

**THE E-MARKETING OF SPORTS MEGA-EVENTS WITH SPECIFIC
REFERENCE TO THE
2010 SOCCER WORLD CUP**

By

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FACULTY OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES

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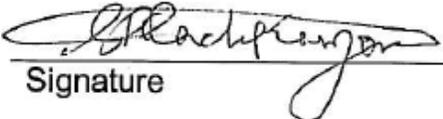
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DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this achievement to the late Mr Samuel T. Konopi and Mrs Kefiloe H. Konopi for the parenthood role they played in my life without which this could have not been possible. A very special thank to my mother Jeminah Radikonyana, my sister Emily and cousins, my colleagues, friends and many others, who always believed in my potential and always encouraged me to fulfil my dreams, I say thank you for your special support. Finally, to my wife Modiegi and children, I say thank you for your support and for always being there for me.

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ABSTRACT

From an analysis of the literature it is apparent that there has been no concerted effort to date to undertake a coherent and integrated assessment of the application of e-marketing in sport mega-events. A strategic evaluation of the e-marketing initiatives implemented since 2000 during national and international mega events, indicates that e-marketing, in most instances, took place in a limited and fragmented manner. However a further analysis of these case studies provides valuable perspectives and lessons that could inform the research process related to e-marketing during the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™. Against this background each of the selected sport mega-events since 2000 was investigated in terms of how e-marketing technology was used in the particular event, the e-marketing challenges experienced, the key e-marketing lessons learnt and the apparent e-marketing critical success factors related to these events.

The theoretical context and the lessons learnt from previous mega-event case studies provided the background and frame of reference for the empirical research into the use of e-marketing during the 2010 Soccer World Cup™. The key envisaged outcome was to theoretically develop an e-marketing framework that can serve as a guideline to fully optimise e-marketing in future sports mega-events. The research findings were presented and the 16 critical e-marketing success factors (CSFs) that may contribute to the success of sport mega-events were identified. Specific conclusions were made based on the results obtained and specific actions were recommended for future additional research in the sport mega-events field.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vii
APPENDICES.....	xxi
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xxii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xxiv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	xxiv

CHAPTER 1: THE RESEARCH PROBLEM IN CONTEXT	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.2 BACKGROUND.....	3
1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM STATEMENT	7
1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	8
1.5 IMPORTANCE AND BENEFITS OF THE STUDY	9
1.6 DELIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS	10
1.6.1 Delimitations	11
1.6.2 Assumptions	11
1.6.3 Limitations of the study	12
1.7 DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS	13
1.7.1 E-business	13
1.7.2 Internet.....	15
1.7.3 The Web (World Wide Web)	15
1.7.4 E-commerce.....	16
1.7.5 E-marketing/Web-marketing/Internet marketing.....	17
1.7.6 Mega-events	18
1.7.7 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	19
1.7.8 Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs).....	19
1.8 DISSERTATION OUTLINE	20
1.9 SUMMARY	21

CHAPTER 2: THE ROLE OF MEGA-EVENTS IN THE TOURISM.....	23
INDUSTRY.....	23
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	24
2.2 EVENTS IN TOURISM.....	24
2.2.1 Event(s) Tourism defined.....	25
2.2.2 Types of events in Event Tourism.....	27
2.2.2.1 Cultural celebrations.....	27
2.2.2.2 Arts and entertainment events.....	28
2.2.2.3 Business and trade events	28
2.2.2.4 Educational and scientific events.....	29
2.2.2.5 Hallmark events.....	29
2.2.2.6 Mega-events.....	30
2.2.2.7 Sport events	31
2.3 MEGA-EVENTS AND THE TOURISM INDUSTRY.....	34
2.3.1 Mega-events for destination marketing and competitiveness.....	37
2.3.2 Mega-events as strengthening services in destination competitiveness	39
2.3.3 Mega-events as core attractors in the essence of destination appeal.....	40
2.3.4 Mega-events as attractors to create destination uniqueness	42
2.4 THE CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH THE HOSTING OF SPORT MEGA-.....	44
EVENTS	44
2.4.1 Economic factors	45
2.4.2 Financial risks	45
2.4.3 Political and legal factors	46

2.4.4	Resource-based factors	48
2.4.4.1	Infrastructural risks	48
2.4.4.2	Hidden costs.....	48
2.4.5	Environmental factors	49
2.4.5.1	Environmental impact risks.....	49
2.4.6	Socio-cultural factors	51
2.5	SUMMARY	52
 CHAPTER 3 THE MARKETING OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS		54
3.1	INTRODUCTION.....	55
3.2	MARKETING	55
3.3	THE PARADIGM SHIFT IN MARKETING	57
3.4	TOURISM AND TRAVEL MARKETING	60
3.5	MARKETING OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS.....	62
3.5.1	Sport mega-events and the Print Media.....	62
3.5.2	Sport mega-events and the Radio	62
3.5.3	Sport mega-events and the Television.....	63
3.5.4	Public Relations as a marketing medium for sport mega-events	65
3.5.4.1	Advertorials	66
3.5.4.2	Advance articles	67
3.5.5	Sport mega-events and Sponsorships	67
3.5.5.1	Implications of Sponsorship: Ambush marketing.....	69
3.5.6	Merchandising as a marketing tool for sport mega-events.....	72

3.5.7	Sport mega-events and the Internet.....	73
3.6	SUMMARY	76
CHAPTER 4 E-MARKETING OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS		77
4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	78
4.2	THE CONCEPTS OF MARKETING, E-BUSINESS, E-COMMERCE AND	79
	E-MARKETING.....	79
4.2.1	Linkages between e-business, e-commerce and e-marketing	79
4.2.2	E-marketing technologies	81
4.2.2.1	Web 2.0	81
4.3	THE PERCEIVED E-MARKETING BENEFITS TO ORGANISATIONS.....	87
	AND CUSTOMERS.....	87
4.4	NEW TRENDS REGARDING SPORT MEGA-EVENTS MARKETING	89
4.5	SPORT MEGA-EVENTS AND E-MARKETING TECHNOLOGY.....	91
4.5.1	YouTube	92
4.5.2	Podcasting.....	93
4.5.3	Web-logs/Blogs.....	94
4.5.4	Twitter	96
4.5.5	Mobile Telephony.....	97
4.6	FUTURE WEB DEVELOPMENTS	98
4.6.1	Web 3.0 marketing.....	100
4.7	SUMMARY	103

CHAPTER 5 E-MARKETING LESSONS FROM PREVIOUS SPORT.....104

MEGA-EVENTS.....104

5.1	INTRODUCTION.....	105
5.2	CASE STUDIES OF PREVIOUS SPORT MEGA-EVENTS SINCE 2000	105
5.2.1	SYDNEY 2000 SUMMER OLYMPIC GAMES	106
5.2.1.1	The theme and aim(s) of the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games....	107
5.2.1.2	Marketing and e-marketing of the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic.....	107
5.2.1.3	Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Sydney 2000 Summer.....	110
	Olympic Games.....	110
5.2.1.4	E-marketing challenges from the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic.....	110
	Games.....	110
5.2.2	KOREA AND JAPAN 2002 FIFA SOCCER WORLD CUP™.....	111
5.2.2.1	The theme and aim(s) of the Korea-Japan 2002 Soccer FIFA.....	111
	World Cup™	111
5.2.2.2	Marketing and e-marketing of the Korea-Japan 2002 FIFA Soccer.....	111
	World Cup™	111
5.2.2.3	Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Korea-Japan 2002 FIFA.....	113
	Soccer World Cup™	113
5.2.3	ATHENS 2004 OLYMPIC GAMES	113
5.2.3.1	The theme and aim(s) of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games	114
5.2.3.2	Marketing and e-marketing of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games	114
5.2.3.3	Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Athens 2004 Olympic.....	116
	Games.....	116

5.2.3.4	E-marketing challenges from the Athens 2004 Olympic Games	116
5.2.4	GERMANY 2006 FIFA SOCCER WORLD CUP™	117
5.2.4.1	The theme and aim(s) of the Germany 2006 FIFA Soccer World..... Cup™	117
5.2.4.2	Marketing and e-marketing of the Germany 2006 FIFA Soccer..... World Cup™	118
5.2.4.3	Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Germany 2006 FIFA..... Soccer World Cup™	119
5.2.5	BEIJING 2008 OLYMPIC SUMMER GAMES	120
5.2.5.1	The theme and aim(s) of the Beijing 2008 Olympic Summer Games	120
5.2.5.2	Marketing and e-marketing of the Beijing 2008 Olympic Summer..... Games.....	121
5.2.5.3	Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Beijing 2008 Summer..... Olympic Games.....	124
5.2.5.4	E-marketing challenges emerging from the Beijing 2008 Summer..... Olympic Games.....	125
5.2.6	THE VANCOUVER 2010 WINTER OLYMPIC GAMES	125
5.2.6.1	The theme and aim(s) of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games...126	
5.2.6.2	Marketing and e-marketing of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic.... Games.....	126
5.2.6.3	Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Vancouver 2010 Winter..... Olympic Games.....	129
5.2.7	SPORT MEGA-EVENTS PREVIOUSLY HOSTED BY SOUTH AFRICA	130

5.2.7.1	The 1995 Rugby World Cup	131
5.2.7.2	The 2003 Cricket World Cup	132
5.2.7.3	Key e-marketing lessons learnt from sport mega-events.....	135
	previously hosted by South Africa	135
5.2.7.4	Key observations from the 2010 FSWC™ research	135
5.2.8	A SYNTHESIS OF THE KEY E-MARKETING LESSONS LEARNT.....	137
	FROM THE CASE STUDIES	137
5.3	SUMMARY	138
 CHAPTER 6: THE 2010 FIFA SOCCER WORLD CUP™ WITH.....		140
REFERENCE TO E-MARKETING		140
6.1	INTRODUCTION.....	141
6.2	THE SIGNIFICANCE OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA	142
6.3	SOUTH AFRICA AND THE 2010 FIFA SOCCER WORLD CUP™	143
6.3.1	South Africa's bid for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	144
6.3.2	Key strategic priorities of South Africa's campaign for the 2010 World.....	145
	Cup™	145
6.3.2.1	Economic drivers	146
6.3.2.2	Social drivers	150
6.3.2.3	Political drivers	152
6.3.2.4	Environmental drivers.....	154
6.3.2.5	Other strategic planning issues for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World.....	155
	Cup™	155

6.3.3	Marketing and e-marketing of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	156
6.3.3.1	Major 2010 communication conferences prior to the 2010 FIFA.....	156
	Soccer World Cup™ event	156
6.3	SUMMARY	164
CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		166
7.1	INTRODUCTION.....	167
7.2	RESEARCH DESIGN.....	167
7.3	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	169
7.3.1	The data.....	169
7.3.2	Population.....	169
7.3.2.1	Nature of the sample	173
7.3.2.2	Biographical information of respondents	175
7.3.3	Research instrument.....	175
7.3.3.1	The process of designing the in-depth interview instrument.....	176
7.3.3.2	Choice of key survey questions.....	176
7.3.3.3	The format of the in-depth interview instrument used.....	178
7.3.3.4	Reliability and validity of the in-depth interview instrument used.....	178
7.4	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	179
7.4.1	Ethical issues during the preparatory phase of the design and gaining.....	179
	access.....	179
7.4.2	Ethical issues during data collection	180
7.4.3	Ethical issues related to analysis and reporting	180

7.5	LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH	181
7.6	DATA ANALYSIS	183
7.6.1	Data management, compilation and processing of research data	184
7.6.2	Construction of categories and themes.....	185
7.6.3	Presentation of the research results	186
7.6.4	Judging the theory’s credibility regarding this research	186
7.7	SUMMARY	187
 CHAPTER 8: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION.....		188
8.1	INTRODUCTION.....	189
8.2	PERCEIVED ROLE OF E-MARKETING IN SPORT MEGA-EVENTS	189
8.2.1	Involvement of the respondents in major international sport events.....	190
	preceding the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	190
8.2.2	Marketing roles in major international sport events.....	190
8.2.3	E-marketing techniques used in major international sport events	191
8.3	THE USE OF E-MARKETING IN PREVIOUS MAJOR SPORT EVENTS.....	191
8.3.1	E-marketing tools used in previous major sport events held in.....	192
	South Africa 2009)	192
8.3.2	The purpose and the stage of e-marketing usage in major sport events.....	193
	held in South Africa (1995 - 2009)	193
8.3.3	Successes derived from using e-marketing in major sport events.....	197
	in South Africa (1995 - 2009)	197
8.3.3.1	Efficient interactive communication with customers.....	197

8.3.3.2	Reduction of marketing costs	198
8.3.3.3	Improvement in customer relationships	199
8.3.3.4	E-marketing reaches large spectator numbers	200
8.3.3.5	E-marketing provides transactional platforms for online spectators.....	200
8.3.3.6	E-marketing tools are convenient to use	201
8.3.4	E-marketing lessons learnt and e-marketing challenges from previous.....	202
	major sport events held in South Africa	202
8.3.4.1	The positive e-marketing lessons learnt	202
8.3.4.2	E-marketing challenges from previous major sport events	209
8.3.4.3	Respondents' comments on what they would do differently when.....	216
	using e-marketing tools for future major sport events.....	216
8.4	THE USAGE OF E-MARKETING IN THE 2010 FIFA SOCCER WORLD.....	222
	CUP™	222
8.4.1	Respondents' intended e-marketing initiatives for the 2010 FIFA Soccer....	223
	World Cup™	223
8.4.1.1	Assessment of the intent to use e-marketing for the 2010 FIFA.....	223
	Soccer World Cup™	223
8.4.1.2	E-marketing tools intended for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	224
8.4.1.3	The intended purpose for e-marketing tools for the 2010	225
8.4.1.4	The stages at which e-marketing was intended to be used for the.....	226
	2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	226
8.4.1.5	E-marketing strategy intended for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World.....	227
	Cup™	227

8.4.1.6	The intent of using e-marketing tools with other industry stakeholders for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	228
8.4.1.7	The envisaged spend on e-marketing initiatives related to the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	229
8.4.2	OUTCOMES OF E-MARKETING THE 2010 FIFA SOCCER WORLD CUP™	230
8.4.2.1	The actual use of e-marketing in the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	231
8.4.2.2	The actual e-marketing tools used in the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	231
8.4.2.3	The actual purpose for which e-marketing was used during the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	234
8.4.2.4	The actual stages at which e-marketing tools were used in the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	236
8.4.2.5	The actual e-marketing strategy during the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	236
8.4.2.6	The actual use of e-marketing tools with other stakeholders during the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	238
8.4.2.7	The actual expenditure on e-marketing initiatives related to the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	239
8.4.2.8	The challenges of e-marketing the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™	241
8.5	FUTURE OF E-MARKETING	247
8.5.1	The key trends regarding the e-marketing of major sport events	248

8.5.1.1	A widespread increase in the use of online media in sport.....	248
	mega-events.....	248
8.5.1.2	Mobile telephony as one of the marketing tools for sport.....	248
	mega-events.....	248
8.5.2	Possible future developments regarding the e-marketing of sport.....	250
	mega-events	250
8.5.2.1	Semantically-oriented Web applications.....	250
8.6	SUMMARY	253
CHAPTER 9:	CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS: A.....	254
	STRATEGIC FRAMEWORK FOR THE OPTIMAL.....	
	USAGE OF E-MARKETING IN SPORT MEGA-.....	
	EVENTS.....	
9.1	INTRODUCTION.....	255
9.2	A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE OPTIMAL USAGE OF	255
	E-MARKETING IN SPORT MEGA-EVENTS.....	255
9.3	THE ENABLING ENVIRONMENT.....	258
9.3.1	The macro-environment.....	259
9.3.1.1	The political environment.....	259
9.3.1.2	The legal and regulatory environment.....	260
9.3.1.3	The economic environment.....	261
9.3.1.4	The socio-cultural environment.....	262
9.3.1.5	The natural environment.....	263
9.3.1.6	The international environment.....	264

9.3.2	The micro-environment	264
9.3.3	The technological environment	266
9.4	KEY STAKEHOLDERS	267
9.4.1	International sports organisations	268
9.4.2	National sports organisations and provincial government departments	268
9.4.3	Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs).....	269
9.4.4	Umbrella private sector tourism organisations	269
9.4.5	The private sector	270
9.4.6	Local or host community	270
9.4.7	Consumers.....	272
9.5	THE UMBRELLA E-MARKETING STRATEGY	273
9.5.1	Identification and implementation of the most recent relevant.....	276
	e-marketing tools	276
9.5.2	Operational management of the e-marketing process	277
9.5.3	Benchmarking, monitoring and evaluation	277
9.5.4	Communication with stakeholders	278
9.6	CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS RELATED TO THE E-MARKETING OF	279
	SPORT MEGA-EVENTS	279
9.6.1	Planning factors	280
9.6.2	Operational factors.....	281
9.6.3	Financial factor(s)	282
9.6.4	Information technology (IT) factors	282
9.6.5	Communication factors	283

9.7	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH	285
9.8	SUMMARY	287
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	288
	APPENDICES	360

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A:	A summary of strengths and weaknesses of various media used.....	360
	in the marketing of sport mega-events Standardise.....	360
APPENDIX B:	Data collection instrument (pre-2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™).....	365
APPENDIX C:	Data collection instrument (post-2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™).....	374
APPENDIX D:	Informed consent for participation in an academic research study.....	383
Appendix E (i):	Profiles of Respondents (Pre-2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™).....	385
Appendix E (ii):	Profiles of Respondents (Post-2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™).....	388
CD (1):		
Appendix F (i):	An introductory email sent to the potential respondent (pre-2010.....	391
	FIFA Soccer World Cup™).....	391
Appendix F (ii):	An introductory email sent to the potential respondent (post-2010.....	393
	FIFA Soccer World Cup™).....	393
APPENDIX G:	Replies to the 'open ended' questions (pre-2010 FIFA Soccer.....	395
	World Cup™).....	395
APPENDIX H:	Replies to the 'open ended' questions (post-2010 FIFA Soccer.....	449
	World Cup™).....	499
CD (2):	Recorded Interviews (pre-and post-2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™)	

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1:	Structure of the chapters' layout for this research study.....	21
Figure 2.1:	Diagrammatic representation of the event sector segments.....	25
Figure 2.2:	Typology of planned events sector.....	26
Figure 2.3:	Conceptual model of Destination competitiveness.....	38
Figure 3.1:	The 8 Ps of hospitality and travel marketing.....	61
Figure 4.1:	The relationship between E-Business, E-commerce, E-marketing and.....	80
	Internet-marketing.....	80
Figure 4.2:	Examples to illustrate differences between Web 1.0 and Web 2.0.....	83
Figure 7.1:	South African host cities for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™.....	170
Figure 7.2:	The four sectors in South African from which the sample was drawn.....	174
Figure 8.1:	The flagship sport events the respondents were involved with in South.....	190
	Africa.....	190
Figure 8.2:	E-marketing tools used in previous major sport events held in South.....	192
	Africa in the last 15 years.....	192
Figure 8.3:	The actual purpose for which e-marketing was used for in previous.....	194
	major sport events held in South Africa in the last 15 years.....	194
Figure 8.4:	The positive e-marketing lessons learnt from previous major sport.....	202
	events.....	202
Figure 8.5:	E-marketing challenges in previous flagship sport events.....	210
Figure 8.6:	The e-marketing tools intended for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™.....	224

LIST OF FIGURES (CONTINUES)

Figure 8.7:	The purpose for which e-marketing tools were intended for the 2010.....	225
	FIFA Soccer World Cup™	225
Figure 8.8:	The e-marketing strategy intended for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World.....	227
	Cup™	227
Figure 8.9:	The envisaged expenditure for on e-marketing initiatives for the 2010.....	229
	FIFA Soccer World™	229
Figure 8.10:	The actual e-marketing tools used in the 2010 FIFA Soccer World.....	232
	Cup™	232
Figure 8.11:	The actual purpose for which e-marketing was used in the 2010 FIFA	234
	Soccer World Cup™	234
Figure 8.12:	The actual e-marketing strategy during the 2010 FIFA Soccer World.....	237
	Cup™	237
Figure 9.1:	Conceptual framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in future.....	257
	sport mega-events.....	257
Figure 9.2:	The enabling environment for optimal usage of e-marketing.....	258
Figure 9.3:	Key stakeholders identified to be involved in the e-marketing of sport.....	267
	mega-events.....	267
Figure 9.4:	The e-marketing strategy that serves as the e-marketing engine of the.....	273
	proposed framework.....	273

LIST OF FIGURES (CONTINUES)

Figure 9.5: The convergence of the enabling environment and key stakeholders.....	274
into the umbrella e-marketing strategy at the hub of the proposed.....	274
e-marketing framework.....	274
Figure 9.6: Critical Success Factors (CSFs) of e-marketing sport mega-events.....	280
Figure 9.7: Conceptual framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in future.....	284
sport mega-events.....	284

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Potential impacts of mega-events on host destinations.....	33
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AACSB	American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business
AMA	American Marketing Association
API	A Partner in Technology
ASATA	Association of South African Travel Agents
ASGISA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa
ATC	Australian Tourism Commission
ATHOC	Athens Organising Committee
AUB	African Union of Broadcasters

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (CONTINUES)

AU	African Union
BBC	British Broadcasting Corporation
B2B	Business-to-Business
BCA	Business Club Australia
BOBICO	Beijing Olympic Bid Committee
BOCOG	Beijing Organising Committee of the Olympic Games
B2C	Business-to-Consumer
B2G	Business-to-Government
CBC	Canadian Broadcasting Corporation
CCTV	Closed Circuit Television
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
COC	Centennial Olympic Congress
CRM	Customer relationship management
CSCW	Computer Supported Collaborative Work
CSFs	Critical Success Factors
CTI	Computer Telephony Integration
C2C	Consumer-to-Consumer
DEAT	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
DMOs	Destination Marketing Organisations
DOH	Department of Health
DSTV	Digital Satellite Television

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (CONTINUES)

DTT	Digital Terrestrial Television
DVDs	Digital Versatile Discs
DZT	German Tourist Board
EP	Electronic Procurement
ERP	Enterprise Resource Planning
ESPN	Entertainment and Sports Programming Network
ETOA	European Tourist Operators Association
EUTV Net	European Union's Television Network
FEDHASA	Federated Hospitality Association of South Africa
FIFA	Federation of International Football Associations
FNB	First National Bank
FAQ	Frequently Asked Questions
GCC	Global Cricket Corporation
GNTO	Greek National Tourism Organisation
GTA	Gauteng Tourism Authority
HDTV	High Definition Television
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HRD	Human Resources Development
HRM	Human Resources Management
HSDPA	High-Speed Downlink Packet Access
HTTP	Hyper-Text Transfer Protocol

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (CONTINUES)

IAAF	International Association of Athletics Federations
ICC	International Cricket Council
IIC	International Investment Council
IMC	International Marketing Council
IMC	International Media Centre
IMC	Inter-Ministerial Committee
IMC's TCC	Inter-Ministerial Committee Technical Coordinating Committee
IOC	International Olympic Committee
IPC	International Paralympic Committee
IPL	Indian Premier League
ISF	International Sports Federations
IT	Information Technology
ITVR	International Television and Radio
JAWOC	Japanese World Cup Organising Committee
JipSA	Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition
KOWOC	Korean World Cup Organising Committee
LOC	Local Organising Committee's
LOCOG	London Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games
M-C	Mobile-Commerce
MEEC	Meetings, Expositions, Events and Conventions
M&G	Mail and Guardian Publishing

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (CONTINUES)

MICE	Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Events/exhibitions and Affinity-group meetings
MMS	Multimedia Messaging Service
MP3 players	Moving Picture Experts Group Layer-3 Audio
MTN	Telecommunications Company
NAP	New African Publishing
NCP	National Communication Partnership
NEPAD	New Partnership for Africa's Development
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NHL	National Hockey League
NRF	National Research Foundation
OBS	Olympic Broadcasting Service
OAP	Olympic Action Plan
OCOG	Organising Committee for the Olympic Games
ODA	Olympic Delivery Authority
OG	Olympic Games
OGBU	Olympic Games Business Unit
PDA's	Personal Digital Assistants
PIMS	Profit Impact of Market Strategy
PMU	Project Management Unit
R&D	Research and Development

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (CONTINUES)

RDF	Resource Description Framework
RSS	Really Simple Syndication
SAA	South African Airways
SABC	South African Broadcasting Corporation
SAFA	South African Football Association
SALOC	South African Local Organising Committee
SASC	South African Sports Commission
SAT	South African Tourism
SATSA	Southern Africa Tourism Services Association
SEO	Search Engine Optimisation
SMS	Short Message Service (cellular phone text messaging)
SOCOG	Sydney Organising Committee of the Olympic Games
SMC	Stadium Media Centre
TB	Tuberculosis
TBCSA	Tourism Business Council of South Africa
TIS	Tourism Information Systems
TV	Television
UCBSA	United Cricket Board of South Africa
UK	United Kingdom
URL	Universal Resource Locator/ Uniform Resource Locator
USA	United States of America

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (CONTINUES)

VANOC	Vancouver Organising Committee
VRM	Visitor Relationship Management
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WSN	World Sport Nimbus
WWW	World Wide Web
3G	3rd Generations of cell phone technology and transmission
2010 FSWC TM	2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup TM

CHAPTER 1: THE RESEARCH PROBLEM IN CONTEXT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Sport mega-events have grown over the years and have attracted huge multimedia coverage dominated by the power of satellite television and corporate interests (George, 2008:512; Chen & Spaans, 2009:99; Hachleitner & Manzenreiter, 2010:844; Sealy & Wickens, 2008:128; Bresler, 2011:17; Theodoraki, 2011:178). Sport mega-events have the ability to transmit promotional messages to billions of people particularly via television and other media in telecommunications (Roberts, 2004:108). The Olympic Games and the Federation of International Football Associations (FIFA) Soccer World CupsTM are particularly important and the most visible and spectacular examples of sport mega-events in modern societies.¹ According to Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:15), the promoters of the Olympic Games and the FIFA Soccer World CupsTM (FSWCTM) rely heavily on the support of the media and corporate sponsorship to successfully stage these events. Without the media and corporate sponsorship, sport mega-events would not be able to attract the public's attention (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006:15) to the extent that is still the case.

Planning and organising the hosting of sport mega-events, such as the Olympic Games and the FSWCTM is a challenging and huge undertaking (Chalkley & Essex, 2004:201; Henderson, Foo, Lim & Yip, 2010:61). Furthermore, due to the scale and importance of sport mega-events, the coordination between the organising committee and the destination marketing

¹ FIFA Soccer World CupsTM is a registered trademark of the Federation International de Football Association (FIFA).

organisation of the host country becomes a knowledge-intensive and exceptionally complicated task (Singh & Hu, 2008:929). To address this challenge, Fillis, Johansson and Wagner (2003:336) argue that e-business, e-commerce and e-marketing can make significant contributions to the business world and may serve as a catalyst for twenty-first century performance in the global market place.

Since 1990, e-commerce has been growing at an incredible pace and many organisations and individuals have been looking to the Web as the future, definitive source of information, goods and communication services (Trepper, 2000:xiii; Morrison, 2010:526; Rheem, 2010:299). In today's business climate, e-marketing is ultimately seen to be a significant part of marketing practice within the majority of various sectors, such as sport mega-events (Krishnamurthy, 2006:51; Gide & Shams, 2011:1061; Sharifi, Moghadam, Zamanian, O'dinSayyadi & Shojaheydari, 2011:105). It is also reported that, with an increase in the usage of e-marketing, customers and marketers are increasingly interacting in aspects of the design, production, and consumption of a product or service (Sheth & Sharma, 2005:620). Therefore, online marketing and virtual campaigns have become attractive forms of marketing. As such, campaigns are able to target thousands, if not millions, of potential customers at a relatively low cost in a short time period (Cinman, 2007:41). Furthermore, the Web allows businesses to deal interactively with business-to-business (B2B) and business-to-customers (B2C) at any time and place (Darby, Jones & Al Madani, 2003:107).

Although planning to host sport mega-events is a complex task (Singh & Hu, 2008:929), all indications are that new technology, in the form of e-marketing, certainly appears to offer

opportunities to the hosts and organisers of sport mega-events. Singh and Hu (2008:929) are of the opinion that the explosion taking place in e-marketing could provide opportunities in the marketing of sport mega-events.

1.2 BACKGROUND

While other industries, such as construction and mining, are displaying a stronger hold on traditional marketing processes, the tourism industry has been witnessing an acceptance of e-commerce to the extent that the entire industry structure has been changing (Kohavi, Mason, Parekh & Zheng, 2004:27; Werthner & Ricci, 2004:101; Zhou & Seo, 2006:129; Morrison, 2010:526; Rheem, 2010:299). Generally, consumers use tourism industry websites to obtain road maps, accommodation, air fares, restaurants and calendars of local events (Liu, 2005:2). Thus, the Web appears to offer capabilities, such as information, dissemination, interactive communication, multi-media and seamless information sharing that present significant business opportunities for industries such as tourism (Bickel, 2012:5).

Furthermore, innovation and technology, such as the Web and related technologies, revolutionised the way business was done in the 1990's and early 2000's, causing a huge growth in electronic or e-commerce in the travel and tourism industries (Morrison, 2010:526; Rheem, 2010:299). Commentators speculate that travel and tourism services, because of their high price, risk, and involvement levels, appear to be well suited to Web marketing (Stepchenkova & Morrison, 2006:944; Andrić & Ružić, 2010:700). Increasingly, many tourism suppliers such as travel agents, hotels, airlines, rental car companies, and even cruise lines

are investing in the Web via web pages and have begun to offer online real-time reservations and advertising as e-commerce (Krebs, 2004:1).

