard methodological approach for such a study, the researcher chose 'mixed methods' to account for the different study areas and as the most appropriate means to answer the research questions. The findings were set out and then discussed in the context of the literature to propose a model for conceptualising and leveraging the strategic contribution of sport mega-events to nation branding for a host country. This final chapter reviews the study aims and highlights the key findings and their contribution to knowledge and practice, while acknowledging some limitations and recommending future extensions to this research area. The chapter concludes with a critical reflection of the study as a whole.

10.2 Revisiting the research question, aim of the study & the methods used

Although there has more recently been an increase in the literature pertaining to nation branding, it remains an emerging and contested discourse at the convergence of diverse fields such as business management, tourism, social and political sciences. Sport mega-events have previously been associated with some degree of brand-related benefits for the host nation. However, there have been no studies that have clearly revealed the nation branding opportunities created by a sport mega-event or investigated the impact of these opportunities on the development of brand equity for a nation. Furthermore, no studies have examined the inherent characteristics of a sport mega-event that create such opportunities. The contemporary emphasis on the ability of sport mega-events to deliver legacies also raised the question of how nation branding benefits can be sustained post an event. While sport mega-event leveraging studies have begun to emerge, none of these has focused on the manner in which brand stakeholders can leverage and sustain nation branding opportunities specifically.

The primary research question of this study was therefore defined as: 'What is the strategic contribution of sport mega-events to nation branding for a host nation?' Related to this question, three more questions were proposed, namely: 'What are the inherent characteristics of a sport mega-event that create strategic nation branding opportunities for a host nation?'; 'What strategic nation branding opportunities are created by hosting a sport mega-event?'; and 'How can stakeholders leverage and sustain a nation branding legacy from a sport mega-event

for a host nation?'. The researcher designed the study to address these questions and their associated gaps in knowledge. The primary aim of the study was therefore defined as: 'To critically assess the strategic contribution of a sport mega-event to nation branding for a host nation'.

In order to answer these questions and achieve these aims, both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods were used in a mixed methods, sequential design that featured a qualitative dominance (quan → QUAL). The quantitative first phase consisted of questionnaires distributed among 561 international visitors during the 2010 mega-event. These were conducted in two host cities within the stadium and fan park precincts. Although the findings from this phase revealed significant potential nation branding benefits for the nation and indicated the significant contributing factors to these benefits, they could not alone account for a nation branding legacy nor could they explain the degree to which nation brand equity had been created by the event for the host nation. The themes emerging from this phase of study were therefore explored in further depth among a definitive selection of nation brand stakeholders and experts.

The qualitative Phase Two of the study featured in-depth, semi-structured interviews conducted with 27 nation brand stakeholders and experts. These in-person interviews were conducted between two and three years post the mega-event, across a number of cities in South Africa, as well as at international locations. A sample of definitive stakeholders was selected from the theoretical framework of nation brand stakeholders as well as using the 'power, urgency and legitimacy' framework of Mitchell et al. (1997). The following section reflects the key findings of the study, after which the significance and contribution to knowledge is clarified.

10.3 Selected key findings

This section highlights selected key findings from the study:

- Sport mega-events have inherent characteristics that indicate its nation branding potential:

While there is no clearly accepted definition of a sport mega-event, this study revealed that a mega-event has a number of inherent characteristics that indicate its potential for creating nation branding opportunities. Three core characteristics were revealed: Firstly, the large scale of the mega-event that makes it a catalyst for a wide range of transformation or urban regeneration or development initiatives, such as sport facilities, tourism infrastructure and services, public transportation and urban infrastructure. Secondly, a sport mega-event has a unique ability to reach, appeal to and connect with

a sizeable global audience. Beyond gaining attention, the sport mega-event is an experiential phenomenon that creates an emotional attachment with its audience. Third, a sport mega-event holds a symbolic value for the host nation. The hosting of a sport mega-event instils a measure of pride in the host nation's citizens and confers a certain status for the nation.

- Strategic nation branding can be distilled into two core components for stakeholders, namely competitive positioning and internal brand identity:

The findings revealed that the stakeholders understanding of nation branding is better defined by the term 'competitive positioning', rather than the more commonly used 'reputation management'. This term implies a more strategic, market-focused understanding that is relevant for the competitive sectors of business, investment and tourism especially. The second component is the focus on the internal identity. The role of nation branding was described as not only reflecting the nation's past, but also creating a vision of what the nation desired to become. This activity was also referred to as 'nation making'.

- The brand equity created through a sport mega-event translates into benefits for a nation's 'people', 'place' and 'product':

There was strong indication of support among respondents for the umbrella brand metaphor applied to nation brands. Although a nation brand can be seen as covering a wide array of constituents, the study proposes that these can be distilled into three core elements, namely people, place and product. All three of these elements were perceived to benefit through the nation branding opportunities created by a sport mega-event. Increased brand equity for the nation brand results in benefits for the 'people', such as increased confidence, vision, authenticity, international credibility, and political influence. 'Place' refers to the destinations, cities and regions of the nation. Increased brand equity for the nation brand is expected to result in benefits for each of these aspects, mainly in the form of increased tourism through positive word of mouth, loyalty and attachment. Lastly, improved brand equity for the nation is expected to result in benefits for its 'products', such as increased global acceptance of exported goods, improved investor confidence, attracting foreign direct investment, and increased trade participation.

