A STAKEHOLDER PERSPECTIVE ON MEGA-EVENTS AS AN ELEMENT OF TOURISM DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

by

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Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
MCom in Tourism Management

in the

FACULTY OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

at the

UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA

Supervisor:
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February 2011

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ABSTRACT

South Africa’s hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ came at a time when the position as host of a high-profile mega-event has become a sought-after status for countries worldwide. Not only do these events hold the promise of extensive triple-bottom-line legacies, but they also offer an extremely powerful destination marketing platform. However, no destination is guaranteed success and sustainable competitiveness by being offered the once-off opportunity to host a major international event. This study focuses on the ways and measures in which mega-events can contribute to destination competitiveness in its entirety as depicted in a popular model of tourism destination competitiveness. Existing literature on destination competitiveness and mega-events, as well as comparative case studies of recent mega-events were explored to furnish a set of apparent key success factors for the sustainable hosting of mega-events. This set of factors was then tested within a case study context through the collection of primary and secondary qualitative data. Industry experts from both the tourism and events industries in the City of Tshwane were interviewed on the eve of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. In addition, strategic documents and other secondary data were investigated to form an understanding of the role of the event as a potential catalyst for destination development. The City’s competitiveness was evaluated before the event, and compared to an evaluation of its perceived competitiveness as a result of the event. Based on the findings, a set of five critical success factors was developed. It includes the need to address events as a strategic destination priority; effective stakeholder identification and role clarification; resource management for the event; alignment of the event strategy with the overall destination marketing strategy; and pro-actively addressing environmental issues. These factors are presented within a timeframe before, during and after the actual event. Through the proposed framework, it may be possible to manage the hosting of events in such a way as to contribute to sustained, holistic competitiveness of the host destination; ensuring alignment with the overall destination marketing and management strategy.

KEYWORDS: destination competitiveness, mega-events, 2010 FIFA World Cup™, critical success factors
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author would like to express her gratitude toward the Department of Economic and Management Sciences at the University of Pretoria who funded this research through a most valuable internship program. Sincere thanks goes to my study leader for his guidance, enthusiasm, communicable perseverance and time committed to the study. Also to the research participants who gave up their time during the final preparations for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Soli Deo Gloria.
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CHAPTER 1: GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

As rapid changes within the global environment transform the movement of people and a myriad of destinations become available to potential tourists, destination competitiveness no longer remains a theoretical topic of discussion. The ability of a destination to meaningfully distinguish itself from competitors, whilst also creating sustainable prosperity for all the stakeholders involved, is no longer an advantage, but has become a necessity. Various elements have been researched to determine their contribution to destination competitiveness; usually at a time when the specific elements were considered to be trends or priority issues. One such element, which stands out in terms of its potential to create considerable benefits or ‘legacies’ within various spheres of a destination, is the hosting of mega-events. Considering that mega-events are often the main reason why tourists visit a destination, such events create a unique, limited opportunity for a destination to showcase itself to an international audience. The challenge posed to event organisers and destination managers is to execute the mega-event in such a way as for it to secure lasting positive legacies and contribute to overall competitiveness of the host destination. This study was approached from the perspective of stakeholders in destination marketing and management; exploring the potential of mega-events to be leveraged as a tool to create sustainable destination competitiveness.

1.1.1 The changing nature of destination competitiveness

Within the international business environment, competitiveness is a well-known and widely applied concept (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:12). It started gaining importance in the tourism industry and specifically in the field of strategic destination marketing and management at the turn of the century, as is evident from the works of among others Crouch and Ritchie (1999), Dwyer, Forsyth and Rao (2000), Fayos-Sola (1996), Hassan (2000), Kim (1998), Kozak and Rimmington (1999), Pearce (1997) and Ritchie and Crouch (2000). Enright and Newton (2004:339) states that “... industry competitiveness has become an established topic for researchers, policy-makers and practitioners”, while at the same time...
“... tourism destination competitiveness, in particular, is becoming an area of growing interest among tourism researchers”.

The majority of academics and practitioners alike have focused their research efforts on individual factors as indicators of competitiveness, including among others sustainability (Hassan, 2000; Mihalic, 2000); integrated quality management (Go & Govers, 2000); benchmarking and marketing (Buhalis, 2000; Seymour, 2007); price competitiveness (Dwyer, Forsyth & Rao, 2000); destination image (Formica, 2002); destination resources (Melián-González & García-Falcón, 2003); service delivery (Jones & Haven-Tang, 2005; Poon, 2003); tourism products (Du Rand, 2006); destination life cycle (Butler, 2006); distribution channels (Seymour, 2009); and SMME’s (Jones & Haven-Tang, 2005).

The dynamic nature of the tourism industry and dramatic changes within the global marketplace, have forced destination managers to take a more integrated approach toward destination competitiveness. As a result, various researchers developed comprehensive models (Barbosa, 2008; Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Hassan, 2000; Heath 2002; Jonker, 2003; Ritchie & Crouch 2003) that aim to integrate the multitude of dimensions and indicators that form part of the concept destination competitiveness.

All of the individual elements (indicators) investigated through the respective studies mentioned previously, are included in the various models in some form of another; whether as a main category of the model or a smaller sub-indicator within a category. It can be argued that, even though a destination’s competitiveness should be studied from a broader model perspective in order to be a true reflection of its long-term sustainability, the evaluation of individual elements and indicators still remain a viable endeavour.

This argument can be supported by a two key factors. Firstly, when considering the changing trends in destination marketing (Gretzel, Fesenmaier, Formica & O’Leary, 2006; Heath, 2009c; Seymour, 2008; Li & Petrick, 2008), certain elements become either more or less ‘important’ in business practice and one can observe a more frequent utilisation of specific ‘tools’ in destination marketing strategies. The question then arises: where (and if) do such tools fall within the broader models of destination competitiveness? Secondly, the fact that research is continuously being carried out on newly emerging aspects and
determinants of long-term competitiveness, with the specific aim of including these indicators into the models and determining their relative contributions toward competitiveness (Barbosa, 2008; Dwyer, Mellor, Livaic, Edward & Kim 2004; Enright & Newton, 2004; Enright & Newton, 2005; Mazanec, Wöber & Zins, 2007:87; Ritchie, Crouch & Hudson, 2001).

It may thus be stated that no individual element’s possible contribution to destination competitiveness should be regarded as fully defined, and there will always be opportunity for further research. It can also be stated that the study of individual indicators may only be regarded as a meaningful contribution to the field of destination competitiveness, if such work is done within a holistic context and findings have purposefully been linked to existing models of competitiveness.

1.1.2 Mega-events as a key element of overall destination competitiveness

According to Getz, the study of events is neither new nor exclusive to tourism, but has “… long existed within several disciplines, manifested in research and theory development …” and that “… the term ‘event tourism’ was not widely used, if at all, prior to 1987 …” (2008:405). Various aspects of events have been studied, with the majority being from an event management perspective. Studies that have been undertaken from an event tourism perspective focus mainly on marketing or event impacts (Getz, 2008:409).

Mega-events specifically have “long been defined and analyzed in terms of their tourist attractiveness and related image-making or developmental roles” (Getz, 2008:407). It has only been over the last decade however (in the run-up to the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney), that there has been a significant move toward gaining a greater understanding of the ‘legacies’ of such events for host destinations (Preuss, 2007:210) and on event leverage as opposed to event impacts (Chalip, 2006:112). Despite this growing awareness of the need to analyse mega-events in their entirety as happenings that have multi-dimensional positive and negative implications for host destinations, very little work could be found that focus specifically on mega-events as contributors to overall destination competitiveness. Getz even states that “… many planned events are produced with little or
no thought given to their tourism appeal or potential ..., and sometimes there is simply no relationship established between events and tourism” (2008:408).

Events (including mega-events) are recognised as an important component within the destination competitiveness models (Heath 2002; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). Getz (2008:403) states that “The role and impacts of planned events within tourism have been well documented, and are of increasing importance for destination competitiveness.” He continues to state that events are usually regarded as “… an application of or speciality within national tourism offices and destination marketing/management organisations …” (2008:406). Such events affect and are in turn affected by many factors within the destination. They hold a range of possible benefits for the destination, with the economical and social impacts being the most prominent and most widely researched (Chalip, 2006:112; Steyn, 2007:10; Wood, 2005:38). The impacts also extend to include cultural, physical, technical and psychological impacts (Ritchie, 2000; Wood, 2005:38); all of which do not necessarily culminate into positive long-term benefits for the host destination (Preuss, 2007:210).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The focus has moved away from giving consideration to a few individual, loose-standing international measures of competitiveness, toward determining all the relevant elements and indicators related to the long-term, holistic wellbeing and success of a destination; an approach that will include an increased focus on environmental and social dimensions of tourism destination management and marketing (as eluded to in Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Hassan, 2000; Heath, 2002; Mazanec et al., 2007; Mihalic, 2000; Ritchie & Crouch, 2000). It is therefore apparent that if an element is considered as a potential contribution to destination competitiveness, it has to be investigated from within the models of sustainable destination competitiveness.

One such topic, which has gained increasing attention over the last two decades, and which features prominently in the development and marketing plans of destinations, is that of events (Getz, 2008:403). According to Getz, the greatest part of academic work on the topic of special events, such as mega-events, can be found within the study fields of event
management and event studies (event perspective). Within this field, the focus is on the managerial and operational issues associated with events. More specific reference to tourism and event host destinations can be found in the specialisation field named event tourism (tourism perspective). Studies within this field focus primarily on the aspects of marketing and event impacts (2008:409). This focus on marketing is confirmed and somehow rationalised by the statement that numerous destinations use events to reinforce their brand, and that they “can be powerful in anchoring, and sometimes even changing, a destination’s image” (UNWTO, 2009:20). Within the literature on destination competitiveness, many studies exist on the importance of branding. However, not all of these studies include the aspect of events; which is in contrast to the supposed contribution of events to destination branding.

Although being very important, destination branding and imaging is but one aspect of overall destination competitiveness. Within the broader competitiveness perspective, the concept of ‘competitive identity’ has to be supported by competitive practices throughout the destination. The question thus arises from a strategic destination management perspective: how do mega-events fit into the broader concept of destination competitiveness? No destination is guaranteed success and long-term competitiveness by being offered the opportunity to host a major international event. In some instances a mega-event can cause more harm than good to the destination at large (Chalip, 2004; Preuss, 2007:210). The City of Atlanta is one such host destination, where the 1996 Olympic Games resulted in a tarnished image of over-commercialisation for the city (2003:40). Destination managers and event organisers may not be able to, through a given mega-event, replicate the legacies previously created by similar events and it is often difficult to predict event legacy (Preuss, 2007:213). Even though successful host destinations may serve as benchmarks for others, they may not necessarily be at the forefront of competitiveness in terms of all the multiple dimensions encompassed in an international destination.

What research has to establish then, is the ways in which a mega-event can contribute to overall destination competitiveness and how it has to be leveraged to optimally serve as strategic tools toward this goal. When employing a mega-event as a destination marketing tool, one also has to consider the unique nature of the destination and the way in which
the competitiveness model can appropriately be applied within the destination context, in order to meaningfully determine the mega-event’s contribution to overall destination competitiveness.

1.3 PURPOSE STATEMENT

This study aims to establish a framework for effectively leveraging mega-events as an element of overall destination competitiveness – a different yet relevant approach away from the popular focus of event studies. It starts off by exploring the current approaches toward destination competitiveness as a research topic, as well as from a practitioner’s point of view, and aims to determine where mega-events fit into the popular models of competitiveness. From the exploratory descriptive literature study, apparent critical success factors (CSFs) for the hosting of mega-events are identified from a tourism management perspective. These CSFs are then built upon through exploring events literature to identify related and relevant topics and approaches from an event management perspective. International practices in the management of mega-events are also studied in order to capture the key lessons that could be learnt from these best practice case studies. Based on the resulting list of apparent CSFs, a situational analysis is conducted on the City of Tshwane, followed by an empirical survey through interviews with key industry stakeholders to test the relevance of the CSFs in a destination of this nature. A final set of CSFs is identified, based on the contribution of the individual factors to the relevant components of a popular model of destination competitiveness. Based on this set of CSFs, a framework is developed whereby mega-events could be leveraged before, during and after the actual event; in order to ensure optimal alignment with the overall marketing and management of the destination.
1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The study was guided by the following specific research objectives:

- To explain the concept of destination competitiveness as it is presented in the literature.
- To determine the current approaches toward measuring destination competitiveness.
- To establish the position of mega-events within destination competitiveness models.
- To review the most recent literature on mega-events within the fields of event management and event studies.
- To explore international case studies of the hosting of mega-events in order to understand current practices.
- To determine positive as well as negative perspectives for the international case studies.
- Based on the literature study and case studies, to identify the apparent CSFs for leveraging mega-events as an element of overall destination competitiveness.
- To form an understanding of the status of the City of Tshwane as host city for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ and to test the relevance of the identified apparent CSFs with relevant industry stakeholders in the City of Tshwane.
- To establish the CSFs for leveraging mega-events from the viewpoint of destination marketing and management stakeholders.
- To determine how/where CSFs link into a popular model of destination competitiveness.
- To propose a framework whereby the CSFs can be managed.
- To provide recommendations and guidelines for implementation of the proposed framework.
1.5 IMPORTANCE AND BENEFITS OF THE STUDY

The opportunity to serve as the host of a high-profile mega-event has become a sought-after status for countries and cities worldwide; making this a very relevant topic for research (Getz, 2008; Chalip, 2006; Preuss, 2007). Considering the numerous potential benefits associated with such an event, it is easy to understand why countries and cities include hosting major events as significant components of their tourism development and marketing strategies (Getz, 2008:407; Steyn, 2007:10).

This is also the case for the City of Tshwane in South Africa, which was selected as one of the nine host cities to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The challenge posed to the City was to ensure not only positive legacies, but also to determine how this major sporting event could effectively be leveraged to enhance its competitiveness as a global city tourism destination. On a practical level, the development of a framework for the management of mega-events as a tool toward overall destination competitiveness, addresses this precise need. It could be useful to authorities and industry members to ensure that such events are indeed optimally leveraged to enhance the performance and sustainability of the host destination. If applied effectively, it could encourage greater cohesion between the event organisers and destination managers, and subsequent discussions and planning for event leverage could be guided to better address the interests and objectives of all stakeholders involved in, and affected by the mega-event.

On an academic level, the study can make a valuable contribution to the limited academic work on mega-events from a destination competitiveness perspective. Existing literature on mega-events primarily focuses on an event management or a sports tourism perspective. In the case of event tourism, the focus is mainly on impacts and marketing (Getz, 2008:409). However, from both the event management and event tourism perspective, increased attention is being given to gaining a greater understanding of the ‘legacies’ of such events for host destinations, from a destination management perspective (Chalip, 2006; Chalip, 2004; Preuss, 2007:210). Despite the growing awareness of the need to analyse mega-events in their entirety as occurrences that have multi-dimensional positive and negative implications for host destinations, very little work could be found that focus specifically on mega-events as contributors to overall destination competitiveness.
Getz states that there is great scope for theoretical advances in event tourism studies and related research (2008:421) and, more importantly for this study, that “The search for competitive advantage [through events] has not produced much research on strategy.” (2008:417). In his discussion on knowledge gaps and ‘productive lines of research’ in the field, he identified event tourism planning, development and marketing as unexplored research themes that will have to look at organisations involved, stakeholder networks, policy making, goals and strategies, impacts and evaluations. Harris, Jago, Allen and Huyskens (discussed in Getz, 2008:422) also identified the need for future research on events, and indicated it as being: (i) identification of consumer needs and motivations and target marketing (for event managers); (ii) event failure, risk management and research methods (for government officials); and (iii) risk management, valuing the events industry and event failure (for academics). It can be argued that the multi-dimensional nature of destinations leads to the relevance of all these topics in some form and extent, especially when working from the perspective of overall destination competitiveness.

This study aims to address this gap in the literature by bringing the two study fields of event management and event tourism together and to determine how and where mega-events could feature as prominent tools within the popular models of destination competitiveness. So doing the study also aims to contribute to the desired ‘strategic’ approach for event leveraging that looks beyond the triple-bottom-line and destination marketing and branding legacies.

1.6 DELIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

In order for the study to effectively speak to its problem statement and objectives, it is important to clarify what the research did not intend to do or include. It is also necessary that the researcher unreservedly states any assumptions without which the research problem would not even exist (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:57).
1.6.1 Delimitations

By setting delimitations, the researcher is continually guided toward the focal centre of the study by distinguishing between relevant and irrelevant information (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:55). The current study is bounded by a number of delimitations, as will now be discussed.

This study looked at the competitiveness of tourism destinations in totality from a destination marketing and management perspective, and did not focus on individual tourism businesses/units/attractions within the host destination per se.

Various models of destination competitiveness have been introduced and briefly explained, but they have not been analysed in depth, or critically compared in terms of their differences and relevance. The model that has been applied in the development of the framework, namely the Ritchie and Crouch model, has been elaborated upon and the choice of this specific model has also been clarified.

The focus of this study did not include measuring the impacts of events against all the elements of the competitiveness models respectively. The focus has rather been on determining the manner in which mega-events, as a tool, could contribute to certain key areas of the models and to identify what these key areas were that directly link to mega-events.

This study focused on leveraging mega-events, and subsequently did not include other types and sizes of events that are and can be held within destinations (as is currently the practice in many destinations). Although the mega-event focused on in the case study is of a sporting nature, mega-events have been viewed from within the study field of event tourism (which in itself is recognised as being inclusive of all planned events) (Getz, 2008:405). The difference between event tourism and sport tourism has not been debated in this study as the researcher does not regard them as being mutually exclusive.

Although both the impacts and legacies of mega-events have been referred to in the study, the difference between impacts and legacies has not been addressed in depth as a
separate topic of discussion. Instead, both impacts and legacies have been mentioned and discussed in such a way as to understand their different contributions as far as overall destination competitiveness is concerned.

Event tourism as a niche market for destinations has to be considered from both the perspectives of demand (event consumers) and supply (event destination) (Getz, 2007). According to the definition of stakeholders, as it will be used in this study, event consumers as such are also included. However, within the scope of this study, the focus will be on the supply-side stakeholders (destination marketers and managers and event organisers); with limited reference being made to the demand-side as a CSF and component within the proposed framework.

The study aimed to develop a credible set of CSFs by using triangulation between tourism literature, event literature, as well as stakeholder interviews. However, statistical tests have not been employed to determine the factor importance of the CSFs.

In order to present the City of Tshwane as case study for the empirical component, background information has been provided on the City both as a tourism destination, and as host city for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Primary data collection ended shortly before the start of the event, due to time restrictions on the part of the participants. Secondary data was also restricted to information that had been available before the start of the event. This study thus provides information in terms of readiness and expectations, and excludes information on performance during and post-evaluation of the actual event.

1.6.2 Assumptions

Apart from clearly stating the delimitations, it is also important for the researcher to state the assumptions underlying the study. In so doing, misunderstandings can be prevented and the resulting research findings may be better accepted (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:57). Within the scope of this research study, the following assumptions apply:
• All destinations compete in the international arena, either actively or passively;
• Mega-events are familiar occurrences in the tourism industry;
• Guidelines for mega-events can be applicable to other types of events;
• Tourism researchers and practitioners can use the lessons from case studies;
• The City of Tshwane is regarded as a tourism destination;
• The City of Tshwane has prepared itself to be a host city of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

The study is guided by interpretivism; thereby stating that the researcher took on an empathetic stance in an attempt to understand the complex and unique situation that exists because of a particular combination of circumstances and individuals (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007:106). In line with interpretivism, a subjective view was taken to explore the subjective meanings motivating the participants (Saunders et al., 2007:108). The research took on an inductive approach with the aim to build theory (a framework) by taking particular notice of the context in which events take place (Saunders et al., 2007:119).

The empirical component of the study took on the form of a case study research strategy, which is in line with the research paradigm and approach described previously. A multi-method research choice was employed to collect and analyse both primary and secondary qualitative data from the case study (Saunders et al., 2007:145). This research choice effectively served both the exploratory and descriptive aspects of the study. By using the combination of data collection methods, the different views present in the case study could be established more reliably (Saunders et al., 2007:119) and it also assisted with establishing the validity of the findings.

The study was cross-sectional, as it looked at a case study at a particular point in time and participants were only interviewed once (Kotzé, 2009:6). All data collection took place before the beginning of the event with the aim of understanding the City’s readiness and
preparation for the event. Documentary secondary data was used and written material was purposefully sampled from the City of Tshwane Tourism Division. Strategy documents, workshop reports and promotional material were studied to gain rich information on the City’s tourism strategy, as well as their strategy/initiatives related to 2010 FIFA World Cup™. For primary data collection, semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted. This allowed for meaningful discussions around a number of central questions pertaining to the research problem (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:146).

The target population included individuals from both genders (not race specific), who were regarded as experts in the fields of tourism and/or event management. They were primarily situated in Tshwane, seeing that this was the case study area. However, where necessitated by logistical factors (for example an office situated outside of Tshwane), these individuals were still included in the target population. The final study includes a total of 20 participants from across the various sectors, chosen through a combination of purposeful, snowball and discriminant sampling. Heterogeneous or maximum variation sampling was used to create a balanced portfolio of information-rich participants from the tourism/event industries, as well as from both the public. Care was also taken to select individuals that serve on different levels within organisations (from top management to departmental level). This inclusion of diverse individual cases allowed for more effective identification of the key themes (Saunders et al., 2007:232).

The combination of primary and secondary data was needed in order to collect extensive data on the perceived and actual readiness of the City, as well as the expectations of stakeholders. It also allowed for thick descriptions and triangulation to ensure the validity of the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:99). The quality of the secondary data was ensured by evaluating its overall and precise suitability (Saunders et al., 2007:263).

Even though inductive research is less concerned with the generalisation of findings (Saunders et al., 2007:120), the researcher is of the opinion that by having provided adequate context to the case study, it will allow for generalisation of the findings to other similar destinations (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:136).
1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

It is important to define and to provide an interpretation of the various key terms used in this study, as they have been used in relation to the specific research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:56). Figure 1 indicates the key terms and how they relate to each other within the study.

**Figure 1: Key terms underlying the research study**

- **Competitiveness:** “Competitiveness means jobs, wealth, improved living conditions, and an environment in which residents can prosper.” (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:12). It may also be defined as “… the degree to which a country can, under free and fair market conditions, produce goods and services which meet the tests of international markets, while simultaneously maintaining and expanding the real incomes of its people over the longer term …” (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:371).

- **Critical success factors:** CSFs “are the resources, skills and attributes of a destination that are essential to deliver success in the marketplace” (Lynch in Jonker, 2003). They are
critical to the attainment of the destination’s vision, mission and long-term goals; can be either internal or market related; are limited areas of success that will ensure overall competitiveness; and are result areas in which success can be measured (adapted from Jonker, 2003:61).

**Destination:** “A defined geographic region which is understood by its visitors as a unique entity, with a political and legislative framework for tourism marketing and planning.” (Buhalis, 2000:98). “A destination can be regarded as a combination (under the umbrella of an overall destination brand) of all products, services and ultimately experiences provided in the particular area.” (Heath, 2009c). Also “a place for consumption of tourism, a complex entity, a set of symbols and images, and a community” (Marzano, 2007:19).

**Destination competitiveness:** “A destination’s ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors, while providing them with satisfying, memorable experiences, and to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the well-being of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations.” (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:2).

**Destination marketing:** Destination marketing includes both marketing and management activities and is a complex and multidimensional task; requiring coordination between the public and private sector, the host community and the visitors; and can be a process of both intentional and unintentional collaboration (Heath, 2009c).

**Destination Marketing and Management Organisation (DMO):** “Destination marketing organisations (DMOs) are non-profit entities aimed at generating tourist visitation for a given area”. Due to changes in the industry structure and increasing global competition, DMOs “… are increasingly referred to as ‘destination marketing and management organizations’ …” (Gretzel et al., 2006:119). For the purpose of this study, the abbreviation DMO will therefore stand for destination marketing and management organisation.

**Event management:** “Event management is the applied field of study and area of professional practice devoted to the design, production and management of planned events, encompassing festivals and other celebrations, entertainment, recreation, political
and state, scientific, sport and arts events, those in the domain of business and corporate affairs (including meetings, conventions, fairs and exhibitions) and those in the private domain (including rites of passage such as weddings and parties, and social events for affinity groups).” (Getz, 2008:404). The unique aspect of the event management context lays in “... assembling the tangible components that create the intangible product of an event experience.” (Silvers, 2010).

**Event strategy:** A long-term plan designed to achieve a major goal of the destination through coordinated event-related actions; ultimately answering to national objectives in order to gain government support (adapted from O’Toole, 2010:39).

**Event tourism:** Event tourism is a form of special interest travel and “... is generally recognized as being inclusive of all planned events in an integrated approach to development and marketing ...” (Getz, 2008:405). It has a supply side and demand side perspective and closely links with sub-areas such as sport, cultural and business tourism. It is mostly seen as “… an application of, or specialty within national tourism offices and destination marketing/management organizations …” (Getz, 2008:406).

**Impacts:** The direct, measurable outcomes of an event; usually measured in economic terms (Chalip, 2006:112; Jago & Dwyer, 2006; Steyn, 2007:10; Wood, 2005:38). The impacts also extend to include cultural, physical, technical and psychological impacts (Ritchie, 2000; Wood, 2005:38).

**Legacies:** “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.” (Preuss, 2007:211). In simple terms, legacies are the long-term benefits (or losses) to be gained (or suffered) from an event and include elements before, during and after the actual event (Chalip, 2000:3).

**Leveraging:** Leverage is the implementation or employment of resources in such a way as to optimise and generate desired outcomes (taken from Chalip, 2006:112). As a verb it means “… the ability to exert power or influence on ...” (Investopedia, n.d.). As a noun it is “... a small initial investment to contribute to a very high return ...” (Investorwords, n.d.).
**Mega-event:** “Events that by way of their size or significance are those that yield extraordinarily high levels of tourism, media coverage, prestige or economic impact for the host destination.” (Damster & Tassiopoulos, 2005:12). Furthermore, “… mega events are typically global in their orientation and require a competitive bid to ‘win’ them as a one-time event for a particular place.” (Getz, 2008:408).

**Stakeholders:** “... those entities which have the highest probability of interacting with an organization or those which would have the greatest impact on, or greatest impact from, the organization's actions ...”, and this will range from entities “… which can and are making their actual stakes known (sometimes called “voice”) ...” to “… those which are or might be influenced by, or are or potentially are influencers of, some organization or another, whether or not this influence is perceived or known.” (Starik, 1994:90)

**Sustainability:** Ritchie and Crouch (2003:30) states that sustainability within a destination implies to find a “… balance among four complimentary pillars (economic, social, cultural, political) in such a way that no fatal weaknesses are evident in the system of sustainability ...” and that instability in one pillar will inevitably lead to instability in all four because of their interdependence. The sustainable competitiveness of the destination will depend on ‘the prosperity, standard of living and quality of life of its residents through the vision and goals the destination has set, either explicitly or implicitly’.

The body text of this study also contains the abbreviations as indicated in Table 1.

**Table 1: List of abbreviations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CED</td>
<td>Centre for Excellence in Destinations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CoT</td>
<td>City of Tshwane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSF</td>
<td>Critical Success Factor</td>
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<tr>
<td>DEAT</td>
<td>Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMO</td>
<td>Destination Marketing and Management Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIFA</td>
<td>Fédération Internationale de Football Association</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GTA</td>
<td>Gauteng Tourism Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
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<td>--------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOC</td>
<td>International Olympic Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOC</td>
<td>Local Organising Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MICE</td>
<td>Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDT</td>
<td>National Department of Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROMI</td>
<td>Return on Marketing Investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTO</td>
<td>Regional Tourism Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAT</td>
<td>South African Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMME</td>
<td>Small, micro and medium enterprises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T&amp;T</td>
<td>Travel and Tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TBU</td>
<td>Tourism Business Unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEP</td>
<td>Tourism Enterprise Program</td>
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<tr>
<td>TTAT</td>
<td>Tshwane Tourism Action Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNEP</td>
<td>United Nations Environment Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNWTO</td>
<td>United Nations World Tourism Organisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>VIC</td>
<td>Visitor Information Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEF</td>
<td>World Economic Forum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTTC</td>
<td>World Travel and Tourism Council</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.9 ORGANISATION OF CHAPTERS

Figure 2 (pg.36) indicates the layout, as well as the focus areas of the respective chapters. The study starts with the literature review (Chapters 2 and 3) that provides an overview of academic work available from two fields of study: tourism management and event management. Within these study fields, the focus is narrowed down to destination marketing and management on the one hand, and event tourism on the other. Once the essence of these two fields have been established, the focus turns toward bringing these two study fields together in order to determine how and where mega-events could feature as prominent tools within the popular models of destination competitiveness. This strategic approach toward event leveraging necessitates careful selection of appropriate material from two well-researched study fields, in order to capture the essence and ensure clarity on the focus of this study. Both of these chapters will produce a set of apparent CSFs for leveraging mega-events from a destination perspective. Chapter 4 will
provide an introduction to the case study, the City of Tshwane in Gauteng, South Africa, as one of the host cities of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Chapter 5 provides a detailed discussion of the methodology that was used to conduct the case study, followed by Chapter 6 where the findings of the study will be discussed. This chapter will contain data from two data sets – the primary data collected through interviews and photos, as well as the secondary data collected through various strategic documents. Chapter 7 will conclude with a final set of CSFs, as well as a proposed framework whereby these factors can be applied within a model of tourism destination competitiveness.

Figure 2: Organisation of chapters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CHAPTER 1: General orientation</th>
<th>Research problem and objectives Delimitations and assumptions Definition of key terms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 2: Literature review – Destination competitiveness</td>
<td>Competitiveness in the tourism context Role of destination stakeholders Models of destination competitiveness Mega-events within the models Apparent critical success factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 3: Literature review – Mega-events</td>
<td>Understanding event tourism Importance of hosting mega-events Mega-events and destination marketing Lessons from mega-event case studies Apparent critical success factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 4: Introduction to the City of Tshwane</td>
<td>South Africa as host country Tshwane as tourism destination Tshwane as host city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 5: Research design and methodology</td>
<td>Broad research design Data collection and analysis Quality and rigour of the study Research ethics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 6: Research results and discussion</td>
<td>Current competitiveness of Tshwane Tshwane as a host city Aspects unique to mega-events Ensuring positive event legacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER 7: Framework and guidelines</td>
<td>Critical success factors Linking the CSFs into a model Proposed framework and guidelines Recommendation for future research</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To navigate readers through the research paper, the chapter framework (Figure 3) will be displayed at the start of each chapter. It will indicate the relevant chapter, as well as the chapters already completed and still to be completed.

**Figure 3: Chapter framework**

INTRODUCTION & OBJECTIVES

- LITERATURE: DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS
- APPARENT CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

- LITERATURE: MEGA-EVENTS
- APPARENT CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

CASE STUDY: CITY OF TSHWANE

- RESEARCH DESIGN & METHODOLOGY
- RESULTS & DISCUSSION
- FRAMEWORK & GUIDELINES
CHAPTER 2: OVERVIEW OF AND APPROACHES TO TOURISM DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the first study field presented in the research, namely tourism destination competitiveness. An extensive amount of literature exists within this field, encompassing a wide variety of approaches to the topic. For the purpose of the current study, focus will be on the most popular and recent work, in order to form an understanding of the current approaches to measuring and managing destination competitiveness. In the last part of the chapter, focus will divert to mega-events as a possible key element within the models of destination competitiveness.
2.1 INTRODUCTION

As stated in the introduction to this study, competitiveness is a widely applied concept that has received increasing attention from researchers since the late 1990’s. Even though the majority of this research has been undertaken from the perspective of the manufacturing/trade sector, it was found that, in general, there is nothing in the theory that would differ fundamentally when applied to the services sector (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:19). Dwyer and Kim (2003:370) also state that “… the notion of destination competitiveness should be consistent with the notion of competitiveness in the international economics and international business literature …” It is therefore appropriate for this study to begin this section on the theory of tourism destination competitiveness by briefly referring to competitiveness from a general industry perspective.

2.2 COMPETITIVENESS AS A FIELD OF STUDY

Competition is a concept that has been given recognition and that has captured the interest of researchers and economists from as early as 1776 when Adam Smith wrote An inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations (Ritchie & Crouch 2003:11). Since then, different approaches to the topic have been introduced by various authors (as discussed in Ritchie & Crouch 2003:12-14).

As one of the leaders in this field, Porter (1990) introduced the famous ‘Five Forces Model’ wherein he promulgates the industry’s attractiveness and individual firms’ power in relation to buyers, suppliers, potential entrants and competitors as the main determinants of competitiveness and profitability.

Ritchie and Crouch (2003:14-18) presents competitiveness for the manufacturing/trade sector in a framework (see Table 2, pg.40) that includes, among others, the work of Porter mentioned above, as well as the criteria used by the World Trade Organisation in the annual World Competitiveness Yearbook. The framework consists of the structure (the driving forces of competition), the territory (that which if being fought over), the stakes (the rewards associated with each territory being fought over) and the tools (the elements that enable a company or nation to compete, or its ‘competitive capabilities’).
Table 2: Elements and levels of competition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element of competition</th>
<th>Level of competition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Companies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The structure</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry competitors</td>
<td>Factor conditions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Substitutes</td>
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<td>Potential entrants</td>
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<td>Suppliers</td>
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<td>Buyers</td>
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<td>Factor conditions</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Government</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Resources</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Global markets</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>The territory</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Target markets</td>
<td>Favourable public policies</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>The stakes</strong></td>
<td>Market share</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Profitability</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Survival</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Goods and services</td>
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<tr>
<td>Corporate strategy</td>
<td>Industry associations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market research</td>
<td>Marketing authorities</td>
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<td>Competitor analysis</td>
<td>Industrial policy</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Joint promotions</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ritchie and Crouch (2003:15)

Many of the aspects included in this framework apply to the tourism industry, especially at a company (tourism business unit) level. Even though it offers a simplistic view of the levels of competitiveness from a general industry perspective, it can be applied to tourism. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) has effectively incorporated this framework into their model of destination competitiveness (which will be discussed in section 2.5).

Dwyer and Kim (2003) also conducted a study of the literature on competitiveness before working on their own model for tourism competitiveness. Table 3 (pg.41) summarises their major findings.
Table 3:

Theory on competitiveness
(i)

Three groups of thought
regarding competitiveness

Micro and macro
perspective

Competitiveness is

comparative advantage and/or price competitiveness as emphasised
by economists;
(ii) a strategy and management perspective focusing on firm-specific
characteristics; and
(iii) a historical and socio-cultural perspective as emphasised by
sociologists and political theorists
Macro: competitiveness is a national priority that focuses on improving the
income of the community; encompassing all social, cultural and economic
variables that may affect international performance.
Micro: firm-specific behaviour determines competitiveness and includes:
- enhancing the individual firm’s power in relation to the market forces of
competition
- a resource-based approach focusing on the acquisition and
maintenance of distinctive capabilities and competencies
- having core competencies that can not be imitated by others and for
which clients are willing to pay
- ‘the ability to stay in business and to protect the organisation’s
investments, to earn a return on those investments and to ensure jobs
for the future’ (2003:372)
- both a relative concept and multi-dimensional
- centred around human development and quality of life
- different for each economy according to its level of development
- growth and value for shareholders on a company level
- jobs and improved living conditions on a societal level
- “…not an end but a means to an end; its ultimate goal is to increase the
standard of living of a nation under free and fair market conditions
(through trade, production and investment)” (Cho, 1998 in Kim & Dwyer,
2003:372)

Source: Taken from Dwyer and Kim (2003:370–375)

Dwyer and Kim (2003) appear to focus strongly on the distinction between the individual
firm and the industry or nation at large. They also place emphasis on the establishment of
meaningful core competencies. It appears as if they focus more on the social aspects of
competitiveness and duly agree with the statement that competitiveness should ultimately
only be pursued in a free market in order to improve the quality of live of a nation’s people.
In the process of building theory around the competitiveness of the services industry, the
need for the development of a model that could specifically be applied to specialist subcategories of international trade such as tourism, was identified (Ritchie & Crouch,
2003:19). New academic fields (such as destination competitiveness) usually arise from
professional practice (such as tourism management); and academics that teach, do
research and publish within an emerging field, have to produce work that evolve from
purely applied to something more theoretical and academically credible (Getz, 2008:405).

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Before looking at the definitions and elements of destination competitiveness (sections 2.4 and 2.5), it is therefore important to understand how it has evolved as an academic topic, as well as how it has been applied by practitioners.

2.3 GAINING IMPORTANCE WITHIN A TOURISM CONTEXT

The next section will describe how, not only academics, but also practitioners followed suit and have contributed to formalising and structuring the concept of tourism destination competitiveness.

2.3.1 The growth of destination competitiveness as an academic study field

The debate around tourism destination competitiveness appears to have gained momentum during the 1990s, at which stage the pioneering work of Ritchie and Crouch (2000:6) started (to be discussed in the next section). Poon (1993:29), among others, took part in these early debates and stated that tourism destinations should have a greater strategic orientation in order to adapt to the changing face of the ‘new’ tourism industry. She also stated that destinations had to make tourism a priority sector; that the concerns of the environment should be put first; and that a greater effort should be put into strengthening distribution channels and building a dynamic private sector (1993:24).

It was found that the frameworks of ‘competitiveness’ presented in the wider management literature on competitiveness, did not address the unique considerations relevant to ‘destination competitiveness’ (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:407). After confirming that competitiveness was a matter of increasing importance for tourism destinations and that a more integrated approach was required when dealing with this matter, several researchers undertook the task of creating comprehensive frameworks or models for destination competitiveness (to be presented in section 2.5.4).

By the end of the 1990s, two international journals had devoted entire issues to this theme, namely “… the journal Tourism in a special issue, Competitiveness in Tourism and Hospitality (Volume 47 (4), 1999) …” and “… the journal Tourism Management in its special
It is apparent that competitiveness is a well established topic within tourism research. Great progress has been made in terms of motivating, defining and measuring competitiveness of tourism destinations (to be discussed in sections 2.4 and 2.5). The topic has not only received interest from academics, but practitioners have also been giving considerable consideration to the manner in which tourism industry competitiveness can be promoted and managed. The next section will provide an overview of the notable international efforts to promote the concept of destination competitiveness.

2.3.2 Competitiveness as a key consideration amongst industry practitioners

A few internationally recognised bodies have done extensive work to determine competitiveness through measurable terms. These efforts range from indexes that rank countries in terms of their global levels of competitiveness relating to various themes, to committees that focus on assisting countries in determining and managing their national competitiveness. Many of these efforts are interesting, but do not relate directly to tourism and will therefore not be discussed and compared within the scope of this study. A brief overview is now be provided of some of the programs and indexes that focus specifically or directly relate to countries as tourism destinations.

2.3.2.1 The UNWTO’s Quality Support and Trade Committee

Significant attention has been given to the concept of tourism competitiveness by the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO). The world’s governing body on tourism promulgates the concept that destination competitiveness is intrinsically linked to quality; stating that “the capacity to compete depends on the investments made to create an attractive and safe product; enhance its quality; and provide for a friendly and encouraging competition environment.” (UNWTO, n.d.a). The technical body of the UNWTO’s Quality Support and Trade Committee offers destinations training and support

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in setting up destination quality management systems (De Bruyn, 2005a). The committee also explain how a destination’s competitiveness can be increased by communicating the concept of quality through their marketing (De Bruyn, 2005b). This whole aspect of destination quality brings the focus back to the efforts and practices of the individual business units (TBUs). These units have to have the necessary motivation and commitment to strive toward the delivery of high quality products and services. In turn, the TBUs cannot obtain optimal quality levels if there is no support and structures from a greater overarching DMO level.

### 2.3.2.2 The World Centre of Excellence in Destinations

The World Centre of Excellence for Destinations (CED, 2010a) was established in 2006 as a non-profit organisation based in Montréal (Canada). It works in partnership with the UNWTO to create strategies and disseminate “know-how and good practices which help tourist destinations reach excellence”. The Centre has developed a *System of Measures for Excellence in Destinations* (SMED), which evaluates destinations and provides a complete and accurate portrait of a destination at a given point in time. It focuses on short-term and long-term goals of sustainable tourism, and provides “concrete and feasible recommendations for strategic interventions and continuous improvement” (CED, 2010d:2). Evaluations are conducted by experts, involving a series of steps over an average period of five months. By establishing a profile of the destination, appropriate indicators are selected to measure excellence in that specific destination. The DMO will then invite stakeholders and local experts to complete a customised questionnaire for the destination. The data obtained in the questionnaire is used by an SMED expert to perform an on-site visit, in order to validate the information collected in the questionnaire and to collect any missing data through consultation workshops and interviews with local experts. The DMO is provided with a report that indicates “… the destination’s current opportunities and challenges, a qualitative analysis per field and category, comparative studies of other similar destinations, as well as general recommendations …” Destinations that take part in this process become part of a worldwide destination database, and they benefit from ongoing follow-up and additional information obtained by the CED over time (CED, 2010c).

It serves as a tool to perform several tasks including, diagnostics of resources; monitoring progress made; managing and mobilising destination stakeholders; collaborating on the
destination’s unique characteristics and use this to brand and position the destination; undertaking a competitive analysis and benchmarking; and facilitating strategically aligned communication within the destination (CED, 2010b). Although it is probably not possible for all destinations to undergo such a process, the process itself highlights certain practices that are key to competitiveness. It may be valuable for a destination to create similar processes (for example, an audit of destination resources) within its own capacity.

2.3.2.3 The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index

The Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index is a multi-year research project of the World Economic Forum (WEF) “… aimed at exploring various issues related to the Travel and Tourism (T&T) competitiveness of nations around the world …” (Blanke & Chiesa, 2009). The index is based on three broad categories of variables that have been identified as the major driving forces behind travel and tourism competitiveness. They include (1) T&T regulatory framework; (2) T&T business environment and infrastructure; and (3) T&T human, cultural, and natural resources. These categories or sub-indexes are in turn comprised of 14 ‘pillars’ (key components) of T&T competitiveness, which include:

- Policy rules and regulations;
- Environmental sustainability;
- Safety and security;
- Health and hygiene; Prioritization of Travel & Tourism;
- Air transport infrastructure;
- Ground transport infrastructure;
- Tourism infrastructure;
- ICT infrastructure;
- Price competitiveness in the T&T industry;
- Human resources;
- Affinity for Travel & Tourism;
- Natural resources; and
- Cultural resources.

For the purpose of measurement, these pillars are again divided into various individual variables.
The index is presented in the form of a report, which includes written contributions by industry experts on related issues. Interesting to note are some of the comments made by contributors in the 2009 report, which focused on competitiveness in times of global economic difficulty (Blanke & Chiesa, 2009:xxiii). Ringbeck, Gautam and Pietsch (in Blanke & Chiesa, 2009:xxiii) explain how events in the macro environment (in this case high oil prices) could bring about dramatic changes in the structure of the global tourism industry, which in turn will have a great impact on the competitiveness of individual destinations. It is stated that countries have to adopt strategies to cope “in a world of fundamental change”. Girgis and Ibrahim (in Blanke & Chiesa, 2009:xxiii) suggest that public-private sector dialogue and partnerships are crucial to remain competitive in challenging times. Kyriakidis, Hancock, Oaten and Bashir (in Blanke & Chiesa, 2009:xxiv) explain how a change in strategic focus can ensure competitiveness in difficult times. They suggest that strategies should be longer-term, supply-oriented and should focus on long-term value. Furthermore they state that ‘visitor economies’ (industry directly and indirectly related to tourism) have to be adaptable, develop “deeper domestic tourism supply chains”, invest in “higher-value ‘quality and skills’”, and focus on “building diversity into the destination”.

2.3.2.4 The Competitiveness Monitor

The Competitiveness Monitor is developed by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (Ibrahim, 2004). This index measures destinations’ competitiveness based on price, economic and social impact, human resources, infrastructure, environment, technology, openness, and social development. The WTTC undertakes an extensive data collection effort and makes the database available in the public domain.

After discussing both these indexes, it can be stated that destinations have to take the generally accepted variables of destination competitiveness into consideration when formulating its own strengths and weaknesses. Indexes such as the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index and The Competitiveness Monitor can provide valuable insight in this regard. Furthermore, there will always be other externalities, mostly from the macro

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2 The usefulness and credibility of this monitor is discussed by Mazanec et al. (2007), as well as Gooroochurn and Sugiyarto (2005).
environment, that has to be taken into consideration to make relevant and timely matches between the destination’s capabilities and real-time opportunities and threats.

The last two indexes are not specifically focused on the tourism industry, but could carry out a strong message about a destination into the global marketplace.

2.3.2.5 The Anholt-GfK Roper Brand Indexes

In 1996, Simon Anholt coined the term ‘nation branding’ and in 2005 he developed the Anholt Nation Brands Index as a way to measure the image and reputation of the world’s nations (GfK, n.d.a). Anholt describes the Nation Brand Index as “… a report card for countries, measuring the world’s perception of each nation as if it were a public brand.” Significantly, he states that “Much as a commercial brand relies on a favorable public opinion to sell products, countries depend on their reputation and image to bring in tourists, business, investment and other facets important to a nation’s financial strength and its international standing.” (Nation Branding, 2008)

A total of 50 countries were included in the 2008 Anholt-GfK Roper Nation Brands Index (GfK, n.d.a). It measures the power and quality of each country's 'brand image' by combining the following six dimensions:

- **Exports**: the public's image of products and services from each country and the extent to which consumers proactively seek or avoid products from each country-of-origin.

- **Governance**: public opinion regarding the level of national government competency and fairness and describes individuals' beliefs about each country's government, as well as its perceived commitment to global issues such as democracy, justice, poverty and the environment.

- **Culture and Heritage**: global perceptions of each nation's heritage and appreciation for its contemporary culture, including film, music, art, sport and literature.

- **People**: the population's reputation for competence, education, openness and friendliness and other qualities, as well as perceived levels of potential hostility and discrimination.

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3 In 2008 he partnered with GfK Roper Public Affairs and Media, explaining the extended name.
- **Tourism**: the level of interest in visiting a country and the draw of natural and man-made tourist attractions.

- **Investment and Immigration**: the power to attract people to live, work or study in a country and reveals how people perceive a country’s economic and social situation.

Simon Anholt has also developed the Anholt-GfK Roper City Brands Index. It is stated that “In today's globalised world, every city must compete with every other city for its share of the world's tourists, investors, talent, cultural exchange, business visitors, events and media profile.” (Anholt, 2009). This index measures perceptions of cities among nationals of both developed and developing countries by combining the following six dimensions (GfK, n.d.b):

- **Presence**: the city's international status and standing and the global familiarity/knowledge of the city. It also includes the city's global contribution in science, culture and governance.

- **Place**: people’s perceptions about the physical aspect of each city in terms of pleasantness of climate, cleanliness of environment and how attractive its buildings and parks are.

- **Pre-requisites**: determines how people perceive the basic qualities of the city; whether they are satisfactory, affordable and accommodating, as well as the standard of public amenities such as schools, hospitals, transportation and sports facilities.

- **People**: whether the inhabitants of the city are perceived as warm and welcoming, whether respondents think it would be easy for them to find and fit into a community that shares their language and culture and whether they would feel safe.

- **Pulse**: the perception that there are interesting things to fill free time with and how exciting the city is perceived to be in regard to new things to discover.

- **Potential**: the perception of economic and educational opportunities within the city, such as how easy it might be to find a job, whether it’s a good place to do business or pursue a higher education.

These two indexes, although not broadly popularised yet (with only 50 countries included), provides extensive information on the perceptions of people regarding countries. It focuses attention on the fact that no destination can ignore the power of destination image, and
that no competitiveness strategy can exist without taking the perceptions of people (tourists) into consideration. This aspect will be discussed at a later stage in this study.

2.3.2.6 The Climate Competitiveness Index

The Climate Competitiveness Index (CCI) was launched in partnership with the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) at the Business for Environment Global Summit in Seoul, South Korea in 2010. According to the Index, climate competitiveness “is the ability of an economy to create enduring economic value through low carbon technology, products and services” (Lee, MacGillivray, Begley & Zayakova, 2010:4). It identifies good practices in countries around the world and “combines two sets of data on climate accountability (the climate strategy is clear, ambitious, and supported by all stakeholders) and climate performance (the country has the track record and capabilities to deliver the strategy)” (AccountAbility, 2010). In a study conducted by Otto and Heath (2009:172-174), it was stated that the study of the relationship between the tourism industry and climate change, has only recently (early 2000) gained momentum. Otto and Heath’s study found a general unawareness among tourism industry stakeholders of the potential contribution of their operations to climate change (2009:188). When considering that the issue of climate change has received enough attention to justify a related competitiveness index, Otto and Heath’s (2009:189) suggestion of an umbrella climate policy may become non-negotiable to ensure sustainable destination competitiveness.

It is clear that international competitiveness is no longer only an academic topic of discussion. It has become a core focus for destination managers and marketers, as several internationally recognised platforms are now able to make public (global) statements about their competitiveness. However, producers and users of such messages have to take into consideration the fact that tourism destinations are some of the most difficult entities to manage (Heath, 2009c:3). It is therefore necessary to look at some of the complexities involved when aiming to measure the competitiveness of tourism destination.
2.3.3 Considerations when measuring the competitiveness of tourism destinations

As indicated before, the theory on competitiveness for manufacturing/trade can in principle be applied to services. There are however a few issues that need to be considered regarding the nature of the service sector. The unique character of the tourism industry furthermore poses additional challenges when it comes to measuring competitiveness.

2.3.3.1 The nature of tourism destinations

Before looking at the various perspectives on destination competitiveness, the unique characteristics of destinations should be considered. As discussed in Buhalis (1999:98), destinations are some of the most difficult entities to manage; posing many challenges to managers and marketers. They are regarded as single geographic entities, but consist of an amalgam of elements that culminate in the overall destination experience, including tourism product and services, the local people and their culture, non-tourism industries, governing structures, and many other elements that are not directly part of the tourism economy (Buhalis, 2000:97-98).

Heath (2009c:3-4) offers a summary of destination characteristics and indicates a number of contrasting aspects. Firstly, destinations are physical entities with a geographical location, but also consist of a large intangible socio-cultural entity. Secondly, destinations do not only exist in real terms, but to a great extent also exist as a perception in the minds of current and potential tourists. Thirdly, they are affected by current as well as past events, whether these may be real or merely fictitious occurrences. Lastly, individual destinations often expand beyond a single space to include several destinations and locations, but are still regarded as conceptual entities (Buhalis, 2000:97).

2.3.3.2 The unique characteristics of tourism services

Services differ from goods in the sense that they are intangible, highly perishable, inseparable (require the presence of the customer) and cannot be standardised (Francis,
These characteristics require a different perspective on many measures of competitiveness, such as market share and growth, turnover and quality.

Service industries have three modes of operating internationally: (i) the customer travels to the service; (ii) the service establishes operations in foreign countries; (iii) the service is provided remotely using information technology (adapted from Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:19). These characteristics of service operations already make distribution more complex than would be the case for consumer goods. When considering the nature of products and services that form part of the tourism industry (for example transportation, hospitality, attractions, travel intermediaries), service delivery becomes even more challenging. Only a few of these products or services would by definition fall within more than one of the three categories above, should such a company decide to enter the international arena; thus limiting the extent to which the competitiveness of tourism services can be measured along the lines of other service sectors.

### 2.3.3.3 Competitiveness can be viewed from a macro or micro perspective

As indicated by Dwyer and Kim and presented in Table 3 (pg.41), competitiveness can be viewed from a macro and a micro perspective, and that individual firms and nations face different challenges and opportunities (2003:372). Consider, however, the following statement by Hassan: “Due to the multiplicity of industries that need to be involved in making destinations become competitive, it is essential to look beyond rivalry among firms.” (2000:239). It can therefore be deducted that destination competitiveness will rather be focused on a macro perspective as this will allow the inclusion of the multitude of elements that constitute a destination.

### 2.3.3.4 The distinction between comparative and competitive advantage

It is important to make the distinction between these two concepts, as both present a different aspect of achieving overall destination competitiveness (Table 4, pg.52). Comparative advantage is in essence concerned with the differences between destinations in terms of their possession of resources or the factors of production. The way in which a destination has more or less of one of the other resource/s, is referred to as
factor proportions. Competitive advantage on the other hand is the destination’s ability to effectively (where and how) use or deploy these resources (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:20-23).

These two aspects do not exist in isolation, but have to be equally considered when exploring the topic of competitiveness (Heath, 2002:335). Both these aspects are managed by destinations in an effort to counter factor proportions that present weaknesses and to capitalise on available strengths. A destination will, in an effort to “… apply its comparative and competitive advantages … look for a match between its competitive strengths and weaknesses, and the opportunities and threats present … in the global tourism market …’ (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:27).

Table 4: Elements of comparative and competitive advantage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparative advantage (availability of resources)</th>
<th>Competitive advantage (deployment of resources)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human resources</td>
<td>Modes of deployment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical resources</td>
<td>- Locus of control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge resources</td>
<td>- Actions of industry associations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital resources</td>
<td>- Collective action of individual TBUs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infrastructure and tourism superstructure</td>
<td>- Support of special interest groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Historical and cultural resources</td>
<td>Elements of deployment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of economy</td>
<td>- Audit/inventory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Maintenance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Growth and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Efficiency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Effectiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural / inherited or Created / man-made</td>
<td>Non-renewable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Renewable or</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Ritchie and Crouch (2003:20-24)

2.3.3.5 Competitiveness is more than competitive positioning

In addition to the various considerations mentioned above, it is also important to note that competitiveness is not the same as competitive positioning. Positioning forms part of a destination’s strategy development and can be described as “… the ability to develop and communicate meaningful differences between the offerings of the particular destination and its tourism business units, and those of competitors serving the same target market(s) …’ (Heath, 2009c:27). It is thus focused on creating a desired perception or image in the minds of certain tourist markets. A destination can, through the utilisation of positioning tactics, promote an image of being better than competing destinations (competitiveness), e
specially with regards to specific product offerings or types of resources. This does however not mean or guarantee that the destination in its totality meets the requirements of a sustainable, successful and competitive destination, as this entails much more than mere perceptive judgement of potential and existing tourists.

After describing how destination competitiveness has grown as an academic topic and how it has become an important topic on international platforms, it is necessary to turn the attention to exactly what the concept entails. However, from the discussions it becomes evident that destination competitiveness is not a simplistic concept and that formulating a single, encompassing definition of destination competitiveness will be an extensive task. The next section will explore the various definitions of tourism destination competitiveness, and will also look at some of the concepts and practices that are closely related to it.

2.4 DEFINING TOURISM DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

Within an academic field it is important to establish a description of the meaning of key terms that are used as part of the ‘jargon’ of that field. As is the case in many subject areas however, there is no singular accepted definition of destination competitiveness. This is because researchers provide definitions in operational terms – explaining how the term has been used in relation to their specific study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:56). Similarly it is necessary to define how the term has been used within the context of the current study’s research problem.

2.4.1 Formulating a definition of destination competitiveness

A number of authors have attempted to formulate an inclusive and comprehensive definition of destination competitiveness. Table 5 (pg.54) provides a summary of various such definitions that were found and that were most frequently adopted in the literature.

For the purpose of the current study, the definition of destination competitiveness, as proposed by Ritchie and Crouch, has been adopted. This coincides with the fact that their model for destination competitiveness has also been applied in the empirical component (Chapter 6) and proposed framework (Chapter 7).
2.4.2 Concepts and practices related to destination competitiveness

A few concepts and practices were found in the literature that appear to be closely related to and that are often found alongside discussions on competitiveness. These aspects serve as tools and means to achieve competitiveness within a well-structured and planned tourism destination. They are closely linked to competitiveness in the sense that they are often regarded as the main avenues through which to achieve competitive superiority. A short overview of these aspects will now be given (detailed discussions were not regarded as falling within the scope of the study).

Table 5: Definitions of destination competitiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author/s</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ritchie &amp; Crouch (2003:2)</td>
<td>“A destination’s ability to increase tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract visitors while providing them with satisfying, memorable experiences, and to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the well-being of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hassan (2000:240)</td>
<td>“A destination’s ability to create and integrate value-added products that sustain its resources while maintaining market position relative to competitors.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dwyer &amp; Kim (2003:374)</td>
<td>“Destination competitiveness would appear to be linked to the ability of a destination to deliver goods and services that perform better than other destinations on those aspects of the tourism experience considered to be important by tourists.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D'Hauteserre (2000:23)</td>
<td>“The ability of a destination to maintain its market position and share and/or to improve upon them through time.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dwyer, Forsyth and Rao (2000:9)</td>
<td>“Tourism competitiveness is a general concept that encompasses price differentials coupled with exchange rate movements, productivity levels of various components of the tourist industry and qualitative factors affecting the attractiveness or otherwise of a destination.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department of Industry, Science and Resources (in Du Rand, 2006:54)</td>
<td>“Destination is linked backwards to the various determinants of competitiveness and forwards to regional/national prosperity, indicating that destination competitiveness is itself an intermediate goal toward a more fundamental aim of economic well-being for residents.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s own construction

2.4.2.1 Destination Management and Marketing

Destination management is “… the coordinated management and strategic linking of a
destination’s elements, namely its attractions, amenities, access, marketing and pricing …” (UNWTO in Seymour, 2009:19). Planning and policy formulation and implementation provide the basis of destination management (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003) and this is largely the responsibility of the various DMOs within a destination (Seymour, 2009:2).

Tourism marketing is one of the most researched and published topics of all business studies with a tourism orientation (Li & Petrick, 2008:235). The marketing of destinations has taken on the same dramatic changes as for consumer goods and the most important paradigm shifts in marketing indicate the direction of future management of a destination, as well as tourism products and services. It appears as if the tourism industry, due to the nature of tourism operations, has an advantage in adopting the new practices of a relationship orientation, network marketing and the service-dominant logic (Li & Petrick, 2008:239).