It is reported in the literature that the Web has become a dominant medium in tourism marketing. Tourism Information Systems (TIS) on the Web, for example, are mostly tourism portals provided by travel agents and tourism management departments (Chunhua, Pengfei & Cong, 2006:720). Since 2000, the hospitality and tourism industry has always been among those industries that capitalise on new technologies (Tassiopoulos & Nuntsu, 2003:2). This is a trend which is supported by an explosion in tourism e-commerce that has reference to the Web-based business system, including tourism information distributed by the e-commerce bank (Guogui, Weihua & Yanzhang cited in Liu, 2005:2).

To-date, existing academic studies on e-commerce and e-marketing communication technologies, for example, have researched the application of e-commerce and e-marketing for online retailers, such as bookstores (Kuo, 2008; Jia, 2009), e-commerce adoption by small to medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) for SME competitiveness (Rogerson, 2009), the usage of social marketing in service industries, such as Occupational Health and Safety (OH&S) (Previte, 2005; Cowley, 2006; Hu, 2006; Siritanachot, 2008) and the usage of e-marketing for destination marketing (Nothnagel, 2006; Bhat, 2008; West-Newman, 2008).

Based on an extensive evaluation of the literature, all indications are that academic literature on the application of e-commerce and e-marketing to tourism sport mega-events is lacking. Although the Olympic Games and the FSWCTM are known to be global sport mega-events,

the use of e-commerce in the marketing of these events is, by all indications, not well researched. Much of the published literature on sport mega-events, especially the Olympic Games and the FSWC™ focuses on the economic advantages and/or the economic legacy for host nations as a result of their hosting sport mega-events, that is, the Olympic Games and the FSWC™ (Baade & Matheson, 2004a; Baade & Matheson, 2004b; Horne, 2004; Preuss, 2004a; Blake, 2005; De Groote, 2005; Kim & Petrick, 2005; Lee & Taylor, 2005; Smith, 2005; Atkinson, Mourato & Szymanski, 2006; Experian, 2006; Kim, Gursoy & Lee, 2006; Kornblatt, 2006; Solberg & Preuss, 2006; Payne, 2007; Preuss, 2007; Pillay & Bass, 2008; Zhang & Wu, 2008; Allmers & Maennig, 2009; Magubane, 2009; Rogerson, 2009; Bresler, 2011; Fourie & Spronk, 2011).

The study on sport mega-events, by Kasimati (2003), researched existing literature that focused on the economic impact of the Summer Olympic Games and tourism development during the 1937 – 1984 Los Angeles' events, Seoul 1988, Barcelona 1992, Atlanta 1996, Sydney 2000 and Athens 2004. Other researchers looked specifically at the improved destination image of the host cities due to sport mega-events (Kim & Morrision, 2005; Lee, Lee & Lee, 2005). It is worth noting that televised football via satellite broadcasts and other technical refinements, such as video recording, action replay, slow motion and colour photography, have all added to the appeal of live and recorded sport enjoyed by audiences (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006; George, 2008; Zagnoli & Radicchi, 2008; Volkmer, 2009:9; Brestler, 2011; Theodoraki, 2011). There is, nonetheless, some written literature in this area (De Groote, 2005; Hede, 2005; European Tourist Operators Association (ETOA), 2007; Shilbury, Westerbeek, Quick & Funk, 2009:233; Rheem, 2010:300) that demonstrates how

the Olympic Games and FSWC™ received massive television (TV) and web-based coverage (Maennig & Du Plessis, 2007; O'Reilly, Lyberger, McCarthy & Séguin, 2008; Zhang & Wu, 2008; Hacleitner & Manzenreiter, 2010; Sealy & Wickens, 2008; Finlay, 2011; Ritchie, 2011).

Of significance, is that in September 2001, FIFA signed a marketing contract with the web portal Yahoo as the official sponsor of the Korea and Japan 2002 FSWC™ (Manzenreiter & Horne, 2002:218). Although, since 2002, the Web has become more central to the marketing policy of FIFA, the researcher argues that of the many studies done on sport mega-events, none could be identified as having investigated the use of e-marketing in sport mega-events. Despite the explosion of e-marketing in the tourism industry, the e-marketing impact on sport mega-events remains largely unknown in the existing literature. Thus, one of the challenges pertaining to the practice of tourism e-commerce, is that there is very little or no research evident in respect of the application of e-marketing to sport mega-events.

The existing literature indicates that what is available is widely scattered and case-specific information on how TV, broadcasters and the Web have been mainly used for the coverage of the Olympic Games and the FSWC™ (Garcia, 2001:209; Manzenreiter & Horne, 2002:195; Toohey & Halbwirth, 2002:10; Preuss, 2004b:2; Hede, 2005:188; Maennig & Du Plessis, 2007:14; O'Reilly & Lyberger, 2008; Zhang & Wu, 2008; Carlson, 2010; Hacleitner & Manzenreiter, 2010; Liang, 2010; Sealy & Wickens, 2008; Finlay, 2011; Ritchie, 2011). However, to-date, there has been hardly any effort to produce a coherent, integrated, summary and assessment of the application of e-marketing to sport mega-events that may provide perspectives and lessons that could inform the research process as it relates to the e-

marketing of other future sport mega-events. This, in spite of the fact that e-commerce, in the form of the Web, is seen to be an extremely effective tool for destination branding (Buhalis & Spada, 2000 cited in Choi, Lehto & Morrison, 2007:119; Lee, Cai & O'Leary, 2006:816). Therefore, the major question is: "To what extent is e-marketing an appropriate technology for sport mega-events?" In order to fill the void that has been identified, this research project is intended to investigate the role and the impact of e-marketing on sport mega-events empirically, with specific reference to the Olympic Games and FSWC™.

The progress in marketing technology has enriched the context of information, such as transforming and changing online information search behaviour (Ho, Lin & Chen, 2012:1470). However, it is a challenge to stay abreast of all the latest literature on e-marketing trends because the e-marketing domain is a very dynamic and innovative practice, which is constantly changing.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM STATEMENT

With the continuous innovation and growth of new technologies, tourist destinations are turning more and more to technology to boost their performance and competitiveness (Litvin, Goldsmith & Pan, 2008:461). It is also reported that the Web, via its unique merits of interactivity, can be an effective tool for destination branding (Govers & Go, 2003:13-29; Heung, 2004:370-378; Gide & Shams, 2011:1060). E-marketing is no longer 'new' but is rather becoming an established marketing practice within the majority of various sectors (Brodie, Winklhofer, Coviello & Johnston, 2007:14). However, the study on sport mega-events

by Kasimati (2003) demonstrates that a number of sport mega-events studies, namely, the Summer Olympic Games from 1937 – 1984 Los Angeles, Seoul 1988, Barcelona 1992, Atlanta 1996, Sydney 2000 and Athens 2004, have not fully investigated the application of e-marketing technology to sport mega-events.

In this study, the overall goal is to examine and investigate the role that e-marketing may have when planning, organising and marketing sport mega-events, such as the Olympic Games and the FSWCTM. The new technologies are perceived to be characterised by high levels of both market and technological uncertainty (Dissel, Probert & Tockenbürger, 2007:1945). As a result, emerging technologies represent considerable new challenges, which need to be mastered, particularly, in the context of strategic and technology management (Ji-wu, Lu-cheng, Jian & Weng-guang, 2007:2140; Jung & Bucher, n.d.:23). Therefore, this study's goal is to ultimately determine whether or not e-marketing is a key tool for the strategic marketing of sport mega-events and, whether an holistic and integrated strategic framework can be put in place in this regard.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Over the years, since the entry of new technologies into the arena of sport mega-events, sport events and sport contents have been increasingly organised and marketed through electronic, multimedia, interactive and virtual channels (Zagnoli & Radicchi, 2008:5). For example, a growing trend in recent years has been the use of social media and Metasearch, such as Travel Search Engines, to create publicity and 'buzz' around a sport mega-event

(George, 2008:522; Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010:282; Rheem, 2010:300; Finlay, 2011:268; Theodoraki, 2011:178). Events such as sport mega-events are now “... decentred and delivered through a variety of platforms, not only television but personal websites, mobile phone communication, Google, YouTube, debates on Myspace.com...” (Volkmer, 2009:9).

Against this background information, the focus of this research is:

- Firstly, to determine the role of e-marketing in sport mega-events.
- Secondly to identify how e-marketing is used in sport mega-events.
- Thirdly, to determine challenges and critical success factors in the e-marketing of previous sport mega-events.
- Fourthly, to determine the usage of proposed e-marketing strategies prior to and post the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™.
- Finally, to develop a conceptual framework for the optimal use of e-marketing during future sport mega-events.

A holistic approach is followed throughout the study and where appropriate the focus is placed on business-to-business (B2B), business-to-consumer (B2C) and consumer-to-consumer (C2C) initiatives.

1.5 IMPORTANCE AND BENEFITS OF THE STUDY

This research is important because the analysis and evaluation of secondary information on the role of e-marketing in previous sport mega-events is intended to identify the e-marketing

best practices in sport mega-events. It is also anticipated that the research findings can inform sport managers with insights into the strategic e-marketing of sport mega-events. The research findings of this study are an endeavour to enable sport marketers and promoters of sport mega-events to identify the contribution that e-marketing could make to the successful marketing of their sport events.

Furthermore, it is envisaged that the research findings could make a useful contribution to the existing theory of e-marketing through determining e-marketing strategies and tools for future sport mega-events. In particular, is anticipated that this study could identify the role of e-marketing in sport mega-events and the extent to which e-marketing could be adopted by the hosts of future sport mega-events.

This study is also intended to provide a strong theoretical foundation and practical guidelines, presented in the form of a conceptual framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in future sport mega-events. Finally, this study could also be helpful in the future facilitation of additional research in e-marketing within the field of sport mega-events.

1.6 DELIMITATIONS AND ASSUMPTIONS

The focus of this section is on the scope of the research, that is, the specific research issues that are to be investigated and addressed throughout the study. A discussion on the assumptions made for conducting this study is also covered in this section.

1.6.1 Delimitations

This study will examine the role of e-marketing in sport mega-events. The concepts associated with doing business online, that is, e-business, e-commerce, and e-marketing will be described. The study is preceded by an analysis of secondary information on marketing and e-marketing practices obtained from selected case studies of previous sport mega-events held since 2000. The critical success factors and challenges, inherent in the spectrum of the proliferation of e-marketing, will be evaluated in terms of how e-marketing can be applied to sport mega-events. Therefore, it is anticipated that this research could set a framework for the e-marketing of sport mega-events.

On 27 October 2004, the South African government and FIFA signed the Organisation Association Agreement to formalise the country's hosting of the 2010 FSWC™ (SA 2010 Bid Company, n.d.). To this effect, this study is also limited to the e-marketing of sport mega-events with specific reference to the 2010 FSWC™. In turn, this could help explore how e-marketing was used successfully to manage the 2010 FSWC™ in South Africa, a first time milestone for the African continent since the inception of the event. Finally, it is also envisaged that the findings of this study can be considered in the context of the marketing and e-marketing of other future sport mega-events.

1.6.2 Assumptions

It is apparent that the emerging new technologies, particularly the Internet and Web related technologies, such as Blogs, Wikipedia, Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, My-space, and others,

are now a reality. It is also assumed that technology will continue to be the hallmark of human activity in the 21st century (Pharasiyawar, Bushi, Javalgi & Dandagi, 2007:2043). In a fundamental way, the use of the Internet and the Web is creating new forms of action and interaction (Slevia, 2005:55). Furthermore, advances in information and Web technologies are seen to have opened numerous opportunities for online retailing, thereby improving service retention through virtual experiential marketing (Chen, Luo, Ching & Liu, 2008:1; Morrison, 2010:526; Rheem, 2010:299).

The assertion has been made by Kocaoglu and Anderson (2003:3) that "... when technology is properly used and managed, it leads to the reshaping of the world for the benefit of humankind, whereas if it is not managed well, humankind becomes a slave to it." The research questions for this study, therefore, emanate from the assumptions that e-marketing will progressively play a role in the marketing of services. As a result, the main assumption underpinning this study is that e-marketing appears to offer an unprecedented opportunity for the marketing of sports mega-events. However, unfortunately, this has not been well referenced to-date. It is, therefore, presumed that this assumption will be proven by the use of in-depth interviews and a content analysis that yields sufficient results and that the respondents selected will provide useful insights and perspectives regarding this research topic.

1.6.3 Limitations of the study

Limitations of the study refer to the challenges encountered during all phases of the study, and include the ever-changing nature of exponential growth of e-marketing. Furthermore, the

study was conducted during a busy period due to the 2010 FSWC™ arrangements. In order to address these problems, the researcher attempted to stay abreast of all the latest e-marketing developments and trends throughout the study, and two sets of interviews (pre-2010 and post-2010) were conducted with key stakeholders involved in and/or impacting on the marketing of the event.

1.7 DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

This research involves a number of key concepts that are defined below for the purpose of this research.

1.7.1 E-business

E-business is the continuous optimisation of organisational business activities through digital technology via the Internet (Gilmore, Gallagher & Henry, 2007:235; Wall, Jagdev & Browne, 2007:239; Nik, 2008:4; Andrić & Ružić, 2010:699). According to Andrić and Ružić (2010:699), e-business strategy consists of the buying and selling of goods and services, along with providing technical or customer support through the Internet. Although the term 'e-business' is often used interchangeably with 'e-commerce' (Nik, 2008:4), the concept includes not only buying and selling, but also the servicing of customers, collaborating with business partners, conducting e-learning, and conducting electronic transactions within an organisation (Gilmore *et al.*, 2007:2; Andrić & Ružić, 2010:699). E-business is, therefore, an overarching term that describes how an organisation uses the Internet to transform organisational performance (Krishnamurthy, 2006:51).

Phillips and Wright (2009:1079) maintain that e-business technologies are enablers that support the organisational desire to meet specific strategic business aims. E-business applications, according to Wall, Jagdev and Browne (2007:240), provide a means of carrying out traditional business functions faster, cheaper and, in principle, using information and communications technology better. E-business, therefore, addresses how the Internet can reshape companies in order to provide a competitive advantage (Cagliano, Caniato & Spina, 2003:1144; Gide & Shams, 2011:1060).

Andam (2003:7) lists the three primary processes that are enhanced in e-business applications as:

- a. *Production processes***, which include procurement, ordering and replenishment of stocks, processing of payments, electronic links with suppliers and production control processes, amongst others;
- b. *Customer-focused processes***, which include promotional and marketing efforts, selling over the Internet, processing of customers' purchase orders and payments and customer support, amongst others; and
- c. *Internal management processes***, which include employee services, training, internal information-sharing, video-conferencing, recruiting, enhancement of information flow between production and sales forces to improve sales and force productivity. Electronic publishing of internal business information is likewise made more efficient.

1.7.2 Internet

The Internet is a massive network of networks, a networking infrastructure that connects millions of computers together globally, thereby forming a network in which any computer can communicate with any other computer as long as they are both connected to the Internet (Nik, 2008:4; Beal, 2011:1; Buhalis & Jun, 2011:4; Hooda & Aggarwal, 2012:108; Nyheim & Connolly, 2012:66). According to Beal (2011:1), information that travels over the Internet does so via a variety of languages known as protocols. With the Internet, messages can be produced and disseminated in a matter of minutes, whether textual, sonic or visual, and can reach potential global audiences (Gilchrist & Ravenscroft, 2008:132). In addition, the Internet is also composed of an infrastructure that includes telephone networks, cables, routers, computers, servers, and satellites (Zhou, 2004:17).

1.7.3 The Web (World Wide Web)

The Web and the Internet are terms that have often been used interchangeably. However, the Web, as a communication tool on the Internet, is part of the Internet (Nyheim & Connolly, 2012:68). The World Wide Web (WWW), or simply the Web, is a way of accessing information over the medium of the Internet (Beal, 2011:1; Hao, 2011:30). The Web is, therefore, an information-sharing model that is built on top of the Internet. It uses the Hyper-Text Transfer Protocol (HTTP) protocol, which is only one of the languages spoken over the Internet to transmit data (Trepper, 2000:12; Beal, 2011:1). Web services, which use HTTP to allow applications to communicate in order to exchange business logic, use the Web to share information (Beal, 2011:1). The Web utilises browsers, such as Internet Explorer, Firefox or

Netscape to access Web documents, called Web pages that are linked to each other via hyperlinks (Thelwall, 2001:5; Nik, 2008:15; Beal, 2011:1). The Web also contains media-rich documents containing graphics, sounds, textual data, pictures and video which enhance the interactivity between computer users and servers (Zhou, 2004:19; Beal, 2011:1; Buhalis & Jun, 2011:38).

1.7.4 E-commerce

Electronic commerce (e-commerce) and e-business are terms that are often used interchangeably as equivalents, but they are different (El-Gohary, 2010:216). E-commerce refers to a wide range of online business activities for products and services, including B2B, B2C, C2C, business-to-government (B2G), mobile-commerce (M-commerce), visitor relationship management (VRM), customer relationship management (CRM), electronic procurement (EP) and enterprise resource planning (ERP), through the Internet (Fink, 2006:84; Krishnamurthy, 2006:52; Oelkers, 2007:189; Turban, King, McKay, Marshall, Lee & Viehland 2008:8-10; Nyheim & Connolly, 2012:77).

E-commerce is a type of commerce that conducts the selling and purchasing of products, services, or information via computer networks, including the Internet (Nik, 2008:4; Turban *et al.*, 2008:4; Hao, 2011:115; Hooda & Aggarwal, 2012:108; Nyheim & Connolly, 2012:77). E-commerce is simply any business transaction that takes place via digital processes, such as the Internet, in order to facilitate and accelerate commercial transaction processing (Trepper, 2000:xiii; Krishnamurthy, 2006:52; Dinu, 2007:6; Salah, 2011:2; Nyheim & Connolly, 2012:77). E-commerce can be defined as every type of business transaction in which

participants electronically prepare and conduct trade in products or services, as well as the support for any kind of business transactions over a digital infrastructure (Fink, 2006:84; Krishnamurthy, 2006:52; Salah, 2011:2).

1.7.5 E-marketing/Web-marketing/Internet marketing

There are several definitions of electronic marketing (e-marketing) (Andrić & Ružić, 2010:699). Besides the most widespread term of 'e-marketing', the term 'online marketing' is also often used to collectively denote all types of marketing on the Internet, that is, e-marketing, cyber marketing, Internet marketing and web marketing (Varadarajan & Yadav, 2009:12; Linh, 2010:7). However, e-marketing is different from Internet marketing because e-marketing has a broader scope than Internet marketing since Internet marketing refers only to the Internet, the Web and e-mails, while e-marketing includes all of that plus all other e-marketing tools like Intranets, Extranets and mobile phones (El-Gohary, 2010:216). E-marketing is one of the key components of e-commerce, which can be viewed as a modern business practice involved with the marketing of goods, services, information and ideas via the Internet and other electronic means in order to achieve marketing objectives (Varadarajan & Yadav, 2009:12; Andrić & Ružić, 2010:701; El-Gohary, 2010:216; Hao, 2011:126; Linh, 2010:7; Hooda & Aggarwal, 2012:108).

E-marketing is the use of information technology (IT) in creating, communicating and delivering value to customers and for managing customer relationships in ways that benefit the organisation and its stakeholders in order to increase organisational profitability (Krishnamurthy & Singh, 2005:607; Strauss, El-Ansary & Frost, 2008:3; Nik (2008:4). E-

marketing has created a fundamental shift in business and customer behaviour (Sheth & Sharma, 2005:612). E-marketing is, therefore, also viewed as a relatively new means of reaching customers and is taking its place alongside more traditional modes of marketing, such as print, TV, radio, and mail (Art, 2006:37). E-marketing uses the Web as a platform that allows organisations to adapt to the needs of customers, reduces transaction costs and makes customisation very easy and affordable along with much less in the management of market effort (Watson, Pitt, Berton & Zinkham, 2002:333; Hooda & Aggarwal, 2012:108).

E-marketing also includes the creative use of Internet technology, such as the use of various multimedia, graphics, text with different languages, flash, audio or video, product display, product navigation, three dimension (3-D) product view, basket selection, checkout and payment as well as the creation of catchy advertisements (Hooda & Aggarwal, 2012:108). In this research, the definition of e-marketing includes the use of the Internet and its related technologies and features, such as e-mails and relative communication tools to help achieve marketing objectives, in conjunction with other marketing communication tools (Gilmore *et al.*, 2007:236). The term e-marketing will, therefore, be taken to include the activities of e-commerce.

1.7.6 Mega-events

Mega-events are those events that are so large that they affect whole economies and reverberate across the global media (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnell & Harris, 2002:12; Bowdin, McDonnell, Allen & O'Toole, 2003:18; Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:108; Pillay & Bass, 2008:331; Hachleitner & Manzenreiter, 2010:851). Mega-events are generally developed

following competitive bidding and include the Olympic Games, the Paralympic Games, Cricket World Cup, the FSWC™, the International Association of Athletics Federations (IAAF) World Championships and World Fairs (Allen *et al.*, 2002:12; Bowdin *et al.*, 2003:19; Baum & Lockstone, 2007:29; George, 2008:512). According to Cornelissen and Swart (2006:108), sport mega-events are generally initiated and driven by cadres of societal elites, like politicians, sport officials, destination marketers and event organisers, and are aimed at satisfying development goals or ambitions around competitiveness or growth targets.

1.7.7 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

FIFA is the world football governing organisation which awards a host destination national status for the World Cup once every four years. Its ideals constitute the desire to build international relationships and promote world harmony through sport (Roche, 2000:97). According to Maennig and Du Plessis (2007:4), FIFA was formed in Paris in 1904 and helped the organisers of the Olympic Games stage what were effectively international football world championships in each of the early Olympic Games. Then, in 1928, FIFA took the decision to organise its own 'World Cup' competition. The FSWC™ tournament reveals that football is as much a spectacle and a commodity as it is a form of physical fitness and recreation (Horne, 2004:1236).

1.7.8 Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs)

From a tourism perspective, most countries market their destinations through Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs) (Buhalis, 2000 cited in Singh & Hu, 2008:930) that have

developed largely due to an increase in destination competitiveness (Johansson, 2007:8). According to Pike (2004 cited in Johansson, 2007:8), the overall role of DMOs is to enhance the long-term competitiveness of the destination. Therefore, DMOs are working to promote the destination through, among other factors, creating a favourable image, distributing literature, trade, travel events, and partnership arrangements with other management and supplier organisations (Johansson, 2007:8).

According to Johansson (2007:8), the DMOs for cities and towns are commonly found in convention and visitor bureaus. Members of these organisations may include hospitality-related entities such as hotels, restaurants and tour operators. Buhalis and Jun (2011:37) state that DMOs are the principle organisations that coordinate and monitor tourism development and marketing for a destination.

1.8 DISSERTATION OUTLINE

This dissertation is structured into nine (9) chapters, which are depicted in Figure 1.1. This diagram will appear at the start of each chapter in order to assist the reader to navigate this dissertation. The topics discussed in each chapter are depicted in Figure 1.1 (p.21).

Chapter 1	The research problem in context
Chapter 2	The role of mega-events in the tourism industry
Chapter 3	The marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 4	E-marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 5	E-marketing lessons from previous sport mega-events since 2000
Chapter 6	Marketing of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ with particular reference to e-marketing
Chapter 7	Research Methodology
Chapter 8	Research findings and discussion
Chapter 9	Conclusions and Recommendations: A strategic framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events

Figure 1.1: Structure of the chapters' layout for this research study.

1.9 SUMMARY

The problem statement for this study was put into perspective through a detailed explanation on the emergence and growth of new technologies, particularly the spheres of e-business, e-commerce and e-marketing. Specific reference to e-marketing on how it has been changing and impacting on many businesses, and the tourism industry were discussed. The intended objectives of the study were clearly stated, which include, to determine the role of e-marketing in sport mega-events; to identify how e-marketing is used in sport mega-events; and to

determine challenges and critical success factors in the e-marketing of previous sport mega-events. A clear statement of intent with regard to the contributions of the study was presented as “to develop a conceptual framework for the optimal use of e-marketing during future sport mega-events”. Furthermore, research challenges such as the fast-moving e-marketing domain, and it being such a dynamic and innovative practice, were discussed at the outset of the study. Finally, a critical account of the research design and method adopted for the study was presented.

CHAPTER 2: THE ROLE OF MEGA-EVENTS IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

Chapter 1	The research problem in context
Chapter 2	The role of mega-events in the tourism industry
	Events in tourism
	Mega-events and the tourism industry
	The challenges associated with the hosting of sport mega-events
Chapter 3	The marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 4	E-marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 5	E-marketing lessons from previous sport mega-events since 2000
Chapter 6	Marketing of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ with particular reference to e-marketing
Chapter 7	Research Methodology
Chapter 8	Research findings and discussion
Chapter 9	Conclusions and Recommendations: A strategic framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Mega-events and hallmark events are those events that tend to have the greatest and often the most lasting impact on the reputation and renown of a destination (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:121). The purpose of this chapter is to explore the role of mega-events in the tourism industry. In doing so, the focus is, firstly, on what constitutes event tourism within the tourism industry. Secondly, a brief description of the different types of tourism events is provided. Thirdly, a model of destination competitiveness is examined and applied as a means of understanding the role of mega-events in the tourism destination context and, finally, the challenges associated with the hosting of sport mega-events are discussed.

2.2 EVENTS IN TOURISM

Events are increasingly becoming established as an integral and major part of tourism development and marketing strategies (Tassiopoulos, 2010:5). A diagrammatic representation of the event sector in Figure 2.1 (p.25) indicates that the world of events covers a spectrum of sporting, political, private, business and trade, cultural, recreation, educational and arts and entertainment segments (Tassiopoulos, 2010:8).



Figure 2.1: Diagrammatic representation of the event sector segments (Getz, 1997:7).

According to Getz (2008:403), events are increasingly being viewed as an important motivator of tourism and figure prominently in the development and marketing plans of most destinations. A discussion on the concept of ‘event tourism’ is covered in the next section.

2.2.1 Event(s) Tourism defined

According to Getz (2008:405), “... event tourism is an important and rapidly growing segment of international tourism”. Event tourism is a term that could be defined as the ‘systematic development, planning, marketing and holding of events as tourist attractions’ (Quinn, 2006:288; Tassiopoulos, 2010:5). As shown in Figure 2.2 (p.26), ‘event tourism’ is generally recognised as being inclusive of all planned events in an integrated approach towards development and marketing (Getz, 2008:405).

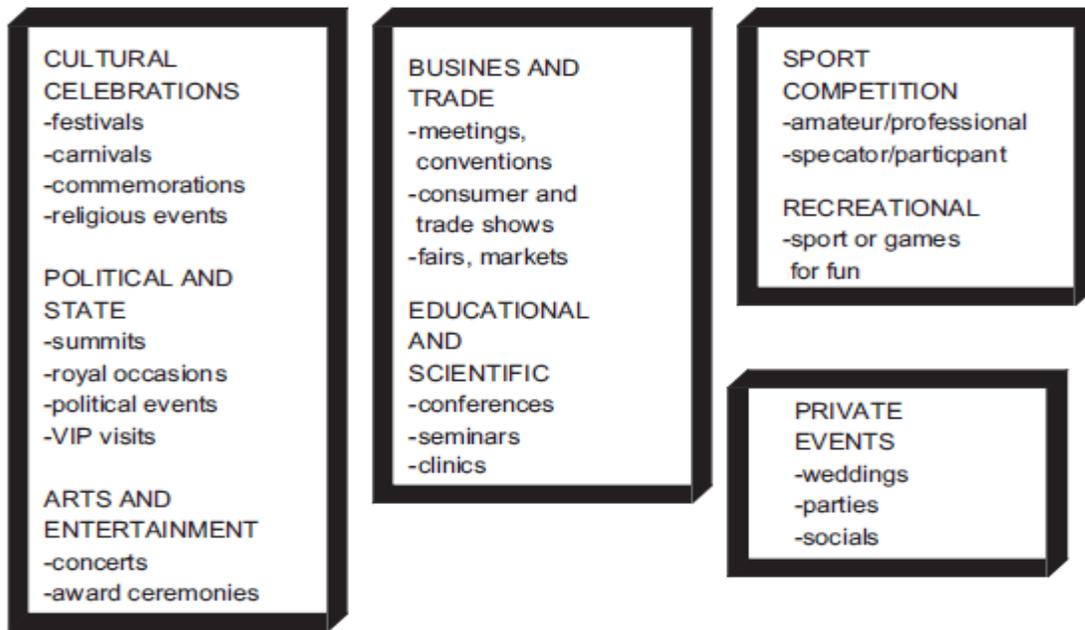


Figure 2.2: Typology of planned events sector (Getz, 2005).

Globally, event tourism is a growing niche market in the tourism industry, because major events increasingly play an important role in the marketing of countries (Rees, 2000:75). As with all forms of special and travel events, event tourism must be viewed from the side of both demand and supply (Getz, 2008:405). From the demand side, event tourism includes an assessment of the value of events in promoting a positive destination image and place marketing in general as well as co-branding with the destinations concerned (Getz, 2008:405; Tassiopoulos, 2010:5). Whereas from the supply side, destinations develop, facilitate and promote events of all kinds in order to meet multiple goals, such as to attract tourists, serve as a catalyst for increasing the infrastructure and tourism capacity of the destination, to foster a positive destination image and contribute towards general place marketing as well as to animate specific attractions or areas (Getz, 2008:406; Tassiopoulos, 2010:5). The portfolio approach to event tourism strategy-making and evaluation can be used to classify the

economic, tourism or political goals of specific events into local, regional and international goals (Getz, 2008:407).