A sport mega-event creates clear strategic nation branding opportunities for a host nation. These are not just 'uncontrollable' media opportunities, but brand equity building opportunities consistent with current marketing theory and practice. The findings propose that these opportunities may differ between host nations, dependent on the stage of the host nation's

brand life cycle as well as the event's brand life cycle within that nation. Nonetheless, the following set of opportunities are regarded as transferable to other sport mega-events and contexts:

- **Brand salience:** A sport mega-event enables a host nation to capture global attention and interest on a scale and reach that would normally not be possible or affordable. The brand exposure and media attention generated through the event creates opportunities for increased brand awareness and salience for a nation brand.
- **Competitive repositioning:** More than merely reputation enhancement, a sport mega-event creates opportunities to competitively reposition a nation's brand image. In the case of South Africa, the many negative and outdated pre-event brand image perceptions were replaced by more authentic associations that were also regarded as more applicable to its desired competitive positioning among its respective markets such as tourism and investment promotion. While the traditional brand image association with the natural beauty was reinforced, new brand image associations related to the friendliness and hospitality of the people of the nation and more urban, developed perceptions. The pre-event negative associations of crime and violence were mitigated to some degree. However, it did not appear that these new brand perceptions carried over to the neighbouring countries or the continent as a whole.
- **Co-branding:** Positive image transference between the event rights holders and the nation brand occurs through a co-branding relationship. The FIFA brand as positively influencing the host nation brand, mainly through an 'endorsement' effect. This can also potentially include the relationship between the event sponsors and the nation brand.
- **Co-creation of brand identity:** A sport mega-event creates opportunities for the nation brand image to be co-created through stakeholder partnership as well as through the inclusion and mobilisation of local citizens. A mega-event context heightens the degree of partnership and interaction required between stakeholders and brings a wider number of stakeholders together in this process than naturally occurs at other occasions. The local citizens were observed as playing a crucial role in the identity development of the host nation during the mega-event hosting period. As a result of the widespread support and enthusiasm of the South African citizens, the internal component of the nation brand was positively impacted. This was noted as a key influencing factor in the changing of the international brand image perceptions.
- **Brand engagement:** The experiential sport mega-event context creates opportunities for global brand engagement. A sport mega-event creates opportunities for immersive

brand experiences and engagement with a variety of market segments through the context of a shared passion for sport. It also helps to 'connect' the host nation with the global community.

- Brand attachment: Beyond loyalty, brand attachment is fostered through a sport mega-event. The global passion and emotional attachment surrounding a sport mega-event provides a unique branding opportunity. It is argued that this attachment with the event can translate to the host nation.

The study further proposed that the concept of legacy be re-defined to account for the leveraging activities of stakeholders. Furthermore, a set of key focus areas for leveraging activities were identified and are similarly believed to be transferable to other sport mega-event and host nation contexts:

- Redefining legacy: Although legacy is widely referred to and indeed included in the planning of a sport mega-event, the findings indicate that the implementation of these plans is often problematic. Furthermore, although the current definition is broad, it fails to account for the stakeholder aims and actions in this process. 'Sustainability' of legacies was identified as a crucial element. The following revised definition of mega-event legacy was therefore proposed: Legacy refers to the sustained benefits, tangible and intangible, that accrue to and positively aid the on-going development of a host society, usually as a result of strategic stakeholder planning and activities linked to a mega-event.

The revised understanding of legacy led the writer to propose that in order for host nations to achieve their desired positive legacies, they should focus on planning and implementing long-term, systematic and purposeful leveraging activities. If not leveraged, the opportunities and benefits identified may be short-lived. A wide array of stakeholders can use diverse activities to leverage sport mega-events before, during and post an event. The post-event period was identified as an extremely important and yet often neglected period. In order to do so, the findings confirm previous studies that propose that a separate team and budget be identified for post-event legacy and leveraging activities. The following key focus areas for leveraging activities were identified in order to realise and sustain the nation branding opportunities created by a sport mega-event:

- Plan beyond an operation success or team performance: Although the focus of a LOC and most stakeholders is the successful event implementation, and this was indeed noted as a crucial aspect in order to realise nation branding benefits, this study proposes that this is merely the foundation on which to build other leveraging activities.

In the case of South Africa, the performance of the national team was not a pivotal factor in the perceived success of the event, although in other contexts this aspect may differ.

- A catalyst for sustainable development and transformation: The mega-event opportunity can be leveraged as a catalyst for other developmental aspects for the host nation that in themselves can assist to create nation branding benefits. The South African stakeholders mentioned many diverse projects, both event-linked and event-themed, that are regarded as benefitting the nation brand post the event period.
- Showcase or create iconic brand elements: Design can be used as a key differentiator for a nation brand. In South Africa, design of the stadia represented authentic brand attributes. Controlled opportunities such as opening and closing ceremonies can be used to showcase brand icons. The media can also be encouraged and assisted to showcase the brand icons of the nation through their coverage.
- Host the media and embrace new media and communication forms: The crucial role of the media was noted throughout the study. Stakeholders need to host the media, assisting them to portray the authentic and desired imagery and stories where possible. The importance of the unaccredited, new and social media was also highlighted, with stakeholders needing to equally cater for and embrace these media types. Pre-event media tours and media centres for unaccredited journalists were two successful leveraging activities mentioned.
- Mobilise the internal brand support: The support of the local citizens was noted as crucial to the realisation of nation branding benefits. However, it cannot be assumed nor can it be directly controlled. However, the stakeholders noted efforts that mobilised citizen support, with extremely positive results.
- Create brand experience and engagement opportunities: The study revealed a number of initiatives aimed at enhancing the event experience for citizens, for sport tourists and for fans around the world. These included the successful creation of fan park and other related fan zones. The sport tourism experience during the event was also noted as a crucial area. Brand engagement opportunities were also noted as taking place outside of the host nation.
- Co-create brand value through partnerships: The event creates opportunities for partnerships between many of the stakeholders, the rights holders and event sponsors. A number of innovative examples were mentioned that capitalised on the opportunity to partner together in ways that had not been done previously. Some of these opportunities

were conducted more formally and intentionally through co-branding or the creation of new umbrella brands to represent the activities of the partnered stakeholders.

- Sustain the momentum through future events: The findings indicated that one of the best ways to sustain the momentum and benefits from a mega-event is to have a national events strategy for future events. While some were extremely supportive of future mega-events, others also promoted the opportunities to host smaller events or even non-sport events. These could either provide valuable brand-related benefits in their own right and at a lower cost and risk to the nation, or be used as stepping-stones to bidding for other mega-events.