Buhalis provided a strategic outlook on marketing within the tourism industry. He stated that “… tourism marketing should not only be regarded as a tool for attracting more visitors to a region … [but] … should operate as a mechanism to facilitate regional development objectives … to rationalise the provision of tourism in order to ensure that the strategic objectives of the destinations are achieved … [should] ensure equitable returns-on-resources-utilised … Hence, marketing should be used as a strategic mechanism in co-ordination with planning and management, rather than a sales tool …” (2000:100).

Seymour (2009:19) stated that marketing supports the various elements within a destination by attracting tourists and by ensuring service delivery at ‘touch-point’ level in order to ensure that visitors’ expectations are met. He highlighted the broader functions of destination marketing as discussed by Ritchie & Crouch (in Seymour, 2009:19), namely to ensure innovative product development and packaging that meet new tourist demands; to organise and coordinate tourism in the destination; to improve the overall service experience of tourists; the gathering and dissemination of information and research; to educate tourism providers; to act as resource stewards; and to have contingency plans in plans for crisis management. From the description of these functions, it becomes clear that destination marketing and destination management are not two separate functions, but rather that they run parallel and cannot be undertaken in isolation.
Another important aspect of destination marketing, is the need for collaborative marketing (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007). This network approach is brought on by the fragmented nature of the tourism industry and the various roleplayers involved in a destination. Tourism organisations at various levels can contribute to the marketing of a destination and it is therefore necessary to coordinate the marketing through one entity such as a DMO or a convention and visitor bureau (Wang & Fesenmaier, 2007:863). More will be said about this task of coordination in section 2.4.3.3, when the role of the DMO is discussed.

2.4.2.2 Benchmarking destination practices against industry leaders

The concept of benchmarking is an established practice in the service industry and is defined as “… the continuous management and improvement of an organization’s performance against the best in the industry to obtain information about new working methods or practices …” (Kozak, 2002:499). It is a tool used for quality management and requires an organisation, or destination in this case, to compare its performance against best practices and to identify any gaps in its own operations. Benchmarks are similar to performance indicators and there are a multitude of measured benchmarks that apply to individual elements of a destination (Kozak, 2002:512). They are specific and statistically measurable – making it a valuable tool to measure competitiveness, but not a perfect indication of competitiveness, which includes many intangible and qualitative aspects.

2.4.2.3 Measuring destination performance through appropriate indicators

A destination’s performance is a set of actual (not just anticipated or hoped for) achievements that can be compared with the established goals; stemming from the comparative and competitive advantages (of the destination) and assessed over the long term. Management of a destination’s performance is a much more complicated task than for a normal company because “… a destination strives to achieve multiple goals, involves many different stakeholders, often lacks a focal organisation … and faces a difficult task in gathering the disparate information required to assess its performance …” (Ritchie &
Crouch, 2003:28). Figure 4 (pg.57) illustrates the linkage between destination competitiveness and performance.

**Figure 4:** Destination competitiveness and performance

Apart from the fact that performance indicators become more complex for tourism, one also has to re-evaluate the value of popular indicators within the context of broader destination competitiveness. Although indicators such as market share, market growth and contribution to gross domestic product (GDP) can offer measurements of existing performance of a destination, they cannot be regarded as sufficient determinants of future competitiveness (Hassan, 2000:239).

### 2.4.2.4 Quality management at the core of competitiveness

As already discussed in section 2.3.2.1, the UNWTO regards quality as being at the core of a destination’s competitiveness. They define quality in tourism as "the result of a process which implies the satisfaction of all the legitimate product and service needs, requirements and expectations of the consumer, at an acceptable price, in conformity with mutually accepted contractual conditions and the underlying quality determinants such as safety and security, hygiene, accessibility, transparency, authenticity and harmony of the tourism activity concerned with its human and natural environment" (UNWTO, n.d.b).
In a similar vein, Go and Govers (2000:80) provide an operational definition of integrated quality management: “... the management process designed to enhance the quality of tourism, so as to satisfy tourists’ needs and expectations, achieve a competitive tourist trade, and create and sustain liveable host communities ...” The quality of a destination’s tourism product depends on the combined contributions and processes of many stakeholders (private and public) that take on a “... professional approach to do things right at all times ...” Quality cannot be attained through a single action, but requires a process that identifies and eliminates any supply constraints that will spoil the total tourism product and lead to direct and indirect losses to the destination (UNWTO, n.d.b). It is suggested that quality in a destination should be managed by a public-private sector civil society partnership that has independence from political power; with this body developing a strategic plan that includes structuring, coordinating and communicating all quality efforts within the destination (UNWTO, n.d.c).

2.4.2.5 Sustainability and competitiveness are mutually inclusive

It can be stated that destination competitiveness and sustainability are two inseparable concepts. In order for tourism in a destination to be sustainable into the future, the destination has to be competitive. On the other hand, a destination can only be competitive if it has sustainable practices in place. Both sustainability and competitiveness require a holistic approach to the management of a destination by focusing on the entire tourism system and its linkages within a destination; and both have a long term focus. Baca (2004) states that “... the tourism industry’s success heavily depends on the quality of its geographic and social setting ...”, and it is therefore necessary to implement “... an integrated destination management approach [that] provides an effective framework to promote the competitiveness of the tourism industry.”

Sustainable tourism per se is defined as: “Tourism which is developed and maintained in an area in such a manner and on such a scale that it remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the natural or socio-cultural environment in which it exists.” (Queiros, 2003:74). It also “... contributes to prolonging the life expectancy of destinations and creating a unique economic opportunity for local communities ...” (Hassan, 2000:244). The United Nations World Tourism Organisation has been promoting
the use of sustainable tourism indicators since the early 1990s. They regard such indicators “... as essential instruments for policy-making, planning and management processes at destinations.” (UNWTO, 2004). According to them, sustainability issues include the wellbeing of host communities; community participation in tourism; tourist satisfaction; health and safety; capturing economic benefits from tourism; sustaining cultural and natural heritage; managing scarce natural resources; limiting impacts of tourism activity; controlling use intensity; products development and marketing; as well as sustainability of tourism operations and services. As will be seen in the models of destination competitiveness (section 2.5.2), many of these sustainability indicators are also included as indicators of competitiveness⁴.

The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2009:9) also strives to collaborate with governments, businesses and non-governmental organisations to achieve shared sustainability objectives. They work around five themes namely (i) accountability and responsibility; (ii) local community growth and capacity building; (iii) educating customers and stakeholders; (iv) greening supply chains; and (v) innovation, capital investment and infrastructure. They encourage destinations to take part in initiatives such as the Global Partnership for Sustainable Tourism Criteria; the WEF’s Multi-Stakeholder Programme; and the International Tourism Partnership (WTTC, 2009:8). Another example is the Green Globe 21 certification program, which traditionally focused on performance standards for hotels and tourism businesses. During 2004, the “Green Globe 21 Community Standard” was introduced in an effort to expand certification to the environmental and social sustainability of destinations as a whole. By participating in such initiatives, a destination and its individual TBUs can actively work toward improving its environmental and social performance and so become more competitive in the global marketplace (taken from Baca, 2004).

From the above discussions it can be seen that there are several strategic thinking and planning processes that closely relate to the competitiveness of a destination. At this point it is necessary to ask who the stakeholders in a destination are, and what roles they play

⁴ Also refer to Ritchie and Crouch (2003:33-51) for a comprehensive discussion of the birth, evolution, definitions and components of sustainable tourism and sustainable development.
respectively in the formulation and implementation of such appropriate strategic actions. This issue will briefly be discussed within the scope of the study.

2.4.3 The nature and importance of destination stakeholders

Within tourism, stakeholders are involved in the production of the travel experience. The decisions that some stakeholders take within a destination, will impact on other stakeholders and no single stakeholder can singlehandedly lead a process in a destination (Marzano, 2007:30). Hence the need to understand who the stakeholders within a destination are – especially when aiming to achieve sustainable competitiveness.

2.4.3.1 The wide spectrum of stakeholders in a destination

As stated in Chapter 1 (definition of terms), stakeholders are entities who are most likely to interact with an organisation, or who will have the greatest impact on or be impacted by the organisation’s actions; with their interests either being (made) known or not. To put this definition into perspective of the current study, the ‘organisation’ will be the destination. When taking the various components of a destination into consideration, it becomes a complex task to identify all the stakeholders involved. It may therefore be useful to embody the destination concept through a DMO, and then focus on the stakeholders of the DMO (as it should ultimately be representative of all the stakeholders in the destination).

In a study done by Sheehan and Ritchie (in Presenza, Sheehan & Ritchie, 2005), the most important stakeholders of a DMO (according to DMO executives) were: hotels, government (at different levels), attractions, board of directors (of the DMO), convention centre, DMO members, residents, restaurants, universities and colleges, local chamber of commerce, and sponsors. In order to get a broader view of all the possible stakeholders of the DMO (not only the most important ones), the Stakeholder Model of the Firm as presented by Donaldson and Preston (1995:69) can be used (Marzano, 2007:33). According to this model, stakeholders will include customers (tourists), employees, suppliers (tourism product owners), communities, trade associations (industry associations), investors, government and political groups. All of these groups can be
applied to the context of a DMO to determine the specific entities emerging from each respective group (as will be done later in this study).

2.4.3.2 The importance of stakeholder involvement

As already indicated, stakeholders within a destination are influenced by each others’ decisions and that destination processes require the involvement of several stakeholders. In a study done by Yoon (2002), it was stated that “the support of tourism stakeholders for tourism planning and development is a key element for the successful operation, management, and long-term sustainability of tourism destinations”. They contribute to destination management through their knowledge and experience of the industry, through participation in planning and development, as well as through interaction and knowledge of the local community. Stakeholders can, for example, provide valuable insight into the existing target markets of the destination. Their inputs in this regard could lead to a more effective segmentation strategy that focuses on tourists who are ‘more likely’ to visit the destination; leading to a more effective marketing strategy (Tkaczynski & Rundle-Thiele, 2009:398).

It was found that, if stakeholders preferred the development of certain attractions or resources, they were more likely to support the destination’s competitive strategies, such as marketing and the DMO itself (Yoon, 2002). It was also found that any destination enhancement strategies would be better supported if the stakeholder/s perceived economic or cultural benefits from such development. It is thus clear that stakeholder support has to be managed effectively in order for any competitive strategies to be implemented successfully. In a study by Al-Masroori (2006), it was stated that stakeholder management provides a framework within which sustainable tourism development can be managed.

In his study on the effect of stakeholder power on destination branding, Marzano found that collaboration and the achievement of a shared outcome should never be regarded as a given (2007:vii) or intrinsic to a multi-stakeholder decision-making process, but will rather be emerging from it (2007:8). Some of the complexities involved in such a decision-making process include “… many stakeholders, different and sometimes contrasting interests,
plural and multi-level decisions, and conflicts.” (2007:8). He proposed that the ‘power’ of
the respective stakeholders should be taken into consideration; with this power being the
stakeholder’s actions, decisions and also ability to act (2007:6). This ability to act is based
on the resources that it possesses, and if a DMO knows what resources stakeholders
possess, they can determine where threats and support to their strategies (such as
branding) come from (2007:9). Similar to the findings of Yoon (2002), Marzano also stated
that a lack of understanding of the real interests of stakeholders, may lead to a lack of
support or even antagonism (2007:10). In addition, if stakeholders’ inputs are sought too
late in the time-frame of a project, this may also make stakeholders uncooperative (Kasim,

2.4.3.3 The role of the DMO in stakeholder coordination

As already stated, DMOs are “... non-profit entities aimed at generating tourist visitation for
a given area” (Gretzel et al., 2006:116). They are generally responsible for developing a
unique image of the area, coordinating most private and public tourism industry
constituencies, providing information to visitors, and leading the overall tourism industry at
a destination.” (Gretzel et al., 2006:116). They have to lead and coordinate the different
aspects of a destination and must take the leading role in the marketing and development
of the destination (Seymour, 2009:19). They are expected to have extensive local
knowledge, expertise and resources.

Presenza et al. (2005) agree with these statements that the role of the DMO goes much
further than marketing. They state that DMO’s “are becoming more prominent as
‘destination developers’”. They have to initiate and facilitate activities that will lead to
tourism development and “that are important to the success of tourism in a destination
from a competitive and sustainable perspective.” In their study they propose a model for
DMO’s that include both ‘external destination marketing’ and ‘internal destination
development’.

In order for a DMO to fulfil all these duties, it has to cooperate and communicate with
various stakeholder groups within the destination. Sheehan and Ritchie (2005, in

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5 Also refer to section 2.4.2.1 where destination marketing and management is explained as one concept.
Presenza et al., 2005) indicated that DMO’s have a wide range of stakeholders that can influence its performance, and that DMO's are actually conveners that unite a diverse set of interests. It is therefore appropriate to view a DMO as the embodiment of the (more intangible) destination concept. The DMO serves as a vehicle through which the various stakeholders’ interests can be coordinated (Eva & Freeman in Marzano, 2007:33). Freeman (in Marzano, 2007:33) states that firms (or in this case, a DMO) will only continue to exist and be sustainable if stakeholders can “... jointly satisfy their needs and desires by making voluntary agreements with each other”.

Baca (2004) explains how the creation of voluntary multi-stakeholder management groups, have presented several benefits for a destination. Such platforms serve to “... catalyze the views and opinions of different stakeholders and articulate a destination-wide vision.” They facilitate constructive discussions between stakeholder groups and they join them together toward the common goal of maximising tourism benefits. Through these platforms, various tourism and non-tourism related problems that threaten the success of the destination, can be identified.

The role of these platforms can be related to a DMO, which can also be regarded as a voluntary multi-stakeholder management entity. Presenza et al. (2005) stresses the importance of the DMO as the coordinator of this involvement. They state that it is “only through securing the cooperation of various stakeholders that the DMO can mobilise the resources necessary to be effective.” They also directly relate the DMO’s ability to facilitate destination development, with its ability to establish a great number of high quality relationships with tourism destination stakeholders.

Up until this point, the study has provided a definition of what tourism destination competitiveness is; a description of how it has been adopted by academia and practitioners; and also reference to some of the related concepts. With this broad understanding established, it is now possible to meaningfully look at specific elements of destination competitiveness, and also how overall destination competitiveness is being measured at the hand of various ‘tools’.
2.5 A NEW APPROACH TO ENHANCE DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

In order for this study to meaningfully address a relevant issue within destination competitiveness, the researcher engaged in a study of the existing literature on the topic. In an effort to determine the different approaches taken to the topic, two types of competitiveness research could be identified. The related findings will now be discussed.

2.5.1 Enhancing and measuring tourism destination competitiveness

Table 6 provides a summary of recent articles that relate specifically to the way in which certain elements can be used to further enhance a destination’s levels of competitiveness. They have been clustered according to broad themes in order to indicate current important topics within the destination competitiveness field.

Table 6: Summary of the literature on destination competitiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element/aspect</th>
<th>Author/s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Destination marketing</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The role of destination branding in achieving competitiveness. The importance of seeing the as brand part of the destination’s competitive identity. Understanding how destination branding is different, but complimentary to ‘place’ / ‘nation’ branding (Handbook on Tourism Destination Branding, 2009:xxiv).</td>
<td>Iordache, Cebuc and Panoiu (2009); Balaure, Veghes and Balan (2009); Seymour (2007)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The importance of using information and communication technology to promote destination competitiveness.</td>
<td>Cetinkaya (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The role of distribution channels (specifically tour operators), SMME’s and Human Resource Development in managing a destination’s competitiveness.</td>
<td>Seymour (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The role of local food in destination marketing and competitiveness.</td>
<td>Du Rand (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A destination’s competitiveness should be managed according to and by means of its lifecycle.</td>
<td>Butler (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The influence of price (elasticity and hedonic pricing) on the competitiveness of destinations that offer package holidays. A study of the price competitiveness of destinations by developing indices of international price competitiveness and comparing destinations on the basis of travel versus ground costs.</td>
<td>Mangion, Durbarry and Sinclair (2005); Dwyer, Forsyth and Rao (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourist experiences</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The competitiveness of destinations based on their attractiveness as perceived by visitors (individual visitors’ well-being).</td>
<td>Cracolici and Nijkamp (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destinations have to fulfil the new experience seeking tourist’s need for co-creation to remain competitive.</td>
<td>De Jager (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service delivery and satisfactory to remain competitive.</td>
<td>Poon (2003:139-140)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6: Summary of the literature on destination competitiveness (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element/aspect</th>
<th>Author/s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leadership and Management</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The role and ability of DMOs to determine the success of a destination.</td>
<td>Bornhorst, Ritchie and Sheehan (2009); Presenza, Sheehan, Ritchie (2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing a system to measure excellence in destinations.</td>
<td>Pierret (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competitiveness of destinations based on their efficiency (measured as their ability to transform inputs (tourism resources) into outputs (tourist flow)).</td>
<td>Cracolici, Nijkamp &amp; Rietveld (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The strategic and changing role of destination marketing and management in the quest for destination competitiveness.</td>
<td>Buhalís (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Successfully managing the competitiveness of a destination through entrepreneurial and visionary leadership and by testing and adapting to the market over time.</td>
<td>D’Hauteserre (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The progress in destinations’ tourism policy from promotion to product development to the goal of maintaining competitiveness.</td>
<td>Fayos-Sola (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism supply side</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A destination’s competitiveness is influenced by the internal and relational capabilities of its attributes – taking a supply chain management approach to managing competitiveness.</td>
<td>Rodríguez-Díaz and Espino-Rodríguez (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addressed the need to give consideration to determinants specifically related to generic business factors and destination attractiveness (attractors).</td>
<td>Enright and Newton (2005); Enright and Newton (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The resources and capabilities of a destination will determine its competitiveness in terms of a specific type of tourism.</td>
<td>Melián-González and García-Falcón (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The management of a destination’s products to influence traveller perceptions of the destination’s competitiveness.</td>
<td>Murphy, Pritchard and Smith (2000)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Environmental issues</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determining the dual effect of the overall environmental management structure (from both public and private sector perspective) on the competitiveness of the tourism industry at nature-based tourism destinations.</td>
<td>Huybers and Bennett (2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The importance of taking an environmental approach toward destination competitiveness.</td>
<td>Mihalic (2000)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s own construction

The next table (Table 7, pg.66) presents articles related to new approaches or additions to the measurement of competitiveness through new or existing tools. It does not include the various models of competitiveness themselves, which will be discussed at a later stage (section 2.5.3 and 2.5.4).
Table 7: New approaches to measuring destination competitiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Element/aspect</th>
<th>Author/s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tools to measure destination competitiveness</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Competitive destination analysis</strong> as a technique to systematically compare various different attributes of competing destinations; drawing attention to the need for comparisons between competitors.**</td>
<td>Pearce (as discussed in Enright &amp; Newton, 2005:339).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The development of a tool to assess destination competitiveness from a marketing perspective; specifically looking at the destination’s performance relative to competitors in specific target markets.</td>
<td>March (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The use of <strong>benchmarking as a competitiveness tool</strong>, as opposed to using (the limited tools) comparison research and competitive analysis.</td>
<td>Kozak (2002); Ritchie (2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing a framework for the measurement of <strong>destination attractiveness</strong> from a supply and demand perspective.</td>
<td>Formica (2002)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Considerations when applying models to measure competitiveness</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The need to take the different stages of development of destinations into consideration when evaluating the relevance and importance of the competitiveness variables.</td>
<td>Wilde and Cox (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measuring a destination’s competitiveness by using different models over time.</td>
<td>Gomezelj and Mihalic (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The creation of a competitiveness model that allows for the identification and integrations of CSFs.</td>
<td>Jonker (2003)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s own construction

As stated in the introduction to the study, the evaluation of individual elements and indicators, as has been done by the studies mentioned in Table 6, remains a viable endeavour. Research is continuously being done on newly emerging elements and indicators of long-term competitiveness; often with the aim of including these elements into the models and determining their relative contributions toward destination competitiveness. It is therefore valid to pursue new or current trends to determine their potential contribution to overall destination competitiveness. Such trends should preferably also satisfy or fit in with the new theory related to the measurement of competitiveness (as indicated in Table 7), in order for it to be a sustainable contributor to overall destination competitiveness.

2.5.2 Establishing the competitive identity of a destination

When referring back to Table 6 (pg.64), it confirms a previous statement by Li and Petrick that destination marketing is one of the most researched and published topics of all
tourism business studies (2008:235). Numerous studies have been done on the way in which specific areas of marketing can contribute to the competitiveness of a destination. One very popular topic appears to be that of destination branding and image – and rightly so. As Anholt (in UNWTO, 2009:ix) states: “As in any busy marketplace, brand image becomes critical: ... nobody has the time ... to understand the real difference between the offerings of one country and another, and so ... fall back on their fundamental beliefs and prejudices about those countries to help them make their decisions.” However, he argues that destination branding is not enough because it is greatly influenced by the nation’s image and that this national image is of fundamental importance to the travel and tourism industry of the country. DMO’s have to sell their countries to international audiences through their communication efforts, and this process can be either “… easy or difficult, expensive or cheap, simple or complex ...” as a result of the country’s ‘background reputation’ (Anholt in UNWTO, 2009b:ix).

According to Kotler and Gertner (2010:42), this ‘reputation’ or country image results from things like its geography, history, proclamations, art and music and famous citizens. They state that the entertainment industry and media play a particularly important role in shaping people’s perceptions of a place. Even if a country does not consciously manage its name as a brand, people still have images that will be activated when they hear the country’s name. Such country images are likely to influence many decisions related to the country, such as purchasing, investing, migration and travelling (Kotler & Gertner, 2010:42). This relates to the idea of ‘brand equity’, which suggests that if a place “… acquires a positive, powerful and solid reputation, this becomes an asset of enormous value – probably more valuable ... than all its tangible assets” (Anholt in UNWTO, 2009b:ix).

Anholt continues to state that marketing communication and a good destination brand is not enough to manipulate fundamental perceptions about a country. The destination has to find a way to close the gap between what it wishes to state in its tourism branding, and with what is known through its national image. This can be done through the concept of ‘competitive identity’, which is “essentially a plan for mobilising the strategies, activities, investments, innovations and communications of as many national sectors as possible, both public and private, into a concerted drive to prove to the world that the nation
deserves a different, broader and more positive image.” (Anholt in UNWTO, 2009b:xii). Anholt proposes that the competitive identity of a country can be communicated, influenced and represented through six main channels, namely tourism, brands, policy, investment, culture and people. A country’s reputation can be more effectively managed if there is improved coordination between these channels; which will entail “a national strategy, more sharing of resources and expertise, the encouragement of innovation and the establishment of common standards and quality measures” (Anholt in UNWTO, 2009b:xii). Of these six channels, tourism has the greatest potential to enhance the overall brand image of a country. As Anholt states: “A pleasant holiday experience ... has the power to change the brand image of a country, quickly and possibly forever, in the mind of the holidaymaker. People often abandon their preconceptions about countries once they visit them: for those individuals ... the country stops being a brand and becomes a real country. Indeed there is some evidence ... that preference for a country and its people, politics, culture and products tend to increase as a result of any personal experience of that country, even when the holiday experience is not positive.” (Anholt in UNWTO, 2009:xii)

The challenge for destination managers will then be to create opportunities where individuals (tourists) can have an experience of the offerings of the destination. This will not only relate to general management of visitor numbers, but could imply strategies focused on specifically attracting large numbers of visitors at a given time. The next section presents a possible strategy to do just that.

2.5.3 Linking mega-events to competitive identity and overall destination competitiveness

It can be argued that one of the powerful ways of creating opportunities for personal experiences of a country, is through the hosting of events, especially mega or major events. Events attract tourists that perhaps would not have visited the destination otherwise – thereby giving the country an opportunity to ‘prove’ itself. And as Anholt (in UNWTO, 2009:xi) states, the ability of a destination to prove itself, is the basic principle behind competitive identity. The nature and character of events inherently promotes the development of a plan to mobilise the strategies, activities, investments, innovations and
communications of many stakeholders – as was indicated to be necessary for the promotion of a competitive identify (this statement will be explored in Chapter 3).

It may furthermore be argued that this is especially true of those events that are classified as mega-events. As Ritchie and Crouch (2003:119) stated, mega-events can raise a destination from obscurity to international prominence. Furthermore, major (sporting) events can be transformational for a nation. “Their impacts transcend the ‘destination’ and says much more about the ‘place’. This can be invaluable from the perspective of inward investment, political diplomacy and, probably to a lesser extent, tourism.” (UNWTO, 2009:21).

In order to support these arguments, it is necessary to determine whether events (including mega-events) have been given the required attention from a destination competitiveness perspective. According to the Handbook on Tourism Destination Marketing (UNWTO, 2009:20), numerous destinations use events to reinforce their brand, and that they “can be powerful in anchoring, and sometimes even changing, a destination’s image”. Within the literature on destination competitiveness, many studies exist on the importance of branding (as indicated in Table 6, pg.64). However, not all of them include the aspect of events; which is in contrast to the supposed contribution of events to destination branding. On the other hand, numerous studies that focus on the issue of destination branding were found within the study field of event tourism (as will be discussed in Chapter 3). According to Getz (2008:421), numerous existing studies in the event tourism field look at the roles and importance of events for destinations; with the majority of these focusing on impacts and marketing.

When returning to the purpose of this study, destination branding and imaging, although being very important, is but one dimension of overall destination competitiveness. Within this framework, competitive identity has to be supported by competitive practices throughout the destination. The question now arises from a strategic destination management perspective: how do these practices fit into the broader concept of destination competitiveness as it has been discussed up until this point? The next section aims to answer this question by exploring the popular models of destination competitiveness.
2.5.4 Mega-events as an element within the models of competitiveness

It can be argued that a study on mega-events has to be done from within the established models of destination competitiveness, if the aim is to make a meaningful contribution from a strategic destination management perspective. Hence, the need to determine whether mega-events have a recognised position within the models of destination competitiveness. To answer this question, four prominent and frequently cited models of competitiveness will now be discussed.

2.5.4.1 Hassan’s Model of Competitiveness for a Sustainable Tourism Industry

Hassan’s model is one of the first competitiveness models that focus on the tourism destination as opposed to focusing on the firm as a unit of analysis. It emphasises the importance of competitiveness within the market place, specifically giving consideration to the market’s increasing preference for sustainable tourism offerings. Hassan states that “… sustained market competitiveness requires a balance of growth orientation and environmental commitment at an acceptable rate of return to all industry partners involved in the marketing of the destination …” (2000:242).

This model focuses on four major determinants of market competitiveness namely (i) comparative advantage, (ii) demand orientation, (iii) industry structure, and (iv) environmental commitment. Hassan has also developed a set of indicators for each determinant, as is indicated in Figure 5 (pg.71). Within this model of competitiveness, events (including mega-events) can most suitably be placed within the determinant ‘comparative advantage’ and within the indicator ‘leisure activities’.
2.5.4.2 Heath’s House Model

Heath’s model of competitiveness takes on a more integrated approach toward the amalgamation of the various elements of competitiveness into a singular representative model. He places more emphasis on the ‘key success drivers’ (the people) that have to champion the process and the ‘vital linkages’ that connect the different stakeholders and components within the destination. The model is presented in the form of a house, signifying the importance of all the components functioning together to ensure a strong structure.

The five key focus areas of the model include: (i) the foundations (key attractors, non-negotiables, enablers, value-adders, facilitators, experience enhancers); (ii) the cement (communication channels, stakeholder involvement, information management, performance measurement); (iii) the buildings blocks (sustainable development policy and framework, and a strategic and holistic marketing strategy); (iv) the ‘script’ (strategic framework); and (v) the key success drivers (vision, leadership, the ‘people’ factor) (Heath, 2002:339).
Figure 6: Competitiveness model of Heath

Within this model, events (including mega-events) are part of the ‘key attractors’ that form the foundation of a destination’s tourism offering. Key attractors can further be divided into two types: inherited and created. Inherited attractors refer to natural and cultural and heritage attractors intrinsically part of the original character of the destination; while created attractors are additional and specifically added to the destination. Events fall within this category (created attractors) as one of only four elements within this category (Heath, 2002:338), thus indicating its relative importance and contribution.
2.5.4.3 Dwyer and Kim’s Integrated Model of Destination Competitiveness

A model that has also received significant academic attention in the literature, is the Integrated Model of Destination Competitiveness presented by Dwyer and Kim (2003). Initial work was started on a model by Dwyer et al. (2000), with the full model and its components presented by Dwyer and Kim in 2003.

Dwyer and Kim’s integrated model brings together the main elements of national and firm competitiveness. It adds value to the literature because it presents a set of both objective and subjective measurable indicators. The model “… explicitly recognises demand conditions as an important determinant … [and] that destination competitiveness is not an ultimate end of policy making but is an intermediate goal towards the objective of regional or national economic prosperity …” (Dwyer & Kim, 2003:377).

The model focuses on six categories, including (i) resources (endowed, created and supporting); (ii) situational conditions; (iii) demand conditions; (iv) destination management; (v) destination competitiveness; and (vi) socioeconomic prosperity. Within this model, events (including mega-events) fall within the ‘created resources’ category. Because the model explicitly indicates interrelationships between the various categories, it may be important to note that events are directly linked to ‘destination management’, ‘demand’ and ‘supporting resources’.
To summarise the position of mega-events within these three models, it is clear that mega-events is a key attractor (as indicated in Heath), falls within the created resource (as indicated in Dwyer & Kim) and that it forms part of the comparative advantage of a destination (as indicated by Hassan). These are not contradictory statements, but rather serve to complement each other. Resources are the elements within destinations used to attract tourists and, as previously discussed (section 2.3.3.4), comparative advantage is in essence concerned with the differences between countries in terms of their possession of resources (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:20). The fact that it is part of the created resources (as opposed to an endowed resource), implies a great measure of control over the resource by destination managers; a fact which is eluded to in Dwyer and Kim’s model where there is a direct link indicated between created resources and destination management.

The last model that will be discussed is the Conceptual Model of Destination Competitiveness of Ritchie and Crouch (2003). As this is the model whereupon this study’s empirical work was based, it has been placed separate from the rest and the position of mega-events within this model is discussed in greater detail.
2.5.5 Ritchie and Crouch’s Conceptual Model of Destination Competitiveness

Destination competitiveness researchers, Crouch and Ritchie, first presented their views on international tourism in 1993 (Ritchie & Crouch in Ritchie & Crouch, 2000) and broadened it in 1999 (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999). The important aspect of sustainability was added in 2000 (Ritchie & Crouch, 2000) and in 2001 they developed operational measures for some of the components (Ritchie, Crouch & Hudson, 2001). In 2003 they presented their latest improved version of the model: a Conceptual Model of Destination Competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003).

2.5.5.1 Rationale behind choosing the Ritchie and Crouch model

Mazanec et al. (2007:87) state that the Ritchie and Crouch model is “… without a doubt, the most comprehensive framework so far…it appeared in several publications over a period of 10 years …” They also argue that its strength lies in its ambitious inclusion of all possible factors relevant to a destination’s competitiveness. Enright and Newton referred to the Ritchie and Crouch model as “… the best known of recent attempts to conceptualize an approach that includes elements of tourism competitiveness and industry competitiveness …” (2005:339). The model’s apparent strength lies in the fact that it “… has undergone a number of iterations since its earliest public presentation …”, thus implying improvements based upon further research and comments by other researchers. The model also “… extends previous pioneering studies … and … mainstream research focused principally on destination image or attractiveness …”

2.5.5.2 Mega-events as a core attractor

Within this model, events (including mega-events) fall within the ‘Core Resources and Attractors’ of a destination; which is in line with the position of events within the other models (as already stated). This group of factors are the things that motivate individuals to choose a particular destination over others. It is stated that “when all the complexities of destination choice are stripped away, it is essentially the core resources and attractors that underlie the basic desire to travel to a given destination” (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:110).
In 2007, Crouch undertook a study to determine the relative importance of the five main factors and the 36 sub-factors of the Ritchie and Crouch model by means of the Analytical Hierarchy Process (2007:6). Individuals with varying levels of experience and expertise on the topic took part in the survey. The study results indicated Core Resources and Attractors to be the dominant group of competitiveness factors (2007:17). When looking at the individual sub-factors as determinant attributes (those attributes that exert the greatest influence on a decision), Special Events were indicated as being among the top 10 (6th position out of 36) of the destination competitiveness attributes that carried the greatest weight (Crouch, 2007:21).

2.5.5.3 Mega-events’ link with other destination resources

Where comparative advantage has to do with the resources that a country has available, competitive advantage on the other hand is the country’s ability to effectively use or deploy these resources (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:20-23). Every country has more or less of one or the other resource/s, known as its factor proportions (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:23). A
destination will, in an effort to “… apply its comparative and competitive advantages … look for a match between its competitive strengths and weaknesses, and the opportunities and threats present … in the global tourism market …’ (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:27). If mega-events are regarded as part of the created resources, which implies a greater measure of control by destination management (as indicated in the Dwyer and Kim model), it can be stated that it is the ideal resource to use to counter weaknesses in factor proportions. This statement is supported by Ritchie and Crouch (2003:119) who found that special events provide a way to achieve visibility and to build a reputation for a destination, especially if the destination is not blessed with unique and abundant endowed resources.

If mega-events are opportunities presented in the global marketplace, there is a potential opportunity for a destination to gain competitiveness through an event, provided it can strengthen its event-related capacity. In order to do so, it has to be determined how mega-events link to and rely on the other resources within the destination. According to Ritchie and Crouch, resources consist of human, physical, knowledge, capital, infrastructure and tourism superstructure, and historical and cultural resources (2003:20-21). Upon further exploration it may be proven that events connect to all the resource categories to some extent; thus implying that it can be a means to develop or enhance several other resources within the destination. In support of this statement, Dwyer and Kim’s model (2003:378) also indicates a direct link between created resources and supporting resources.

### 2.5.5.4 Mega-events do more than creating awareness

Events have proven themselves as a way to achieve visibility and to build a reputation for a destination. Ritchie (in Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:123) indicated “… increased awareness of the region as a travel/tourism destination …” as the primary legacy of mega-events from a destination marketing perspective. As they stated, mega-events can raise a destination from obscurity to international prominence (2003:119). The primary negative legacy on the other hand, can be “… the acquisition of a poor reputation as a result of inadequate facilities or improper practices …” (Ritchie in Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:123). This statement
coincides with previous discussions that indicate the link between mega-events and other resources within the destination, in order to build the destination's event-related capacity.

Although flagship events, such as World Cups and Olympic Games, can contribute in a major way to increasing international awareness of the destination, they often tend to only create a ‘one-liner’ in the mind of the world population. For example, the Atlanta Olympic Games of 1996 is remembered as the ‘Games of the bomb’, while the Sydney Games of 2000 is just referred to as a ‘success’ (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:120). The following statements by Ritchie and Crouch capture the essence of linking mega-event legacies with overall destination competitiveness:

“While one-time events may provide a worldwide burst of exposure for a destination, the impacts and awareness can be fleeting if there are no follow-up activities to consolidate the destination’s reputation.” (2003:120).

“… it is careful management of all factors that ultimately determines the extent to which a given event will add to the core attractiveness of a tourism destination …” (2003:121).

Getz, one of the leading experts in event management, noted in similar vein:

“There are a number of fundamental underlying factors that create or heighten the quality of specialness that is essential for an event if it is to help a destination achieve the stature and level of recognition that turns an event core attractor into a truly competitive advantage for a destination.” (Getz in Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:210).

From a destination competitiveness perspective, it is evident that mega-events form a very important part of the attractiveness of a destination and can potentially be a very powerful tool in the hand of destination managers to improve competitiveness. What needs to be established at this point, are the factors that will be of critical importance when destination managers propose to employ mega-events as part of their competitive strategy.
2.6 APPARENT CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS TO LEVERAGE MEGA-EVENTS FROM A TOURISM DESTINATION MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE

As indicated in Chapter 1, CSFs are the resources, skills and attributes of a destination that are essential to deliver success in the marketplace. When relating this to mega-events, these will be the things that are critical to ensuring that the destination’s vision, mission and long-term goals are met through the hosting of such an event. Event-related CSFs will be specific areas of success which, if they deliver satisfactory results, will insure successful competitive performance for the destination (adapted from Jonker, 2003:61). In line with the purpose of the current study, such ‘successful competitive performance’ should ultimately imply overall destination competitiveness.

2.6.1 The identification and nature of critical success factors

The use of CSFs were first introduced in 1961 and have been widely used in various fields since 1979 (Zwikael & Globerson, 2006:3434). Within the area of strategic planning and business strategy (which closely relates to destination management and competitiveness), Leidecker and Bruno (1984) were the first to make use of CSFs (Zwikael & Globerson, 2006:3434). Since then, they have been cited by several authors. Apart from Jonker (2003), they have been cited in recent studies related to the current study’s topic. These include Ferreras (2010:205), who looked at the evaluation of competitiveness of tourist destinations; Cheng and Huang (2007:34) who discussed supply chain management in the hospitality industry; and Kanji (2008:1070) who developed a model for total quality management and business excellence. It therefore proved credible to consider Leidecker and Bruno’s (1984) eight proposed techniques whereby CSFs can be identified.

Upon evaluation of these techniques, it became apparent that different techniques could be deemed appropriate for the current study. Table 8 (pg.80) indicates how the different techniques have been used to a greater or lesser (modified) extent, in various parts of this study. These techniques relate more to where the factors can be gathered from (the sources), and should not be confused with the techniques used to measure the relative importance of the factors (as will be discussed in the next section).
Table 8: Techniques to identify CSFs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technique</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Advantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of industry structure</td>
<td>Industry structure frameworks</td>
<td>Chapter 2: Literature on destination competitiveness Chapter 3: Literature on event studies</td>
<td>Allows an understanding of the inter-relationship between industry structural components and can force a macro level focus beyond industry boundaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry/business experts</td>
<td>Industry executives, specialists, outsiders familiar with firms in the industry, and knowledgeable insiders who work in the industry</td>
<td>Empirical component: City of Tshwane interview process</td>
<td>Gather ‘conventional wisdom’ about the industry and firms. Subjective information (in line with the interpretive research paradigm).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis of dominant firm in the industry</td>
<td>Line managers, Consultants</td>
<td>Chapter 3: lessons from mega-event case studies</td>
<td>An understanding of dominant competitors’ practices may assist in corroborating destination specific CSFs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Leidecker & Bruno (1984:26)

To identify CSFs from these sources as identified in Table 8, different techniques can be used. Park and Gretzel (2007) used qualitative meta-analysis to evaluate all the existing literature on website marketing from different study fields, in order to identify the CSFs for destination marketing websites. Baker and Cameron’s (2007) extensive review of the literature covering place and destination marketing, produced thirty-three CSFs in four categories of successful destination marketing. Campiranon (2007) identified the CSFs for crisis management in the Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions (MICE) sector, based on qualitative data collected from in-depth interviews.

When searching for industry success factors in the current study (as indicated in Table 8), it will be those skills and attributes of a destination that are essential to deliver success in the global events (including mega-events) market (adapted from Lynch in Jonker, 2003:64), in such a way as to ensure sustainable destination competitiveness. As already indicated in Table 8, CSFs will include elements from the external (macro) environment, as well as resources and skills of the destination. CSFs should be critical for success and they should contain strategic, as well as tactical factors. Furthermore, “each factor should be necessary and together they should be sufficient to achieve the overall vision, mission and strategies” (Jonker, 2003:67).

The CSFs should be underpinned by core competences; in other words, the capabilities, skills, processes and resources of the destination that are needed to deliver superior
Performance in terms of each CSF (Sims & Smith in Jonker, 2003:67). It is important to state CSFs in definite terms and to ensure that they do not “…state an outcome with foggy advice … [that only improves] … managers’ general know-how, [but] are not specific enough to support better decision-making.” (Zwikael & Globerson, 2006:3435). It is important to consider the fact that each destination has its own unique situation (geographic location, resources, competences and strategies), which may lead to CSFs that differ from those that are applicable to the next destination (Jonker, 2003:66).

The researcher will now present the first set of apparent CSFs to leverage mega-events as an element of destination competitiveness. This first set is based on destination competitiveness literature. More specifically it will include factors that were frequently found to be included in the literature, or were found as part of current topics of discussion.

2.6.2 Leveraging mega-events from a tourism destination management perspective

From the literature it becomes clear that there are certain key areas of performance within a destination that contribute to its global competitiveness. Most of these areas are included in the models of destination competitiveness, while some have been found to be popular topics within existing literature. As discussed in section 2.5.2 and 2.5.3, mega-events form part of a destination’s attractiveness as a created resource, and may prove to be a valuable competitive tool. From a tourism destination management perspective, it is necessary to understand where and how this attractor links to the key areas of a destination’s competitive performance.

Table 9 (pg.82) presents the proposed apparent CSFs that have to be considered to achieve the goal of overall destination competitiveness, as the researcher has derived them from the literature studied. There are five broad categories, and each CSF category is supported by key performance areas. At this point, the CSFs are not elaborated upon or linked to core competences. The aim is to add to these elements once the CSFs have been explored and confirmed through a study of event literature, as well as the results of the stakeholder interviews.

Refer to Appendix A (pg.339) for more detail on the table, including reference to the applicable sections in this chapter that support the CSFs.
Table 9: Apparent CSFs to leverage mega-events from a destination competitiveness perspective

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADDRESS AS A STRATEGIC DESTINATION PRIORITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hosting of the mega-event should be directed by visionary leadership. It should be linked to a vision of human development and quality of life of residents. Event-related strategy and actions have to be benchmarked against industry leaders. Determine how performance will be measured.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided by visionary leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Given a place in tourism policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on human resource development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination benchmarking, monitoring and evaluation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLARIFYING THE STAKEHOLDER ROLES AND RELATIONSHIPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understand who the stakeholders involved are. Clarify their roles and understand their vested interests. Involve them in a timely manner. Understand the needs/characteristics of event market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government and political groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DMOs and RTOs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry members (suppliers, intermediaries, principals, bodies, associations)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investors</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MANAGING THE RELATED DESTINATION RESOURCES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Linked to quality assurance and supply chain management. Have a comprehensive destination 'inventory' and know what the destination's strengths and weaknesses are in terms of global measures of competitiveness. Know which resources are linked to hosting an event and which will have to be developed by the destination.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource base analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply chain management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality assurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service delivery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Destination attractiveness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ALIGNED WITH THE OVERALL DESTINATION MARKETING STRATEGY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Must be appropriately aligned with the overall destination marketing strategy. Understand the positive and potential negative effects of an event on destination's marketing. Make use of appropriate methods to leverage event-related marketing opportunities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand and image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of ICT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distribution channels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pricing issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Link with other destination products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing the destination lifecycle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding the event market</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONSIDERATION FOR ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The event has to be approached with a consideration for environmental issues. Also have to ensure greening of the event and ways to measure and prevent negative event impacts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green practices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measuring and managing climate impacts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.7 CONCLUSION

The concept of tourism destination competitiveness has been formalised and structured among academia as well as practitioners, and it is a well established topic within tourism research. Great progress has been made in terms of motivating, defining and measuring competitiveness of tourism destinations. Several internationally recognised bodies such as the UNWTO, WEF and WTTC have done extensive work in terms of determining competitiveness in measurable terms; ranging from indexes that rank countries in terms of their global levels of competitiveness relating to various themes, to committees that focus on assisting countries in determining and managing their national competitiveness. There are a few concepts and practices that appear to be closely related to, and that are often found alongside discussions on competitiveness; including destination marketing, benchmarking, quality management and sustainability. The importance of stakeholder identification and cooperation within a destination is considered to be a key determinant of destination competitiveness. In this regard, the DMO is highlighted as the entity that has to take the leading role in the marketing and development of a destination.

Research is also continuously being conducted on newly emerging elements and indicators of long-term competitiveness; often with the aim of including these elements into the models and determining their relative contributions toward destination competitiveness. Very importantly, it is argued that marketing communication and a good destination brand is not enough to manipulate fundamental perceptions about a country, and that strategic thinking need to focus on the competitive identity of the destination. Any tourism destination has to find a way to close the gap between what it wishes to state in its tourism branding, with what is known through its national image. It is argued that events offer a personal experience of a country, and are therefore ideal opportunities for destinations to ‘prove’ themselves in this way.

Upon exploration of the models of destination competitiveness, it became evident that mega-events form a very important part of the attractiveness of a destination and can potentially be a very powerful tool in the hand of destination managers to improve competitiveness. They are categorised as key attractors and form part of the created resources over which destination managers have a great deal of control. In order for a
destination to optimally leverage mega-events, it became clear that they would have to be related to the key areas of a destination’s competitive performance. Within the context of the literature on destination competitiveness, a set of five apparent CSFs were identified whereby any leveraging of events should be approached. They include the following:

(i) It should be addressed as a strategic destination priority;
(ii) The stakeholder roles and relationships need to be clarified;
(iii) The related destination resources have to be effectively managed;
(iv) It has to be aligned with the overall destination marketing strategy; and
(v) There has to be a consideration for environmental issues.

In order to meaningfully relate events to these aspects of destination competitiveness, there needs to be a clear understanding of all the aspects encompassed in an event. Chapter 3 will focus on events literature with the aim of providing a clear description of the nature of mega-events and all the event-related issues. Through an understanding of these issues, it will be possible to determine the applicability of these five identified CSFs within the context of mega-event leverage. An exploration of the major considerations in event management from a tourism destination perspective, will add greater context to the five CSFs, and will also give an indication of all the core competences required to deliver on the CSFs.
CHAPTER 3: THE STRATEGIC IMPORTANCE OF MEGA-EVENTS FOR TOURISM DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

The aim of this chapter is to build on the tourism destination competitiveness knowledge and the apparent list of CSFs identified in Chapter 2. Events literature will be explored with the aim of adding event-specific knowledge to the broader tourism management themes that have been highlighted. The discussions that follow have all been selected for their relevance to destination marketing and management and overall destination competitiveness. Some of the topics are only briefly introduced in the literature review of the first three sections (3.1 to 3.3), because they are given greater context in the case study section (3.4).
3.1 INTRODUCTION

Getz, one of the leading experts in event management, undertook extensive research to review event tourism as a professional practice and academic field of study (2008:403). In his paper *Event Tourism: definition, evaluation and research*, he provides a thorough description of event-related research and indicates that there are two distinct perspectives, namely an event perspective and a tourism perspective. According to his findings, the greatest part of academic work on the topic of special events, such as mega-events, can be found within the study fields of event management and event studies (event perspective). Within this field, the focus is on the managerial and operational issues associated with events. More specific reference to tourism and event host destinations can be found in the specialisation field, named event tourism (tourism perspective). Studies within this field focus primarily on the aspects of marketing and event impacts (Getz, 2008:409).

In order to fully understand mega-events as an element of overall destination competitiveness, these two perspectives have to be integrated. As Getz states: “... both tourism and event studies are necessary to understand this kind of experience.” (2008:406). For purposes of this study, it was decided to give greatest consideration to the work from an event tourism perspective, and to use work from the event management perspective to add depth to relevant issues that may arise.

3.1.1 The difference between event management and event tourism

In order to add meaningfully to the CSFs of mega-events from a destination perspective, it was decided to view mega-events as part of event tourism, as opposed to sport tourism. Before discussing the role of events within tourism destinations, it is important to understand the difference between event management and event tourism. This difference is clearly illustrated in Figure 9 (pg.87). As can be seen, event tourism is the smaller section where the two large fields of tourism management and event management overlap.
From a pure event management perspective, the focus is on the entire format and execution of events, as well as aspects such as anthropology, geography and economics of events (Getz, 2008:405). Event management is concerned with the design, production and management of all planned events, across the myriad of possible event programs and purposes. This may range from public celebrations and festivals, to smaller private events (Getz, 2008:404). Event-related education appears to be either practical and hands-on (event design), or to be focused on the application of “…management theory and methods to events and event-producing organizations.” Getz (2008:405). Event management does however appear to have a vested interest in event tourism. Tourists have become a lucrative potential market for event managers to consider and the tourism industry “has become a vital stakeholder in their success and attractiveness” (Getz, 2008:403).

From a tourism management perspective, the focus is on promotion of the destination through the events market segment. Events (including mega-events) are important motivators of tourist movement and they often feature as prominent components of DMO strategy (Getz, 2008:403). They are valued for their power as attractions, catalysts, animators, place marketers and image-makers (Getz, 2008:406), and are understandably receiving increased attention from DMOs as an area of product development and a key trend in destination marketing strategies (Heath, 2009c:270). In order to optimally include events in destination strategies, knowledge from both the event sector (providing evaluation of specific events) and the DMO (providing broader market research) will be required (Getz, 2008:421).
Despite the ongoing dialogue between the two fields, the main motivation behind events can clearly be identified as tourism; with the main focus being on events as attractions and image-makers for destinations (Getz, 2008:422). According to Brown, Chalip, Jago and Mules (2010:279), events and tourism are intrinsically linked because of the way in which images associated with an event are transferred to the host destination.

Now that the difference between the two fields have been established, it is appropriate to provide a brief overview of the current issues within the event tourism field. By doing so, the relevant important issues can be identified that have to be considered when aiming to leverage mega-events as an element of destination competitiveness.

3.1.2 Contemporary issues in event tourism studies

Event tourism is defined as “the systematic planning, development and marketing of festivals and special events as tourist attractions, catalysts, and image builders” (Getz & Wicks, 1993 in Brown et al., 2010:281). According to Brown et al. (2010:281), much of the work on special events is done from a tourism perspective, because of their power to attract visitors. Apart from the aspects of marketing and impacts, which have been indicated as the main topics within the even tourism field, there are a number of emerging sub-areas that are proving of interest to academics and practitioners alike. As stated by Getz (2008:422), “Events have increasingly been produced, bid on and fostered for strategic reasons … From a tourism and developmental perspective the big questions concern competitiveness (e.g. how to use events more effectively, or win more bids), return on investment … or sustainability … and risk …”. This highlights the need for research in terms of policy and planning, as well as business and management (Getz, 2008:410). There is also a significant move toward gaining a greater understanding of the ‘legacies’ of such events for host destinations (Preuss, 2007:210) and on event leverage as opposed to event impacts (Chalip, 2006:112).

Harris, Jago, Allen and Huyskens (2001:218) identified key areas of interest among three stakeholder groups. These areas indicate a variety of aspects involved in event management and could provide an indication of issues that need to be addressed in the CSF’s that are to be developed in the current study. Table 10 depicts their findings.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Practitioners</th>
<th>Government</th>
<th>Academics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Sponsorship decision process</td>
<td>Reasons for event failure</td>
<td>Risk management strategy formulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Needs/motivations of attendees</td>
<td>Risk management factors</td>
<td>Valuing the event industry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Market segmentation</td>
<td>Research tools and methodologies</td>
<td>Reasons for event failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Valuing sponsorship</td>
<td>Valuing the event industry</td>
<td>Event strategy formulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Optimizing sponsorship</td>
<td>Optimizing sponsorship</td>
<td>Tools to assess economic impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Reasons for event failure</td>
<td>Trends/forces in event management</td>
<td>Packaging events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Media effectiveness</td>
<td>Event strategy formulation</td>
<td>Internet promotion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Internet promotion</td>
<td>Tools to assess economic impact</td>
<td>Trends associated with different events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Management process and events</td>
<td>Event feasibility process</td>
<td>Trends and forces in event management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Promotional strategy effectiveness</td>
<td>Valuing sponsorship</td>
<td>Industry training needs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Harris et al. (2001:218)

The information provided in this section, reinforces the appropriateness of the current study, and supports the notion to identify CSF’s within this context. The next section will focus on mega-events as a part of event tourism, and will discuss issues that are unique to these events.

### 3.2 MEGA-EVENTS AS A KEY COMPONENT OF EVENT TOURISM

According to Getz (2008:411), existing literature on event tourism can be divided into four categories: business events; sport events; festivals and cultural celebrations; and Olympics, world’s fairs and other mega-events. Within the last category, the Olympics have tended to receive the greatest attention by researchers and a substantial amount of material is available on the topic. It has been stated that this skewed focus on the Olympics, tends to overshadow other significant mega-events such as world fairs and other international sport championships (Getz, 2008:412). Nauright (2004:1326) even goes as far as to state that there appears to be a “21st century sport–media–tourism complex”.

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14 Specific detail on the FIFA World Cup will be discussed in Chapter 4 as introduction to the case study.

15 Refer to Getz, 2008:409-413 for a description of the evolution and character of event tourism studies.
As previously stated, the current study views mega-events as part of event tourism and not as part of sport tourism. Furthermore, even though the case study of the empirical component relates to a sporting mega-event, the intention is to create knowledge that can be applied to the wider classification of mega-events.

3.2.1 The appeal of mega-events

A number of different events take place within destinations on an annual basis but, apart from the roleplayers directly involved, most of these events go largely unnoticed. There are some events however, that stand out because of their national and/or international recognition and promise of grandeur (Smith, 2010:263). These are known in the wider literature as mega-events; events that by their nature yield “extraordinarily high levels of tourism, media coverage, prestige or economic impact for the host destination” (Damster & Tassiopoulos, 2005:12). Furthermore, the participants in these events “are either numerous or important, or both” (Smith, 2010:263).

Mega-events have become sought-after opportunities for destination managers; not only because of the obvious economic benefits, but also for the numerous other benefits and importantly the increased drawing power of the destination resulting from the event exposure (Byeon, Carr & Hall, 2009:66; Getz, 2008:121; Hede, 2005:187). Types of mega-events include international conventions, summits and conferences; international beauty pageants and cultural celebrations; as well as sports World Cups (soccer, rugby, cricket), races, marathons and Olympic Games. Sporting mega-events in particular appear to be especially significant, because of their political and economic importance and frequent controversy surrounding the IOC’s of the events (Getz, 2008:412; Swart, 2010:366). Furthermore, they attract participants, spectators, tourists and prominent media attention (Byeon et al., 2009:67); and they also fit in with the global consumption of image and lifestyle (Swart, 2010:366). They are often studied as part of the fast growing niche market known as sport event tourism, which has been expanding at a rapid rate since 2000 (Byeon et al., 2009:67; Getz, 2008:412). They are commonly used by destinations to present themselves as multi-dimensional and vibrant, because they also allow for the inclusion of cultural elements (Garcia, 2004; Garcia & Miah, 2005; Nauright, 2004; Steyn, 2007).
It is necessary to understand how not only sporting mega-events, but also other types of mega-events can contribute to the overall competitiveness of the destination. The discussion that follows therefore apply to the broad scope of mega-events. The concept of event legacy will now be discussed in more detail, as it proves to be a crucial link in terms of sustainable destination competitiveness.

3.2.2 Managing the legacies of mega-events

Increased emphasis is placed on the creation of lasting legacies for the host destination as opposed to only measuring the impacts. It is important to distinguish between event legacy and event impacts. Event 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 …” (Preuss, 2007:211). In simple terms, legacies are the long-term benefits (or losses) to be gained (or suffered) from an event and include elements before, during and after the actual event (Chalip, 2000:3). The underlying idea of legacy creation is that it will represent something of substance that will enhance the wellbeing or lifestyle of the destination’s residents, in a way that reflects their values (Ritchie, 2000:156).

Where legacies have to do with the indirect influences as a result of the event (the ‘repercussions’ so to say), the impacts are the direct, measurable outcomes of an event (as measured for example in Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005; Collins, Jones & Munday, 2009; Lee & Taylor, 2005; and Weinberger, 2010). A critique raised against impact studies, is that they tend to focus on especially economic impacts in a ‘snapshot’ manner, and not as part of a longitudinal process. As indicated in Byeon et al. (2009:66), only a few studies focus on pre-/post-event impacts; leading to an unclear understanding of the impacts of mega-events on the long term competitiveness of the host destination.

In terms of mega-event legacies, the Olympic Movement has the most advanced system in place to determine the effects of an event of this nature on a host destination. The Olympic Games Global Impact Project evaluates the costs and legacies (economic, social and environmental) of the Games, from start (conceptualisation) to finish (bidding and hosting). It also evaluates the effectiveness and outcomes of the measurement strategies employed
by the host destinations. In this way, knowledge is transferred from one host to the next (Cornelissen, 2007:248).

It can be argued that from a sustainable destination competitiveness viewpoint, event legacies are of greater concern because they imply the required longitudinal approach. In order to effectively manage the potential legacies of a mega-event, destination managers have to understand how they link to the various components of destination competitiveness, with the aim to develop an effective tourism strategy around such an event. It is stated that an event should not be regarded as an ‘intervention’, but rather as a “temporary limited set of opportunities to foster and nurture longer-term outcomes” (O’Brien, 2006:258). As stated in Canada’s 2008 – 2012 Olympic Games Tourism Strategy: “Full implementation of [an integrated] strategy will ensure that the 2010 Winter Games are not just an event, but a decade of opportunities for Canada’s tourism sector” (Canadian Tourism Commission, n.d.:2).

Table 11 presents a summary of the various event legacies that can be accrued from hosting a mega-event. It encompasses a wide range of legacy categories; some of which may not necessarily directly relate to the host country as a tourism destination. However, when considering a destination as a ‘place’ with an identity which is linked to multiple aspects (as discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.5.2), it is crucial to understand the wider legacies associated with mega-events.