In the following section, the types of events in event tourism are discussed.

2.2.2 Types of events in Event Tourism

There are various forms of events which are planned and unplanned (Tassiopoulos, 2010:10). The planned events consist of categories of routine, ordinary or common events and special events within the tourism, travel and leisure and hospitality industries as shown in Figure 2.1 (p.25) and Figure 2.2 (p.26). All of these events, which include media coverage, are capable of delivering key messages about the destination as well as a positive image of the community to the world (Jayswal, 2008:252). Selected types of events in event tourism are discussed below.

2.2.2.1 Cultural celebrations

The most common form of celebrating cultural events is through a festival (Tassiopoulos, 2010:15). However, festival tourism has become an issue in cultural studies, because cultural celebrations are sometimes viewed as an agent of change giving rise to a decline in cultural authenticity (Quinn, 2006:301; Getz, 2008:412). Types of cultural celebrations include festivals, carnivals and religious events (Getz, 2008:412). In addition, heritage events can also be viewed as tools for interpreting community life by bringing people into direct contact with historical facts, objects or ways of life, thereby increasing a knowledge and appreciation of traditions (Tassiopoulos, 2010:15).

2.2.2.2 Arts and entertainment events

'Art and entertainment' events are often celebrations, but performances and exhibits also occur frequently on their own and, often, in a 'for-profit environment' (Getz, 2005:23). Art events are universal and display considerable diversity in the forms and types of art featured. They are classified as 'participatory events', where there is no separation of audience and performer, 'performing events', usually involving performers in front of audiences, for example, drama, dance and music and 'visual events', including painting, sculpture and handcrafts (Getz, 2005:23; Tassiopoulos, 2010:16).

2.2.2.3 Business and trade events

Business mega-events have a range of outcomes that extend beyond those of sport and cultural mega-events (Jago, Dwyer, Lipman, Van Lill & Vorster, 2010:222). Numerous types of business and trade events are corporate meetings, such as shareholder's meetings, annual general meetings, training seminars, product training seminars and incentive events (Getz, 2005:24; Tassiopoulos, 2010:14). In addition, business events include conferences, exhibitions, incentive travel and corporate events (Bowdin, Allen, O'Toole, Harris & McDonnell, 2011:24). These industries are sometimes grouped as discretionary business tourism, that is, meetings, incentives, conventions, events/exhibitions (MICE) and affinity-group meetings as well as meetings, expositions, events and conventions (MEEC) (Getz, 2008:411; Bowdin *et al.*, 2011:24). Business events play an important role in generating export sales and fostering innovation, which, in turn, extends beyond the outcomes usually associated with sport and cultural events (Jago *et al.*, 2010:222).

2.2.2.4 Educational and scientific events

Events in this category are held for educational purposes, such as training workshops or seminars or for scientific collaboration (Getz, 2005:30). Various types of meetings included under educational and scientific events are, for example, retreats, conventions, seminars, live web meetings, workshops, conferences and symposia (Tassiopoulos, 2010:14). These events are frequently handled as meetings and conventions, but their goals necessitate different requirements, for example, interpretive events are held to educate visitors by way of the event programme (Getz, 2005:30).

2.2.2.5 Hallmark events

Hallmark events or tourist hallmark events are major events that take place over a specific period of time (Boyko, 2008:162; Bowdin *et al.*, 2011:20). The term 'Hallmark' describes an event that possesses a significance which provides the host venue, community, or destination with a competitive advantage, in terms of tradition, attractiveness, quality or the publicity generated by such an event (Getz, 2005:16-17). According to Getz (2008:408), hallmark events cannot exist independently of their host community and, by definition, are rooted in one place (and occasionally also in one person, such as Queen Elizabeth II and Nelson Mandela) and appeal mostly to residents but also to people on a global scale. Therefore, the objective of many hallmark events is to enhance the awareness, appeal, and profits of a tourist destination by relying on originality, status or timely significance for their success (Boyko, 2008:162).

A hallmark event has a high volume of visitors. It is strongly themed and incorporates ceremony and ritual (Arcodia & Robb, 2000:160). For example, events such as the birthday parties of Nelson Mandela (former first South African president in the post-apartheid era) and Queen Elizabeth II of the United Kingdom are also termed hallmark events. The impacts of hallmark events are numerous and include tourism or commercial enterprises, economical political, physical, psychological and socio-cultural influences (Boyko, 2008:162). According to Landry (2000:153-154), hallmark events constitute, along with place marketing, a statement of intent, branded concepts and the principal symbolic image of the 'creative milieu', for example, the cities of Rio de Janeiro and London. The Boston Marathon in the United States of America (USA), the Wimbledon Lawn Tennis Championships in England and the Oktoberfest in Germany are all examples of hallmark events (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:121). These hallmark events enjoy regional attendance and national and local TV media interest as well as global media coverage (Roche, 2001:3; Deffner & Labrianidis, 2005:242).

2.2.2.6 *Mega-events*

Mega-events are the biggest and most international of events that are generally developed following competitive bidding (Pitkänen & Siikaluoma, 2011:14). According to Jago *et al.*, (2010:222), mega-events include three main categories of events, namely, sport, cultural and business. Classic examples include the Olympic Games, FSWC™, the Paralympic Games, Cricket World Cup, the IAAF World Championships and World Fairs (Baum & Lockstone, 2007:29; George, 2008:512).

According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003:121), mega-events may be or may, and often do, become hallmark events, because they are defined primarily by their size and economic impact rather than their status or significance. 'Mega' or large-scale events are also defined as those that are expensive to mount and likely to require substantial investments, involve considerable collaboration, may involve high costs and opportunities pertaining to the use of resources, are likely to fill all available transport, venue and accommodation capacity and involve high risks, but are held to offer highly significant economic and marketing benefits to a destination (Bull, 2005a:96; Bowdin *et al.*, 2011:20).

Mega-events are justified in terms of the long-term benefits resulting from the provision of new event and urban infrastructure, urban renewal, enhanced international reputation, global media coverage, increased tourist trade and related benefits (Kasimati, 2003:442; Getz, 2008:42; Jago *et al.*, 2010:222).

2.2.2.7 Sport events

It can be seen from Figure 2.2 (p.26), that sport competitions are a component of the planned events sector that constitute event tourism and are perhaps the most significant in terms of tourist numbers and economic impact (Deery, Jago & Fredline, 2004:239; Getz, 2008:412). As discussed in the previous paragraph, sport events such as the Olympic Games, the FSWCTM and the Cricket World Cups are examples of sport mega-events. Sport mega-events have grown over the years and attract huge multimedia coverage dominated by the power of satellite TV and corporate interests (Hachleitner & Manzenreiter, 2010:844; Sealy & Wickens, 2008:128; Bresler, 2011:17; Theodoraki, 2011:178). The expansion of sport events is also

due to the formation of sport-media-business alliances that transformed professional sport in the late 20th century (Hede, 2005:189; Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006:3). For example, through the idea of packaging, sponsorship rights, exclusive broadcasting rights and merchandising, sponsors of both the Olympic Games and the FSWCTM events have been attracted by association with the sports concerned and the vast global audience exposure that the events achieve for them (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006:3).

Mega-events such as sport events are not a new phenomenon as they can be followed back to the Olympics of Ancient Greece (Lyck, 2006:5). In fact, the use of sport mega-events as a catalyst of urban change can easily be traced back to the mid-19th century with the advent of universal exhibitions and world fairs and, to 1896, with the beginnings of the modern Olympic movements (D'Arcy, 2006:3; Jago *et al.*, 2010:222). In addition, many sport events, such as the Formula One races, Tennis Grand Slam tournaments (e.g. Wimbledon), Six Nations Rugby Union Internationals and Test Match Cricket also develop strong cultural dimensions. The importance of these links to the development of culture and heritage in a community is now widely recognised (Gratton, Dobson & Shibli, 2000:26; Scott, 2004:36-37).

Sport events are playing an integral role in many destination marketing strategies as some destinations are using them as a constant component of their destination marketing strategies in order to enhance the host destination's brand. They tend to evolve from local to international recognition in attractiveness (Brown, Chalip, Jago & Mules, 2004:279; Hede, 2005:187; Getz, 2008:412; Jago *et al.*, 2010:222). As a result, most research conducted on sport mega-events, such as the studies by Kasimati (2003); Kim and Morrision (2005), and

Lee, Lee and Lee (2005), centre around sport participation and development, social and economic impact, legacies, urban regeneration and tourism. Nevertheless, George (2008:512) and Jago *et al.* (2010:223) state that sport mega-events provide a wide range of potential positive and negative impacts for the host destination. These are both short- and long-term as indicated in Table 2.1, regardless of whether they are formally classified as hallmark events or mega-events. As a result, the assertion by Ritchie and Crouch (2003:121) and Jago *et al.* (2010:224) is that mega-events must be well planned and managed if they are to maximise their net contribution to a host destination.

Table 2.1: Potential impact of mega-events on host destinations (George, 2008:512)

Impact	Manifestations	
	Positive impact	Negative impact
Economic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Investment • Foreign exchange • Business sales • Job creation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased services, housing and infrastructure costs • Draws on resources of other sectors
Brand	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improving image of host nation as a travel/tourism destination • Huge multimedia global exposure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Event can tarnish destination brand
Tourism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Major post-event visitor increase 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Less tourism during event
Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Catalyst for regional co-operation or urban development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local community sidetracked by fast-track planning approvals
Legacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhanced infrastructure • Improved skill base 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expectations not realised
Social	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community pride • Increased participation in sport 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Congestion • Noise
Environment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More environmental awareness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Excessive energy and water consumption

2.3 MEGA-EVENTS AND THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

Mega-events are well recognised for their political usages regarding how authorities, such as urban, regional or national authorities, attempt to use events to project certain messages to the outside world or to attain other wider policy objectives, such as destination competitiveness, urban regeneration, planning and development (Bull, 2005b:35; Van der Merwe, 2007:77; Jago *et al.*, 2010:226). One of the most common and successful strategies, since the late twentieth century, has been to rely on hosting 'hallmark' or 'mega events', in order to drive tourism and public investment in infrastructure (Magdalinski & Nauright, 2004:200; Green, Costa & Fitzgerald, 2008: 346-7; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2010:180). As a result, sport is seen as an important activity within tourism and tourism has been seen as a fundamental characteristic of sport since the late twentieth century (Hinch & Higham, 2001:48).

There has also been a great deal of debate about whether or not mega-events are an industry since they generate an economic impact on both income and employment (Allen, Harris, Jago & Veal, 2000:15). However, in the context of tourism, mega-events are, in general, viewed as a sub-set of the 'tourism industry' (Allen *et al.*, 2000:15). Generally, host cities attach great importance to factors such as the event's economic implications, event-related income and the development of tourism from the hosting of mega-events (Bull, 2005a:95; Johnson, 2008:13; Chen & Spaans, 2009:99). Therefore, sport mega-events like the Olympic Games draw a great deal of international attention to sport and, in the process, contribute to an increased interest in sport tourism (Lee *et al.*, 2005:839).

Worldwide, mega-events have been recognised as a strong component of sport tourism that draws people from different places (Gammona & Robinson, 2003:22; Sofiled, 2003:150; Zauhar, 2004:13) and, as such, are becoming an integral and major part of tourism development and marketing strategies (Tassiopoulos, 2010:4). Mega-events and festivals are strong demand generators and play a significant role in attracting direct foreign investment, bolster tourism growth and contribute to broader developmental goals (Arcodia & Robb, 2000:154; Whitelegg, 2000:802; Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:110; Jago *et al.*, 2010:222). Furthermore, a key driver for the growth and massive interest by cities, within states and internationally, to host mega-events has been their potential to deliver a series of developmental outcomes in terms of economic restructuring and revitalisation, destination repositioning and tourism revenue generation (Jones, 2001:241; Quinn, 2009:7).

Sport mega-events and tourism are inexorably linked. There is considerable evidence showing that the tourism potential of sport mega-events is a major factor in encouraging cities to bid to host such events (Baum & Lockstone, 2007:31). According to Baum and Lockstone (2007:31) and Green *et al.* (2008:346), the tourism potential of sport mega-events relates to the immediate attraction of the event for international and domestic visitors to participate, as spectators and participants, in the cultural environment that frequently surrounds mega-events of this nature. In so far as sport is related to tourism, it helps to generate direct foreign investment in the creation of tourism infrastructure and in attracting tourists who, in turn, generate revenue (Duarte, 2009:77; Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:110).

Mega-events such as sport events are seen as an integral part of the strategies designed to provide opportunities for destinations to address national socio-economic goals, such as poverty, unemployment and existing income as well as wealth differentials that extend beyond the sports arena (Lyck, 2006:12; Jago *et al.*, 2010:226). Thus, the interest in hosting sport mega-events extends beyond the attendees of the event, but as Jago *et al.* (2010:229) state, some destinations use the hosting of a mega-event as part of a process to reposition themselves in the 'eyes of the world' with the expectation that the international media coverage of the event will convey this message. Therefore, the hosting of a mega-event has a range of possible strategic objectives (Bull, 2005b:104), which relate to notions of name recognition, place marketing and re-positioning of destinations via the media coverage associated with large scale events (Coalter & Taylor, 2008:17; Jago *et al.*, 2010:231; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2010:173).

According to Kruger (2011:39), the concept of competitiveness is a widely applied concept that has received increasing attention from researchers since the late 1990's. As a result, different approaches to competitiveness as a field of study have been introduced by various authors (as discussed in Dwyer & Kim, 2003:407; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:12-14). For example, Ritchie and Crouch (2003) effectively incorporated a framework of competitiveness for manufacturing/trade into their model of destination competitiveness and applied it to the tourism industry.

Kruger (2011:39) states that Ritchie and Crouch (2003:14-18) present the concept of competitiveness in a framework that includes, among others, the 'Five Forces Model' of

Porter, which, in turn, consists of the driving forces of competition, the territory (that which is 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'). Kruger (2011:40) also highlights the fact that many of the aspects included in this framework can be applied to tourism services such as mega-events, on which this research now focuses.

2.3.1 Mega-events for destination marketing and competitiveness

Tourism destination competitiveness is a well established topic within tourism research (Kruger, 2011:43). According to Fyall, Garrod and Tosun (2006:75), the destination is widely acknowledged to be one of the most difficult products to manage and market due to the numerous products, stakeholders and organisational bodies involved as well as the individuals that combine to deliver the destination 'product'. However, practitioners within the tourism industry have also been giving considerable consideration to the manner in which tourism industry competitiveness can be promoted and managed (Kruger, 2011:43). The destination competitiveness model by Ritchie and Crouch (2003), as illustrated in Figure 2.3 (p.38), outlines the perspectives from which destination competitiveness should be viewed in order to investigate and determine the role of mega-events in the tourism industry.

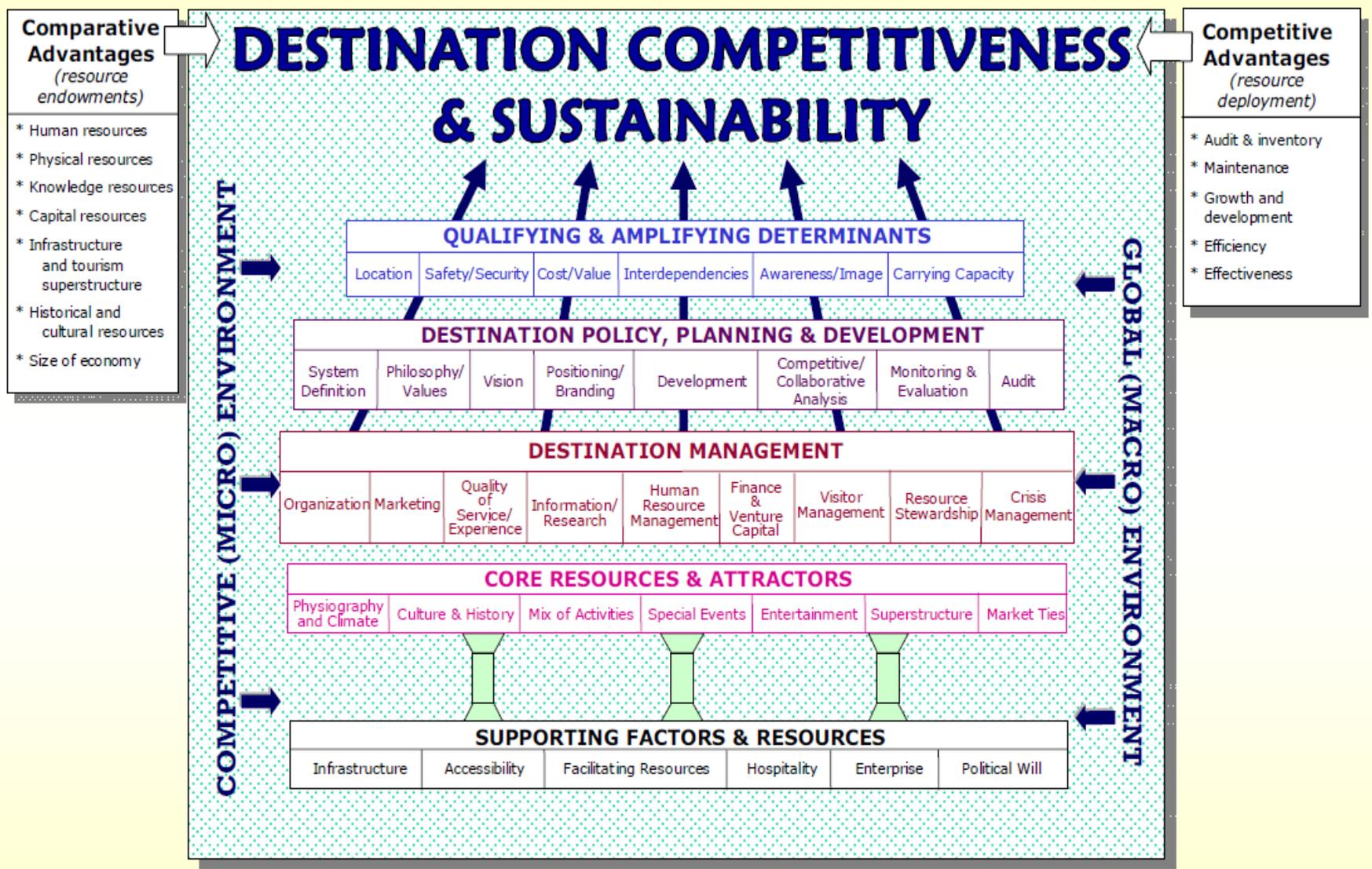


Figure 2.3: Conceptual model of destination competitiveness (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003).

In terms of a model of destination competitiveness, the potential competitiveness of a destination is conditioned or limited by a number of factors which include the destination's global macro-environment, the destination's competitive micro-environment, the destination's core resources and attractors, the destination's supporting factors and resources, the destination's management, destination policy, planning and development as well as the qualifying and amplifying determinants (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:60-78). A model of destination competitiveness is, therefore, critical for understanding the role of mega-events in the tourism industry because mega-events, as Getz (2008:403) states, may act as an important motivator in tourism and as additional attractors to a destination's core resources that strengthen its competitiveness.

2.3.2 Mega-events as strengthening services in destination competitiveness

Sport mega-events, such as the summer and winter Olympic Games, the FSWC™, the World athletics championships, and major golf tournaments are coveted by many urban destinations (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:104). Many of these events are often held only once in a particular location, but their impact on tourism can be substantial (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:104). In terms of the model of destination competitiveness shown in Figure 2.3 (p.38), mega-events are the supporting industries and services that reinforce and strengthen a destination's tourism industry by their presence in the destination. In this regard, some cities have a longstanding reputation for their enthusiasm in bidding regularly for the hosting of sport mega-events (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:104). The reason for this is that sport mega-events generate economic activity on a major scale within the preparatory phase, during the event itself and, if aspirations are met, as a longer term consequence of the event, in terms of inward investment and tourism (Baum & Lockstone, 2007:32).

Essex and Chalkley (2004:202) are of the opinion that, mega-events, such as the Olympic Games, have implications for the host centre's urban infrastructure by providing opportunities for new investment and tourism. A major component of this economic impact is in terms of employment generation and the new jobs that are created as a direct result of the event, across a wide spectrum of the economy (Baum & Lockstone, 2007:32).

2.3.3 Mega-events as core attractors in the essence of destination appeal

The driving forces of competition and the tools that enable a company or nation to compete are stated as elements of the 'Five Forces Model' of Porter (Kruger, 2011:40). Therefore, in a model of destination competitiveness, the core resources and attractors of a destination are included and defined as the key motivators for visiting a destination and the fundamental reasons why prospective visitors choose one destination over another (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:68). According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003:68) and Green *et al.* (2008:346), the use of mega-events to build the global reputation of a destination and to leave behind visible legacies that may, in time, become destination icons are amongst the strategies initiated by the destination marketers. Mega-events are, therefore, significant for tourism development because they are now being used to play an effective role in destination marketing strategies aimed at creating positive perceptions towards host destinations (Hede, Deery & Jago, 2002 cited in Hede, 2007:14).

According to Essex and Chalkley (2004:201), mega-events have become a key strategy by which urban areas justify significant projects of renewal and regeneration and attract new inward investment. Hosting a mega-event is often viewed as a recipe for successful urban regeneration, as it not only brings about the opportunity to improve the infrastructure and appearance of the host city, but it also gives global media exposure, meaning that the

image of a city can be transformed in the eyes of viewers (Hede, 2005:189; D'Arcy, 2006:5; Rein & Shields, 2007:78).

Relatively unknown cities have attracted international prominence by hosting the Olympic Games (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:114). For example, cities such as Innsbruck in Austria, Calgary in Canada and Salt Lake City in the USA are now modestly famous worldwide due to the legacy derived from hosting the Olympic Games (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:114). Therefore, the key rationale, for staging mega-events is the event-related publicity and the desired subsequent impact of increased tourism which is best regarded as an indirect economic impact (Coalter & Taylor, 2008:17). Sport has come to play an important role in cities since the legacy of sporting facilities has enhanced the image of communities. Stimulation of additional development, important public welfare and increased tourism are the potential rewards offered by investment in sport tourism (Barghchi, Omar & Aman, 2009:14).

For many western cities, as well as for those trying to get onto the global stage for the first time, for example, Beijing and the 2008 Olympic Games, festivals and events form part of place-marketing strategies (Coalter & Taylor, 2008:17; Quinn, 2009:7). Although a great number of cities have used sporting events as engineering tools for re-imaging, Smith (2005:61) asserts that several cities have deployed sport events as the central theme for the re-imaging of their place-marketing strategy. For example, Kurtzman notes that Perth (Australia) has marketed itself as the 'City of Sporting Events', while Lake Placid claims to be the 'Winter Sports Capital of the United States' (Kurtzman, 2001:19). Smith (2005:87), in turn, emphasises that sport initiatives appear particularly proficient as tools for communicating that a city is more interesting.

The hosting of mega-event strategy differs from other tourism development strategies, because it relies on obtaining a single event large enough to be seen as a way to generate future economic growth (Burbank, Andranovich & Heying, 2002:183). As a result, the mega-event strategy seeks to attract an event of sufficient magnitude that it can be a stimulus to, or justification for, local development projects. The long-term benefits which accrue to host regions, such as physical development, in the form of the provision of sport and tourism resources and infrastructures which remain a legacy for the host region, is often used as a justification for the hosting of such events (Jones, 2001:243; Rein & Shields, 2007:78; Higham & Hinch, 2008:83).

2.3.4 Mega-events as attractors to create destination uniqueness

In terms of the model of destination competitiveness, presented in Figure 2.3 (p.38), a destination that has no major competitive advantage must rely on innovative insight and/or simply hard work to create a unique characteristic for itself that makes it stand out in the market place. According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003:119), mega-events and hallmark events, such as the hosting of Olympic Games and the FSWC™, can raise a destination from obscurity to international prominence.

Although sport mega-events are usually assessed in terms of economic impact, it is often claimed that economic regeneration is paralleled by social regeneration (Jones, 2001:242; Swart & Smith-Christensen, 2005:124-134; Barghchi, *et al.*, 2009:191; Lee, 2010:25). Cities, in their quest for global relevance, see the value of mega-events in terms of capturing the attention of the world's population and the branding that their city receives (Johnson, 2008:10). Instead of trying to identify the monetary gains arising from the economic activity, in which the precise nature of the activity has limited importance to the

actual measurement, Barghchi *et al*, (2009:192) highlight the fact that there is an increase in community visibility and an enhanced community image as well as stimulation of additional development for the city's residents which, in turn, is related to income from the stadium. Misener and Mason (2006:53) explain that the hosting of sporting events provides cities with opportunities to develop meaningful proposals concerning sporting activities that are designed to affect social change and political action and to realise benefits far beyond that of tourism and economic development.

Both the summer and winter Olympic Games are flagship examples of a growing number of sport-based events that can contribute, in a major way, to increasing international awareness of the host destination, even though the event may only be held there on one occasion over several generations (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:120). For example, the 2006 FSWC™ in Germany was designed to present the country as a fun and attractive destination and to call attention to other cultural aspects that go beyond the game itself (Duarte, 2009:77). The Atlanta 1996 Summer Olympic Games is remembered by many as the 'Games of the bomb', while the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games was just 'a success' (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:120).

Other international events, such as tennis and the US Super Bowl, that attract high levels of media attention can also help to create, build or enhance an awareness and image of a destination (Swarbrooke, 2002:6; Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:120). Furthermore, the value of organising annual events is that they provide destination managers with the ability to slowly build an awareness and reputation of a city. However, destination managers should seek to identify those events that seem to fit in with the character of the destination itself (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:121).

Kasimati (2003:433) summarised the potential long-term benefits to a city of hosting a sport mega-events. These include newly constructed event facilities and infrastructure, urban revival, enhanced international reputation, increased tourism, improved public welfare, additional employment and increased inward investment. Despite the positive contribution and legacies left by mega-events, the destination and the destination managers of the host countries are often faced with challenges emanating from the hosting of mega-events. Attention is now focused on these challenges.

2.4 THE CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH THE HOSTING OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS

One of the most important factors to be taken into account when hosting a sport mega-event is the fact that mega-events have the potential to make lasting contributions to host destinations, but these contributions are rarely realised (Jago *et al.*, 2010:233). The features that expose the sport mega-events industry to a broad range of risks and uncertainties are listed below:

- Sport-mega-events are service products which are intangible (not easy to measure or evaluate the experience) (Raza, 2005:3; Morrison 2010:41).
- Sport mega-events are perishable (they cannot be stored or re-used, being time related) (Raza, 2005:3; Morrison 2010:45).
- Sport mega-events are inseparable from the venue or environment in which they have to be experienced (Raza, 2005:3; Morrison 2010:41).

The many challenges or types of risk and the difficulties associated with hosting sport mega-events intensify with the size of the event (Henderson *et al.*, 2010:61). Effective

branding concerns have been raised regarding the impact and the challenges frequently associated with the hosting of sport mega-events (Lyck, 2006:26; Matheson, 2006:21; Coalter and Taylor (2008:33). The challenges often associated with hosting sport mega-events can be classified under economic, political, socio-cultural, and resource based factors, and include:

2.4.1 Economic factors

The hosting of a sport mega-event is seen as a catalyst for bringing legacies to the host destinations, for example, enhanced image and economic development opportunities that promote trade and foster closer business ties between destinations over time (Jago *et al.*, 2010:233). However, economic and other rewards associated with the hosting of mega-events can be offset by considerable costs and the fact that the desired tourism development and marketing returns may not materialise (Henderson *et al.*, 2010:62). This section summarises some of the factors that may impede the prospects of a destination deriving maximum economic benefits from the staging of a mega-event.

2.4.2 Financial risks

Sport mega-events are large in scale, financially demanding, usually require major infrastructural and facility development and need both private and public financing to realise the benefits (Lyck 2006:6; Coalter & Taylor, 2008:3; Jago *et al.*, 2010:227; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2010:180). Financial risks include insufficient funding to construct the needed infrastructure and facilities, such as sport stadiums, the airport, roads, public transport systems, tourism accommodation and telecommunications. The costs of providing these infrastructures are typically very high and often well beyond the resources

of a developing country (Barclay, 2009:62; Jago *et al.*, 2010:228; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2010:172). At the same time, practical and financial demands escalate commensurate with status and there are risks of widespread negative publicity for a country and its government should failures occur (Henderson *et al.*, 2010:62). As a result, the impact of hosting a sport mega-event can be less beneficial on account of wasteful investments and the incurring of major debts (Lenskyj, 2002:227-228) and, thus, huge financial risks.

2.4.3 Political and legal factors

Interpretations of the impact of mega-events may, however, be affected by the interests of the individuals, groups and organisations involved in the hosting of such events (Henderson *et al.*, 2010:62). As a result, Henderson *et al.* (2010:62) state that the political factors may manifest as disagreements and tensions among different parties which can frustrate the success of the event independently of, and as a strategic tool within the host destination. Political challenges associated with the hosting of sport mega-events may include official support and guarantees promised that do not materialise as well as the use of the event as a political ‘football’ between parties in order to garner votes (Tassiopoulis, 2010:237). Likewise, political instability and political indecisiveness, for example, may pose negative challenges in respect of the provision of the infrastructure required.