Ultimately, the study proposed a framework for the conceptualisation of the strategic role of sport mega-events in nation branding, as depicted once again in Figure 10.1 below. The framework reveals the inherent characteristics of sport mega-events that facilitate the nation branding opportunities. A set of branding opportunities are outlined, although the role of the leveraging activities is identified as crucial in the translation of these opportunities into brand equity for the nation. Ultimately, the effectively leveraged opportunities created by a sport mega-event translate into nation brand equity, which is conceived as benefitting a variety of constituents, summarised as people, place and products.

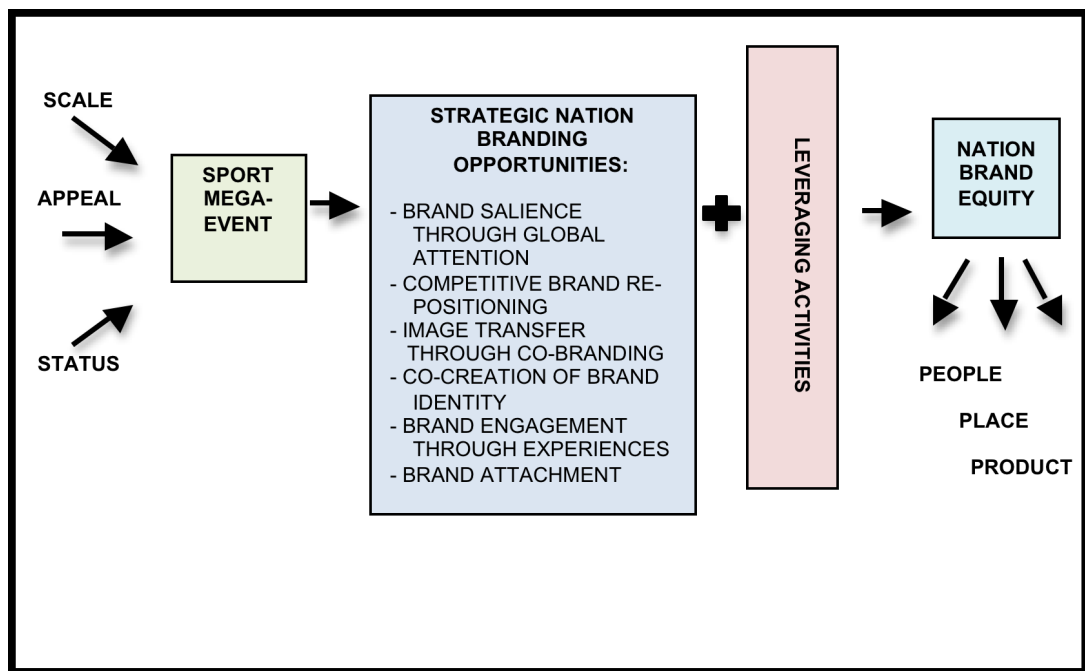


Figure 10.1: The conceptualised framework of the role of sport mega-events in developing nation brand equity

The following sections demonstrate the attainment of the research objectives and highlight the significance of these findings and the contribution to knowledge in the respective fields of nation branding and sport tourism.

10.4 The contribution of this study

Sport mega-events have previously been associated with some degree of brand-related benefits for the host nation, however this study has clearly conceptualised and identified the strategic manner in which a sport mega-event creates equity for a nation brand. Furthermore, this study has revealed the inherent characteristics of a sport mega-event that create such opportunities. It also challenges the conceptualisation of legacy, rather promoting the strategic activities of stakeholders in order to sustain event benefits. The following sections clarify other aspects of the study's contribution to knowledge and practice.

10.4.1 Methodological contribution

The methodology and methods used in this study add a number of significant contributions to the study of nation branding and sport tourism event impacts. The study noted the differing approaches between the tourism event impact studies and place or nation branding studies. With tourism research emerging from a strongly "positivist" tradition, sport tourism's event impact and legacy studies have been dominated by quantitative assessments, although a lack of standardised methods for this field of studies was observed. Contrastingly, qualitative assessments, stakeholder analyses and case studies have predominated within nation, place and destination branding studies. A mixed methods approach is therefore justified as a pragmatic approach for studies that combine related, yet contrasting, fields of study. Although the 'quan → QUAL' approach is not a common one, this study justifies its adoption, particularly for studies in emerging discourses where there is a dearth of theoretical conceptualisation. A brief quantitative study is useful in order to elicit the major themes of the study context that can be followed up with a more rigorous qualitative study that aims to explain, clarify and ultimately conceptualise the field of study.

The lessons learnt through the Phase One process can be of use to future event impact studies. For example, a fan park is endorsed as a favourable location for interviews with sport tourists during an event. Furthermore, a questionnaire was developed based on existing theoretical frameworks. This can be adopted by and applied to future sport mega-event contexts.

In the Phase Two study, the selection of the stakeholders adds a valuable element to the literature, as a definitive list of nation brand stakeholders in the context of a sport mega-event was not previously evident. This study clearly identified the types of definitive

stakeholders involved in nation branding and added to the list a number of event-specific stakeholders that also need to be considered, such as event organisers, rights holders and sponsors. For future researchers, the study advocates the need to include a diverse array of respondents, such as those from urban and rural centres, as well as from neighbouring countries. In order to add to the credibility of a study and increase the transferability of the findings, the study recommends that international experts with experiences from other events and nations be included.