Table 11: Summary of event legacies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ECONOMIC AND COMMERCIAL LEGACIES</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>Increased government expenditure (Bohlmann &amp; Van Heerden, 2005:2).</td>
<td>Price inflation (Byeon et al., 2009:67).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Growth in trade and investment (Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance, 2004).</td>
<td>Tax burdens (Byeon et al., 2009:67).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Over-involvement of the private sector whose first priority is their own image and objectives (Smith, 2005:220).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 11: Summary of event legacies (continued)

#### MARKETING LEGACIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>− Reinforcing and enhancing the destination brand and image (Brown, Chalip, Jago &amp; Mules (2010); Chalip &amp; Costa (2005); Chalip, Green &amp; Hill (2003); Hede (2005:189); Smith (2009); Smith (2010); Xing &amp; Chalip (2006); Yoo (2002:7)).</td>
<td>− A poor international reputation if something goes wrong (Ritchie 1984, in Ritchie &amp; Crouch, 2003:123).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Publicity and exposure through extensive media presence (Getz &amp; Fairley (2004); Miah &amp; Garcia (2006); O’Brien (2006).</td>
<td>− Displacement and/or loss of usual visitor market (Brannas &amp; Nordstrom, 2006:292).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Wider product packaging throughout the destination (Chalip &amp; McGuirty (2004); Steyn (2007).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− The opportunity to build new markets (Smith, 2009:4).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### SOCIO-CULTURAL LEGACIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>− Increase in permanent level of local interest and participation in type of activity associated with the event (Jones, 2001:243).</td>
<td>− Commercialization of activities which may be of a personal or private nature (Ritchie, 1984 in Ritchie &amp; Crouch, 2003:123).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Showcasing the country’s cultural diversity (Garcia, 2002).</td>
<td>− Negative spin-offs due to ‘rushed urban planning’ (Garcia &amp; Miah, 2005:32).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Security legacies (Giulianotti &amp; Klauser, 2010:54).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### PHYSICAL LEGACIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Table 11: Summary of event legacies (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POLITICAL LEGACIES</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive</strong>  </td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Facilitates regional development (Whitford, 2009:674).</td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Propagation of political values held by government and/or population (Cornelissen, 2007:246).</td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative</strong>  </td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Economic exploitation of local population to satisfy ambitions of political elite (Ritchie, 1984 in Ritchie &amp; Crouch, 2003:123).</td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Distortion of true nature of event to reflect values of political system of the day (Cornelissen, 2007:248).</td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Mismanagement of public funds (Byeon et al., 2009:67).</td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PSYCHOLOGICAL LEGACIES</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Positive</strong>  </td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Local pride and community spirit (Preuss, 2007:218).</td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Tolerance and social cohesiveness (Sparks, Chadwick, Schafmeister, Woratschek, Hurley &amp; Dickson, 2006; Pahad in Steyn, 2007:44)</td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Negative</strong>  </td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Defensive attitude concerning host regions (Ritchie, 1984 in Ritchie &amp; Crouch, 2003:123).</td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Misunderstandings leading to varying degrees of host/visitor hostility (Ritchie, 1984 in Ritchie &amp; Crouch, 2003:123).</td>
<td> </td>
<td> </td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Ritchie (in Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:123)

In order to build upon the CSFs identified in Chapter 2 by adding an event perspective, it was necessary to determine whether there were event legacies that could feed into these CSFs. If there could be a possible relationship between a specific CSF and specific event legacies, then it would be possible to state that the CSF (which has been formulated from a destination competitiveness perspective), can be supported by the outcomes (legacies) of mega-events. In other words, that overall destination competitiveness can be promoted through mega-events. Table 12 (pg.95) indicates possible linkages between the broad CSF categories and some of the most prominent event legacies.

The linkages made in Table 12 confirm previous arguments that mega-events link to a myriad of components within a destination and therefore has the potential to contribute significantly to overall destination competitiveness (refer to sections 2.3.3.2, 2.3.3.3, and 2.4.6.3). From this table, it also becomes evident that the five broad CSF categories do in fact encompass the major legacy issues as identified in the literature. This means that they could provide the overall (critical) guidance for a destination whereby mega-events can be approached, in order to effectively produce sustainable tourism benefits.
Table 12: Linking event legacies to the CSFs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CSFs</th>
<th>Possible specific legacies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Addressed as a strategic destination priority</td>
<td>Enhanced recognition of the region and its value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Creation of employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Growth in trade and investment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increased expenditure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarifying the stakeholder roles and relationships</td>
<td>Local pride and community spirit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tolerance and social cohesiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Increased competition amongst existing enterprises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Upgraded infrastructure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing the destination resources</td>
<td>Showcasing the country’s cultural diversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>New facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>‘After-use’ strategy for facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aligned with the overall destination marketing strategy</td>
<td>Enhanced brand and image</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Publicity and exposure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wider product packaging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Price increases during the event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Commercialization of activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concern for environmental issues</td>
<td>Event footprint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overcrowding and noise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From this section it is evident that mega-events offer a wealth of opportunities, but also challenges, to a destination. It was also indicated that the associated legacies could in fact be linked to the five CSFs, namely the need to address events as a strategic destination priority; effective stakeholder identification and role clarification; resource management for the event; alignment of the event strategy with the overall destination marketing strategy; and pro-actively addressing environmental issues. The task that now presents itself is to find knowledge from events literature that can add substance to, and define them from an events perspective. This will be the focus of the next section.

3.3 ADDING AN EVENTS PERSPECTIVE TO THE CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

Within the context of the current study, industry success factors will relate to those skills and attributes of a destination that are essential to deliver successful events (including mega-events) in order to ensure sustainable destination competitiveness. The desire to be competitive in the events market is therefore not the ultimate goal, but rather ‘a means to an end’. The factors that will now be discussed are thus ways to be competitive in the global events industry; in order to achieve the destination’s overall vision, mission and strategies. They could be regarded as the core competences; in other words the
capabilities, skills, processes and resources of the destination that are needed to deliver superior performance in terms of each CSF (Sims & Smith in Jonker, 2003:67). The discussion is intended to build upon the CSFs as they have been identified in Chapter 2. Changes to the order and combination of the various performance areas within each CSF, have been made according to the apparent significance or relatedness of the topics as they arose from the events literature.

3.3.1 Addressing events as a strategic destination priority

Mega-events offer the perfect opportunity for a destination to prove itself, and such events can be transformational for a nation. They can reveal more about the ‘place’ than the ‘destination’ and can be “invaluable from the perspective of inward investment, political diplomacy and, probably to a lesser extent, tourism.” (UNWTO, 2009:21). According to Smith (2010:265), a mega-event forces a destination to deal with its issues. These issues relate not only to the event itself (smooth execution, visitor experiences and product delivery), but also to community issues (economic development, education and ‘suburban sprawl’). Smith highlights the fact that the influences of these issues run both ways. If the event is well-executed, it will strengthen the destination’s ability to deal with these issues. At the same time, a more attractive (competitive) destination is more likely to host a successful event. The success of the event and the competitiveness of the destination are thus interlinked.

Despite the complexity and significance of the relationship between events and their host destinations, many destinations still appear to act more opportunistically than strategically when it comes to event initiatives (Chalip, 2005:165; Smith, 2009:4). The level of unpredictability and risk that is inherent to planned events, make them a ‘complex and demanding device’ to successfully employ at a strategic level (Crowther, 2010:227). It is
therefore important to determine how the staging of a mega-event can strategically be incorporated into a destination’s competitive strategy. It can be argued that such strategic leveraging of events can only take place if the destination is guided by visionary leadership, and if events are given a proper place in tourism policy and strategy. Both of these aspects will now be discussed.

3.3.1.1 An industry guided by visionary leadership

In order for events to be employed at a strategic level, it has to be recognised by both governmental and private sector leaders. O’Brien (2006:246) identified leadership as one of the key aspects to ensure effective leveraging of mega-events. Clark (2008:46) similarly states that maximum benefits can only be gained from global events if there is the involvement of exceptional individuals and teams. It is stated that “strong backing requires authoritative, consistent, confident championing from leaders, be they political, business, or [prominent public] figures. Leaders must develop, and articulate, a clear vision for the [destination]’s development, explicitly outlining from the outset how a particular event will benefit the city, its region and the country as a whole in an appropriate balance.”

Not only the private sector of tourism, but also government should take on a marketing orientation and strategic outlook (Pugh & Wood, 2004:66). Leaders from both these groups should understand the concept of ‘competitive identity’ as it has been described by Anholt (in UNWTO, 2009:xii). Mega-events should be recognised for the invaluable opportunity that they present to close the gap between the destination’s corporate (public sector) or tourism branding message, and what is known through its national image. In order to do so, leadership will have to be strong enough to mobilise the strategies, activities, investments, innovations and communications of destination stakeholders toward the same goal, namely to prove to the world that the destination deserves the image that it wishes to communicate through its marketing and branding efforts (Anholt in UNWTO, 2009b:xii).

It is however not always possible for especially public stakeholders to take on such a strategic outlook. Some of the key challenges for the integration of events into policy, is the fact that they require a forced marriage between different governmental departments at
different levels. This is especially true in case of sporting mega-events, which are often regarded as the ultimate prize (Desai & Vahed, 2010:154). In his study on sport-tourism policy in the UK, Weed found that there are a number of factors that contribute to lack of integration of government policy (2003:259). Firstly, the agencies and structures that exist for developing sport and tourism respectively, have usually been established and developed separately (such as a Department of Sport versus a Department of Tourism). Secondly, there is often greater public sector support, subsidy and/or intervention in the sports sector, while “the tourist sector is largely seen as a private sector concern, and agencies are often limited to a marketing or business support role.” Thirdly, responsibility for policy development lies at various different levels (national, regional and/or local). These factors create a situation where sport and tourism liaison has to “take place not only across sectors, but also between levels.” It may be stated that such barriers to liaison between government and the private sector, as well as between different sectors of government, may also be prevalent in the case of other mega-events (even though to a different extent).

Despite such constraints, it remains imperative that events should be initiated and supported by top-level decision makers from both public and private sector. If events are given priority at the highest levels of power in a destination, enough may be done to commit resources that will allow for the professional execution of the event. It is important to foster this professional approach towards events, because an event with a reputation for professional management will spill over to promote an image of professionalism for the destination (Brown et al., 2010:290). Ultimately, events have to be viewed as part of a long-term plan for the destination, with pre- and post-event impacts (Byeon et al., 2009:65). Within such a long-term view, it is also necessary for leaders to consider events as instruments toward regional development (as discussed in Desai & Vahed, 2009; Moscardo, 2008; and Whitford, 2009). In the UK, for example, a number of regional event strategies allow for the re-generation of several closely situated towns (O'Toole, 2010:40). It is stated that the presence of tourism leadership and individual tourism champions, is one of the key requirements to ensure positive outcomes from regional tourism development (Moscardo, 2008:26). There is thus a strong link between events, regional tourism development and visionary leadership.
In order for events to be executed through such a strategic approach, there should be clear guidelines and responsibilities set out for the organisers and the proper reporting channels should be established (Sadd, 2009:32). It is necessary that both public and private sector destination roleplayers who take responsibility for the event, understand the event development process and view it from a holistic perspective. In order to do so, it is necessary to give events a proper place within tourism policy and to develop a formal event strategy for the destination (Stokes, 2006:684). The next section will discuss this issue in more detail.

3.3.1.2 Mega-events receiving priority through an event tourism strategy

It is stated that post-staging tourism benefits can only be accrued from an event through effective planning and a legacy strategy (as addressed in Cornelissen, 2007:248; O'Toole, 2010:35; Preuss, 2007; Smith, 2009; Stokes, 2008). The host destination has to focus on what it wants to achieve by hosting the event, thereby giving it purpose and intent (Steyn, 2007:40). This in turn can only be done if the destination has an event-related strategy in place. In similar vein, Clark (2008a:48) states that an event strategy is essential for mandating the bidding process, to secure resources, establish a cost-sharing framework, provide risk management and to ensure that the host destination has a clear, agreed-upon set of priorities and targets to be achieved.

It is stated that it may be more effective for the destination to have a focused event tourism strategy, as opposed to merely having an event strategy through which tourism objectives are also incidentally met (Stokes, 2008:259). According to Getz (in Stokes, 2008:255), few destinations actually have tangible event tourism strategies. It can thereby be argued that, by establishing an event tourism strategy, a significant first step is already taken toward increased destination competitiveness through events. Stokes (2008:257) presents three frameworks for event tourism strategy development (refer to Appendix B, pg.341, for a table summarising the different frameworks). These frameworks present four critical dimensions involved in an event tourism strategy, namely the focus of the strategy; the way in which the strategy implementation will be structured; the processes and people involved in the respective strategies; as well as the basis on which strategic event decisions will be made. Destination managers will have to determine which of these
strategies are most appropriate within the framework of the broader tourism and
destination strategies.
Tassiopoulos (2010b:15) states that event tourism strategies will differentiate destinations
in terms of the capacity for bidding for events; the ability to attract major events;
infrastructural capacity; and institutional arrangements. A key distinguishing factor in
different event strategies appears to be the locus of control. O’Toole (2010:40) provides an
overview of what he indicates as the leading countries in the development of event
strategies. Within this overview the following characteristics of competitive event strategies
were identified:
- government initiates an event strategy by committing to support and foster the
development of events, based on specific developmental objectives;
- the development of a comprehensive strategy takes place over time;
- event strategies are linked into the national tourism strategy as a key objective;
- regional and city level event strategies contribute and continuously refer to the national
  event strategy;
- if there is no event strategy at national level, the governments at regional and city level
  have to take initiative to develop individual strategies;
- government sets up appropriate event units to guide events development;
- Event strategies are supported by setting industry standards;
- an event-related ‘body of knowledge’ is needed to support practitioners;
- event strategies have to contain strategies to maximise the legacies of hosting mega-
  events;
- target markets are clearly identified (for example, business versus public events); and
- events are viewed as tools to diversify the tourism product offering and capacity of the
destination (O’Toole, 2010:40).

In addition to the trends highlighted by O’Toole (especially point three), Clark (2008a:48)
contends that, in some countries that do not have a long history of hosting global events,
but are actively seeking to develop this aspect of their growth, it will be more beneficial to
operate from within a national ‘events strategy co-operation’. Events that are eligible for
bidding, along with the appropriate city (destination), will then be decided at a national
level. The chosen city (destination) will then receive the financial and managerial support
from central, national resources in order to contribute to the overall attractiveness of the country as a host destination for events.

Importantly, the chosen event tourism strategy should represent the varying interests and concerns of the stakeholders involved (O’Toole, 2010:35). It should be built around an appropriate time frame that makes provision for long-term planning, because some events in the strategy, such as hallmark and mega-events, are usually planned and managed over a period of six years or more (O’Toole, 2010:35; Swart, 2010:366). There should be clear guidelines and responsibilities set out for the organisers, and the proper reporting channels should be established (Sadd, 2009:32). It is furthermore crucial that the strategy should have a clearly defined set of decision criteria according to which events can be selected. These criteria should ultimately be based on government’s objectives, as they will be committing many of the resources. By having such a set of criteria, “the decision to support a particular event becomes defendable and transparent.” (O’Toole, 2010:44).

Any event tourism strategy should be built upon strong market research and should also make provision for research during and after the actual event, in order to capture information on key issues of the event. This issue of knowledge management and transfer is increasingly being regarded as a critical legacy of especially mega-events (Cornelissen, 2007:248). This will greatly assist stakeholders (especially government, the DMO and product owners) to improve future event-related practices and to promote the sharing of skills and knowledge (Brown et al., 2010:292).

Three other components of an event tourism strategy will now be discussed separately, because of their apparent importance to destination marketing.

- **Building a healthy portfolio of events**
  The main aim of destinations that choose to employ events as part of their marketing and development strategy, should be to build up a healthy portfolio of events that includes events of different natures and scale. Most tourist destinations host a mix of events, ranging from those that require a competitive bid, to events that are specifically created for tourism, as well as a variety of community events (Getz, 2008:122; Stokes, 2008:253). The aim of strategically managing an extensive and varied number of
annual events, should be to deliver a logically flowing attendee experience that is consistent with the destination brand (Crowther, 2010:227). Furthermore, it is important to consider that different types of events within a broad category (such as different types of mega-events), present different opportunities, benefits and challenges to the destination (as explained in Bob et al., 2008:56 and Clark, 2008b:123\(^\text{16}\)).

It is stated that a healthy portfolio of events can be regarded as an asset to a destination (O’Toole, 2010:35). It allows for certain aspects of the destination brand to be enhanced in certain market segments. (Brown et al., 2010:286). It is important to consider that not all forms of exposure will contribute positively to the destination image (Chalip et al., 2003:229; Shoval, 2002:594). Events may therefore sometimes only be useful to represent a component of the destination’s product offering (Brown et al., 2010:287). Through a portfolio of events, the entire destination offering can be presented by a combination of different events. In this regard, Getz (2008:421) warns against an over-emphasis on mega-events. On the other hand, not all events will create significant tourism demand and should subsequently not be included in an events tourism strategy (Stokes, 2006:288).

A portfolio of events will balance the brand power of once-off events with their heightened exposure, with other smaller or annual events that need time to become associated with the destination (Brown et al., 2010:290; Chalip, 2005:165). In addition to balancing the portfolio of events, destination managers have to consider the ‘weight’ of the portfolio in terms of the number of events. Tassiopoulos (2010b:19) argues that there is always the possibility of market saturation for certain types of events, or for events overall, within a given destination. It also has to be considered that events have life cycles with corresponding market potential, and that development of new events or enhancement of mature events have to be strategically planned. In this regard, programming may offer a way to introduce new events into a destination, while simultaneously giving a ‘logical’ explanation for not continuing the event the next year. As discussed by Heath (2009c:167), destinations may set up a program of events and activities according to a certain theme. This program theme will usually run for the

\(^{16}\) Clark (2008a) also provides an extensive exposé of international event case studies from an urban development perspective.
duration of a year, or can be built around a mega-event and consequently run for a longer period. It creates a platform from which to launch a number of events.

Another very important function of an events portfolio, is to assist in managing the destination’s life cycle. When considering the Tourism Area Life Cycle presented by Butler (2006:5-11), it can be stated that events could serve to fulfil different purposes at different stages (as indicated in Figure 10).

Figure 10: Using events to manage the destination life cycle

![Graph showing the relationship between number of visitors and time, with stages of exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, and rejuvenation.](Source: Adapted from Butler (2006:5); Heath (2009c:164)

It becomes clear that events serve as powerful tools to enhance or extend the destination life cycle and to offset seasonality. Brown et al. (2010:291) states that ongoing tourism benefits will accumulate if an event manages to stimulate visitation to the destination throughout the year. This may be especially relevant to mega-events, as they create interest in a destination before and after the actual event. However, they should not be regarded as the ultimate prize. As stated by Getz (2008:123), the ultimate goal should be to establish a balance between small and large-scale events at various intervals, as this will provide the destination with a continuous flow of visitors over time.
Successful bidding for a mega-event

The event strategy has to indicate how events will be attracted into the destination. It can either be a case where the destination bids to be a host; or where event owners and organisers are requested to submit a bid or tender to the destination to host their event in the destination. The bidding process for mega-events and hallmark events has become a critical part of a destination’s competitiveness in the events arena (Getz, 2008:422). It requires a destination to commit itself to resources, by providing financial guarantees for infrastructural development and for covering any economic deficits of the LOC (Swart, 2010:371). It can also have a significant impact on the destination, even if the bid is unsuccessful. As Swart and Bob (2004:1313) argues, an unsuccessful bid can provide the destination with an international tourism marketing and image enhancement opportunity; it showcases the existing resources within the destination; it promotes the formation of public-private partnerships within and outside of the destination; and it develops national pride and community participation.

Due to the apparent significance of the bidding process, it was decided to briefly discuss the bidding process. Event owners will initially invite interested destinations to express their interest in bidding, where after a shortlist of destinations will be invited to submit their formal proposals for hosting the event. The right to organise a mega-event usually follows after a successful winning bid by the destination (Berridge & Quick, 2010:88). The very comprehensive bidding document should provide information on political, economic and social structures within the destination, and has to explain how issues such as environmental concerns, legal aspects, customs and immigration formalities, security, health, marketing, venues, transport, accommodation and telecommunication will be handled (Berridge & Quick, 2010:97; Swart, 2010:367).

Bids for mega events involve several public bodies; follow a transparent process; require considerable resources to organise; and carry a high degree of risk for the destination. It will also entail the tasks of procurement, tendering, pitching and lobbying (taken from Berridge & Quick, 2010:89-92; Swart, 2010:367). Importantly, the bidding process gives the destination leaders an opportunity to consult with stakeholders and to determine the event’s possible return on investment and impacts (Berridge & Quick, 2010:91). Westerbeek, Turner & Ingerson (2002, 320) undertook research to identify
the CSF’s for successful sporting event bids. Their findings are also prominently mentioned by Swart (2010:369). They identified the following eight factors, which can also be applied to other types of event bids:

- ability to organise the event (includes technical skills and a track record of hosting similar events);
- political support (government has to be involved in the bidding process to add credibility to the bid);
- infrastructure (including general infrastructure, as well as tourism superstructure);
- existing facilities (already existing at the time of the bid and successfully used in the hosting of previous events);
- communication and exposure (the destination’s existing brand strength; and the necessary ICT systems to provide global coverage of the event);
- accountability (capacity to deliver a high quality service in terms of facilities, as well as in dealing with the event stakeholders);
- bid team composition (a variety of talented individuals is needed to increase the perceived credibility of the bid); and
- relationship marketing (the skills to influence decision makers and to lobby effectively).

Byeon et al.’s (2009:86) study on pre-and post-event impacts raises an important issue of the bidding process. If bidding committees over-estimate the advantages of holding an event and the actual event under-delivers, this will greatly affect industry support for future bids. It is therefore important to communicate realistic estimates of possible event outcomes and for industry experience of past events to be included into future event plans. It is also crucial that a DMO should be represented on any national bidding committee in order to give inputs from a destination marketing perspective. Any exposure gained through a bidding process, should effectively be leveraged by the DMO in marketing communication activities.

- **The critical tasks of benchmarking, monitoring and evaluation**

One of the major trends in event management is the increased focus on events accountability. As Tassiopoulos (2010b:19) states, stakeholders “are increasingly expecting greater accountability and return on investment”. There is an increased focus
on determining measurement and performance indicators as early as the conceptualisation stage of especially mega-events. This includes aspects such as appropriate event design; event management systems; marketing strategy; sponsorship strategy; operational management; risk management; and appropriate information technology platforms. Benchmarking against industry best practices will be an important task of the DMO; especially in terms of the marketing strategy of the destination during a mega-event. With regards to other types of events held within the destination, the DMO’s event tourism strategy has to clearly indicate how the important aspects of potential events will be monitored, in order to contribute positively to the destination’s overall competitiveness.

In terms of the evaluation of events, a wealth of literature is available on the impacts and legacies of events (as indicated in Table 11, pg.92), as well as debates on the most appropriate methodology to do so\textsuperscript{17}. As Hede (2007:13) states: “One area of special event research that has burgeoned, particularly in the past two decades, is event evaluation.” Several authors support the need to take a ‘triple bottom line’ approach toward measuring the impacts of events\textsuperscript{18}. Getz states that great work needs to be undertaken to overcome the ‘economic bias inherent in event tourism’ (2008:420). He provides a possible solution to this need for accountability. He suggests that an open-system perspective is taken toward measuring and evaluating events (2008:419). This entails:

- identifying the ‘inputs’: what it takes to make events happen, including the costs of bidding, facility development and marketing;
- understanding the ‘transforming processes’: accounting for the impacts left by events as ‘agents of change’; and
- measuring the ‘outcomes’: including the desired and undesired impacts, as well as externalities.

In order for any type of event evaluation to be meaningful, it has to be conducted with the original events tourism strategy objectives in mind. It is clear that numerous monitoring

\textsuperscript{17} For example Gratton, Shibli and Coleman (2006); Prabha, Rolfe and Sinden (2006); Bohlmann and Van Heerden (2005); and discussed in Jones (2001:244).

\textsuperscript{18} For example Bob (2010); Hede (2007); Jago \textit{et al.} (2005); and Turco, Swart, Bob and Moodley (2003).
and evaluation techniques are available. However, selection of an appropriate technique should be guided by validity in terms of the destination’s specific desired outcomes. It is therefore essential for the destination to identify the desired information along with proposed measurement and evaluation techniques, as a part of the event tourism strategy. In this instance it may be of great importance for the DMO to measure the marketing related activities of the event. Measuring the return on marketing investment (ROMI) can include both quantitative and qualitative indicators, and may require monitoring and tracking of each of the marketing tools that have been employed (Carmouche et al., 2010:268; Getz & Fairley, 2004:129).

For events to be regarded as a strategic destination priority, it will take leadership and initiative from various stakeholders. Furthermore, the successful implementation of an event strategy will require input and commitment from a vast scope of stakeholder groups. As highlighted by several authors, mega-events especially require the input from a number of stakeholders from a diverse set of sectors (Brown et al., 2010; Getz, Andersson & Larson, 2007; Jörgen, 2009; O'Toole, 2010; Tassiopoulos, 2010a). The next CSF will focus on identifying these stakeholders and determining how and where they contribute to optimal leveraging of mega-events (along with other events) in order to improve destination competitiveness.

3.3.2 Clarifying the broader stakeholder roles and relationships

The diverse set of stakeholders directly and indirectly involved in events, necessitates a network approach whereby all the relevant stakeholders can be identified and coordinated. Networking and stakeholder management is especially used by event managers to secure community support and the acquisition of resources (Getz et al., 2007:103). Jörgen (2009:229) emphasises that within such a network, there will be symmetric relationships...
(where parties are interdependent and have equal influence), as well as asymmetric relationships (where the stronger party holds the power over a dependent party). Furthermore, all of the individual stakeholders will in turn have their own sets of networks that allow them to perform their tasks, and which will have a direct or indirect influence on the actual event (Jörgen, 2009:228). Brown et al. (2010:297) add that the challenge in event partnerships and networking, lays with the fact that creative thinking is needed “in an environment that is subject to many rules and a very focused temporal horizon.”

Within this already difficult environment, it is furthermore important to realise that each stakeholder will have its own interests. These interests will greatly influence the stakeholders’ individual willingness to mobilise resources and take part in activities associated with the event (Jörgen, 2009:233). It will also influence the type of ‘political strategies’ that they employ to secure fulfilment of their objectives (Larson, 2002 in Getz et al., 2007:105). Because the structure of the network and the functions of the relationships between the stakeholders will affect the efficiency of the network (Jörgen, 2009:229) and thus the success of the event, it becomes clear why stakeholder identification has been identified as a CSF to leverage mega-events for destination competitiveness.

Within the scope of this study, the details of such networks will not be discussed in detail. However, the role of such networks as it has been described in the literature, highlights the importance of establishing effective linkages between the stakeholders from the two study fields presented in this study. This linking between the two broader sets of stakeholders is supported by Stokes (2006:683) who notes that the widely applied networking models mostly describe “simple relationships such as that between a major event organizer and a tourism authority”, and that it does not “capture the wider stakeholder network that may facilitate and depend upon the tourism potential of events.”

In Chapter 2, the relevant tourism stakeholders were identified from a destination management perspective. At this point, it is necessary to define the stakeholders that are recognised within the events study field, in order to find the linkages between the two broader ‘sets’ of stakeholders.
3.3.2.1 Identifying the key event stakeholders

An exploration of the literature presented different ways to go about the identification of event stakeholders (as discussed in Getz et al., 2007:105; Jörgen, 2009:228; Parent & Deephouse, 2007:3; Stokes, 2006). It was decided not to discuss the different processes or undertake a specific process, but to rather focus on finding similarities in the outcomes of these processes. The researcher aimed to identify the event stakeholders as indicated through different identification processes presented in the literature. It is also important to consider the fact that all identified stakeholders will in turn have their own stakeholder networks. This proved to make it irrelevant to define exactly where the event stakeholder network will start or end (Jörgen, 2009:228). Instead, the focus was turned to identifying the apparent key event stakeholders from a destination perspective. These stakeholders will briefly be mentioned, before continuing with a more detailed discussion when linking them to the respective destination stakeholders.

Various studies indicated the event organiser as central in the events process (Chalip, 2005:165; Getz et al., 2007:104; Tassiopoulos, 2010a:69; Wanklin, 2010a). In the study on festival stakeholders done by Getz et al. (2007), the event organisers identified their key stakeholders as being the event audience, followed by government agencies, the media and sponsors. In some contrast, Reid and Arcodia (2002, in Getz et al., 2007:106) divide event organiser stakeholders into primary (employees, volunteers, sponsors, suppliers, spectators, attendees, and participants) and secondary (government, host community, emergency services, general business, media, and tourism organisations) stakeholders. Hede (2007:19) splits event stakeholders into two groups, namely individuals (tourist attendees, volunteers, employees, residents and shareholders), and organisations (businesses, media, sponsors, government and community groups). Getz and Fairley (2004:137) identify the key event stakeholder groups as the event organiser, the DMO, corporate sponsors, travel trade, the media, and ally organisations. Tassiopoulos (2010:68) identify stakeholders according to an events triangle; with the event organisation’s direct partners indicated as the suppliers, participants and other production role players. The other two points of the triangle are indicated as the sponsors and the event audience. Even though the ranking of the stakeholders vary, these studies produce similar results. These ‘results’ can thus be regarded as credible stakeholder entities.
Figure 11 indicates the key event stakeholders as identified in the literature. Each of these stakeholders will briefly be discussed. For purposes of discussion in this study, the event organiser remains as the key stakeholder, followed by the other stakeholders as they were prominently mentioned in the literature. It was decided however, to start off with a brief discussion on the event owner which is an important ‘separate’ stakeholder in the case of mega-events.

Figure 11: Key event stakeholders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EVENT OWNER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EVENT ORGANISER (or LOC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The media</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sponsors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buyers &amp; suppliers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participants &amp; performers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allies &amp; collaborators</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s own construction

- **The prerogative of the event owner**
  The owners of an event will be the organisation or entity that initiates the event in order to achieve certain goals and outcomes. For many event owners, the ideal is to nurture an event into ‘institutional status’. This means that the event is a “permanent, legitimate, and valued part of the society” where it is hosted, and that it will have a “highly visible, positive brand that inspires confidence.” (Getz et al., 2007:105). It is stated that this can only be done through supportive networking and by managing the event’s legitimacy from the perspective of the various stakeholder (Getz et al., 2007:105). This statement supports stakeholder identification and management as a CSF to ensure effective leveraging of events from a destination management perspective.
Events can either be owned by private, for-profit organisations; non-profit-making or voluntary entities; or governmental and public-private groups. As already explained, these event owners increasingly have to account to various stakeholders for the event’s ability to deliver desirable triple-bottom-line impacts (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:69). It may be the case that the event owner will also organise the event, depending on the owner’s own capacity and resources. If an event owner decides to manage the event in its own capacity, it will often establish the necessary divisions or organising committees to do so. In other cases, the event owner will outsource the event to an entity that can manage the event on their behalf. When discussing the role of the event organiser, it should be kept in mind that it may also be the event owner itself (or sub-entity thereof); as it has been explained in previous discussions.

- **The event organiser as key events roleplayer**
  
  As previously stated, a key stakeholder from an events perspective will be the event organiser. The organiser has to ensure successful execution of the event, based on the specific goals of the event owner. Very often they have to compete or bid for events and are bound by a contract to the event owner. In the case of smaller (entrepreneurial) event organisations, they can generate income through “admission charges, merchandising, sponsorship, media revenue and rental of service to participants.” (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:70). This organisation has to, among other things, manage activities, organise funding, coordinate staff and voluntary personnel, undertake marketing and public relations, organise security, administer ticketing, coordinate the venues and parking, and oversee event enhancements such as entertainment (Wanklin, 2010a:126). When considering all the stakeholders that will be involved in accruing these relevant resources, it becomes clear that an event can not be produced by a stand-alone organisation. In essence, events are executed through a network of stakeholders that have to be managed by the event organisation (Getz et al., 2007:121).

- **Local organising committees as the organisers of mega-events**

  The local organising committee (LOC) is discussed separately because it can be regarded as a specialist event organising team for a mega-event (Wanklin, 2010b:110). The LOC is an event committee that is established specifically to organise and run a
mega-event within the specific host destination. Membership of the committee is usually voluntary and the committee will cease to exist after the event (Parent & Deephouse, 2007:4). The LOC has to ensure that the event owner’s objectives and requirements are met within the host destination. It involves close cooperation with the various destination stakeholders to perform the different tasks set out according to its different divisions (finances, administration, public relations, marketing/sponsorships, international relations, infrastructure, transportation, technology, volunteers, relevant government departments) (Parent & Deephouse, 2007:4). In order to assist the official umbrella LOC of the event, it may be required to establish smaller project teams in various regions/cities where event venues are situated (Wanklin, 2010a:131). Such teams will operate on the principles of project management, which will imply integrating and coordinating all the activities and roleplayers. It will also require the LOC team to consult with the local community and other event stakeholders within the destination (Wanklin, 2010c:147). From the perspective of destination marketing, it will be essential for the DMO to collaborate with the LOC (or the appropriate LOC project team) to consolidate on issues affecting destination marketing.

- **Understanding the role of government agencies**
  Events are often run as public projects because the associated event publicity is regarded as an important “… ‘political output’ for the politicians that put public money into the projects.” (Getz et al., 2007:116). As stated by Pugh & Wood, events provide the ideal means for a local government to promote itself positively to its local residents, businesses, and visitors (2004:64). In exchange for this benefit, the government has to play a key role in coordinating the resources and activities within a destination (as discussed in Pugh & Wood, 2004). Getz et al. (2007:115) categorise government agencies such as city municipalities, federal agencies, provincial tourism authorities and tourism bodies as the regulators and facilitators of events. They are the “non-participating resource providers” that provide grants and “in-kind” support. It is also the responsibility of government at municipal level to enforce the by-laws that have to be passed in accordance with the event owner or organiser’s stipulations. These can include stipulations regarding regulated advertising, controlled access to certain areas, public open space creation and beautification, informal trade, accreditation centres, event sites and other hosting sites (Chilwane in Swart, 2010:386). In simple terms,
“supportive policies of local, as well as national government, are clearly of utmost importance to sustainable, quality hosting of events” (Goslin, Grundling & Steynberg, 2004:77).

- **Taking a wider view at the event audience**
  The event audience will be the individuals who are either physically present at the event venues, who have an ‘electronic presence’ through various electronic media, or who will be reached through printed media (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:68). From a destination marketing perspective, the event audience will thus be the local residents, local tourists, and international tourists that attend the event, as well as potential visitors that are exposed to the event through various media. More will be said about the events market as target market in section 3.3.4.8.

- **The media as a powerful events partner**
  The media itself is also regarded as an event audience, as their representatives (journalists, crew etc.) will also be attending the event in order to report to their respective organisations (Getz *et al.*, 2007:106). The media is a very important audience of the event and various strategies are employed to effectively deal with their experiences of the event (as will be discussed later).

- **A crucial contribution made by event sponsors**
  Sponsors are companies or entities that invest money, services or other support into the event in order to fulfil their objectives, which usually concern brand exposure or association with a certain cause. Sponsors’ main concern is with the event’s ability to maintain its audience in order to attain the desired exposure. In exchange for their financial inputs, sponsors receive various forms of promotional packages, licensing rights, event promotion features, VIP treatment and merchandising sales opportunities (Schaaf, 1995 in Tassiopoulos, 2010a:68). From the viewpoint of the event organiser, sponsors provide many of the needed resources, but there is always the inherent threat that they can withdraw from, or exert unwanted influence over the event (Getz *et al.*, 2007:121).
A wide scope of event buyers and suppliers

Event buyers will be those entities that utilise event-related facilities and services within a destination. They include corporates, associations, government, as well as market sub-groups (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:73). Discussion of these groups falls outside the scope of the current study. They should however be taken into consideration when a DMO formulates an event tourism strategy, because they will form some of the important target markets for the destination’s event product offering.

Event suppliers are those businesses that provide the venues and specialist services for events (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:74). There is a myriad of businesses that supply products and services to the event market, even if they do not focus specifically on the event industry. Within the scope of the current study, focus will be on destination product suppliers and not on the vast scope of event agencies and smaller specialist event suppliers. The availability and quality of the venues, attractions, amenities, access and support services that are present throughout the destination, all contribute to the attractiveness of the ‘events destination’ (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:78). The issue of event supply directly relates to the CSF of resource management, as well as the role of destination industry members (as will be discussed in section 3.3.3).

Performers and participants at the core of an event

The nature and number of participants of an event will depend on the type of event. For mega-events, this can range from professional athletes in various disciplines (such as the Olympics, sport championships, marathons etc.), world leaders and academics in certain spheres (for example the Global Summit or world conferences), to performers and artists (in cultural events or as complimentary to sporting, business, religious or social events). One of the challenges posed to the DMO, is to turn these event participants into future destination visitors (as will be discussed in 3.3.4.5). Another challenge is to ensure that members of the host community are utilised as performers and participants during mega-events (as indicated in Steyn, 2007:49-56).

Community groups influence and are influenced by an event

Apart from the direct and indirect impacts of events on the host community, there are various community groups that can be involved in different aspects of a mega-event.
They can form part of enhancing the event through for example arts and crafts; they can represent certain interest groups who want to benefit from the event, for example welfare or environmental groups; or they can represent the interests of individuals involved in or affected by the event, for example civic organisations and political parties (Wanklin, 2010b:110). Community groups will also include academic institutions such as universities or schools. Many of these interest organisations participate in the event in order to market themselves (Getz et al., 2007:114). Community members also participate as volunteers in various aspects of the event. The event organiser’s perspective of the host community is summarised by Getz et al., who states that “the community at large is impacted by the event and might engage in threatening acts, but also constitutes the base for its audience, is the origin of volunteers and members, and can influence political and commercial support for the event.” (2007:121). In the case of a mega-event, community groups may also include groups from the international community, such as human rights activists\(^{19}\) and environmental groups. The industry has seen the rise of international electronic platforms where cultural, political, social and economic aspects of mega-events are raised publicly\(^{20}\).

- **Various other allies and collaborators**
  This stakeholder group classification is made by Getz et al. (2007:108) and includes professional associations and organisations relevant to the type of event (for example sport associations); professional advisors; and advisory committees. Getz and Fairley (2004:137) regard participating organisations as long-term allies of the DMO, that have to promote the destination as well as the event.

### 3.3.2.2 Finding the links between destination and event stakeholders

Through previous discussions, it becomes apparent that government at various levels, play a key role in the development and growth of events within a destination. From an events perspective, they play the key coordinating role within a destination. However, in Chapter 2 (section 2.4.2.1 and 2.4.3) it became clear that, from a destination

\(^{19}\) For example, Herborn (2007) who reports on freedom of speech issues during the Beijing Olympics.

\(^{20}\) For example, playthegame.org, culturalolympics.org.uk and the Centre on Housing Rights and Evictions’ reports on the Olympic Games (COHRE, 2006).
In order to meaningfully discuss the DMO’s event stakeholders, it is necessary to establish the link between the event stakeholders (identified above) and the destination stakeholders (identified in Chapter 2, section 2.4.3.1). Figure 12 (pg.117) presents a proposed schema and indicates the most important linkage points from the DMO’s perspective. A description of the key linkages duly follows.

- **The DMO’s relationship with the event organiser**

As can be seen from Figure 12, a significant relationship that has to be managed from the DMO’s perspective, is the often difficult relationship between the DMO and the event manager or organiser. This relationship poses many overlapping perspectives on aspects such as the motivation for, structuring of and execution of events; and it will ultimately influence the ability of the DMO to optimally leverage mega-events that are hosted within the destination (Getz, 2008:421; Singh & Hu, 2008:931). Chalip & McGuirty (2004:269) provide a powerful summary of the core issue in this relationship: “The unfortunate fact, however, is that destination marketers and event organizers often fail to work together in a manner that enables an event to be cross-leveraged [within a destination]. One core reason for this failure seems to be that destination marketers and event organizers have not explored the means to cross-leverage.”

This statement is reinforced when considering the apparent key stakeholders from the perspective of the event organiser (such as an LOC for mega-events). According to a study done by Parent & Deephouse (2007:17), an LOC regards government as its main event stakeholder. To the LOC, government presents key aspects of the event such as legalities, protocol and holding rights, as well as monetary, human and physical resources. Other important stakeholders are identified as being the event organiser’s own staff, local community (for human and physical resources), international...
governance (for participants), media (for image creation), and international sports federations (for rules of the game). There is, however, a recognised relationship between the DMO and the LOC of a host destination, and it is characterised as “an essential, knowledge-intensive, and exceptionally complicated task.” (Singh & Hu, 2008:931).

Figure 12: Linking destination stakeholders with event stakeholders

Within this relationship, promotion of the host destination is not the key priority of the event organiser; and in the case of smaller events, the DMO may not even be taken into consideration by the event organisers. Chalip (2005:165) confirms this statement by suggesting that event managers are not concerned with marketing the destination itself. However, it is also true that destination marketers do not devote substantial marketing attention to integrate all events into its marketing strategy, because events usually occur only for a short period of time and are only regarded as small pieces of
the overall destination product offering. Such an inconsistent integration of events does not favourably contribute to the destination brand, and falls short of the fact that the “effective use of events in destination branding requires cooperative planning by event managers and destination marketers” (Chalip, 2005:165). It may therefore be stated that successful development of this relationship for destination marketing purposes, will be the responsibility of the DMO, who is regarded as the custodian of the destination brand. In order to do so effectively, the DMO should be able to offer something of value to event organisers (or an LOC).

In terms of other smaller events, the DMO can act as a crucial connection between the event organiser and the destination’s relevant government departments. In this regard, their main task will be to coordinate with the relevant public stakeholders on issues such as permits, controls and regulations that affect events operations (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:78). Another area where the DMO can be regarded as valuable to the event organiser (whether for large or smaller events) is the DMO’s task of providing adequate information on the destination’s events offering (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:78). In order for the DMO to effectively provide this ‘service’ to an event organiser, it has to undertake a number of strategic tasks. These include (i) identifying appropriate events product development opportunities throughout the destination; and (ii) establishing a database of the ‘events destination amalgam’ (attractions, amenities, access and ancillary services) (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:78), and identifying the destination’s strengths and weaknesses in this regard.

Importantly, the DMO should aim to maintain its relationship with event organisers after the actual events have taken place (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:81). This will offer the DMO an opportunity to get feedback on the event experience from the organiser’s perspective; to get valuable information on the event attendees as potential future target markets; as well as insight into how the destination’s offering can be improved for future events.

In order to explain the DMO’s approach to a relationship with event organisers, it is necessary to understand events from the DMO’s perspective. It is also necessary to understand how the DMO has to relate to other destination stakeholders, in order to
take on the role of events product developer for the destination. These aspects will now be discussed.

- **The DMO’s perspective on events**

  From the perspective of DMOs, events are valued for their power as attractions, catalyst, animators, place marketers and image-makers (Getz, 2008:406). They are increasingly receiving attention from DMOs as an area of product development and as a key component within destination marketing strategies (Heath, 2009c:270; Smith, 2009:4). The role of the DMO can be viewed from four perspectives, namely:

  (i) to attract and support owned events into the destination;
  (ii) to create destination-owned events;
  (iii) to manage the destination’s event supply; and
  (iv) to coordinate and manage stakeholder networks and relationships.

The DMO plays a key role in securing events for a destination, and can be regarded as marketing partners or collaborators in hosted events (Getz et al., 2007:108). In order for the DMO to fulfil this role in a professional manner, event tourism has to be given the proper place in the destination’s strategy (as discussed in 3.3.1.2). It may also be necessary to considering a separate portfolio within the DMO that focuses on event bidding and hosting. This structure is often provided for by establishing a Convention and Visitor Bureau, or by establishing a dedicated division within a tourism office or tourist board (Celuch & Davidson, 2009:242; Tassiopoulos, 2010:79). These entities will not actually organise the events themselves, but will encourage groups to hold events in the destination. They will also facilitate exploration of other destination products during the time of the event (for example, through guided tours or excursions), and may assist groups to prepare and implement their events in the destination. They may also assist in promoting the event to build attendance; offer events housing facilities; or may assist with event registration and information dissemination (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:80). Key to the successful operation of this bureau or division, will be high calibre human resources. As Celuch and Davidson (2009:241) state, a destination’s ability to successfully attract events depends on having competent professionals in key destination marketing positions.
It is important for a DMO to not only bid for and assist in the hosting of owned events within the destination. A key task of the DMO is to proactively develop unique events for, and owned by the destination itself; and not to wait for one of the limited available mega-events to be successfully bid for. The global exposure of a mega-event for example, will be short-lived if there are no contingency plans in place to consolidate the destination’s reputation through other events (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:120). Very importantly, the creation of unique events for the destination, as well as the bidding for owned events, should be done according to the principle of a ‘balanced portfolio’ (as discussed in section 3.3.1.2).

Lastly, it should be part of the DMO events portfolio/bureau/division’s task to drive all networking initiatives between the various destination stakeholders involved in the hosting of an event (for example product owners, suppliers, local community members and public offices). The nature of their relationships with these stakeholders will now be explored.

- The motivation and role of government and political groups
Events have been recognised by governments around the world as significant economic and social activities. Furthermore, the international visibility of mega-events, as well as their significant associated impacts and benefits, has forced governments to become involved to address the interests and concerns of stakeholders (O’Toole, 2010:35). Moreover, the decision to take part in events is almost always politically motivated\(^\text{21}\). The desire of governments to take part in the “increasingly aggressive place wars” (Foley, McPherson & McGillivray, 2009:54) and to be ranked as top global destinations, can override the cultural and economic motivations to bid for or create large scale events (Cornelissen, 2007:253). Events encourage personal experiences of their destination and, as has been stated by Anholt (in UNWTO, 2009b:xii), preference for a destination and its people, politics, culture and products tend to increase after such encounters, even when the holiday experience has not been positive.

\(^{21}\) As discussed in Cornelissen (2007); Desai and Vahed (2010); Hogland and Sundberg (2008); Pugh and Wood (2004); and Van der Merwe (2007).
In terms of marketing, events provide public sector marketers with a variety of “suitable vibrant, colourful and multicultural images which are easily packaged for global circulation”. It involves the recreation of a ‘cleaner’ version of the place’s history, that will be approved by the host population and that can be exploited as a tourism resource (Foley et al., 2009:55). Still, the prospect of the additional revenue from visitor spending (Smith, 2010:263; Brown et al., 2010:282), as well as the tax benefits for all levels of government (Turco, 1995 in Getz, 2008:420) remain some of the greatest benefits of event tourism for governments.

Apart from the benefits that can be accrued by government, huge public investments have to be made to enhance the destination’s reputation for future campaigns or hosting of events (Smith, 2010:263). Hosting of mega-events require government spending on infrastructure and new facilities, as well as significant spending on the proper promotion of events (O’Toole, 2010:39). Because these spendings are public funds, there is an expectation that they will employ strategies that are well defined and transparent (Stokes, 2008:253). It is suggested that government’s approach to events should be guided by the principle of asset management (O’Toole, 2010:36). This will imply a concern for the development of infrastructure requirements, as well as the decision to commit resources to do so. It will enable the life cycle of a single event or an entire portfolio of events, to be managed over time. It will also answer to the required stakeholder accountability and measurement of return on investment.

Due to the complexities involved in balancing the costs and benefits of especially mega-events, there has been a dramatic global increase in the number of event strategies on different government levels (O’Toole, 2010:35). Execution of these event strategies are often left in the hands of the economic development or tourism department. It is important to remember that governments do not always influence the development of events; especially grassroots events and festivals at regional level (Stokes, 2006:685). It is therefore essential for the DMO to develop an appropriate event tourism strategy of which it can take ownership. Importantly, its outcomes have to be in line with government objectives and policy, because the DMO may be expected to manage the impacts and legacies of events (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:78).
Figure 13 indicates where the DMO fits into government’s policy process and how a DMO’s event tourism strategy can contribute toward achieving policy objectives.

Figure 13: The DMO and government’s objectives

This figure illustrates the importance of establishing a strong relationship between the DMO and the relevant government (tourism) department. As Pugh and Wood (2004:64) states: “Strategic place marketing ... could best be achieved through substantial local government involvement. However, there will also be the need for collaboration between the public and private sectors, in the form of active partnerships”. Through this relationship, the DMO can understand how the public resources will be allocated to host events. It will then also be easier to align its own marketing and networking efforts to that of the governmental tourism department’s event initiatives. Furthermore, it will save a lot of time and money if the DMO knows what the government’s objectives are. In that way they will not waste resources on bidding for or creating events that will not be supported by government. In the end, the destination will be the ultimate benefactor from such cooperation and collective resource mobilisation.
Industry members as the suppliers to events
The hosting of a mega-event brings many opportunities and challenges to the host destination. One of the challenges is the artificial spike in demand that is created for accommodation, transport and hospitality during the actual event (McManus, 1999 in Hede, 2005:188). Brannas and Nordstrom stated that the economic benefits to the host destination’s industry will depend on whether the local producers and product owners are able to meet the extra demand that is directly and indirectly generated by the event. In order to prevent lost business opportunities or the need to make use of outside suppliers, the host area has to be large enough to meet the extra demand, but there also has to be ‘spare capacity’ (2006:292).

On the other hand, too much ‘spare capacity’ can be created by the event organisers who are often given stringent control over industry stock, such as accommodation and transport. They usually take control in an effort to avoid damage to the event brand due to insufficient supply. However, in many cases there is an over-estimation of the demand, and product owners are left with unsold stock over which they have very little or no control. It is therefore suggested that product owners have to maintain a moderate measure of autonomous management of their offerings (Byeon et al., 2009:88).

Destination managers and marketers should assist the local tourism and events industry by planning and developing strategies on marketing and stakeholder networking well in advance (Hede, 2005:188). As stated in Chalip (2000:5): “… the challenge is to make it clear to wholesalers, tour operators, and potential visitors that the country is open for tourist business throughout the (Olympic) year, and to include marketing activities specifically to fill the immediate post-Olympic period.” By managing the destination’s event supply, as previously discussed, it will also be much easier for the DMO to determine its potential success in bidding for certain owned events, as well as its capacity to develop unique destination-owned events.

In section 3.3.3.3 the issue of quality and service delivery through adequate human resource development, will be addressed. This relates to another concern specifically related to mega-events, namely the use of human resources from outside the
destination. Mega-events often require that specialists have to be brought into the area to assist with operations. This can create a feeling of ‘loss of control’ regarding the way that the event is organised and the way that images about the host community is projected (Brown et al., 2010:291). This concern highlights the import task of the DMO to choose events that are compatible with the destination’s resources (including human resources).

The DMO also plays a key role in establishing relationships with local, and sometimes national tourism industry members in order to package the destination offering. It may for example be necessary to approach national product owners, such as the national airline, to act as sponsors for an event. Such sponsorship will generate both domestic and international packages (Getz & Fairley, 2004:134), which will significantly contribute to distribution of the event. Support from the local travel trade is also needed to sponsor events and to incorporate destination imagery into their promotions of their own event-related marketing. In this regard, it may be meaningful for the DMO to have dedicated travel agents who can promote the event and the destination together (Getz & Fairley, 2004:137).

By paying attention to all of these aspects, it is possible for the DMO to increase the attractiveness of the destination as a potential host of events. Such ‘supply management’ is not only done for the sake of being an attractive host destination. More importantly, it has to be done to strengthen the DMO’s ability to support the destination’s industry members. More will be said on the DMO’s role in terms of a destination’s event supply in section 3.3.3.

- **The broader events tourist market**

From a DMO perspective, the event tourist market requires a much broader view than only the people attending the event as part of the audience (as is the main focus from an event perspective). To a DMO, events have the potential to boost the visitor numbers to a destination (Green et al., 2003:214); and there are various groups that constitute these numbers. As indicated in Figure 14 (pg.125), there are four groups that can be regarded as the event tourist market and potential visitors of a host destination.
Firstly, there is the group of tourists that attend the actual event as part of the audience (henceforth referred to as the ‘actual eventers’). These actual eventers will include local residents, local tourists, and international tourists. They are directly linked to the destination, because they can either be attending the event because it is in a specific destination, or they were already in the destination and decided to attend the event. Secondly, it will include the potential visitors that are exposed to the event through various media (Tassiopoulos, 2010a:68) (henceforth referred to as the ‘media eventers’). These media eventers will include local as well as international individuals. Thirdly, the potential future tourists of the destination may also include people who visited the destination during the actual event, but were not attending the event as spectators. They include the event participants and performers, which form the core of the event (henceforth referred to as the ‘event core’); as well as individuals who were there as part of the event organiser team, a sponsor, a supplier or the media (henceforth referred to as the ‘non-eventers’). The last three groups are not directly linked to the destination, because their main focus is on the event itself. They may not have had exposure to the destination if it wasn’t for the event (except for the non-eventers who may be situated in the destination itself). In order to effectively leverage an event (including mega-events) to enhance destination competitiveness, it will be necessary to develop appropriate strategies for each of these groups. This matter will be discussed further in section 3.3.4.5.
The important role of host communities

Local communities play a significant role in mega-events; not only as part of the planning and execution of the event, but also because these events rely heavily on the patronage of the domestic market for their success (Brown et al., 2010:281). Host communities tend to celebrate events by attending and by decorating streets and buildings. All of this assists in raising awareness in the public eye, especially the media. Local community members should also be used in the production of souvenirs, entertainment and other event-related enhancements to increase the multiplier effect benefits for the host region (Sadd, 2009:32; Steyn, 2007:49).

As already indicated, there is an important link between an event’s benefits for the destination brand and the national image. This link can be strengthened by ensuring that image benefits are turned into community benefits and that the entire host destination (not only the private sector) experiences the effects of the positive image (Smith, 2005:220). Local communities have to buy into the event and have positive perceptions of the way in which it is being planned and executed. This can be strengthened if the host residents perceive real time benefits. On the other hand, if residents only perceive excessive public costs and disruptions and inconvenience to their personal lives, public confidence in the event can be undermined (Waitt, 2003:213).

It should also be kept in mind that the event has to fit the self-identity of community members in order to be fully supported (Brown et al., 2010:290). Garcia (2003:9) explains how cultural and arts programming that include “cultural expressions that are truly owned by the locals”, can promote a sense that the event benefits not only “private corporations and public investors, but also the host communities at large.” A well-planned cultural programme, running parallel to the mega-event, can ensure that the event is regarded as an extension of the values, meanings and identities of communities involved (as discussed in Garcia, 2000; Garcia 2003; Garcia & Miah, 2005; and Steyn, 2007). It can also counter the usually “sanitised historical narrative” which is created by city marketers to allow easy packaging and exploitation of the cultural tourism resources of a destination (Chang & Huang, 2005 as discussed in Foley et al., 2009:55).
One of the temporal issues associated with mega-events is displacement (Brannas & Nordstrom, 2006:292). This not only relates to visitors who stay away, but also to residents that plan other trips during this time to get away from the expected crowds, price inflations and crime (Sadd, 2009:32). It is important that destination managers should have concentrated programmes that provide information to residents on event-related issues such as exclusion zones, transportation and operating hours. By being informed, they may be more willing to stay during this time. They could also be persuaded to stay if they see the event as so unique that they can not afford to miss out (Sadd, 2009:32).

From the perspective of destination marketers and managers, the presence of the host community is a very important aspect because they form an important component of the tourists’ event experience (Waitt, 2003:200). They often fulfil the role of event volunteers that have direct contact with the visitors. Sustained support and enthusiasm of the local community can also contribute to a feeling of integrity and safety for visitors. For these reasons it is important to have a well organised volunteer programme and a complimentary public event in place (Smith, 2010:270).

- **Investors attracted by an event**

Events can be used as powerful tools by those authorities that wish to influence public perceptions and behaviour, because they bring people that have influence over long-term investments, into the destination for a personal experience of the place (Smith, 2010:263). Because mega-events often reveal more about the ‘place’ than the ‘destination’, it can be “invaluable from the perspective of inward investment” (UNWTO, 2009:21). Through a dedicated campaign running parallel to the event, the destination needs to portray itself as an attractive place to live, work and to business in (Smith, 2010:275). This type of investment can range from tourism businesses and other commercial activities, to investment into the country’s infrastructure and services that support communities (such as clinics, schools and recreational facilities). As indicated in Figure 12 (pg.117), event sponsors can be regarded as potential investors by the DMO. If these sponsors have a positive event experience and if they are sufficiently exposed to various aspects of the destination, they may return as individual tourists and/or as new investors.
In order for the destination decision-makers and leaders to turn their attention to the events market, it is necessary to have a clear understanding of what exactly is required by an event and what resources are available within the destination. The task of identifying the activities and resources involved in a mega-event, are also suggested as first steps in event development and proposed as a prerequisite to stakeholder identification (Jörgen, 2009:230). It was therefore decided to make a change to the order of the CSF’s presented in Chapter 2, and subsequently to discuss resource management before stakeholder identification.

3.3.3 Managing the resources of the host destination

Mega-events offer a once-off opportunity to destinations to present themselves as desirable travel options in the global market. This limited opportunity (Brown et al., 2010:297) places great strain on destination stakeholders to acquire adequate resources and to manage them throughout the visitor experience (Getz et al., 2007:103; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:208). It also forces destination managers to have a proper destination information and research system in place (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:209) that can support event-related decisions. At this point, the discussion will turn to the possible main aspects of a destination’s resources that should be considered for a mega-event.

3.3.3.1 The importance of a comprehensive resource base analysis

As already stated, the artificial increase in demand as a result of the event, places pressure on the tourism industry. This heightened demand also has an effect on the destination’s resources including human, physical, knowledge, capital, infrastructure and tourism superstructure, and historical and cultural resources (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:20-21). The development of new facilities such as hotel rooms and stadia not only presents
one of the largest cost centres of an event, but there is a “great risk of oversupply with limited use after the event” (Sadd, 2009:32). As a measure to counter the oversupply of facilities that could create criticism and reduce industry support for the event, it is necessary to conduct a thorough analysis of the resources that are available in the destination. A resource base analysis is also important to accurately determine the destination’s carrying capacity. Without the information provided by a comprehensive resource base analysis, none of the other resource-related tasks (which will be discussed) can effectively be performed.