Sport mega-events marketing is also impacted by strict controls and restrictions, such as anti-ambush marketing measures, TV broadcasting rights and safety and security strategies. So, for example, during the London 2012 Olympic Games, organisations such as Nike, Red Bull and Tetley Tea gained financially by an association with the games even though they were not official sponsors of the Games (Passikoff, 2012:1; Segal, 2012:1; Ukman, 2012:1). In order to police or prevent ambush marketing and unauthorised trading

during the London 2012 Games, the London Organising Committee of the Olympic and Paralympic Games (LOCOG) and the British Parliament adopted a variety of tactics and robust rules which include, the establishment of Olympic Delivery Authority (ODA); the trading standards were employed, and the handing out of free T-shirts near London Games venues were outlawed by the Government in its anti-ambush marketing legislation (Magnay, 2011:1; Passikof, 2012:1; Peachey, 2012:1-2; Segal, 2012:2).

The anti-ambush marketing strategies adopted during the London 2012 Olympic Games highlight the fact that sport mega-events are staged under strict controls and restrictions which impose significant limitations on what can and what cannot be done in the domain of sport mega-event marketing. For example, sport marketers and business organisations are compelled to respect the rules of the sport, observe the regulations of the event owner, such as the IOC, FIFA, the host community, and fulfil the technical conditions required by the sport (McKelvey & Grady, 2008:582; Preuss, Gemeinder & Séguin, 2008:249; Theodoraki, 2011:178). Thus, legal action may be taken against ambush marketers, for example, when misuse of the emblems or protected symbols of the games occur or if there are definite IOC or FIFA legal infringements, as was the case during the London 2012 Games (Passikof, 2012:1; Segal, 2012:2).

Furthermore, in the domain of mega-events marketing, the organisers and marketers of sport events must fully understand and comply with important FIFA or IOC legislation regarding fair play and competition, the Consumer Protection Act, the Environmental Protection Act and the Trade Marks Act in order to avoid conflict with the political and legal regulatory environment that may impact significantly on mega-event marketing if not adhered to (Schwarz, Hall & Shibi, 2010; Henderson *et al.*, 2010:67; Ponsford, 2011:185).

2.4.4 Resource-based factors

It is important to recognise that the legacy for host destinations from the staging of a mega-event may be physical in terms of infrastructure, but can also relate to skills development, community pride and transformation to a green economy (Jago *et al.*, 2010:232). The following are factors that may impede a destination from deriving the benefits of the legacy for staging a mega-event.

2.4.4.1 *Infrastructural risks*

According to Matheson (2006:21) and Barclay (2009:64), sport mega-events may result in the development of new infrastructure for sporting facilities and demand management systems that are likely to be little used or cannot be managed after the event when staffing levels go back to normal. The continual upkeep and maintenance of these facilities alone can become a serious drain on community resources and some facilities may remain unused long after the mega-event has been concluded (Barclay, 2009:65; Jago *et al.*, 2010:228).

2.4.4.2 *Hidden costs*

According to Jago *et al.* (2010:226), there are substantial opportunities to generate local employment and develop skills during both the construction and operational phases of mega-events. However, Jago *et al.* (2010:227) and Karadakis and Kaplanidou (2010:181) state that the skill legacy of these mega-events is often not great as skilled staff leave the host country after tasks related to the hosting of a mega-event have been completed. The high costs incurred during the staging of a mega-event may also be linked to the provision of skilled personnel, which may be coupled with the cost of the security provided, since

mega-events have increasingly become targets for the activities of protest and terrorist groups (Jago *et al.*, 2010:230-131; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2010:181).

2.4.5 Environmental factors

Today, nearly every major sport or entertainment event organiser demonstrates some consideration for environmental issues (Ponsford, 2011:184). For example, according to Ponsford (2011:186), during the 1994 Centennial Olympic Congress, the International Olympic Committee (IOC), as an international body, recognised its influence in encouraging and supporting environmental and social responsibility as well as sustainable development in host cities. Since then the IOC policy directives and the scope of the environmental programmes of the Organising Committee for the Olympic Games (OCOG) have expanded considerably (Ponsford, 2011:186). Therefore, the environmental challenges, frequently associated with the staging of a sport mega-event, are explored below.

2.4.5.1 Environmental impact risks

The environmental impact associated with hosting events of all scales is well documented in event management discourses (David, 2009 cited in Ponsford, 2011:185). Events may be vulnerable to the impact of climate change (Mair, 2011:250). Vulnerability is defined as a function of exposure to climate factors, such as rainfall, temperature and a rise in sea level, sensitivity to change and the capacity to adapt to that change (Adger & Vincent, 2005:400). Major environmental concerns are associated with the construction of event infrastructure as venues revolve around site selection, habitat destruction through land use as well as water quality issues and the implications for wildlife populations during actual in-field construction activities (Ponsford, 2011:185). In addition, event-time environmental

issues involve the use of resources, that is, the type, source and amount of the resource, waste management and air quality, which is often associated with transportation and heavy demands on energy usage (Henderson *et al.*, 2010:67; Ponsford, 2011:185).

Other environmental problems that mega-events are also likely to create include societal problems such as over-loading the capacity of the infrastructure and bulk services, water, traffic congestion and the environmental destruction of natural resources (Bohlmann, 2006:13). Increasingly, greater emphasis is also being placed on greenhouse gas emissions associated with the operation of, and travel to events (Henderson *et al.*, 2010:67; Mair, 2011:246; Ponsford, 2011:185). According to Mair (2011:249), the most vulnerable events are those that are staged in locations that are highly exposed to the impact of hazardous climate change and have a limited adaptive capacity. Adaptive capacity, in this context, refers to the ability of a system to respond successfully to climate variability and change.

It appears that the impact of the climate will not affect all events equally, since the adaptive capacity of the events sector is likely to vary depending on the type of event (Mair, 2011:249). Mair (2011:250), however, states that not all the effects of climate change will impact negatively on the events industry and, indeed, the changing climate may provide opportunities for existing events and also for new mega-events to emerge. Ponsford (2011:187) highlights the fact that some large-scale events are hiring environmental and sustainability specialists who perform the dual role of technical advisors to event managers and environmental promoters as green ethics play an increasingly important role as an imperative programme and planning element in the sport industry. As advisors, environmental professionals may help event managers assess environmental risks,

provide technical direction on alternative products or processes, interpret legislative requirements and respond to environmental emergencies, while as promoters, they may create organisational awareness and drive the implementation of best environmental practice (Ponsford, 2011:187). Therefore the environmental challenges associated with the hosting of mega-events incur huge financial risks.

2.4.6 Socio-cultural factors

The socio-cultural challenges associated with the hosting of sport mega-events include price inflation, thereby accentuating the social disadvantages of certain social strata within the population of the host nation and attracting adverse publicity (Lenskyj, 2002:227-228). These involve the displacement of tenants, loss of security of tenure and rent hikes (Barclay, 2009:65; Henderson *et al.*, 2010:65; Jago *et al.*, 2010:227; Karadakis & Kaplanidou, 2010:181). In addition, mega-events are also likely to create a strain on law enforcement, which may result in an increase in crime and the destruction of cultural resources (Bohlmann, 2006:13).

Despite all the challenges associated with the hosting of sport mega-events, Matheson (2006:21) suggests that the most important advice that local governments of host destinations can follow is, simply, to view any economic impact estimates provided by those entities with an incentive to gain maximum value derived from the staging of a mega-event with caution. Sport mega-events also need to be undertaken in partnership with tourism marketing organisations as these organisations have the expertise to access relevant surveys regarding the attitudes and behaviour of tourists, occupancy data and visitor enquiries regarding activities related to a mega-event (Coalter & Taylor, 2008:33). In order to minimise the challenges facing destination managers who seek to incorporate

sport mega-events into their strategic planning, Jago *et al.* (2010:231) suggest that the hosting of a mega-event should not be seen as an 'end in itself' but rather as part of a longer-term development framework or positioning strategy for destinations.

2.5 SUMMARY

Event tourism is a growing niche area in the tourism industry, because events in tourism are increasingly viewed as an integral part of tourism development and destination marketing. The types of mega-events, ranging from community events and cultural events to sport mega-events, are often incorporated into strategic planning by destination marketers to improve the competitiveness of the host destinations. A model of destination competitiveness by Ritchie and Crouch (2003) (p.38) has been outlined and applied to this research in order to investigate and determine the critical role played by mega-events in the tourism industry.

Sport mega-events, such as the Olympic Games and FSWCTM, are usually assessed in terms of the long-term economic impact derived by the host destinations as a result of staging these events. However, as previously mentioned, there are challenges or risks associated with the hosting of sport mega-events. These challenges include financial risks, political risks, resource based challenges, environmental impact risks and socio-cultural factors. It became evident in this chapter that sport mega-events marketing is also impacted by strict controls and restrictions, such as anti-ambush marketing measures and safety and security strategies. In this chapter, it also became apparent that the challenges associated with the hosting of sport mega-events may be minimised if there is proper

planning for the staging of the events, for example, the establishment of partnerships with other supporting industries such as tourism marketing organisations.

CHAPTER 3 THE MARKETING OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS

Chapter 1	The research problem in context
Chapter 2	The role of mega-events in the tourism industry
Chapter 3	The marketing of sport mega-events
	Traditional tourism marketing
	Marketing of sport mega-events
	New trends regarding sport mega-events marketing
Chapter 4	E-marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 5	E-marketing lessons from previous sport mega-events since 2000
Chapter 6	Marketing of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ with particular reference to e-marketing
Chapter 7	Research Methodology
Chapter 8	Research findings and discussions
Chapter 9	Conclusions and Recommendations: A strategic framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the mid-1990's sport has become one of the tourism activities that uses various new media platforms, such as 3rd Generation cellular phone technology and transmission (3G) mobile phones and iPads (Boyle, 2004:74). The Internet has also become one of the media platforms through which a sport audience is able to access full sport games (Theysohn, 2006:17). The purpose of this chapter is to investigate how sport mega-events are marketed. In doing so, the concept of marketing is described, firstly, with the purpose of exploring the specific meaning of the concept. Secondly, the paradigm shift in marketing over the years is discussed to show how meaning of the concept of marketing has been changing. Thirdly, tourism and travel marketing concept is explored to highlight how marketing has been applied into this field and, finally, the marketing of sport mega-events is investigated in order to determine how such marketing is implemented in relation to tourism and travel marketing.

3.2 MARKETING

The definition of the term marketing is an evolving one (Lusch, 2007:261) and as a result, there are literally many definitions of the concept. According to Morrison (2010:7), marketing is

“... a continuous, sequential process through which management in the hospitality and travel industry plans, researches, implements, controls, and evaluates activities designed to satisfy customers' needs and wants, and their own organisation's objectives”.

The American Marketing Association (AMA) defines the concept of marketing as

“... an organisational function and a set of processes for creating, communication, and delivering value to consumers and for managing customer relationships in ways that benefit the organization and its stakeholders” (Shaw, 2006:43-44; Mick, 2007:290).

According to Gummesson (2008:14),

“Marketing is a culture, an organisational function and a set of processes for creating, communicating, and delivering value with customers and for interacting in networks of relationship in ways that benefit the organisation, its customers and other stakeholders”.

Evidently, these definitions of marketing have something in common, namely, satisfying the customers’ needs and the organisational objectives through communication processes.

Nevertheless, the definitions of marketing highlight the fact that marketing thinkers are primarily interested in the impact of marketing on the world beyond the concerns of the organisation and its stakeholders (Wilkie & Moore, 2007:270). However, Wilkie and Moore (2007:275) suggest that exchange continues to be an important part of marketing, although it does not constitute the central focus of the activity. As a result, the identified core elements of marketing include the customer and the brand, distribution, marketing information management, pricing, product/service management, promotion and selling (Raza, 2005:2; Oelkers, 2007:6).

3.3 THE PARADIGM SHIFT IN MARKETING

The concept of marketing has been evolving over the years. The eras covered in this section to demonstrate the paradigm shift in marketing are from the 1950s to the 1990s.

a. *The 1950s and 1960s*

By the early 1950s and during the 1960s, decision-making approaches to the management of the marketing functions were directed at satisfying the customer at a profit (Kotler & Levy, 1969:10). According to Kotler and Levy (1969:10), in terms of the traditional marketing management paradigm, marketing was seen as the task of finding and stimulating buyers for the firm's output, and involved product development, pricing, distribution, and communication. In more progressive firms, continuous attention was given to the changing needs of customers and the development of new products, with products modifications and services to meet these needs.

b. *The 1970s*

The decade of the 1970s saw a race between the domains of marketing strategy and social marketing, which competed to become disciplines, whereby marketing strategy became a discipline, but social marketing did not (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 2002:7). As a result, during the 1970s, the emphasis on marketing was on determining the settings of the company's marketing decision variables that were to maximise the company's objectives in the light of the expected behaviour of uncontrollable demand variables (Kotler, 1972:42).

A number of enabling events were very helpful to marketing strategy because business strategy was firstly mandated by the accreditation process of the American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) as part of core business education (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 2002:7). Secondly, the Strategic Planning Institute allowed academic institutions to license and use industry benchmarking data called the Profit Impact of Market Strategy (PIMS), which advocated several law-like generalizations anchored in the impact of market share and customer satisfaction on financial performance. Finally, the transition of marketing strategy from a domain to a discipline was further propelled by the impact of Porter's (1980) book on competitive strategy and its link to market strategies of differentiation and focus (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 2002:7).

c. *The 1980s*

In the 1980s, there was a paradigm in the concept of marketing because many new frames of reference to marketing were not based on the 4 P's that represent (Product, Price, Place and Promotion) (Vargo & Lusch, 2004:1). According to Vargo and Lusch (2004:1), during these years, the marketing concept focused on relationship marketing, quality management, market orientation, supply and value chain management, resource management and networks. The most notable factor in marketing was the emergence of services marketing that focused on the improvement of product and service quality, such as intangibility, interactivity, perishability and proximity (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 2002:8). Services marketing and network theory were both oriented towards the management of the whole company (Gummesson, 2002:41).

d. The 1990s

In the early 1990s, the historical marketing management function, based on the micro-economic maximisation paradigm, was critically examined (Webster, 1992:1). According to Webster (1992:1), the relevance of the macro-economic maximisation paradigm to marketing theory and practice was questioned during the early 1990s. At the end of the twentieth century, the validity or usefulness of the 4 P's concept and its lack of recognition of marketing as an innovative or adaptive force were now regarded merely as a handy framework (Day & Montgomery, 1999:3).

Towards the end of the twentieth century, a network perspective was advocated, that is, the very nature of network organisation, the kinds of theories useful to its understanding, and the potential impact on the organisation of consumption suggested a paradigm shift for marketing (Achrol & Kotler, 1999:162). According to Vargo and Lusch (2004:1), the controversy over service marketing became one of the issues surrounding the marketing debates during the late 1990s.

Marketing during the late 1990s, was therefore evolving towards a new paradigm, which is, relationship marketing management that focused on a transition away from the exchange of tangible goods, that is manufacturing goods and towards the exchange of intangible, specialised skills knowledge, and processes (Sheth & Parvatiyar, 2002:4; Vrago & Lusch, 2004:2). The network organisation became a generic designation for new organisational structures of enterprises and of society as a whole, because it embraced network alliances, personal contacts, out-sourced activities, customers, and IT, which is organisational intranet and also extranet (Gummesson, 2002:44).

The paradigm shift in marketing towards the network organisation during the late 1990s was referred to as a dominant logic of an inclusive network organisation, which integrates goods with services and provides a richer foundation for the development of marketing thought and practice (Gummesson, 2002:44; Vargo & Lusch, 2004:2). As a result, the focus on customers and electronic relationships became and remain to be the characteristics of relationship marketing (Edvinsson & Malone, 1997:151-158). In the following section, the concept of marketing as applied in the tourism and travel sectors is discussed.

3.4 TOURISM AND TRAVEL MARKETING

In the late 1980's and early 1990's, tourism marketing was viewed as the application of marketing in tourism management situations (Middleton, 2001). Thus, the promotional components of traditional marketing were used for the marketing of tourism in the areas of advertising, personal selling, sales promotions and publicity (Mullin, Hardy & Sutton, 2007:274). There are differences between the way marketing evolved in non-service industries and the way in which it developed in service industries. Service industries are primarily involved in the provision of personal services, which include the hospitality and travel industry (Morrison, 2010:8).

In the service industries, marketing requires the efforts of everybody in an organisation and can be made more or less effective by the actions of complementary organisations (Morrison, 2010:7). Among manufacturing and packaged-goods companies, the marketing concept focuses on the wants and needs of consumers during the production, sales,

marketing and distribution of products and services (Arora, 2007:54; Oelkers, 2007:220; Morrison, 2010:8).

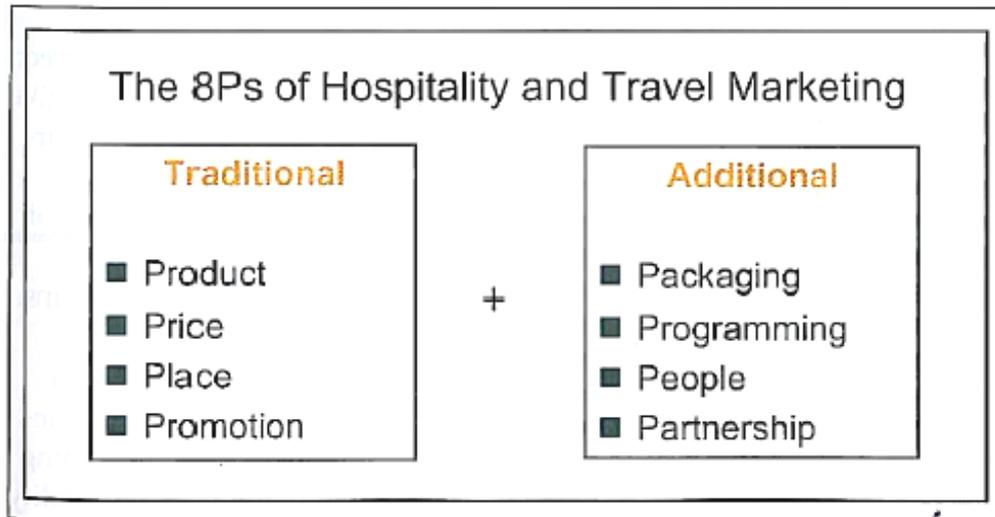


Figure 3.1: The 8 Ps of hospitality and travel marketing (Morrison, 2010:309).

However, during the early 2000's, a shift in the marketing paradigm occurred because the definition of tourism (hospitality) and travel marketing was regarded as a separate branch of marketing, with its own unique requirements, consisting of eight P's, as shown in Figure 3.1. The first four traditional P's represent Product, Pricing, Place, Promotion with the remaining P's, representing Packaging, Programming, People, and Partnership (Morrison, 2010:309). Tourism marketing is, therefore, comprised of the eight P's that constitute the coordinated activities executed in one or many markets in order to deliver goods and services to customers, thereby achieving a desired revenue and profit objective in the marketplace (Raza, 2005:2). Against this background, the focus now turns to the marketing of tourism sport mega-events.

3.5 MARKETING OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS

In the following section, the marketing tools applied in the marketing of sport mega-events are investigated and, in addition, the strengths (pros) and weaknesses (cons) of each type of advertising media are highlighted.

3.5.1 Sport mega-events and the Print Media

The print media is the oldest medium that regularly informs people about sporting activities (Beck & Bosshart, 2003:6). Unlike magazines, newspapers are the most popular medium for advertising based on the total volume of spending (Morrison, 2010:508). However, magazines have a greater targeting ability than newspapers (Morrison, 2010:512). Media coverage of sport events continued to evolve after World War I, with radio becoming a major influence from the 1920's onwards (Gillentine, Crow & Harris, 2009:36). According to Gillentine *et al.* (2009:36), this new competition forced sport writers to change their style of writing. Since the game itself was on the radio, they had to provide in-depth, comprehensive information not available on radio broadcasts.²

3.5.2 Sport mega-events and the Radio

Up until the early 20th century, the only way to share in the immediate drama of a sport event was either to play the game or to attend it. Once radio came into being, this medium offered the opportunity of live reporting as compared to the printed media (Beck & Bosshart, 2003:9). Unlike TV advertising, radio advertisers have the option of buying programmes broadcast by the networks and local stations (Morrison, 2010:516). Radio

² See Appendix A for the perceived strengths and weaknesses of print media used in sport mega-events.

also provides an audio message that can be powerful as well as relatively inexpensive (Mullin *et al.*, 2007:250). Therefore, the radio tends to be the second most used media or one that supplements TV and newspapers in exposing listeners to sport games (Lee, 2005:1; Morrison, 2010:641). The advantage of the radio medium was, and still is, its speed and ability to reach people anywhere and at any time, that is, in the car, at the workplace and elsewhere, unlike most other media (Hackley, 2005:123). In addition, developments in the availability of mobile connection and satellite communication channels have afforded radio networks with the relevant infrastructure to provide improved live coverage of sport events (Gillentine *et al.*, 2009:36).

Live reporting on the radio increased the number of people able to follow a sport event in real time, but organisers feared that it could also prevent some people from going to the stadium and paying the entrance fee (Beck & Bosshart, 2003:10). As radio sets are small and portable, they can be used as a supplement to TV reporting as well as in places where watching TV is impossible (Beck & Bosshart, 2003:10).³

3.5.3 Sport mega-events and the Television

The single largest cause of growth in the professional sport industry has been TV (Gillentine *et al.*, 2009:36). Like the radio, TV allows live reporting, but it also transmits live images together with sound, hence providing the feeling of the viewer 'being there'. This 'feeling' is stronger for TV spectators than for radio listeners (Beck & Bosshart, 2003:10; Mullin *et al.*, 2007:251). With TV, major sporting contests are no longer available only to spectators witnessing the event in person, but also to the many millions of 'spectators' who can view the spectacle in their own homes (Beck & Bosshart, 2003:10). Interestingly,

³ Refer to appendix A for the summary of strengths and weaknesses of the Radio as a marketing tool.

Morrison (2010:641) highlights the fact that getting TV stations to cover an event such as a sport mega-event means either directly contacting the stations or having the event listed with a wire service.

Among high-income nations, TV broadcasting is an important source of revenue in all of the most important professional sports (Noll, 2007:1). Worldwide, the Olympic Games, the Soccer World Cup and athletics are the sport events that attract the interest of millions of viewers globally and achieve the highest fees for broadcasting rights (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:1; Robinson & Bauman, 2008:291). TV has fuelled new sporting fashions everywhere and live reports from international events like the Olympic Games and Soccer World Cup have introduced audiences, across the world, to new types of sport (Beck & Bosshart, 2003:11).

The importance of TV, as a medium, is demonstrated by the fact that sales of TV broadcasting rights for soccer games constitute the most significant source of income for soccer clubs (Deloitte, 2005:2). The added value stemming from TV is close-ups, replays, slow motion and the different angles from different cameras as well as cameras that follow the action (Beck & Bosshart, 2003:10). As a result, at the 2000 Olympic Games in Sydney, digital satellite TV was introduced for the coverage of the opening ceremony and for some of the more popular events. At the Athens Olympics in 2004, the digital coverage was increased, while there was (to be) increased digital coverage at the Beijing Olympics of 2008 (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:4).

Sport mega-events are extremely attractive for TV companies, because sport broadcasts guarantee high viewing figures, which translate into substantial advertising revenue and

good publicity for the broadcaster (Schoentel, 2006:2). In return, the audiovisual media, mainly TV, gives sport enormous public exposure and the potential for successful marketing (Schoentel, 2006:2). Panagiotopoulou (2007:1) states that continuous improvement in communications technology creates new needs that demand the frequent replacement of infrastructure and technological equipment making the organisation of televised sport mega-events both costly and difficult.

The broadcasting landscape is changing considerably due to technological progress and the emergence of digital technology (Turner & Shilbury, 2010:13). This is exemplified by the fact that consumers are now able to watch sport programmes through many different conduits, such as terrestrial, satellite and cable or on the telephone and mobile phones (Turner & Shilbury, 2010:13). There is also a rise in the sale of sport rights to telecommunications companies for exploitation via broadband Internet or mobile phone platforms (Schoentel, 2006:2). For example, it is reported that the growth of mobile phone usage and other forms of wireless technology has allowed marketers to use short message service messaging, which is a cellular phone text messaging and mobile communications as an advertising and information channel to potential consumers, such as the followers of sport mega-events (Hume & Sullivan, 2008:3; Liang, 2010:174).⁴

3.5.4 Public Relations as a marketing medium for sport mega-events

Sport Public Relations (PR) is considered as media relations. However, media relations are referred to as a component of the public relations function (Mullin, *et al.*, 2007:385). PR encompasses the task of creating media opportunities, which implies that it is important to consider the relationship that sport events have with the media (Masterman &

⁴ Refer to appendix A for the perceived strengths and weaknesses of TV as a marketing tool.

Wood, 2006:96). According to Wale & Ridal (2010:156), sport mega-events are high risk events in media terms in respect of health and safety, disasters, event cancellation, supporter behaviour and quality performers, because reporters are on the look-out for a negative or sensational news story to sell. According to Masterman and Wood (2006:96), sport mega-events are reported in or commented on by many news media, such as publications, press releases, editorials, press conferences, newsletters, radio, email newsletters, TV and the Web, but the PR for sport events has no control over the content.

Press conferences, press releases and invitations to sport mega-events must be well planned since they are aimed at networking to ensure good PR (Jayswal, 2008:258). A strategic role of PR practitioners in sport mega-events also includes the management of sponsor relationships, employee relations, community relations, public affairs, media relations, crisis management, publicity, marketing communications as well as the prevention and management of player transgressions in sport (Wilson, Stavros & Westberg, 2008:105; Morrison, 2010:482). In addition, PR personnel carry the responsibility for identifying and creating rapport with press reporters so as to maintain a positive image of the sport events and destinations (Jayswal, 2008:258). In addition to the press, TV and radio, PR personnel use other media such as:

3.5.4.1 Advertorials

Advertorials are press releases placed in paid for space and designed to read like editorials. Therefore, they are not necessarily a PR technique (Masterman & Wood, 2006:97). The Athens 2004 Olympic Games used advertorials to alleviate issues arising from damaging media coverage that pertained to delays in the construction of several venues for the event (Mewshaw, 2004:2-3). The result was that the advertorials produced

benefits, such as credible positive reporting on an image of Greece as a place to visit with a specific emphasis on attending the Olympic Games.

3.5.4.2 Advance articles

An advance notification of a sport mega-event using pictures, information and competitions can provide more concise information about the event (Masterman & Wood, 2006:97). For example, the New Orleans Jazz and Heritage Festival used press releases to update key news media reporters with any line-up changes of the performers in order to report the information timeously to the target audience for this event (Masterman & Wood, 2006:97).⁵

3.5.5 Sport mega-events and Sponsorships

Sponsorship of sport mega-events, arts, and charitable events is a mainstream marketing activity that no longer needs justification (Cornwell, 2008:41; Söderman & Dolles, 2010:11). Sponsorship is one of the most common funding sources for staging a sport event (Masterman & Wood, 2006:101), because official sponsors invest millions of dollars in order to affiliate themselves with major sport mega-events (Kambitsis, Harahousou, Theodorakis, & Chatzibeis, 2002:155; McKelvey & Grady, 2008:551). Sponsorship refers to the acquisition of rights to affiliate or directly associate with a product or event, by an organisation, for the purpose of deriving benefits related to that affiliation or association (McKelvey & Grady, 2008:551; Söderman & Dolles, 2010:9). For example, McDonald's was the fast food sponsor of the 2010 FSWCTM and was, therefore, granted exclusive rights, by FIFA, to utilise the 2010 FSWCTM in its advertising and promotional campaign in the field of fast foods (Dean, 2010:17).

⁵ See Appendix A for the strengths and weaknesses of PR as a marketing tool for sport mega-events.

According to Mullin *et al.* (2007:315), the sponsor uses this relationship to achieve its promotional objectives and or to facilitate and support its broader marketing objectives. For example, in promoting sponsoring activities for the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games, Söderman and Dolles (2010:9) state that the Beijing Organising Committee of the Olympic Games (BOCOG) noted the rights and benefits enjoyed by sponsors and suppliers in return for their contributions to the Olympic Games. These rights and benefits included the use of trademarks and symbols in marketing activities as well as the designation of official supplier to the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games.

Sponsorship of sport mega-events leads to increased interest, awareness and an intent to purchase the sponsor's products over time, thereby suggesting that the investment provides greater returns for sponsors through the generation of competitive advantage (Fahy, Farrelly & Quester, 2004:1016; Cornwell & Coote, 2005:268). The belief in the ability of sponsorship to communicate with a wide range of unreachable members of the public has seen a proliferation in corporate sponsorship of sporting events and a large investment in advertising at both the stadiums and during the telecasts of sporting events (O'Reilly, Lyberger, McCarthy & Séguin, 2008:393).

Over the past few decades, many global companies have made huge investments targeted at associating their brand with the Olympic Games (Lee, 2005:2). For instance, Coca Cola, McDonald's, Kodak, Samsung, Panasonic and Adidas spent billions during the 2004 Olympics in Athens (Lee, 2005:2). The 2006 FSWCTM finals is another example, in that there were 15 official partners, all of which used read-only websites, whilst the Coca Cola organisation, as the official sponsor of the event, used a blogging platform (Dart, 2009:116).