10.4.2 Contribution to the emerging nation branding discourse

This study has expanded the breadth of nation branding theory by examining the context of a sport mega-event and the branding opportunities that it creates. By investigating the stakeholder perspective, the study has broadened the interpretation of nation branding and confirmed its relevance within an array of industries closely linked to the nation brand. This study endorses the strategic nation branding perspective. This perspective assumes deliberate, active processes undertaken by stakeholders in the management of nation brands. While nation branding definitions have struggled to clarify the central components, this study identified two major constituents in this process. From the stakeholder perspective, nation branding is comprised of actions and activities aimed at improving the competitive positioning of the nation brand, as well as the internal brand identity. Nation branding theory has therefore been extended beyond the realm of reputation management to account for the deliberate creation and promotion of perceptions aligned with a desired competitive positioning among a variety of key markets and constituents. In order to do so, stakeholders also need to consider the internal identity formation process. This component, that includes reference to 'nation making', is of vital importance to the authenticity of the brand image. The internal identity formation highlights the involvement of a multiplicity of stakeholders, including citizens, in the co-creation of a shared vision for the nation. A sport mega-event is proposed as a suitable context or catalyst for activities that assist this process.

The study endorses the application of the corporate branding metaphor of an 'umbrella' brand to nations and proposes that the constituents served in this framework can be distilled into three core components, namely people, place and product. The study serves as an endorsement of the application of branding principles to the management of nation brands. The study revealed that a number of the more recent advances in branding theory can be applied to nation branding more deliberately, especially in the context of a sport mega-event. It therefore extends the familiar brand-related event impacts to consider the implications of these opportunities for the formation of brand equity for a nation. For example, beyond the brand exposure impact, a sport mega-event creates opportunities for brand salience. Similarly,

beyond brand image attributes changed through a mega-event, the study specifies that opportunities are created for brand image to be repositioned to assist a more competitive brand image for a nation to serve its interests in a variety of different markets. The rare application of co-branding theory to the mega-event context also explains the opportunities created for brand image transfer between nation brand, the rights holder/ event brand and the sponsors.

The study proposes a number of contemporary strategic branding elements can be applied to nation branding in the context of sport mega-events. 'Co-creation' of nation brand identity, experiential branding theory and its extension, brand engagement, brand attachment theory, are all argued to be pertinent to nation branding, especially in the context of a sport mega-event. None of these have been applied to the context of nation branding previously. Although there is believed to be a great degree of transferability of these findings to other host nations and event contexts, the study does acknowledge that these opportunities may be different for nations at different stages of their brand development as well as for events. It was proposed that this might be a reflection of brand life cycle stage of the host nation and of the sport mega-event. Once again, this branding metaphor has not previously been applied in this context.

10.4.3 Contribution to the sport tourism literature

This study has extended the sport tourism literature pertaining to brand-related impacts and legacies created by a sport mega-event for a host nation. Previous studies have not linked these impacts with nation branding theory explicitly. While much of the sport tourism literature focuses on economic and other tangible benefits, some authors (e.g. Fredline et al. 2003) have suggested that more research is needed into the intangible impacts of events. This study has therefore added to the emerging literature in this field through clarifying the significance of intangible impacts, such as nation branding.

The conceptualisation of legacy has been challenged, especially as established definitions failed to take into account the effect of the strategic actions of stakeholders in the creation of positive and sustainable benefits. This study therefore supports the authors that advocate a new focus with an emphasis on 'leveraging' (e.g. Chalip 2004; Weed & Bull 2009; and Jago et al. 2010). In order for host nations to achieve the desired positive legacies, the study therefore proposes that they should focus on strategic and purposeful leveraging activities. However, very few studies have investigated leveraging activities of stakeholders linked to a sport mega-event and none have focused on the nation branding aspect. This study therefore contributes significantly to this emerging focus area within sport tourism by specifically identifying eight focus areas and a number of examples of activities and practical interventions that brand and event stakeholders can apply to the context of sport mega-events.

The study is also distinguished by its focus on an emerging/ developing country and its brand, as in the case of South Africa. This is significant in that very few developing nations have hosted sport mega-events, although this is becoming more common. Of the two largest sport mega-events, there have been more advances in establishing knowledge about the impacts of the Olympic Games than has been the case for FIFA World Cups (Cornelissen 2007, p.248). This study therefore adds to the limited impact studies based on a FIFA World Cup and could serve as means of transferring knowledge by sharing lessons learnt by mega-event stakeholders.

Beyond these theoretical conclusions, the following section indicates the implications of the findings for policy and practice.

10.5 Implications for policy & practice

While the above findings identified the contribution of this study to theory, this section indicates how the findings contribute to policy and practice. The study revealed a number of considerations and implications for future event bidding and hosting policy. In the case of South Africa, the stakeholders advocated for a national events framework that would assist with the prioritisation and planning of event bidding and hosting across the country. While there was large support for the future hosting of sport mega-events, there were also a number of other events mentioned that should be considered. For example, the hosting of smaller scale single sport events could be seen as stepping-stones towards bidding for a multi-sport mega-event such as an Olympic Games. Nation branding benefits may also be realised through smaller scale events and at a potentially significantly lower public cost. The co-ordination of future event bidding and hosting was viewed as a priority for the nation, although the determination of which stakeholders to include in this process was viewed as the biggest obstacle.

The study emphasised that although legacy is generally included in the event planning processes, there needs to be a far greater emphasis on the implementation thereof, especially post the event. A separate committee and budget may be required to do so effectively.

The study advocates key factors in the leveraging of nation brand impacts. An understanding of these factors will assist stakeholders to leverage the opportunities created by an event more effectively by targeting their efforts on the areas that have the greatest influence. Eight focus areas were revealed in this study as well as a number of practical examples given of successful activities and strategies that stakeholders can undertake. Stakeholders are encouraged to plan to leverage these key areas before, during and, most especially, post the mega-event.

Although the study may be perceived as a form of justification for stakeholders seeking to promote the bidding for and hosting of sport mega-events as policy instruments or platforms for strategic nation branding opportunities, there are a number of caveats to this. Firstly, the extent of the nation branding benefits realized may be influenced by the particular context of the host nation, such as the brand life cycle stage or the event life cycle in that nation. The findings noted that nation branding gains may be more pronounced for nations within a developing economy context, similar to the case investigated. The study also advocates a national event strategy, where a strategic and co-ordinated approach is taken to event hosting. In this light, a sport mega-event may not be the preferred choice. Stakeholders revealed that other, smaller events might be able to provide event-related benefits at a far lesser cost. These other event types may also serve as stepping-stones to future mega-events. Furthermore, events besides sporting ones are also a consideration.