In the case of mega-events, it may be especially important to determine the availability of infrastructure and tourism superstructure. By knowing what exactly is available in the destination, it may be possible to identify existing facilities that can be used, instead of only investing in new ones (Sadd, 2009:32). Infrastructure can be divided into general infrastructure (which forms part of the destination’s supporting factors), and tourism superstructure (which forms part of the destination’s core resources) (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003). General infrastructure will include transportation, safety, electricity, telecommunication, sanitation, mail services, retail and shopping, medical services, financial systems, administrative services and other personal services. The challenge posed in the case of mega-events, is to offer these services and structures to the large numbers of visitors, while also making it available to the host community. Unlike general infrastructure, tourism superstructure primarily serves the interests of tourism and/or hospitality visitors. Table 13 (pg.130) provides a framework of tourism superstructure. The tourism superstructures often provide the facilities in which an event (including a mega-event) will take place. If done effectively, many of these structures can become attractions in themselves, such as the stadiums of a mega sporting event (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:126).
Table 13: Tourism superstructure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional elements</th>
<th>Enhanced built elements</th>
<th>Enhanced natural/normal elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Hotels</td>
<td>- Museums</td>
<td>- Churches, cathedrals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Other accommodation facilities</td>
<td>- Zoos</td>
<td>- Natural wonders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Restaurants/dining</td>
<td>- Unique office buildings/towers</td>
<td>- Historic landmarks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Visitor centres</td>
<td>- Olympic legacy sites</td>
<td>- Unique industrial sites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Airports</td>
<td>- Sports stadiums</td>
<td>- Unique architecture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Car rental locations</td>
<td>- Homes of famous people</td>
<td>- Evolving natural conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Theme parks</td>
<td>- Space centres</td>
<td>- Universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Convention centres</td>
<td>- Unique/well-known commercial residential districts</td>
<td>- Disaster areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Unique sites and interpretation centres</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ritchie & Crouch (2003:126)

Apart from the infrastructure and tourism superstructure, the destination is required to have an “unusual set of skills and organisational abilities” (Clark, 2008a:47). This will include large-scale long-term project management; marketing, branding, advocacy and public affairs; public-private partnerships; project financing; and infrastructure financing. Mega-events thus place new and high demands on a destination’s resources, including a myriad of skills that have to be present throughout the destination.

3.3.3.2 Utilising resources to promote destination attractiveness

In order to understand how an event can add to the attractiveness of the destination and its resources, it is helpful to return to the classification of events as a core attractor (as discussed in Chapter 2, section 2.5.5). Getz (1997, discussed in Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:120) argues that ‘specialness’ is an essential quality of any event as a core attractor to become a competitive advantage for the destination. He identified certain factors that contribute significantly to the specialness, and therefore the competitiveness of an event (as indicated in Figure 15, pg.131).
Figure 15: Characteristics of event specialness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VALUE AS ATTRACTOR</th>
<th>CHARACTERISTICS</th>
<th>INTANGIBLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiplicity of goals</td>
<td>Uniqueness</td>
<td>Festive spirit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction of basic needs</td>
<td>Tangibility</td>
<td>Hospitality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Convenience</td>
<td>Tradition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>Affordability</td>
<td>Authenticity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from Getz (1997, in Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:120)

It can be argued that the group of factors in Column A relate to the overall value of events as an attractor. An event will be a valuable attractor if it can be used to fulfil different goals of different stakeholders; if it serves to satisfy visitors’ basic needs; if it has to overall mark of quality; and if it is flexible enough to adapt to changing markets and destination needs. The factors Column B relate to overall characteristics that need to be built into an event. It has to become a must-see for visitors; it has to be made tangible through a central theme; it should encourage spontaneous visitor travel opportunities; and it should offer value for money. The last group of factors (Column C) relate to the intangible aspects of the visitor experience. Visitors should be enthralled in a festive spirit and genuine hospitality; which can be increased by giving consideration to authenticity of all the event products and experiences through purposeful inclusion of tradition and symbolism. In order to attain these elements of specialness, a vast scope of destination resources are required.

Destination managers have to consider how the different resource categories (human, physical, knowledge, capital, infrastructure and tourism superstructure, and historical and cultural resources) can be employed to contribute to the respective factors of event specialness. This match between destination resources and event specialness can become more complex in the case of mega-events, where various restrictions are imposed by the event owners and organisers (Brown et al, 2010:297). Most mega-events are unique because of their international importance and magnitude. The challenge to destination managers is to work around the event constraints to add elements of local uniqueness and festive spirit that will distinguish the destination from other (previous or future) host destinations.
3.3.3.3 Addressing the issues of quality and service delivery

The characteristics of overall quality, hospitality, satisfaction of basic needs, convenience and uniqueness, are all factors of event specialness that can be addressed through ensuring the use of quality resources and excellent service delivery. In some instances this will be out of the DMO’s control; while in other instances it can be ensured through creative thinking and strategic alignment with relevant stakeholders.

A very important component of the destination resources for a mega-event is infrastructure. It is the function of government and the public sector to ensure the quality of the infrastructure needed by the tourism industry. The quality of these offerings will also depend on the attitude of the locals who have to act as the custodians, as well as on the destination’s policy makers, planners and managers to anticipate the infrastructure needs of the event (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:132). Where the host community will be used to the quality of the services, as they use them on a daily basis, the visitors are more likely to focus on issues such as “reliability, efficiency, safety, cleanliness, design, ease of use, availability, cultural and language sensitivities, way-finding, integrity, etc.” (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:133).

It may be stated that general infrastructure is not within the control of the DMO. The challenge posed to the DMO will then be to act as liaison to advocate the needs of the tourism industry, and to appropriately inform event attendees of the facilities that are available within the destination. In terms of tourism superstructure though, the DMO could have an immediate opportunity to enhance the quality of the destination offerings for the longer term. Preparation for a mega-event may encourage destination managers to give attention to some of the natural or normal elements that could be of interest to the event attendees (as indicated in Table 13, pg.130). The task of the DMO could be to identify appropriate opportunities and to exploit them through appropriate packaging (more on this in section 3.3.4.4). In this way, a mega-event can enhance the overall quality of infrastructure in the destination, and thereby leave a legacy of increased comparative advantage for the destination.
Another very important resource which links to quality within the host destination, is that of human resources. The quality of human resources in a destination greatly affects the destination’s competitiveness, because it determines the kind of experiences that the visitors will have. In the end, the tourism product is delivered through the actions of the individuals that are employed in the industry (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:137). As Jörgen (2009:231) states, the destination resources will be of no use without the human skills required to operate them. Celuch and Davidson (2009:241) indicate human resources as a CSF in the events industry. The offering of true hospitality, which has been indicated as a key factor in developing the ‘specialness’ of an event, mainly falls within the hands of the people that make direct contact with the visitors. Apart from the contact with (hospitalable) residents, an event such as a mega-event will require a diverse set of knowledge and skills to be present in the destination in order to deliver this hospitality.

One of the challenges of human resource management for mega-events, is the fact that these events rely greatly on a temporary workforce and volunteers (Swart, 2010:366). This combination of volunteer staff and subcontractors with the permanent professional staff, require significant collaboration from various stakeholder groups. It will require the establishment of an appropriate and effective event structure to govern the event (Swart, 2010:372). Singh and Hu (2008:931) explain how the DMO and event organiser (LOC) can be considered as knowledge-based organisations, and that the ‘tacit knowledge’ that they gain during an event, should be considered as major knowledge-intensive resources. Bob, Swart and Cornelissen (2008:52) also states that transfer of knowledge should be regarded as a key legacy of a mega-event. It will thus be important to ‘capture’ this knowledge in some form, and that the event structure of a DMO should make provision therefore.

It is important to remember that the visitor’s satisfaction will not only depend on technical aspects of service delivery, but will rather be determined by the broader ‘service experience’ (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:206). This topic has received attention by several researchers (for example Poon, 2003), and it can be expected that service training is an essential component of hospitality and tourism training. Within the current study, it will not be discussed in further detail. However, it proves to be a critical performance area within the broader CSF of resource management. It is therefore essential for destination
managers and marketers to initiate service excellence training campaigns throughout the
destination in preparation for a mega-event. It may be stated that it will be especially
important for non-tourism entities such as public sector services and supporting services
that form part of the general infrastructure of the destination. This statement in turn
reinforces the need for stakeholder involvement and networking to get all of the ‘actors’
ready to perform during the actual staging of the event.

3.3.3.4 Resource mobilisation through supply chain management

It is stated that the quality and service experience mentioned above, will vary across the
tourism industry as the nature and purpose of the respective service providers differ
(Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:208). The supply of tourism products and services can be viewed
as a value chain that includes the right enabling environment; the airlines, travel trade,
accommodation, complimentary offers and direct sales; up until the evaluation of the
actual visitor experience (Rodríguez-Díaz & Espino-Rodríguez, 2008:370). Each resource
has to be combined with several other elements in order to be productive (Jörgen,
2009:231). It will also depend greatly upon the ‘human element’ which has been described
previously.

The role of the DMO in this regard will be “... to ensure, as far as possible, that all the
‘experience links’ within [the] destination are all satisfactory and mutually reinforcing.” The
difficulty faced however, is that the visitor’s total travel experience includes elements that
are outside of the DMO’s control (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:208). It may be stated that the
DMO should play an even stronger leadership role in the value chain management for a
mega-event, because of the limited window of opportunity available to leave the visitors
with a favourable impression of the destination. Initiatives taken to encourage stakeholder
cooperation (such as training and workshops or a central booking system), could have
stronger support due to the prominence and benefits associated with the event.
Furthermore, the vast financial resources associated with mega-events, also present
opportunities to acquire or mobilise the necessary resources (Jörgen, 2009:232). Value
chain management will require the DMO to be aware of all the resources available in the
destination, and building relationships with the relevant governing bodies to ensure the
quality of these individual groups of resources. Very importantly, the DMO also has to build
strong relationships with the travel trade such as inbound tour operators and trade associations, as they are often the starting points of the value chain, or have control over the packaging of different destination experiences (Rodríguez-Díaz & Espino-Rodríguez, 2008:370).

It is clear that an array of resources is required by a mega-event and it can be expected that ownership of these resources will lay with a diverse set of stakeholder groups. It will be of no use to destination managers to know what resources are needed, if these resources can not be accessed and effectively employed. After identifying the key event stakeholders and determining their links to the various destination stakeholders and resources, it becomes apparent that a DMO is presented with a mammoth task to ensure effective event leveraging. The next CSF presents one of the DMO’s top priorities when dealing with events, namely the crucial task of integrating an event (or events) into the umbrella brand and marketing strategy of the destination.

3.3.4 Ensuring an event marketing strategy that is aligned to the overall destination marketing strategy

Enhancing the destination brand and image
Opportunities and challenges related to ICT
Pricing that supports the value-proposition
Product bundling during a mega-event
Understand the broader events tourist market

An important aspect of mega-events that directly link to destination competitiveness and which has been highlighted by several authors (as can be seen in Table 11, pg.93 ), is the manner in which these events present positive benefits for, and can be harnessed as tools within the destination’s marketing strategy. In fact, it has been proposed that long-term event leveraging is mostly a function of developing images that contribute to place branding and market positioning (Chalip, 2004 in Smith, 2009:4). Where destination marketing is one of the most researched and published topics of all tourism business studies (Li & Petrick, 2008:235), marketing is also the most researched topic (along with
impact studies) within event tourism (Getz, 2008:409). Specific individual event tourism marketing tactics, as tools for competitive advantage, have been studied and include: image-enhancement potential of events; induced demand for the destination; co-branding of events and destinations; and the leveraging of events for additional benefits (Getz, 2008:417).

It has to be remembered that marketing communication and a good destination brand is not enough to manipulate fundamental perceptions about a country (Anholt in UNWTO, 2009b:xi). It is more appropriate for the country to optimally use the existing and potential resources within its communities and to appropriately communicate the ‘truth’ (Smith, 2010:264). This may add to greater trust in the destination and contribute meaningfully to change undesired ‘fundamental perceptions’. These statements enforce the fact that a powerful event marketing campaign alone is not enough to promote destination competitiveness. All the CSFs have to be taken into consideration for a mega-event, in order to empower marketers and managers with truthful positive stories to tell. There has to be a balance between what is being communicated and what is actually happening. As Ritchie (in Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:123) indicated, inadequate facilities or improper practice can lead to the marketing legacy ending up to be a poor reputation. Even more so if the ‘fundamental perceptions’ have been negative.

Still it remains viable and actually emphasises the need to employ appropriate event-related marketing strategies to optimise this CSF’s contribution to overall competitiveness. The following broad guidelines for events marketing were taken from Carmouche, Shukla and Anthonisz (2010:252 – 271). Most of these guidelines will be elaborated on in subsequent discussions.

- Events marketing plans have to cover all aspects of the event, from pre-event research through to measuring the effectiveness of the marketing tools and communication channels that have been employed.
- It is important to determine all the broad event audiences that will have to be addressed.
- Event marketers have to consider the timing of the event, in order to determine its influence on other activities aimed at the same target market; thus enforcing the importance of a balanced events portfolio (as discussed in section 3.3.1.2).
- Different stages of the event will require different types of marketing activities; and should be planned for at the hand of a marketing schedule (2010:257).
- The DMO has to be creative to find ways within the event regulations to promote the destination brand and tourism product offering.
- All the traditional aspects of marketing (the 7 Ps) have to be considered. However, any event’s success will largely depend on promotion (2010:261). Event merchandising (including an event logo and mascot, along with the necessary licensing and copyright) is an important part of promotion (2010:267).

As with the other CSF categories, this category will also be discussed according to the key performance areas that were identified in the destination competitiveness literature. Because such a vast amount of literature was found to be available on events and marketing, only recent and prominent articles will be discussed.

As a summary to sections 3.3.4.1 (destination branding) and 3.3.4.2 (use of ICTs), Figure 16 is presented to give an overall perspective of the most prominent issues that form part of these two topics.

Figure 16: Destination communication channels for a mega-event

Source: Researcher’s own construction
Figure 16 presents destination branding through an event as a co-branding exercise (as has been indicated in the literature). It indicates how the destination’s marketing strategy (consisting of traditional and e-marketing campaigns) should be used as foundation from which to develop a marketing campaign specifically for an event. Where the media is usually part of a destination marketing campaign through publicity, it should be given special attention by the DMO in the case of a mega-event. A DMO’s event marketing campaign should be strategically linked to the marketing efforts of the LOC and sponsors, which in turn is determined by the event owner’s desire to strengthen the event brand. Event marketing campaigns of these parties may also include the more traditional forms, as well as modern e-marketing efforts. The following discussions will indicate the literature references on which this illustration has been built.

3.3.4.1 Reinforcing and enhancing the destination brand and image

As discussed in section 2.5.2, the destination brand can be regarded as part of the ‘competitive identify’ of the destination. Because events have enormous potential to anchor or change a destination’s image, they are used by numerous destinations to reinforce their brand and thereby improve their competitive identity (UNWTO, 2009:20). This is even more applicable to mega-events, with their large numbers of visitors and media coverage. It has been stated that, from a branding perspective, it could be more appropriate to label them as ‘spotlight’ events, because of the tremendous opportunities that they present to destination brand managers (Smith, 2010:262). It can be stated that this potential will only materialise if the DMO has an effective co-branding and media strategy in place.

- **Effective co-branding strategy for the event**

Events have been recognised for their ability to assists in building brand equity, increasing brand awareness and enhancing and/or changing a brand image. Extensive research on marketing and event promotion has led to the conclusion that events can only be used to promote the destination brand if it is regarded as a co-operative branding activity (co-branding) (Brown *et al.*, 2010:283; Chalip *et al.*, 2003:228; Smith, 2009:4). Most events are brands in their own right and therefore co-branding is needed to align the event brand and destination brand in such a way as to produce mutual
benefits (Smith, 2010:4). For co-branding to be effective, there has to be “some spillover from the event’s image onto the destination’s image” and consumers have to be able to match “the image of the event to that of the destination” (Brown et al., 2010:284; Chalip & Costa, 2005). It is necessary to understand that brands of most mega-events are not intrinsically linked to the host destination, because these events usually rotate between hosts (Chalip & Costa, 2005:237). In this regard, it is important for destinations to choose events that have a similar ‘association set’ to the association set of the destination’s brand (Brown et al., 2010:284; Chalip, 2005:168; Chalip et al. 2003:228). This is also true for other partners such as event sponsors; where all the brand partners for an event should have “mutually compatible elements”. This combination of different brand values will influence the markets that can be targeted and that are most likely to respond favourably to this mix of brand values (Brown et al., 2010:297). This statement links the choice of events with the need to clarify the target segments for the event; which in turn will have a great influence on the event experience (as discussed in section 3.3.2.4). Another aspect of destination branding through events, is the crucial role that the media plays to establish a link between the event and the destination. However, as will be seen from the following discussions, destination brand promotion will only result from specific efforts to leverage publicity and exposure and not by regarding media coverage as a given (Smith, 2009:7).

- **Publicity and exposure through extensive media presence**

Ritchie (in Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:123) indicated increased awareness of the destination as the primary marketing legacy, and stated that mega-events can raise a destination from obscurity to international prominence (2003:119). Such events place destinations under the scrutiny of the media and can either lead to great publicity success or dismal failure (Smith, 2010:264). They create induced demand both pre-and post-event, as well as a longer term ‘halo effect’ due to the exposure (Getz & Fairley, 2004:128). When it comes to media exposure, it seems that consideration has to be given to what is being communicated, when it is being communicated, and how it is being communicated.

It has to be remembered that different media strategies may be employed by the event organiser and the DMO respectively. In the case of a mega-event for example, the
LOC will aim to re-establish and showcase the event brand, while the DMO will aim to draw attention to the wider destination features in order to stimulate investment interests (Miah & Garcia, 2006:5). In similar vein, Chalip (2005:167) states that the coverage of the host destination is not built from a targeted message that is controlled by the DMO. Event marketers “promote attributes and benefits that they expect will bring people to the event; even if those attributes and benefits are not compatible with the destination’s desired brand”. It would probably be most desirable if the DMO could have an input into the choice of media, but this is not always the case, especially when different sponsors and broadcast right holders are involved. A DMO therefore has to distinguish between, and develop different strategies for the accredited and non-accredited media respectively.

In order to fully capitalise on the media exposure gained through an event, there has to be a clear branding strategy that can define how the destination’s brand will be promoted through the variety of media, and be given optimal exposure within the restricted timeframe and regulations of the event (Brown et al., 2010:297). Furthermore, the different forms of media that the DMO has control over, should be evaluated and should be chosen according to their ability to affect different dimensions of the destination’s image (Chalip et al., 2003:214).

An effective media strategy will include activities before, during and after the event. Media publicity is not only restricted to the time of the actual event, but holds many opportunities for destinations before and afterwards. Brown et al. (2010:287) state that events should be used beyond the time in which they actually take place. Their role in branding doesn’t have to be limited to the media and visitor experiences obtained during the actual event, but event visuals and mentions can be utilised in all marketing communications before and after the event to promote the brand image. By using event branding alongside other comparable aspects of the destination, the overall impact on the brand could be enhanced (Brown et al., 2010:288).

Just as much as the media can enhance a destination’s image, they tend to highlight the destination’s issues (Smith, 1993 in Smith, 2010:264). It should also not be considered as a given that a host destination will be afforded the desired or extensive
coverage. In a study done by Chalip et al. (2003: 229), it was found that event media could actually “depress a vital dimension of viewers’ images of the destination.” Images of the host destination will often be deleted in the case of a delayed broadcast, to give greater time to paid advertising (Getz & Fairley, 2004:130). In this regard, it is suggested that host destinations should negotiate for a minimum level of coverage or contractually agree to the visual, commentary and angles that are to be used. Smith (2009:18) states that such control over event media coverage will be very difficult if there is not an official agreement in place.

One way of gaining greater control, is by providing adequate facilities and information for non-accredited media. The accredited media is usually hosted in the Main Press Centre and the International Broadcasting Centre, which exclusively houses the official media right-holders of the event. Their main focus is to provide information and report on the event itself (the competition, proceedings and official ceremonies). On the other hand, non-accredited media centres (NAMCs) are open to any media representatives (Miah & Garcia, 2006:1), including smaller and specialist magazines and community radio stations. These representatives (which can be either local or international) focus more on the destination and its people (Brown et al., 2010:296). They are more interested in human-interest stories, activities of local groups, as well as other programmes that run parallel to the main event (Miah & Garcia, 2006:1). The concept of NAMCs was first introduced in the Barcelona 1992 Olympic Games, but was first substantially provided since the 2000 Sydney Olympics (Miah & Garcia, 2006:2). It is thus no longer a unique thing for a destination to do. What the DMO has to focus on, is to work in partnership with the LOC to:

- provide opportunities to explore the destination (for example guided tours);
- deliver interesting “city-life” stories from within the destination on a daily basis;
- create a comfortable environment within the NAMC;
- offer unique local products of high quality (such as cuisine and entertainment);
- provide a platform for local interest groups (such as tourism companies); and
- provide information related to the event (for example press conferences, locations for interviews) (taken from Miah & Garcia, 2006:4).
It becomes clear that, throughout the media campaign, the destination should effectively manage those aspects over which it has control. It is also important to know what exactly it is that needs to be portrayed to the outside world. The choice of material and nature of media negotiations should ultimately be directed toward enhancing the destination brand. Another aspect of the media campaign is to develop a strategy around the media members as visitors themselves. Section 3.3.4.5 will expand on this statement by discussing the media as one of the event tourist markets of the DMO. Aspects regarding publicity and journalism in the new era of online technology will be discussed in the next section.

3.3.4.2 *Opportunities and challenges related to Information and Communication Technology (ICT)*

Closely linked to the topic of publicity and media exposure, is the need to effectively employ the rapidly expanding range of ICT. In the case of events, this can apply to three dimensions, namely (i) distribution channels for the event, (ii) communication channels to promote the destination, and (iii) technology as part of the event. As a vast amount of information is available on the topic of ICT, these three dimensions will briefly be discussed within the scope of this study.

- **Distribution channels of mega-events**

One of the key factors impacting on distribution practices of events, is the rapidly emerging communication tools presented in cyberspace and other global media (Nauright, 2004:1332). Not only have spectating practices of events been relocated from live viewing at the event venues to televised and online consumption, but in especially sporting events, events are being owned by media companies in order to capture global communication markets (as mentioned in the previous section and discussed in Nauright, 2004:1333). A very important aspect of mega-events is that of ticket sales. Purchasing of tickets has to effectively happen on a global scale and the process should be able to combat the illegal selling of tickets at exorbitant prices. Measures also have to be put in place to promote ease of entry for “all nationals across international borders” (Sadd, 2009:32). In the case of mega-evens, ticket sales are dealt with by the LOC, thereby taking distribution out of the DMO’s control. Ticketing is
mostly done through ticketing agents (via technology such as landline or mobile phones or the internet), or face-to-face at a box office or retail outlet (Carmouche et al., 2010:259). Even though ticketing of mega-events is mostly out of the DMO’s control, the DMO can still provide an important service through information provision to visitors, access or links through the DMO website, or by displaying destination branding material at relevant points where ticketing is done.

One aspect where the DMO could however have an input into distribution, is through so-called ‘fan parks’. The FIFA Soccer World Cup™ has managed to make their event more accessible to visiting, as well as local spectators, through the creation of Fan Parks. What began in Korea and Japan in 2002, as public viewing plazas known as ‘World Cup Plazas’, transformed into massive official public viewing areas during the 2006 World Cup in Germany (Steyn, 2007:56). It is these fan parks that have allowed South Africa, for example, to take one step further in their marketing efforts for the 2010 World Cup. South African Tourism (South Africa’s national tourism organisation) has managed to negotiate, with FIFA’s assistance, for the establishment of international fan fests in major international cities including London, Paris and Berlin. Through these fan parks, they have been enabled to distribute the physical South African World Cup experience outside of the country’s borders (Pillay, 2010).

• Communication channels to promote the destination

The topic of destination marketing through the various communication channels arising from new electronic platforms, has been explored by several researchers22. It also relates directly to the issue of publicity and media exposure discussed in section 3.3.4.1. When focusing specifically on mega-events, the following statement by Miah and Garcia (2006:2) provides an apt introduction: “Indeed, the development of new media and a range of ‘Web 2.0’ platforms raises new questions about how the notion of control [over events media] should be approached in the era of Internet journalism where, potentially, every spectator might be counted as a journalist of the Games.”

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According to Manzenreiter and Horne (2002:218), a great step in online broadcasting and e-marketing of mega-events took place when FIFA signed an official sponsorship contract with Yahoo for the 2002 Korea/Japan World Cup. During the 2006 Torino Winter Games, yet another dimension was added to e-marketing when “low-budget journalistic operations” started operating effectively through the Internet, following the online launch of platforms such as You Tube at the end of 2005 (Miah & Garcia, 2006:5). Publishing through new media is characterised as ‘citizen journalism’ and require an entirely different approach to media management at mega-events. Miah and Garcia (2006:6) state that event owners’ desire to manage media narratives of their owned events, could lead to much stricter contractual stipulation between an LOC and a host destination.

Apart from the new forms of journalism, modern ICT has created a virtual world known as the ‘blogosphere’, where visitors instantly have access to various global platforms on which they can share their experiences and perceptions of an event and the host destination. This phenomenon gives way to a loss of control by the DMO regarding communication messages, as the new marketing era is being driven by user generated content (Constantinides & Fountain, 2008:233; Schmallegger & Carson, 2008:100). The challenge posed to the DMO will be to effectively employ the vast range of electronic platforms and to encourage events visitors to use these platforms to promote the destination internationally.

It is not only during the event that these platforms can be used as tools to showcase the destination’s hosting abilities to the world. As Brown et al. (2010:287) stated, destination brand promotion should not be limited to the media and visitor experiences obtained during the actual event, but event visuals and mentions can be utilised in all marketing communications before and after the event to promote the brand image. Furthermore, it is not only members of the media and public (event visitor) that will determine what is being communicated about the destination. The DMO itself has to effectively develop an event e-marketing strategy in conjunction with its ‘normal’ strategy, and also complimentary to its traditional marketing methods (above and below the line).
Comprehensive discussion of a DMO’s marketing strategy falls outside the scope of the current study. It could however be useful to briefly mention some of the latest ICT tools in destination marketing. Figure 17 presents a summary of the key ICT tools that can be used by a DMO, and that should also be incorporated into its event marketing strategy.

Figure 17: Combining old and new ICT for destination and events marketing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘Older’ Web technology</th>
<th>New Web technology</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Websites that offer promotional features such as:</td>
<td>Web 2.0 technology features on websites (and accessed through mobile phones):</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banner ads</td>
<td>- Blogs (online journals); combined with <strong>podcasts</strong> and <strong>vodcasts</strong> (digital audio/video)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic newsletter</td>
<td>- Social networks (WAYN, Twitter©, Facebook™, Yahoo© and MySpace™)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperlinks</td>
<td>- Content communities (video and photo sharing, social bookmarks and wikis)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Email</td>
<td>- Forums and bulleting boards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visitor feedback</td>
<td>- Content aggregators (RSS feeds)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Web management through:</td>
<td>Web management through:</td>
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<tr>
<td>page views</td>
<td>- search engine optimisation</td>
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<tr>
<td>content management</td>
<td>- tagging (folksonomy)</td>
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<tr>
<td>domain name speculation</td>
<td>- pay per click</td>
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<tr>
<td>taxonomy</td>
<td>- syndication</td>
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• **Technology as part of the event**
  The last category relates to technology that is used as part of the actual mega-event. This will include a wide range of computing and other technology which is employed for various aspects. It will range from timing and scoring systems used during sporting competitions (Veglis & Filippopoulous, 2002:2); registration, exhibition and speaker management systems (Thomas, 2010:322); to screen and projection technology used in stadiums (Galvin, 2004:7). The use and management of such technology will be the task of specific event venues, specialist event suppliers and the event organiser. However, utilisation of the latest technology will enhance the visitor experience and will ultimately influence the visitors’ perceptions of the host destination. It will therefore be
desirable if the DMO is aware of technologies that will be used, in order to determine how it can be used to enhance the destination brand and image (for example, mentioning it in marketing communication).

The next three sections include discussions on pricing, product bundling and the broader events tourist market of a DMO. They have not been included in Figure 16 (pg.136), but also form an integral part of the destination's event marketing strategy.

### 3.3.4.3 Pricing that enhances the destination’s value-proposition

The issue of pricing directly links to the destination image and if not handled correctly, can damage the ‘value for money’ proposition of a destination. Apart from the issue of tickets being sold on the black market at exorbitant prices, there are many other aspects of pricing within the destination. Price hiking is a well-known practice in the tourism industry during peak seasons. It is however necessary to consider what will be regarded as a ‘realistic’ increase, especially when the aspect of foreign currency and high yield visitors comes into play. It is also crucial to consider the effect of increased prices on the ability of the host population to support the event (Sadd, 2009:32). Pricing is a difficult aspect to regulate, as the power of pricing is mostly in the hands of the industry and product owners. Their professional attitude and willingness to employ responsible practices will be greatly increased if they have been properly involved in decision-making surrounding the event and understand the destination brand and image process. The role of the DMO or RTO will be to lobby with industry members. It is also important to understand the financial objectives of the event organiser (such as the LOC); which may either be to make money or to suffer a loss in order to gain a greater asset, such as membership development or community goodwill (Shukla & Nuntsu, 2005 in Carmouche et al., 2010:258).

### 3.3.4.4 The importance of product bundling during a mega-event

Events, including mega-events, are often restricted to certain hosting cities or towns. In order to justify the spending of public funds however, governments have to account for the way in which events offer wider developmental benefits. DMOs also have to increasingly promote wider regions (Whitford, 2009), and this mandate may be challenged by the location of an event. Mega-events involve extensive development in certain cities (for
example the Summer and Winter Olympics, international conferences and the World Summit on Sustainable Development), or at best in a few cities throughout a country (such as the various sporting World Cups). Where broader government efforts may primarily be focused on providing the required infrastructure and facilities within these hosting destinations, it is the responsibility of the DMO to foster wider tourism product packaging throughout the destination. As stated by Chalip and McGuiry (2004:268), the challenge in (sport) event tourism “is to incorporate events more strategically into the host destination’s overall mix of tourism products and services”. Such packaging of destination products can be referred to as ‘bundling’; an activity that incorporates value-added tourism activities and experiences into the event offering (Steyn, 2007:62).

Bundling of other destination offerings as an extension to the event, will diversify the event experience of visitors and may contribute to greater propensity to return to the destination in future. It may also encourage visitors to stay longer by, for example, packaging other destination products as part of pre- and post-event celebrations (Sadd, 2009:32). As stated by Chalip & McGuiry (2004:269), “just as attractions can bring visitors to the destination, the destination can provide attractions that bring visitors to an event and that persuade event visitors to stay beyond the period of the event. In fact, there is evidence that event attendees can be attracted to non-event tourism opportunities available at the host destination.” Bundling can also move tourism benefits outside of the host cities. In a study done by Smith (2009:17), it was found that a mega-event can be beneficial to peripheral areas outside of the main stadia. This can be done by linking the main event to a network of other local events. Hallmark events are also often linked to larger cultural and thematic festivals and/or events to enhance destination marketing efforts at a given time (Ahmed, Moodley & Sookrajh, 2008:74). Furthermore, bundling may be effective as a strategic tool to facilitate greater stakeholder cooperation and networking (Chalip & McGuiry, 2004:267). It may create an opportunity for cross-marketing, not only within the tourism industry, but also with non-tourism industries. Such cooperation could ultimately increase the tourism yield generated by the event (Weinberger, 2006:43).

Bundling appears to be more appropriate for certain destination product types. These include arts and culture, sightseeing, recreation, and shopping (Chalip & McGuiry, 2004).

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23 Refer to Chalip & McGuiry (2004:269) for a detailed discussion on bundling in tourism.
A prerequisite to successful bundling is that it has to appeal to the interests and values associated with the specific event, and that it has to address the visitors’ specific interests (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004:278). It should “add to the entertainment value of the event, broaden the event’s psychographic appeal, [and] serve accompanying markets” (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004:270). From a DMO perspective, it is imperative to make sure that local tour operators are also utilised for such packaged experiences. This may be a challenge in the case of mega-events, where foreign tour operators are often contracted by the event owner to offer all-inclusive tours (Jones, 2001:246).

3.3.4.5 Understanding the broader events tourist market

There is an increasing need to ‘custom-design’ highly targeted, unique event experiences for the event tourist market (Getz, 2008:421). As indicated in Figure 14 (pg.125), the event tourist market of a DMO will effectively include four groups of eventers, namely the ‘actual eventers’, ‘media eventers’, the ‘event core’ and the ‘non-eventers’. Many of these individuals attend the event regardless of the destination in which it is taking place; even some of the ‘actual eventers’. The task of the DMO will be to contribute to a positive planned event experience for all four groups, in an effort to encourage future visitation. It is important that any efforts to create such experiences should be based on knowledge of the planned event experience (Getz, 2008:421). It may be stated that the ‘media-eventers’ will be attended to through the publicity and media strategy, which was discussed in section 3.3.4.1. Focus should thus be on creating planned event experiences for the remaining three groups.

The impact of the visitor experience should never be underestimated (Brown et al., 2010:297; Goslin et al., 2004:67). Event attendees (from all four groups) will return home with a personal experience of the destination and they will inevitably make a connection between the event and the destination brand, which they will share through word-of-mouth. If the event was successful and satisfactory, the destination may be viewed in the same way. The opposite will however also be true. The resultant values that they associate with the destination, will determine their propensity to return as tourists, as well as the type of messages they will spread about the destination.
It can be stated that the event experiences of the ‘eventers’ will differ greatly from those attending as part of the ‘event core’ or as ‘non-eventers’. Individuals in these groups will be bound by different time and budget constraints. They will also experience very different dimensions of the destination. Where the ‘actual eventers’ will experience the leisure side and wider product offering, the ‘event core’ and ‘non-eventers’ may have a more limited experience around the event venues and facilities. Nonetheless, these groups should also be encouraged through different strategies to experience broader aspects of the destination.

- **The characteristics and experience of the ‘actual eventers’**

  When looking at the ‘actual eventers’, this group will be those individuals that are regarded as the event target market in the traditional sense of the word. It has been stated that special events have become so appealing to the market, because of the fact that they match some of the important changes in the demand for leisure activities. They are short-term, accessible, require a flexible time commitment and offer options across different age groups (Robinson & Noel, 1991 in Brown et al., 2010:281). They also fit demographic and psychographic changes such as increased levels of disposable income; the demand for experiential travel; as well as for authenticity and culture (Brown et al., 2010:281). It has also been stated that individuals who attend events, are ‘high-quality tourists’ whose sense of social responsibility makes them well-suited for sustainable tourism development. It is therefore necessary to consider smaller numbers of these high-yield visitors, as opposed to the large volume, mass market (Brown et al., 2010:281; Sadd, 2009:32).

  Sadd (2009:32) regards tourist facilitation as one of the key priorities to optimise tourism impacts of mega-events. She states that the visitor stay has to be as comfortable as possible. This can be ensured through ease of purchasing tickets, ease of access (visa requirements), provision of information in different languages, and through willing and helpful locals. Another way of increasing access to the event, is through the creation of a complimentary event where the public can view the event if they are not able to enter the event venues or to participate in the actual event. Examples include the ‘Fan Parks’ created by FIFA for the Soccer World Cups (Steyn, 2007:56), as well as the ‘PoliticalFest’ held in Philadelphia in 2000 (Smith, 2010:270).
These parks can make a huge contribution to a positive event experience (Steyn: 2007:56). Goslin et al. (2004:76) found that attendants at a sporting mega-event actually expect to be offered additional experiences and opportunities within the destination. Such additional dimensions include leisure opportunities, climate, social programmes and the quality and prices of products and services. Furthermore, visitors’ event experiences will greatly be influenced by the destination’s perceived ‘professional capacity’ to stage the event. This will include aspects such as the administration of the event, the standard of refereeing (in the case of sporting events), the standard of competition venue, as well as the quality of the opening and closing ceremonies.

It has to be remembered that local residents of the host destination are also part of this market for events, especially for mega-events, where much of the emphasis is placed on international visitors (Sadd, 2009:32). In terms of the domestic event tourist market, there should be a concerted effort to encourage domestic tourists without tickets to participate in the event. This can be done through fan parks (‘virtual stadiums), as well as other pre- and post-match activities (SAT, 2006:13). Another important aspect of the domestic market, as well as the traditional tourist markets of the host destination, is the issue of displacement. This effect refers to event tourists that will be replacing tourists that would normally have visited the host destination. Such displacement may take place during an event, but also before and after the event (SAT, 2006:32).

It becomes clear that close cooperation with the event organiser is essential to deliver on a positive event experience for the ‘actual eventers’. Furthermore, it is essential for the DMO to determine which of these aspects it would be able to contribute to.

**Experiences of the ‘event core’ and ‘non-eventers’**

As stated, these two groups may have a more limited experience around the event venues and facilities. The challenge to the DMO is to develop opportunities for broader destination experiences within these visitors’ restricted timeframes. It can be stated that their experience of the destination will strongly depend on the quality and performance of the various facilities and products that they will be using. This will range from accommodation and transport, to training facilities and special event venues (such as ‘villages’ developed for these groups). The DMO has to use creative ways to reach
them through marketing communication and special service features where possible. Within these groups, it appears that most attention is given to the media members. This is mostly done with the aim of providing them with proper and desired destination images and information that they can use as part of their reporting (as discussed in section 3.3.4.1). However, they should also be viewed as potential future visitors in their personal capacity, and should be introduced to the destination from this viewpoint. An important tool that could effectively add to the visitor experience of these two groups, is product bundling (discussed in section 3.3.4.4). Sightseeing and recreational tours should be developed in such a way that it will address these event attendees’ particular interests. It can also be used to provide a broader destination experience to their accompanying family and/or friends (Chalip & McGuirty, 2004:278). A positive experience of accompanying visitors, may in turn contribute to their overall satisfaction with the host destination.

- **Safety as an issue that applies to all three event visitor groups**

An aspect that is receiving increased attention in the literature, is the issue of visitor safety. This is especially relevant to mega-events, with their high profile attendees and global media exposure, which makes them an ideal opportunity for criminals to operate, but also to send ‘messages’ to the wider world. Perhaps the most prominent incident took place at the 1972 Munich Games, where terrorists seized Israeli hostages to win publicity for demands against the Israeli government (Bob *et al.*, 2008:52). Visitor safety not only relates to terrorism, but also to other forms of crime and personal safety issues (as discussed in Barker *et al.*, 2003; Paraskevas, 2009:280; and Tichaawa, n.d.). The DMO is not responsible to provide the safety and security systems, but should liaise with the relevant public and private agencies such as police and emergency services to ensure adequate provision of these services. The DMO could also include aspects of visitor safety in their marketing communication, in order to inform visitors and thereby enhance the destination image.

From the discussions on the need to align events marketing with the overall marketing strategy of the destination, it becomes clear that this is one of the key linkages between a DMO and an event. It can be regarded as the crucial point where the destination is presented to the public. A plethora of research has been conducted on the topic of event
marketing and the influence of events on the destination brand. The topic can furthermore be complimented and broadened through knowledge that can be found in marketing management or event marketing literature (as supported in Chalip, 2005:172). However, the researcher regards the previous discussion as sufficient to highlight the most prominent performance areas as they could apply to the marketing of events from a DMO perspective. The next section will explore the final CSF that deals with the topical issue of event greening. This section’s discussion will again touch on the role of appropriate destination marketing; thereby indicating that there is an intricate linkage among the respective CSFs.

3.3.5 Concern for and pro-actively addressing environmental issues

The issue of sustainability as part of destination competitiveness was introduced in Chapter 2 (section 2.4.2.5). It was stated that destination competitiveness and sustainability are two inseparable concepts, and that a destination can only be competitive if it has sustainable practices in place. Within this study, these ‘sustainable practices’ will relate to practices that specifically relate to events. In terms of the broader issue of sustainability in events, it has already been explained in section 3.3.1.2 that event monitoring and evaluation has to take a triple-bottom-line approach. This will include social, economic, as well as environmental issues. To formulate and discuss the last CSF, named ‘concern for environmental issues’, the focus will turn to environmental (green) issues in particular. In order to understand how a DMO can address the demand for environmental accountability through events (including mega-events), it is necessary to understand the environmental practices currently being implemented within the events industry. It was also necessary to change the wording of this CSF to include ‘pro-actively addressing’, because it will be of no use if there are concerns without the necessary actions.
In line with the wider tourism industry’s awareness regarding environmental issues, there has been a steadily increasing awareness of the need to minimise and manage the negative environmental impacts associated with events (Bob, 2010:208). Green issues in events have in general however received lower levels of interest from academics (Hede, 2007:18), as well as practitioners (Otto & Heath, 2009:188). To the contrary, Ionnides already stated in 1995 that there was an abundance of literature available on the environmental impacts of an event (Ionnides, 1995 cited in Bob, 2010:209). For purposes of the current study, it was decided to provide a short overview of the major environmental impacts of events.

3.3.5.1 Mega-events present a wide range of environmental impacts

In short, environmental issues of events range from those on a micro-level (such as crowd management), to those on a macro-level (such as communities’ concerns for noise, pollution and overcrowding) (Hede, 2007:18). Research undertaken by the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP, 2003 in Huggins, 2003:12), identified the following environmental impacts of sport events: development of fragile or scarce land types; pollution from liquid spills (fuels, cleaners, solvents etc); noise and light pollution; consumption of non-renewable resources (fuel, metals etc); consumption of natural resources (water, wood, paper, etc); creation of greenhouse gases by consuming electricity and fuel; ozone layer depletion; soil and water pollution from pesticide use; soil erosion and compaction during construction and from spectators; waste sent to landfill, incinerator and sewerage plants (including paper consumed by media and officials, as well as waste generated from signs, food services, banners and temporary booths24. The latest global concerns surrounding climate change, has introduced a new level of environmental accountability, and may require extensive measures to assess an event’s energy footprint (Otto & Heath, 2009).

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24 Refer to Admed et al., (2008:75) for a discussion on other specific impacts of sport tourism events.
3.3.5.2 *Green practices of the events industry*

David Chernushenko is a sustainability advocate who served on the International Olympic Committee’s commission on Sport and the Environment. His book on sustainable management practices, *Greening Our Games: Running Sports Events & Facilities that Won’t Cost the Earth*, is regarded as a seminal text on the topic of sustainability and sporting events (Ahmed *et al.*, 2008:77; Bob, 2010:216; Chernushenko, 2009). Since the time of this publication, several initiatives have been launched in the events industry to ‘green’ event management practices. Event organisers are increasingly aware of the need to do timely planning for environmental impacts, and to consider sustainability issues when designing an event (Bob, 2010:209). In many instances, events offer authorities in various fields an opportunity “to demonstrate best practice models in waste management and to change public attitudes and habits” (Ahmed *et al.*, 2008:76). This is in line with the general increased pressure that is being put on organisations at various levels to manage and improve their environmental performance (Huggins, 2003:8).

Environmental protection, nature conservation and climate protection at large events are usually based on voluntary activities and direct initiatives from participants (Sahler, 2007:12). There is however an increasing number of events (sporting, culture, business and other types) that are being planned and executed in an environmentally compatible way. Some event associations adopt environmental principles in order to influence and guide their members. For example, the Association of Event Organisers has a *sustainability centre* that provides related resources (AEO, n.d.). In other instances the initiative comes from government agencies such as governmental departments. For example, the *Green Champions in Sport and Environment* guide that was published by the German Federal Ministry for the Environment, Nature Conservation and Nuclear Safety in partnership with the German Olympic Sports Confederation (Sahler, 2007); and the *Environmental Guidelines for World Class Events* produced by U.K Sport (Huggins, 2003:8). There are also examples of public agencies that have identified the need to include events as an important focus area; organisations such as UNEP (United Nations Environmental Program). They have developed a *Green Meeting Guide* along with a *Greening Meeting Checklist*, in partnership with ICLEI (Local Governments for
Sustainability). The checklist provides a detailed set of recommendations for the organisers of small and medium-sized events (ICLEI, 2009b; UNEP, 2009).

Significant efforts have been made by the owners of mega-events to reduce and manage the significant environmental impacts of these events. Once again this is not only the case for mega sporting-events. However, similar to other aspects of event studies, the wider literature again showed that the greatest body of knowledge exists within the study of sporting mega-events. Before turning to sporting events, it was decided to give an example of a leading, non-sporting environmentally sensitive mega-event. The Glastonbury Festival which is held annually in the UK, regards itself as one of the world’s leading green events (Glastonbury Festivals, 2009a). The event organiser has gone through extensive measures to uphold this reputation; including extensive waste management, visitor education, ‘green police’ and even using low carbon tractors to mow the lawns (Glastonbury Festivals, 2009a, 2009b and 2009c).

In terms of sporting mega-events, it appears that the Olympic Games is by far the frontrunner in the field of event greening. The International Olympic Committee (IOC) was founded in 1894, and has been working together with UNEP since 1994 to incorporate environmental issues in Olympic Games. It has established a Sport and Environment Commission and has also collaborated with UNEP to develop an Agenda 21 for Sport and the Environment. UNEP subsequently assists the LOCs of the various host countries to implement environmental plans and projects, and to carry out the Olympic Games Impact Programme which forms part of all host destination agreements (Bob, 2010:217; UNEP, 2010). According to the IOC, the environment and sustainability has to be taken into account throughout the lifecycle of an Olympic Games project (from conceptualisation to evaluation - which can span a period of 11 years) in order to make their Green Games concept a reality (IOC, 2009). FIFA addresses the issue of environmental accountability through its Green Goal campaign. In comparison to the longer-standing program of the IOC, the 2006 FIFA World Cup was regarded as the first Football World Cup to have a comprehensive environmental and climate protection concept (Sahler 2007:12).

It becomes clear that the events industry is well aware and has made huge strides in addressing the issue of events greening. It is imperative to understand how these
practices affect a mega-event host destination and how it should react to opportunities and challenges in this regard.

### 3.3.5.3 A DMO perspective on environmental accountability of events

Within the scope of this study, the issue of event greening can have an impact on the image of the destination. If an event is considered to be ‘environmentally friendly’, this image is likely to be transferred to the destination. On the other hand, if the event is perceived to be damaging to the environment, it may not only affect the destination’s image, but can also affect visitor numbers and event sponsorship (Hede, 2007:18). There are different ways in which the DMO can influence the ‘green image’ of the event in order to promote a competitive destination image.

- **Collaborating with supporting stakeholders**
  
  A DMO does not have control over the environmental practices employed throughout the destination or during an event. As is the case with safety and security issues, the DMO should liaise with the relevant government and private sector agencies to ensure adequate provision of these services. The DMO also has to communicate the wider scope of greening efforts taking place within the destination, in order to enhance the desired ‘green’ destination image.

- **Educating the events tourist market**
  
  Another important DMO stakeholder that has to be considered is the events market. The type of individuals that attend an event, as well as their level of awareness of environmental issues, will contribute to the environmental impact of the event (Ahmed et al., 2008:74). This places the important task of environmental education partially into the hands of the DMO.

- **Encouraging green practices among tourism and events industry members**
  
  The DMO should play a leading role in encouraging cooperation from the tourism industry members to employ sustainable practices. This will fit in with the DMO’s duty to promote quality and effective ‘supply chain management’ throughout the destination (discussed in section 3.3.3.3 and 3.3.3.4). One way of doing so may be to support
existing green certification of industry members. It also creates a window of opportunity where the DMO can initiate campaigns to encourage and reward good environmental practices. The DMO also has to take initiative in regulating or guiding event organisers that propose to run an event in the destination. This may be regarded as a crucial task, because the environmental practices of the individual events organisers and suppliers could indirectly influence the ‘green’ image of the destination. The Glastonbury Festival case study presents an example of misalignment in terms of broader green practice application throughout a destination. Despite the impressive efforts made by the event organiser, no apparent application of such extensive greening principles could be found in the marketing communication of the broader tourism destination named Glastonbury. For example, when a potential event organiser wishes to promote an event through the visitor information website (Glastonbury TIC, 2009), none of the qualifying questions in the event profile sheet include any environmental aspects. It is therefore important that the DMO demands sustainable and transparent practices from event owners and organisers that wish to host their events in the destination.

- **Ensuring sustainability of its own marketing practices**

As the destination leader, the DMO should at all times evaluate the environmental impacts of its own marketing campaigns. Marketing of an event will primarily be the task of the event organiser (or the LOC in the case of mega-events). However, the DMO will also undertake certain marketing initiatives related to the event. In this regard, it is important that the DMO will apply ‘sustainable destination marketing and management’ principles (Bob, 2010:269). This will include strategies to reduce the environmental impact of the entire campaign, such as recyclable marketing materials (packaging, brochures etc.); recyclable or low-impact promotional items and gifts; and minimal use of intrusive posters and advertising boards (Bob, 2010:270). It will also require of the DMO to give greater consideration to the nature of events that it aims to include as part of its events portfolio (as discussed in section 3.3.1.2). As Bob (2010:270) states, “spending money on large, lavish events can have a negative impact on brand image”, especially during periods when attendees and communities are negatively affected by economic conditions. Very importantly, the DMO should use

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25 As discussed in Baca (2004) and Buckley (2002).
‘responsible’ content in marketing communications and should monitor the content that is used by the media. This means that the DMO (or the media) should not deliberately make false statements about the destination and the event in order to benefit from presenting a ‘green’ image (Huggins, 2003:11; ICLEI, 2009a).

To conclude on and summarise the CSF on environmental issues, the following tasks (indicated in Figure 18) could stand at the core of a DMO’s environmental accountability when it comes to mega-events.

**Figure 18: A DMO perspective on environmental event practices**

![Diagram](image.png)

Source: Researcher’s own construction

It is evident that consideration for environmental issues is of extreme relevance to ensure that events (including mega-events) are sustainably leveraged within the framework of destination competitiveness. The researcher has identified a dearth in academic work on the topic of event greening from a DMO perspective. This topic could therefore require greater exploration in future studies, in order to understand the impact of this CSF (consideration for environmental issues) on the proposed framework that will be developed at the end of this research process.
Sections 3.2 and 3.3 focused on explaining the concept of events tourism and providing information on relevant topics within this study field, as they relate to the objectives of this study. It also added knowledge from the events perspective to each of the CSFs identified in Chapter 2. Even though the researcher aimed to include a DMO perspective in all the discussions, most of the information presented originates from an events perspective. It is therefore important to take a step back and, with the theoretical base now being established, identify some international best practices employed by DMOs to leverage events within their destinations. It is also necessary to not only consider best practices, but also to deliberate on lessons that can be learnt from less than ideal situations.

3.4 KEY LESSONS FROM PREVIOUS MEGA-EVENTS

As stated in the introduction to this chapter, the greatest part of academic work on the topic of mega-events is found within the study field of event management. These studies take a managerial and operational perspective on mega-events. Event tourism studies, on the other hand, provide a tourism and event host destinations focus. Studies within this field primarily deal with aspects of marketing and event impacts (Getz, 2008:409). In an effort to gain insight into international DMO best practices, the researcher decided to provide only a brief summary of key findings from the vast amount of mega-event literature, as it applies to the five CSFs from a DMO perspective.

The following five tables present key findings on international best practices, as well as lessons to be learnt to leverage events from a DMO perspective. The case studies are presented in reversed chronological order, and case study examples were referred to in such a way that the respective key findings and guidelines would only be mentioned once (they thus could be present in other case studies as well).

26 The sources from which the findings have been taken, are indicated as references for further reading and explanation.
### Table 14: CSF 1: Addressed as a strategic destination priority

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Recognise the hosting of major events as an opportunity to address and change ’outdated’ tourism (and DMO) strategies.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Australia recognises the importance of special events</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Charge the national DMO (through tourism policy) with the responsibility to manage a division focusing on the business and major events sectors.</td>
<td>Stokes (2008); Brown et al., (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- From a national level, encourage and support regional tourism strategies to include special events and to establish dedicated special event divisions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Gain local government support for events by proving their ability to foster tourism growth.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ensure a continuous link between legislative (public sector) authorities for tourism marketing; various related government departments; private sector event development agencies; as well as community links.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sydney Olympic Games 2000</strong></td>
<td>Steyn (2007:74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Select events for the events portfolio that will reflect cultural expressions that are truly owned by the local community of the destination.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>South Africa Rugby World Cup 1995</strong></td>
<td>Steyn (2007:74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Consider how an event can contribute to the destination’s competitive identity by showing a new dimension of itself to the world.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 15: CSF 2: Clarifying the destination stakeholder roles and relationships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Beijing Olympic Games 2008</strong></td>
<td>Steyn (2007:78)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Establish an extensive volunteer programme through collaboration with various public and private entity stakeholders.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>West Indies Cricket World Cup 2007</strong></td>
<td>Steyn (2007:77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Collaborate with private sector stakeholders to provide unique event viewing facilities.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Germany FIFA World Cup 2006</strong></td>
<td>Steyn (2007:77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Establish a strong partnership between the DMO, the event owner and the event organiser in order to coordinate all initiatives.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Athens Olympic Games 2004</strong></td>
<td>Singh and Hu (2008:934)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Establish proper communication and collaboration between the LOC and the DMO.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Addressing negative publicity should be done in time, and should be a collaborative effort between the LOC and the DMO.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Create a mechanism to promote and capture knowledge transfer and tacit knowledge from both the DMO and LOC.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 15: CSF 2: Clarifying the destination stakeholder roles and relationships (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>World Tug-of-War Championships, South Africa 2002</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Work in close cooperation with the event organiser to determine ways in which to enhance the visitor experience.</td>
<td>Goslin et al. (2004:76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sydney Olympic Games 2000</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Institutionalise the linkages between the relevant public and private sector entities, in order to ensure longer-term leveraging.</td>
<td>O’Brien (2006:243)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ensure that inclusion of the local community into the event (through a cultural programme, volunteer programme, as performers etc.) has a large outreach and that it is non-elitist, accessible to all and diverse.</td>
<td>Steyn (2007:74)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Republican Convention, Philadelphia 2000</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Use public-private partnerships to implement ‘streetscape improvement programs’ to upgrade the host destination.</td>
<td>Smith (2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Communicate the benefits of the event (such as public facility upgrading) to all stakeholders.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Recruit volunteers from existing tourism entities (bureaux, attractions, sites), thereby using relevant local knowledge and skills.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Barcelona Olympics 1992</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Facilitate collaboration between local communities and key cultural entities to create a powerful cultural campaign running parallel to the main event.</td>
<td>Steyn (2007:73)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16: CSF 3: Managing the destination resources

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>West Indies Cricket World Cup 2007</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Use community tourism products to enhance the visitor experience; thereby using the event as a platform to develop destination resources throughout the wider region and as part of a long-term strategy.</td>
<td>Steyn (2007:77)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Salt Lake City Winter Olympics 2002</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ensure that the variety of destination resources that will be exposed and included in an event, are unique and represent the distinctive identity of the destination.</td>
<td>Steyn (2007:75)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Wales Rugby World Cup 1999</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Support the local tourism value chain for an event, by utilising local industry members and providing them with exposure platforms (for example, tour operators).</td>
<td>Jones (2001:246)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Barcelona Olympics 1992</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Consider how development within the destination may affect the future profile of the destination and its tourism offering.</td>
<td>Steyn (2007:73)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 17: CSF 4: Aligned with the overall destination marketing strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>South Africa FIFA World Cup 2010</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Have a dedicated campaign to turn normal <strong>citizens</strong> into brand ambassadors.</td>
<td>Steyn (2007:78)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Do product bundling and <strong>packaging</strong> that will appeal to a wide <strong>segment</strong> of event visitors.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Germany FIFA World Cup 2006</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Create a <strong>powerful, dedicated event marketing campaign to promote the destination</strong>; that is supported by all stakeholders.</td>
<td>Du Plessis and Maennig (n.d.:5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Promote accessibility (distribution) of the event through <strong>Fan Parks</strong>.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Use prominent <strong>public figures to support the event</strong> and enhance communication campaigns.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Athens Olympic Games 2004</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Successfully coordinate with local industry associations to <strong>address the issue of inflated pricing</strong>, and address public concerns through appropriate media campaigns.</td>
<td>Singh and Hu (2008:935)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Korea/Japan FIFA World Cup 2002</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Understand the event tourist market and <strong>package destination products appropriately</strong> (for example, long-haul event attendees are more prone to compliment their visit with non-event activities).</td>
<td>Steyn (2007:76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Create a marketing campaign (and sub-campaigns where necessary) that will promote an event as a ‘<strong>festival for all</strong>’ (from local residents, industry and government; to foreign visitors and event audiences).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Sydney Olympics and Brand Australia</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The <strong>brand strategy should oversee all marketing strategies</strong> related to a mega-event, and the relationship between the brand and the event has to be acknowledged and defined.</td>
<td>Brown et al., (2010); Miah and Garcia (2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ensure that <strong>images used in media coverage</strong>, fit with the destination’s branding campaign objectives.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Establish partnerships to <strong>bring together the destination brand, the event brand, as well as the event sponsors’ and partners’ brands</strong>; in order to generate additional exposure.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Partner with international broadcasters and <strong>encourage features and documentaries</strong>; especially during the period of <strong>heightened interest before the event</strong>.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Ensure that images projected by the <strong>media are consistent with the core values of the brand</strong>.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Strategically <strong>direct media interest to various locations</strong> throughout the destination (for example, by providing location guides and story ideas).</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>- The DMO should play an active role in the <strong>design of the main press centres in order to incorporate appropriate images</strong>.</td>
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<tr>
<td>- Provide adequate facilities and a variety of information to the <strong>non-accredited media</strong>. Invest in a dedicated hosting program for this group at a high-tech NAMC.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Use the <strong>knowledge gained during an event</strong>, to inform the strategy of future events.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Use the reference of benefits previously received, to rekindle successful <strong>marketing partnerships for future events</strong> (such as with media or sponsors).</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 17: CSF 4: Aligned with the overall destination marketing strategy (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
<th>Sources</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Brand Philadelphia and the 2000 Republican convention</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Have a dedicated entity to market the destination to the media and to coordinate all communication (avoid competition among different promotion agencies).</td>
<td>Smith (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Establish themes to guide messages and activities that are in line with the ‘story’ that the destination wants to promote – making sure that the media coverage reflects the chosen branding themes.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Use at least one theme to focus on non-tourists. This includes business opportunities within the destination, and presenting the destination as a possibility to live and work.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Host a variety of media tours and events to not only showcase the destination, but also the wider region. Make use of regional tourism boards to manage these tours and events; while remaining under the themes developed by the main organising entity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Use specific campaigns to involve local communities in the event. These include volunteer recruiting and a public festival that runs parallel to the event.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Use the storylines created for the event as basis for other future campaigns.</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Atlanta Olympic Games 1996</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Develop a strong, focused community marketing campaign for the event; not only to get them involved, but also to manage their perceptions of the event.</td>
<td>Steyn (2007:74)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td><strong>South Africa Rugby World Cup 1995</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Understand, consider and address the influence that the media’s primary non-event focus may have on what will be communicated about the destination during the event (for example, a specific political issue).</td>
<td>Steyn (2007:74)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Barcelona Olympics 1992</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Establish a cultural programme that starts before the actual event, to generate additional exposure for the destination.</td>
<td>Steyn (2007:73)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18: CSF 5: Concern for and pro-actively addressing environmental issues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
<th>Sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>London addressing key themes in the London 2012 Sustainability Plan</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Address key themes and trends in any green event efforts (for example, London’s focus on climate change, waste, biodiversity, inclusion and healthy living).</td>
<td>IOC (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Find a link between these themes and other aspects of the destination that can be promoted.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 18: CSF 5: Concern for and pro-actively addressing environmental issues (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vancouver 2010 – ‘Greenest Games ever’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Make use of powerful statements made about the destination, by including it in marketing communication (for example, the IOC stating that Vancouver is the greenest Games ever).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ensure that claims are backed up by facts and solid actions (for example, the Sustainable Sport and Event Toolkit that was created jointly by the AISTS and Vancouver’s Organising Committee (VANOC)).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Encourage public reporting of sustainability aspects; either by assisting an LOC, or by expecting it from event organisers/suppliers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOC (2010a); IOC (2010b); UNEP (2010)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>An Environmental Management System for the Beijing Olympics 2008</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Establish a ‘Green Office’ in collaboration with the event organiser (LOC). Assist the LOC in aspects such as event route and venue planning, selection of partners and suppliers, and event communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNEP (2010)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Germany compensates for negative impacts of the 2006 FIFA World Cup</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Take the lead to create appropriate partnerships with industry members or public agencies/authorities, that can serve as vehicles to compensate for possible negative environmental impacts (for example, greenhouse gases brought about by the World Cup will be compensated for through climate protection projects in developing countries).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sahler (2007:12)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sydney 2000 - ‘The Green Games’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Incorporate environmental considerations into all planning aspects of an event that the DMO contributes to, or that forms part of its own initiatives surrounding the event.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Be pro-active by creatively developing greening initiatives that have not been used before. In this way aim to establish the destination as a leader in event greening.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huggins (2003)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the tables, there are valuable lessons to be learnt from international case studies. Different case studies provided different perspectives, but there were also many points that were repeatedly found in a range of case studies. None of the case studies presented findings that were completely unrelated to the five CSFs as identified in Chapter 2. This may further add to the validity and relevance of these five factors. It may therefore be stated that the CSFs, as they have been modified and elaborated upon in this chapter, can now meaningfully be integrated into an adapted set of apparent CSFs along with the underpinning core competences.
3.5 AN ADAPTED SET OF CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS TO LEVERAGE MEGA EVENTS FOR DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS – COMBINING THE TOURISM AND EVENTS PERSPECTIVES

In order to have a well-developed set of CSFs that can be empirically tested in an individual case study, it was necessary to include perspectives from both tourism studies and events studies. Literature in Chapter 2 provided the basic set of CSF. This set was then discussed and added to from an event perspective in this chapter. The resulting adapted set of CSFs that will now be presented (Table 19) shows the apparent core competences needed to deliver superior performance in terms of each CSF.