The partnership between the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC) and the Coca Cola Corporation, during the Germany 2006 FIFA™ finals, for example, allowed both organisations significant access to cross promotional opportunities and to high profile celebrities and commentators (Dart, 2009:118). As a result of these benefits, ambush marketing is a phenomenon that has begun to emerge over the past few years. It is viewed as one of the key implications of sponsorship to which attention shall now be given.

3.5.5.1 *Implications of Sponsorship: Ambush marketing*

The term ‘ambush marketing’ refers to “... a company’s intentional efforts to associate its own brand with the sponsored activity without securing formal rights, and this weakens or ambushes the official sponsor’ activity” (George, 2008:522; McKelvey & Grady, 2008:553). According to Dean (2010:17), ambush marketing takes place when the competitors of the sponsors of a sport mega-event seek to gain benefit from, or utilise, the sport mega-event to promote their products without being an authorised sponsor.

According to McKelvey and Grady (2008:554), companies engage in ambush marketing for a variety of the following reasons:

- Firstly, the company may view the official sponsorship rights as being too expensive.
- Secondly, the company may be excluded from becoming an official sponsor because a sport organisation places restrictions on the number of sponsors.
- Finally, the company may be blocked from becoming an official sponsor because of a pre-existing, exclusive deal between a sport organisation and a competing company.

Forms of ambush marketing include ambush marketing by association, whereby

“... the ambush marketer misleads the public into thinking that he/she is an authorised sponsor or contributor associated with the sport mega-event; and ambush marketing by intrusion, whereby ‘the ambush marketer seeks not to suggest connection with the sport mega-event but rather to give his/her own name, trade mark, or other insignia exposure through the medium of the publicity attracted by the sport mega-event, and this is done without any authorisation of the sport mega-event organiser” (Dean, 2010:18).

Instances of ambush marketing have featured in some sport mega-events held in the past. In the case of the 2010 FSWCTM, thirty six women, dressed in Dutch orange mini-dresses, who attended a FIFA Soccer World CupTM match between the Netherlands and Denmark match at Soccer City, were detained by police over claims that they were advertising for Bavaria, an unofficial Dutch beer firm (Kelso, 2010:1; Laing, 2010:1). The official sponsor Budweiser was the only beer company granted advertising rights within FIFA venues and FIFA fiercely protected its lucrative marketing interests (Kelso, 2010:1; Laing, 2010:1). According to Laing (2010:1), the women claimed that they were simply supporting their country, but FIFA said that they were South Africans hired by Bavaria to wear the dresses. Ultimately, FIFA filed charges of ambush marketing against the Dutch girls who were held in police custody for more than three hours before they were driven back to their hotel where the police made copies of their passports (Liang, 2010:2).

Over the years, the OCOG has developed some effective sponsorship programme protection strategies against the negative impacts of ambush marketing (McKelvey & Grady, 2008:582). As a result, anti-ambush marketing measures for sport organisations,

such as OCOG and FIFA, have ranged from legal warnings to public trials (Preuss, Gemeinder & Séguin, 2008:249). In South Africa, for example, South Africa's customised ambush marketing legislation was put in place prior to the 2003 Cricket World Cup and was also used for supporting South Africa's bid to host the 2010 FSWCupTM (Dean, 2010:17-18). Thus, legal action may be taken against ambush marketers when misuse of the emblems or protected symbols of the games occur or if there are definite IOC or FIFA legal infringements (Preuss *et al.*, 2008:249).

According to Dean (2010:20); McKelvey and Grady (2008:582) and Preuss *et al.* (2008:249), there are legal grey areas and practical loopholes surrounding the practice of ambush marketing making it very difficult for sport mega-event organisers to manage or counteract ambush marketing. However, sport organisations such as the IOC, FIFA and their partners suggest that the effective way to increase the value of sport mega-events sponsorships and to manage ambush marketing is to develop a brand management system, which includes an integrated public relations plan, a team of 'brand masters', an integrated marketing or communication programme of sponsors, close marketing relationships between partners and an education programme (Preuss *et al.*, 2008:249). Sponsors, therefore, need to control all sponsor associated communications in order to ensure that ambush marketing does not override sponsor investments. If this does not occur, then the fundamental revenue base of sport mega-events will be undermined (Preuss, *et al.*, 2008:260).⁶

⁶ See Appendix A for the strengths and weaknesses of sponsorships as a marketing tool.

3.5.6 Merchandising as a marketing tool for sport mega-events

Sport mega-events and the sponsors of sport mega-events use merchandising opportunities for high brand recognition (Wale & Ridal, 2010:156). Merchandising refers to point-of-purchase advertising and includes materials used in-house to stimulate sales, such as tent cards, signs, posters and displays (Morrison, 2010:481). Merchandising is characterised by the sale of products and materials at sport mega-events and through sport mega-event outlets, such as, stores and online merchandise sites, as well as through retail outlets, sport and music stores (Wale & Ridal, 2010:156). The most popular attributes of a destination can be printed on the products and materials used for marketing sport events (Jayswal, 2008:258). Products may bear the destination's name, thereby promoting the key features of the host destination. The best examples of merchandising destinations and event promotion have traditionally been associated with sport mega-events (Jayswal, 2008:258).

For instance, Olympic Games licensing programmes are targeted to market the officially licensed products and merchandise from the Organising Committee, National Committee and IOC (Lee, 2005:3). Posters, displays, signs, clothing, stationary, bookmarks, plates, umbrellas, jewellery, scarves and ties, children's toys and wrapping papers can all be created to complement a sport event (Morrison, 2010:481). As a result, consumers at the venue of the Olympic Games or FSWCTM are certain to purchase souvenirs that will remind them of the event, such as official golden or silver coins, wallets with event symbols and a number of other souvenirs with Olympic Games or Soccer World Cup logos (Lee, 2005:3). Therefore, marketing and advertising are essential activities in the organisation of the Olympic Games or FSWCTM since they are targeted towards covering the expenses of such a global mega-event (Lee, 2005:3). According to Wale & Ridal,

(2010:156), merchandise for sport mega-events is unique, because of the nature of the events as a 'one-off experience' and the prospect that, at a later stage, the products may be sought after as collector's items.⁷

3.5.7 Sport mega-events and the Internet

Research into the use of the Internet in sport marketing began in the mid- to late 1990's, when investigations focused on sport enthusiasts and fans who were going online in order to satisfy their hunger for team and sport related information (Brown, 2003:49). Primarily, the Internet was used by sport organisations to provide news and information to sport consumers (Beech, Chadwick & Tapp, 2000:52). However, as websites evolved, emphasis was placed on the Internet's role in sport marketing through the dissemination of information in ways, such as textual, sonic or visual images, as discussed in Chapter 1 (Kitchen, 2006:98; Gilchrist & Ravenscroft, 2008:132).

Since the 1994 Atlanta Olympic Games, the Internet has become one of the dominant modes of providing information about the goals of the Olympic Games Movement to organisers, spectators and all other interested parties within the Olympic community (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:6). Therefore, in the late 1990's, thousands of websites belonging to sport organisations, clubs, media and fans provided all kinds of information and video streaming on a corporate or amateur basis (Gillentine *et al.*, 2009:37). Much of the appeal of sport websites comes from the passion and interest of sport fans that need a daily fix of information that has traditionally come from newspapers, TV, magazines, teletext and telephone services (Seo & Green, 2008:83).

⁷ See Appendix A for the strengths and weaknesses of merchandising as a marketing tool.

Since 2000, computer users, with access to personal computers, were already accessing sport information, such as sport scores online via the websites (Brown:2003:49), and sport organisations had already begun to sell tickets via the Internet (Brown, 2003:53). In addition, Seo and Green (2008:83) mention that, in the sporting context, people often want to express their opinions and talk about their favourite teams and players with other fans. As a result, some fans interact during games, some at communal TV viewings, such as at home or in sport bars or via talk radio. Thus, the Internet and social networking channels, such as Facebook and Twitter can provide another place of interaction for the fans of sport mega-events (Seo & Green, 2008:83; Finlay, 2011:125).

According to Panagiotopoulou (2007:5), the Internet has had a decisive impact on the environment in which sport media operate, because it offers a useful platform for providing information, such as results, new events and links to other sites, interactive services and markets for products. Other potential benefits of the Internet, as a promotional tool for sport organisations, includes the enhancement of competitive advantage, convenience and the fact that the Internet is less expensive than traditional mass media (Linh, 2010:8; Gide & Shams, 2011:1060). As a result, every major news organisation, media outlet, TV and radio station as well as magazine has its own website containing material such as sport related information to supplement its mainstream offerings (Gillentine *et al.*, 2009:37).

There are a number of cases of big media companies that are willing to pay for exclusive coverage through the Internet in order to control its usage and impose their rules upon Internet users and the Olympic Movement (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:6-7). For example, in order to cover their transmission needs for the Internet and mobile platforms within the

Chinese mainland for the Beijing 2008 Olympic Summer Games, the IOC opened negotiations with Closed Circuit Television (CCTV) to sell the transmission rights for Olympic broadcast material (IOC Press Release, 22.3.2007). The process concluded with an agreement between the IOC and CCTV.com, the 'digital arm' of CCTV, for the Internet and mobile platform exhibition rights within China for the Beijing Games (IOC Press Release, 18.12.2007). Meanwhile, other types of information provision through the Internet, such as, chat rooms, blogs and podcasts have appeared, thereby providing an additional type of communication mode for all those who have a continuous interest in sport-related information (Gillentine *et al.*, 2009:37; Rheem, 2010:300; Finlay, 2011:268; Theodoraki, 2011:178).

Websites are utilised as marketing communication tools for fans to disseminate booking information, indicate opportunities for ticket sales and licensed products and impart historical information, results, performance details and interactive mechanisms such as competitions (Evans & Smith, 2004:33; Masterman & Wood, 2006:101; Fullerton, 2007:423). In addition, the introduction of wireless broadband technology, highly-efficient networked computers, digital TV services, mobile telephony, personal digital assistants (PDAs) into the sport arena are perceived as assisting with the efficient delivery of sport services to consumers (Shilbury, Westerbeek, Quick & Funk, 2009:233; Rheem, 2010:300).

The Internet is also an ideal place for sport information and for those sports that are neglected in other media (Beck & Bosshart, 2003: 14). However, Seo and Green (2008:83) highlight the fact that the effective use of the Internet, as part of a strategic sport-marketing effort, requires customer information as well. In addition, sport marketers are cautioned

that they need to understand how the Internet works as an effective marketing tool in order to attain their desired sport intentions (Brown, 2003:49).⁸

3.6 SUMMARY

Advances in information technology highlight the fact that approaches towards the marketing of sport mega-events are changing with time. As a result, the emerging new information technologies bring along new marketing platforms that provide new alternative sport marketing media opportunities. From the literature, it is apparent that the marketing of sport mega-events is undertaken through various marketing media, ranging from traditional mass media to modern online media, such as e-marketing channels. On the one hand, the print media, radio, TV, PR, sport sponsorships and merchandising are interlinked with sport mega-events and these media have been, and are still used in the marketing of sport mega-events. On the other hand, new trends regarding sport mega-event marketing entail the use of digital broadcasting such as the use of the Internet and social media channels. In order to successfully market sport mega-events, it is critical that the marketers of these events stay abreast with the latest technological trends and marketing tools that can be used in the promotion of mega-events. A detailed explanation on the relevance and usage of e-commerce and e-marketing tools to sport mega-events is presented in the next chapter, Chapter 4.

⁸ Refer to Appendix A for the advantages and limitations of using the Internet as a marketing tool.

CHAPTER 4 E-MARKETING OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS

Chapter 1	The research problem in context
Chapter 2	The role of mega-events in the tourism industry
Chapter 3	The marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 4	E-marketing of sport mega-events
	The concepts of marketing, e-business, e-commerce and e-marketing
	Linkages between e-business, e-commerce and e-marketing
	Web 2.0 technologies as the key components of e-marketing technology
	The perceived e-marketing benefits to organisations and customers
	New trends regarding sport mega-events marketing
	Sport mega-events and e-marketing technology
	Future web developments
	Chapter 5
Chapter 6	Marketing of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ with particular reference to e-marketing
Chapter 7	Research Methodology
Chapter 8	Research findings and discussions
Chapter 9	Conclusions and Recommendations: A strategic framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Innovation and technology, such as the online marketing provided mainly through the Internet and mobile technologies, will serve as the basis and catalyst for the restructuring of virtually all industries (Skiba, Tamas & Robinson, 2006:23; Morrison, 2010:526; Rheem, 2010:299). With the application of social media, based on Web 2.0 technologies, users are no longer receiving content through online sources, but are creating, manipulating, and sharing information (Shahani, Economou & Nikonanou, 2008:2). In this new economy, digital technologies, such as digital communication networks, computers and related communication infrastructures, provide a global platform on which people and organisations interact, communicate and search for information (Krishnamurthy & Singh, 2005:605; Strauss, El-Ansary & Frost, 2008:3; Litvin, Goldsmith & Pan, 2008:461; Carlson, 2010:59; Liang, 2010:174; Rheem, 2010:300).

The main focus in this chapter is on electronic marketing (e-marketing) that is synonymously referred to as Web marketing or Internet marketing, with particular reference to sport mega-events. In this context, the concepts of marketing, e-business, e-commerce and e-marketing are described with the purpose of exploring their specific meaning as a point of departure. Secondly, the relationship between e-business, e-commerce and e-marketing is discussed. Thirdly, Web 2.0, as a component of e-marketing is explored. Fourthly, the perceived e-marketing benefits are thoroughly investigated. Thereafter, new trends regarding sport mega-events marketing and e-marketing approaches, with particular reference to sport mega-events, are discussed and finally, future Web developments are explored.

4.2 THE CONCEPTS OF MARKETING, E-BUSINESS, E-COMMERCE AND E-MARKETING

The definitions and detailed explanations of the concepts e-business, e-commerce and e-marketing are presented in paragraphs 1.7.1, 1.7.4 and 1.7.5 of Chapter 1. An understanding of the meaning of these three concepts provides clarity as to what e-marketing technology is and how it differs from e-business and e-commerce.

4.2.1 Linkages between e-business, e-commerce and e-marketing

Various researchers are using the terms of e-business, e-commerce, e-marketing and internet marketing interchangeably as having equivalent meanings, which is incorrect because they are not synonymous (Andam, 2003:7; El-Gohary, 2010:216). According to El-Gohary (2010:216), e-commerce and e-business have reference to a wider and broader scope of meaning than e-marketing, as explained in Chapter 1. E-business is perceived to consist of a wide range of online business activities whereby the Internet and other information technologies are used to support commerce and improve business performances and customer value (Strauss *et al.*, 2008:3; Turban *et al.*, 2008:4). According to George (2008:368), the role of e-business crosses functional internal boundaries and affects the financial, human resources and marketing departments of organisations. On the other hand, e-commerce refers to any business transaction performed electronically, such as the processes of buying, selling or exchanging products, services, or information via computer networks, including the Internet (George, 2008:368; Turban *et al.*, 2008:4). Figure 4.1 (p.80) illustrates the relationship between e-business, e-commerce, e-marketing and internet marketing.

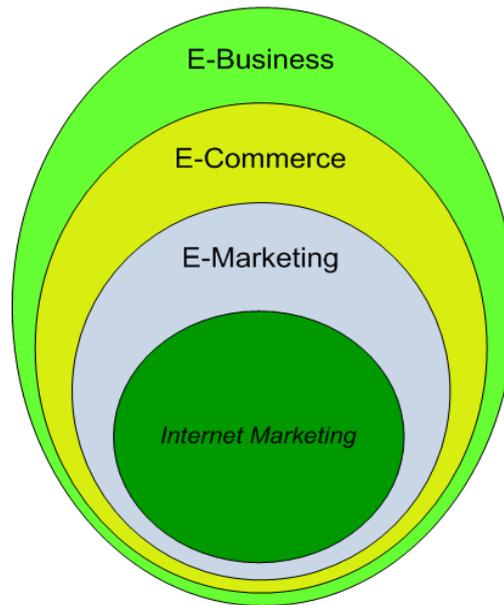


Figure 4.1: The relationship between E-business, E-commerce, E-marketing and Internet-marketing (El-Gohary, 2010:216).

E-marketing is about much more than just the Internet and the Web, because it includes both as well as other related digital information and communication technologies as discussed under 1.7.5 in Chapter 1 (Gilmore *et al.*, 2007:235-236; Onofrei & Nedelea, 2007:47; El-Gohary, 2010:216). E-marketing is an important part of marketing theory and practice that makes use of the Internet and other digital technologies to achieve marketing objectives, especially in service sectors (Brodie, Winklhofer, Coviella & Johnston, 2007:4; Andrić & Ružić, 2010:701). Therefore, e-marketing is only one part of an organisation's e-business activities (George, 2008:368; Varadarajan & Yadav, 2009:12). As previously stated, Internet-marketing refers only to the Internet, the Web, and e-mails (El-Gohary, 2010:216). Having outlined the linkages between e-business, e-commerce and e-marketing, the focus is now on the term Web 2.0 and e-marketing technology, which includes the Web 2.0 features and functions.

4.2.2 E-marketing technologies

It is reported in the literature (Turban *et al.*, 2008:13; Macnamara, 2010:2) that the term 'Web 2.0' was coined with reference to the e-marketing technologies. The discussion on Web 2.0 and its technologies, as the key components of e-marketing technology, is covered in this section, because it provides the basis for the later discussion about the usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events.

4.2.2.1 *Web 2.0*

According to Davidson (2011:117), the emergence of the category of online applications commonly described as Web 2.0 not only presents marketers with a range of new opportunities but also a number of considerable challenges. The term Web 2.0 was created by Tim O'Reilly, founder and Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of O'Reilly Media during the first Web 2.0 Conference held in San Francisco in 2004 (O'Reilly, 2005:3; Skiba, Tamas & Robinson, 2006:9; Turban *et al.*, 2008:13; Macnamara, 2010:2). There are many definitions of Web 2.0 and denominations of it, but the term Web 2.0 refers to a supposed 'second generation' of web-based technologies and services, many of which are designed to facilitate the collaboration and sharing of information between users online (Osimo, 2008:17; Davidson & Yoran, 2007:1; Kennedy, Dalgarno, Gray, Judd, Waycott, Bennet, Maton, Krause, Bishop, Chang & Churchward, 2007:518; Sendall, Ceccucci & Peslak, 2008:3; George, 2008:388; Shahani *et al.*, 2008:1).

The term Web 2.0, is often applied to an ongoing transition from a collection of websites to a full-fledged computing platform serving web applications (Anderson, 2007:4; Schroth & Janner, 2007:36; Abram, 2012:6). Some of the added functionality of Web 2.0 is peer-to-

peer sharing of files, easier communication and networking on various social marketing sites, video sharing and blogging (MacManus, 2005:1; Tasner, 2010:7). Web 2.0 is more about the human aspects of interactivity, such as conversations, interpersonal networking, personalisation and individualism (Abram, 2012:6; Macnamara, 2010:3). It allows users to run software-applications entirely through a browser where users can also exercise control over the data on Web 2.0 (MacManus, 2005:1; O'Reilly 2005:5; Davidson & Yoran, 2007:117). In summary, collaboration on social networks and the sharing of information on Web 2.0 has helped shape the Web trend relatively quickly (Murugesan, 2007:35; Tasner, 2010:7).

There are four components of Web 2.0 that can be used as a marketing advantage, namely (Tasner, 2010:7-8; Nyheim & Connolly, 2012:81):

- Social networks which are the sites where people come together and share ideas, thoughts and comments, such as Facebook, LinkedIn, and MySpace;
- Social media that are the places where individuals can share content with the world in the hope of spreading awareness, such as YouTube, Scribd, and Flickr;
- User-generated content where users create, manage, and update information, such as Squidoo, blogs, and Wikipedia; and
- Social news and bookmarking that have allowed users to organise their Web experience, such as Digg, Delicious, and Stumble Upon.

Although the term Web 2.0 suggests a new version of the Web, the term does not refer to an update with any technical specifications, but rather to a new generation of Web tools and applications which are being used to build social connections, collaboration, affinity and relationships and which are collectively referred to as Web 2.0 (Parise & Guinan,

2008:1; Rothschild, 2011:141). These web-based services, hosted services and web applications demonstrate the foundations of the Web 2.0 concept and the fact that they are not really technologies, but services built on the building blocks of the technologies and open standards that underpin the Web (Anderson, 2007:7; Osimo, 2008:17; Shahani *et al.*, 2008:4). Figure 4.2 illustrates differences between Web 2.0 and the previous generation, referred to as Web 1.0, which, according to Buhalis and Jun (2011:7), indicates how Web 2.0 emphasises online collaboration and sharing among users via various Internet application tools.

Web 1.0		Web 2.0
DoubleClick	→	Google AdSense
Ofoto	→	Flickr
Akamai	→	BitTorrent
mp3.com	→	Napster
Britannica Online	→	Wikipedia
personal websites	→	blogging
evite	→	upcoming.org and EVDB
domain name speculation	→	search engine optimization
page views	→	cost per click
screen scraping	→	web services
publishing	→	participation
content management systems	→	wikis
directories (taxonomy)	→	tagging ("folksonomy")
stickiness	→	syndication

Figure 4.2: Examples to illustrate differences between Web 1.0 and Web 2.0 (O'Reilly, 2005).

Web 2.0 services are dynamic and, amongst others, consist of (the) Web 2.0 technologies and applications, such as wikis, tagging and social bookmarking, ontologies and folksonomies, Mash-ups and APIs as well as social networking services (Anderson, 2007:40; Turban *et al.*, 2008:13; Buhalis, 2011:7), which are covered in the following discussion.

a. Wikis

A wiki is a webpage or set of web pages that allows its users to add, modify, or delete its content via a web browser usually using a simplified markup language or a rich-text editor (McLean, Richards & Wardman, 2007:3; Ebersbach, Glaser, Heigl & Warta, 2008:12; Ulrich, Borau, Luo, Tan, Shen & Shen, 2008:706). Wikipedia's popular success has meant that the concept of the 'wiki' is widely understood as a collaborative tool that facilitates the production of group work (Anderson, 2007:8). Wiki pages have an edit button displayed on the screen which the user can click in order to gain access to an easy-to-use online editing tool to change or even delete the contents of the page in question and, a simple, hypertext-style linking between the pages used to create a navigable set of pages (Anderson, 2007:8). Unlike blogs, wikis generally have a 'history' function, which allows previous versions to be examined and a 'rollback' function, which restores previous versions (Anderson, 2007:8).

b. Tagging and social bookmarking

Social bookmarks allow users to store, categorise and share Internet resources via tagged web addresses and popular social bookmark sites such as Del.icio.us and permit searchable tagged bookmarks that entail a community knowledge-base that extends beyond an individual resource (Kennedy *et al.*, 2007:518; Jazayeri, 2007:6). According to Anderson (2007:9), social bookmarks allow users to create lists of 'bookmarks' or 'favourites', to store these centrally on a remote service, rather than within the client browser and to share them with other users of the system. Therefore, the concept of tagging has been widened far beyond website bookmarking and services like Flickr

(photographs), YouTube (video) and Odeo (podcasts) allow a variety of digital artefacts to be socially tagged (Anderson, 2007:9; Jazayeri, 2007:6).

c. *Ontologies and folksonomies*

One outcome from the practice of tagging has been the rise of the ‘folksonomy’ (Anderson, 2007:9; Lassila & Hendler, 2007:91). The term ‘folksonomy’ is generally acknowledged to have been coined by Thomas Van der Wal (Anderson, 2007:9) whose ideas on what a folksonomy is, stem, in part, from his experience of building taxonomy systems in commercial environments and finding that successful retrieval was often poor, because users could not ‘guess’ the ‘right’ keyword to use (Anderson, 2007:17). Ontologies and folksonomies are two types of approaches to the semantic definition of the Web data. The ontological approach, which is a top-down approach of defining ontologies, is used to classify data, while folksonomies is a bottom-up approach driven by users of the data who may tag the data according to how they view the semantics of the data (Jazayeri, 2007:8).

d. *RSS and syndication*

RSS is an abbreviation for ‘Really Simple Syndication’ which is a family of formats that allow users to find out about updates to the content of RSS-enabled websites, blogs or podcasts without actually having to go and visit the site (Linh, 2010:20). Instead, information from the website (typically, a new story's title and synopsis along with the originating website's name) is collected within a feed (which uses the RSS format) and is ‘piped’ to the user in a process known as syndication (Anderson, 2007:10).

e. Mash-ups and Application Programming Interface/s (API/s)

Mash-ups involve taking multiple technologies or services and providing new added value services (Rosen, 2006:1). The most common is the combination of 'Google Maps' with other information (Hepburn, Global Web Master & STA Travel, 2006:12). An Open API is the technology that makes Mash-ups possible and by providing their software as an Open API, companies, such as Google, Flickr, YouTube and Del.icio.us, allow the public to create limitless combinations of these services (Hepburn *et al.*, 2006:12).

f. Social networking services

Social media is defined as a "... group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and allow for the creation and exchange of user generated content" (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2009:94). Social networking services allow users to create and customise a personal website (aggregated within a larger website) that presents a profile of the user to other users (Davidson, 2011:119). Users can readily locate other users with similar interests and, by linking to them as 'friends', establish and explore new (and often complex) social networks (Abram, 2012:6; Kennedy *et al.*, 2007:518; Davidson, 2011:119).

The Internet forums, social blogs, wikis, podcasts, social bookmarking, MySpace, Facebook, Flickr, YouTube, Twitter, LinkedIn and MXit are different forms of social media that are extremely popular (Abram, 2012:6; Jazayeri, 2007:6; Rothschild, 2011:141). Social media, therefore, appear to provide a platform for sport marketers to communicate effectively with sport mega-events' fans. They are online tools that allow consumers to

communicate with each other or to share information with each other in an extremely efficient way (George, 2008:389).

4.3 THE PERCEIVED E-MARKETING BENEFITS TO ORGANISATIONS AND CUSTOMERS

The primary advantages of e-marketing, as part of e-commerce, is perceived to be a reduction in costs and enhancing the reach to target populations, because the cost of an e-marketing platform is typically lower than traditional marketing platforms, such as face-to-face sales people or middleman distributors (Lu & Lu, 2004:221; Watson *et al.* cited in Sheth & Sharma, 2005:612; Dinu, 2007:6; Hao, 2011:31; Linh, 2010:8; Hooda & Aggarwal, 2012:108). According to Art (2006:38) and George (2008:376), e-marketing enables cost savings as the services and information provided on company web sites and via email are less expensive than contact by telephone, in person, or by regular mail. For example, companies no longer need to bear the costs of creating, processing, distributing, storing, and retrieving paper-based information, because with electronic procurement systems, companies are able to cut purchasing administrative costs (Turban & King, 2003:16; Nik, 2008:17; Linh, 2010:8).

E-marketing tools also increase the reach of previously inaccessible markets by providing the following three areas of advantage for customers:

- Firstly, the marketing organisation can provide unlimited information to customers without human intervention. Additionally, and more importantly, the information can be provided in a form that customers can easily process and understand.

- Secondly, the e-marketing organisation can create interactions by customising information for individual customers, thereby allowing them to design products and services that meet their specific requirements.
- Finally, e-marketing platforms allow transactions, which would typically require human contact, to take place between customers and organisations (Nik, 2008:17; Andrić & Ružić, 2010:700; Linh, 2010:10; Hooda & Aggarwal, 2012:108).

According to the literature, e-marketing offers new ways of gaining new customers and maintaining relationships with existing customers (Rowley, 2002:8; Art, 2006:38; Dinu, 2007:6). E-marketing can expand the options for delivering marketing and communications messages to current and future customers (Art, 2006:38). E-marketing, therefore, allows organisations to reach customers that may not be accessible due to the location and temporal limitations of existing distributing channels (Watson *et al.*, cited in Sheth & Sharma, 2005:612; Linh, 2010:9). As a result, e-marketing is seen as a means of expanding the marketplace and one that can easily and quickly locate the best suppliers and the most suitable business partners nationally or worldwide (Turban & King, 2003:16; Zhou, 2004:120).

Darby *et al.* (2003:110) suggest that e-marketing enables customers to interact with other customers in virtual communities, that is, groups of individuals who are linked on the Internet, where they can exchange ideas as well as compare experiences. E-marketing also promotes interactivity, because it allows companies to interact with their customers and business partners and to receive quick and accurate feedback (Darby *et al.*, 2003:110; Andrić & Ružić, 2010:699). E-marketing is an important part of e-commerce that differs in many ways from traditional marketing in that it operates in a totally new environment in

terms of time, speed, interaction, and market segmentation, the means of collecting data and distributing information as well as the distribution of marketing messages (Zhou, 2004:120; Hooda & Aggarwal, 2012:108).

Zhou (2004:120) also mentions that e-marketing offers many marketing tools that users can use to achieve marketing objectives, such as, e-mail, e-newsletters, Usenet and mailing lists, Chat rooms, Web site portals, advertising and promotion. In general, e-marketing benefits to consumers are mostly centred on convenience, speed and the ability of customers to buy customised products and personalised services at a very reasonable cost (Darby *et al.*, 2003:110). However, the updating of information about products or services on a regular basis can be costly and are a security and privacy invasion of users' information. These issues, as reported in the literature, remain constant drawbacks to the use of e-marketing (Hume & Sullivan, 2008:9; Linh, 2010:11; Nyheim & Connolly, 2012:81). A discussion on the new trends in sport mega-events marketing is covered in the following section.