Stakeholders, particularly in South Africa, will be assisted by this study to make informed policy decisions regarding the bidding and hosting of future sport mega-events, by providing a clearer understanding of the nation branding impact of the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Although South Africa already has a sport tourism policy that advocates the hosting of sport mega-events for their perceived benefits, the study provides a further justification of the intangible benefits associated with sport mega-events. With South Africa currently proposing a bid for the Commonwealth Games in 2022 and considering a bid for the Olympic Games in 2024, the study provides greater clarity on the types of anticipated impacts that could be realised through effective stakeholder leveraging activities based on sound branding theory applications.

10.5 Recommendations for further research

This section outlines a number of extensions from this study as future research areas:

- The in-depth study of a single case has limitations (as mentioned below), such as the uncertainty over its degree of transferability to other host nations and contexts. A recommendation is thus made that these opportunities identified should be further investigated in future mega-event host nations and across a variety of event types.
- A number of the branding applications that have been extended to the context of nation branding have not been studied elsewhere. It is therefore recommended that these extensions be tested more fully, both in the context of sport mega-events and in its more generic application.

- The role of the media and the local citizens was identified as crucial to the realization of nation branding benefits. Neither of these constituents were the focus of this study, therefore it is recommended that these viewpoints are included in a future assessment.
- Legacy assessments are typically longer-term studies. The nation branding legacy of the South African case can still therefore be conducted again in future to test the longevity of these gains and the degree to which stakeholders have benefitted from the lessons learned as a result of the 2010 mega-event.

10.6 Limitations

This study has focused on the case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup. As such, the context of the nation and its stakeholders has an influence on the findings. This may lead to differences in expectations and results between host nations, particularly between emerging and developed nations. However, stakeholders with expertise from other nations and sport mega-events were included in the sample of respondents. As a result, the findings are most relevant to the South African stakeholders and context, although it is still believed that the findings are transferable to other nations and contexts.

This study began just before the 2010 FIFA World Cup started. Ideally, a period of enquiry prior to the event would have been beneficial in order to ascertain the expectations and changes in perceptions among visitors as well as the stakeholders more accurately, rather than relying on the retrospective assessments.

The timing of legacy assessments is always problematic as the impacts of mega-events may extend for many years post an event. A longitudinal approach to their assessment is therefore advised. Although this study featured responses gathered between two and three years post the event, this is still a relatively short period within which to assess the sustainability of event legacies, especially those of an intangible nature.

The focus of this study, its timing considerations and the academic requirements of a PhD thesis did not permit for a broader investigation of nation branding gains for the 2010 host nation. Ideally, an assessment of the media content, perceptions of both travelling and non-travelling fans as well as the perceptions and experiences of local citizens would have provided a fuller perspective.

Most importantly, although it is referred to on occasion, the study did not specifically take into consideration the costs involved in creating the nation branding opportunities. The cost of hosting mega-events is a contentious current issue. Future legacy and leveraging assessments are urged to take this into consideration.

10.7 Reflective evaluation of the study

Research studies conducted in the natural world are not conducted under perfect conditions. The researcher adopted a pragmatic approach to this study, developing a methodology and methods that would answer the research questions within the constraints of geographic context, finances and time scale. The researcher has indicated throughout the study where there have been lessons learned and recommended alternative approaches for future studies where appropriate. Considering these factors, the writer considers this study to be an authentic and honest reflection of the research process over the five years since its inception.

The mixed methods approach to the study provided a challenge as it required a mixture of academic skills and required more time than one singular approach. However, the writer maintains that it was the correct approach for this study and advocates the use of mixed methods studies designed to answer unique research questions.

The findings and conclusions are deemed to be of significance to the emergent theoretical discourse, advancing the understanding of nation branding and especially the context of sport mega-events. The writer is especially delighted that the findings also reveal a number of practical applications that are useful for the industry and stakeholders in terms of policy and practice for nation branding and sport mega-events. While the study cannot be used in isolation to justify the hosting of sport mega-events in order to create nation branding opportunities, it can be used to guide stakeholders as to the most effective means of leveraging such opportunities.

The following quotation brings this thesis to a poetic close. Research is reiterative. Although this study has reached its end, its contribution and significance will be marked by its support to other further and wider discoveries relating to this field.

“What we call the beginning is often the end,
and to mark an end is to make a beginning.
The end is where we start from” (Eliot 1974, p.208).

Epilogue

The prologue mentioned how this study emerged from the combination of my passions for sport, events and branding. My experience of living through a transformative period in my nation's history, moving from an isolated and pariah state to becoming a global, emerging nation, and the role that sport mega-events played in this transition, led to my fascination with sport mega-events and the nation branding discourse. After five years of conducting this study, I am happy to admit that my passion and fascination with all of these remains.

This study was conceptualised in the emotion-filled lead up period to the 2010 FIFA World Cup in South Africa. It was a time of great expectation, especially as the transformative hosting of the 1995 Rugby World Cup was still in the recent memory of many citizens. Yet there was also anxiety and fear over the nation's capability to host the largest and most significant event ever on the African continent. Corruption, crime and xenophobia were characterising the post-Mandela period. The opportunity to observe and assess the event's ability to live up to the ambitious objectives of its organisers and stakeholders provided the motivation for this study. Based in the nation throughout this period provided me with a unique opportunity to immerse myself in this context.