Table 19: Apparent CSFs to leverage mega-events for destination competitiveness - combining the tourism and events perspectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ADDRESSING EVENTS AS A STRATEGIC DESTINATION PRIORITY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Visionary leadership that has a long-term focus on event legacy and the destination’s competitive identity and positioning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- An integrated event tourism strategy, which is based on national tourism policy, and aims to build a balanced events portfolio for the destination as a whole.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLARIFYING THE BROADER STAKEHOLDER ROLES AND RELATIONSHIPS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Identify the key event stakeholders and their roles in the delivery of an event (the DMO; event organiser; government and political groups; industry members; events tourist market; host community; investors; allies and collaborators).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Define the DMO’s role in coordinating the event-destination stakeholder linkages.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Follow a networking approach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Understand and give consideration to stakeholder interests.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MANAGING THE RESOURCES OF THE HOST DESTINATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Establish a comprehensive resource database to avoid oversupply and to inform the marketing strategy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Identify the resources needed to ensure event specialness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ensure quality of infrastructure and event-related resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Promote service delivery through human resource development that considers existing and temporary human knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Manage the event supply value chain to ensure satisfactory experience links.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 19: Apparent CSFs to leverage mega-events for destination competitiveness - combining the tourism and events perspectives (cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ENSURING AN EVENT MARKETING STRATEGY THAT IS ALIGNED WITH THE OVERALL DESTINATION MARKETING STRATEGY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Establish a single entity responsible for all destination communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Effectively co-brand with the event brand and sponsor brands; aligned with the umbrella destination brand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Creatively manage event-related restrictions related to marketing and set necessary cooperative agreements in place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Develop appropriate pre-, during- and post-event marketing and communication campaigns.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Develop separate, but aligned campaigns for the different event tourist markets, based on knowledge of the event experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Put measures in place to counter or address possible displacement of the regular tourist market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Develop separate but aligned campaigns for the different stakeholder groups (including locals; industry members; the accredited and non-accredited media; as well as non-tourists).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Make use of the latest ICT for distribution and communication.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Communicate event-related developments that can enhance the destination image (including aspects related to event technology and safety).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Manage pricing to enhance the destination’s value proposition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Product bundling throughout the wider destination in cooperation with tourism and non-tourism industry stakeholders.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONCERN FOR AND PRO-ACTIVELY ADDRESSING ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Guide the industry and encourage green practices through various methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Collaborate with the relevant supporting stakeholders (government departments, public agencies).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Educate the events tourists market.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ensure sustainability of the DMO’s own marketing practices.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s own construction

The core competences presented in Table 19 were primarily formulated from the events literature, and were also confirmed by many of the case studies previously discussed. It was decided that further detailed discussion of the core competences would be more appropriate once the empirical case study has been completed (Chapter 6), and that it would serve the objectives of the study to meaningfully include it into later discussions on the framework and guidelines (Chapter 7).

3.6 CONCLUSION

It may be stated that this chapter fulfils its intended purpose of providing the essential knowledge from events studies to broaden the set of CSFs. This chapter highlighted
several of the issues in event tourism studies and it became clear that events are increasingly being developed and bid for by destinations at a strategic level. Most of the event-related initiatives of destinations focus on events as attractions and image-makers. This is confirmed by the large amount of literature available on aspects of event marketing and communication. Other priority areas were also confirmed as being event competitiveness, stakeholder involvement and sustainability.

It became clear that, from a sustainable destination competitiveness viewpoint, event legacies are of greater concern than short-term event impacts. Very importantly, it was found that a destination can not effectively leverage a mega-event for competitiveness, if it is not done from within a formal event tourism strategy. It is argued that, by establishing an event tourism strategy, a great first step is already taken toward increased destination competitiveness through events.

The five CSFs were explored in order to define them from an events perspective. Changes were made to their order and formulation as knowledge from the event literature provided new perspectives. The researcher often found it difficult to work through a vast amount of existing literature in order to get to the core issues. However, it is believed that the adapted set of CSFs that were presented at the end of the Chapter may be regarded as inclusive of the core issues from a DMO perspective.

Before commencing with the proposed empirical component of the study to test the adapted set of CSFs, it was decided to provide an overview of to the case study that was to be investigated. The next chapter will therefore introduce the case study destination from a tourism host destination perspective.
CHAPTER 4: THE CITY OF TSHWANE AS MEGA-EVENT HOST DESTINATION WITHIN A SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT

The aim of this chapter is to introduce the case study of the empirical component. In order to do so, an overview of the national context will be provided, with specific reference to events within the national tourism strategy and initiatives surrounding the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. This will be followed by an introduction to the City of Tshwane as a tourism destination, as well as its own local initiatives surrounding the World Cup.
4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters, certain issues were identified as apparent CSFs for a destination to leverage mega-events as tools to enhance overall destination competitiveness. It became evident that both tourism and event management knowledge contributed to this topic, and that both of these fields would have to work in close collaboration to achieve the desired long-term legacies for the destination. The importance of stakeholder networking was highlighted from both fields; thereby making it essential to obtain stakeholder inputs into the apparent set of CSFs.

In the light of the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup™, the ideal opportunity was created to explore the role of events in destination competitiveness. It was decided to focus on the City of Tshwane, situated in the Gauteng province of South Africa. Not only was the City one of the host cities of the 2010 World Cup, but it is also a destination where the researcher have previously been involved in projects, and has therefore had the opportunity to become acquainted with various aspects of the destination. This chapter will firstly provide a national perspective of the host destination South Africa, where after the City will be explored as a destination in its own right. Both of these perspectives will commence with a discussion on the competitiveness of the destination, followed by event-related initiatives and specific preparations in the terms of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. It is important to note that many of the documents that will be mentioned in this chapter, form part of the secondary data of the empirical component (as will be explained in Chapter 5). It is furthermore necessary to refer back to the delimitations of the study (as discussed in Chapter 1); where it was stated that the study would be focused on providing information in terms of readiness and expectations, and would exclude information on performance during and post-evaluation of the actual event.

4.2 SOUTH AFRICA AS A MEGA-EVENT HOST DESTINATION

Emerging destinations such as countries in Asia and South America are increasingly turning to the hosting of mega-events; with countries that are chosen out of this group usually being relatively established economies in the global environment (Bob et al., 2008:52). During 2010, the FIFA Soccer World Cup™ was set to be hosted for the first
time on African soil. Public statements were made that this would be an African event, and event slogans including ‘Ke Nako’ (meaning ‘It’s Time’), ‘Africa’s World Cup’ and ‘Celebrate Africa’s Humanity’ also alluded to a promise that Africa’s time for benefits and recognition has come (discussed in Cornelissen, 2007:243; Desai & Vahed, 2010:155; and Ndlovu, 2010:146). Neighbouring countries Angola, Mozambique and Namibia would, for example, be considered as base camps during the event (Weinberger, 2006:24). With this expectation being created among especially neighbouring countries, South Africa furthermore had to deliver the event amidst international fears of personal safety (Tichaawa, n.d.) and concerns about price hiking (Mabanga & Planting, 2010; Van Schalkwyk, 2010). Furthermore, a number of domestic issues created concerns among locals, as well as international audiences about the country’s ability to deliver the event successfully (Cornelissen, 2007:242; Grundling & Steynberg, 2008:22), and to deal appropriately with internal crises in the wake of the event (including xenophobic attacks, municipal strikes and local community protests against event-related development) (Desai & Vahed, 2010:157, 161). On a higher political level, there were much debate about who would truly benefit from the event, how sustainable the promised job opportunities would be, and also on the massive amount of public funds that should have been spent on more urgent matters (Desai & Vahed, 2010:157). Despite all of this negativity, there appeared to be exuberance and high expectations among local communities, public authorities and the tourism industry; typical to the potential ‘feel good’ factor associated with such events (Du Plessis & Maennig, n.d.:13).

4.2.1 South Africa as a globally competitive tourism destination

Much of the anticipation and excitement that surrounded the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ can be accredited to South Africa’s rising profile in the international arena. After the democratic elections in 1994, the country experienced a boom in tourism (Kachkova, 2008:23). National government regards the industry as of strategic importance, especially in terms of diversification of the economy, stimulation of entrepreneurship, investment and sustainable job creation (Weinberger, 2006:21). Despite internal challenges, the country performs relatively well and is recognised in the most prominent competitiveness indexes. For example, it was ranked in 35th place (out of 50 countries) on the nation branding index, with a 5th position specifically in terms of ‘people brand ranking’ (Nation Branding, 2008).
The World Economic Forum’s (2009)’ Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index placed it in 61st position (out of 133 countries) in 2009, which was one position down from 60th position (out of 130 countries) in 2008.

South Africa can be regarded as a global tourist destination with the main tourist facilities and infrastructure being high quality accommodation; a wide range of tourism products and experiences; and cultural and social diversity. The country has a rapidly growing domestic market (DEAT, dti & SAT, 2005:24), but is also well-integrated into international tourist networks and agencies (Bob et al., 2008:55). Destination South Africa is considered to be in the growth phase of its lifecycle (DEAT et al., 2005:24), and it shows good growth in tourism receipts from international visitors (DEAT et al., 2005:19). The following characteristics of a growth phase are prevalent within the destination:
- rapid entry of new players and excess supply;
- consolidating forces to control pricing and capacity;
- more competition that cooperation (weak industry relationships); and
- lack of industry-specific/institutionalised information.

The next section will indicate how South Africa has aimed to enhance its competitive strategy throughout recent years, and will describe how events have been incorporated into this process.

4.2.2 **Events as part of South Africa’s competitive strategy**

In order to explain the process of national tourism strategy development that has taken place over the last decade within South Africa, there are a number of key projects that need to be mentioned. It was decided not to discuss all of these initiatives in detail, but rather to understand the extent to which South Africa is focusing on global competitiveness and how events are fitting into this picture. Figure 19 (pg.173) indicates some of the recent important developments in the tourism industry at a strategic level. It also indicates when and how events have been addressed in these developments. The inclusion of some of these projects has been referred to as an overall winning strategy in tourism (Weinberger, 2006:53).
It is indicated in the Tourism Growth Strategy (DEAT, 2008:5) that by selling South Africa as a destination for events, a direct effort is being made to implement the country’s national tourism policy (as set out in the Tourism White Paper of 1996). Events are also included in the ‘best kinds of tourism for South Africa’ category, because it can reduce the seasonality of the sector (DEAT, 2008:25). For this purpose, ‘bidding for and securing major international events’ is indicated as one of the means to achieve Goal 12 of the Growth Strategy, which is focused on the tourism sector’s responsibility to increase demand during valley periods (DEAT, 2008:42).

In the new National Tourism Sector Strategy that was announced in May 2010, business tourism and events are grouped together and form ‘Strategic Thrust nr 10’ (out of 16) through which the strategy objectives are to be met (NDT, 2010:26). This thrust in turn is included into ‘Cluster nr 2’ (out of 4), which is focused on tourism growth and development (NDT, 2010:28). Within this cluster, business tourism and events are specifically approached from the ‘demand’ perspective (marketing and demand). Key proposed actions to develop this strategic thrust include the following (NDT, 2010:57):

- To establish a national convention and events bureau responsible for business tourism and events marketing and development, co-ordination and support for bids and develop and role out a significant business tourism and events strategy.
- Identify at least one event in each province as a flagship event that represents the provincial experience and grow the importance of this event.
- To investigate and implement the establishment of a bidding fund that may be used to support bids for events of national importance.
- To accredit service providers, professionalise the industry and ensure quality.

It is evident that the latest national strategy recognises events and an appropriate event strategy as a strategic priority toward its long-term competitiveness. Despite the absence of an official national events agency/entity, South Africa has been host to a number of high profile events and is also home to a substantial number of established annual events.
Figure 19: Strategic tourism industry developments

4.2.3 South Africa’s unofficial events portfolio

In line with the new, but also older strategies, and also appropriate in terms of global trends, South Africa has increasingly bid for and hosted a number of international mega-events since 1994. There are a number of key reasons why South Africa chose to participate in this arena, including (as identified in Kachkova, 2008:24-25):

- to re-enter into the international community;
- to contribute to nation-building, unity and human rights promotion;
- to enhance its political and economic standing globally;
- for identity and image promotion (from “rainbow nationalism to Africanism”) (2008:24);
- for infrastructural development, economic growth and urban regeneration; and
- the broader tourism strategy’s focus on bidding for mega-events and expansion of its MICE industry.

Major conference and convention centres have been built in most of the country’s major cities and most of them have had a high degree of utilisation (Mboweni, 2007:1). Table 20 (pg.175) provides a summary of the key events that have been hosted by South Africa. In the South African context, opportunities surrounding these events relate to infrastructure development; hospitality requirements; event management; secondary tourism attractions; SMME (small, micro and medium enterprises) development; legacy programmes; training and skills development; research and knowledge management (Bob et al., 2008:50).

The table clearly indicates that South Africa has fully embraced the hosting of a diverse portfolio of events at various levels. There have however, as with any other destination, been a number of issues holding the country back from optimal event leveraging. There are, for example, a number of factors that could have accounted for Cape Town’s unsuccessful bid for the 2004 Olympic Games (mentioned in the table). These include the city’s extreme location; underdeveloped infrastructure; socio-economic problems; political instability and crime in the country; a lack of a long-term vision for the city’s tourism industry; ignoring tacit knowledge of a formed bidding committee; lack of transparency concerning costs and job opportunities; and non-support of the other African IOC members (De Lange in Bob et al., 2008:54). Since the time of this bid however, a lot has changed in the country.
Table 20: South Africa’s unofficial events portfolio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sporting events</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>FIFA World Cup&lt;sup&gt;™&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Indian Premier League</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ICC Champions Trophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International Karate Championships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FIFA Confederations Cup&lt;sup&gt;™&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>World Twenty20 Cricket Championships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>A1 Grand Prix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>U/19 Rugby World Cup</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>ICC Cricket World Cup</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002 - 2004</td>
<td>Engen International Athletics Series</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>U/21 Rugby World Cup</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tug-of-War World Championships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999 - 2001</td>
<td>International Super Bike Grand Prix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>All Africa Games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>International Association of Athletics Federation World Cup</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>African Soccer Cup of Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>Rugby World Cup</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Political and Institutional events</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>International Summit on Tourism, Sport &amp; Mega Events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>G-20 meeting of Ministers of Finance and Central Bank Governors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>World Petroleum Conference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>UN Conference on Sustainable Growth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>UN Conference on Racism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International Telecommunications Union Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Unsuccessful bids</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the 2006 FIFA World Cup</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For the 2004 Olympic Games (Cape Town)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other major annual events</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aardklop Kunstefees</td>
<td>Potchefstroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Argus Pick ‘n Pay Cycle Tour</td>
<td>Cape Town</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Epic Ultra Marathon</td>
<td>Cape Town region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comrades Marathon</td>
<td>Durban, Pietermaritzburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Durban July Horse Race</td>
<td>Durban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dusi Canoe Marathon</td>
<td>Durban, Pietermaritzburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Giro del Capo</td>
<td>Western Cape region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grahamstown National Arts Festival</td>
<td>Grahamstown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klein Karoo Arts Festival</td>
<td>Oudtshoorn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meetings Africa</td>
<td>Johannesburg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nedbank Golf Challenge</td>
<td>Sun City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Sea Jazz</td>
<td>Cape Town</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppikoppi Music Festival</td>
<td>Northam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Indaba</td>
<td>Durban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Mutual Two Oceans Marathon</td>
<td>Cape Town</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

40 South Africa got an 8 out of 10 ranking from FIFA for the event (SAT, 2010)
Other localised events

Apart from these major annual events, there is a myriad of events hosted throughout the various provinces. These events are also actively being promoted by the respective DMOs of the host cities, towns or regions.


The successful bid to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ brought renewed initiative, investment and development into the country on a national level (Bob et al., 2008:55; Mboweni, 2007:3). The next section explains how winning the bid to host this event, has ignited the previously mentioned strategic thinking in terms of event-related initiatives.

4.2.4 Hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

On 15 May 2004, after an 18-month waiting period, South Africa was announced as the host for the 2010 FIFA World Cup. This decision was met with great enthusiasm, especially considering the country’s previous dramatic loss against Germany to host the 2006 event (Weinberger, 2006:23). This section will briefly mention some of the most important facts around the event, and will focus on how the event was approached by the tourism industry.

4.2.4.1 Basic information about the event

At the end of 2004, the Local Organising Committee (LOC) was established to oversee preparations for the event and to ensure that South Africa will be a successful host. A Technical Coordinating Committee was also established to coordinate the efforts of several national government departments, including the National Treasury, Sport and Recreation South Africa, Department of Trade and Industry (dti), Department of Transport, Department of Safety and Security, Department of Foreign Affairs, Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) and South African Tourism (SAT) (DEAT et al., 2005a:4).

As promoted by SAT (2010), as well as on various other platforms including sa-venues.com, eventsnow.co.za and south-africa-tours.com
The event is set to host 32 teams over 43 days in 10 different locations across nine host cities (Bloemfontein, Cape Town, Durban, Johannesburg, Nelspruit, Polokwane, Port Elizabeth, Rustenburg and Tshwane). Around 2.7 to 3 million local spectators and 400 000 visitors are expected to attend the matches, along with some 4 billion international viewers. The direct expenditure is estimated at around R12.7 billion, with a contribution of R21.3 billion to Gross Domestic Product and the creation of 159 000 jobs (Grundling & Steynberg, 2008:20, Weinberger, 2006:24). Five stadiums have been built and the remaining five are upgraded versions of existing stadiums (Campbell, n.d.:5; Weinberger, 2006:25).

True to the nature of the FIFA owned event, there are many restrictions and regulations, and the event is also expected to also affect the wider destination on a political as well as commercial level (Cornelissen, 2007:248). For example, only the multinational company sponsors and accredited agencies will be allowed to advertise along with the event brand and there are strict rules in place to prevent ambush marketing. FIFA will also have monopoly of television rights, advertising and stadium space (Desai & Vahed, 2010:157-158; Du Plessis & Maennig, n.d.). There would be many restrictions on local entrepreneurs through exclusive zones, and contractual agreements on the provision of tourism hospitality products (Desai & Vahed, 2010:158).

### 4.2.4.2 The tourism industry’s perspective of the event

The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ was viewed by many as a ‘critical milestone’ for the South African tourism industry on its journey toward global competitiveness. The Minister of Environmental Affairs & Tourism, Marthinus van Schalkwyk, even stated that it was South Africa’s “single greatest tourism opportunity ever”. He indicated that event-related developments around product investment, upgrading of infrastructure, tourist safety and skills development would contribute to build a positive image, attract new tourism markets and convince tourists to return repeatedly (DEAT, 2004 in Weinberger, 2006:40). The event took place during South Africa’s traditional low season, and the country had the advantage of being on a similar time zone than the football supporting countries in Europe.

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(Weinberger, 2006:24). It can be argued that, apart from all the measurable and direct benefits to the industry, the greatest legacy for the destination can be regarded as the emerging new strategic approach that has been adopted toward events.

### 4.2.4.3 Leaving a legacy of greater strategic thinking in terms of events

The Global Competitiveness Programme (referred to in Figure 19, pg.173), was started before South Africa was given the right to host the 2010 FIFA World Cup. This announcement only contributed to the importance and relevance of the programme, as the South African tourism industry had to define its role and contribution toward the event. The relevance of the programme and contribution thereof to the event is captured by the following statement: “The issues identified and addressed in this programme are in fact the core issues that sit at the heart of what the tourism industry needs to do to deliver a successful World Cup”. As a result, the 2010 Tourism Organising Plan was developed in alignment with the Global Competitiveness Programme. The 2010 Tourism Organising Plan was developed as the framework within which industry, provinces and host cities would begin preparing for 2010. Its focus would be to optimally leverage 2010 to create positive attendee experiences, but also to grow tourism value, ensure return on investment in the form of substantial positive legacies, and to enhance the competitiveness platforms for tourism in South Africa. Thus, the 2010 World Cup would be regarded as the key lever through which to deliver on the Global Competitiveness Programme created seven years before the actual event (DEAT et al, 2005:79).

In line with this need for strategic thinking, the Marketing Tourism Growth Strategy (SAT, 2008) also explicitly addressed events. Opportunistic marketing through once-off events was identified as a key new growth opportunity (2008:45). According to the Strategy, such once-off events are to be complimented with business tourism events (specifically association meetings) to ensure equitable spread of events, as well as to manage seasonal distribution (2008:78). In essence, the combination of events being focused on, was set to contribute to Tourism’s six key objectives (2008:88). The Marketing Tourism Growth Strategy also links directly to the 2010 Tourism Organising Plan, and indicates the mandate for Tourism as sustainable GDP growth; sustainable job creation; and redistribution and transformation. The role of SAT in the 2010 World Cup was defined
as maximising value during the event (a successful event; tourism value form the event; spreading the benefits to other African countries), and maximising value after the event (opportunity to brand South Africa as a destination; advancing the tourism competitiveness agenda). A distinction was also made between SAT’s core interventions (an event strategy; info management; marketing branding) and its non-core interventions (accommodation grading; improving transport and security; skills and service levels) (2008:93). These six interventions were regarded as the key tourism challenges to deliver the event experience and to capitalise on 2010 arrivals and exposure (2008:96). Other challenges included limited institutional capacity, managing expectations, managing demand, and displacement of general tourists around the event (2008:97).

Hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ also brought about a change in stakeholder relationships and networking within the destination. For example, the 2010 National Communication Partnership (NCP) was established to align the marketing and communication efforts of several key stakeholders. It consisted of three clusters namely Tourism, Marketing and Advertising, and Media and Communications. It drove several key initiatives such as a domestic mobilization campaign; a 2010 brand for Southern Africa; the Tourism Service Excellence Drive; a Host City Events Framework; grading initiatives; SMME development; and Greening 2010 (DEAT & NCP, 2008). The outcomes of three major conferences of the NCP also focused on these issues, along with addressing other key areas. These include the perspective of the event as an African World Cup; marketing opportunities for corporates within the FIFA regulations; benchmarking against Germany 2006 and EUFA 2008; event readiness; strategic questions; as well as key considerations and possible actions for the respective clusters (Heath, 2006; Heath, 2007, Heath, 2008a).

From the discussion it is evident that Destination South Africa has progressed significantly in terms of events as a strategic priority. The 2010 FIFA World Cup™ catapulted related initiatives into a new direction; thereby transforming South Africa into a globally competitive event host destination. With this national perspective established, it is now

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43 Including Department of Government Communication and Information Systems (GCIS), the International Marketing Council (IMC), the LOC, FIFA, MATCH, DEAT, SAT, the Tourism Grading Council of South Africa (TGCSA), Department of Safety and Security, as well as the respective sponsors.
possible to meaningfully introduce the case study destination of the current study, namely the City of Tshwane (hereafter referred to as CoT or the City).

4.3 THE CITY OF TSHWANE AS A MEGA-EVENT HOST DESTINATION

South Africa’s tourism activities are highly concentrated in certain regions; particularly within a number of key destinations including Cape Town, Johannesburg and Durban (Weinberger, 2006:19). This fact presents one of the key challenges to the CoT, which is often under-valued as a tourism destination by especially international visitors. The fact that the City was chosen as a host city for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, brought renewed energy to the City’s efforts to become a recognised destination within the national tourism portfolio. This section will provide a background to the City as a tourism destination, with reference to some of its strategic issues. It will also describe the City as a 2010 World Cup host city, with particular reference to its event-related strategy and initiatives.

4.3.1 Background information to the City of Tshwane

Tshwane is a metropolis within the province of Gauteng, South Africa. It was established on 5 December 2000 and consists of 13 combined municipalities. CoT comprises 2198 km² and is home to 2.4 million inhabitants. It is regarded as one of South Africa’s leading economic cities (Weinberg, 2006:28). Within its diverse economy, it has a dominant service sector, but also a well-established manufacturing sector that largely comprises of the automotive industry. Tourism and creative industries form part of the seven priority sectors of the City (Ramokgopa, 2010). The City is often referred to as the ‘Jacaranda City’ because of the nearly 70,000 Jacaranda trees that line its streets, giving the City a purple colour when they blossom in October. Its most famous feature is the Union Buildings where South Africa’s international icon, Nelson Mandela, was inaugurated as the first democratically elected president of the country in 1994 (Tshwane Tourism, n.d.).

44 Including Pretoria, Centurion, Akasia, Soshanguve, Mabopane, Atteridgeville, Ga-Rankuwa, Winterveld, Hammanskraal, Temba, Pienaarsrivier, Crocodile River and Mamelodi (GCIS, 2010).
4.3.1.1 The size of the City’s tourism industry

By 2008, the City represented almost 9% of total tourist trips in South Africa, and more than 40% of all trips to Gauteng province (Kekana, 2008). Tourism is the sixth largest contributor to CoT’s economy, after community services (government), finance, transport, manufacturing and trade. The City receives about five million visitors annually, of which 623 000 are foreign, 1.14 million are domestic overnight tourists, and 3.3 million are domestic day visitors (Kekana, 2008). Priority markets within these categories include domestic visitors to friends and family living in the City and foreign leisure visitors (Grant Thornton, 2005:70). One of the key tourism objectives for the City was set at 6.9 million annual visitors by 2010 (Grant Thornton, 2005:28). Almost half the City’s tourists visit at least once a year, mostly during March and December. Tshwane attracts visitors from far and wide, including from all provinces in South Africa, as well as countries such as China, Japan Brazil, India, the UK and the USA (Heath & Kruger, 2009).

The annual total direct visitor spend amounts to R1,38 billion, which results in a R2,3 billion contribution to GDP (Kekana, 2008). More than 26 600 annual employment opportunities are created by the industry, of which 7 200 are direct employment (Kekana, 2008). In 2005, it was stated that hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ could contribute significantly to increased figures, if the opportunities related to the event were optimally leveraged, and if visitors were encouraged to spend more and stay longer (Grant Thornton, 2005:27).

4.3.1.2 Tourism offerings of the City

CoT is the administrative capital of South Africa; it is the home of Government, which is housed in the well-known Union Buildings; and it is also the head office of the public sector (City of Tshwane, 2003). CoT is also the diplomatic capital of the country and it has the second largest number of embassies in the world after Washington D.C. (GCIS, 2010). The CoT’s strategic focus encompasses a number of elements such as its capital city status, its people, achieving remarkable change and the concept of it being a ‘meeting place’. The capital city status provides the CoT with various opportunities related to national government and the diplomatic community presence in the City. It furthermore
aims to strengthen the City’s intellectual/educational image, as well as to portray the City as a leisure destination (Grant Thornton, 2005:21). The City’s intellectual image arises from the fact that there are a number of top quality academic institutions and various technologically advanced companies and research facilities in the City. Tshwane also qualifies as a leisure destination based on, among others, a variety of natural attractions, its arts and its excellent shopping centres (Heath & Kruger, 2009). Figure 20 indicates the priority tourism products offered by the City.

Events are regarded as an important product of the City (see Figure 20). In its Tourism Master Plan (Grant Thornton, 2005:93), a programme for leisure events was indicated as a strategic market for the City. It was also stated that it was essential for the City to develop a number of flagship events.

**Figure 20: Priority products for the City of Tshwane**

![Priority products for the City of Tshwane](image)

*Source: Adapted from Saunders (2006)*

From a strategic perspective, the City is ideally located as it is only 48 km away from Africa’s largest international gateway, the OR Tambo International Airport. It can also easily be accessed via three other airports (Wonderboom, Lanseria and Waterkloof), as well as several private landing strips. The City has well-developed infrastructure, with the highway between Tshwane and Johannesburg being the busiest in the Southern Hemisphere. The development of a high speed train linkage, affectionately known as the Gautrain, was also scheduled to be completed in 2010 as the first of its kind in Africa.
The City has been host to several international events, including the 1995 Rugby World Cup, 1996 African Cup of Nations, 1999 All Africa Games, 2003 Cricket World Cup, 2002 World Tug of War championships, World Junior Chess championships, and the 2009 International Karate championships (GCIS, 2010).

4.3.1.3 Dealing with the name change from Pretoria to Tshwane

Whereas Pretoria, which was established more than 150 years ago, was named after a Boer settler and Afrikaner hero, Andries Pretorius, Tshwane is the name of a pre-colonial local chief and means “we are the same”. Supporters of the change say the switch will accentuate South Africa’s break with Apartheid in 1994 (Heath & Kruger, 2009). However, when the National Geographical Names Council announced the name change of Pretoria to Tshwane in 2005, there was considerable confusion and concerns among tourism stakeholders in Tshwane as is apparent from the comment of the chairman of the Tshwane Tourism Association (TTA) at the time, Mr Franco Jordaan, namely: “The TTA fully supports the name Tshwane as far as the Metro is concerned, but changing the name of the Capital, Pretoria to Tshwane, will have wider implications. Not only will tourists be confused about what and where Tshwane is, but the trade will need to spend a lot of money and marketing effort repositioning Tshwane in the minds of international visitors” (Sandras, 2005 in Heath & Kruger, 2009).

Although it was officially announced that the name of the City would be the City of Tshwane, and many South African governmental organisations and some members of the media have referred to Tshwane as the South Africa capital, various members of the media, businesses and institutions, both in South Africa and internationally still use Pretoria as the City’s name (Grant Thornton 2005:75). From a tourism branding and positioning perspective this remains a key challenge that needs to be addressed as a strategic priority (Heath & Kruger, 2009).

To avoid confusion among stakeholders and tourists, FIFA and South Africa agreed to use a dual-name system (Pretoria/Tshwane) for Tshwane. This would allow visitors to experience the transformations that are taking place in the country, while also enjoying the branding benefits of the familiar name Pretoria (Steyn, 2007:107). However, in South
Africa the City would only be known as Tshwane (Heath & Kruger, 2009). The fact that Pretoria/Tshwane was set to be utilised during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, provided the ideal platform from which to strategically facilitate the brand migration. It was stated that, once a satisfactory level of brand recognition had been achieved for the name Tshwane, the name Pretoria could be dropped from marketing messages (Heath & Kruger, 2009).

4.3.1.4 Status as host city to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

The City of Tshwane was one of the first host cities in the country to start with preparations for the event (Steyn, 2007:104). Seemingly great effort was made by the City to prepare itself for hosting of the event; especially in terms of adhering to the host city requirements of FIFA. Several government departments were involved and the tourism industry also played its part to improve its offering. CoT spent “a huge budget and much effort to upgrade its infrastructure in preparation for the 2010 FIFA World Cup”; especially in terms of upgrading roads throughout the City. The local airport, Wonderboom, was improved; municipal bus and metro train fleets were expanded; and general signage in the City was addressed. In three townships, stadiums were readied as training venues for visiting teams (Ramokgopa, 2010). The main stadium of the City, Loftus Versfeld, is owned by the Blue Bulls Rugby Union and has a 2010 match capacity of 42 858. Six matches were played in the stadium, including the match between South Africa and Uruguay (FIFA, 2010:48).

This section provided an introduction to the CoT as a tourism destination and also a host city of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Detailed information on the City’s initiatives related to the event will be included in the discussions of Chapter 6, where many of the data sources will serve as secondary data for the case study. The next section in this chapter will focus on providing insight into the strategic issues that the City has been faced with in terms of tourism development. It will also outline some of the most important initiatives and actions undertaken in the process of developing a competitive strategy for tourism in the City.
4.3.2 Strategic issues of the tourism industry in the City of Tshwane

In order to summarise the key strategic issues of the City as a tourism destination, it was decided to refer to two previous studies; one carried out in 2005 and the other in 2007. Table 21 presents the findings from these two studies. Corresponding findings have been highlighted, and the table served as a valuable introduction to key themes that were to be explored during the empirical phase of the current study.

Table 21: Strengths and weaknesses of the tourism industry in the City of Tshwane

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2005 – Grant Thornton study</th>
<th>STRENGTHS</th>
<th>2007 - Steyn study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Capital city status</td>
<td>- Great diversity in cultures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Natural attractions</td>
<td>- Strong historical element in the city</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Strong cultural and historical product elements</td>
<td>- The city has a lot to offer to visitors (including soccer visitors during 2010)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Broad base of diverse tourism attractions</td>
<td>- Capital city status</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Strong willingness from visitors to return to the city and recommend it to others</td>
<td>- Well-established and famous attractions</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Friendliness and hospitable local residents</td>
<td>- Right infrastructure to cater for big events</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Cosmopolitan and multi-cultural city</td>
<td>- Status as education hub and intellectual city</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Strong arts and crafts industry</td>
<td>- Good location in relation to some of the other provinces</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- A good stadium (Loftus) and sporting teams hosted in the city</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Attractions not 'geared' for tourism</td>
<td>- Attractions and experiences not representative of all cultures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Township attractions not integrated</td>
<td>- Insufficient and underdeveloped product development (over a long period of time)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Poor signage</td>
<td>- Discrepancy between quality of different products in different areas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- No major annual flagship event/festival</td>
<td>- Safety concerns</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Insufficient professional guidance and interpretation at attractions</td>
<td>- Attractions not accessible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Insufficient community involvement, awareness and pride</td>
<td>- Lack of signage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Insufficient nightlife activities</td>
<td>- Inadequate marketing and promotional efforts (branding, positioning and packaging)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Perception of Tshwane as an apartheid city</td>
<td>- Inadequate implementation of existing good plans and strategies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Lack of understanding between public and private sector about roles and responsibilities</td>
<td>- No RTO in place</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Availability of funding</td>
<td>- Inadequate tourism information offices</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Townships still have separate identity, thus perpetuation division</td>
<td>- Sensitivities around the name change</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Focus on policy formulation and not on implementation</td>
<td>- Lack of innovation and story-telling in tourism experiences</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Definition of culture confined to African culture when it comes to the promotion of culture</td>
<td>- Fragmentation and lack of cooperation (too many separate associations)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Little buy-in from local communities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Lack of leadership</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Lack of training in the industry and among local entrepreneurs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Taken from Grant Thornton (2005:13) and Steyn (2007:125-142)
It is evident that the City had been facing a number of issues, but also managed to establish for itself a basis from which to build a globally competitive tourism profile. The next section offers an outline of the tourism strategy development process and also indicates how and where events have been addressed at a strategic level.

### 4.3.3 The City of Tshwane’s tourism strategy development process

Before explaining the strategy development process that had taken place in the City, it was decided to present it at the hand of a timeframe (Table 22). This would allow a clearer perspective on the City’s tourism strategy, and how the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ influenced this process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>South Africa’s successful bid</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Tshwane Tourism Steering Committee established</td>
<td>4.3.3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tourism Master Plan</td>
<td>4.3.3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td><strong>Feb</strong> Host City agreement concluded</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>May</strong> Tshwane Business Week</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td><strong>April</strong> Approval to start the process of exploring the creation of an RTO external to Municipality</td>
<td>4.3.3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td><strong>May</strong> TITIIC 2008</td>
<td>4.3.3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>June</strong> Tourism Division focus areas for 2008/09</td>
<td>4.3.3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>October</strong> Tshwane Tourism Fair</td>
<td>4.3.3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>October</strong> Tshwane Tourism Action Team formed</td>
<td>4.3.3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>November</strong> City signs the South Africa By-Law for the event45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>December</strong> Stakeholder Workshop</td>
<td>4.3.3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td><strong>January</strong> Strategic Worksession of the Tshwane Tourism Division</td>
<td>4.3.3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>March</strong> Worksession with CoT Divisions involved in Tourism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>June</strong> 2009 Confederations Cup</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>September</strong> New Strategic Framework approved by Council</td>
<td>4.3.3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>October</strong> TTAT: The Tshwane Tourism Ten-Point Plan</td>
<td>4.3.3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td><strong>April</strong> Tshwane Tourism Lekgotla</td>
<td>4.3.3.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>May</strong> TITIIC 2010</td>
<td>4.3.3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Jun-Jul</strong> 2010 FIFA World Cup</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Researcher’s own construction

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45 Refer to City of Tshwane (2008a).
Table 22 indicates the most important publicly-driven activities with regard to tourism and the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ event. Some of these activities (indicated in the right-hand column of the table), will now briefly be discussed to give a context to the position of tourism within the City’s strategic framework.

4.3.3.1 The Tshwane Tourism Steering Committee

During 2005, a Tshwane Tourism Steering Committee\textsuperscript{46} was established to manage the development of a tourism plan for the Metro. Several workshops were held to discuss the importance of the 2010 FIFA World Cup, and to determine a structure that would allow the most effective planning and preparation (Steyn, 2007:104). During one of the meetings, a 2010 shared tourism vision for the City was formulated. The vision stated that once the event has come and gone, the desired legacy of the City should be that:

- the City has been an outstanding host of a ‘festival for all’;
- the City would now be regarded as the sports mecca and the undisputed capital of Africa;
- the event has been a true example of sustainable development; and
- the City can be regarded as a role model of responsible event leverage (Steyn, 2007:105).

It would be worthwhile to note the extent to which this vision had been adopted among stakeholders and successive 2010-related strategic decisions.

4.3.3.2 City of Tshwane Tourism Master Plan

The City of Tshwane Tourism Division appointed the services of a consortium to develop a Strategic Tourism Development Plan for the City. As a result, the Tourism Master Plan was developed for the City in consultation with key stakeholders (Grant Thornton, 2005:1). It encompassed a tourism vision, strategic direction, objectives and CSFs to develop tourism in the City and was based on the City’s comparative and competitive advantages at the time. It included a development plan, a marketing plan, an infrastructure strategy, an HR and SMME development plan, an investment development plan and an

\textsuperscript{46} Refer to Appendix C (pg.343) for a profile of the representatives.
implementation framework (Heath & Kruger, 2009). Both the product development, as well as the marketing and promotion plan took into consideration CoT’s 2010 Soccer World Cup strategy (which was not yet finalised by that time) (Grant Thornton, 2005:8). Four principles were identified as fundamental to the Plan, including Transformation, Black Economic Empowerment (BEE), Responsible Tourism, and Partnerships (Grant Thornton, 2005:18). A key outcome of the Master Plan was the recommendation to establish a Regional Tourism Organisation (RTO). At that stage the date was set for mid-2006. However, as can be seen from the timeline, the process to explore the establishment of an RTO was only approved by the City Council in April 2007 (Koekemoer, n.d.).

4.3.3.3 *Tshwane Business Week – priority given to Tourism and the World Cup*

At the Tshwane Business Week which was held under the slogan “Progressing City Development through Smart Partnerships”, the Tourism Master Plan was identified as part of the strategic framework for the City. In terms of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, it was indicated that the Tourism Master Plan as well as the City’s Infrastructural Development Plan would have to be aligned to the World Cup Tourism Strategy. The Municipality also made a resolution to support the Hosting Strategy by providing support services in terms of safety and security, public transport, and community participation. It also indicated that it would set up a soccer portal on its corporate website, and would focus efforts on the economic potential for 2010 (Anon, 2006). These public resolutions clearly identified their priority areas, as well as the way in which they had decided to align themselves to the tourism strategy for 2010. It can be seen that promotion of the destination would fall within the hands of the designated 2010 office, once it had been established.

4.3.3.4 *Tshwane International Trade and Infrastructure Investment Conference 2008*

The Tshwane International Trade and Infrastructure Investment Conference (TITIIC) is similar to the Tshwane Business Week held in 2006. At the 2008 conference, six strategic priorities for tourism were identified, including (i) establishing an umbrella tourism body (RTO) for the City; (ii) establishing a unique and distinctive tourism brand image and identity; (iii) launching a targeted internal marketing drive; (iv) facilitating a focused human resource and capacity development drive; (v) ensure an environment that is conducive to
attract and sustain tourism investment, including beyond 2010; and (vi) emphasising environmentally responsible tourism (City of Tshwane, 2008b:39). As will be seen in further discussions, some of these priority areas were again stated as focus areas for the Tourism Division, and also for the broader City stakeholders.

4.3.3.5 Tourism Division focus areas for 2008/2009

In June of 2008, the focus areas for the Tshwane Tourism Division was set as (i) development of a tourism business plan for the City; (ii) a local exhibitions and events strategy; (iii) an international exhibitions and events strategy; (iv) a tourism information provision strategy; (v) SMME development (process facilitation) strategy; (vi) a 2010 FIFA World Cup tourism strategy; and (vii) RTO implementation (Koekemoer, 2008). As part of the World Cup tourism strategy, projects included an SMME development strategy (including training of tour guides and bus drivers); grading of accommodation facilities; events in targeted areas; creation of tourism packages; and tourism information provision (a tourism route map, information kiosks). It can be seen that the Tourism Division was faced with the task of dealing with two significant challenges simultaneously, namely a World Cup Tourism Strategy, as well as the establishment of an RTO. With only two years left before the event, it may be stated that tourism efforts would greatly be influenced by the absence of an RTO at that time. Consider, for example, the fact that the City of Cape Town had a World Cup marketing campaign that came into life in the form of a pre-campaign phase, immediately after it had signed the Host City agreement in 2006. Their campaign consisted of five phases that were aligned to major FIFA events and milestones in the build-up to 2010. Each of these phases was comprehensively packaged according to strategic objectives, the main campaign concept, specific communication tactics and supporting events (Anon, 2009).

4.3.3.6 The 2010 FIFA World Cup Programme Office (2010 Unit)

In 2009, the Municipality established a dedicated office tasked with ensuring the readiness of Tshwane for both the 2009 Confederations Cup and the 2010 World Cup. The office was headed by a CEO and a steering committee was established to advise the 2010 Unit. The committee reported directly to the Executive Mayor, and was completed by five
members of the Mayoral Committee, the Municipal Manager, the 2010 Unit CEO, a representative of Blue Bulls Company (the local rugby team), a representative of the South African Football Association (Tshwane), a representative of Mamelodi Sundowns (the local soccer club) and a representative of SuperSport United. The committee was supported by five working groups including Promotion of Football; Safety, Security, Health and Environmental Affairs; Hospitality (Tourism and Entrepreneurship); Marketing, Communication and Community Involvement; and Infrastructure and Public Transport (Nkwane, n.d.). Data collected on the work of the 2010 Unit will be discussed in Chapter 6 as secondary sources.

4.3.3.7 The Tshwane Tourism Fair – a key event for tourism in the City

During October 2008, as part of the strategic tourism planning journey for the City, and in the light of changes in the macro, competitive and market environments, the strategic planning process was re-visited at a stakeholder conference entitled “The New Face of Tourism in Tshwane” (Heath & Kruger, 2009). The shared tourism vision that was agreed upon by stakeholders, was for Tshwane to be globally recognized as the 21st century ‘must experience’ visitor capital in Africa, embracing vibrancy and progressiveness, yet retaining its special identity, authenticity and hospitality, to the benefit of all. This vision was stated to be underpinned by key guiding values and principle, including continuous communication, co-ordination and collaboration between stakeholders at all levels; ensuring consumer-driven quality products, services and visitor experiences; respect for and embracing of the rich cultural diversity and heritage of Tshwane and its people, as unique selling proposition (USP) for the City; as well as remaining uniquely Tshwane and seeking to differentiate the Tshwane tourism experience at every ‘touch-point’ in the City (Heath, 2008b).

As an outcome of the conference, a three-year rolling strategic framework was set to be compiled by mid-December 2008. This framework would build upon the Tourism Master Plan (2005), the provincial and national tourism strategy, international best practice guidelines, as well as the inputs of stakeholders made during the conference (City of Tshwane, 2008b:40). Stakeholders agreed that certain strategic priorities pertaining to branding and positioning had to be addressed as part of the strategic framework, but also
as part of the build-up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. A key priority identified was the urgent matter of establishing and implementing a unique and distinctive Tshwane tourism brand image and identity (aligned with the provincial and national branding framework), and a powerful competitive positioning and marketing strategy for Tshwane, both in the local and international marketplace (Heath & Kruger, 2009). More will be said about this three-year framework in Section 4.3.3.9.

4.3.3.8 Establishment of the Tshwane Tourism Action Team

A key outcome of the Tshwane Tourism Fare was the formation of the Tshwane Tourism Action Team (TTAT). The team, consisting of private sector tourism industry roleplayers and officials of the Tourism Division, “works pro-bono to enhance the city's tourism potential to the benefit of all citizens” (Anon, 2010b). The main focus areas of this Action Team were formulated to include, among others: facilitation of the establishment of an RTO by July 2009; facilitation of the implementation of the branding and positioning strategy for Tshwane, within the national branding framework which was launched in April 2009; facilitation of an internal marketing drive to create awareness and involvement of local stakeholders and communities and motivate them to become brand ambassadors for the City of Tshwane; as well as leveraging tourism marketing opportunities related to the hosting of major events such as the Confederations Cup in 2009 and the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Heath & Kruger, 2009). More will be said about the Action Team's specific activities (including the Tshwane Tourism Ten-Point Plan) in Chapter 6, where related documents will be selected and used as secondary data sources.

4.3.3.9 Stakeholder workshop as a follow-up to the Tourism Fair

In December 2008, a workshop was held with the theme “Our tourism journey to date and the road ahead”. The aim of this workshop was to form a base for the three-year strategic tourism framework that had been envisaged at the Fair. The goals of the workshop included getting consensus on the actions needed to leverage opportunities presented by the Confederations Cup and the 2010 World Cup. It also included deliberations on the actions that were needed to leverage conferences, meetings and events within the City as a long-term destination offering (Heath, 2008b:3). Many of the proposed actions include
and build upon proposals from the Tourism Fair, as well as strategies that were discussed at the TTAT meetings (that started in October after the Fair). The concluding workshop report (Heath, 2008b) significantly reiterates the most prominent themes that had been emerging from the Tourism Master Plan process in 2005. This document will serve as one of the secondary data sources and will be discussed in Chapter 6.

4.3.3.10 Two strategic stakeholder worksessions

In January 2009 a very important worksession was held for the staff of the Tourism Division. During this session, internal issues and concerns of staff members were discussed (Heath, 2009a). It became apparent that the wellbeing of the employees of the DMO (or in this case the public office responsible for destination promotion, in the absence of an RTO), is of crucial importance in the effectiveness of the entity. Their skills, capabilities and attitudes also have a direct impact on the successful execution of the tourism strategy, and ultimately the competitiveness of the destination from a strategic viewpoint.

In March 2009 another worksession took place; this time between all of the CoT Divisions involved in tourism. It included the Tourism Division of the City of Tshwane, the City of Tshwane Metro Police, the Sport, Recreation, Arts and Culture Division (SRAC), and the 2010 Unit for the City of Tshwane (Heath, 2009b). With specific reference to the collaboration between the Tourism Division and the 2010 Unit, it was stated that close coordination were already taking place. The 2010 Unit was also represented on the (TTAT). In the outcomes of the worksession, it was stated that a key challenge was to ensure that all stakeholders understood the workings of a FIFA-managed event, and to align current approaches to event management in the City with the FIFA approach. In order to leverage tourism opportunities during and after the upcoming events, it was essential for stakeholder groups (the respective divisions) to communicate and coordinate their plans and strategies.

From the worksession it was stated that the ideal would be to establish a permanent Tshwane Metro Tourism Forum that could be representative of all key divisions and departments involved in and/or impacting on tourism development and promotion in the City. There was a great need for relevant, accessible and timely information in the City in
general. With specific reference to the upcoming Confederations Cup, there was an urgent need to coordinate efforts around public viewing facilities and possible entrepreneurial opportunities (Heath, 2009b). Of concern to members, was the fact that the Communications and Marketing Division, which is regarded as a critical component, was not represented at the meeting to address issues of common interest.

4.3.3.11 New Strategic Tourism Framework approved by Council

During 2009, a new five-year strategy was approved by the CoT to take tourism in the City beyond the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. A strategic decision was made to change the approach from the suggested three-year rolling plan (as discussed in 4.3.3.9), to a more detailed five-year strategy that could take the City up to 2014. It was built on the foundations provided by all the previous strategic documents and workshop outcomes mentioned above. It also considered key trends in the macro, competitive and market environments and lessons to be learnt from key ‘best-practice’ destinations (Heath, 2009d:1). One of the key marketing performance areas (out of only 5 areas) in this document, was indicated as ‘Promoting Tshwane as an events destination’. It includes establishing a Tshwane Convention and Events Bureau, as well as developing and executing a strategic Tshwane events plan. The document will serve as a secondary data source, and will subsequently be discussed in Chapter 6.

4.3.3.12 Tshwane Tourism Lekgotla

The Lekgotla was held in the wake of the World Cup under the slogan “Tourism opportunities and challenges in 2010 and beyond”. A very important topic was addressed at this conference, namely the way in which Tshwane can link into and benefit from the destination marketing and events strategies of the NTO, South African Tourism. The conference was followed by a tourism stakeholder workshop. The report on the outcomes of this workshop, as well as a ‘state of readiness’ presentation made by the 2010 Unit, will serve as secondary data sources and will be discussed in Chapter 6.
4.3.3.13 TITIIC Conference 2010

Similar to TITIIC 2008, tourism was presented as a key priority of the CoT’s strategy for local economic development. The key tourism offerings of the City that was promoted include the City’s location; heritage; economic activities; well-established markets (business, leisure and health); abundance and variety of conference facilities (400 facilities); a broad accommodation resource base (7 000 rooms); variety and number of attractions; shopping opportunities (including some of the largest shopping malls in the southern hemisphere); private health infrastructure; hosting of national and international sporting events; and a variety of major sporting facilities (City of Tshwane, 2010b). The event was branded under the composite logo of the City of Tshwane FIFA World Cup host city (a FIFA trademark).

4.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an introduction to the City of Tshwane, which was the case study for the empirical component of this research project. It indicated that the City has latent potential, with a great variety of resources and the imposing status as Capital City of South Africa. Detail was provided on the strengths and weaknesses of the City, as they were identified by two previous studies. These served to highlight some of the strategic challenges within the City. It became clear that the City has experienced specific challenges pertaining to stakeholder cooperation, the establishment of an RTO, the absence of a brand identity (linked to the name change issue), as well as carrying marketing strategies through to the operational level.

Significant work has been done within the City by a number of key individuals who have committed themselves to development of the City as a competitive destination. The major milestones for the City’s tourism strategy development, appears to be the first Tourism Fair in 2008 and the subsequent establishment of the TTAT. These actions have catapulted stakeholder cooperation and political will into a new direction; and have fast-tracked strategic worksessions, documents and action plans. In the light of the two mega-events held within the City (2009 and 2010), these developments have taken place at a critical time.
The chapter also highlighted a number of major workshops and events that took place at top level during the five years preceding the event. These instances have to be taken into consideration when determining the possible influence that a mega-event could have on destination leadership. Furthermore, five key documents were identified that can be considered as prominent secondary data sources for the case study. They have been indicated in the discussions, and will again be mentioned as part of the data analysis and findings.

The next chapter will discuss the research design, including a description of the inquiry strategy and specific research methods. It aims to explain why the described methodological decisions have been made and how they will serve in answering to the research objectives.
It is argued that many researchers operate according to their needs in relation to the research problem and research setting (Denzin & Lincoln in Phillimore & Goodman, 2004:20). In line with this, Phillimore & Goodman argue that “one of the strengths of tourism research is the fact that it is not bound to fixed disciplinary boundaries with their associated methods.” This can be due to the “interdisciplinary nature of tourism and the influence of research practices that have been imported from other, non-tourism-related disciplines” (2004:4). This chapter provides a comprehensive discussion of the research approach and methods that were utilized in this study.
5.1  INTRODUCTION

The following statement by Jamal and Hollinshead (in Phillimore & Goodman) serves as an apt introduction to the research paradigm and associated methodology used in this study. They stated that the move towards more interpretive, qualitative tourism research has asked for a more dynamic, experiential and reflexive approach, where social agents are central to the construction of knowledge and the researcher’s voice is one among many factors that influence the research process (2004:4). The researcher aimed to design just such a dynamic, reflexive approach; that would allow for the construction of knowledge to come from within the group of participating stakeholders.

5.2  A STUDY GUIDED BY INTERPRETIVISM

The research paradigm or set of beliefs that guided this study is that of interpretivism. In this genre, researchers have a full set of paradigms, methods and strategies at their disposal (Decrop, 2004:158). Research is based on interaction between or among the researchers and participants; with the researcher taking on an empathetic stance in an attempt to understand the complex and unique situation that exists because of a particular combination of circumstances and individuals (Saunders et al., 2007:106). The ontology (nature of reality) of this paradigm is described as complex, dynamic and subjective, thereby necessitating the researcher to take on a subjective view in order to explore the subjective meanings motivating the participants (Saunders et al., 2007:108). Interpretivism emphasises relativism by viewing reality as something that is not objective and single, but is socially constructed, holistic and contextual (Ozanne & Hudson in Decrop, 2004:157). This view fits in with the nature of the tourism industry as a complex, multi-dimensional system.

The epistemology (manner to create knowledge) is based on an interactive and co-operative relationship between the investigator and the object of investigation in order to gain insight into the experience of the participant. It relies on a “... holistic-inductive approach ... [where] ... the research phenomenon is investigated as a whole and
theoretical propositions are generated from the empirical field (Decrop, 2004:157). “The focus is on ‘thick descriptions’ in order to develop theory that makes sense out of a local situation.” In other words, the research took on an inductive approach with the aim to build theory (a framework) by taking particular notice of the context in which events take place (Saunders et al., 2007:119).

When considering the axiology (the role and place of the researcher’s personal values), the researcher’s interpretation greatly influence the research and all aspects of his/her observation are considered to be important. The researcher’s viewpoint, values and biases also influence the way in which they interpret phenomena and construct texts (Jamal & Hollinshead in Phillimore & Goodman, 2004:4) However, the researcher is not seen as the “all-powerful interpreter … [with] … their commentary accepted and venerated as fact” (Phillimore & Goodman, 2004:20). Instead, the researcher’s opinion is something that is regarded as open to interpretation.

5.3 THE BROAD RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is the detailed plan wherein the researcher provides an outline of how the research was conducted. It explains and motivates the researcher’s decisions and indicates how the researcher ensured and evaluated the quality of the research. The research design should ultimately indicate how the chosen strategy has addressed the study’s goals and objectives (Kotzé, 2009:2).

5.3.1 The research design summarised

The empirical component of the study took on the form of a case study research strategy, which is in line with the research paradigm and approach described previously. A multi-method research choice was employed to collect and analyse both primary and secondary qualitative data from the case study (Saunders et al., 2007:145). This research choice effectively served both the exploratory and descriptive aspects of the study. By using the combination of data collection methods, the different views present in the case study could
be established more reliably (Saunders et al., 2007:119). It furthermore assisted with establishing the validity of the findings.

The study was cross-sectional, as it looked at a case study at a particular point in time and participants were only interviewed once (Kotzé, 2009:6). All data collection took place before the beginning of the event with the aim of understanding the City’s readiness and preparation for the event. Documentary secondary data was used and written material was purposefully sampled from the City of Tshwane Tourism Division. Strategy documents, workshop reports and promotional material were studied to gain rich information on the City’s tourism strategy, as well as their strategy/initiatives related to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. For primary data collection, semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted. This allowed for meaningful discussions around a number of central questions pertaining to the research problem (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:146).