4.4 NEW TRENDS REGARDING SPORT MEGA-EVENTS MARKETING

The development of digital broadcasting is increasingly contributing to the complexity surrounding relationships between the tourism industry and the mass media industry (Turner & Shilbury, 2010:13). According to Panagiotopoulou (2007:7), the new modes of Internet usage, such as the wireless-WiFi that started at the Athens Olympic Games and YouTube which was initiated at the Turin Olympics in 2006, were expected to offer bigger opportunities for mediated viewing. These new possibilities to connect and be connected worldwide, without fixed local lines, have opened new fields of entrepreneurial competition

and shaped new strategies for broadcasting rights and content protection (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:8).

A growing trend in recent years has been the use of social media and Metasearch, such as Travel Search Engines, in order to create publicity and 'buzz' around sport mega-events (Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010:282; Rheem, 2010:300; Finlay, 2011:268; Theodoraki, 2011:178). To date, there are more radical innovations in the coverage of sport in that fans are now the authors of their own websites, discussion forums, online commentaries and social networking sites, such as Blogs, Facebooks, Podcasts and digital video productions distributed via YouTube (George, 2008:522; Boyle, 2009:10; Shilbury, Westerbeek, Quick & Funk, 2009:239). The Twitter, Facebook, Blogs and website, for example, were used to communicate with the general public about developments in the delivery of the planning process for the 2012 London Olympic Games (Finlay, 2011:125).

Furthermore, the Web 2.0 environment has provided organisations with a broad range of new tools and strategies for communicating with their customers (Davidson, 2011:120). As a result, sport marketers are capitalising on these developments by utilising the Web 2.0 applications such as blogs and social networking services to disseminate information about sport mega-events. Event marketers, such as sports and entertainment venue managers, are also finding success by utilising social media to promote events (Rothschild, 2011:142). The new trend regarding sport mega-events marketing also includes the use of mobile devices for the e-marketing of these events. For example, mobile telephony is seen to offer instant information to its customers concerning various sport mega-events, for example, statistics of records, athletes, medals and the rules of the different sports (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:10; Hume & Sullivan, 2008:3; Liang, 2010:174).

Evidently, the new marketing communications platforms and tools, such as digital broadcasting and the Web 2.0 applications, like social media and search engines as well as mobile telephony, create the opportunity to market sport mega-events not only to live but also to virtual customers (Masterman & Wood, 2006:108; Bickel, 2012:6). A detailed explanation on the relevance and usage of these new marketing tools to sport mega-events is presented in the following section.

4.5 SPORT MEGA-EVENTS AND E-MARKETING TECHNOLOGY

Advances in the use of new digital technologies have changed the way through which sport services can be delivered to consumers and clients (O'Beirne & Stoney, 2004:269). Multimedia and interactive opportunities granted by the new media are also reported to induce industrial companies to stage real sport events that are enriched with multimedia value-added services aimed at maximising the user's involvement and co-participation with the event's broadcaster (Zagnoli & Radicchi, 2008:2). This feature is also highlighted in the research relating to the socio-historical context of the 2010 Winter Olympic Games in Vancouver, British Columbia and is reflected in one of the case studies investigating the discourse about traditional media in relation to social media when social media were used at these Games (Ritchie, 2011:12).

According to Ratten and Ratten (2011:618), sport marketers are increasingly utilising internationally interactive marketing mediums to connect with consumers in real time. (Ratten & Ratten, 2011:618). The Google, YouTube, debates on Myspace.com, cellular phones, iPads and iPhones, for example, have enabled people to watch sport games interactively, and this has been encouraged through social networking sites (Volkmer,

2009:9; Ratten & Ratten, 2011:618). All these developments, in the coverage of sport mega-events, serve to reveal the passions that surround sport in new and creative ways (Boyle, 2009:10). The discussion on the e-marketing tools that are commonly used and perceived as creating an opportunity to market sport mega-events to both live and virtual customers is covered in the following section.

4.5.1 YouTube

With the introduction of new digital technologies in sport mega-events, such as social media, YouTube has been increasingly used by the governing bodies of sport, sport clubs and sport fans in order to distribute audio-visual coverage of sporting events (Boyle, 2009:10). According to Boyle (2009:10) and Bickel (2012:14), the usage of YouTube in sports mega-events implies that biographical accounts of 'going to the match' are populated in the web via YouTube. For example, the 2006 Winter Olympic Games in Turin were the first Games to take place following the launch of YouTube, when a free video uploading and sharing Internet service invited, and permitted, users to 'broadcast themselves,' according to the site's own motto (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:8; Ritchie, 2011:24). During these Games, from January 2006 to July 15, 2007, there were 710 videos on the subject and 42 videos were uploaded onto YouTube. The videos covered a lot of footage from the figure skating competitions to special moments during the Olympic rituals, such as the arrival of the flame in Turin and Olympic Village, spectators enjoying a competition or celebrating the victory of their favourite athlete or team and Visual Portraits of an athlete and his or her athletic performance (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:9).

The National Hockey League (NHL) YouTube channel created in 2006 in the United States of America (USA) is another example of one of the first governing bodies of sport to launch

its own YouTube channel enabling NHL to bypass traditional TV outlets and open up other revenue streams through advertising and subscriptions (Boyle, 2009:10; Bickel, 2012:24). Furthermore, the presence of the official Beijing 2008 YouTube channel underscores the post-broadcast Olympic communications environment, as did the President of the IOC, Jacques Rogge, when he explained the need for the Olympic Movement to utilise channels, including YouTube, Facebook and Bebo to reach 'kids' through the media with which they are immediately comfortable (YouTube, 2008, cited in Roberts, 2009:28).

4.5.2 Podcasting

Podcasts are a delivery mechanism that store audio/video on a portable player so that organisations can produce and provide audio and video (infotainment) broadcasts that can be downloaded and played on their portable player ('iPod') (Rosen, 2006:3; Linh, 2010:19). Users 'subscribe' to individual feeds by providing the feed address (a special type of Universal Resource Locator (URL)) to a software application called an aggregator (Kennedy *et al.*, 2007:518). Podcasts are Web technology in which people subscribe for the service and download audio recordings of talks, interviews and lectures onto their computers as vidcast or vodcast, usually in Moving Picture Experts Group Layer-3 Audio (MP3) format, which can be played either on a desktop computer or on a wide range of handheld MP3 devices like the more recent versions of the Apple iPod (Ullrich *et al.*, 2008:706; McCabe, 2009:270; Morrison, 2010:634). Podcasts and blogs may encourage sport mega-events fans to interact and express their feelings and suggestions about sport mega-events.

4.5.3 Web-logs/Blogs

The term 'web-log' or 'blog' was coined by Jorn Barger in 1997 and refers to a simple webpage consisting of brief paragraphs of opinion, information, personal diary entries or links, called 'posts', which are arranged chronologically with the most recent entry first, in the style of an online journal (McLean, Richards & Wardman, 2007:174; McCabe, 2009:271). Most blogs allow visitors to add an online comment, below a blog entry, about issues they care about such as politics or sports which other people then read and reply, if so inclined (Ullrich, *et al.*, 2008:706; Dart, 2009:108; Linh, 2010:19; Davidson, 2011:119). According to Davidson (2011:120), blogs can be an effective way of passing messages through to target markets at a fraction of the costs required by traditional media.

Advances in technology, such as greater bandwidth speed and computer memory have led to an explosion of blogging sites (Dart, 2009:108) to the extent that blogging has established itself as part of the Web 2.0 and Web 3.0 phenomena (Herring, Scheidt, Wright & Bonus, 2005:142-143). One of the main attractions of blogging, for the sports media and corporate world, is its ability to find and connect with demographic audiences who use the Internet in preference to more traditional forms of media, namely, TV and newspapers (Dart, 2009:118). Blogging allows anybody, including players, with access to the increasingly available technology to participate with football fans, acting as producers of their own story rather than as consumers of what others have written about them (Dart, 2009:108; Linh, 2010:19).

FSWCTM blogs, for example, exist and can be accessed using generic web search engines, such as "FIFA", "world cup", "2006 and blog" (Dart, 2009:112). In addition, the BBC has identified the fact that the web, as a platform including blogging, can supplement,

and occasionally replace its TV and radio coverage of sport mega-events (Mosey, 2007:3). As a result, the BBC 'Sport in Britain' is making use of the FIFA website and blogging platforms, which include podcasts and v-blogs, to increase its content at those sporting events where it does not have live broadcasting rights (Mosey, 2007:3). For example, the BBC 2006 World Cup blog, that is, www.bbc.co.uk/blogs/worldcup, is accessed via the main BBC Sport Website (Dart, 2009:115).

Furthermore, videos shot at the 2006 Winter Olympic Games in Turin were shot for the purpose of video-blogging by people who wanted to share their personal experiences and also served as the basis for online discussions (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:9). Hutchins and Mikosza (2010:281) highlight the fact that the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games was the site where the IOC, international media, global audience and Internet users witnessed and contested the reality of a shifting media landscape. During these Games, thousands of individuals took digital photographs and uploaded them to Flickr, sent e-mails and text messages, made Olympics-related entries on blogs and websites, posted to bulletin and discussion boards, used Skype and accounted for the Olympic experience via text, image and sound on their Facebook, MySpace and Bebo profiles and prompted YouTube videos by using the key words like '2008 Olympics', most of which were not on the official Olympic channel (Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010:284; Finlay, 2011:268). It was anticipated that blogs were perhaps one of the social media that would be used in future sport mega-events such as the 2010 FSWC™.

Developments in technology that allow for the live-blogging of sport mega-events from mobile phones, Wi-Fi, and YouTube's (Smith, 2008:1; Finlay, 2011:268) are set to present significant challenges to sport organisations, stream media and official sponsors (Arango,

2008:1; Sandoval, 2008:1). In the commercial world of sport, organisations are becoming more wary of online ambush marketing, with blogging offering a significant platform for those who are not signed up as official sponsors or do not hold live TV rights (Dart, 2009:119).

During the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games, for example, the challenge was that the national and international Olympic officials had to be especially vigilant about the possibility of online media being used to 'hijack' the 'Olympic media platform' (Dayan, 2008:340; Price quoted in Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010:281). According to Finlay (2011:267), the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games, also referred to as the Web 2.0 Games, demonstrated how vulnerable the event had become to challenges from a range of unofficial Olympic actors. The formulation of the IOC Athlete Blogging Policy to prevent politically motivated or culturally insensitive comments by athletes in online forums was a reaction to potential hijackers of the Olympic media platforms (Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010:282). However, live-blogging is only one example of how the evolving technologies are impacting on the global sporting culture and sports media (Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010:282).

4.5.4 Twitter

Twitter is a micro-blogging service that has emerged as a medium for information sharing (Kwak, Lee, Park & Moon, 2010:1) that offers an API that is easy to crawl and collect data. Unlike most online social networking sites, such as, Facebook or Myspace, Twitter users follow others or are followed (Kwak *et al.*, 2010:1) and the relationship of following and being followed requires no reciprocation. For example, the user being followed may

choose not to follow back and being a follower on Twitter means that the user receives all the messages called tweets from those the user follows (Nyheim & Connolly, 2012:81).

There has been a rapid and widespread increase in use of the micro-blogging and social networking platform Twitter (<http://twitter.com>) by professional athletes, sports clubs, leagues and fans (Hutchins, 2010:1; Ratten & Ratten, 2011:618). For example, 'tweets', offer high-profile athletes, tennis players and soccer players, the ability to communicate instantaneously with fans, friends and observers through bypassing the gate-keeping functions of journalists, publicists and sports officials (Hutchins, 2010:1; Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010:292). For example, during the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games, volunteers delivered comments to Twitter, including a sighting of somebody wearing a strange hat in the Olympic village and the experience of travelling in an unusually small taxi (Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010:280). Twitter, however, has become a source of concern for sport mega-events officialdom internationally, prompting well-founded fears of athletes offering harsh and uncensored criticism of administrators, referees and opponents and providing 'inside information' that can be used by gambling syndicates (Jerga, 2009:2; Slater, 2009:1-2; Hutchins, 2010:1).

4.5.5 Mobile Telephony

Globally, cellular phones have achieved high levels of penetration, especially among younger consumers who are also more likely to be sport mega-events fans (Fullerton, 2007:329; Liang, 2010:174). Mobile telephony, as the most recent and dynamic service of the new technologies, is expected to influence all interested parties involved in sport mega-events (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:10; Carlson, 2010:59). The proliferation of digital cameras and mobile phones with video capturing, for example, has led to a new

phenomenon of 'home-made' videos being posted on the web along with the rise of Twitter being used by sport fans and sport players (Boyle, 2009:10; Zagnoli & Radicchi, 2008:2). As a result, new applications of live streamed sports and new services like the provision of information through SMS and Multimedia Messaging Service (MMS) create new prospects for increasing both personal and mediated attendance of sport mega-event games (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:10).

Boyle (2009:10) asserts that the view from the stadium may not offer any real insight into the action on the field of play, but does reveal the social experience of many who watch live sport. Additionally, the IOC has launched a new strategy to negotiate with broadcasting companies all over the world including transmission platforms, such as TV, cable, satellite, Internet and mobile telephones (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:10). Again, issues of digital rights for the management of sports media and the policing of official, licensed coverage of sport have become big business, because companies like Net Result or Soccer Dataco are contracted by the governing bodies of sport and sport broadcasters, such as BSkyB, to trace any copyright infringement of televised sport images on the web (Boyle, 2009:10).

4.6 FUTURE WEB DEVELOPMENTS

The Web, in general, and Web applications, in particular, face the challenge of assigning meaning to the vast amount of data stored on the Web and the processing thereof (Jazayeri, 2007:7). For many people, Web 2.0 is the key communication tool, but Tasner (2010:8) states that there are loopholes, which, in turn, have become fresh opportunities

and also highlights five essential limiting factors of Web 2.0, namely, over-saturation, misconceptions, time, modes of interaction and openness.

Due to the 'limitations' of Web 2.0, a developing trend for the future development of the Web is growth towards a relationship between Web 2.0 ideas and the Semantic Web (Anderson, 2007:47). According to Jazayeri (2007:7), if data on the Web are semantically defined, then the future of the Web lies in a semantically-oriented generation of Web applications including semantic searches, semantic Wikis, semantic Blogging and semantic Desktop (Anderson, 2007:48; Jazayeri, 2007:8).

According to Lassila and Hendler (2007:92), semantic web technology is viewed as a novel approach to inter-operability, because application developers can defer to the accessible semantics of a dialogue between two information systems even after the systems have been deployed. In fact, Web 3.0 could become a backlash to Web 2.0, where software that 'cleans up' after the user, erasing the digital path through the information space and identity management services, is at a premium (Anderson, 2007:50). With Web 3.0, Semantic Web technologies are finding fertile ground in multi-tiered Web applications in which the middle tier can be implemented using a Resource Description Framework (RDF) 'triple store', which is a component that allows, among other things, the integration of heterogeneous data sources and repositories (Lassila & Hendler, 2007:92). For future growth in the Web, the social Web combined with the semantic Web could produce the next generation of the web (Lassila & Hendler, 2007:92).

4.6.1 Web 3.0 marketing

After the middle of 2007, most global IT organisations began to use the term 'Web 3.0' (Kang, Cheng & Kidd, 2009:4). According to Kang *et al.* (2009:4), 'Web 3.0', like the previous term 'Web 2.0', did not refer to an update on any technical specifications. All Web 3.0 applications and processes also include aspects of communication and cognition that all Web 2.0 applications entail (Fuchs, Hofkirchner, Schafranek, Raffl, Sandoval and Bichler 2010:43). Web 3.0 is a technology derived from Web 2.0. However, while there is no hard boundary between them, there is a huge technical gap between the two (Kang *et al.*, 2009:18). For example, Web 3.0 pays more attention to machine-to-machine communication in order to decrease an unnecessary waste of time (Kang *et al.*, 2009:18).

Web 3.0 is the third stage of the web evolution that is now beginning (Giannakos & Lapatas, 2010:148). The term 'Web 3.0' has also been used to describe an evolutionary path of the Web that offers more intelligent services, such as collaborative techniques. Furthermore, user's actions can initiate web processes that can be made possible with technologies like smart interfaces and intelligent agents (Andriole, 2010:79; Giannakos & Lapatas, 2010:148). Web 3.0, therefore, is the new version of the Web that has collaborative techniques such as synchronous (live content) and asynchronous (non-live content) features and the ability to combine and integrate Web content and services to improve the end-user experience (Giannakos and Lapatas, 2010:147; Macnamara, 2010:8).

Web 3.0 is also referred to as the Semantic Web, which involves the tagging of content on the Web with a computer code that makes finding documents much faster and more precise than current web techniques, which are reliant on embedded links and searching

for key words that appear in documents (Macnamara, 2010:7). Web 3.0 technologies also include the emergence of “The Data Web as structured data records are published to the Web in reusable and remotely querable formats” (Andriole, 2010:19). Andriole (2010:79) states that ‘The Data Web’ is the first step on the path towards a full Semantic Web that enables a new level of data integration and application inter-operability, thereby making data openly accessible and linkable as web pages.

Web 3.0 marketing describes the next wave of marketing that is already taking place and entails a shift from Web 2.0 to Web 3.0 marketing, which includes browsing habits, browsing methods, more intelligent information and openness of the Web (Andriole, 2010:79; Giannakos & Lapatas, 2010:148; Tasner, 2010:11). The shift from Web 2.0 to Web 3.0 is signalled by live, streaming video which is outpacing static video so that companies like Twitter, Plurk and Jaiku are growing much more rapidly than Blogger, WordPress or TypePad (Tasner, 2010:11). Furthermore, e-commerce is booming as is M-commerce or communicating and buying through mobile phones, PDAs and other mobile devices which are also on a steep growth rate (Morrison, 2010:706). As a result, the Web 3.0 marketing world is where customised, intelligent information is available at the tip of the users’ finger, from anywhere in the world, on any device, such as Blackberry, iPhones, portals into Web 3.0 and many others (Tasner, 2010:11).

According to Tasner (2010:12) and Fuchs, *et al.*, (2010:47-51), the five key components of Web 3.0 marketing are:

- Microblogging, which is the ability of users to share thoughts with a set number of characters, examples of which include Twitter, Plurk, and Jaiku;

- Virtual reality worlds, which are places that users visit to interact with others from around the world in a 3-D setting. Meetings are conducted in these spaces and trade shows are being replaced with virtual reality shows.
- Customisation/personalisation, which allows visitors to create a more personalised experience. As the Web becomes more and more intelligent, personalisation will become the norm, examples of which include SendOut Cards, Google, and Amazon.
- Mobile, which plays on the fact that there are billions of cellular phone users globally, where examples include iPhones, BlackBerry and the Web.
- On-demand collaboration, which allows users to interact in real time by looking over documents, collaborating, and making changes in real time. Examples include Google docs, www.Salesforce.com, www.Slideshare.net, and www.Box.net.

MacManus (2007:1-7) states that apart from Web 3.0, also referred to as the Semantic Web, other future trends include the Web using Artificial Intelligence services, Virtual Worlds, Mobile Web, Web Sites as Web Services, Online Video/Internet TVs, Rich Internet Apps, International Web and Personalisation of the Web particularly Google. The literature on the Web referred to in this chapter has shown that the Web is transformational. During the years from 1990 – 2000, the Web was referred to as Web 1.0, whereas from 2004 the Web was called Web 2.0 and, from 2007, the term ‘Web 3.0’ was gradually used by IT companies. The transition of the Web from Web 1.0 to the current Web 3.0 shows that the Web is an evolving technology which will continue to change as time progresses. Therefore, it is envisaged that the new emerging Web technology will also be applied to the e-marketing of future sport mega-events.

4.7 SUMMARY

The focus in this chapter is on the e-marketing of sport mega-events. Firstly, the differences and relationship between e-business, e-commerce and e-marketing are described. The benefits associated with e-marketing to organisations and customers are also discussed. The Web 2.0 features and its technologies are outlined to indicate how Web 2.0 technologies fit in with e-marketing technology. The e-marketing channels, such as YouTube, Blogs, Twitter, Facebooks, and mobile applications are discussed to highlight how e-marketing is applied in the e-marketing of sport mega-events, such as the Olympic Games and FSWC™. Finally, the functionalities associated with the emerging web applications, such as the semantic Webs, which are perceived as adding value to the e-marketing of future sport mega-events, are also outlined.

CHAPTER 5 E-MARKETING LESSONS FROM PREVIOUS SPORT MEGA-EVENTS

Chapter 1	The research problem in context
Chapter 2	The role of mega-events in the tourism industry
Chapter 3	The marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 4	E-marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 5	E-marketing lessons from previous sport mega-events
	Case studies of previous sport mega-events since 2000
	Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games
	Korea and Japan 2002 FIFA Soccer World Cup™
	Athens 2004 Olympic Games
	Germany 2006 FIFA Soccer World Cup™
	Beijing 2008 Olympic Summer Games
	Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games
	Sport mega-events previously hosted by South Africa
	Key observations from the 2010 FSWC™ research
Chapter 6	Marketing of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ with particular reference to e-marketing
Chapter 7	Research Methodology
Chapter 8	Research findings and discussions
Chapter 9	Conclusions and Recommendations: A strategic framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Online marketing, provided mainly through the Internet via the Web and mobile technologies, has revolutionised the way business was done during the early 2000's, thereby leading to a huge growth in electronic or e-commerce in the travel and tourism industries (Liu, 2005:1; Morrison, 2010:526; Rheem, 2010:299). With the advent and widespread use of new digital technologies and computing technology, such as personal websites, mobile phone communication, Google and the social media, e-marketing is increasingly employed at nearly every stage of sport events, from the preparatory sessions to the scheduling of events and the dissemination of event information via the Web" (Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010:282; Rheem, 2010:300; Finlay, 2011:268; Theodoraki, 2011:178). However, as mentioned in Chapter 1, most of the research conducted on sport mega-events by Pillay and Bass (2008), Zhang and Wu (2008), Allmers and Maennig (2009), Rogerson (2009), Bresler (2011), Fourie and Spronk (2011), to name but a few, have mainly focused on the economic impact of these events and the improved destination image of the host city.

This following chapter focuses on the e-marketing of international and national sport mega-events that have taken place since 2000.

5.2 CASE STUDIES OF PREVIOUS SPORT MEGA-EVENTS SINCE 2000

The sport mega-events evaluated in this chapter are the Olympic Games and FIFA Soccer World Cups held since 2000 and include the Sydney 2000 Olympic Games, the Korea-Japan 2002 FIFA Soccer World CupTM, the Athens 2004 Olympic Games, Germany 2006

FIFA Soccer World Cup™, Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games, and the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games. Also included are the sport mega-events previously hosted by South Africa where e-marketing featured, namely, the 1995 Rugby World Cup and the 2003 Cricket World Cup. The 2010 FSWC™ will be discussed separately in Chapter 6. Each of these previous sport mega-events was investigated in terms of how the enabling technologies were applied by the hosts in the marketing and e-marketing of these events. Furthermore, the analysis of each case study was done on the basis of the theme and aim(s) of the event, namely, how the host used marketing and e-marketing to plan and organise the event, the key e-marketing lessons learnt from that event and the key e-marketing challenges that emerged from each event. The assumption was that the e-marketing lessons learnt from these previous sport mega-events could provide some key strategic e-marketing guidelines that can be applied to the hosting of future sport mega-events.

5.2.1 SYDNEY 2000 SUMMER OLYMPIC GAMES

The Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games began on 15 September 2000 and 27 different sports competed for world glory over 17 days of extravaganza (De Groote, 2005:6). Huge audiences were expected via terrestrial and satellite television. Thus the SOCOG claimed that the Sydney Games were to be the first to be broadcast through digital communication platforms, which meant the Sydney Games would be 100% documented and reproducible by a 15 000 strong media presence (Chalip, 2002:9).

5.2.1.1 *The theme and aim(s) of the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games*

A huge growth in electronic or e-commerce, during the early 2000's, provided through the Internet via the Web and mobile technologies, has revolutionised the way business was done in the travel and tourism industries (Liu, 2005:1; Morrison, 2010:526; Rheem, 2010:299). The Sydney Games were proclaimed the 'Green Games' and focused on environmental issues, among other areas of interest. Thus the Olympic vision was a long term one of encapsulating the elements of a complete approach to sustainable development (Kearins & Pavlovich, 2002:157; De Groote, 2005:8; Payne, 2007:12). According to Hunter (2001:91), as the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games were labelled the 'Green Games', organisations such as Greenpeace played an active role from the start by monitoring environmental issues and any associated efforts during the lead up to the Games. Furthermore, there was a massive tree planting scheme for the Homebush Bay area and materials on the Olympic Building sites were recycled for use in road building, while solar power was a prominent feature on Olympic sites (De Groote, 2005:8).

5.2.1.2 *Marketing and e-marketing of the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games*

Several marketing and e-marketing strategies used by the SOCOG for leveraging the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games included:

a. *Television (TV)*

The Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games communication strategy supported schemes designed for the mass media, that is, TV in particular (Garcia, 2001:209). Huge audiences were expected to witness Sydney playing the all-important role of spreading the Olympic

message of peace and unity via terrestrial and satellite TV, as occurred at the Atlanta Olympic Games in 1996 (De Groot, 2005:6). For example, the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games were expected to attract a TV viewing audience of 3.5 billion people around the globe, making it the most watched event in history (Woodward, 2000:130). In addition, the Australian Tourism Commission (ATC) developed joint promotion ventures working with TV broadcasters and setting up a Business Development Programme, namely, the Olympic Games Business Unit (OGBU) for coordinating the Games' activities, including e-marketing activities (Morse, 2001:101-102).

b. *Sydney Telestra's Millennium*

The Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games used the Telstra Millennium Network, which was solely responsible for all telecommunication needs and for providing delivery services (Hunter, 2001:88). The design of Telstra's Millennium Network included commercial provision of the Internet Service Provider and Internet platform through which Telstra supplied access to thousands of media personnel, athletes and officials for the period of the Games (Hunter, 2001:89-90).

c. *The virtual club called the Business Club Australia (BCA)*

The BCA programme was a networking initiative to leverage the global Olympic spotlight on Australia in order to facilitate international trade (O'Brien, 2006:241). Membership of the BCA enabled members to be linked online to a database called the BCA 'Virtual Club', which was configured so that networking was at the core of the effective leveraging of the Games (Chalip cited in O'Brien, 2006:251). The BCA Virtual Club was geared towards leveraging the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games internationally through a direct

telemarketing and newsletter campaign carried via an online Internet marketing campaign (O'Brien, 2005:14). As a result, the BCA initiatives were linked to the Telestra Millennium Network that also provided online communication for the marketing and e-marketing of the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games.

d. *The internal Information System of the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games*

The internal Information System of the 2000 Games Information System called 'Athena' went live on 30 June 2000 (Toohey & Halbwirth, 2002:7). According to Toohey and Halbwirth (2002:7-8), the Sydney 2000 Games Information System (IS) provided a shared environment for the creation and dissemination of information and knowledge and also promoted the sharing and linking of existing data. The IS offered the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games' staff immediate electronic access to consistent, current and approved corporate, operational and public information. The system also provided a public information infrastructure to manage the massive flow of the SOCOG's public communications.

Once the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games were over, the IS and its information, knowledge store and archive became a valuable resource and legacy that organised and codified the SOCOG's information. For example, the information coded includes countries, flags, venues, sports, disciplines and events (Toohey & Halbwirth, 2002:7-8).

5.2.1.3 Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games

The following are the key e-marketing lessons learnt from the e-marketing of the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games:

- Communication network was established (IOC, 2001:2).
- Various partnerships for joint sport promotions were established (IOC, 2001:1).
- An online networking programme was established (O'Brien, 2006:241).

5.2.1.4 E-marketing challenges from the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games

The following key challenges regarding the e-marketing of the Sydney Olympic Games were identified from the literature:

The major challenge with regard to the BCA in respect of leveraging the games was that many Australian members were not sufficiently proactive in utilising the online networking capabilities of their membership (O'Brien, 2006:253). Representatives of the new media did not get accreditation, because Internet rights could not be allocated for national markets (Manzenreiter & Horne, 2002:216). The Telestra could not satisfy the traffic demands of cellular phones at peak time during the Opening Ceremony, particularly during the afternoon and evening, when thousands of calls were connected to the Sydney Olympic Park (Hunter, 2001:90). The designing, building, tuning and testing of the mobile network took a long period to complete, namely, three years (Hunter, 2001:90) and the sport promotions in Sydney were constrained by a lack of information among stakeholders, a lack of communication amongst organisers and, most importantly, a lack of effective integration mechanisms (Garcia, 2001:213).

5.2.2 KOREA AND JAPAN 2002 FIFA SOCCER WORLD CUP™

The 2002 FSWC™ was the first to be awarded to Asia. It was also the first time in history that FIFA allowed two countries, namely, Korea and Japan, to host the FSWC™ (Horne, 2004:1236; Kim & Morrision, 2005:233; Lee, *et al.*, 2005:839). The 2002 FSWC™ was held in both Korea and Japan from 31 May to 30 June of 2002 (Japan Economics Group, 2006:32; Kim & Morison, 2005:233; Maennig & Du Plessis, 2007:1).