However, this thesis is not a reflection of my own story. It reflects the stories of many who experienced the 2010 mega-event, either as a international visiting football fan or as one who worked closely with the event or in sectors of industry that were closely linked with the event and nation branding. This thesis is their story and I am delighted that I have been able to capture and share it. Although the findings and the research process surprised, confounded and sometimes troubled me, I have reveled in the opportunity to create knowledge and especially to contribute to this emerging discourse. The opportunity to travel and engage with international experts and academics and to experience other sport mega-events in different contexts, brought greater objectivity to my 2010 experience and the interpretation of the study findings.

I am, however, concerned for the future of sport mega-events. While I firmly maintain there are significant benefits for host nations, I am frustrated at what I perceive to be as missed opportunities from such events or the miss-management of the event opportunities through lack of planning or effective management. Countries and citizens have become more discerning as they weigh up the costs of hosting with the anticipated benefits. Nonetheless, at the completion of the study, I remain convinced that sport mega-events provide catalytic opportunities to create better societies, uniting citizens in common vision, inspiring confidence

in the capabilities of its fellow citizens and engaging positively with the global community through a shared passion and humanity.

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Appendices

Appendix A: International Visitor Questionnaire



OFFICIAL USE ONLY

Questionnaire # : _____

Date: _____ / _____ 2010

Area: Fan Park 1 Stadium Precinct 2

Interviewer: _____

International Visitor Perceptions of South Africa during the World Cup

Screening: Interviewer to note that respondent must be an international visitor, over 18 years of age and consent to their participation in the survey.

Introduction: We are conducting an academic research survey to try to understand the benefits of the World Cup for South Africa. The questions ask you for your thoughts and perceptions on South Africa. The survey will only take a few minutes of your time. **Your answers are very important to us.** Please note that all answers will be kept confidential and presented anonymously and scientifically. **Thank you for your participation!**

1. Which country are you a citizen of? _____

2. What is the main reason/ purpose for your visit to South Africa at this time?

1	World Cup	2	General tourism	3	Visit friends or family	4	Business
5	Other (specify):						

3.1 Will you be watching matches at the Fan Parks and/or at the stadium during your stay?

1	Yes, Fan Park/s	2	Yes, Stadium (and Fan Park)	0	No, neither (Go to Question 4)
---	-----------------	---	-----------------------------	---	--------------------------------

3.2 If YES, have you ever attended a football World Cup finals event previously? (e.g. Germany 2006)

0	Never	1	Yes (specify e.g. Germany 2006)
---	-------	---	---------------------------------

4. Have you ever traveled to South Africa or Africa previously?

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

5. Would you have traveled to South Africa at this time if the World Cup were not being hosted here?

0	No	1	Yes	2	Perhaps/ unsure
---	----	---	-----	---	-----------------

6. What were your main perceptions (views) of South Africa before you visited? (Note all, exact words used.

Probe for detail/ multiple responses.)

7. Do you think the following sources of information helped you to form these perceptions?

[1: No, not at all; 2: No, not really; 3: Unsure; 4: Yes, a little; 5: Yes, very much]

7.1	International news and media	1	2	3	4	5
7.2	Family and friend's experiences/ opinions	1	2	3	4	5
7.3	Your previous travel experiences	1	2	3	4	5
7.4	Your formal education (e.g. school or university)	1	2	3	4	5
7.5	Buying South African products	1	2	3	4	5
7.6	Doing business with South African companies	1	2	3	4	5
7.7	Tourism promotion of South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
7.8	Meeting South Africans in your home country	1	2	3	4	5
7.9	Hearing about famous South Africans	1	2	3	4	5
7.10	The achievements of South African sports teams and sports stars	1	2	3	4	5
7.11	South Africa's hosting of other sport events	1	2	3	4	5
7.12	News and information related to the World Cup	1	2	3	4	5
7.13	Any other sources? (specify):	1	2	3	4	5

8.1 Has your current visit to South Africa during the World Cup changed any of your perceptions?

0	No (Go to Question 9)	1	Yes
---	-----------------------	---	-----

8.2 If YES, how would you describe your current/ new perceptions of South Africa? (Note all, exact words)

8.3 If YES, what do you think has changed/ formed your perceptions?

9. Please use the following scale to respond to the question endings below:

[1:No, Strongly Disagree; 2:No, Disagree; 3:Unsure; 4:Yes, Agree; 5:Yes, Strongly Agree]

	Has your visit to South Africa encouraged you to... ?	1	2	3	4	5
9.1	visit South Africa again	1	2	3	4	5
9.2	encourage others to visit South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
9.3	return to South Africa to watch or participate in future sport events	1	2	3	4	5
9.4	become friends with South African people	1	2	3	4	5
9.5	appreciate South African food, music, art and dance	1	2	3	4	5
9.6	pay more attention to news or media relating to South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
9.7	buy South African products more easily	1	2	3	4	5
9.8	do business or invest in South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
9.9	emigrate to South Africa	1	2	3	4	5
9.10	visit other African countries	1	2	3	4	5

10. Using the same scale, please respond to the question endings below:

	Do you believe that South Africa has/is... ?	1	2	3	4	5
10.1	a world-class tourism destination	1	2	3	4	5
10.2	many friendly, welcoming people	1	2	3	4	5
10.3	a number of successful sports teams and participants	1	2	3	4	5
10.4	a segregated (divided) social society	1	2	3	4	5
10.5	many diverse (different) cultures	1	2	3	4	5
10.6	beautiful scenery and natural attractions	1	2	3	4	5
10.7	a good climate for tourism and sport	1	2	3	4	5
10.8	a stable democratic government	1	2	3	4	5
10.9	well-respected political leaders	1	2	3	4	5
10.10	a safe place to visit	1	2	3	4	5
10.11	many business or investment opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
10.12	a desirable country to live in	1	2	3	4	5
10.13	world-class sports facilities	1	2	3	4	5
10.14	a competent host of the football World Cup	1	2	3	4	5
10.15	an excellent destination to host future sport mega-events	1	2	3	4	5