The decision to follow this specific research design is strongly supported by a statement made by Getz after he conducted an extensive study into the nature and scope of academic material within the field of event tourism. He stated that the positivistic approaches synonymous with management, economics and other social sciences remain useful, but that both qualitative and quantitative methods are required. He furthermore stated that “... the experiential nature of travel and events requires phenomenological approaches, including hermeneutics ... direct and participant observation, in-depth interviews, and experiential sampling” (2008:422).

5.3.2 A research design allowing for exploration and description

Getz argues that knowledge creation in the field of event tourism has been “ad hoc and fractionalized among diverse interest groups” (2008:419). He states that such an immature field of inquiry is mostly multi-disciplinary and has to draw theory and knowledge from established disciplines and closely related fields. It can be argued that this characteristic supports the decision to have undertaken exploratory research in the current study. The data gathered allowed the researcher to understand the ‘what’ and ‘how’, but also to go deeper into the ‘why’ of the case study (Saunders et al., 2007:313).
Due to the limited amount of existing work found on the topic and also the limited number of potential respondents, an exploratory research design offered the means to gather a great amount of data from a small sample (Struwig & Stead in Steyn, 2007:111). Furthermore, the objective of this study was to develop a framework of CSFs and strategic guidelines, and exploratory studies are often conducted as a first step toward the development of a new theory or model that can be applied in different situations (Page & Meyer in Steyn, 2007:111).

In addition, and as an extension to the exploratory research, descriptive research was done to portray a clear picture of the case study. When doing descriptive research, it is important to go further and draw conclusions from the data that you have described (Saunders et al., 2007:134). It should always be seen as a means to an end, and in the case of this study, it provided substance to the data collected through the exploratory phase.

5.3.3 The case study strategy

After an extensive evaluation of the academic material available on event tourism, Getz (2008) presented a framework for knowledge creation and theory development within the event tourism field. One of the prominent themes in the framework is the planning and management of event tourism. It includes topics such as stakeholder perspectives, policy issues, competitive advantage, leveraging events for additional benefits, and the goal of creating lasting event legacies. In order to answer the research questions that surround these topics, Getz suggests that case studies and benchmarking are needed to determine the most effective strategies and practices (2000:417). It is thus evident that a case study approach was most suitable to explore the topic of the current study. As there were no cross-comparisons between specific destinations and because destination competitiveness entails a myriad of possible indicators, a benchmark study was not suitable at this stage. It can, however, be considered in future research, once the proposed strategic guidelines and a framework of CSFs has been established.
A case study is an extensive examination of a single instance of a phenomenon (such as a mega-event) and aims to create an in-depth understanding of the dynamics that exist within a specific case. It is also suitable for learning more about a poorly understood situation and “it is useful for generating or providing preliminary support for hypotheses” (or in this case, the preliminary set of CSFs that have been identified) (Leedy & Ormrod: 2005:135).

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:136), reporting on a case study would include a few important aspects which, when related to this study, are as follows:

- The rationale for the case: explained in this section (5.3.3).
- A description of the facts related to the case: provided in Chapter 4.
- A description of the data collected: addressed in the current chapter (5).
- A discussion of the patterns found: done in Chapter 6.
- A connection to the larger scheme of things: done in Chapter 7.

For this study, the City of Tshwane in Gauteng, South Africa was chosen. There are a number of reasons why this specific city was chosen. Firstly, the researcher had previously done research for the City and so became aware of the City’s somehow slumbering potential. The researcher also took part in meetings of the so-called Tshwane Tourism Action Team and attended a number of industry related workshops and functions. During this time she gained a greater understanding of the role players in the City and the complex dynamics driving actions in the City’s tourism industry. It would therefore be appropriate to explore how the City’s tourism industry was preparing itself as a host city for the upcoming 2010 FIFA World Cup™, and how this event was being viewed from a tourism destination perspective.

The major weakness of a single case study is the fact that the findings can not with certainty be generalised to other situations. However inductive research, such as is the case in this study, is per se less concerned with the generalisation of findings (Saunders et al., 2007:120). Still, the researcher believes that by having provided adequate context to the case, it will allow for generalisation of the findings to other similar destinations (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:136). In addition to adding thick descriptions of the context, the researcher aimed to address this weakness by exploring existing case studies relating to
other mega-event host destinations, as part of the literature review. This was also done in an effort to add validity to the apparent CSFs before they were to be tested amongst the stakeholders.

The use of more than one case study is referred to as a collective case study strategy and is done in order “to make comparisons, build theory or propose generalizations” (Leedy & Ormrod: 2005:135). This strategy was also used by Stokes (2006:3) in her research on network-based strategy marking for event tourism, and in Getz and Fairley’s (2004:130) study on media management at sport events for destination promotion.

Figure 21 explains how a somewhat modified collective case study strategy was taken. Even though the researcher did not conduct the case studies herself, they were included as a substantial part of the proposed set of CSFs that were to be tested amongst stakeholders.

**Figure 21: A modified collective case study strategy**

![Diagram showing the research strategy]

**Source:** Developed for this research study

Having now established the research strategy that was taken, it is necessary to explain the nature of the data that was collected on the case study.
5.3.4 Undertaking qualitative research

To answer some research questions, we cannot skim across the surface. We must dig deep to get a complete understanding of the phenomenon we are studying. In qualitative research, we do indeed dig deep: We collect numerous forms of data and examine them from various angles to construct a rich and meaningful picture of a complex, multifaceted situation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:133).

Qualitative research and hermeneutics (study of text) is frequently connected with interpretivism (Decrop, 2004:157). It consists of an “array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate, and otherwise come to terms with the meaning, not the frequency, of certain more or less naturally occurring phenomena in the social world” (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:196). The focus is not on the quantity of information gathered, but rather on its quality and richness (Decrop, 2004:157).

The two common aspects of any qualitative approach is that it, firstly, focuses on phenomena in the ‘real world’ and, secondly, that it studies the phenomena in intricate detail (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:133). Even though this study started out with a general research problem, the research process allowed the researcher to gain understanding of the phenomenon and to start asking more specific questions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:134). The characteristics of qualitative researchers (as discussed in Kotzé, 2009:26-27) correlates with the focus of the current study, and appropriately provided the means to conduct research that would:

- allow for an understand of the topic from the view of the case study group;
- provide a lot of detail and a thorough description of the current situation and place it within context;
- allow an understanding of the process that lead up to the specific situation;
- be flexible and thereby able to explore new issues as they arose during the research process;
- work around and be flexible regarding the concepts and constructs under investigation, but still using them within the proper theoretical parameters; and
- have effective control over and apply credible judgement of the quality of the research being done.

When relating the purposes of qualitative studies (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:134) to specific stages in this study, it delivered the following results:
- describing Tshwane’s competitiveness and readiness to be a host city, by revealing the nature of certain situations, settings, processes, relationships and systems that exist within the City;
- evaluating the effectiveness of particular policies and practices within the City to effectively leverage mega-events for destination competitiveness;
- interpretation of findings to gain insights into how the current realities within the City affect its competitiveness and readiness; to develop new theoretical perspectives about this relationship; and to discover the problems that exist within this relationship; and
- verifying the validity of the assumptions and perspectives within the real-world context of the City of Tshwane’s stakeholders.

5.3.5 Deciding to undertake multi-method research

As previously stated, qualitative research and especially a case study approach requires the researcher to collect extensive data on the event in question. To gain deeper insight and a full description of the context, it was decided to collect primary, as well as secondary data, on the case study. Each of these types of data has its respective associated data collection methods. The resultant combination of data collection methods is referred to as a multi-method research. In the case of the current study, all of the collection methods employed delivered qualitative (non-numerical) data – thereby making it a multi-method qualitative study (Saunders et al., 2007:145).

According to Saunders et al. (2007:146), there are advantages to choosing multiple methods in the same project. Firstly, different methods can be used for different purposes (such as exploration and description). Secondly, different methods enable the researcher to do triangulation, which is an important practice to ensure the validity of qualitative research. The most important factor to consider when making the choice of methods, is to
ensure that they enable the researcher to meet the research question and objectives (Saunders et al., 2007:147). Figure 22 illustrates the data collection methods employed for the study.

**Figure 22: A multi-method qualitative study**

![Diagram of primary and secondary data sources]

Source: Researcher’s own construction

The next section will describe how individuals and objects were sampled to provide the primary and secondary data needed to conduct the case study.

### 5.4 SAMPLING

In the introduction to this chapter, it was stated that interpretive, qualitative research is a dynamic process where the researcher has a range of strategies and methods at disposal. These characteristics of qualitative research are also evident in the sampling strategy that was employed for this study, which will now be described.

#### 5.4.1 Combining different sampling techniques

Qualitative research is most often characterised by a non-random selection of data sources, in other words, the researcher will apply sampling purposefully. Individuals or objects will be selected because they have the potential to yield the most information about the topic (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:145) or based on their unique characteristics, experiences, attitudes or perceptions (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:204). The nature of the information that the researcher aimed to collect in this study, required the researcher to
employ purposeful sampling. This was done for both the primary, as well as secondary data (which will be explained in the next section).

Saunders *et al.* (2007:230) identified the following characteristics of purposeful sampling:
- It is used when working with very small samples, such as in case study research.
- It is used to select cases that are particularly informative.
- Findings from data collected in the initial sample will inform the extension of the sample into subsequent cases.

As mentioned in the characteristics of purposeful sampling, it is often necessary to pursue additional sampling units in order to gather sufficient information. This was also the case in this study and therefore snowball sampling was also employed as a secondary sampling method. In snowball sampling, additional samples are identified by participants and the sample is thus extended “... by relying on the experience and knowledge of respondents ...” (Steyn, 2007:113). In this study this not only applied to persons; for example, three participants referred the researcher to secondary data of great significance and related to their responses during the discussions.

The researcher also found it necessary to employ discriminant sampling by returning to two specific sources (individuals) in order to validate certain aspects of the proposed theory (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:145).

Throughout the sampling process, the researcher applied heterogeneous or maximum variation sampling. This means that the researcher aimed to include different (heterogeneous) individuals into the sample in order to get the maximum variety of opinions or perspectives. This technique fits in with the exploratory nature of the topic, as any emerging patterns would probably be of particular interest and were likely to represent the key themes (Saunders *et al.*, 2007:232). The principle of heterogeneous sampling also applied to the secondary data, as a great variety of documentary data was collected in order to do triangulation and to validate information supplied by the participants.
Regarding the sample sizes, Saunders et al. (2007:226) stated that, for the techniques of purposive and snowball sampling, “... the issue of sample size is ambiguous ... there are no rules.” Sample size is dependent on the research question and objectives – “... what you need to find out, what will be useful, what will have credibility and what can be done within your available resources ... The validity and understanding that you will gain from your data will be more to do with your data collection and analysis skills than with the size of your sample.” (Patton in Saunders et al. 2007:227).

5.4.2 Characteristics of the primary data sample

In this section, the focus is on explaining how individual participants were selected to be included in the study as sources of information.

5.4.2.1 The interview participants

In qualitative research studies, sample sizes are relatively small in comparison to that of quantitative studies (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:203). In this study, the sample size was limited by the number of key stakeholders in the City of Tshwane who are engaged in destination marketing and management, as well as event management.

In a study on destination competitiveness in Australia, Wilde and Cox (2008:472) also selected key tourism stakeholders and justified this choice based on the destination competitiveness literature. In his study on the relative importance of the various components of competitiveness, Crouch stated that “… judgement based on experience, expertise and insight is, in itself, a valuable source of information …” and that gathering and analysing expert judgment on the attributes of destination competitiveness is a viable approach and makes sense as a first step in estimating the relative importance and determinance of the various attributes involved (2007:6).

This study included a total of 20 participants from across the various sectors. They were primarily based in Tshwane, seeing that this was the case study area. However, three participants came from outside the Tshwane area (offices located outside of Tshwane), but
were still included in the target population, as they provided crucial information on the topic from a national perspective.

Because heterogeneous sampling was used and the aim was to ensure maximum variation, it was important to set the sample selection criteria before the sample was selected (Saunders, et al., 2007:232).

A balanced portfolio of information-rich participants was selected. The sample included individuals:
- from both genders (not race specific),
- from both tourism and/or event management,
- from both the public and private sectors,
- from various levels within organisations/companies (owners/top management/departmental), and
- who are regarded as experts in their particular fields or operational areas.

Figure 23 (pg.209) provides a layout of the individuals that were included in the final sample, indicating the variety of views presented in the sample. In order to ensure confidentiality, participants have been assigned with a code, which were not included in the figure, but have been used in the discussion of the findings. The details of the participant include their role, the industry category they operate in, and the type of organisation.
5.4.2.2 Photographs

Another form of primary data that was collected is photographs (Saunders et al., 2007:248). These serve as descriptive data and were included with the aim of substantiating (or contradicting) findings from the interviews. They were taken by the researcher, across the City of Tshwane before the event started. The aim was to collect photographic evidence of city beautification and official event-related promotion throughout the City (refer to Appendix I).
The photographs were regarded as part of the researcher’s observations made during the research process and it was the only way to provide evidence (or contradiction) to some of the statements made by the participants. The following criteria were used to determine the nature of the photos that were to be sampled:

- It had to be something mentioned by a participant during an interview.
- It had to be within the City of Tshwane.
- It had to be in public areas where permission would not be needed.
- It had to be recently put up / built (from beginning 2008), thereby increasing the probability of it being produced specifically for the 2010 SWC.
- It had to be photographed before the start of the 2010 SWC, in order to fall in line with the cross-sectional timeframe of the research as described in section 5.3.1.

5.4.3 Characteristics of the secondary data sample

Secondary data is existing data that has already been collected or produced for other purposes, and can serve as a useful source in assisting to answer the research question (Saunders et al., 2007:246). This type of data is primarily associated with descriptive research which, as already been stated, forms part of the current study. Within management research this form of data is most often used as part of a case study; hence also its appropriateness for the current study (Saunders et al., 2007:248).

The type of secondary data that has been included in the current study is referred to as qualitative, documentary secondary data. Written, as well as non-written material was purposefully sampled from the City of Tshwane Tourism Division. This was done to gain rich information on the City’s tourism strategy, as well as their strategy/initiatives related to 2010 FIFA World Cup™. Figure 24 (pg.211) illustrates the types of documentary data that have been included in the study.
Having now established the nature of the information sources that were sampled, it is necessary to explain how they were collected.

### 5.5 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

As already explained, each of the types of data that have been included in the study (primary and secondary), has its respective associated data collection methods. This section will describe the methods employed to collect the primary, as well as secondary data, and will also elaborate on the validity of the data that has been collected through these methods.

#### 5.5.1 Primary data collection techniques

In this study, the researcher decided to collect verbal, as well as non-verbal primary data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:96). The collection of these data sets will now be explained.

1. **Semi-structured interviews**

   The verbal primary data was collected through interviews, which in itself are defined as “... purposeful discussion between two or more people.” (Kahn & Cannell in Saunders et al., 2007:310). Interviews offer a means to collect valid and reliable data that are relevant
to the research question and objectives, and the type of interview used should therefore be appropriate for the research strategy that has been adopted (Saunders et al., 2007:310). When considering the fact that interviews are among the favoured tools in interpretive research (Decrop, 2004:157), this choice of data collection method thus supports the research paradigm of this study. Interviews were also used by Singh and Hu (2008:932) in their study on strategic alignment of a mega-event (the 2004 Athens Olympic Games) for destination marketing.

An important feature of interviews is human interaction; assuming that the individuals involved have unique and important knowledge about the situation under investigation and that they are able to transfer this information verbally (Hesse-biber & Leavy, 2006:119). For the current study, face-to-face, semi-structured interviews were conducted\(^\text{54}\). Semi-structured interviews are non-standardised and are used to collect data that will be analysed qualitatively, for example as part of a case study strategy (Saunders et al., 2007:313) – as has been done in this study.

Discussions were guided by an interview schedule containing themes and questions that were important to the researcher (Schurink & Crafford, 2010:85). The schedule was built around four broad themes. These themes were discussed and then elaborated upon at the hand of a few individual questions, tailored to get clarity or encourage the respondent to share aspects that seemed most important to them (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:184). The questions were not necessarily asked in a fixed order, but they ensured that all the relevant topics were covered during the interviews (Schurink & Crafford, 2010:85). This design was flexible and allowed respondents to discuss any additional topics that came up during the interview (Hesse-biber & Leavy, 2006:119). Refer to Appendix E (pg.347) for a copy of the interview schedule.

All the conversations were captured via a digital recording device and safely stored on a personal computer (as also used by Wilde & Cox, 2008:473). The researcher then proceeded with translation of the interviews as soon as possible, in order to ensure

\(^\text{54}\) Two interviews had to be completed via e-mail, due to time constraints of the participants.
accurate recollection and to add any additional observations made during the interviews into the analytic memos.

5.5.1.2 Analytic memos

The researcher also compiled analytic memos. These notes were made during the transcription of interviews and provide a record of theoretical ideas that emerged during the research process (Schurink & Crafford, 2010:75). Such memos are usually written at the end of a day by the researcher to “indicate themes that have emerged, and concepts that can be developed, together with preliminary thoughts about the analytic framework”. Writing such memos, also known as a fieldwork journal (Schurink & Crafford, 2010:75), forced the researcher to think about particular observations, to discover linkages and to verify evolving ideas (Schurink & Crafford, 2010:50). In the current study, the memos include some methodological notes (comments regarding the methodology used), as well as theoretical notes (to derive meaning from the interview content and situation, in an attempt to make sense from what was heard) (Schurink & Crafford, 2010:62). Importantly, any mental constructions were only regarded as preliminary analyses of the data and had to be verified by additional data from the same participants (Schurink & Crafford, 2010:63). The researcher opted not to attach the analytic memos to the final document, but that it would be available should there be any enquiry in this regard (similar to the transcriptions).

5.5.2 Secondary data collection

The collection of secondary data was done to establish details about the physical environment, as well as historical, economic and social factors surrounding the case study, in order to provide a context to factors that have an influence on the situation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:135-136).

Written material such as the strategy documents, workshop reports, minutes of meetings and organisational communication were collected through involvement in the Tshwane Tourism Action Team. Documents were also accessed through an academic expert who has been involved with the City’s tourism strategy development since early 2000.
Permission was granted to use these documents in the study (refer to Appendix F, pg.351, for the letter of permission). Printed promotional material and non-written material was primarily collected at the Tshwane Tourism Fair (Tshwane Event Centre, October 2008), Indaba (Durban International Convention Centre, 2009 and 2010), the Tourism Lekgotla (National Zoological Gardens, April 2010), the Visitor Information Office (Church Square, 2009) and the new Visitor Information Centre in Hatfield (beginning June 2010).

5.5.3 Determining the validity of the measurement instrument and secondary data

Validity had to be ensured in two regards: firstly, the measurement instrument for the verbal primary data collection; and secondly, criteria for admissibility of the secondary data (both written and non-written).

5.5.3.1 Validity of the interview schedule

As already indicated, semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect primary data on the case study. Refer to Appendix E (pg.347) for the interview schedule. It was important to determine the validity of the data collection instrument, in other words “the extent to which the instrument measures what it is actually intended to measure” (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:92). In order to test the validity, judgement by a panel of experts was used (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:93). Four experts in the field of tourism and event research were asked to critically evaluate the instrument to determine the extent to which it would actually measure the characteristics in question. Changes were then made according to their suggestions on wording, the focus of questions, and the inclusion of additional questions. Quality related to the interview process itself, will be discussed in section 5.7: Quality and Rigour of the Study.

5.5.3.2 Criteria for admissibility of the secondary data

One of the disadvantages of using secondary data, is that it is easy to gather data that does not match the researcher’s exact need (Saunders et al., 2007:260), and that a large amount of useless data may be gathered – a concern that is especially relevant to this
study, which included the destination’s promotional material and websites. Another concern regarding the secondary data is that the researcher does not have any real control over the quality of the data. Furthermore, the researcher has to keep in mind that the data was previously collected and collated for a specific purpose, and this will have an influence on the nature of the data (Saunders et al., 2007:262).

It becomes clear that careful evaluation of objects was necessary to determine whether they were to be included into the sample or not. The researcher had to consider the following aspects in particular (taken from Saunders et al., 2007:263-272):

- Measurement validity: it had to provide information that answered the research question.
- Coverage: it had to be about the City of Tshwane specifically and had to be within a specific time period (before and/or in relation to the 2010 SWC).
- Reliability and validity: it had to be from a reputable source or authority (also, where applicable, considering the methodology, the context, and the format of results).
- Measurement bias: understanding that it may have been deliberately distorted to gain certain advantages or was intended for specific target audiences (especially applicable to organisational records, minutes and memos).

In order to address the concerns discussed above, a set of criteria was established to evaluate the admissibility of the data. This was done in an attempt to guarantee the integrity of the research (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:91). Table 23 provides a layout of the criteria.

**Table 23: Criteria for admissibility of secondary data**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall suitability</td>
<td>The data contains information that is required to answer the research question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The measures used to collect the data match those required by the current study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The data set covers the geographical area that is the subject of the current study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Data about the study’s population can be separated from unwanted data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The data is for the right time period or sufficiently up to date</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 23: Criteria for admissibility of secondary data (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Precise suitability</td>
<td>- The data is from a credible source</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- It is clear what the source of the data is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Associated published documents exist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The source contains details for obtaining further information about the data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Take the original purpose of the data collection into consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Precise suitability</td>
<td>- Take the target audience and their relationship to the data collector or compiler into consideration (identify vested interests)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The data is consistent with data obtained from other sources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costs/benefits</td>
<td>- Take the financial and time costs to obtain the data into consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The data can be downloaded in a usable format</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The overall benefits of using the data outweigh the costs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Saunders et al. (2007:270)

Apart from the criteria set described above, the researcher would like to mention another aspect of the collected sample. Some objects were specifically selected in order to do cross-check verification (Patzer in Saunders et al., 2007:271). This means that samples from two or more independent sources were chosen specifically because they could either (a) suggest similar conclusions, or (b) suggest contradicting conclusions (Saunders et al., 2007:271).

Now that the data sets have been described and that it is clear how the individual participants / objects have been selected, it is necessary to explain how the data was analysed.

5.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis in qualitative research is characterised by inductive reasoning, where the researcher makes “many specific observations and then draws inferences about a large and more general phenomena.” The process is also subjective, as the researcher critically explores the data to (subjectively) indentify patterns (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:96). The process does however change throughout the continuous cycle, and the qualitative researcher will also use skills of deduction to verify the inductively formulated themes with additional data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:97).
According to Baptiste (in Schurink & Crafford, 2010:123), a qualitative researcher has to consider three issues before starting with data analysis:

- philosophical: what is theoretically possible according to the researcher’s values and beliefs about research;
- design: what is required by the research question and strategy; and
- contextual: the researcher’s skills and resources.

A case study researcher usually starts to analyse data during the collection process already (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:136). Leedy & Ormrod (2005:136) identified five steps synonymous with case study data analysis. Figure 25 lays out these steps, which were also applied during this study.

**Figure 25: Data analysis for case studies**

- Organisation of details (facts) in a logical order
- Categorisation of data into meaningful groups
- Interpretation of single instances that have specific meanings in relation to the case
- Identification of underlying themes and patterns that characterise the case more broadly
- Synthesis into an overall picture of the case and generalisations of findings that go beyond the specific case

Source: Adapted from Leedy and Ormrod (2005:136)

Correlating with these steps for case study analysis identified by Leedy and Ormrod, Baptiste suggested four general phases of data analysis in qualitative research. To describe the data analysis process of this study, the researcher decided to do so at the hand of Baptiste’s four phases (as summarised in Schurink & Crafford, 2010:125-127).
5.6.1 **Defining the analysis**

Data was analysed from within the interpretive paradigm, thereby stating that reality is something that “... could be discovered by means of a systematic, interactive, methodological approach ...” (Schurink & Crafford, 2010:20). The researcher adopted an empathetic stance in order to understand the world of the research participants from their point of view (Saunders et al., 2007:10). The goal of the study was not to find a single correct answer, but rather to seek a defensible perspective (Baptiste in Schurink & Crafford, 2010:125). The researcher’s role in the study was to describe the context and to make connections between what was said and what the researcher knew (based on the literature review).

5.6.2 **Classifying the data**

In the case of this study, the non-empirical phase already delivered a number of key themes (the apparent CSFs). These preliminary findings influenced the choice of data to be collected during the empirical phase (in other words, the data that were collected on the City of Tshwane). It was important for the researcher to determine whether the key themes already identified in the literature, were actually being regarded as key themes during the interviews.

The researcher read through the data as a first step in preparing for analysis. Specific techniques for reading included shifting sequence (changing the order of cases to avoid getting to rut); interrogative quintet (asking ‘so what’ to explore avenues in the data); and checklists (to highlight substantive issues such as activities, strategies and relationships) (Baptiste in Schurink & Crafford, 2010:125).

The researcher also recorded observations and ideas about the data to prepare for further analysis – an action called ‘annotating’ (Baptiste in Schurink & Crafford, 2010:126). The researcher also tried to relate these annotations to the fieldwork journal discussed in section 5.5.1.2.
Thereafter the researcher tagged the data. This was done by selecting interesting bits of data, as well as data that supported the purpose of the study (Baptiste in Schurink & Crafford, 2010:126). Seeing that the themes had, to a certain extent, already been identified through the literature review, the researcher decided to tag everything. This was done in order not to miss any additional aspects that had not been mentioned in the literature. The researcher tagged in parallel, meaning that the responses to individual questions were compared respectively. Data was mostly labelled from the literature, but in some instances required labels to come from the data (for example, when the issue had not been raised in the literature).

Lastly, the researcher organised and grouped similar data into categories. These categories were to a great extent already determined by the four themes and the sub-questions used in the interview schedule. It was important to make sure that the different categories were in fact sufficiently different to warrant distinct categories (which would later be turned into the various CSFs). At this point the researcher also had to make sure that each category (CSF) was supported by tagged data. Furthermore, the researcher had to refer to the fieldwork journal to see if there were any additional comments that could support/address the tagged units and categories (Baptiste in Schurink & Crafford, 2010:126).

5.6.3 Making connections

An important stage in the research is this stage, where the researcher has to relate concepts and categories, by using the skill of interpretation. The researcher focused on defining relationships and links between the different themes and categories, and also to determine which data would support the proposed relationships (Baptiste in Schurink & Crafford, 2010:126). The researcher’s fieldwork journal proved to be of great value to take note of specific realisations and to formulate new perspectives on the case (the ‘story behind the story’). The secondary data were also used to add greater description and support new proposed relationships.

The last phase of Baptiste’s data analysis, ‘conveying the message’, will be discussed in Chapter 6 seeing that it pertains to the representation of the research findings. The next
section will focus on the measures that were taken to ensure the quality and rigour of the study.

5.7 QUALITY AND RIGOUR OF THE STUDY

The quality of a research study depends on the manner in which the related issues have already been addressed in the research design phase, as this will guide the researcher in selecting the most appropriate methodology (Schurink & Crafford, 2010:49). Scientific rigour is associated with the quality of the research outcomes and requires the researcher to, on the one hand, be open and flexible, and on the other hand, to meticulously follow the chosen research paradigm and to conduct thorough data collection (Schurink & Crafford, 2010:53). This section will describe how the researcher aimed to address the issues of quality and rigour in the study.

5.7.1 Ensuring the quality of interview process

The quality of the primary data collected will to a great extent depend on the validity of the methods used to collect the data. The validity of the interview schedule has already been discussed in section 5.5.3. Data quality issues that specifically relate to semi-structured interviews include the following (Saunders et al., 2007:317-319):
- reliability (whether the same results would be revealed by other researchers),
- forms of bias (interviewer bias or response bias), and
- validity (to infer a meaning as it was intended by the participant).

The researcher aimed to overcome these and other data quality issues by employing different strategies. Table 24 (pg.221) summarises the issues and related strategies.
Table 24: Strategies to ensure the quality of the interview process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data quality issue</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>- Keeping analytic memos and a fieldwork journal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Credibility</td>
<td>- Being prepared for interviews by having knowledge of the research topic and the situational context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Supplying relevant information to participants before the interview (for example the interview themes or a copy of the interview guide upon request)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer and response bias</td>
<td>- Conducting the interview in an environment where the participant felt most comfortable, but with no/minimum distractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Shaping the opening of the discussion in such a way to ensure participant consent and trust (addressing confidentiality)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Phrasing questions clearly and avoiding theoretical jargon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Applying the critical incident technique to get the participant’s definite idea regarding an incident (Keaveney in Saunders et al., 2007:325)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Using appropriate non-verbal behaviour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Validity</td>
<td>- Applying attentive listening skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Summarising explanations or information given by participants</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Taken from Saunders et al. (2007:319-326)

The quality of the secondary data was insured by setting up a list of criteria for admissibility of the data, as already discussed in section 5.5.3.2.

5.7.2 Ensuring the overall quality of the research process

In a qualitative study, it is very important to be able to show how the quality of the research process has been ensured in order to substantiate the findings resulting from the research. In order to ensure the overall quality of this study, the following nine principles were applied (adapted from Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:154):
- purposefulness (the research questions drove the research methods);
- explicitness of assumptions and biases (any aspects that may influence the data collection and interpretation were openly communicated);
- rigor (rigorous, precise and thorough methods were used to collect, record and analyse data and the necessary level of objectivity was maintained throughout the study process);
- open-mindedness (interpretations were modifying as necessitated by new or conflicting data);
- completeness (the object of the study was understood in all its complexity and duly described);
- coherence (evaluating the consistency of findings and reconciling any contradictions that were presented by the data);
- persuasiveness (arguments were logically presented and sufficient evidence was produced for excluded arguments);
- consensus (getting agreement on interpretations and explanations from participants in the study and also scholars in the discipline); and
- usefulness (aiming to present conclusions that would add to knowledge of the topic and that would be meaningful in the future).

Two prominent qualitative researchers, Lincoln and Guba (in Schurink & Crafford, 2010:52) and Leedy & Ormrod (2005:100) argued that the term ‘validity’ does not aptly apply to qualitative research. They have suggested that the term validity should rather be replaced by words like credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability.

- Credibility: the match between the participants’ views and the researcher’s reconstruction and representation of it.
- Dependability: the logic applied to the research process, as well as being well documented and audited.
- Confirmability: the way in which the researcher provides evidence that supports the findings and interpretations.
- Transferability: the extent to which the findings can be transferred from the specific case studied, to another.

One way of increasing the credibility of a study is to do triangulation of different methods (Lincoln & Guba in Schurink & Crafford, 2010:52). By applying the concept of triangulation on the data collected, the researcher aimed to establish and manage the validity of the research. This means that all the information collected from the various data sets had to point to the same conclusion (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:136). In the case of the current study, the proposed CSFs and strategic guidelines had to be eluded to through the literature review of the two study fields (destination competitiveness and event management) and the various destination case studies in the non-empirical phase, as well as through the data collected from the case study of the empirical phase. The use of both primary and secondary data during the empirical phase, also aided in triangulating the findings (Saunders et al., 2007:139) (as discussed in section 5.6).
By identifying the context of the case (as discussed under 5.3.5) and providing ‘thick descriptions’ (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:100), the researcher contributed to the value of the research by allowing readers to draw their own conclusions about the extent to which the findings can be generalised (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:136).

Other measures that were used to ensure the quality of the research include the following (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:100):
- Feedback from others: The researcher asked experts in the field whether they agree or disagree that the research has made appropriate interpretations and valid conclusions.
- Respondent validation: The researcher took her conclusions back to some of the participants and asked them whether it made sense based on their own experiences. This was not necessarily done after the fieldwork was completed, but in most cases was done during interviews. The researcher asked participants to repeat themselves, or said their statements back to them in other words and checked whether they responded positively (agreed).

5.8 RESEARCH ETHICS

Ethical issues in research can be divided into four categories (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:101). These categories will be used to briefly discuss the ethical issues that had to be addressed during this study.

- **Protection from harm**
  In this study, participants were not subject to undue physical or psychological harm. They were not forced to comment on anything which they felt uncomfortable with.

- **Informed consent**
  Participants were informed about the nature of the study and were given the choice to participate. There was no foreseeable reason to withhold the true nature of the study from participants. Participants were not offered any form of incentives to encourage participation. Refer to Appendix F (pg.351) for a copy of the informed consent form that was used in the study.
• **Right to privacy**
  Participants remain anonymous and in no way have their individual responses been linked to them as persons; accept if explicitly given permission to do so (e.g. when a person gave a statement as an expert in the field).

• **Honesty with professional colleagues**
  Findings have been presented in a complete and honest manner and do not contain misrepresentations for the sake of supporting a particular conclusion. Any use of another person’s intellectual property has been acknowledged, and any official or company documentation has also been duly indicated.

Another issue to consider includes permission from organisations to interview their employees. Refer to Appendix G (pg.353) for a copy of the letter by the Director of the Tshwane Tourism Division giving permission to interview staff members. This letter also gives permission to the researcher to use certain documents as part of the research study.

Considering the fact that case study research is a continuous process, research data was continually updated and securely stored as the study progressed. Information gathered from previous participants was also not shared with other participants in order to avoid any form of bias that this could create. Even though interpretive research requires the researcher to take a subjective stance (Saunders *et al.*, 2007:107), the researcher aimed to remain objective and not allow a subjective opinion to interfere with the research.

The research study was also pre-approved by the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences’ Research Ethics Committee; implying that it adhered to their requirements for ethical clearance.
5.9 CONCLUSION

From the description of the methodology, it becomes clear that this study was true to the nature of tourism research; not being bound to fixed disciplinary boundaries with specific associated methods. The nature of the topic also benefited from such a study, as it allowed for greater exploration of a broad theme and assisted in gaining knowledge from two study fields. Through the inclusion of existing case studies in the literature review (Chapter 3), it was possible to add credibility to the proposed set of CSFs (Chapters 2 and 3) before testing them in the context of the propose case study (Chapter 4). It also assisted in the purposeful selection of knowledgeable participants, as well as identifying relevant primary and secondary data that could add insight along the lines of these proposed CSFs. The next chapter provides the findings from the empirical research done within the City of Tshwane.
The aim of this chapter is to present the findings from the primary data collected through semi-structured interviews, along with relevant secondary data. Discussions will begin with participants' perspectives on the current level of competitiveness of the City of Tshwane (CoT), followed by information that specifically relates to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The purpose will be to validate the framework of CSFs that has been presented at the end of Chapter 3. Furthermore, the researcher will aim to determine the extent to which such an event could contribute to a destination’s competitiveness (the participants' perspectives on the City’s current competitiveness, compared to the areas where the event under investigation is expected to contribute in terms of the CSFs).
6.1 INTRODUCTION

For purposes of data analysis, transcriptions were analysed according to the framework of the apparent set of CSFs as it was refined in Chapter 3. The researcher aimed to determine to what extent and in which format the individual CSFs and respective performance areas were in fact being recognised and considered by participants. This would also allow for the identification of additional issues that may not have arisen from the literature, but that were perhaps specific to the context of the case study. Such possible new issues would then have to be included into the framework in an appropriate manner. In order to ensure participant anonymity, no codes were used as references. In some instances reference was also made to secondary data (with in-text referencing), where it was found appropriate to present such data in support or contradiction to participants’ statements. In section 6.2 the researcher opted to provide only a summary of participants’ opinions, as a detailed analysis of the CoT’s competitiveness was not a primary objective of the study. Such a summary could still, however be able to provide the data necessary in later detailed discussions of the CSFs within the case study context. From section 6.3 onwards, the researcher used a more personal literary style and included the participants’ own language and perspectives in order to capture the complexity of the case being studied (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:97).

6.2 THE COMPETITIVENESS OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE AS A TOURISM DESTINATION

Before addressing the CSFs, it was decided to first present participants’ opinions on the CoT’s current level of competitiveness. This would allow the researcher to understand how existing practices within the destination may have either supported or hampered event-related initiatives. Table 25 (pg.228) presents the strengths and weaknesses of the City, based on the opinions voiced by the participants. Firstly, it indicates the individual aspects of the City’s ‘general’ tourism destination competitiveness (described in the left-hand column); followed by the number of participants that mentioned the aspects. It also indicates the extent to which these aspects were similarly regarded as important in terms of the City’s competitiveness as a host city for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™
(described in the far right-hand column). The frequency counts (and percentages) have been added in order for the researcher to determine the relative importance of the respective issues. This could in turn be useful to verify the contribution that events, if approached according to the CSFs, could make to key aspects of destination competitiveness.

Table 25: Aspects of the City of Tshwane’s competitiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STRENGTHS</th>
<th>General</th>
<th>2010-specific</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Iconic sporting facilities (High Performance Centre; Loftus).</td>
<td>2 10</td>
<td>2 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong sporting teams based in the City (rugby and soccer).</td>
<td>1 5</td>
<td>5 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rich history and familiar icons (Union Buildings, Voortrekker Monument, Freedom Park).</td>
<td>9 45</td>
<td>3 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home of government and Capital City status.</td>
<td>4 20</td>
<td>3 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diplomatic presence in the City.</td>
<td>5 25</td>
<td>4 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location (central in Southern African context; easy to get to surrounding regions; “in the centre of gravity”).</td>
<td>4 20</td>
<td>5 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variety of attractions and experiences.</td>
<td>5 25</td>
<td>4 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good quality accommodation facilities.</td>
<td>3 15</td>
<td>2 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great physical environment (including climate).</td>
<td>3 15</td>
<td>4 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WEAKNESSES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battle to define City’s identity and uniqueness (linked to branding).</td>
<td>5 25</td>
<td>1 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of pro-active strategy to package product offerings.</td>
<td>5 25</td>
<td>3 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of major leisure features (like beaches, mountains).</td>
<td>4 20</td>
<td>3 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of continuity in City leadership (turnover of people).</td>
<td>2 10</td>
<td>- 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor service delivery.</td>
<td>2 10</td>
<td>2 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The absence of an RTO (ability to market).</td>
<td>4 20</td>
<td>8 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political issues (systems, agendas) hindering destination progress.</td>
<td>5 25</td>
<td>1 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of a large convention centre.</td>
<td>3 15</td>
<td>- 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintenance of existing attractions and facilities.</td>
<td>2 10</td>
<td>1 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The name change issue.</td>
<td>4 20</td>
<td>4 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence of a cutting edge visitor information centre.</td>
<td>1 5</td>
<td>4 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of a flagship event.</td>
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Source: Researcher’s own construction

From the table it can be seen that most of the strengths and weaknesses seem to carry the same weight in general terms, as well as with the prospect of an upcoming event. There are some strengths and weaknesses, however, that become more significant, while others seem to lose their power. In terms of the strengths, the fact that certain sporting teams were hosted in the City, became quite significant. It can be argued that the question would be whether the City was able to fully capitalise on this opportunity; more than what it had done when other teams had based themselves in the City. On the other hand, the key
icons of the City which were usually used as the unique selling points of the City, seemingly lost their significance. As one participant stated: “Yes it’s the seat of government and it has the Union Buildings where Mandela was inaugurated, but how attractive is that to a soccer visitor? No really.”

When looking at the weaknesses, there were several weaknesses that became seemingly less threatening in the light of the event. These include leadership issues, lack of a destination identity, and internal political issues. Though these were regarded as less critical for the event, they are very important issues in terms of the destination’s overall competitiveness. Furthermore, as one participant stated, it is not as if these issues would disable the destination from hosting the event, but it would minimise the long-term benefits and effective leveraging of the event for competitiveness. What is important, are the two weaknesses that have gained weight in light of the event. They include the absence of an RTO, and the lack of a proper Visitor Information Centre (VIC). These points are closely linked, as a VIC would fall within the priorities of an RTO. Furthermore, the previously mentioned leadership and identity issues, would also be addressed if an effective RTO was to be put in place. From this it can be seen that in general, but also pertaining to the destination’s event efforts, the existence of an RTO is a critical success factor that affects all of the other CSFs (as they have been identified thus far in the study).

In order to place these strengths and weaknesses into perspective, it was decided to relate them to the destination competitiveness model of Ritchie and Crouch (2003), as it has been discussed in Chapter 2. Based on the data presented in Table 25, the model in Figure 26 (pg.230) indicates the City’s perceived competitiveness before the event.
When giving an opinion on the competitiveness of the City, participants were either very positive (3), very negative (10), or gave a ‘yes and no’ explanation (5). The following statement effectively sums up the general opinion that the City has a lot to offer, but that strategic changes were needed to harness the slumbering potential.

“Mostly when you think of tourism you think of Cape Town or Durban. Now being here, I have completely changed my mind. In a positive way, because I’ve met the industry, the key roleplayers, and have learnt to know the City and what the City offers. So now I can base my opinion, not on the opinion of others or what you read or hear … But I also think that, if you compare the City with other cities, it still needs to do a hell of a lot to maybe market, to sell the concept – yes, from a marketing perspective we need to do more to really showcase what we’ve got to the outside world.”
6.3 APPLICATION OF THE CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS IN THE CASE STUDY CONTEXT

As stated in the introduction to this chapter, transcripts were analysed according to the framework of the apparent set of CSFs as it had been refined in Chapter 3. During the data collection stage, the CSFs were not explicitly mentioned or discussed as part of the interviews (refer to the interview schedule, Appendix E, pg.347). However, content analysis of the transcripts was conducted in order to determine whether destination stakeholders did in fact (spontaneously) refer to the apparent CSFs. The researcher also aimed to establish the types of changes that could be brought about in a destination’s competitive strategy, as a result of a mega-event. When exploring these CSFs, it is important to remember that effective event leveraging will not only depend on doing extremely well in one aspect, but rather by giving consideration and addressing all of these aspects.

“In terms of the City getting ready, it has not only been a few individual things – it is a complimentary of many initiatives”.

6.3.1 Addressing events as a strategic destination priority

The first CSF to be tested among stakeholders, was the importance of having visionary leadership that can understand the importance of events within the broader competitiveness of the destination. If this is present, it is expected that an appropriate event tourism strategy will be developed that can effectively guide the destination. This section will explore the issue of leadership within the CoT; while also aiming to establish a picture of the ‘ideal’ situation that has to be present in order to optimally leverage events.

6.3.1.1 Guided by visionary leadership

“You need a good team and a good strategy. You have to have committed people guided by strong leadership - politically and operationally. You have to have qualified, skilled people at the head of the process”.
When critically looking at a destination’s leadership, it is always necessary to consider it within context. “The CoT cannot in fairness be compared to Durban or Cape Town who have, throughout their history, been focused on tourism. It’s an evolutionary process … [but] decision-making in the City has progressed in the last 10 years.” With this in mind, the researcher aimed to proceed by objectively stating the facts as they had been presented during the interviews.

Within the CoT, the process of establishing an RTO were progressing slowly (as indicated in Chapter 4, Table 22). Six participants stated that the absence of such an entity was a critical issue that needed to be addressed within the CoT. Not only did it affect the City’s ‘general’ competitiveness, but also specifically in terms of the destination’s ability to optimally leverage the 2010 FIFA World Cup™.

“The RTO is the one thing that can ensure events’ success in the future and it creates the platform”

It created a situation where Government’s politically motivated development mandates were given primary consideration for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ (as indicated by five stakeholders). This is not unusual, as has been stated in the literature in Chapter 3. However, the absence of an RTO that could strongly represent and drive the tourism cause, could affect the destination’s ability to retain a major tourism legacy from the event.

“Make sure not to use a mega-event to sell negative political points of view. [The politicians] need to understand the bigger picture. You need to educate everybody and to share the message with everybody – and I think that is still a problem [in CoT].”

What counted in the destination’s favour, and which were heralded by eight participants, was the existence of the Tshwane Tourism Action Team (indicated in Table 22, Chapter 4). As one participant noted: “I’m excited about the Tshwane Action Team and what you’re doing … one must try and balance the [government] objectives with what we’ve got on the ground, and I think there the TTAT is doing a great job. They bring the professionalism to local government.” A matter of key importance for this Team’s ability to fulfil this duty, was the fact that it was formally recognised at mayor level. It was stated that any future event-related partnering, as part of the destination’s overall strategy, would have to happen as a
combined relationship of the (envisaged) RTO, the TTAT and the Tourism Division. “It
cannot be a one party-led initiative – it has to be complimentary between all these
individuals”.

It was clearly stated that it was the City’s (or relevant DMO entity’s) responsibility to define
what the destination is. Everything that the DMO does in terms of events, should be
aligned to its strategic marketing objectives, whether it is to increase numbers for
economic benefit, or whether it is to raise awareness of the destination. Very importantly, a
mega-event has the potential to change strategic thinking about events.

“Part of what the World Cup has done, is that it has helped us to think about all
these things and to create a national agenda around the issue. Previously it was
very hard to motivate authorities to start thinking about it. And I think the World Cup
has helped us and, if anything, if the World Cup is to leave a legacy, that’s just it –
to leave a very proactive national event strategy on the table that government can
consider.”

The leaders within a destination have to understand that each type of event will have its
own implications for the destination. Once a specific event is chosen, the leaders
(including the DMO), has to be proactive in order to leverage the specific event type to
the maximum benefit of the destination.

“And still I think that the mayors of the host cities very easily signed the host city
agreements. But now when we come to operational implementation, I am of the
opinion that, if we had more background and information on how these rules and
regulations were going to impact the physical operation on the ground, maybe it
was not that positive an idea to bid for the [2010 World Cup] event. In my
experience, it is as if we in SA or the CoT, just accept what we are told and we try
to comply with that and solve the problems behind the scene. The Germans [2006
World Cup] were more confrontational and did their own thing.”

It is clear that mega-events have the potential to change strategic thinking around events,
but also to bring change to tourism strategy in general. It was stated that the rapid
developments that took place within the City’s tourism strategy process (described in
Chapter 4) was not as a result of the events (2009 Confederation Cup and 2010 World Cup).

“No, it’s got a more larger perspective. But obviously it’s taking into consideration the biggest event Africa has ever hosted. So, I think it is not out of context – it’s within that context. But we didn’t just drop everything and focus on 2010 and now we’re going to redevelop or reinvent another strategy after 2010”.

Still, it did provided a good reason to be more proactive, to fast-track planning and strategic actions, and to highlight some of the “most important things that we have to put in place to prove that we can compete” (given the window of opportunity that the event would present).

6.3.1.2 Developing an integrated events tourism strategy

It was unanimously stated by all participants that an event strategy was a non-negotiable if the City wanted to compete in the events market (“It’s crucial”; “extremely important”; “definitely”; “vital”; “absolutely important”; “critical”). It would serve as the tool through which to align all events within the City; to align all the relevant government departments and divisions; to clarify stakeholder roles; and to commit budgets.

The importance of understanding what happens at a national level in terms of events, became very clear during the interviews. If you want support for your city-level event, it should be within the framework of the national event strategy. “The events that the City have hosted, have never been hanged onto a large marketing bell. Even though SAT will not necessarily get involved in city-level events, a big event that is properly managed by RTOs and event organisers, are at least listed and get a little bit of attention when SAT markets [on their events calendar].

A city cannot support an event if it is not supported nationally (in line with the national event strategy). In the same breath, the national DMO can not support an event if it is not supported at a city level. As one participants stated: “You cannot host any event if there is not a national strategy which is aligned to the provincial strategy which is aligned to the local strategy. That three levels of government is key otherwise you are going to do
something that is not recognised by anybody, and you won’t get funding for that and you’re gonna play small games.” At the time of the interviews, the event strategy of the CoT was in fact put on hold, because they were waiting for SAT to finish the national strategy (as confirmed by three participants). In this regard, one participant stated that “we should rather lead than being lead”. In his opinion, nationally there existed a desire to support local event initiatives. “But we [national] can’t tell you what you are capable of. We [CoT] therefore need to be able to say [to them] what we are capable of – and for that we need consensus”.

South Africa developed an event strategy in 2007 (as indicated in Chapter 4, Figure 19, pg.173). In this strategy they indicate that they would be focusing on sporting and lifestyle events. Once a destination chooses to enter the events market, it has to clearly define what types of events it will include as part of its portfolio. It then has to “play very aggressively in that space”, because there may be several other destinations also playing in that same field. This is definitely the case with sporting events where “sports have become a sort of new economy”. The choice of the World Cup, for example, forced South Africans to work together in order to fit in with the “soccer crazy culture familiar in Europe and South America”. It seemed that it could actually be to a great advantage for the CoT if there was a national focus on sports events. As already indicated in Table 25 (pg.228), Tshwane had a strength in sporting facilities. It was also stated at a 2010 steering committee meeting in 2007, that the City’s vision for 2010 would include “Being known as the sporting capital of Africa”. Three participants stated that the 2010 event brought the opportunity for the ‘traditional’ national sport of rugby (along with its supporters), to partner with the soccer culture and fans. In this regard, two participants mentioned that the CoT missed out on a great opportunity to open up a new market for itself.

“I mean, Loftus is an Afrikaner icon – it is there because of rugby. We should have used that to encourage white Afrikaans South Africans to support soccer and the World Cup. But we have not taken that opportunity to go into that market”. Also “Why didn’t we go to Victor Mattfield [Captain of the South African rugby team, as well as the Blue Bulls; thus ‘based’ in Tshwane] and asked him to become the icon/champion to lead and drive the thinking behind the game in Pretoria?”
A local DMO has to understand that, for a city-level event to be supported within a national event strategy and marketing efforts, it has to have a strong brand. Otherwise it will be risking not only the event, but also the country as a destination. In this regard it was suggested by one participant that the City has to consider effectively collaborating with large event companies to bring in more events into the City.

“Thinking of when the City hosted Robbie Williams, with 70 000 people attending. We should think of becoming globally competitive through these types of events. If the City is serious, we will have to work in collaboration with such companies [in this case, Big Concerts]; to look at doing an effective plan so that we have at least one big event a month”.

The national strategy will also determine which cities are eligible for which events – “don’t compete for and waste resources on bidding for events that will always be given to other cities”. This statement was also supported by another participant: “Look at Indaba – if you want to compete, you have to have a facility that is the same or better than Durban … [Through their re-investment of money made from the event into the facility] they have created a monopoly over the event. Their facility is custom-made for the event”.

An event strategy has to include practical issues, such as business operating hours and ablution facilities in the destination. Very importantly, a destination’s event strategy has to be aligned to what is happening at a national level in this regard. Two participants gave valuable inputs in this regard, based on their practical experiences as event organisers.

“Tshwane has to stop existing in isolation from the rest of the world. If you compare what happens in Johannesburg, Durban and Cape Town, Tshwane is like an island. Our enforcement of the Act on Public Safety, the Liquor Act, Recycling … I can mention any aspect of an event … some things are very old fashioned. Other things are unnecessarily strict, for example certification of structures like a stage: they will only accept certification from one authority (a specific individual)”.

If a destination has outdated structures in place, it will not be an attractive event host destination to prospective event organisers and owners. Both these participants especially made mention of the CoT’s existing structures in terms of event safety, as it was being controlled by emergency services.
“In Johannesburg, their JOC is involved in every event. At meetings in Tshwane you have to tell them what we need. They are not in charge of things”.

It is critical to get experts and representation from the events industry associations and members, to give their inputs into the strategy.

“It’s important to sit down and think: how are we going to write any new act [event strategy] in such a way that it marries the needs of the municipal divisions with that of the events industry”

Without going into too much detail on the practical issues of events management (which falls outside of the scope of this study), it is critical that a DMO will have representation from the events industry when it writes its events tourism strategy. It will also be necessary to have representation, in some form or another, from event industry experts on the RTO’s events unit.

Critical to an event strategy, is furthermore the task of post-event evaluation. A DMO has to communicate with stakeholders in order to identify the lessons learnt from the event. It will also assist the DMO in understanding the destination’s various strengths and weaknesses pertaining to event hosting. Future event-related strategies of the destination can only be competitive if they are based upon such evaluation (PAR01). In the case of the CoT, the lessons learnt during the Confederations Cup in 2009, were used to “realign and rearrange our operational plans toward 2010. Almost all our operations plans were rewritten. You have to be flexible. There were only five cities hosting the Confeds Cup, and I think I’m quite fair against other host cities to say that, from that and the feedback from that, Tshwane has done the best”. Furthermore, the 2010 Unit incorporated an extensive research project to establish the economic, environmental and infrastructural impact of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ within the CoT. Key to the research was partnerships with Tshwane University of Technology, the University of Florida in USA, as well as the host cities of Polokwane and Mbombela. The project was set to focus on the following aspects:

- Residents: attitudes, perceptions and experiences from different socio-demographic groups about the 2010 World Cup™ prior to and following the event. Specifically investigating identity, psychic income, and nation building.

- Visitors: perceptions and experiences during the event. Specifically investigating awareness, event image, destination image and social responsibility.
As a last point, two participants alluded to the fact that an event strategy had to indicate how money made from the event will be reinvested into facilities to strengthen the destination’s events offering.

6.3.2 Clarifying the broader stakeholder roles and relationships

In order to give an overall perspective of the key stakeholders within the CoT that were involved in the event, it was decided to present them at the hand of an illustration (Figure 27), based on the researcher’s understanding after conducting the interviews. This may make it easier for readers to understand how the event was managed within the City, before exploring the roles of each different group. Figure 27 indicates a number of key relationships between the stakeholders. From the perspective of destination marketing and management, the most important linkage was between the 2010 Unit (the event organiser) and the Tourism Division (the “acting” DMO in the case of the CoT). This is in line with what has been found in the literature. This relationship, as well as the other important linkages, will be explained in the discussions that follow. The role of the LOC office will not be discussed, as this office did not focus on the city level like the 2010 Unit did. They also did not address the tourism industry, but talked to the general public and addressed issues like safety and security, health, and issues around permits and exclusive zones.

Figure 27: Organisation of the City of Tshwane for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™

Source: Researcher’s own construction
6.3.2.1 Identifying the key event stakeholders

In order to discuss the event stakeholders that were involved within the CoT for the 2010 FIFA World, they will be mentioned according to how event stakeholders have been identified in Chapter 3 (pg.118). The aim is to determine their roles, but also to establish whether these are indeed the key stakeholders of an event.\(^{56}\)

- **The leading role of the DMO**

  As indicated in the previous section, the CoT did not have a DMO at the time of the study. It was however indicated that the enquiry and approval process would be completed successfully in May 2010, and was said to be established in the 2010/2011 financial year (Gcabo in Anon, 2010b). As already indicated, the TTAT in partnership with the Tourism Division, performed the role of DMO for the City to a certain extent (as indicated in Figure 27, pg.238). The Team undertook several initiatives around the event, and it is important to look at some of these initiatives, in order to determine how and where they could fit in as part of the CSFs for the leveraging of mega-events. These initiatives will be discussed under the respective headings.

  Key to any DMO efforts, appears to be a dedicated unit/division that focuses only on the events offerings of the destination. “You’ve got to have people really punting destinations in terms of events”. Such a unit should be a contact point between the DMO and event organisers, suppliers and markets. It will also have to perform various tasks within the overall destination strategy.

  “That’s what’s needed – people [event organisers] need an entry point – people that want to host or if we know of an event that we want to bid for. You need a coordinating structure to do the costing years ahead [of a mega-event] and to get things in place.”

  What seems to be key to any DMO in general, but especially also in the case of an events unit, is dedicated, skilled staff.

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\(^{56}\) The broader events tourist market will be discussed in Section 6.3.4.6; and the media as key event stakeholder in Section 6.3.4.3.
“The thing is, you can put it [an event strategy] on paper, but you need support from different levels. You need political support, down to operational level to implement it. You have to have an A-class type of team. Even if you have a B-class strategy, you will be able to implement it.”

A case-in-point observation made by the researcher, was the fact that some of the participants who had to perform key tasks in terms of the City’s marketing for the event, were seemingly uninformed. For example, 30 days before the event, the researcher managed to interview three participants simultaneously as a group (two involved with marketing; one with product development). One of the participants directly involved with promotion, was unaware of where the media centre would be located. Two participants were totally unaware of the fact that there were plans to “light up the City for the 2010”. One participant explained how the 2010 Unit “printed thousands of these brochures for the City, but they don’t have distribution channels. It lays in their offices. It must be at the hotels and other places”; whereupon another participant exclaimed that she herself had forgotten to send through the distribution list to them.

There are several other tasks that any future DMO of the City (or its events unit) will have to perform in order to effectively leverage mega-events as part of an event strategy. At city-level, the DMO should create new events, create support for and grow them. Once they are big enough, you can involve the private sector and the DMO at national level. It is also important to list criteria that will be used to select events, and to determine what type of support will be provided. The DMO has to determine what role it chooses to play: “Do we see ourselves as a sponsor, as funding your costs as an events organiser, or is it just about helping you to grow your event”.

At national level, SAT identified six focus areas for their 2010 Tourism Organising Plan: accommodation, transport, safety and security, marketing and communication, skills levels, and information management. Most of these things are out of the DMO’s control, but it is necessary to constantly lobby and ensure that all the required measures are in place for an event. The DMO also has to represent the interests of the local tourism industry members in the various event-related projects.

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57 Refer to the discussion on the role of government and political groups for more on this last point.
There seemingly were plans in place to develop such an events unit within the envisaged RTO, and to base it on lessons that had been learnt from the 2010 World Cup.

“I think it [legacies] will depend on the RTO and we have to ensure that we don’t lose the lessons that we learn now. The City has to maintain the existing structure, like a permanent LOC, for any future event and that can work permanently on it. If there is one thing that remains, it’s the way that the departments have worked together. You can’t start from scratch with every event.”

One participant, who had been involved in the organisation of successful major annual events, provided some perspectives of what a destination has to offer to event organisers. From the event organiser’s perspective, a destination (or its events unit) should:

- have a permanent point of contact where an organiser can get all needed info, and build a long-term (familiarity) relationship with (“we [event organiser] had to work now [during the 2010 World Cup] with people in the City that don’t know us and how we work – so you have to start explaining yourself all over”);
- have a proper disaster management system in place;
- have updated systems and structures in place (in terms of permission and certification requirements);
- be able to provide the support that they promised up front;
- have high quality venues and the desired crowd numbers (“go where the audience is that fits with the event”);
- be attractive to sponsors as well, in order to finance the event;
- have sufficient media exposure and publicity channels available; and
- be willing to give over its public domain to the event brand for the duration of the event (“once a brand owns a City for a weekend, they must leverage everything”).