5.2.2.1 The theme and aim(s) of the Korea-Japan 2002 Soccer FIFA World Cup™

Strategically, the Korea-Japan 2002 FSWC™ did not only increase tourist receipts, income, employment, and government revenues, but was also intended to raise awareness and knowledge about the countries and regions involved (Lee *et al.*, 2005:840). According to Horne (2004:1237), the Korea-Japan 2002 FSWC™ was an opportunity to introduce an international audience to a vibrant and variant, yet hardly well-known, football region at the edge of the Eurasian continent. This implied that the 2002 FSWC™ was geared towards improving the living conditions of the Asian population residing in the underdeveloped countryside rather than those in the urban areas. Furthermore, it focused on economic income generation and a general improvement in the quality of life of the Japanese population (Horne, 2004:1233).

5.2.2.2 Marketing and e-marketing of the Korea-Japan 2002 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

In Japan, the mass media and modern transport industry emerged as the chief promoters of sport (Manzenreiter & Horne, 2002:197). In marketing the Korea-Japan 2002 FSWC™, the Japanese World Cup Organising Committee (JAWOC) and the Korean World Cup

Organising Committee (KOWOC) applied the following marketing and e-marketing strategies:

a. Television

The information about the Korea-Japan 2002 FSWC™ was made accessible to visitors in Korea as well as people abroad via TV, newspapers, magazines and the Web (Kim & Morrision, 2005:234). According to Horne (2004:1237), two international broadcast centres in Seoul and Yokohama were equipped with sophisticated video and audio transmission technologies and the press centres in both countries were prepared to serve the needs of up to 16,000 accredited representatives of the media. As a result, for the 2002 FSWC™, the Local Organising Committee's (LOC), namely, the JAWOC and KOWOC were responsible for arranging their own media facilities, infrastructure and services.

The global TV audience for the Korea-Japan 2002 FSWC™ was, therefore, serviced by two International Media Centres (IMCs), one in Korea and one in Japan (Manzenreiter & Horne, 2002:200). At each of the ten stadiums in the two countries, there was a Stadium Media Centre (SMC) so that all information from the KOWOC and JAWOC could be accessed (Horne, 2004:1242).

b. The Web

In preparation for the Korea-Japan 2002 FSWC™, the Seoul local government actively publicised an environmentally responsible World Cup through its homepage and through various information channels (Kim & Petrick, 2005:26). In Japan, the Web was maximally used to help convert the increasing desire to travel into actual bookings following the

Olympic Games (Morse, 2001:106). According to Morse (2001:106), the Internet activity in Japan included a web-designed campaign with Coke's leading brand of tea, as well as a special site on the Japan Airline's home page.

5.2.2.3 Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Korea-Japan 2002 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

The following key lessons regarding the e-marketing of Korea-Japan 2002 FSWC™ were identified from the literature:

- Broadcasting rights were granted to the hosts by an international sport organisation, namely, FIFA to broadcast the games (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004:196-197).
- Online media, such as the Web and mobile technology were effectively used to disseminate information about a sport mega-event (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2004:194).

5.2.3 ATHENS 2004 OLYMPIC GAMES

Athens 2004 stands out as the most inclusive sporting event in history, because the Games embodied the ideal of 'participation in the Olympic experience' (IOC, 2004:4). According to Athens 2004 Design Director, Theodora Mantzaris, every aspect of the Athens 2004 Games was driven by an established mission and vision based on a Human Scale and core values that aimed at reflecting a Greek philosophy of life and a universal human experience (IOC, 2004:4).

5.2.3.1 *The theme and aim(s) of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games*

The mission of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games was to organise a technically excellent Olympic Games and provide the best possible conditions under which athletes could compete, to provide the athletes, spectators, and viewers with a unique Olympic experience and a legacy for Olympism, to present and promote the Olympic Ideals through traditional Greek symbols, to leave a lasting legacy for the people of Greece, to re-position and promote the cultural and historical heritage of Greece to the world and to protect and enhance the natural environment and promote environmental awareness (Chan, Koenig & Rajarethnam, 2006:2; Official Report of the XXVIII Olympiad, n.d:293).

According to the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of Cosmote, Evangelos Martigopoulos, the network infrastructure developed by the Cosmote firm for the Olympic Games showcases Greece's technological achievements and brings the country to the forefront of mobile telephony on a global scale (IOC, 2004:6). The celebration of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games was, therefore, a great success providing the world with a vibrant experience, exciting sporting action and memorable moments of human achievement (IOC, 2004:4).

5.2.3.2 *Marketing and e-marketing of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games*

The Athens Organising Committee (ATHOC), which Singh and Hu (2008:930) refer to as the "... *ad hoc* strategic organisation responsible for the Athens 2004 Olympic Games", applied various marketing and e-marketing techniques which included:

a. Television

According to the European Tour Operators Association (ETOA) Report (2006:5), sport fans watch TV in order to enjoy the sport and the opening ceremony which was considered to be the greatest global television event of the year in terms of TV audience viewing. The Athens 2004 Olympic Games broke global TV viewing records with nearly four billion people tuning in during the August 13-29 Games, thereby beating the previous record of 3.6 billion for the 2000 Sydney Olympics (Galvin, 2004:3; ETOA Report, 2006:6).

Galvin (2004:3) highlights the fact that in terms of research carried out on behalf of the IOC, over 300 channels broadcast the Athens 2004 Olympic Games to 220 countries and territories, 35,000 hours of dedicated coverage were provided (2,000 hours every day), with an estimated 3.9 billion people having access to this coverage. The IOC President, Jacques Rogge, stated that “Athens 2004 set a new benchmark with the highest level of audience viewing, images of spectacular quality, expanded coverage of sport and new technologies...” (IOC, 2004:34).

b. The Web

Telecommunications technology used for the Athens 2004 Olympic Games was placed on the Athens 2004 Website (<http://www.athens2004.gr>) and entailed 15,000 mobile phones, 15,000 network equipment devices, 11,000 PCs, 600 servers, the access network, mobile telephony, and switching (Athens-2004 Official Website cited in Veglis & Filippopoulos, 2002:2; Koulouris, 2001). The Web was, therefore, used to incorporate the technology embraced by Asia during the Athens 2004 Olympic Games (Veglis & Filippopoulos, 2002:2).

5.2.3.3 *Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Athens 2004 Olympic Games*

The following key lessons regarding e-marketing for the Athens 2004 Olympic Games were identified from the literature:

- A communication network was established (Palli-Petralia, 2004:2; Karkatsoulis, Michalopoulos & Moustakatou, 2005:584; Singh & Hu, 2008:934).
- A special digital information network (intranet) known as 'ONS-Info 2004' was created.
- Effective usage of the Website for publishing information related to a sport mega-event, such as photographs and the broadcasting of press conferences was established (Gioulekas, Damialis, Papakosta, Syrigou, Mpaka, Saxoni & Patakas, 2003:933-934).
- Coordination of information technology and telecommunications through the Web evolved (Athens-2004 Official Website cited in Veglis & Filippopoulos, 2002:2).
- Special web pages to address specific groups of users were created (Athens-2004 Official Website cited in Veglis & Filippopoulos, 2002:3).
- Collaborative joint sport promotional campaigns were established (Singh & Hu, 2008:934).

5.2.3.4 *E-marketing challenges from the Athens 2004 Olympic Games*

The following key challenges regarding the e-marketing of the Athens 2004 Olympic Games were identified from the literature:

There was apparently no collaboration between the ATHOC and Greek National Tourism Organisation GNTO (Singh & Hu, 2008:929). Lack of communication between ATHOC and

GNT0 contributed to the failure of addressing the negative publicity while preparing for the games (Singh & Hu, 2008:930-935) and many Greek people were sceptical about the huge investment in infrastructure, which would be of little use once the event was over (Singh & Hu, 2008:930-935).

5.2.4 GERMANY 2006 FIFA SOCCER WORLD CUP™

According to Popescu, Friedrich and Wonnemann (2006:2), FIFA President Joseph Blatter announced Germany as the host country for the FSWC™ 2006 on the 4th of July 2001. The organising bodies in Germany, namely, the federal government, the tourist board and the LOC approached this huge sporting event as a chance to polish, modernise and generally improve the country's existing image (Brauer & Brauer, 2006:12). According to the German Federal Ministry of the Interior (cited in Moll, 2008:16), the Germany 2006 FSWC™ took place from 9 June until 9 July 2006.

5.2.4.1 *The theme and aim(s) of the Germany 2006 FIFA Soccer World Cup™*

In 2006, the organisation of the FSWC™ had an opportunity to develop infrastructure and promote the host country in respect of its culture, society and sport. This approach was already reflected in the official slogan of the 2006 FSWC™ in Germany, namely, 'A Time to Make Friends' (Popes, Friedrich & Wonnemann, 2006:1; FIFA, 2007:55). Germany, as a once divided nation along internal ethnic and regional lines also aimed to use its state flag and national colours during the 2006 FSWC™ to promote the notion of identification with a sports team as a model for patriotism and a healthy form of national expression (Schrag, 2009:1094).

5.2.4.2 Marketing and e-marketing of the Germany 2006 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

The budget for the Germany 2006 FSWC™ was US\$ 571 million and the marketing allocation for the event was US\$ 80 million (Maennig & Du Plessis, 2007:580). In order to plan and attain its mission, the LOC for Germany 2006 FSWC™ applied the following marketing and e-marketing strategies:

a. Television

The Germany 2006 FSWC™ was not just a sporting event but the biggest global media event of all time (Brauer & Brauer, 2006:12). To this effect, the International Media Centre (IMC), comprising the International Broadcasting Centre (IBC), for TV broadcasting was established in Munich (Popescu *et al.*, 2006:7). During the Germany 2006 FSWC™, TV around the globe was turned on 33 billion times to watch as football ruled Germany for a month (FIFA, 2007:53; Hay & Joel, 2007:3). The Germany 2006 FSWC™ was, therefore, the biggest TV event of all time and a real opportunity, not only for sport fans to follow their favourite teams, but also for Germany to show itself to the rest of the world in a new light (Brauer & Brauer, 2006:12).

b. The Web

During the preparations for the Germany 2006 FSWC™, the German Tourist Board (DZT) incorporated the event into its strategy and made extensive use of the Web (Brauer & Brauer, 2006:13). Several newspapers and websites also ran stories on the bonuses the players of various national teams were to receive if they won the 2006 World Cup™ (Coupé, 2007:349). For example, titles like 'For Pride of Country', 'Love of Money' or 'Motivation: Bounty Hunters' were published on several websites and these messages

expressed the belief that money could stimulate football players to expend more effort and achieve better results during the games (Coupé, 2007:349). Fans also had access to information on the Internet via the Web in four languages on a wide variety of topics (Brauer & Brauer, 2006:15).

The Web was extensively utilised by the DZT during the Germany 2006 FSWC™™. The main DZT web pages, which incorporated the 2006 World Cup, were *www.deutschland-tourismus.de* and *www.germany-tourism.de*. A third website, *www.aoccurringermany.info* was also launched in nine languages, including Arabic, Chinese, Japanese and Russian, by the German Ministry of Foreign Affairs and its affiliated departments (Brauer & Brauer, 2006:14). In addition, the Germany 2006 FSWC™ adopted a ticket distribution system that allowed customers to purchase tickets, exclusively, through the Web (Cherubini, Lasevoli & Lauretta, 2007:23). After the tournament, the federal government even posted a review and final report on the Germany 2006 FSWC™ on its website for public consumption (Bundesregierung cited in Brauer & Brauer, 2006:15).

5.2.4.3 Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Germany 2006 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

The following key lessons regarding the e-marketing of the Germany 2006 FSWC™ were identified from the literature:

- The usage of the Web to publish the hosting policy for a sport mega-event (Brauer & Brauer, 2006:24).
- A special federal press office was established for maintaining the government websites (Brauer & Brauer, 2006:15).

- Social marketing campaigns were implemented to enhance societal patriotism and national expression within Germany (Kersting, 2007:281; Schrag, 2009:1094).
- Various partnerships were established (Brauer & Brauer, 2006:15).

5.2.5 BEIJING 2008 OLYMPIC SUMMER GAMES

Beijing was awarded the right to host the 2008 Summer Olympic Games on 13 July 2001 (Haugen, 2003:1; Ong, 2004:35; Owen, 2005:2; IOC cited in Chan *et al.*, 2006:6). According to Owen (2005:11), the Beijing Organising Committee of the Olympic Games (BOCOG) was charged with the planning and administration of the Beijing 2008 Olympic Summer Games.

5.2.5.1 *The theme and aim(s) of the Beijing 2008 Olympic Summer Games*

In preparation for the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games, the communications infrastructure was a high priority for the BOCOG, especially the high-tech telecommunications infrastructure, because in its official Olympic Action Plan (OAP), Beijing placed emphasis on the concepts of 'Green Olympics', 'Hi-tech Olympics' and 'People's Olympics' (Haugen, 2003:50; MacDonald, 2003:1; Ong, 2004:40). Beijing intended using the 2008 Olympic Summer Games as a catalyst for environmental improvements in the areas of air quality, water conservation, waste disposal, clean energy development, and 'greening up' of the landscape (Haugen, 2003:53; Ma, Wu, Liu, Yu, Teng & Liu, 2004:1; Owen, 2005:12; Chan *et al.*, 2006:6-10).

5.2.5.2 Marketing and e-marketing of the Beijing 2008 Olympic Summer Games

The total cost allocated for advertising and promotion of the Beijing Olympic Games was US\$ 60 million, which was 3.7% of the total budget (Hashimi, Fida, & Alhayky, 2008:28-29). For the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games to be successful, the BOCOG applied a variety of marketing and e-marketing strategies which included:

a. European Union's Television Network and Beijing 2008 Olympic Summer Games

According to Georgantzas, Katsamakos, Browne, Armisted, Serpente, Baran, Choi and Steinberg (2008:16), the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games had many of the European Union's Television Network (EUTV Net) clients flocking for advertising time during the event. EUTV meant enormous access and exposure for each company client, because the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games had fewer restrictions on advertisements during the coverage of the Games as compared to all previous Olympic Games (Georgantzas *et al.*, 2008:16; IOC Marketing Report- Beijing 2008b).

EUTV Net used the SD model (SD), which was System Dynamics modelling with a time horizon of 28 days (672 hours), for the playing of advertisements during the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games. The EUTV Net's ten affiliated television stations also included the auditing and reconciliation requirements needed to determine whether the content of all the advertisements were aired during the appropriate spots, including the calculations related to the agreed number of duplicate advertisements (Georgantzas *et al.*, 2008:1-2).

b. *The screen and projection technology applied in e-marketing of the Beijing 2008 Olympic Summer Games*

Advances in screen and projection technology have had an important influence on the nature of live events, such as sporting events (Galvin, 2004:7). On-location screens serve a variety of purposes from enabling close-ups of the action, replays, insertion of other information, such as advertising and public announcements and, most importantly, for their capacity to be used to facilitate a synergistic union of pre-recorded material and real time coverage of the media event itself (Galvin, 2004:7). As a result, the BOCOG, which was in charge of preparations for the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games, used screen and projection technology to project images of China and Beijing to the world in the e-marketing of the Beijing 2008 Games. For example, the screen and projection technology enabled spectators at the Athens 2004 Olympic Games to experience ‘unmediated’ images of China and Beijing during the Beijing preview segment. These images placed emphasis on sporting events and iconic images of China, such as the Great Wall and as well as images of economic progress and development (Galvin, 2004:7).

c. *Digital network technology used for marketing the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games*

The Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games was the first ever Olympic Games to have full digital coverage freely available around the world (IOC, 2008b:28). According to the IOC (2008b:28), the viewers were able to follow the action on an extensive range of digital platforms provided by live and video-on-demand Internet coverage and were also able to highlight clips on mobile phones. In addition, the IOC launched its own Internet channel, ‘Beijing 2008’, available on the YouTube platform to broadcast video highlights from the

games to those territories where digital video-on-demand rights had not been sold (IOC, 2008b:28).

d. *E-commerce and smart Card technology used during the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games*

In its Olympic Action Plan for the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games, the BOCOG announced plans to standardise and ‘clean up’ radio frequencies in order to substantially increase the amount of fibre-optic cable in the host city (Ong, 2004:40). The BOCOG also announced the installation of a new broadband digital communications system and the expansion of the use of e-commerce and Smart Card technology with artificial intelligence, in order to ease the linguistic difficulties of athletes and spectators (Beijing 2008 Olympic Games Bid Committee cited in Ong, 2004:40). Smart Card technology was used during the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games to increase the bandwidth of the digital communications system for the enhancement of e-marketing initiatives by the BOCOG and for the marketing of other services to be offered during the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games.

e. *Software technologies as marketing tools for Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games*

The software technologies designed by the Computer Supported Collaborative Work (CSCW) are:

“... combinations of hardware architecture (particularly networks) and software applications” that enable individuals and groups to communicate, share information, and collaborate by creating and producing joint products,

applications such as email, chat, shared databases and knowledge bases, internet telephone, and even desktop video conferencing” (Cao, Klein, Zheng & Lu, 2004:1-2).

Together with the Metis Global Virtual Network Project, the BOCOG developed software technologies to use appropriate IT in order to promote and market both a sustainable (green) and a high-tech 2008 Summer Olympic Games (Cao *et al.*, 2004:4).

f. The Web

During the pre-Olympic preparations and immediately after the IOC’s selection of Beijing, the BOCOG and Beijing Olympic Bid Committee (BOBICO), in its OAP, issued open calls for the design of the Olympic Green and the Wukesong Cultural and Sport Centres’ sporting venues through a centralised website <http://www.bjinvest.gov.cn>, (Xinhua China’s state news agency, cited in Ong, 2004:39). The BOBICO website was created to market Beijing’s bid in China and abroad (Haugen, 2003:31) and for the publication of articles about the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games that were originally posted by Xinhua China Daily and other news sources.

5.2.5.3 Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games

The following key lessons regarding the e-marketing of the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games were identified from the literature:

- The Web was used as an important information channel (Haugen, 2003:31).
- Partnerships were created for full exploitation of the digital broadcast platforms (Panagiotopoulou, 2007:7).

- The adoption of digital policing by the BOCOG resulted in the use of the Internet police patrol, as monitoring cameras to patrol websites and chat rooms during the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games (Yali, 2008:65).

5.2.5.4 E-marketing challenges emerging from the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games

The following key challenges regarding the e-marketing of the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games were identified from the literature:

- Skilled personnel were needed to accomplish the complex dynamics modelling process of the EUTV Net system (Georgantzas *et al.*, 2008:16).
- Cellular telephone messaging, sms, and e-mail chat room postings were required where interactive Internet messaging complicated attempts to control protests by BOCOG (Yali, 2008:61).

5.2.6 THE VANCOUVER 2010 WINTER OLYMPIC GAMES

The IOC awarded the 2010 Olympic and Paralympic Winter Games to Vancouver on the 2nd July 2003 (Burnes, 2005:28; Cameron, 2005:1; Rudberg, 2005:2). The Whistler resort in the province of British Columbia was chosen as the place to host the Paralympic Winter Games from 12 March 2010 to 21 March 2010 (Morissette, 2005:2). After Vancouver was awarded the rights to host the 2010 Winter Olympic Games, the Vancouver Organising Committee (VANOC) became responsible for the planning, organising, financing and staging of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games in Vancouver (Burnes, 2005:28; Morissette, 2005:2; Rudeberg, 2005:2).

5.2.6.1 The theme and aim(s) of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games

The theme at the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games was about "... the Games 'you' can touch, not just the Games that touch 'you'" (Coward, 2006:6). They were also about creating everyday champions from the arena of sport and arts to technology and from education to volunteerism (Coward, 2006:6). According to the IOC (2010:20), the VANOC was the first Olympic Organising Committee to commit to the application of the principles and practices of sustainability, including an integrated delivery of social, economic and environmental outcomes and benefits resulting from the Games.

5.2.6.2 Marketing and e-marketing of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games

In order to deliver the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games successfully, the VANOC and the Division of Marketing and Communications of Vancouver relied on the establishment of partnerships and a common shared vision of the Games (Coward, 2006:1). The VANOC's marketing and e-marketing efforts resulted in the appointment of five major national partners, namely, Bell Canada, RBC Financial Group, HBC, RONA and Petro-Canada (Burnes, 2005:29; Morissette, 2005:2). These partners were responsible for the implementation of the following marketing and e-marketing strategies of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games:

a. Television

Vancouver 2010 was expected to be the first ever Winter Games to be fully broadcast in high definition (HDTV), thereby ensuring first-class picture quality and an unsurpassed viewer experience (IOC, 2010:10). As a result, the Olympic Broadcasting Service (OBS) was created to serve as the Olympic Games Host Broadcaster, the concept having started

with the Beijing 2008 Games, where a joint venture between OBS and the local Organising Committee was established (IOC, 2010:10). According to the IOC, the specific duties of the OBS included producing the international TV and radio (ITVR) signals for the Games.

b. The Web

With the growing worldwide acceptance of online marketing, the VANOC adopted the Web in the marketing of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games in order to reach the IOC's members (Cameron, 2005:1). As a result, information about all the activities of the VANOC could be accessed on "www.mediarelations@vancouver2010.com" (Morissette, 2005:2). In addition, more information about the Vancouver 2010 brand could be accessed on www.vancouver2010.com/about-VANOC. In e-marketing the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games, the Bid Corporation for the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games applied both e-mail and web marketing strategies (Cameron, 2005:1). Online marketing and e-mail strategies, therefore, played a significant role in enabling the Vancouver 2010 Bid Corporation to win the 2010 Winter Olympic Games Bid (Cameron, 2005:1).

In preparation for the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games, the province of British Columbia also used the Web as the main vehicle to help businesses participate in the 2010 Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games' Commerce Centre (Alexander, 2005:66; Burnes, 2005:29). The Commerce Centre for the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games (URL address: www.2010CommerceCentre.gov.bc.ca) aggregated and displayed all the business opportunities related to the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games, such as sports venue construction, procurement from sponsors, major infrastructure projects and major sporting events (Burnes, 2005:29).

The Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic and Paralympic Games' Commerce Centre was also a free site that allowed users to browse and search for business opportunities, to look for the procedures followed for bidding on 2010 Winter Olympic projects, to browse for complimentary registration for e-mail notifications of procurement opportunities that fitted the user's profile, to look at the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games log use and guidelines and to sign-up for the 2010 Commerce Centre's electronic newsletter (Burnes, 2005:29-30).

c. E-mail marketing strategy

The Vancouver 2010 Bid Corporation engaged Hirsch Strategies to help them develop and execute an online marketing strategy through e-mail campaigns for the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games (Alexander, 2005:67; Cameron, 2005:2). The complete e-mail marketing strategy campaign could be accessed from the www.marketingsherpa.com/vo/ad.html link (Cameron, 2005:2). According to Cameron (2005:2), the marketing team of the Vancouver 2010 Bid Corporation created five specific messages and, for each message, they created a print booklet, an e-mail letter, a flash movie, and a matching micro-site, which were published sequentially as follows:

- February: "The Sea to Sky Games: Vancouver 2010".
- April: "Update - Sort and Venues".
- Early May "Update - Athlete's Villages".
- Late May "Update - Vancouver 2010 Response to IOC Evaluation".
- Mid-June "Vancouver 2010 Celebrates Olympism!"

d. Sponsorship marketing strategy

According to Lazarus (cited in Shropshire & Rosner, 2011:473), the VANOC sponsorship partner categories included domestic partnerships which were divided into different categories, that is, Tier I sponsorships open to national corporations, such as airlines, banking, telecommunications and petroleum, Tier II sponsorships tailored for clothing, cruise lines, hospitality, postal and courier services, computer hardware, Internet, home improvement, insurance, office products and retail companies and, Tier III sponsorships allocated to more regional companies, such as consumer goods, department stores, food products, and hotels.

As a result, the national telecommunications sponsor managed to secure the global IOC broadcasting rights through their Bell/Rogers media corporations (CTV/TSN) until 2012 (Sutter cited in Bradish, 2006:142-143). The VANOC sponsorship marketing strategy, therefore, signalled support for innovative and synergistic partnerships throughout affiliated Olympic marketing programmes. This strategy also carried implications for future Olympic partnerships and continued interest in Olympic sponsorship marketing (Bradish, 2006:143-144).

5.2.6.3 Key e-marketing lessons learnt from the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games

The following key lessons regarding the e-marketing of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games were identified from the literature:

- There was an establishment of a coordinated marketing and communications plan (Lazarus cited in Shropshire & Rosner, 2011:473).

- There was an establishment of innovative and synergistic partnerships to implement the strategy throughout the Games (Bradish, 2006:143).
- There was an establishment of an online marketing strategy to ensure that all the marketing programmes included the long-term legacy of the games (Alexander, 2005:81; Cameron, 2005:2; Morissette, 2005:2; Bradish, 2006:143).
- There was an effective usage of the websites by groups involved in the bidding process, for example, the IOC and the No Games 2010 Coalition (Alexander, 2005:66).
- E-mail messaging was used by all parties to connect with their supporters (Alexander, 2005:67).

5.2.7 SPORT MEGA-EVENTS PREVIOUSLY HOSTED BY SOUTH AFRICA

Among the landmark events held in South Africa after the end of apartheid was the hosting of the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the 1996 African Cup of Nations, the 1998/9 All-Africa Games, the 2003 Cricket World Cup and the 2010 FSWC™ (Swart, 2005:38; Van der Merwe, 2007:68; Carlson, 2010:35; Fourie & Spronk, 2011:76). These events highlighted South Africa's enthusiastic participation in the staging of sport mega-events (Labuschagne, 2008:3; Van der Merwe, 2007:68). The 'golden period' in South African sport included the 1995 Rugby World Cup and the 1996 Africa Soccer Cup of Nations, when many of the South African teams rode on the crest of victory (Labuschagne, 2008:7). During these events, sport was seen as a harmoniser for nation building in South Africa (Keim, 2008:344).

5.2.7.1 *The 1995 Rugby World Cup*

During the apartheid era, sport in South Africa was characterised by deep racial divisions because the different racial groups were forced to form separate teams (Labuschagne, 2008:7). Historically rugby was a sport favoured by Afrikaans White males (Van der Merwe, 2007:74) and for a very long time, rugby was a dividing factor rather than a symbol that could weld post-apartheid society together into a rainbow fabric (Labuschagne, 2008:7). The 1995 Rugby World Cup had the potential to and achieved relative success in reconciling Blacks and Whites in the country. South Africa had just held its first democratic election in 1995 and needed something more than going to the polling booths to unite the new nation (Van der Merwe, 2007:74).

The 1995 Rugby World Cup was the first major sporting event to take place in post-apartheid South Africa when the nation was galvanised into a sense of nationhood through the 'one team, one nation' slogan, which extended into the identity-building of the 'Rainbow Nation' (Van der Merwe, 2007:72; Labuschagne, 2008:7; Adam & Walker, 2010:1; Spronk & Fourie, 2011:86). As with sport mega-events previously held elsewhere, various marketing strategies were applied to market the 1995 Rugby World Cup. These included:

a. *Television*

All over South Africa, that is, in shacks, shops, homes, bars, streets and cafes, South Africans, regardless of ethnicity, social class and economic background, were watching the 1995 Rugby World Cup on TV as it was one of the most important events in the country's history (Adam & Walker, 2010:1). The 1995 Rugby World Cup tournament

reached a cumulative world TV audience of 2.67 billion. TV rights were sold to fifteen licensees internationally including Eurosport, which reached thirty countries, Star TV in the Middle West, Asia and far East, Horizon in French Africa and M-Net in all the English speaking African countries (Kickoff Magazine, 1995:15).

b. Sponsorship marketing strategy

Sponsorship was one of the marketing media used for marketing the 1995 Rugby World Cup (Hutchins, n.d.:43). The big companies which sponsored the 1995 Rugby World Cup event were Toyota, Coca-Cola, Visa, Heineken and Rank Xerox (Hutchins, n.d.:44). Heineken, which was the first game's official beer supplier and worldwide partner, sponsored the Rugby World Cup tournament for the first time in 1995 and has extended its sponsorship of the Rugby World Cup to 2015 when it promises to tie-in digital content rights across the social media platforms (Bearne, 2011:1).

5.2.7.2 The 2003 Cricket World Cup

In post-apartheid South Africa, the new South African government used cricket and rugby for reconciliatory purposes (Van der Merwe, 2004:29; Van der Merwe, 2007:71). As such, the symbolic power of the 2003 Cricket World Cup hosted by South Africa displayed similar reconciliatory dynamics to that of the 1995 Rugby World Cup (Van der Merwe, 2007:74). Of significance, was the fact that the 2003 Cricket World Cup was more about Africa forging reconciliatory links on the international stage than about domestic racial reconciliation gestures, such as occurred during the 1995 Rugby World Cup (Van der Merwe, 2004:30). In this regard, South Africa's choice of Zimbabwe as co-host revealed a

shift away from a focus on the 'Rainbow Nation' to one of 'Africanism' (Marqusee, 2003:1; Van der Merwe, 2007:75).