11. Have you heard of any of the following phrases/ slogans?

		Yes	No	Unsure
11.1	South Africa – alive with possibility	1	0	2
11.2	South Africa - the rainbow nation	1	0	2

Just a few personal details to help us interpret your responses:

12. What is your current age (years)? _____

13. How would you describe your ethnic origin? (e.g. White/ Caucasian, Asian, Black, Mixed race etc.)

14. Interviewer to note gender:

1	Male
---	------

2	Female
---	--------

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire! If you would be willing to respond to a brief follow-up survey via e-mail, please provide us with your email address:

APPENDIX B: Interview guide for in-depth interviews

Interview guide for stakeholders & experts:

Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed today! I really appreciate your time. You are encouraged to answer the questions as fully and accurately as possible. I would like to record the interview, so can I ask that you confirm that you are happy for me to do so? Your response will be held in confidence and used for the academic purposes related to this study only, which may include academic papers and conference presentations. Your full name will not be disclosed in any manner, although your job title and organisation may be linked to a response only if absolutely necessary in order to facilitate a clearer understanding of your response. In some cases, you may wish to reflect on the experiences of your organization, while in other cases you may wish to give your personal viewpoint. Please feel free to do so and to clarify this as you feel it is required. If you would like to receive the findings of this study, please let me know and I will be happy to send you a copy of any published papers or conference presentations relating to this study.

To begin with, I would like to ask you how you understand or define the following:

1. a mega-event:
2. nation-branding:
3. destination branding:
4. legacy (of a mega-event):

Looking specifically at the role that the 2010 FIFA World Cup played in Nation-branding and destination branding for South Africa:

[Pre-event expectations]

5. Leading up to 2010, what do you believe were the general expectations of how the event would/ could impact Brand SA?
6. Overall, do you believe that the event:
 - failed to deliver on these expectations
 - lived up to these expectations
 - exceeded expectations

[Brand messaging]

7. What do you believe were the main brand messages conveyed during SA's hosting of the World Cup, and by whom?
8. Do you believe that these messages were consistent and/ or co-ordinated before during and after the event? Please explain.

[Nation brand impact]

9. Overall, would you say that the event had a positive impact on the development of the SA nation brand?
In what ways specifically?

10. Do you believe that the event had any particular negative impacts on the nation-brand?
Please specify.
 11. Who/ what were the main factors that contributed towards/ influenced this impact (both positive and/or negative)?
 12. Would you say that any of the following aspects of the nation brand were impacted more than others: tourism; investment/ immigration; governance/ policy; culture/ heritage; people; exports/ product brands; other:
 13. There were a number of infrastructural changes/ developments for South Africa in the lead up to the World Cup. Which of these do you believe were the most significant in terms of assisting the nation-brand development of SA?
 14. What do you think were the main things that visitors or viewers observed, experienced or perceived during the event that relate to the nation-brand associations?
 15. Linked to this, do you think the event reinforced, reversed or created new perceptions of South Africa? Please describe.
- (co-branding)
16. Do you believe that the brand image perceptions of SA were aided by being associated with the FIFA World Cup? In what ways?
 17. Conversely, did the FIFA World Cup brand benefit from its association with South Africa? In what ways?
- (umbrella brand & Brand Africa)
18. In your view/ experience, has the impact on the nation-brand affected other city/ regional/ destination/ product brands in the country? In what ways?
 19. Do you believe that the branding impact of the event went beyond SA to other African nations or to the African continent in general? Please explain why/ why not.
- [legacy & leveraging]**
20. How would you summarise the nation-branding legacy that has been left by the event for the nation?
 21. Do you believe that there were any nation-branding opportunities lost or not utilised fully related to the event? Please specify.
 22. Do you believe that the nation-branding gains of 2010 are being leveraged post the event?
Please explain.

[role of sport mega-events]

23. Do you believe that sport mega-events can play a role in the nation-brand development of countries? If so, how would you best describe this role? (If not, why?)

24. What advantages do sport mega-events offer in terms of facilitating nation-brand development compared to other event types (i.e. non-sport or smaller scale events)?

[stakeholder involvement]

25. Who would you regard as important stakeholders in the nation-branding development process?

Thank you for your contribution to this study! You are welcome to contact the researcher for further information or results once the study is completed.

APPENDIX C: Bournemouth University Ethical Clearance



Initial Research Ethics Checklist

PhD

Note: All researchers must complete this brief checklist to identify any ethical issues associated with their research. Before completing, please refer to the BU *Research Ethics Code of Practice* which can be found at www.bournemouth.ac.uk/researchethics. Project Supervisors or School Research Ethics Representatives can advise on appropriate professional judgement in this review. A list of Representatives can be found at the aforementioned webpage. **Sections 1-5 must be completed by the researcher and Section 6 by the Project Supervisor or School Ethics Representative prior to the commencement of any research.** Approved ethics checklists should be submitted in accordance with the school-specific ethics process and will be stored for audit purposes. Students should also retain a copy for inclusion in their dissertation, which will be checked to ensure that it complies with any ethical constraints identified on the ethics checklist. Please refer to erss.bournemouth.ac.uk/researchsupport/bids/writing/processes.html for school-specific processes.

1 RESEARCHER DETAILS					
Name	Brendon Kevin knott				
Email	knottb@cput.ac.za				
Status	<input type="checkbox"/> Undergraduate	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Postgraduate		<input type="checkbox"/> Staff	
School	<input type="checkbox"/> BS	<input type="checkbox"/> AS	<input type="checkbox"/> DEC	<input type="checkbox"/> HSC	<input type="checkbox"/> MS <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> ST
Degree Framework & Programme	Mphil/ phd				
2 PROJECT DETAILS					
Project Title	Sport mega-events as strategic nation-branding platforms: the case of South Africa and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™				

Project Summary

Sufficient detail is needed; include methodology, sample, outcomes etc

The primary aim of the study is to assess the impact and leverage of the 2010 FIFA World Cup as a strategic nation-branding platform for South Africa, in order to provide a framework for the use of sport mega-events as strategic branding platforms for nation brand stakeholders.