• Managing the difficult relationship with the event organiser

As can be seen from the previous discussion, the relationship between the destination (through the DMO or its events unit) and the event organiser is critical. It is important to understand that a mega-event belongs to the event owner (in this case FIFA). The LOC (the event organiser in the case of a mega-event) is responsible for ensuring that all
the event-related rules and regulations are adhered to. It appears that the relationship with an LOC is no easy matter. At the beginning of the preparation process for the World Cup at national level, for example, there were a few challenges, because people, in some instances, did not understand their different roles. People were also sometimes withholding information; some people could not be contacted easily; while some people weren’t properly employed in their positions. Fortunately things changed for SAT in the last two years leading to the event. “In the last two years the cooperation has been unbelievable. From SAT’s perspective we’ve got great relations with FIFA, excellent relations with LOC, we sit on their marketing sub-committee – we influence what they do. The whole ‘Fly the Flag’ campaign was a jointly run campaign. It was driven by the IMC, SAT, SABC, government, the LOC – it’s been a partnership approach and that’s why it’s been a success story”.

In the CoT, the role of event organiser was fulfilled by the so-called 2010 Unit, consisting of five strategic clusters (as indicated in Figure 27, pg.238). They had to liaise with the local FIFA LOC office, which consisted of local expertise and that had to report directly to the main FIFA LOC that operated at the national level. The 2010 Unit comprised a group of individuals (specialists in their fields) that had been appointed by the City. It was headed by a managerial team, the Executive Mayor and City Manager of the CoT (City of Tshwane, 2010a). They acted on behalf of the City and had to carry out the local government’s mandates. In this way, the event organiser for the 2010 World Cup was a public entity. In order to manage the event on behalf of the City, they looked at all the strategic documents within the City’s line departments, aligned them and wrote single strategies for each of the five clusters within the Unit. As indicated in Figure 27, the Unit included a ‘Marketing and Communication’ cluster. This cluster was responsible for the delivery of all major events around the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ including the Fan Fest™; all communication and media engagement; as well as all marketing and branding activities (City of Tshwane, 2010a).

Three participants indicated that there was good cooperation between the 2010 Unit and the City’s Tourism Division, despite some challenges.

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58 Refer to section 6.3.3.4 for a discussion of the legacy mandate that the 2010 Unit has to focus on.
“I will say it's like a forced marriage – you have to make it work. I can see in the 2010 office there's a lot of clashes. You have the political sphere that wants the maximum potential to go to the local community. And that's fine, because it's their mandate .... [But the appointed project team] The project team sees themselves as outside consultants and their job is to get things done the way FIFA wants it ... so they are struggling to balance the demands from FIFA versus the City Council”.

Cooperation was especially important when considering that the 2010 Unit would be **deciding on and producing marketing and branding materials, as well as content of communication and media statements.** In the absence of a formal RTO, it was extremely important for the Tourism Division to also represent the interests and opinions maintained by the TTAT, as this entity had been tasked with the responsibility of managing the destination’s marketing strategy. Even though the 2010 Unit was represented at many of the TTAT meetings, it was in a sense the Tourism Division that would ultimately have to ensure that the destination’s strategy was taken into consideration by the event organiser (2010 Unit). “There are things [where the tourism strategy is accommodated] like the VIC, the website we are getting in place. We have info, we communicate – I think not nearly as much as we would have wanted to, but we just don't have the means”.

More will be said about the actual event-related marketing activities of the City in section 6.3.4, where the CSF of alignment with the overall destination marketing strategy is discussed.

When a DMO wishes to collaborate with the event organiser, it is important to do so **right from the start.** The **event organiser also has to be accommodated** in the destination in such a way that it can perform its tasks optimally. This will in the end only be to the benefit of the destination. This comes back to a previous statement that a DMO must have a **dedicated events unit.**

“During the World Cup we’ll be having briefing sessions every morning to make sure that the team is on top of everything. We report directly to the mayor, avoiding all the red tape, and that is a good thing.”
The important role of government and political groups

Government has to decide which mega-events it will support, as it requires public funding and it means committing the entire country (or specific host cities) to the rules and regulations of the specific event. So national government has to support host cities in order to fulfil the promises that they made to the event owner. From a national DMO perspective, government at city level has to establish a working group or task team to bring together all the relevant departments, including tourism, to get the city ready. They have to properly ‘dress’ the City and ensure that there is enough event branding around the City. They are also in charge of all other logistical issues (traffic management, the operating hours of the hospitality sector, safety and security). By giving attention to these matters, the City authorities are actually contributing to the competitive identity of the destination.

“In certain destinations where you are expecting to be confronted with certain things like grime and poverty – you expect it and you’re not going to get away from it. But in South Africa there’s almost an expectation that we have similar standards to Europe and the United States. Now if you don’t deliver on that promise, you are putting your entire brand at risk, so you need to ensure that these promises are going to be fulfilled.”

In the case of South Africa, and the CoT, the destination appeared to have an advantage, because the international world didn’t always know what to expect. One participant stated that “people expect something, but they don’t know what they expect … when they come here they get a surprising first world experience. But it’s not, it’s just different, a South African experience. That’s to our advantage: the ‘under-promise over-deliver’ principle”

Government is also responsible for ensuring that development brought on by the event benefits the local economy directly. They should ultimately have to indicate in their event policy that local people and SMMEs are to be procured for the various projects undertaken during event preparations. Government has to find ways for local businesses to comply and be part of the event. In the CoT, this was done by creating smaller types of events (such as public viewing areas and craft markets) where SMMEs could tender, based on government rules. Economic implementation “can only
be successful if you partner the politicians on executive mayoral level with business and compliment that with small business within the city. If it comes from one sector only, the other sector will never accept.” This reiterates the point that the DMO has to be representative of the various local tourism industry sub-sectors when partnering with government, in order to ensure sustainable benefits to the destination’s tourism industry members.

- Tourism industry members as suppliers to the event
The suppliers involved in an event consists of a wide range of sub-sectors, including accommodation, tour operators, car rental, airlines, entertainment and retail outlets. It appears that industry members will not necessarily regard a mega-event as a positive occurrence. One participant indicated that many of the accommodation establishment owners in the CoT were not positive about the 2010 World Cup. “… many times the ‘tannies’ [white ladies] will say: Oh, I don’t like 2010. Look at our town, it’s not clean. Look at the pavements”. There seems to be a deeper rooted problem than mere scepticism about this one event: “… they feel negative towards the City based on bad service delivery, which is a normal thing. So they’re at the point where they don’t want to make contact with the City and they have nothing good to say towards the City’s Tourism Division.” If a destination wishes to have the cooperation and commitment of its tourism industry members for the hosting of an event, it is crucial to communicate in order for them to voice their concerns. An event creates the opportunity to renew relationships throughout the industry. In the CoT, the 2010 Unit played a very important role to re-align the various accommodation (splinter) groups with the City. This was done by holding weekly 2010 Host City readiness presentations to different sectors. At these informal meetings, issues and concerns were openly discussed. In many instances it was necessary to make commitments in terms of budget and capacitating individuals. This event clearly created an opportunity within the City to build bridges and to create linkages between the industry stakeholder groups within the City.

A mega-event will stimulate growth of the events industry within a country, and this industry is very important in terms of the destination’s ability to adequately supply to the events market. More will be said in this regard in Section 6.3.3.1.
• The critical role of the local community

It is important for residents to be enthused about an event and to participate by being present at event venues (stadiums, fan parks, public viewing areas, public spaces). Two participants stated that residents of the City had to get out of their houses, into the streets to where the games were being played; that “during a big match, the City should not be quiet”. This is especially important as part of the visitor experience.

“Today we are talking about cultural interaction and Pretoria should have come up with activities where internationals could interact with locals and have that cultural exchange ... It’s not just important to enjoy the area; you have to enjoy the people”. And “You’ve got to get your country excited about an event and for your people to be good hosts. This is what truly makes the event a unique experience, because it is experienced through the culture of the people.”

A city has to determine where it can link into national initiatives. For example, the Welcome Campaign of SAT, which was aimed at improving service delivery and hospitality of ordinary citizens.

“Are we really going to be welcoming or are we going to ‘rob them blind’. Are we as ready to inform them, give them tips. It’s also about locals being willing to direct you to the local hangouts/spots – it gives a great experience”.

In order for local residents to give an event such support, it is necessary to make them understand the benefits and privilege of being a host city. It is not only political buy-in that’s needed for a destination to host an event successfully, but also the support of the ordinary citizens.

“You have to get if from the normal person on the street. [They need to understand] it’s more than just soccer: it’s a unique thing; it’s a mega-event.”

Residents need to understand that public money is being spent, but that they will be benefiting from it. Three participants stated that not enough communication has gone out to the “rate payers”.
“It’s an opportunity to get our house in order – so it’s an advantage for the residents of the City. The City is being cleaned up and we are finally getting some of the services that we have been waiting for for a long time”.

- The investors introduced to the destination through an event

It is important to recognize the key role of events as catalysts to create new entrepreneurial opportunities, or for attracting more investment into the destination in order to provide the additional services required by a mega-event. In the case of mega-events, like the 2010 World Cup and the Cricket ICC, which was held in South Africa in 2003, there were very specific sponsors that were signed as private partners to the event. The DMO is not a competitor to any of the commercial partners of the World Cup. “In fact, most of the commercial partners see us as adding value to their bottom line – for them it’s a credibility issue. So without investing too much money into these associations, it’s easy because they need you more than you need them.”

- Allies and collaborators of the DMO

Usually the tourism industry and entities from other sectors work in silos (for example the sports industry). Create platforms where the relevant sectors of a specific event, or even just the events sector itself, can interact with the tourism industry. Partner with industry associations that can assist in getting the product offering of the destination ready. SAT partnered with the Tourism Enterprise Program and the Grading Council to educate the industry about the Match contracts. Within the CoT, there was collaboration with South African Tourism Services Association (SATSA) for tour operator training; with the Tourism Enterprise Partnership (TEP) for Customer Care Toolkit Training and Business Skills Toolkit Training. The City also partnered (through the 2010 Unit) with the Gauteng Tourism Authority (GTA) and TEP to grade and re-grade accommodation facilities (Anon, 2010a). The DMO should also consider partnering with tourism industry associations that are accommodated within the destination, to create a strong destination promotional campaign that can run alongside the host city marketing campaign (as was done in Germany in 2006). One participant stated that the CoT didn’t use the strong role players based in the City, like the National Parks Board and Forever Resorts, as a selling point. A previous
discussion indicated how academic institutions can be regarded as DMO allies when it comes to event evaluation and impact assessment.

6.3.2.2 Adopting a networking approach and stakeholder cooperation

“Lack of proper communication between the various roleplayers can be a challenge – as there are various different departments within the City that are involved in the event in some way ... It does not affect its ability to act as a host city, but the long-term benefits of the event may be limited if visitors are not fully exposed to what the City has to offer, or are disappointed by what they find during their visit”

For any destination marketing and management structure to function optimally, it has to be representative of both the public and private sectors. Yet, it also has to have some autonomy to be able to make decision outside of the public bureaucratic structures. “You need a champion. You need the buy-in of business, complimented by politicians.” This is not only true for DMO practices in general, but also directly relate to a destination’s desire to enter the events market.

“On a big event you need to cooperation on a local, provincial and national level to get the event here. If the public sectors works alone – you can only have success up to a point. Private sector has the product and you need that. Maybe they can own some of the resources, but they need supporting services”.

The DMO has to get buy-in from destination stakeholders into an event strategy, as well as getting consensus on the selection criteria for future events. It is crucial for all destination and event stakeholders to understand that the success of a mega-event depends on the collective efforts of all the government departments along with the various stakeholder groups.

“People tend to not know anything or wanting to know how ‘I’ can benefit, but not understanding that it’s about how the collective can benefit”.

As is the case with strategic thinking around events, a mega-event clearly has the potential to change stakeholder relationships within a city. If was found that some
participants from the public sector and private sector didn’t know about each other’s work in terms of preparing for the 2010 World Cup.

“What they plan to do … it’s the best kept secret” (a private sector product owner, commenting on the final approved marketing activities that still wasn’t known 30 days before the event).

Furthermore, within the municipality itself, as with many other governmental structures, the different line departments were working on their own strategies; working in “silos” (a description used by four of the participants).

“For example, one of the sections within the LED unit is tourism; where a person from the tourism division asks me ‘who is that person’, and they actually work in the same department”

Upon asking whether stakeholder relationships had improved as a result of the event, the answer was clear.

“Yes, definitely, absolutely. If it wasn’t for the event, you would have had all these divisions and for the TTAT it would have been even more difficult. Because the event brings to the table expertise, but also budget and alignment of individuals. And I talk from a practical experience point of view. The event brought individuals, personalities together to reach that [same] goal.”

Key to promoting such stakeholder cooperation in the preparation and execution of a mega-event tourism strategy, is timely involvement of stakeholders and commencement of plans. This point was raised by five participants, and included aspects such as informing product owners on the usage of their venues; the choice of the fan park venue; the distribution of promotional material; and sharing of knowledge on marketing decisions.

“I think Tshwane has done very little. It hasn’t pulled together its people, held planning sessions. The fact that they left things up to the last minute to tell you that our venue will not be used…”

“I’ve seen that the banners that were up last week, has been taken down. It’s a month before the time and there’s not a lot of time left”
6.3.2.3 Understand and give consideration to stakeholder interests

The DMO has to understand the interests of the various stakeholder groups when they aim to collaborate with them for an event. The stakeholders’ interests will determine their actions and levels of commitment. The purpose of for example sporting federations (as allies), is to get as many people as possible to attend the event, in order to make more money from sponsors and broadcast right sales. The DMO has to be able to offer them the desired number of attendees (or indicate your plans in this regard), in order for them to support the destination. The DMO also has to provide assistance to local industry members, whose interests are often not served by the event organiser. In the case of the 2010 World Cup, the accommodation industry in the CoT, in some instances, was found to be very negative toward Match, its rules and regulations, as well as the forced contracts (as indicated by six respondents).

6.3.3 Managing the resources of the host destination

It has been stated in the literature review, that mega-events require the inputs of a great variety of resources. Most of these resources are not under the control of the DMO; yet the DMO will play a very important part in their effective mobilisation. This section will mention some of the resources that need to be mobilized, and will focus on defining the DMO’s role in this process.

6.3.3.1 The importance of having a database of destination resources

One participant stated that it was very important for the City to know exactly what it has available and what it can offer to tourists. Only then would it be possible to use facilities to the maximum benefit for the City. Another participant agreed with this statement.

“We can manage to retain annual event [the number of existing events within the City], but we don’t yet have a proper plan to get in new events into the City because we don’t know what we have to offer. Or maybe we focus on the wrong things for the wrong reasons. Currently they are packaging funny things and are leaving out our excellent products”.
Key to a resource database, is the **capacity and mechanism to do proper audits and to maintain this system**; something that was apparently lacking in the City.

“There was one [audit] done a long while ago, where it was found that we were the 4th in Africa in terms of conferences. With the political change in 1998/1999, the existing tourism division in the municipality actually collapsed. And this information was in their records”

Despite the absence of a comprehensive accommodation and attractions database and auditing system, the 2010 Unit managed to electronically map graded and non-graded facilities, GIS coding as well as places of interest in the City. They gathered their information from various accommodation databases. One participant commented on this same electronic map.

“I went to the 2010 office and suggested that they had to have a meeting with the 4 relevant [accommodation] associations. When the 2010 unit representative showed me their map … Some of the accommodation associations were not even indicated and very few of the existing available establishments were actually indicated on the map. So the associations finally got their members on the 2010 website’s map”.

It is clear that an audit system has to be established and maintained. However, it is also important that the **DMO will use such a database** to make sure that the **event organiser knows of existing facilities** within the destination and make use of them during a mega-event.

Any database should also include the **destination’s offering in terms of event suppliers (including venues)**. At that stage, the CoT had the CSIR and Tshwabac as its main two facilities, along with several small facilities (stated by four participants). The City furthermore had the potential to build up a strong base of conferences and events “because of all the government departments”. Ironically, one participant stated that government continuously opted to take its own conferences outside of the City to Johannesburg, instead of supporting its own products. Another participant added in similar vein that was “remarkable” that Pretoria didn’t have anything in the league of Cape Town, Johannesburg or Durban’s convention centres; especially when considering that it is the seat of government. One participant indicated that there was a plan on the table to develop
just such a facility, but that the process was being held back because of political interference in the ownership and development of the facility.

Another important aspect in terms of event supply, is establishing a comprehensive calendar of all events that are taking place within a City.

“A cycle race was on the table to Hartebeespoort Dam and we wanted to get permission for it. We were told that the Mayor has her own cycle race going on. Why can’t all event organisers come together, set up a 3-year calendar and decide how they can assist each other?”

6.3.3.2 Using resources to create event specialness

To effectively leverage a mega-event for destination competitiveness, much more is required than just successfully hosting the event without any major incidents. It appears that sometimes a destination will have resources as part of its ‘normal’ tourism product that can actually enhance the specialness of the event experience. It was stated that the architecture of most of the houses (including tourism accommodation) in the CoT created a ‘plattelandse’ (village) feeling. This lead to the City being able to offer a combination between a cosmopolitan and a homely experience.

However, a DMO cannot just take for granted that these resources will ensure event specialness. Four participants stated that nothing ‘extraordinary’ was being done in the City to create event specialness. According to them, the City was merely fulfilling the requirements, without doing anything different, unique or spectacular.

“But we are doing it to the book, to the [host city] contract … Our main focus is to execute the host city agreement”.

“The City has followed the LOC recommendations to get ready. But it’s difficult to point out anything where I think we were a leader. Everything is as is expected, but it’s nothing unique.”

In defence, one participant stated that there was in fact an effort to create a “uniquely African feel” and that a lot of training had been directed to especially SMMEs and entrepreneurs to try and do that. The City also addressed the issue of event specialness.
by focusing on local entrepreneurs and by including them, to provide tourists with a unique event product. In this regard, it seems important to create **opportunities where local elements can be showcased**.

“The City will use the fan fest to communicate to the City and at the fan fest locals will sell their crafts and food. At the fan fests, there’s going to be an African kitchen for example. We are also busy with many areas around Loftus where locals can sell their arts and crafts.”

### 6.3.3 Quality of infrastructure and event-related resources

“The construction industry – all these things that have developed and it’s not directly related to the 30 days of the event only ... What happened in the last six years since we won the bid, is the biggest contribution that the Cup has made”

Events stimulate upgrading and expansion of infrastructure; thus indirectly **contributing to the quality of the resources** in the destination. It also assists the destination to **develop infrastructure that can support any future event-related strategies**.

"There were plans to improve the infrastructure, but there were no specific details yet. And I think FIFA has come and given us that detail. And the advantage now is that it has been done in such a way that it will be able to handle mega-events in future."

“And I’m not saying that only for 2010 – we should continue to keep upgrading, because if we are successful, the world will look at us to host similar types of events.”

Events also force a destination to **re-evaluate the quality of its existing products**. In the case of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, accommodation establishments had to be signed up with MATCH in order to be officially promoted, and for that they had to have a star grading. In this regard, a DMO can effectively **make use of allies/collaborators to undertake projects** to improve the quality of tourism product offerings (as discussed in 6.3.2.1).
Table 26 summarizes the opinions of participants in this regard. It distinguishes between the number of participants that had either a positive or negative opinion on the work done by the CoT to get ready for the event.

Table 26: Upgrading of infrastructure in the City of Tshwane

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infrastructure component</th>
<th>Positive N(20)</th>
<th>Positive %</th>
<th>Negative N(20)</th>
<th>Negative %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Roads</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gautrain</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loftus Stadium (upgrades)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attractions</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signage&lt;sup&gt;59&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public spaces (cleaning and beautification)&lt;sup&gt;60&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local transportation (bus, taxi)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table it can be seen that participants mostly felt more positive in terms of upgrading of roads, Loftus Stadium, signage in the City, as well as the cleaning and beautification of public places. Issues where participants had a more negative opinion included upgrading of accommodation, attractions, local transportation, as well as safety and security. Interestingly, none of the participants mentioned Wonderboom Airport, which served as a key access point during the event<sup>61</sup>. Brief reference will now be made to each aspect that received any negative comments, in order to understand participants’ reasons behind the negative opinions. This could indicate areas where a DMO needs to play a proactive part to address the related issues.

- **Major upgrading of roads**
  Though the majority of participants felt positive about the upgrading of the roads that took place in and around the City, two participants voiced a concern that it would not be properly maintained. Two participants also stated that a lot had been done, but that it wasn’t finished in all places. “It has improved a lot, but it’s not ready yet”.

<sup>59</sup> Refer to Appendix I (pg.362) for photo evidence of the tourism and traffic management signage in the CoT.

<sup>60</sup> Refer to Appendix I (pg.362) for photo evidence of city beautification done for 2010.

<sup>61</sup> Refer to Appendix I (pg.362) for photo evidence of upgrades and branding of Wonderboom Airport.
• **Increased quality, but with a loss to the accommodation industry**

In terms of accommodation, the event brought new opportunities to grade and re-grad accommodation facilities in partnership with GTA and TEP (Anon, 2010a). However, the issues surrounding MATCH seemingly caused great upset in the industry. Though it brought the opportunity to upgrade facilities, it also brought strict regulations and fixed contractual agreements between industry members and MATCH. The big problem was that MATCH, at the last minute, released rooms and left many accommodation establishments with large numbers of untaken beds.

> “I think we’ve restricted the number of people that came by giving MATCH a monopoly – we didn’t have much choice. I think the way that MATCH procured and then gave away, actually was damaging [to tourism product legacy].”

In such a situation, **DMO can assist its industry members** if it has the necessary structures in place.

> “If we had an RTO … for example Match giving beds back. If the RTO was in place, a faster, stronger campaign could have gone out to get the empty beds filled again.”

On a different note, four participants stated their concern in terms of the **excess in bed capacity** that had been created in the City.

> “Many people want to capitalise on all the influx and there are a lot of new accommodation establishments in the City. We’ve got existing stock in the marketplace and now we have new stock coming in. After the event, what are going to happen with all the new stock they have to compete with?”.

• **The Gautrain would not be in time for the event**

Only two participants regarded it as a major drawback that the train line to Hatfield in Tshwane would not been completed in time for the event. The majority of the participants mentioned developments surrounding the Gautrain as a great benefit to the City, especially in terms of the future potential of the City.

• **Weighing the options of a new stadium against major upgrading**

There were different opinions on the City’s decision to **upgrade Loftus Stadium instead of developing a new stadium**. Two participants stated that, despite the existence of Loftus, they still regarded the City as ‘lacking an iconic stadium’ for the
World Cup (when comparing to the new spectacular stadiums built in five of the other host cities). Two participants stated that Loftus, as the home of South Africa’s most successful local rugby team, definitely warranted at least major redevelopment. One aspect where the City would have an advantage above other host cities, is the fact that there would be definite after-use of the stadium.

“The country built stadia in Polokwane, Port Elizabeth and Nelspruit and we don’t even have a premier league to be anchored at those venues. We still haven’t been able to negotiate with rugby to permanently move to the new stadiums; like King’s Park Stadium which is right next to the Moses Mabida Stadium in Durban”.

- Low priority given to maintenance of existing attractions

It was stated that, even with some upgrading being done, the City’s attractions still didn’t offer enough to tourists. Two participants stated that mere maintenance was not enough. “It needs to be taken to the next level”. And “We have to start thinking in terms of experiences – the products alone no longer can stand on their own. You have to do more, because people want to be transported into a different environment when they enter an attraction”.

One of the key reasons for the limited attention to existing attractions within the City, appeared to be the availability of budget, political support, and the ownership of the attractions.

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“From a tourism division side, we have to go back to council with a good supporting document for the maintenance of these things. But we are sitting with good product. The Flagship Institute that owns many of the museums – the problem that they have is that they don’t have marketers. They don’t package.”

To the contrary, one participant gave a very positive comment in this regard. “Yes, oh yes. Everybody has cleaned up their act in some way. Because there has been an emphasis on being customer focused. A lot of upgrading and refurbishment has been done. So for the next five to ten years, we can be assured of a quality product”.

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62 The matter of insufficient product packaging will be addressed in Section 6.4.3.12.
• **A lost opportunity to address public transport**

As one participant stated: “*We don’t have a good public transport system – our weak link*”. Two participants felt strongly about the City not being able to establish a major **Bus Rapid Transport System** (BRTS).

“I think the strong legacy is a bit of an issue. If you take Johannesburg – they’ve got Rea Vaia up and the taxi industry is part of it ... In Tshwane we got the buses, but it’s not yet turned into product.”

One participant stated that, despite the new municipal buses, the transport system had not properly been improved throughout all the **important nodes** in the destination.

“The municipal bus for example, doesn’t even ride between the City and Centurion where the fan park is and the [international] teams will be hosted.”

• **Improvement and maintenance of public spaces**

One of the key projects of the 2010 Unit was City Beautification. This was not unique to Tshwane, but was a FIFA requirement for all host cities. Three participants stated that beautification had not taken place in their parts of the City (where their products are situated), despite being located in the inner-city. Two of these places are regarded as key attractions of the City. Two participants raised the issue that city cleaning had to **continue after the event**, if the City wished to build equity for its brand as Capital City.

“But it’s also about cleaning up the city streets [literally]. We should look like a world class city – we are the capital city of Africa. [It’s important to focus on] where the tourists are going. Any city where you go to, will have their bad areas along with their touristy areas”.

“You can’t just do this window dressing for the event, because if you want to be competitive in future, remember that this is what we’re associated with as a City”.

• **The continued concern over safety and security**

Seven participants indicated that they were still concerned about safety and security; also in terms of visible policing. Safety is an important aspect of the **visitor experience** and the DMO has to communicate to them in this regard (as will be discussed in section 6.3.4.5). It is obviously also important to **communicate on these aspects to**

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63 Refer to Appendix I (pg.362) for photo evidence of City Beautification projects in the CoT.
the tourism industry. The CoT did in fact manage to make great progress in this regard, but the industry didn’t seem to know about it.

“The way in which safety and security had to be structured according to FIFA, has forced us to rethink and be creative in our plans. The City now has a JOC [Joint Operations Centre] for the event … And I think we as a capital city stands out in this regard. The guys [safety and security division] went to Germany to find out how it was done and brought that contingency plans to us.”.

Another point which became clear, is the fact that a mega-event (positively) forces a destination to improve its internal structures. Two participants directly involved in the events industry, for example, stated that the City was behind other cities like Johannesburg, which had an effective JOC to deal with the organisation of events from a municipal level. However, in the quote above, it was indicated that the City did in fact establish just such an entity. Another participant involved in events management during the World Cup, commented that “behind the scenes, the disaster management people have been very prevalent. There are some really capable people on the team”. This again comes down to communication between stakeholder groups.

6.3.3.4 Service delivery and human resource development

Similar to the quality of infrastructure and resources, a mega-event presents an opportunity to focus renewed efforts on service delivery and human resource development. The quality of the human resources involved, seems to be a critical factor for any event, but especially in the case of a mega-event. “You need committed, positive, well-educated industry members”.

In terms of the tourism industry specifically, the 2010 Unit undertook several capacity building initiatives to motivate and train local industry members on the important concepts and components of a unique and special tourism product. In fact, local capacity building was indicated as the major focus area of the 2010 Unit’s Legacy Division.

“We as the CoT has decided that our legacy is rather\textsuperscript{64} capacity building, small business development specifically focusing on the previously disadvantaged areas,

\textsuperscript{64} As opposed to infrastructural component that focuses on upgraded roads, stadia etc.
youth, women, people with disabilities … So we make sure that, with the implementation of all 2010 projects – be it the softer capacity building projects or be it the infrastructural upgrading projects, security, marketing and communication – all of those projects are now forced by this legacy strategy to build capacity. To make sure that it stimulates the local economy, small business development. We see that as legacy – what we leave behind after 2010. We have for example helped them to upgrade their B&B’s or to train their staff”

Such focus on capacity building ensures a more sustainable and competitive destination offering in the future. It does not only relate the accommodation hospitality, but has to attend to various other roleplayers throughout the destination. The 2010 Unit undertook a total of 23 capacity building projects that included different training projects. Key to these initiatives was that these projects all looked “holistically at capacity building projects, not only focusing on 2010 but post-2010 business-wise”. The projects included the following initiatives (Anon, 2010a):

- training of 30 tour operators and guides;
- training of 30 SSMEs in customer care;
- training of 60 SMMEs in business skills;
- service Ambassador Training of 500 SMMEs and 700 volunteers; and
- hospitality Skills Training of 60 accommodation SMMEs.

In the case of CoT, capacity development had been an initiative of the ‘event organiser’ (the 2010 Unit) and the tourism industry could benefit from this initiative through representation by the Tourism Division. This may however not always be the case with other events, especially smaller events, where the event organiser is not so concerned with local development within the destination. The DMO will have to take a proactive approach to ensure that the event organiser contributes by making use of local expertise and resources. This could perhaps be something that has to be built into the destination’s events tourism strategy.

Of crucial importance is the host destination’s ability to capture the event organisation knowledge that is gained during an event. This was a point made by five participants.
“What we need to do is make sure that the intellectual property and resource of knowledge is kept. I hope they will consider to, like with the Rugby World Cup, there was the legacy of a coordinating committee and it was one of the most efficient structures for events in the City. Unfortunately politics got involved afterwards”.

“The events division of the RTO will learn a lot from the 2010 Unit. And their experience will also be relevant to the City: what it can offer; who the roleplayers are; the products and gaps. So it’s making sure that knowledge doesn’t go to waste. And the report should also be accessible in a user-friendly format – not a hard copy somewhere in a file”.

“A problem is: they’ve brought in specialists in their fields, but for the rest of the year you [an event organiser] has to work with people that know their jobs [fire, safety, etc.], but that don’t understand events”.

One way of ensuring that event knowledge is retained, is by **making use of local expertise and by investing in the training of local event organisers** (as mentioned by three participants). In this way, the CoT could have gained more in terms of human resource development that would also be appropriate for future event strategies.

“I think a disadvantage is the fact that so many foreigners played a role in the planning of the event. The City could have involved more of the local event organisers to get their expert opinion, but also to train them on how it works.

One participant also stated that “You take this one event and skill people over a period of time to manage this event, and then transfer their skills to other events of the City over time.”

Another participant added to this point by stating that the City should have considered calling a meeting among interested city tourism stakeholders, so that it was more of an in-house office with local knowledge.

Apart from service delivery training of the tourism sector and the use of local expertise to organise the event, an event can also contribute to human resource development through **volunteer programmes**. As was found in the literature, this is a widely applied principle and is used in all mega-events. The 2010 Unit established 31 registration portals throughout the five CoT regions where candidates could apply. A total of 3292 applicants applied to be volunteers in the City, of which 2600 were City residents. In the end a total of
680 volunteers were recruited (Anon 2010). This indicates the power that an event can have to bring a change to the lives of the local community, but also to broaden their perspectives of the world (as stated by two participants).

### 6.3.3.5 Importance of the tourism value chain for a seamless event experience

During a mega-event, all the different sectors in the destination have to work together to create a ‘seamless’ experience for the tourists while they are there. “[A critical success factor to be a host city] A seamless tourist experience and I’m talking about the whole tourist experience – from booking, to hotel, to transport in the City. I mean, our slogan is ‘Tshwane – Experience It’. So it has to be a problem-free experience”. In a similar vein, another participant commented that “there are so many things that can affect a tourist’s state of mind from their accommodation to the time that they actually sit in the stadium. They will be there with a certain state of mind and have an expectation of the event to make them feel better/happier/more impressed. So everything has to be premium from beginning to end for them to have a great experience”.

This point was explicitly mentioned in many of the pre-event workshops (including the Tourism Fair and Lekgotla). This task can however not be left to the DMO to achieve through product packaging alone. **All the individual product owners and service providers have to carry across the same (brand) message to tourists.**

> “Because the City can do only this amount of marketing, but every touch point in the City will be our greatest marketing tool”.

The tourism value chain members have to **understand the needs of the specific event type’s market**, in order to adapt their operational approach. Sports fans, for example, want to “celebrate or commiserate and you can’t have places closing early. You need adapted business hours to cater for the nature of the fans. Otherwise you lose business, but you also stop people from having a good time, and remember it’s all about a good experience.”.
6.3.4 Ensuring an event marketing strategy that is aligned with the overall destination marketing strategy

The following statement by the Sugen Pillay, SAT’s Global Manager for events, concisely captures the key principle behind an event marketing strategy.

“When you start working on your marketing campaign for the event, it can’t be something that’s specific to the event ... we didn’t create a campaign that was specifically targeted at the World Cup. We never used any images directly depicting football. It was targeted at a football fan, because a football fan is all about celebration and party, but it’s to get in the mind of the football fan that South Africa is a fun destination. So ... it is to leave an impression in his mind ...”.

6.3.4.1 Have a single entity to communicate the destination message

From a destination management perspective, it is the DMO’s task to determine how the destination aims to position itself by defining what is unique and special about the destination. Only with this being established, can tourism industry stakeholder know how to position themselves in their individual strategies and for a specific event. In the CoT, this was one of the burning issues (as indicated in Table 25, pg.228); and mentioned in previous discussions). With the absence of an RTO, communication of the City, from a tourism destination perspective, was placed in the hands of the 2010 Unit. The CoT had thus been able to establish one single entity to communicate the destination message, despite this being a temporary entity. The key for success would be close cooperation between the Tourism Division, ICMIS, and the 2010 Unit. The TTAT also contributed via the Tourism Division, thus representing the private sector (as indicated in Figure 27, pg.238). As already stated, the majority of participants felt that this partnership between the Tourism Division and TTAT was a major enabler in terms of destination marketing. However, there seemed to be a disadvantage, based on the fact that ICMIS had been given the ‘final say’ on all City communication going out for the event. Even though there were apparent good relations between the three entities (“No, we are working closely together – we [Tourism Division] and ICMIS and 2010 Office. Very close cooperation”), tourism would not optimally benefit from this partnership with the event organiser.
“The structure in the City Council is not nice for marketing. It is ridiculous that corporate communication people [ICMIS] have to have an input into tourism marketing messages ... ICMIS should not have any input into the tourism communication that will be going out”.

6.3.4.2 Effective co-branding

As indicated in Chapter 4, a contentious issue within the City amongst tourism industry members was the name change from Pretoria to Tshwane. To many participants this presented a great challenge and hindrance to the City in terms of competitively marketing the City. Two participants stated that it was a major weakness of the City during the event. “Pretoria should without a doubt fit within the first division host cities [Durban, Johannesburg, Cape Town], but the very fact that it still insists on using the name Tshwane, is a disadvantage ... you are giving away an immense amount of historical branding .. and I’m fearful that by doing the name shift, you sacrifice all that brand equity that’s associated with the seat of government, the Jacarandas.”

Four participants indicated that they felt the World Cup provided an opportunity to introduce the new name to the world, and to educate tourists that Tshwane is Pretoria as they knew it. The Tshwane/Pretoria link was established when FIFA agreed to using the dual name for the event. It was stated that the event would address the issue in ‘finality’, and that it would be sufficient to establish the “new brand that has got attached to its the new history.” The City would then just have to, as a post-event strategy, ‘remind’ tourists that they got to know Tshwane as a host city during the World Cup (when they were “bombarded with the name Tshwane”). However, three participants felt that it was too late to start educating the tourists and that, because of the confusion around the name, the City would not fully benefit from the marketing potential offered by the event.

Upon asking whether the participant agreed with the statement that a destination should have a marketing campaign running parallel to the event campaign, like Germany had done with its ‘Land of Ideas’ campaign, the answer was clear: “Oh yes, absolutely. The World Cup is a brand in itself. Die-hard fans will follow the World Cup to any destination. What you want to do is convert those fans into travellers”. This relates to another burning
issue within the CoT specifically, namely the **City’s brand identity**. The difficulty that the City faced in terms of brand exposure and any effort along the lines of a parallel-running campaign, was that it didn’t have a long-standing tourism brand. In the past, the City used the municipal logo as the destination brand, but this was found not to be appropriate for a tourism destination. As three participants stated, tourists are not interested in socio-political boundaries. “They do not buy municipalities; they do not even buy provinces. The fact that it is a municipality, is completely and utterly irrelevant to a tourist”. The issue of an umbrella brand for the destination was propagated in the Tourism Master Plan (2005), but only really gained momentum after the Tourism Lekgotla (2008) and the subsequent work of the TTAT.

In May 2009, the City launched the new Tshwane ‘Experience it!’ brand, with the South African flag as the main image. This brand, as it was introduced, was in fact in line with the new national brand which was to be announced in the following year. This new national brand was also based on the national flag, but in a different format. In this regard, the CoT was actually a frontrunner, because it was the first city to adopt the new brand concept, which was said to be intended for all destinations within the country. It was just the brand logo that had to be changed for the 2010 World Cup, after the new national brand was finally publicly announced in February 2010. The Tshwane ‘Experience it!’ brand had seemingly been accepted as the new destination brand, because it was being used on some of the 2010 promotional material and on the Tshwane Tourism website. One participant gave a possible explanation for the ‘smooth’ acceptance of the brand. “Because we didn’t have an old brand that people can feel territorial about”. What does make the brand applicable to the CoT is the fact that “it is the flag which is also to a degree associated with the Capital City”. During the interviews, however, the researcher got several indications that the new brand may not have been unanimously accepted by all stakeholders and that there were various perspectives on the appropriateness of the brand. One participant that was present at the CoT exhibition at Indaba noted that “I’m not sure. I think the brand sells more about South Africa than Tshwane. We’ve received more questions about the country than for the City. Tshwane is not strong enough in the brand”.

Debating the issue of the City’s tourism brand, will not be included within the scope of this study. The researcher rather decided to focus on what the City did manage to achieve and
in what way the brand was used to promote the City during the 2010 FIFA World Cup™. The researcher decided to present promotional activities of the CoT as a separate appendix (refer to Appendix H, pg.355). In the Appendix it can be seen how a mixture of the old municipal logo, the new ‘Experience It’ brand, as well as the composite logo of the CoT as FIFA host city, were used. It also indicates the various buy-lines used. Also refer to Appendix I (pg.362) for photo evidence of branding throughout the City.

In terms of the roll-out of the FIFA Host City composite branding, this task was performed by the 2010 Unit. This was done in collaboration with the ICMIS of the City, as previously explained. In terms of production and distribution of promotional material, this was also done by the 2010 Unit. Five participants mentioned that there was not enough ‘dressing up’ of the City in order to create the vibe and anticipation for the event. Reference was made to the Telkom Tower’s gigantic soccer ball as being the only real visible 2010 communication. However, based on the promotional program of the 2010 Unit, quite a lot had been done. Still, there appeared to be some inefficiency in the way that the promotional material was being distributed to tourism product owners. In this regard, the Tourism Division may also have played a role, as alluded to in an earlier discussion. Two participants made the following statements in this regard. “I am at the moment [three weeks before the event] even battling to get World Cup branding that can be put up at our facility. I’m being pointed in all directions and we cannot get that”. Also, “There was an email that came out during the week [three weeks before the event], stating that there were material available and that we could go and collect it. And when we went to collect at the 2010 office, nobody knew about it. So, there is a bit of internal challenge as well”.

In terms of the new tourism brand, the Tourism Division worked in conjunction with the 2010 Unit to include the tourism brand where possible. “Well we gave the brand through to the 2010 office and they’ve put it on all their brochures”. To a great extent, the tourism industry did not have real control over the extent of exposure that the brand would be getting during the event. “They [the 2010 Unit] work through ICMIS and they must approve everything together, so ICMIS is also very involved with the promotion of the brand”. Tourism industry members were also been encouraged to make use of the new tourism

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65 Refer to Appendix I (pg.362) for photo evidence of the city dressing that has been done.
brand. However, it seemed that more could have been done in this regard. “There’s been a general email, but only one, informing us of the new brand identity and how to use it. Within the next 28 days there has to be another effort to encourage industry to make use of it during 2010.”

When considering the evidence provided in Appendix H (pg.355), as well as the opinions of stakeholders as discussed, it appears that a destination can only effectively leverage branding opportunities related to an event, if it has a solid brand identity and a strong structure to drive it. Otherwise most of the branding benefit will go to the event brand. It can be stated that the CoT managed to do effective crisis management within a limited budget, especially in terms of the fast change from the ‘old’ to ‘newer’ version of the Tshwane ‘Experience it!’ logo.

### 6.3.4.3 Publicity and the media

The City, in cooperation with the 2010 Unit was ready with a completed PR strategy. It was made pertinent to the researcher that much of the media control was out of the City’s hands (including the Tourism Division)⁶⁶.

> “Fifa usually handles it. They receive daily reports on what happen in the City, and they will then decide how to deal with it. We can’t just report anything and there will be decided at a high level how things will be dealt with in the media ... The LOC or 2010 Unit will tell them if anything happened”.

A very important aspect in the case of the CoT, was management of all publicity material with regards to safety and security. “It is extremely important that we plan and overcome the smallest possible problems as not to have any negative publicity”.

Not only is media management important in terms of daily reporting. The members of the media can also be regarded as event tourists (as explained in Chapter 3). They form part of the proposed ‘non-eventer’ group. The CoT recognised the importance of this group.

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⁶⁶ Refer to Appendix H (pg.355) for information on the media promotional activities undertaken by the 2010 Unit.
“But the most important [of all the markets who will be visiting] is the media and the more we can do around creating an awareness of Tshwane and getting people to understand where Tshwane is, is important … So the messages they are going to send out are important. And I do know from the 2010 Office and Corporate Marketing Office that a lot are being done to handle this”.

CoT created a **media centre for non-accredited media** at the fan fest, as well as at the stadium. Here they would be accommodated and taken on media tours; which had been packaged in joint effort of ICMIS and the Tourism Division. “There will never be such an opportunity again. We will take them to many places”. A mega-event brings the opportunity to expose the destination to **new markets** (as stated by four participants), and also to attract the attention of **high profile broadcasters**.

“We had a few international TV channels visiting us. About 4 – 5 months ago the largest Spanish TV channel visited to take images of the City, and before every game they’re going to broadcast flashes … and also the biggest paid TV channel in Italy”.

Upon asking who was responsible for the material, or to guide the visiting journalists, it was indicted that the 2010 Unit was responsible. The Tourism Division also gave inputs and content, in terms of most visited attractions, township products and so forth. Two participants raised their concerns about the **content of the material**, indicating the importance of such content **in terms of destination branding and representing the destination**.

“We don’t know yet what they are planning [the video clips that will be shown before matches], but we’ll see in a month’s time. Not sure who have been involved in packaging that type of material, but we [TTAT] haven’t seen anything presented. We can only hope whoever has done it, has properly thought about it … The dilemma with any committee that I’ve ever worked on [in the City]: there are people who want to promote township tourism and sometimes that gets priority … So when we finally get to see the 2010 material, I hope it’s not going to be 90% township and just 10% of the other [established] things”.

“Are we showing them the Union Buildings – selling politics? Or the Telkom Tower – selling communication? Once again, the thinking needs to change. We need to be selling the experience – what can you experience when you come to Pretoria. And if
that is not the place that our corporate communications have been fighting to get, then we have lost the plot.”

6.3.4.4 Creatively manage event-related restrictions

South Africa managed to work around some of the rules and regulations of FIFA by employing a number of creative strategies. SAT managed to get permission from FIFA to promote the country at some of the international fan fests around the world in other countries, and FIFA facilitated the negotiations with the different cities. On a local level, a city also has to take measures and controls to overcome the strict guidelines (especially in the case of FIFA, which is known for its ‘country take-over’ approach). In the CoT, several public viewing areas were created in township areas, where local businesses could operate without having to comply with FIFA regulations. In other areas around the City, but outside the ‘exclusive zones’, spaces were also created where local arts and crafts could be displayed and sold.

Two participants noted that it was almost as if the City was too afraid to do something wrong, and that this was a great hindrance to any creativity in their efforts. This created a situated where other entities that wanted to take initiative, were also stopped from doing so.

“For example, last year we asked the City whether we could host a big soccer expo in build-up to the event. And they said no, there’s too many restrictions. But there were so many opportunities where they themselves could have created momentum, and now all these efforts [wearing soccer shirts; flags in shops], seem so artificial. At schools they do small exhibitions and at shopping centres they are putting up flags. But those initiatives are not coming from the City as umbrella body. It is as if the guys are too afraid to take ownership and be creative within the boundaries of the regulations of the event”.

6.3.4.5 Develop appropriate pre-, during- and post-event campaigns

When developing the marketing campaign, it is very important to remember that destination marketing is a process and that an event is merely one instance in the journey
of a destination’s competitive identity. It is therefore important to develop marketing activities before, during and after the actual event. An important part of the campaign development, is that it should be preceded by thorough market research. As stated by one participant: “So when developing a campaign, you have to use your research and decide what are going to be your key drivers behind the campaign and it has to be based on need: what do people think of your destination? What do they associate with your destination? And if you want to change that, you’ve got to come up with a campaign that will answer that question.” Another participant also stated that you have to identify who the markets are that are coming.

- Pre-event marketing focus

The pre-event campaign should specifically focus on addressing perceptions about the destination in order to persuade them to attend the event. “How do we change that mindset? How do we show those people that haven’t been here that SA is about fun? And hence the Diski Dance campaign.” Events are opportunities to attract a captive market that, in most cases, visits the destination for the sake of the specific event. The task is to persuade them that the destination is also suitable as a travel destination apart from the event.

The DMO also has to use opportunities where it can showcase the destination at exhibitions or existing public events. It is important to also invite tourism industry associations to co-exhibit at such events.

“Since it was announced that we will be a host, they have exhibited at the show. But there is no vibe. They should have made a greater effort. I mean you have to hand out freebees. Why didn’t they use existing things like the weekly parade on Church Square? They could have chosen a new team for every week/weekend and carried it out at all the centres in the City.

A difficult but very important task is to effectively manage expectations around the upcoming event (as indicated by three participants). This is not only in terms of local communities that have high expectations of entrepreneurial opportunities, but also in terms of existing businesses.
“We created a lot of expectations for home stays and B&Bs, but the situation in our country is not even ready for that yet. And this is my one big problem with the City. They created such a hype by saying we have so many beds too little, and this and that too little. But at the end of the day FIFA had the last say and caught everybody off guard. They have such unbelievably strict requirements that the average guy cannot comply”.

“Like the curator of the museums. The World Cup is not going to do anything for them. The soccer spectators want pubs open till late, and a lot more artificial entertainment than the National Cultural History Museum. So there’s a bit of misperception within the City Council about these people that will be coming, and maybe among tourism product owners”.

• **Marketing focus during the event**

Key to marketing activities during the event is to **deliver on destination promises made beforehand**. “People want to be seeing people having a good time in South Africa, otherwise everything we’ve been doing in the last 3 or 4 years is going to be wiped out in just one month if we are not careful”. Once they’re at your destination, you have to **present them with different possible experiences**. They have to be provided with **proper and accurate information**. The CoT developed a new R2.5 million Visitor Information Centre (VIC) in close proximity to Loftus Stadium. There was much debate over the quality of the offering (as also discussed at TTAT meetings).

“I don’t know if the new VIC will be finished and if the people there are equipped to handle it. Do they realise that thousands of people will be walking past there coming out of Loftus?”. A critical issue surrounding the VIC, was the fact that there was not enough directional signage. Refer to Appendix I (pg.362) for photo evidence of the VIC.

“And the fact that they opened the new tourism office across Loftus. But again, it is not marketed enough. It doesn’t help to spend R3 million for upgrades if nobody knows where it is”.

Unfortunately, approval to set up a **central computerised booking system** at the office, failed one month before the World Cup started (as confirmed to the researcher).
Three participants indicated that it was a great disadvantage for the City not to have such a system in place.

“There is no proper tourism information centre in the City where you can do your bookings, get a tour operator. And this is a huge disadvantage”. Researcher asks: “And the new tourism office in Hatfield?”. Response: “No, definitely not. From a tourism perspective that is a huge disadvantage. You have to be able to walk into a professional information centre where you can find a private tour operator to do a booking directly”.

It is also important to understand that the national destination (South Africa) was a long-haul destination for many of the markets. This would affect the travel patterns of tourists while they were in the City (length of stay and average spending). This had to be built into the destination offerings that were being promoted. A very important aspect of the event experience, is visitor safety and security. The DMO has no direct control over this matter, but as already stated, should lobby with the necessary authorities. The DMO’s main task appears to be communicating the measures that are in place, in order to make visitors feel safer; and to deal effectively with any publicity if an incident occurs.

“They could have placed a lot more focus on stating what have been put in place to protect foreigners – making them feel more comfortable to some to SA instead of watching [matches] on television.”

The DMO should also play a role in educating tourism industry members that they should make visitors feel not only welcome and comfortable, but also safe and secure (as stated by three participants).

The fan fest facilitated at fan parks and public viewing areas, is a very important part of the event experience, and should form a significant part of the ‘during’ campaign. The 2010 Unit was in charge of the Fan Park. At first, it was said that it would be located at the Union Buildings. However, this announcement was withdrawn and final permission for the Fan Park in Centurion Cricket Ground was given in April 2010. The Fan Park doesn’t only form part of the event experience for visitors. It also serves as a platform for local entrepreneurs (through arts and crafts, food and entertainment) (Anon, 2010a). Furthermore, the Fan Park is a critical part of the publicity and media exposure
opportunities of the destination. Two important concerns regarding the Fan Park was raised. One participant mentioned that the Fan Park in Centurion would not be accessible enough, seeing that the municipal buses didn’t run between Pretoria Central and Centurion. Another participant addressed the choice of venue, stating that “we have gone the wrong way in positioning ourselves as a host city and I particularly refer to our choice of the fan fest. Nobody of the billions of TV viewers will connect it to Pretoria. Have it been in front of the Union Buildings, it would have sent out a much more powerful message. The only place that's got it right is Durban on the beach and Cape Town with the mountain in the background.”

- Post-event marketing activities
A key aspect of any marketing strategy for a destination in the light of a mega-event such as the 2010 FIFA World Cup™, is the fact that the event should not be regarded as the ‘be all and the end all’. One participant stated that the event should not be regarded as a destination, but as a springboard. If stakeholders should “sit down and relax once it's over, you will be missing one of the greatest opportunities”. Creativity and initiative should not end once the event is finished. SAT, for example found a creative way to use footage captured during the event in post-event promotional campaigns and communication. They would be hosting consumers from the country’s key markets and take them on 20 experiences during the 10 days of the World Cup. These experiences would be captured on camera and snippets would then be cut to use in adverts as part of the main campaign after the event.

Two respondents mentioned that the City had to partner in a ‘twin city’ type of agreement with Rio de Janeiro (or another city in Brazil) for their hosting of the 2014 Soccer World Cup. In this way the City could build relationships and also create a stronger tie to that market as potential future tourists (which would be especially relevant when considering that Brazil was in fact indicated as a high priority market in the new national tourism strategy).

Very importantly, post-event marketing activities should include market research to gather market intelligence on the event’s contribution to aspects such as brand awareness.
“What marketing has really been done to promote the destination? You will have to do a survey to see what exposure people have had to Tshwane [the new name and the overall destination offering].”

Two respondents also stated the importance of having a proper **post-event marketing campaign aimed at the new markets** that had been introduced to the City by the event. “We need to say to all the fans: you’ve seen our City – now bring your family”.

### 6.3.4.6 Separate, but aligned campaigns for the different event tourist markets

In Chapter 3, four different event tourist markets were proposed: actual eventers, media eventers, event core (participants/performers), and non-eventers (media, sponsors, event organiser, associations). It is important that they will all have a positive experience of the destination, as will be discussed below.

**• A different way to approach the ‘media eventers’**

An interesting matter raised, is to consider that the ‘media eventers’ don’t only have to be targeted through the media campaign, but can be approached in other ways. Fan parks host fan fests, which are actually international events because they are internationally broadcasted. This provides the destination with an opportunity to expose and showcase itself to the international audience and the ‘media eventers’. However, they can also be approached from a different angle. SAT managed to negotiate the rights to create fan fests in six major international cities, thereby giving it an opportunity to make direct contact and **give a tangible South African experience** to some of the ‘media eventers’.

**• Expectations of the different event tourist markets**

Five participants mentioned that special consideration has to be given to the **type of tourists** that will be visiting the destination. In this case, it would be soccer supporters. They had specific needs and preferences, and product offerings would have to be adapted according to these specific characteristics. Something that has to be kept in mind for the ‘actual eventers’, but also for the ‘event core’ and ‘non-eventers’, is that they all have to be given a great experience while they are in the destination. This is regarded as a ‘given’ requirement for the actual eventers, who may have been
attracted to the destination through the marketing campaign. It is especially important for them to at least experience what they were promised. However, the ‘event core’ and ‘non-eventers’ who are ‘forced’ to visit the destination, may only have expectations around the operational issues of the event itself. There is thus an opportunity to present them with unexpected experiences of the destination. In the CoT, a lot of effort was made in terms of the base camps of the six hosted teams, or the ‘event core’ market (Germany, Italy, Argentina, USA, Slovakia and Ghana). The sponsors were also highlighted as a key ‘non-eventer’ group that had to be impressed during their exposure to the destination [the media as non-eventers have already been addressed in 6.3.4.3].

“So the most important I think is the sponsors. They have tickets and they’re gonna give tickets to their corporate market and suppliers. They’re gonna bring them and their families and they won’t be normal soccer spectators. We’ve picked up Coca Cola, and we’ll be focusing on them and their needs”

The opportunity to present an unexpected experience, was also important for some of the ‘actual eventers’ who were forced to visit the City, based on the performance of their teams, and who otherwise would never have decided the visit the City. In their case, it is also important that whatever the destination sells, whatever is offered during the event, must be of such a good quality and standard that visitors who are forced to come here, will want to come back and tell their friends.

6.3.4.7 Address possible displacement of the regular tourist market

Three participants indicated that their regular business had been affected by the upcoming event. This was accounted to various reasons, but could be addressed through co-marketing and by creatively utilising venues for event-related activities.

“In terms of government contracts, there are no scheduled activities for June and July. The usual conference/business tourism market is very quiet for this time. I put government to the blame, because they have created the idea that there will be nothing accept football going on during this time. There should have also been greater cooperation between different tourism sectors to co-market each other”

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"We had to declare our venue as closed for the World Cup period, because there was a possibility that we would be getting a fan park. We also said no to a number of potential events during this period."

One participant raised an important in terms of displacement of the domestic market, stating that the event supply chain cannot merely raise prices according to the event market’s willingness to pay.

“There are many touch points where you want value for money, like restaurants and attractions also [not only accommodation that has been audited at national level]. Even the domestic market: if they have to compete with the higher prices set for international visitors, you are going to lose that market as well”.

One attraction in the City specifically turned its attention to the domestic market and decided to use that time to launch a new experience to attract them. They took into consideration the fact that the local market would probably be avoiding travelling around in South Africa during that time, and would opt to support local attractions.

6.3.4.8 Campaigns for the different stakeholder groups

The aspects of the local community and the tourism industry as event stakeholders, have been discussed in Section 6.3.2.1. What this section will mention, is some of the practical actions that have been taken in terms of communicating to these two groups, as well as other non-tourist stakeholders.67

- Communicating with the locals

The support and involvement of locals, were indicated by ten participants as a key factor for a successful 2010 Soccer World Cup™ (“great people”, “ambassadors”, “hospitable”, “friendly”, “galvanised”, “Ubuntu”). At the time of the interviews, there seemed to be a lack in local enthusiasm; not only in the CoT, but also across the country. As three participants stated, this could have been due to the labour union strikes that were going on at the time, as well as other political incidents involving

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67 The media as stakeholder has been addressed in Section 6.3.4.3.
68 African word meaning “I am because of other people”.

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public figures. Still, it seemed that other host cities (especially Durban, Cape Town and Johannesburg) were fully embracing the event, creating a ‘vibe’ and that the CoT was greatly lacking behind in this regard (indicated by seven participants).

“And there actually should be a situation where we see on TV: oh, Tshwane has done this and that. But the good stories are not being told. I hear there are a lot of things happening in the City, like there was a big launch party two days ago on Church Square. But nobody knows about things”.

In this regard it is important to communicate to the locals through the most appropriate channels, and consideration has to be given to local residents’ specific circumstances. This not only relates to media channels, but also to community interest groups and public figures.

“I’m a radio listener, but I have never heard anything on the radio [about the fan park]. There’s a big gap there. People need to be told well in advance, because you [rural communities] need to arrange transport well in advance. We’re talking about people that don’t have TVs and even if you have a TV, you need the right channel. This is a once in a lifetime opportunity and people have to understand that.”

“If the City could just use the right local groups, like students, to spread the mood. You cannot just use a couple of businesses – they’re just business focused”.

To the contrary, a participant dealing with communication for the City, indicated that they had employed a number of techniques to inform local residents and felt that there were no real reasons for people ‘not knowing’.

“And for the locals to inform them: on our website there is a 2010 page. The newspapers (including community papers) have articles and information in it. It’s difficult to say that people don’t know. People aren’t realizing what they’re seeing”.

According to a report of the 2010 Unit, a Community Roadshow Campaign was launched in March 2010 in various regions in Tshwane. The aim was to create a hype, share information and make the community a part of the programme for 2010 FIFA World Cup™.
The importance of informing industry members

A problem mentioned by many participants, was that they didn’t know what was happening in the City. Six participants indicated that they would not have known of all the initiatives within the City, if they had not been on the TTAT.

“Yes, I think we’ve been supported [by the 2010 Unit], but if I was not on the TTAT, I would not have any idea of what is going on, not at all.”

The 2010 Unit and Tourism Division addressed this matter by bringing out a newsletter (‘Tshwane 2010 Update’) that updated the industry on the latest developments. Interestingly, a creative initiative was undertaken at national level to inform stakeholders. The IMC developed the 2010 Communicator. This desktop application was sent to stakeholders via email, and could also be downloaded from SAT and the IMC’s website. It provided daily news and updates around a broad spectrum of topics related to the event. It generated many of its stories from the websites of the IMC, SAT and SA Good News. There was also a link on the Tshwane Tourism website to the communicator, keeping stakeholders informed of national progress.

In the CoT, the Tourism Lekgotla was held in April (2010) and was regarded as a key event where the general tourism industry members could be informed (through attendance of the various associations).