The collection and analysis of primary data will focus particularly on attaining the research objective above through the following means:

- International sport tourist surveys:
 - During the FIFA World Cup™ event: Surveys, in the form of “mall-intercept” questionnaire interviews were used to gather perceptions of the international sport tourists in South Africa. Respondents will be interviewed at the official FIFA Fan Fest and stadium precinct in two of the major host cities, Cape Town and Durban, on match-days during the event period (June-July 2010). A total of 561 international visitors, using a spatially-based purposive sampling approach, were selected at these locations. Senior and post-graduate students supervised by the principal researcher were used to conduct the interviews. The questionnaire was mostly structured, using closed-ended questions with likert-type scales and a few open-ended questions testing prior and current perceptions. The questionnaire was pre-tested on international visitors to Cape Town before the event. Ethical clearance for these surveys was obtained from the Cape Peninsula University of Technology, and permission to conduct interviews in the Fan Park area was obtained from the City of Cape Town and the City of Durban.
 - Post-event: E-mail addresses of respondents were collected during the event for a follow-up e-mail questionnaire to be conducted one year after the event (August 2011). This allowed for a comparison of the data and for changes in perceptions to be ascertained. A total of 140 responses were received.
- Nation-brand stakeholder interviews: Key informant interviews will be conducted with 20-30 selected relevant brand stakeholders, such as sport, tourism and business associations (e.g. Brand South Africa, Cape Town Tourism, Accelerate Cape Town, SA Tourism, local organising committees and others); local and provincial government units (e.g. Department of Sport and Recreation, National Communication Partnership, City of Cape Town, Western Cape Provincial Government); and subject experts, both academic and practitioner in South Africa and internationally. These will be conducted in-person wherever possible or else telephonically and will be recorded with the participant's consent and transcribed for analysis. The interviews will be conducted between June and December 2010.

Proposed Start & End Dates		Primary research collected: June 2010 – December 2012	
Project Supervisor		A fyal; I Jones	
Framework Project Co-ordinator			
3 ETHICS REVIEW CHECKLIST – PART A			
I	Is approval from an external Research Ethics Committee (e.g. Local Research Ethics Committee (REC), NHS REC) required/sought?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
II	Is the research solely literature-based?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
III	Does the research involve the use of any dangerous substances, including radioactive materials?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
IV	Does the research involve the use of any potentially dangerous equipment?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
V	Could conflicts of interest arise between the source of funding and the potential outcomes of the research? (see section 8 of BU Research Ethics Code of Practice).	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
VI	Is it likely that the research will put any of the following at risk:		
	Living creatures?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
	Stakeholders?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
	Researchers?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
	Participants?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
	The environment?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
	The economy?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
VII	Does the research involve experimentation on any of the following:		
	Animals?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
	Animal tissues?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
	Human tissues (including blood, fluid, skin, cell lines)?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
	Genetically modified organisms?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
VIII	Will the research involve prolonged or repetitive testing?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
IX	Will the research involve the collection of audio, photographic or video materials?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
X	Could the research induce psychological stress or anxiety, cause harm or have negative consequences for the participants or researcher (beyond the risks encountered in normal life)?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
XI	Will the study involve discussion of sensitive topics (e.g. sexual activity, drug use, criminal activity)?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
XII	Will financial inducements be offered (other than reasonable expenses/ compensation for time)?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
XIII	Will it be necessary for the participants to take part in the study without their knowledge / consent at the time?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
XIV	Are there problems with the participant's right to remain anonymous?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
XV	Does the research <i>specifically</i> involve participants who may be vulnerable?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
XVI	Might the research involve participants who may lack the capacity to decide or to give informed consent to their involvement?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
4 ETHICS REVIEW CHECKLIST – PART B			

Please give a summary of the ethical issues and any action that will be taken to address these.

<p>Ethical Issue: Consent and Anonymity of international visitors</p>	<p>Action: All potential international visitors to be interviewed will be asked for their consent prior to starting the interview. The respondents will remain anonymous and only demographic details will be recorded, with their consent.</p>
<p>Consent and anonymity of stakeholders and experts</p>	<p>The stakeholders identified will be asked for their consent to be interviewed. In order to encourage honesty and protect identities of stakeholders, their job title will be referenced rather than their full names.</p>

5 RESEARCHER STATEMENT

I believe the information I have given is correct. I have read and understood the BU Research Ethics Code of Practice, discussed relevant insurance issues, performed a health & safety evaluation/ risk assessment and discussed any issues/ concerns with the Project Supervisor / School Ethics Representative. I understand that if any substantial changes are made to the research (including methodology, sample etc), then I must notify the Project Supervisor / School Research Ethics Representative and may need to submit a revised Initial Research Ethics Checklist. By submitting this form electronically I am confirming the information is accurate to my best knowledge.

<p>Signed </p>	<p>Date 21-06-2012</p>
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6 AFFIRMATION BY PROJECT SUPERVISOR OR SCHOOL RESEARCH ETHICS REPRESENTATIVE
Where there is a potential conflict of interest seek advice from the School Ethics Representative.

Satisfied with the accuracy of the research project ethical statement, I believe that the appropriate action is:

<p>The research project proceeds in its present form</p>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No
<p>The research project proposal needs further assessment under the School Ethics procedure*</p>	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
<p>The research project needs to be returned to the applicant for modification prior to further action*</p>	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No

** The School is reminded that it is their responsibility to ensure that no project proceeds without appropriate assessment of ethical issues, which is a stipulated requirement of the University's insurers. In extreme cases, this can require processing by the School or University's Research Ethics Committee or by relevant external bodies.*

<p>Reviewer Signature </p>	<p>Date 19/7/12</p>
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Additional Comments

Identify any project specific ethical constraints that need to be monitored and observed throughout the project.

Revised cps received 19/7/12.