“It was an extremely important conference. Maybe it should have taken place earlier in April, but it was close enough to the event to get them ready for the event”.

In the City’s strategy, much of the focus was on SMME and local business development. Consequently a lot of the communication and training initiatives were focused on these groups. However, a DMO should also have a concerted effort to communicate to the existing established industry members, in order for them to support the event. This may make them more inclined to cooperate in product packaging and other event-related initiatives.

“We [established private sector] haven’t felt it [government support] at all. I was involved in the TTAT in seeing what government is doing, but government never came to me through the 2010 Unit, the Tourism Division or through the City ... did I
"as product owner ever get approached by government to tell me about the opportunities? No."

- **Campaigns related to non-tourists.**
  A DMO should consider other interest groups that provide strategic opportunities for destination marketing. In the case of the CoT, for example, the embassies offer an opportunity to **create market ties** by targeting the various foreign delegates stationed in the City. Referring back to Table 25 (pg.228), five participants stated that this was a key strength of the City, while four participants indicated it as a strength specifically related to 2010. One participant stated that it “emotionally gives us automatic contact with many of the countries out there”. One way of doing this would be to line up the streets with country flags of the countries represented by the various embassies present in the City (as stated by another participant).

6.3.4.9 **Making use of the latest ICT for distribution and communication**

The City was presented through various websites. The main tourism website had been developed under strong encouragement of the TTAT, through the Tourism Division, but by an outsider company “for love and charity; and it’s static, but better than anything the City has had before”. It had a dedicated 2010 webpage (www.tshwanetourism.co.za/activities/fifa2010). With specific reference to the 2010 FIFA World Cup, the City was also represented on:
- the website of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, that had a dedicated linked 2010 webpage (www.tshwane.gov.za/fifaworldcup), which was managed by the 2010 Unit;
- South African government’s 2010 website, created by the Department of Government Communication and Information Services (www.sa2010.gov.za), that had links to the host city web pages; and
- the FIFA website, that had individual web pages for all the host cities (www.fifa.com http://www.fifa.com/worldcup/destination/cities/city=20178/profile.html).

The Tshwane Tourism Association only made mention of the World Cup in its events calendar (www.tshwanetourism.com/events/index.php). None of these websites strongly featured any of the latest social networking tools. This is an aspect that had been
discussed at some of the TTAT meetings, and that was also mentioned by two participants. There was also an apparent insufficient use of links to tourism attractions and other relevant websites on the main tourism website of the City.

“No. We’ve gone the other route and been proactive. We’ve gone and made sure our website is linked to the Tshwane website, upon our request” (Response given after being asked whether the establishment has been approached by someone in order to be place on the Tshwane Tourism website).

In terms of other ICT for distribution purposes, it has already been stated that the City did not managed to set up a central booking system at the main VIC. They did however manage to install touch screens, and three participants mentioned that this was a great step forward.

6.3.4.10 Communicate event-related developments that enhance the destination image

It was found in the literature that a competitive host destination will ensure that sufficient provision is made for visitor safety. Furthermore, the destination will make use of a variety of new technologies. Even though these aspects are out of the DMO’s direct control, it was stated that such initiatives should be communicated to tourists in order to enhance the destination’s image of readiness and effectiveness. From the interviews it became clear that not only these aspects need to be communicated, and also not only to tourists. Any positive developments should be communicated to especially industry members and local residents to ensure their support for and confidence in the event.

“From a marketing perspective we need to do more. The public is saying they don’t know what’s happening in the City. They are not aware that our infrastructural projects will be finished on time; that we have passed all the FIFA site inspections with flying colours; that alignment and partnering with industry sectors have been successful…”

The 2010 Unit prepared a 2010 readiness presentation which they showed to industry members during weekly meetings. They also showed that same presentation at the Tourism Lekgotla just over a month before the event (refer to Chapter 4, Table 22, pg.186). Two participants noted that this presentation made a huge difference to their
perceptions of the City’s efforts and have made them more positive about the upcoming event.

6.3.4.11 Manage pricing to enhance the destination’s value proposition

In Chapter 4 it was mentioned that there were concerns about excessive price hikes in especially the accommodation industry. “And the attitude of hospitality and pricing was quite predatory – also damaging [to the national brand]”. These claims were publicly addressed by the NDT through an audit to determine the extent to which price hiking was taking place on a national level.

In the CoT specifically, the 2010 Unit took on the task of educating local industry members. This appears to not always have been an easy task, because political messages were often focused on the benefits and promise of wealth.

“We need to tell our product owners not to misuse the event to chase people away. Don’t put your prices so sky high that people don’t want to come here. For us to sell this concept we did a lot of training and capacity building projects, where we motivate and train our industries on how to be good hosts.”

In similar vein, another participant added that any future event strategy had to include guidelines on pricing.

“And all of these things [tourism products] have to be packaged together competitively, where the prices don’t put you out of the market or create the idea of a very low quality product”.

It was stated that pricing during a mega-event could affect the destination’s ‘value for money’ proposition and as a result damage the destination image, but also cause displacement of its regular tourist market, as well as the domestic market. It may therefore be important for the entire value chain, not only accommodation, to be audited and controlled (as there are “many touch points where you want value for money”).

6.3.4.12 Product bundling throughout the wider destination

One way to ensure that tourists have a wonderful experience in a destination, is to develop different experience packages that take them to different tourism products of the
destination. That’s why SAT developed the ‘beyond 90 minutes’ campaign – “to show to tourists that there were so many other things that you could do after the football”. In the CoT, a new hop-on-hop-off bus was established and launched in 2009 to take tourists to various experiences in the City. There appeared to be different opinions on the effectiveness of this service, and once again the issue of public-private partnering seemed to come up.

“… we’ve spent a lot of money and effort to get the hop-on-hop-off bus in place. And standards are high. But it’s difficult to get it done if you don’t have cooperation with the private sector”

Two participants spoke positively about the hop-on-hop-off bus, and indicated that they would be benefiting from the initiative.

“We are getting involved in being on the tour route as one of the sites where tourists will be stopping on city tours. And we are really embracing this – all staff will be getting Bafana shirts and we will have a Zakumi in the foyers. We are just waiting for the 2010 branding.”

Two participants however voiced uncertainty about the state of readiness of this project. “We’re the first one [on the route], but I’m not sure how effective it is. In the pilot phase it was running, but since then I’m not actually sure what’s happening”.

Seven participants indicated a great weakness within the City to package product offerings. Some participants related this directly to a disadvantage that the City would have during the 2010 World Cup. The problem seemed to originate from a lack of capacity within the City to do the packaging (linked to the absence of the RTO, as already discussed). In some instances, there were also some of the City’s key attractions that had been excluded from promotional efforts to package the City’s offering.

“The other day I picked up a 2010 brochure and you can see that it has been very quickly put together. And once again, one of the places that have been left out is the State Theatre” [which is regarded to be an icon of the City, and a one-of-its-kind in South Africa, because of the multiple stages].

This inability seems to especially influence the informal sector of the industry; which is damaging when one considers the City’s proclaimed commitment to promote this sector
during the event. The problem could perhaps have been minimised if a strong database had been established well in advance of the event.

“We are not ready with packaging of the informal sector to showcase it ... The capacity within the City is unfortunately of such a nature that these things cannot be properly packaged and sold through the right distribution channels. And you cannot think that you can get all of these things done within a month or four. You need years – we should have started when we heard that we won the bid.”.

It has to be said that not all can be laid at the table of the Tourism Division or lack of an RTO. In some instances, it also has to be left to the ingenuity of the individual stakeholders.

“Oh only one hotel and one other attraction approached us [in terms of collaborative marketing]. No, nothing like that [for example the High Performance Centre bringing the Argentinean team over]. We don’t think in those lines yet. There still needs to be a lot of work done”.

6.3.5 Concern for and pro-actively addressing environmental issues

The last CSF that was explored amongst stakeholders, appeared to be one that is least considered. Only three stakeholders made mention of environmental issues; with one of them being a person that is appointed within an environmental management environment. It is thus clear that the issue of event greening from a DMO and tourism stakeholder perspective, would need a dedicated effort in terms of creating awareness and encouraging appropriate practices.

6.3.5.1 Guide the industry and encourage green practices

A key task of the DMO in terms of event greening, was identified in the literature as the responsibility to encourage green practices among tourism industry members. One way of doing so, can be through accreditation and award programs. There are several such programs in the South African tourism industry and tourism product owners in the CoT also take part in such programs69. However, when looking specifically at efforts from the

69 Such as the Imvelo Awards for responsible tourism (SAT, 2010).
destination management side in the CoT, it does not specifically include such initiatives. There is, for example, the Tshwane Tourism Awards, which focuses on the development, maintenance and promotion of quality facilities and service standards across the tourism spectrum. It aims to enhance equitable and sustainable tourism growth and development in Tshwane (Tshwane Tourism, n.d.b). When looking at the titles of the award categories, none of them specifically focus on environmental performance. They include the various accommodation categories, different attraction types, tour guiding, as well as conference venues. It may be the case that some of the criteria include environmental aspects, but there is no specific focus in this regard.

In terms of specific initiatives related to 2010, environmental issues were addressed by the 2010 Unit in collaboration with the Department of Agriculture and Environmental Management of the City. This Department generally focuses on nature conservation and resorts management, waste management and open space management. A participant involved with this department stated that “implementation of ‘Green Goal’ initiatives to reduce the tournament’s carbon and ecological footprint”, was a key task to ensure the City’s ability to act as a host city. From a City management perspective, there had thus been the required (by FIFA) initiative to ensure event greening; with a focus on accommodation, the stadium, public viewing areas and the official fan park. The 2010 Unit, for example, held greening workshops among the accommodation industry members.

From a DMO perspective however, there were no visible efforts to encourage ‘green 2010 practices’. There had been some initiative through the TTAT. They invited Environmental Management to one of their meetings and the Team was informed of the upcoming ‘greening’ workshop. The TTAT then committed to sharing the information of the workshop with tourism industry members through the Tshwane Tourism website. However, as the participant stated: “there was a workshop for the Tshwane industry [including Tourism] in May 2009, but the attendance was shockingly low”. In terms of industry cooperation, “there was enthusiasm at first, but unfortunately greening has cost implications. Even though it has a payback period, the impacts are now felt in the pockets of the industry”.

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It can therefore be concluded that, in terms of the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ specifically, an increase in appropriate greening practices came as a result of regulations set by the event owner. Because it had a cost implication in the short term, and also because it had to be enforced by the event organiser, it appeared that the overall industry perspective on the matter was that of scepticism. Still, the event managed to bring the benefit of improved environmental practices to the destination. As one participant stated, “The Green Goal project will be continued after the World Cup as a national program that will be run by the Department of Environmental Affairs”. Perhaps it would be more sustainable and better accepted if a DMO was to make concerted efforts to encourage and educate industry members in this regard. To that extent, it would for example be more meaningful if SAT was to partner with NDT to approach the new program mentioned by one participant.

6.3.5.2 Collaborate with the relevant supporting stakeholders

In order for a DMO to fulfil its responsibility to encourage green practices, it is necessary to partner with the relevant supporting stakeholders. This could include the relevant government departments/division and other public agencies such as environmental protection agencies (as described previously). However, it may also be important that the DMO will collaborate with local tourism industry stakeholders that have specialised knowledge in this regard, in order to green the event from a DMO perspective.

A participant that was involved with the City’s top environmental attraction, stated that they had not been contacted by anybody in terms of Green Goal for 2010 (FIFA’s official environmental campaign). This indicates a great lack in stakeholder collaboration in terms of knowledge and skill sharing for the ‘collective’ good. The participant indicated that a great opportunity had been missed by the City to use the local environmental expertise to get the City ready in terms of greening the World Cup event. This is a similar statement as the one by a previous participant, who stated that “things are not used or recognised within the City itself”.

In a similar vein, a second participant stated that their facility started greening their main annual event six years earlier and that it was in fact the first green event in the country. They apparently shared their information and practices with the municipality. Cape Town
had in the meanwhile established a green strategy for events, which had been nationally accepted. Ironically, the people sitting on that committee, was people from the CoT – so “the knowledge has left the city and benefited somebody else”. The participant stated that the CoT had missed out on a great opportunity to become the ‘leader in green events’.

6.3.5.3 Educate the events tourists market

With regard to educating the events tourist market, no information could be sourced from participants. The researcher did however find some evidence of creating environmental awareness among events tourists, as well as local residents, for the event. As indicated in Appendix I (pg.362), there were roadside posters displaying environmental messages. These posters carried the FIFA host city composite logo, and would therefore have been produced by the 2010 Unit. This is in line with results found in the literature indicating that most of the environmental education of event attendees is done by the event organisers. This could be an area that needs greater attention from the DMO in future, if it wishes to leverage mega-events (or any other events) within a sustainable events tourism strategy.

6.3.5.4 Ensure sustainability of the DMO’s own marketing practices

The lack of priority given to the issue of event greening, appears to be in direct contrast to many of the destination’s proclaimed strategic priorities and ‘selling points’. In a strategic 2010 FIFA World Cup stakeholder workshop held in 2005, the shared vision for 2010 included ensuring that Tshwane is held up as a true example of sustainable development, balancing people, profits and planet. It also included that Tshwane should be internationally recognized as a role model of how a city can responsibly leverage the benefits and impacts of a mega event such as the Soccer World Cup. There seems to be a great discrepancy between the level of importance that the environment was given by stakeholders, and what permeated through to the actual event.

After an exploration of the CSFs among stakeholders in the CoT, it becomes apparent that they could in fact all be regarded as relevant from a stakeholder perspective. Some aspects have been unanimously confirmed (like the need for an events strategy), while others appear to be important but may not be given the required consideration. Several
aspects that have been mentioned, correlate to the findings from the literature studied in Chapters 2 and 3. This furthermore validates the apparent CSFs along with their respective performance areas. Within this Chapter, some reference has been made to the secondary data sources as they were identified in Chapter 4. What the researcher will aim to do in the last section of this Chapter, is to determine the correlation between the interview findings with the content of the secondary data documents. This can further serve as a means to validate the CSFs. It can also provide insight into the areas where a mega-event has the greatest potential to bring actual change in terms of a destination’s overall competitiveness.

6.4 THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE INTERVIEW RESULTS AND THE KEY STRATEGIC DOCUMENTS

“And I think post-2010, with the 10-point plan and strategic framework we’re standing in a good place to go forward into the new financial year. And it’s going to be a difficult year because we’re going into the new elections. But if we all stay focused, it will be difficult for them to step in and try to rewrite the rule books from a political viewpoint. They’re going to step into a success story and just have to think how they can add and not what they have to change.”

In Chapter 4, five key documents were identified as important milestones along the CoT’s tourism strategy development process. Based on the content of each document, the researcher has decided to indicate the extent to which the issues related to the various CSFs, have been addressed in the various documents. In this way it is possible to determine whether the strategies that have been put on paper, have in fact been implemented (as it was stated by the participants during the interviews). This could also serve as a means to identify the aspects that have received greater attention, and are therefore perceived to be the most important aspects in terms of destination readiness for the hosting of a mega-event.

Table 27 (pg.288) presents the CSFs (on the left), and indicates whether they have been mentioned or addressed in each document respectively. It should be noted that the first three documents were focused on overall destination marketing strategy of the CoT, while
the last two documents focused specifically on initiatives related to the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ event. However, in all three of the first documents, certain parts referred specifically to this mega-event, or to the event product offering of the City in general. For the purpose of making a comparison within the context of the current study, it was decided to focus only on these parts. It should also be kept in mind that the last document was a report from the event organiser (the 2010 Unit), and thus indicated the actual initiatives that had been undertaken by the CoT. This document could thus serve to indicate whether the issues that have been stressed by the tourism industry (represented in the first four columns), did at the end of the day receive the necessary support from the public sector side.

It is important to consider that there are different aspects under each performance area as they were mentioned during the interviews. For example, under the ‘pre-, during- and post-event marketing campaigns’, different aspects were mentioned that all fall into this category; thereby adding weight to the aspect. In terms of pre-, during- and post-event activities, efforts mostly focused on:
- pre: market research of expected visitors;
- during: having information available at key points and at a VIC; having event experiences available; as well as safety and security; and
- post: doing research on visitor experiences; building a visitor database; campaigns in the new markets; as well as conducting impact assessments.

The aspects highlighted in the table (column right), are those aspects in which the 2010 Unit (representing the public sector) appears to have contributed most significantly toward the destination’s hosting ability. Great effort was been made regarding the local community (awareness, involvement, upliftment, entrepreneurial opportunities); working with allies and collaborators (for grading, training, and safety and security purposes); infrastructure (stadium, roads, transport, signage, beautification); and service delivery (through capacity building and training initiatives). Attention was also been given to communicating with the event tourists and providing them with a pleasant experience (mostly in terms of information provision, and safety and security).
Table 27: Correlation between the CSFs and key strategic documents

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<td>Visionary leadership (the need for an RTO)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>An events tourism strategy</td>
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<td><strong>Clarifying the stakeholder roles and relationships</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>The DMO (and the need for an event unit)</td>
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<tr>
<td>The event organiser</td>
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<td><strong>Allies and collaborators</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Managing the destination resources</strong></td>
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<td>Establish a database of destination resources</td>
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<td>Create Event specialness</td>
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<td>Quality of infrastructure and event-related resources</td>
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<td>✓</td>
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<td><strong>Service delivery and HR development</strong></td>
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<td>Value chain management for a seamless experience</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Ensuring an event marketing strategy that is aligned with the overall destination marketing strategy</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Single entity to communicate</td>
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<tr>
<td>Co-branding</td>
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<td>✓</td>
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<td>Manage event-related restrictions</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Have pre-during-post marketing campaigns</strong></td>
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<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Communicate with different event tourist groups</td>
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<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dealing with displacement</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Communicate with different stakeholder groups</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Use of ICT for distribution and communication</td>
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<td>✓</td>
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<tr>
<td>Communicate event-related developments</td>
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Aspects in which the 2010 Unit (representing the public sector) contributed most significantly toward the destination’s hosting ability from a DMO perspective.
Table 27: Correlation between the CSFs and key strategic documents (continued)

| Pricing that address value-for-money proposition | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Bundling of destination offerings | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| **Concern for and pro-actively addressing environmental issues** | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Encourage green practices amongst industry | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Educate event tourists | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Collaborate with relevant stakeholders | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |
| Ensure own green practices | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ | ✓ |

Their focus on publicity and the media clearly was on promotion of the event brand; through the use of promotional material and a website (as mentioned in earlier discussions). Key issues from a DMO perspective that were not given as much priority by the 2010 Unit, includes:
- the destination’s event strategy (including an event unit and other events);
- creating a seamless experience throughout the destination;
- co-branding opportunities for the tourism brand;
- publicity and media to enhance the destination image;
- pre-, during- and post-event activities (especially different experiences and research);
- wider stakeholder communication; and
- bundling of destination offerings.

Of significance is the fact that none of the documents explicitly addressed the issues of displacement or pricing for a value-for-money offering (though pricing has to an extent been addressed at a national level through the accommodation audit). The issue of displacement needs to be added to the proposed CSFs, as it has been raised during the interviews. The fact that ‘a single entity to communicate’ has not been explicitly mentioned, is most likely because it is regarded as a given, and therefore the City’s focus on establishing an RTO.

There appears to be a timeframe wherein certain aspects need to be addressed, for example, the establishment of a resource database, the role of investors, as well as working creatively around event-related restrictions. These matters need to be addressed well in advance, otherwise those opportunities may be lost to the destination. The researcher also found it difficult to group a variety of aspects under one statement such as ‘pre-, during- and post-event campaigns’. There are too many different very important aspects that are not sufficiently highlighted as a result of having this one very broad
performance area. When developing the final set of CSFs, it could in fact prove beneficial to approach it from within a broad pre-event, during and post-event framework.

As a last observation, it is important to note that the issue of environmental sustainability (event greening) received minimal attention. It was mostly suggested that the industry (and then specifically only accommodation) had to comply with sustainable practices. Only one document, the new Strategic Framework for 2009 – 2014 (Heath, 2009d), included aspects of visitor education and broader industry accountability. This is concerning, especially in the light of statements claiming to use greening as a USP of the City, or for the event to be regarded as an example of sustainable development. In this regard there is a great discrepancy between what the City stakeholders lay claim to, and with what actually took place.

6.5 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to present the findings from the empirical research, in order to validate the set of CSFs that has been presented at the end of Chapter 3. Furthermore, the researcher aimed to determine the extent to which a mega-event could contribute to a destination’s competitiveness (thus, the participants’ perspectives on the City’s current competitiveness, compared to the areas where the event under investigation is expected to contribute in terms of the CSFs).

From the information gathered by participants, it becomes clear that the CSFs can in fact be regarded as relevant within the context of destination competitiveness. Through the discussions and findings from the secondary data, it became clear that certain of the performance areas as previously mentioned, could be grouped differently in a final proposed framework. By exploring the case study over a period of two years, and by also referring back to certain earlier data, it became clear that a mega-event has the potential to contribute significantly to a destination’s overall strategy development process. It can change strategic thinking around destination organisation structures by, for example, fast-tracking important processes such as the establishment of an RTO. It also has the potential to contribute significantly to stakeholder cooperation and renewed efforts toward
networking. Furthermore, it can change the thinking around events as a destination product offering and ascribe greater strategic thinking in this regard.

As a conclusion to the current study, Chapter 7 will focus on a final framework of CSFs for the leveraging of mega-events to achieve sustainable destination competitiveness. Relevant guidelines will also be given, as well as suggestions for future research.
CHAPTER 7: A FRAMEWORK OF CRITICAL SUCCES FACTORS TO LEVERAGING MEGA-EVENTS AS AN ELEMENT OF DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

The aim of this chapter is to present a final set of CSFs for the leveraging of mega-events as a tool toward sustainable destination competitiveness. This will be done within an appropriate framework, along with the needed guidelines for implementation. The chapter will also provide recommendations for future research.
7.1 INTRODUCTION

After exploring the current issues and trends in the destination competitiveness literature, it became apparent that mega-events (as part of a wider portfolio of events offerings) has a definite place within the models of destination competitiveness. In order to optimally leverage such events as part of a destination’s competitive strategy, it became clear that knowledge from both destination and event management studies would have to be acquired. Throughout the different chapters of the study, the researcher aimed to develop a set of CSFs for event leveraging from a destination marketing and management perspective, that would hold true to the knowledge from both these fields. A first apparent set of CSFs was developed from the destination competitiveness literature, where after it was refined based on perspectives from the events literature. This literature included a pure events management perspective, but primarily focused on events tourism knowledge. The refined set of CSFs was then tested within a case study context by means of primary, as well as secondary data. Resulting from the empirical research, the various CSFs have been confirmed, while a few additional perspectives have been added. Importantly, it was found that it may be necessary to present the final set of CSFs within a pre- during and post- event framework. The next section will describe how the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ has contributed to the overall competitiveness of the City of Tshwane as a tourism destination. Thereafter the final framework will be presented, along with the applicable guidelines.

7.2 CONTRIBUTION OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP™ TO THE CITY OF TSHWANE AS A TOURISM DESTINATION

At the beginning of Chapter 6, the researcher presented the perceived competitiveness of the City of Tshwane before the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ by indicating the City’s strengths (in blue) and weaknesses (in red) within the destination competitiveness model of Ritchie and Crouch (2003). In order to simplify the task of making a comparison, Figure 26 is again presented below.
Based on the findings from the empirical research, the researcher has returned to this model and aimed to indicate the areas where the 2010 FIFA World Cup™ has made a significant impact on the CoT’s tourism industry from a destination management and marketing perspective. Figure 28 (pg.294) indicates (in green) the areas which were previously regarded as weaknesses (indicated in red in Figure 26), but have been addressed as a result of the event. These changes are based on the perspectives of the stakeholders as they have mentioned them during the interviews, as well as the secondary data that has been studied. It focuses on those areas that have, within the context of the case study, been affected positively by the event. The areas indicated in red, are weakness of the CoT that have, according to the empirical research, not been significantly impacted (either positively or negatively) by the event. This does not mean that, given a different context or case study, an event could not have the ability to contribute significantly to these aspects.
When comparing these two figures, it becomes clear that mega-events have the potential to contribute significantly to a destination’s overall competitiveness at various levels. In the case of the CoT, it has catapulted the City’s tourism strategy development process and has gained the much-needed political support. It has changed strategic thinking around destination organisation structures by, for example, fast-tracking the important process of establishing the long-awaited RTO. It has also contributed significantly to stakeholder cooperation and has fostered renewed efforts toward networking. Furthermore, it has changed the thinking around events as a destination product offering and has ascertained greater strategic thinking in this regard. It has set mechanisms in place that could strengthen any future event-related initiatives of the City – if it were to be upheld. This includes establishment of a JOC for the City, and the City’s voiced intention to establish a permanent unit functioning similar to the LOC (within the Tourism Division). Despite the budget and time constraints, much progress has been made in terms of the City’s new brand (and new name), as well as a new approach to marketing the City from a tourism destination perspective. The various smaller scale audits that were conducted before the event, could serve as a powerful platform from which to build a strong destination resource database. This also relates to the City’s voiced intention to conduct event impact studies in
partnership with academic institutions. The City has gained significantly in terms of service delivery awareness and human resource development through the various training initiatives. Key will be to maintain this knowledge within the City; along with capturing the event knowledge of the 2010 Unit that would disband after the event. Though these areas have been indicated as ‘strengths’, it is by far not stating that the ideal situation has been met. For example, although great strides have been made in terms of marketing the City as a tourism destination, there is still a great lack in terms of utilising e-marketing and new social networking tools.

Areas where the event has seemingly not made any concrete positive impacts, relate to strategic level thinking in terms of the destination’s philosophy and values. Though this has been addressed at some stakeholder meetings, it can only be concretised once a formal, recognised RTO exists. There has also been no apparent advantage in terms of serious future commitments toward a detailed competitive analysis of the City, as well as permanent monitoring and evaluation mechanisms where the industry plays an active role. For example, there has been no indication of any plans to conduct extensive research into World Cup visitors’ brand awareness, nor to determine the influence that the event has on the various stakeholder groups. Though there are plans to conduct some impact research, the event has not been able to instil a strong commitment to market research. Two other areas that pertain to the tourism product of the City, includes visitor management and resource stewardship. Due to a lack in stakeholder networking (perhaps as a result of unclear leadership), the destination’s product offerings and varied experiences have not been packaged (bundled) effectively, nor has the event stimulated much progress in this regard. Similarly, there remains a lack of committed resources to take ownership of the upgrading and further development and enhancement of the City’s attractions (apart from the few minor ‘touch ups’ made to key attractions in light of the event).

Figure 28 (pg.294) indicates five aspects that have not significantly been altered by the event. These include entertainment, enterprise, system definition, carrying capacity, as well as cost/value. These aspects were not indicated as either strengths or weaknesses before the event; nor have they been mentioned or specifically addressed as a result of the event. Some effort has gone into ‘enterprise’ in the form of SMME development, but it could not really be established whether this has been greater than what it has been in any
case (especially in the light of national government’s focus on such initiatives in general). Although the destination’s road infrastructure has been upgraded, it was too early to determine whether it would result in significant increases in terms of carrying capacity over the long term (when considering quality and maintenance that has to be upheld). There was also no clear indication or mention of the event’s possible effect on the destination’s value-for-money proposition. It may have been influenced as a result of the price concerns addressed at a national level, but no specific concerns were addressed within the City per se.

7.3 A FINAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

In order for a destination to attain the optimum competitive advantage through hosting a mega-event, there are certain fundamental things that have to be in place before the event; a vast scope of initiatives that have to be undertaken during the event; as well as several strategic initiatives that have to be continued after the event. The following framework (pg.297-300) presents the CSFs for leveraging mega-events, based on the set of CSFs that has been developed, refined and tested throughout this research study. Refer back to the apparent set of CSFs that were presented at the end of Chapter 3 (Table 19, pg.165). Based on the empirical research, it became clear that these CSFs have to be addressed within an appropriate timeframe, and that the performance areas under each CSF, has to be moved to the relevant positions within such a timeframe. Figure 29 (pg.297) provides the basic format of the framework which will be elaborated upon in the subsequent tables.
Figure 29: A framework of CSFs to leverage mega-events as an element of destination competitiveness

BEFORE
- Visionary leadership through an established, representative DMO.
- A functioning dedicated Events Unit within the DMO, that has a standing relationship with the events industry.
- Existence of an integrated events tourism strategy that is nationally aligned; representative; focuses on a balanced portfolio; and includes relevant functional aspects.
- Existence of a government operational events unit to create the enabling environment.
- Determine how event impacts will be measured (including environmental, social, economic and marketing aspects).

DURING
- Close collaboration between the DMO Events Unit and the government’s operational events unit; including continuous documentation of knowledge.

AFTER
- DMO Events Unit captures events knowledge gained.
- Collaborate with government’s operational events unit to monitor and improve efforts.
- Implement planned evaluation of the event.
MANAGING THE RESOURCES OF THE HOST DESTINATION

**BEFORE**
- Establish a comprehensive resource database to balance stock with demand.
- Identify the resources needed to ensure event specialness.
- Ensure quality of infrastructure and event-related resources; also develop with after-use in mind.
- Promote service delivery through human resource development; also applicable to the events industry; make use of local knowledge.

**DURING**
- Manage the event supply value chain to ensure satisfactory experience links and ensure smooth running of packages.

**AFTER**
- Maintain upgrading and quality initiatives.
- Maintain local human knowledge gained during the event.
- Re-invest any profits into destination’s event facilities (strengthen event offering).
- Implement after-use strategy of facilities.

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CLARIFYING THE BROADER STAKEHOLDER ROLES AND RELATIONSHIPS

**BEFORE**
- Community support and involvement by creating awareness and managing expectations.
- Tourism industry commitment and networking, including intended co-marketing agreements.
- Partnering with the right allies and collaborators (to assist with research, training and event greening, among others).

**DURING**
- Community support and involvement through creating interaction platforms; encouraging event participation and hospitality.
- Tourism industry commitment in terms of service delivery; hospitality; promotion of the destination brand; creating a customer database; realistic pricing; and implementing environmental footprint measures.
- Allies and collaborators focused on research and monitoring.

**AFTER**
- Community support and involvement through recognition, rewards, and celebrating success.
- Tourism industry commitment by making market data available; celebrating success; concluding on lessons learnt.
- Allies and collaborators deliver the expected research outputs.
ENSURING AN EVENT MARKETING STRATEGY THAT IS ALIGNED WITH THE OVERALL DESTINATION MARKETING STRATEGY

**BEFORE**

- An umbrella destination brand that is owned by all the destination stakeholders (ensure effective distribution of branding material).
- Effective co-branding agreements with the event brand and sponsor brands; including negotiations around media exposure for the destination.
- Media and publicity strategy to focus on event developments and the different event tourist markets. Effective leveraging of other events to create awareness. Prepare media material to use during the event. Host media tours. Prepare publicity and crisis management material.
- Strategy to creatively manage event-related restrictions, especially in terms of marketing.
- Develop separate but aligned campaigns for the different event tourist markets, based on market research (actual eventers – focus on a variety of different experiences; event core and non-eventers – focus on unexpected experiences; media-eventers – focus on possible personal experience platforms).
- Develop strategies to counter or address displacement of the regular tourist market.
- Develop separate, but aligned campaigns for the different stakeholder groups and start communicating (including locals; industry members; as well as non-tourists).
- Focus on communication with investors.
- Set the latest ICT in place for distribution and communication. Start communicating.
- Communicate event-related developments that can enhance the destination image.
- Establish pricing agreements and monitoring mechanisms.
- Prepared product packages throughout the wider destination in cooperation with tourism and non-tourism industry stakeholders.

**DURING**

- Effectively manage promotional item stock throughout the destination.
- Visitor information provision throughout the destination.
- Focus sufficiently on actual eventers, event core, and non-eventers.
- Continue communication with different stakeholder groups.
- Update ICT platforms and actively communicate on a continuous basis.
- Communicate event progress and ‘good news’ stories.

**AFTER**

- Link event successes to destination brand.
- Commit to future relations with event owners and sponsors.
- Extend visitor stays with post-event celebrations and promotions.
- Remind visitors of the event experiences (use footage generated during event).
- Uphold visitor information points throughout the destination.
- Focus on event core, non-eventers and media-eventers to return as tourists.
- Feedback to different stakeholder groups; information publicly available.
CONCERN FOR AND PRO-ACTIVELY ADDRESSING ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES

BEFORE
- **Encourage green practices** through various methods (tourism as well as events industry).
- **Address greening requirements** in events strategy.
- Collaborate with the **relevant supporting stakeholders**.
- Ensure sustainability of the **DMO’s own marketing practices** (eco-friendly promotional material; locally produced; true statements).

DURING
- Educate the events tourists market.
- **Maintain facilities** that allow for event greening (waste management; carbon tracking).

AFTER
- **Evaluate effectiveness** of event greening initiatives.
- Recognize **best practices**.
- Creatively **compensate for event’s environmental impacts**.
- Review **DMO’s commitment and approach** toward environmental accountability.

The framework of CSFs that has been presented, encompasses a range of performance areas. Each of these areas in turn, entails a multitude of aspects that have to be considered in order to ensure optimal performance in that area. Detail on these aspects has been provided throughout the study. It has either been done through related literature that discusses a specific aspect in detail; by providing best practise case study examples; or by highlighting relevant findings from the empirical case study. The framework can serve as a roadmap for a DMO that plans to undertake a journey into the global events market. The study unambiguously proved that optimal leveraging of a mega-event should not be regarded as a single undertaking. It should ultimately be done within a strategically formulated events tourism strategy, and across a longer term time continuum. This appears to be the most appropriate way in which mega-events should be leveraged to optimally serve as strategic tools toward overall destination competitiveness.
7.4 AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

There is great scope for future research on the topic of event leveraging for overall destination competitiveness. It can be argued that each of the CSFs alone present unexplored avenues. Furthermore, there are many sub-themes within each CSF that still need to be researched in order to determine the most appropriate practices to ensure optimum delivery of the CSF. When considering the importance of an events tourism strategy, this topic requires further attention to fill the existing gap in literature. It may prove especially beneficial to determine how such a strategy can optimally be implemented throughout a destination, if there are great discrepancies in the levels of local destination development; and also to determine how this will affect the true competitiveness of the national events tourism strategy. Another area of concern is effective representation of the destination in the relationship with the event organiser; especially in the case of emerging destinations that may not always have an established DMO in place. Even though there is an abundance of literature on the marketing aspects of events, there are some issues that could be explored further. One such an issue is the concept of effective management strategies to deal with displacement of the regular and domestic tourist markets. The one CSF that stands out, however, in terms of a need for future research, is the theme of consideration for environmental issues during events (event greening). Not only is there a gap in existing literature, but there also appears to be a lack of understanding, recognition and practical application from a DMO perspective.
LIST OF REFERENCES


Anon. 2009. State of Readiness to host Confed Cup 2009 & 2010 FWC. Presentation delivered by the Marketing & Communication Cluster of the 2010 Unit to the TTAT, 17 February, Tshwane Events Centre, Tshwane, South Africa.


Kekana, K. 2008. Speech by the City Manager of the City of Tshwane. Delivered at the Tshwane Tourism Fair, 6 October.


Pillay, S. 2010a. Personal interview.


APPENDIX A

Detailed table of the apparent critical success factors to leverage mega-events as an element of destination competitiveness
### Critical success factor

**Hosting of the mega-event should be directed by visionary leadership. It should be linked to a vision of human development and quality of life of residents. Event-related strategy and actions have to be benchmarked against industry leaders. Determine how performance will be measured.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Critical success factor</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Guided by visionary leadership</strong></td>
<td>2.2 (p.3) 2.4.2.1 (p.16)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Focus on human resource development</strong></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Given a place in tourism policy</strong></td>
<td>15, 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Benchmarked against industry leaders</strong></td>
<td>2.4.2.2 (p.17) 30, 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Measuring destination performance</strong></td>
<td>2.4.2.3 (p.17) 21, 24, 25, 27, 29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Clarifying the stakeholders and their roles

**Understand who the stakeholders involved are. Clarify their roles and understand their vested interests. Involve them in a timely manner. Understand the needs/characteristics of event market.**

| The DMO | 2.4.3 (p.21-23) 2, 15, 18, |
| Tourists (event market) | 2.5.1 (p.24) 1, 4, 5, 10, 11, 18 |
| Tourism product owners | 2.3.2.1 (p.6) 2.4.2.4 (p.18) 3, 6, 10, 17, 19 |
| Communities (Resource stewardship, human resources, experience enhancers) | 2.4.5 & 2.4.6 (p.27-32) |
| Industry associations | Positions in the models |
| Investors (Investment climate) | |
| Government (Political will; policy, legislation, facilitating resources) | |
| Political groups | |

### Managing the destination resources

**Linked to quality assurance and supply chain management. Have a comprehensive destination ‘inventory’ and know what the destination’s strengths and weaknesses are in terms of global measures of competitiveness. Know which resources are linked to hosting an event and which will have to be developed by the destination.**

| Inventory (strengths and weaknesses) | 2.3.2.2 – 2.3.2.4 (p.6-8) 2.5.3.2 – 2.5.3.4 (p.32-33) 6, 13, 17, 29 |

### Aligned with the overall destination marketing strategy

**Must be appropriately aligned with the overall destination marketing strategy. Understand the positive and potential negative effects of an event on destination’s marketing. Make use of appropriate methods to leverage event-related marketing opportunities.**

| Brand and image | 7, 12, 15 |
| Use of ICT | 1 |
| Distribution channels | 2.4.2.1 (p.16) 3 |
| Link with other destination products | 2.5.1 (p.24) 8 |
| Managing the destination lifecycle | 9 |

### Concern for environmental issues

**The event has to be approached with a concern for environmental issues. Also have to ensure greening of the event and ways to measure and prevent negative event impacts.**

| Sustainable practices during event | 2.3.2.6 (p.11) 14, 16 |
| Climate impacts | 2.4.2.5 (p.19-20) |
APPENDIX B

Frameworks for event tourism strategy making
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Framework</th>
<th>Corporate, market-led</th>
<th>Synergistic</th>
<th>Community, destination-led</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Event bidding with related events tourism marketing</td>
<td>Integrated strategies for major events, new and existing events</td>
<td>Events tourism strategies that give some priority to fostering new and existing local events and festivals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational structure</td>
<td>One/two agencies (tourism and/or events) assume control with mostly corporate and government input to strategy</td>
<td>State agencies assume leadership with a balance of stakeholder input</td>
<td>Strategy initiated by agencies and/or community groups to gain widespread engagement (community groups, opinion leaders, others)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processes and people</td>
<td>Early consultation. Meetings or one-to-one contact with an inner circle of government and/or corporate figures. Tourism marketing bodies may/may not be involved prior to attracting major event</td>
<td>Agencies build in a consultation process (forums, meetings) to obtain business and community input to event decisions. Types of input sought may vary for event bidding, creation or expansion</td>
<td>A collaborative process where community round tables, public forums and visioning sessions guide overall strategy. Maximum involvement of affected stakeholders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision criteria</td>
<td>Decisions are driven by market criteria—attractiveness, growth and economic resources</td>
<td>Market driven and community driven—agencies weigh up market success alongside the various non-economic impacts of events</td>
<td>Community and destination resource driven. Economic criteria may be diluted by perceived social, ecological cultural or other impacts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C

Tshwane Tourism Steering Committee profile
The Tshwane Tourism Steering Committee included the following representatives:

- Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (City of Tshwane)
- Tshwane Tourism Department
- Tshwane Tourism Association (various private sector entities)
- Moshito-wa-Tshwane (township tourism products)
- National Flagship Institute (Museum management authority)
- Tshwane Tourism Forum (Museum Park in Pretoria Central)
- Tshwane Conference, Bidding & Marketing Services
- Gauteng Combined Accommodation Association
- Tshwane Craft Council
- Tourism safety and security services
- GTA
- Development Bank of Southern Africa
- South African Tourism Services Association (SATSA) (inbound tourism operators)
- Bophela Tours (inbound tour operators)
- Tshwane University of Technology (educational institutions)
APPENDIX D

Key actions in terms of the City’s events offering
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Long-term events offering of the City</th>
<th>World Cup strategy of the City</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Establish a convention and visitor bureau as a key component of the envisaged RTO.</td>
<td>- Undertake a survey to determine the state of readiness, as well as challenges and concerns of tourism product owners, with regard to the two upcoming mega-events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Update the existing database on event supply throughout the City.</td>
<td>- Identify, package and promote key tourism offerings and experiences within the City, but also in the surrounding areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Compile an up-to-date events calendar.</td>
<td>- Launch a major cleaning and beautification campaign (involving locals).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Ensure that all Tshwane events are listed on relevant provincial/national calendars and websites.</td>
<td>- Put up signage at all market-ready tourism venues and at key strategic points.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Establish an annual flagship event (either new or by enhancing an existing event).</td>
<td>- Launch a Service Excellence Drive aimed at local transport operators, all frontline staff, and volunteers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Coordinate promotional material with any 2010 publications; using the new brand and logo where possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Drive visitors to an efficient City tourism website.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Use the opportunity presented by the teams that will be situated in the City (linking to the diplomatic presence in the City).</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Ensure that a central, user-friendly and accessible flagship Information Centre, with well-trained staff is fully operational three months before the Confederation Cup.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Have mobile information centers at all key events and strategic points in the build-up, during and after the Confederations Cup and the 2010 Soccer World Cup (sufficiently stocked with up-to-date promotional material).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Disseminate SMME development information as widely as possible to stakeholders in Tshwane.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Sustain the excitement of local communities through outreach programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Ensure a clear brand message and memorable experiences throughout the City (address as part of an internal marketing and service excellence drive).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Inform tourism stakeholders of event-related regulations and restrictions, and provide guidelines on how to leverage related opportunities.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Taken from Heath (2008)
APPENDIX E

Semi-structured interview schedule
A STAKEHOLDER PERSPECTIVE ON MEGA-EVENTS AS AN ELEMENT OF TOURISM DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

DETAILS OF THE RESPONDENT

Respondent’s name
Title
Organisation
Contact telephone number
Email address
Date
Time
Duration of interview

Approved consent to participate  □

OPENING STATEMENT TO RESPONDENTS

Thank you for allowing me the opportunity to have this interactive session. The focus of our discussion will be on tourism destinations and the role that mega-events can and should play to contribute to the overall competitiveness of the destination. The whole of South Africa is filled with anticipation as we are only days away from the biggest event Africa has ever hosted. There is a myriad of stakeholder groups in the country waiting to reap the rewards from this event. What I would like to discuss is the way in which South Africa and its host cities (the City of Tshwane in particular) have prepared for this event and how they will benefit from a tourism destination perspective.

Our discussion will be guided along the following four broad themes:

- The current level of competitiveness of the City of Tshwane as a tourism destination (elements of the model applied).
- The contributions that mega-events can make to the competitiveness of the City of Tshwane as a tourism destination (benefits and risks).
- Issues unique to mega-events that have to be taken into consideration for the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup (or any other mega-event) from a tourism destination perspective.
- The key issues that need to be addressed to ensure a positive legacy of tourism destination competitiveness for the City of Tshwane.
THEME 1: CURRENT LEVEL OF COMPETITIVENESS OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE AS A DESTINATION

1. In your view, would you say that the City of Tshwane is a globally competitive tourism destination? YES - Why?

   (If answered NO to question 1)

2. Are there any shortcomings or obstacles that are hindering the City of Tshwane from being a globally recognised destination?

   (Resources, marketing, product development, target market, planning, government commitment, support services, infrastructure, etc.)

3. Do you believe that there is any significant competitive difference between the City of Tshwane and the other 2010 World Cup host cities?
   - Yes/No
   - Which
   - Why do they exist

THEME 2: THE CONTRIBUTIONS THAT MEGA-EVENTS CAN MAKE TO THE COMPETITIVENESS OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE AS A DESTINATION

4. Do you agree with the statement that it is beneficial for the City of Tshwane to be a host city for the 2010 FIFA World Cup? Motivate your answer.
   a) Short-term impacts (triple bottom line)
   b) Long term legacies

5. From a destination marketing perspective, what do you regard as the most important benefits that the City of Tshwane may accrue from this event? (Image, brand, bundling of products, publicity, non-accredited media, new markets)

6. Have there been any changes in the City of Tshwane’s tourism strategy due to the World Cup?
   yes/no - a separate portfolio in the DMO
   Which? - event policy and strategy
   Which more important? - bidding strategy for the future
   Which left out?

7. Please elaborate on the level of stakeholder coordination and collaboration within the City of Tshwane in the wake of the World Cup. (Tourism industry - public & private, government, local community, event organisers/LOC, Fifa, regional)

8. How important do you think it is for the City to put a formal event strategy in place?

9. What/how do you see the role of SAT/national level to support local RTO event efforts?
THEME 3: ISSUES UNIQUE TO MEGA-EVENTS THAT HAVE TO BE TAKEN INTO CONSIDERATION FOR THE HOSTING OF THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP

10. Which issues that can be regarded as unique to mega-events, should be taken into consideration by the City of Tshwane?
   - LOC
   - Fifa stronghold (Fifa legalities)
   - Mass number of spectators (logistical issues)
   - Worldwide media interest
   - Effect on local enterprises
   - Match contracting

11. Please elaborate on the process of City-level coordination from a tourism perspective (including the Tourism Division, private sector) with the LOC and the 2010 office. Is this an important aspect?

12. Mention any recent efforts by the City of Tshwane which you regard as most important to ensure Tshwane’s ability to act as host city. [This can be anything from roads to signage, marketing, local involvement to the environment, ‘mood’ in the City]

13. What obstacles or challenges do you foresee in terms of the City of Tshwane’s ability to act as host city?

THEME 4: THE KEY ISSUES THAT NEED TO BE ADDRESSED TO ENSURE A POSITIVE LEGACY OF DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS FOR THE CITY OF TSHWANE

14. In your opinion, what has to be done to ensure that the hosting of 2010 fosters long-term benefits (legacies) for the City of Tshwane as a tourism destination?

15. An as a last question, what do you regard as the critical success factors to ensure a successful 2010 World Cup event?
   - infrastructure (transport, signage)
   - training (hospitality industry, service providers)
   - support to tourism industry
   - communication and information to stakeholders (development; Fifa legalities)
   - marketing (city co-branding, product bundling with event etc.)
   - local involvement (and volunteers)
   - government support/contribution
   - formation of partnerships
   - environmental issues
   - event experience (for visitors)
   - publicity strategy
   - cultural programme running parallel to event
   - local business, SME, entrepreneur opportunities
   - after-use strategy
   - risk management / procurement plan
   - safety and security
   - service excellence
   - all levels readiness
APPENDIX F

Informed consent form
Informed consent for participation in an academic research study

A STAKEHOLDER PERSPECTIVE ON MEGA-EVENTS AS AN ELEMENT OF TOURISM DESTINATION COMPETITIVENESS

Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by ____, a Masters student from the ____ at ____.

The purpose of the study is to determine how mega-events can optimally be used as tools to contribute to the overall competitiveness of a tourism destination.

Please note the following:

- This study involves anonymous semi-structured interviews. Your name will not be added to the answers you give and it will be treated as strictly confidential. You cannot be identified in person based on the answers you give, accept if you implicitly give permission to do so.
- Your participation in this study is very important to us. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
- Please participate in the interview by answering as completely and honestly as possible. Such an interview will last approximately an hour.
- The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only and may be published in an academic journal. We will provide you with a summary of our findings on request.
- Please contact my supervisor, ____ if you have any questions or comments regarding the study.

Please sign the form to indicate that:

- You have read and understand the information provided above.
- You give your consent to participate in the study on a voluntary basis.

___________________________      ___________________
Respondent’s signature       Date
APPENDIX G

Letter of permission

City of Tshwane Tourism Division
RESEARCH PERMISSION GRANTED

Permission is hereby granted to

1) to conduct research in the City of Tshwane Tourism Division.

She has permission to arrange interviews with any staff members that she may deem fit for her study. This should be done at hours that are convenient for our staff.

We understand that her study also requires her to look at some of our strategic documents. We therefore also give her permission to use strategy documents, reports, and minutes of the Tshwane Tourism Action Team meetings. We will assist her in obtaining the documents where necessary. Our condition is that she should use the documents with discretion and in no way as to harm the Tourism Division.

Regards

Wouter Koekemoer
Director: Tourism Promotion

Ke Nako. Celebrate Africa's Humanity
APPENDIX H

Branding activities and promotional material of the City of Tshwane for the 2010 FIFA World Cup™
BRANDS USED IN THE CoT DURING THE 2010 FIFA WORLD CUP

- National brands -

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Logo</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ![2010 FIFA World Cup South Africa logo](image1) | 2010 FIFA World Cup South Africa logo  
By-line: ‘Ke Nako’ (It’s time).  
Celebrate Africa’s Humanity’  
Promoted by the LOC and IMC  
City level: 2010 Unit |
| ![2010 FIFA ‘African world cup’ image](image2) | 2010 FIFA ‘African world cup’ image  
By-line: ‘Africa’s time has come’  
Promoted by the LOC and IMC  
City level: 2010 Unit |
| ![Welcome Campaign logo](image3) | Welcome Campaign logo  
Promoted by South African Tourism  
City level: CoT Tourism Division |
City brands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Logo</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ![FIFA Host City composite logo](image1) | The FIFA Host City composite logo  
By-lines: ‘City of Champions’ &  
‘Capital City of Excellence’  
Promoted by the 2010 Unit |
| ![City of Tshwane Municipal logo](image2) | City of Tshwane Municipal logo  
By-line: ‘We are the same’  
Promoted by ICMIS through the 2010 Unit |
| ![Tshwane Tourism new logo](image3) | Tshwane Tourism new logo  
(1st edition)  
‘Experience it!’  
Promoted by the CoT Tourism Division through the 2010 Unit |
| ![Tshwane Tourism new logo](image4) | Tshwane Tourism new logo  
(2nd edition)  
‘Experience it!’  
Promoted by the CoT Tourism Division through the 2010 Unit |
MARKETING ACTIVITIES UNDERTAKEN AT CITY LEVEL

The 2010 Unit and Tourism Division’s marketing and communication initiatives already started in 2009 for the Confederations Cup. At that stage the FIFA Host City logo included the Confederations Cup logo; while the Tourism Division promoted the new Tshwane ‘Experience it!’ (1st Edition) logo. This logo of the new Tshwane ‘Experience it!’ brand (launched May 2009) had to be changed for the 2010 World Cup, after the new national brand was announced in April 2010. Fortunately for Tshwane (as discussed in Chapter 6), this made the CoT a frontrunner in terms of alignment with the new national brand for the 2010 World Cup event. In essence, the Confederations Cup activities included the same initiatives from the 2010 Unit; with the addition of branding the municipal buses, as well as designing and branding the CoT 2010 Office (located in the inner-city). Furthermore, the Confeds Cup initiatives included more exposure during events such as the Loftus roof wetting, the Korean Youth Tournament, as well as Bafana Bafana / Mamelodi Sundowns and Supersport teams ticket tape parade and cocktail party (Anon, 2009).

The following discussions will focus on the marketing activities undertaken for the 2010 World Cup event.

- Promotional activities of the CoT Tourism Division
  The Tourism Division worked in collaboration with the 2010 Unit on a number of promotional initiatives. Apart from the promotional items that were produced specifically for the 2010 event, there was also some of the ‘older’ material available in the destination (as the researcher collected them from the Tourism Information office in Church Square and the new VIC in Hatfield just before the start of the 2010 event). The table below indicates the promotional activities undertaken, and also indicates the branding that had been used. Upon investigation, it appears that only four items and one website (in bold) displayed the new Tshwane ‘Experience it!’ (2nd edition) logo. The content of this table was also verified by one participant dealing with promotional material of the City.
**PRINTED MATERIAL**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Promotional item</th>
<th>Brand/s used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Z-card</td>
<td>FIFA Host City composite logo &amp; Tshwane ‘Experience it’ logo (1st edition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pack of post cards</strong></td>
<td>FIFA Host City composite logo. It also displays both the 1st edition and 2nd edition of the ‘Experience it’ logo (2nd edition pasted with a sticker over the 1st edition logo).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Host city booklet</strong></td>
<td>FIFA Host City composite logo &amp; Tshwane ‘Experience it’ logo (2nd edition)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism Map</td>
<td>City of Tshwane Municipal logo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Township Tourism booklet</td>
<td>City of Tshwane Municipal logo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z-folders of key attractions</td>
<td>City of Tshwane Municipal logo &amp; SAT Welcome logo</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**ELECTRONIC MATERIAL**

| Tourism Directory (CD)           | FIFA Host City composite logo                                              |
| Business Tourism (CD)            | FIFA Host City composite logo & Tshwane ‘Experience it’ logo (1st edition) |
| Township Tourism DVDs            | City of Tshwane Municipal logo                                             |

**WEBSITES**

| City of Tshwane                   | City of Tshwane Municipal logo                                             |
| Host City website (2010 Unit)     | FIFA Host City composite logo                                              |
| **Tshwane Tourism website**       | FIFA Host City composite logo & Tshwane ‘Experience it’ logo (2nd edition) |
| Tshwane Tourism Association      | Own logo                                                                    |

**PROMOTIONAL ITEMS**

| Paper gift bag                   | City of Tshwane Municipal logo & SAT Welcome logo                          |
| Hessian gift bag                 | City of Tshwane Municipal logo                                             |
| **Cooler box**                   | Tshwane ‘Experience it’ logo (2nd edition)                                 |
| Umbrella                         | Tshwane ‘Experience it’ logo (2nd edition)                                 |

- **The CoT stand at the Tourism Indaba**

  The City exhibited at the Tourism Indaba in Durban during May 2010. The whole event had a 2010 theme, with most of the provinces and individual destinations using it in their exhibitions. However, focus still remained on the ‘normal’ tourism product offerings of the various destinations. The CoT’s stand was the primary responsibility of the Tourism Division and ICMIS, with the 2010 Unit providing support. There was promotional material specific to 2010, as well as some of the older material available. Some of the associations were also present at the stand. The logo displayed outside of the stand, was the new Tshwane ‘Experience it’ logo (2nd edition).

- **Other marketing activities of the 2010 Unit**

  At a project progress presentation delivered to Tshwane Tourism stakeholders during the Tshwane Tourism Lekgotla in April 2010 (Anon, 2010a), the following information...
was shared. Keep in mind that this refers to branding in terms of the **FIFA Host City composite brand.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Branding (City dressing)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>− 2100 flags placed on protocols routes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Telescopic banners, fence branding and 1 five a side soccer inflatable pitch at the 12 road shows and soccer clinics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Branding the commercial display at Loftus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− 50 flags and 50 banners at Wonderboom Airport and the access routes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− A branded crash soccer ball at OR Tambo International Airport (international arrivals)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− 100 bus shelters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− 200 mini bus taxis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− All gateways to the City of Tshwane and the townships branded with flags and banners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Tourism Indaba in Durban during May 2010 (</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Football Friday activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Nation Press Club event – 21st April 2010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media Buying (Below the Line)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>− Radio advertising.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− <strong>Print media and targeted magazines</strong> will be used to market 2010, but also with a focus on tourism initiatives and stadium issues.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− <strong>OC Media Tour</strong> was hosted with 150 International &amp; local Journalist on 26th Feb at Super Stadia.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Media Buying (Above the Line)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>− Strategic <strong>billboards.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− <strong>Billboard</strong> space at the entrance of OR Tambo International Airport.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− <strong>Television</strong> adverts to position Tshwane as a proud Host City, hospitable, safe, secured and caring.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Other publicity material</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>− Fan Guide Z-card</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Map of Loftus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Community brochure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Volunteer and public officer handbook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Tshwane Update – Special Edition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− The City of Tshwane Host City Poster (picture on the next page)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Information sheets (Base Camps &amp; Fan Camps; Public Viewing Areas)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>− Tshwane 201 FIFA World Cup Programme – Business Opportunities brochure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The City of Tshwane
Host City poster
APPENDIX I

Photo evidence
CITY BEAUTIFICATION AND DRESSING

Three main access routes into the City

Eastern entry from the N4

Northern entry from the R101
Main project: Fountains Circle
Southern entry from the R21 (Nelson Mandela Drive)

Focal point artwork

Project notification
CoT Municipal logo

The Unisa building not used as a promotional platform
Beautification around Loftus Stadium

Project notification:
Walkway around Loftus
FIFA Host City composite logo

Beautification and artwork at the media centre across Loftus Stadium

Temporary police office at the media centre
Dressing at the Union Buildings

New information point

No changes to displays of the vendors that are usually present
Other City dressing efforts

The controversial Telkom tower

On the barriers of a building site

Vodacom
SIGNAGE

Directional signage and traffic management

Directional signage on the N1 (northern entry)
BRANDING

- Different images presented

  City of Tshwane Host City banners (with the 2010 mascot, Zakumi)

  National brands (African event and main event logo)
Branding at City entry points and main roads

Northern entry point (R101) includes SAT advertisement with Welcome logo
At the northern entry point (R101) was the first and only place where the Green Goal logo and message was observed by the researcher.

Eastern entry point (N4) with FIFA Host City composite brand.
Main road to northern entry point (George Storrar Drive) with main event logo and African event image

- Building dressing with the FIFA Host City composite logo
• Branding at the media centre (Loftus Stadium)

No Host City branding visible at the media centre

• Branding at Loftus Stadium

Exposure to the City and the country
• Other branding initiatives

Taxis branded with the FIFA Host City composite logo

Source: Tshwane Tourism (n.d.c)

Crash soccer ball at the International arrivals hall (OR Tambo Airport) with FIFA Host City composite logo

Source: Tshwane Tourism (n.d.c)
VISITOR INFORMATION CENTRE

The new Visitor Information Centre, with photos indicating the limited amount of signage to direct visitors to the centre.
BRANDING AND UPGRADING OF WONDERBOOM AIRPORT

Directional sign from main access road

Branding of Airport Road

Signage and branding outside of airport entrance
Temporary police office inside airport

FIFA Host City composite logo on notice

Arrivals hall dressed and branded