Nevertheless, the successful hosting of the 1995 Rugby World Cup and the 2003 Cricket World Cup enabled South Africa to create a new image and identity (Cornelissen, 2004:1296). Furthermore, the successful hosting of the 1995 Rugby World Cup by South Africa and the victory prompted further sustained campaigns to host more sport mega-events such as the 2010 FSWC™ (Cornelissen, 2004:1301; Loots, 2006:19), which is discussed in detail in Chapter 6. Similarly, during the 2003 Cricket World Cup, the LOC for this event employed a variety of marketing strategies to successfully market the event, which included:

a. *Television*

The 2003 Cricket World Cup was hosted by the United Cricket Board of South Africa (UCBSA) in Southern Africa, where a few games were played in Kenya and Zimbabwe from 9 February to 23 March 2003. The competition consisted of 54 matches that were all televised live on local TV (Evans, 2003:64; Van der Merwe, 2004:22; Van Heerden, Kotzé & Bruwer, 2004:131; Spronk & Fourie, 2011:90). As a result, the 2003 Cricket World Cup was rated the third biggest sporting event to be televised after the FSWC™ and the Olympic Games (Evans, 2003:86). All 54 matches were fully screened live through the Multichoice digital satellite transmissions, while Supersport sold the content to Multichoice which, in turn, showed the matches on the Digital Satellite Television (DSTV) channels, named Supersport 1, Supersport 2 and Supersport 3 (Evans, 2003:77). Thus, Multichoice made its money through charging subscription fees to subscribers and direct advertising revenue obtained through airtimes sales (Evans, 2003:77).

b. *Print media*

According to Hartman (2002:1), the former Communications Manager for the 2003 Cricket World Cup, and Wilkinson (2001:1), the four South African publishing companies, that is, New African Publishing (NAP), Mail and Guardian Publishing (M&G), Penguin Books and Touchline media, joined to form a temporary consortium for the duration of the 2003 Cricket World Cup. This consortium bought the rights to publish all official publications related to the 2003 Cricket World Cup, from tourist maps to brochures and match programmes (Hartman, 2002:1).

c. *Sponsorship marketing strategy*

The International Cricket Council (ICC) sold sponsorship, TV and Internet rights to the Global Cricket Corporation (GCC), a company comprising of a 50% shareholding by Rupert Murdoch's News Corporation and 50% by World Sport Nimbus (WSN) on a seven-year contract, that is from 2000 to 2007 (Evans, 2003:65; Marqusee, 2003:2). According to Van Heerden *et al.* (2004:131), the four main global sponsors for the 2003 Cricket World Cup were LG Electronics, Pepsi, South African Airways (SAA) and Hero Honda. SAA ran an extensive advertising campaign on TV, LG Electronics used a variety of leverage opportunities to support their sponsorship, including match day competitions, print media advertising and publishing sport generating events, while Pepsi and Hero Honda, having a limited focus on the South African market, used the 2003 Cricket World Cup to generate advertising opportunities in India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Bangladesh (Evans, 2003:66; Van Heerden *et al.*, 2004:131).

d. The Web

During the 2003 Cricket World Cup in South Africa, the ticket sales for individual matches took place online through the Internet via the official website *www.crickeworldcup.com* (Hartman, 2002:2). The Web was, therefore, used for transactional purposes by online spectators and tourists.

5.2.7.3 Key e-marketing lessons learnt from sport mega-events previously hosted by South Africa

The following key lessons regarding the e-marketing of the sport mega-events previously hosted by South Africa were identified from the literature:

- Various partnerships were established for joint promotions (Hartman, 2002:1).
- The Internet was used as a platform for online transactional purposes via the Web (Hartman, 2002:2).
- Sponsorships were made available to enhance the usage of social media during the games (Bearne, 2011:1).

5.2.7.4 Key observations from the 2010 FSWC™ research

The discussion on key observations from interviews conducted in South Africa prior to and post the 2010 FSWC™ is presented in this section. The researcher gained significant experience was gained from the interviews conducted on e-marketing of sport mega-events in South Africa during the 2010 FSWC™. According to the researcher, various e-marketing issues raised during the interviews include: the type of e-marketing tools used for marketing sport mega-events; the purpose for what e-marketing was used for; the e-

marketing challenges; successes derived from using e-marketing during sport mega-events; and the perceived critical success factors of e-marketing sport mega-events.

Referring to the success derived from the usage of e-marketing in South African sport mega-events, one respondent, for example, states that:

“E-marketing is cost effective and not as expensive as television space. It is not like buying newspapers but very accessible. Users just get information at their finger tips” (Q: 2.3: Respondent 3).

In highlighting e-marketing challenges of sport mega-events in South Africa, reference was made to technical challenges, such as, lack of sufficient bandwidth, the length of time taken to download information. One respondent states that:

“There are more challenges on the technical site of the website, for example, downloading of information from the website is slow, and I could not elaborate further” (Q2.4: Respondent 1).

Another respondent states that:

“...Not everyone, especially in South Africa has got an access to the Internet...” (Q: 2.4: Respondent 12); when referring to the problem of access to the Internet.

With regard to the perceived critical success factors of e-marketing sport mega-events in South Africa, the comments from the respondents were also significant and interesting. For example:

“...The e-marketing tools should be accessible and information is to be usable. Information must be updated and not be allowed to expire....” (Q4.1: Respondent 1).

“There is a need for highly skilled personnel in e-marketing. South Africa has IT personnel which are not related to doing e-marketing. South African schools are not

teaching e-marketing as a subject so it is still a rare skill in South Africa..." (Q4.1: Respondent 3).

The researcher is of the opinion that conducting interviews on e-marketing of South African sport mega-events presented the opportunity to gain experience regarding the effective usage of e-marketing that may be applied to future sport mega-events in South Africa.

5.2.8 A SYNTHESIS OF THE KEY E-MARKETING LESSONS LEARNT FROM THE CASE STUDIES

Key e-marketing lessons were learnt from case studies selected from the sport mega-events discussed previously. E-marketing lessons learnt from these case studies are constituted by both positive and negative e-marketing issues ranging from the type of e-marketing tools used for marketing sport mega-events; the purpose for what e-marketing was used for; the e-marketing challenges; successes derived from using e-marketing for sport mega-events, and the critical success factors of e-marketing sport mega-events.

With regard to e-marketing successes for sport mega-events, affordability, accessibility, convenience, user-friendliness and the interactive capabilities of e-marketing tools featured predominantly. However, there were instances where costs related to e-marketing tools and access to the Internet remains critical areas of concern. It appears that e-marketing challenges of sport mega-events are also related to technical challenges, as reference was made to issues related to technical networks, such as, lack of sufficient bandwidth, reliability and much time taken to download information. Instances where

technical networks appeared to lack capacity to handle e-marketing technology as well as access to the Internet and websites also appeared to remain a challenge.

With regard to critical success factors related to the e-marketing of sport mega-events, the comments made related to the fact that e-marketing tools should be accessible, information must be usable and be updated regularly. The emphasis was also placed on the establishment of reliable communication networks, such as digital information networks and online networking programmes. It also emerged from previous case studies that the success of e-marketing sport mega-events also depended on highly skilled personnel in e-marketing, and on the establishment of innovative and synergistic partnerships to deliver all the products and services throughout the event.

The establishment of an online marketing strategy appeared to be critical to ensure that all the marketing programmes, information technologies, and communication plans were coordinated and remained sensitive to the impact of the long-term legacy of the event when using e-marketing for sport mega-events. Furthermore, it became apparent that sport marketers could utilise e-marketing tools, namely, social media, such as YouTube, Twitter, Podcasts to address the consumers of mega-events as these tools have the ability to reach wide and differentiated sport target markets.

5.3 SUMMARY

The case studies relating to previous international and national sport mega-events held since 2000, where e-marketing featured, particularly during the Olympic Games and FSWC™, have been studied and evaluated. The key lessons learnt and the key

challenges facing the e-marketing of these sport mega-events, as identified in the literature, have been discussed. The e-marketing challenges of sport mega-events, such as the infrastructural challenges, the shortage of skilled personnel to provide maintenance and support and the lack of appropriate e-marketing knowledge amongst the stakeholders, involved were raised.

The positive e-marketing lessons learnt from the previous sport mega-events studied include partnerships between the stakeholders involved in the e-marketing of sport mega-events, communicating a consistent message about sport mega-events to the public and the use of integrated promotion campaigns. It emerged that the e-marketing challenges and the best e-marketing practices learnt from the selected case studies of previous sport mega-events in this chapter may provide some key strategic e-marketing guidelines that can be applied to the hosting of future sport mega-events.

CHAPTER 6: THE 2010 FIFA SOCCER WORLD CUP™ WITH REFERENCE TO E-MARKETING

Chapter 1	The research problem in context
Chapter 2	The role of mega-events in the tourism industry
Chapter 3	Approaches to and trends regarding the marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 4	E-marketing developments and approaches with reference to sport mega-events
Chapter 5	E-marketing lessons from previous sport mega-events since 2000
Chapter 6	The 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ with reference to e-marketing
	The significance of sport mega-events in South Africa
	South Africa and the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™
	The South Africa's bid for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™
	Key strategic priorities of South Africa's campaign for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™
	Marketing and e-marketing of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™
Chapter 7	Research Methodology
Chapter 8	Research findings and discussions
Chapter 9	Conclusions and Recommendations: A strategic framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Since 1994, South Africa has geared itself towards hosting sport mega-events as success in hosting such events provides exciting opportunities, such as the expansion of the tourism sector and the opportunity to market South Africa as a preferred tourist destination (Cornelissen, 2004:1294; Swart, 2005:42; George, 2008:511). To-date, as previously mentioned, South Africa has hosted sport mega-events including the 1995 International Rugby World Cup, the 1996 African Cup of Nations, the 2003 International Cricket World Cup, the 2007 World Twenty20 Championships, the 2009 Indian Premier League (IPL), the 2009 British and Irish Lions tour, the 2009 Confederations Cup, the 2009 ICC Champions trophy and the 2010 FSWC™ (Alegi, 2001:1; Marx, 2004:50 Swart, 2005:38; Van der Merwe, 2007:68; Kostopoulos, 2009:67; Carlson, 2010:35; Fourie & Spronk, 2011:76).

The purpose of this chapter is to investigate the marketing of the 2010 FSWC™ with particular reference to e-marketing. Initially, the focus will be on the significance of mega-events in South Africa by means of an investigation into the increasing involvement of South Africa in the staging of sport mega-events since 1994. The selected sport mega-events previously hosted by South Africa, from 1995 to 2009, have already been discussed in Chapter 5. In this chapter, the 2010 FSWC™ will be discussed in terms of its bidding process, strategic priorities related to the 2010 event as well as the marketing and e-marketing of the 2010 FSWC™.

6.2 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

Sport mega-events are well recognised for their political usages with regards to how local, regional or national authorities attempt to use events to project certain messages to the outside world or to attain other wider policy objectives (Cornelissen & Swart, 2006:108; Van der Merwe, 2007:77; Pillay & Bass, 2008:331; Hachleitner & Manzenreiter, 2010:851). The South African government also recognises mega-events or hallmark events as potential sources for achieving such objectives (Marx, 2004:50; Carlson, 2010:35; Fourie & Spronk, 2011:76). As stated in the South Africa Yearbook 2003/4 (GCIS, 2003/4):

“The Government has, since the late 1990s, been actively imaging, branding and marketing South Africa, both directly and by supporting initiatives like...hosting hallmark events, and creating the International Investment Council, International Marketing Council and International Task Force on Information Society and Development.”

Other, non-sporting related mega-events previously hosted by South Africa include the 1998 United Nations Commission on Human Rights, the Commonwealth Conference in 1999, the 13th International Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) conference in Durban, July 2000, the United Nations Conference against Racism in 2001 and the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) that was held in Johannesburg in 2002 (Marx, 2004:50). According to Marx (2004:50), all of these events have to do with highly publicised international normative issues but do not come close to drawing the international interest and audience numbers as do major sporting events. Furthermore, the experience gained by post-apartheid South Africa through the hosting of a number of high profile sport mega-events, which have already

been discussed in Chapter 5 and highlighted under paragraph 6.1, together with the successful outcome of these events, prompted South Africa to bid for other sport mega-events.

The huge significance attached to sport mega-events in South Africa is evident from the establishment of the South African Sports Commission (SASC) that started operation in April 2000 with certain of its responsibilities focused on the bidding and hosting of sports mega-events (Marx, 2004:51). This led to South Africa submitting bids for international sporting events, such as the Olympic Games and the 2010 FSWC™, the latter bid being announced as successful on 15 May 2004 in Zurich (Marx, 2004:52). The staging of mega-events in South Africa is not done solely for reasons of prestige, but are also aimed at accruing benefits for key social, economic and political development programmes, such as the enhancing qualities associated with democratic and human rights (Van der Merwe, 2007:68; Labuschagne, 2008:3). A discussion outlining the key envisaged benefits of sport mega-events in South Africa and the 2010 FSWC™, in particular, is covered in the following section.

6.3 SOUTH AFRICA AND THE 2010 FIFA SOCCER WORLD CUP™

Not only was South Africa awarded the right to host the 2010 FSWC™ on 15 May 2004 by the soccer world body FIFA (Gründlingh, 2006:26; Pillay & Bass, 2008:329), but it was the first time that the hosting of the Soccer World Cup was awarded to an African country (Uwimpuhwe, 2010:23), The award followed FIFA's historic decision, in 2001, to stage the 2010 FSWC™ on the African continent in a system of continent rotation in which each football confederation would have a chance to host a Soccer World Cup (Cornelissen,

2004:1298; Marx, 2004:53; Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005:2; Kostopoulos, 2009:69; Uwimpuhwe, 2010:23).

Hosting the 2010 FSWC™ was the biggest, most complex and challenging but, equally importantly, the most prestigious, opportune and rewarding event the country has ever attempted to undertake (Davies, 2009:40). In order to ensure successful outcomes for both South Africa and FIFA, the institutions responsible for overseeing the 2010 FSWC™ preparations and its management were FIFA, the South African Local Organising Committee (SALOC) led by Dr Danny Jordan, the Chief Executive Officer, and Dr Irvin Khoza, the chairperson, the South African Football Association (SAFA), the various national government ministries that are members of the Inter-Ministerial Committee (IMC), the IMC's Technical Coordinating Committee (IMC's TCC) and the Project Management Unit (PMU) within the Department of Sports and Recreation (Davies, 2009:33).

For South Africa to be awarded the right to host the 2010 FSWC™, SAFA as the South African affiliate member of FIFA, was jointly responsible with the South African government for putting together the 2010 FSWC™ bid (Davies, 2009:35) to which the main focus of this chapter now turns.

6.3.1 South Africa's bid for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

In the run up to the 2010 FSWC™ bidding process, South Africa and its LOC pointed to the economic benefits that would accrue to South Africa and the African continent from hosting such an event (Kostopoulos, 2009:70). The idea that 'It is Africa's Time' was a crucial part of the South African bid for the 2010 FSWC™ (Cornelissen, 2004:1301; Marx, 2004:55). In addition, the narratives around South Africa's bid were clearly aligned with the

country's political goals and ambitions, because, from the outset, the government presented the World Cup as an event that would promote economic development and support social rebalancing and nation-building objectives (Dowse, 2011:10). Thus, a major discourse in South Africa's appeal to FIFA was that it was Africa's right to host the games, a notion that fitted in with broader messages of an African Renaissance and the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) asking world leaders to view Africa as more than a tragedy (Cornelissen, 2004:1306; Marx, 2004:60; Riegel, 2010:58).

Various initiatives were established, such as the 2010 African Legacy Programme launched by the African Union (AU) as part of its 2007 International Year of African Football, which together with South Africa, FIFA, the AU, African states and regional economic communities, was tasked to deliver the legacy programme (Dowse, 2011:11). Ultimately, the narratives framed by the South African Bid Committee bore great dividends when South Africa was awarded the rights to host the 2010 FSWC™ (Gründlingh, 2006:26; Kostopoulos, 2009:70; Konrad, Adenauer & Stiftung Partners, 2011:48). The way in which South Africa managed the 2010 FSWC™ event, its successes and failures was widely regarded as an important test case, not only for the African continent, but also for developing countries (NCDO, 2008:8). South Africa's successful bid to host the 2010 FSWC™ posed a unique opportunity for an assessment of the strategic impact of such a large-scale event on a developing economy. This assessment is covered in the following section (Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005:2).

6.3.2 Key strategic priorities of South Africa's campaign for the 2010 World Cup™

In developing an overall sport event strategy, sporting activities have been used as social, economic and political drivers aimed at the development of a sustainable tourism industry

in post-apartheid South Africa (Cornelissen, 2004:1301; Swart, 2005:42). The various developmental priorities identified for the country include economic development, poverty alleviation, job creation, skills development, education, health, safety and security and environmental sustainability (Pillay & Bass, 2008:339; Pillay, Gunny, Wentzel, Sanchez, Viljoen, Kansans, Retake, Barolsky, Amoco, Mugnai & Vivier, 2011:18). It, therefore, suffices to state that preparations for the 2010 FSWC™ were informed by the 2010 legacy projects and national development objectives that included the economic, social, political and environmental drivers as discussed below (Pillay *et al.*, 2011:20).

6.3.2.1 Economic drivers

Socio-economic inequalities, extreme poverty and hunger and high levels of unemployment continue to exacerbate the quality of life of the individual South African and South African society as a whole (Pillay *et al.*, 2011:20). As a result, skills development and job creation were two of the expected benefits from the hosting of the 2010 FSWC™ that could foster economic growth and alleviate poverty in South Africa (Pillay *et al.*, 2011:20); through the following:

a. Infrastructural legacies

Physical infrastructure provision is often cited as a key benefit of mega-events. It encompasses transport infrastructure, stadium construction, landscape improvements and housing developments (NCDO, 2008:15). In South Africa, five new world class stadiums were built and existing stadiums upgraded, IT infrastructure and transport (public transport and infrastructure such as the Gautrain) were improved, hotels were upgraded and new hotels were built in preparation for the 2010 FSWC™ (NDCO, 2008:15). The provision of a

transport infrastructure for the 2010 FSWC™ meant total accessibility to all regions in South Africa which, in turn, could play an important role in the development of the tourism industry and the distribution of facilities, goods and people (Campbell & Phago, 2008:30).

Preparations for the 2010 FSWC™ were considered to have a positive impact on infrastructural upgrade initiatives which included the Maputo Development Corridor, the joint venture between South Africa and Mozambique to restore the historical transportation and trade links between the land-locked northern provinces and Maputo harbour as well as the Coega Industrial Development Zone outside Port Elizabeth, which included the construction of a new deep-water port (Goliger, 2005:175).

b. Increased capital investments

Increased capital investments and enhanced commercial as well as tourist opportunities were viewed as gains that could provide long-term economic benefits for South Africa (Pillay *et al.*, 2011:20). The 2003 Cricket World Cup, hosted in South Africa, generated € 250 million in terms of economic activity (Goliger, 2005:174). In the light of such benefits and in view of the world popularity of soccer, Goliger (2005:174) suggests that there was a widely held perception that the 2010 FSWC™ event would have significant short- and long-term socio-economic impacts. As a result, improvements, related specifically to the transport infrastructure, were considered to be of benefit to productivity in the long-term, thereby leading to an increase in the South African Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of up to R 20 million (Bohlman & van Heerden, 2005:6).

The summary of intangible costs to government, as shown in a study by Grant Thornton in 2003 (Bohlmann, 2006:13) included a negative impact on traffic flows, a negative impact

on residents living close to stadiums, a negative impact on local governments, possible football related violence, an increase in petty crime and the displacement of normal tourism. On the other hand, the study revealed that intangible benefits to government included the interest generated in the country and a rise in its profile, an increase in tourism and direct foreign investment, the possibility of future mega-events, an increase in confidence and levels of pride among citizens, re-use of building materials for housing and relieving some of the pressure on the welfare system (Bohlmann, 2006:13).

According to Pillay and Bass (2008:342), due to the temporary nature of employment opportunities created during the mega event itself, post-2010 urban unemployment is consequently expected to increase and it is anticipated that food and transportation prices could rise permanently (Tilley, 2006:2). In fact, most poor households were unaffected by the 2010 event and the daily hardships of living in shacks, spending large proportions of income on inadequate public transport, labouring for menial wages and feeding the family remain as burdensome as before (Konrad, Adenauer & Stiftung Partners, 2011:59).

c. *Enhanced tourist opportunities*

Around 3.5 million spectators were anticipated in South Africa during the 2010 FSWC™ of which, 1.3 million were expected to be tourists visiting South Africa (Gründlingh, 2006:27). According to Gründlingh (2006:27), the 2010 FSWC™ was a remarkable tourism opportunity for South Africa and for the African continent as a whole. As a result, it was estimated that the South African tourism industry could reap benefits of R 13 billion from three million tourists alone (Magi, 2006:61), because the event could create the opportunity for visitors to extend their stay in order to visit other destinations such as the Kruger National Park, Sun City or the Garden Route (Gründlingh, 2006:27). Providing a

world-class experience to spectators and tourists during the 2010 FSWC™ event was meant to offer the tourism industry the opportunity to use them as trademark ambassadors for South Africa and, in this way, the idea of South Africa as a world-class tourist destination could be promoted and sold extensively, thereby further improving South Africa's tourism potential relative to its competitors (Gründlingh, 2006:27).

d. Promotion of South Africa's image

The promotion of South Africa's image was cited in South Africa's bid for the 2010 FSWC™ (Pillay *et al.*, 2011:20). According to Pillay *et al.* (2011:20), the assumption was that an improved international image would impact positively on future tourism, foreign investment and, thus, generally advance economic development. The publicity would also attract the interest of international investors and corporations (Riegel, 2010:53).

As a result of the popularity of the event, it was foreseen that the media coverage of and focus on South Africa during the run-up to and the actual presentation on the 2010 FSWC™ series would increase at all levels (Gründlingh, 2006:28). National and local sport journalists would have the opportunity to report for the international media, thereby finding themselves in the position that much of what they wrote could be followed and picked-up by an international audience (Auf der Heyde, 2006:22). The 2010 FSWC™, however, was not only seen as a chance to promote positive images, but also to dismantle negative ones (Riegel, 2010:54). For example, despite an endowment of natural beauty and cultural attractions, fear of crime results in South Africa being viewed as an unsafe destination, with a relatively low rating of 60 out of 130 destinations on the World Economic Forum Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (Du Plessis & Maennig, 2009:66).

6.3.2.2 Social drivers

The social drivers of sport mega-events relate to the role of the event in respect of the socio-economic impact on issues such as poverty and urban renewal within the host cities. The 2010 FSWC™, like any other sport mega-event, could be assessed in terms of the role it plays in the improvement of social standards, such as creation of employment opportunities and poverty eradication.

a. Socio-economic legacies of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

Enshrined in the South African bidding blueprint was the fact that the hosting of the 2010 FSWC™ had the potential to accomplish urban development and renewal projects, which were identified as key national imperatives by the South African government (Pillay & Brass, 2008:330). In a socio-economic context, some of the benefits of the 2010 FSWC™ tournament were to be ploughed back into the community in the form of job creation and an improvement in the living conditions of impoverished communities (Labuschagne (2008:10). In addition, the expansion of the police force in terms of personnel and supporting resources highlighted, for example, the huge contribution that could be made towards ensuring the capability of the South African police force to safeguard the 2010 FSWC™ event while, at the same time, continuing with the provision of policing and safety to the public at large after the event (Burger, 2006:46). However, it seems that the majority of jobs created disappeared once the 2010 infrastructure projects were completed and the creation of permanent employment as a result of the World Cup appears limited (Konrad, Adenauer & Stiftung Partners, 2011:58).

b. Improved education

Several World Cup legacy projects could have positive implications for the educational agenda, such as the raising of awareness and the appeal of sports science, sports education and sports management as relevant and attractive fields of study and research (Pillay *et al.*, 2011:21). The 2010 FSWC™ presented an opportunity for South Africa to build social and human capital through the building of skills, experience and exposure, improving environmental understanding, using the 2010 event as an educational tool in geography and introducing values pertaining to hard work, teamwork, fairness and respect for others (The 2010 Football World Cup, 2007:34). Improvements in and the construction of libraries and the installation of Internet connectivity at libraries remain central legacies that could enhance educational opportunities in South Africa (Pillay *et al.*, 2011:21). For example, in those areas used as urban parks by residents and visitors, "... the 2010 FSWC™ Cup also had the opportunity to take kids off the street and engage them actively, teaching them fair play and life skills" (Platzky quoted in NCDO, 2008:16).

c. Improved health and health services

In line with the government's objectives to provide quality health care services and create jobs, the 2010 FSWC™ afforded the Department of Health (DOH) an opportunity to prioritise and fast-track the improvement of public health care (Pillay *et al.*, 2011:21). According to Pillay *et al.* (2011:21), provision of quality health care services includes the upgrade of medical infrastructure and equipment, the advancement of medical services and development and employment of people within the public health care sector. A medical expert, Dr Vergnani (cited in NCDO, 2008:21), suggests that the 2010 FSWC™ could increase the risks of sexual transmittable diseases, such as HIV/AIDS infection,

since it was anticipated that many male fans and an influx of commercial sex workers who were likely to be HIV/AIDS infected, were very likely to visit South Africa. Alternatively, the 2010 FSWC™ was also recognised as a potentially valuable mega-event in helping to deal with the South African epidemic of HIV/AIDS and Tuberculosis (TB) (NCDO, 2008:21).

6.3.2.3 Political drivers

According to Malfas, Theodoraki & Houlihan (2004:216)

“The decision to bid for hosting a sport mega-event, such as the Olympic Games and FIFA Soccer World Cups, is often backed by governments especially when the event provides the potential to pay them back in the form of economic, physical or other benefits”.

The political drivers for hosting the 2010 FSWC™ by South Africa include the following:

a. Political stability

A key tangible development objective and World Cup legacy is the cultivation of political stability and nation-building (Pillay *et al.*, 2011:20). Increasingly, governmental and non-governmental organisations and even the United Nations regard sport as a means for building peace and, social transformation and development (Keim, 2008:343). Similarly, the 2010 FSWC™ was seen as an opportunity to celebrate democratisation, build national unity and reinforce South African identity (Riegel, 2010:57). Therefore, the 2010 FSWC™ was expected to boost the national pride and sense of togetherness of South Africans around a common sporting experience and as hosts to other international community's (Pillay *et al.*, 2011:20).

b. *Nation-building*

The 2010 bid was explicitly connected to celebrating South Africa's democratisation and reinforcing unity between its citizens, as part of an ongoing nation-building project in a deeply divided nation (Riegel, 2010:57). Apparently, the 2010 event was seen as a tool for inspiring national pride and unity in South Africa through building racial, ethnic, gender, class understanding, tolerance and appreciation (The 2010 Football World Cup, 2007:35). In a practical context, the South African government, the SALOC, sports officials and the private sector worked together to create a positive climate in order to ensure that sustainable benefits accrued to South African citizens as a result of the 'spin-offs' of the 2010 FSWC™ (Makgabo, 2006:3; Labuschagne, 2008:10). Optimists envisaged that the 2010 FSWC™ could re-emphasise the goals of sport as a nation builder and harmoniser in South Africa as was the case during the 1995 Rugby World Cup, the 1998/9 All African Games and the 2003 Cricket World Cup (Keim, 2008:344).

c. *Enhanced regional planning*

According to Campbell and Phago (2008:28), community development and national unity were two examples of the social objectives envisaged as a result of hosting the 2010 FSWC™. In terms of regional planning, it means that all the regions in South Africa were to have equal access to resources for further development. Rather than concentrating solely on Johannesburg, Tshwane, eThekweni and Cape Town, the previously disadvantaged regions of Polokwane, Nelspruit, Rustenburg, Nelson Mandela Metropolis (Port Elizabeth) and Bloemfontein (Mangaung), were given equal opportunities to host the 2010 FSWC™ (refer to Figure 7.1 for host cities of the 2010 FSWC™ in Chapter 7) (Campbell & Phago, 2008:28-29).

Job creation, economic growth, improved service delivery and infrastructure development, and the forging of a collective identity needed to be realised and subsequently felt throughout South Africa, and not only in particular locales (Pillay & Bass, 2008:334). Furthermore, Fan Parks and clubs were planned for non-host South African cities and unofficial parks were planned in other parts of Africa (City Press, 2007:16). It was also suggested that neighbouring countries such as Swaziland and Mozambique were to form the bases and practice locations for foreign teams, thereby dispersing economic and benefits for supporters (City Press, 2007:16).

6.3.2.4 *Environmental drivers*

Mega-events can create opportunities for the construction of new sporting facilities as well as improvement of the physical environment of the host city (Malfas *et al.*, 2004:214). However, most important is the potential for the event to catalyse a broader shift to more sustainable lifestyles and production patterns (Konrad, Adenauer & Stiftung Partners, 2011:40).

a. *Environmental impacts of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™*

As a result of an agreement between the Berlin Federal Government in Germany and the South African National Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), signed in December 2006, the sustainable approach to development was incorporated into the 2010 FS WC™ (The 2010 Football World Cup, 2007:31). The South African Organising Committee for the 2010 FS WC™ recognised the need to include environmental sustainability principles in the hosting of the 2010 event and committed itself and the host cities, through the Host City Agreement, to apply these principles in staging the 2010 event

to minimise its ecological footprint through the implementation of a number of greening initiatives (Konrad, Adenauer & Stiftung Partners, 2011:52; Pillay *et al.*, 2011:21).

Based on the lessons learned in the 2006 Germany FIFA Soccer World Cup™ and from various other sport mega-events, such as the Olympic Games, the SALOC for the 2010 event and the South African Government and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) were committed to implementing the lessons learnt. Implementation was strongly focused on water and waste management as well as renewable energy to deliver an event with a minimum ecological footprint (Letsunyane Associates (Pty) Ltd. & Arcus GIBB (Pty) Ltd., n.d.:9; The 2010 Football World Cup, 2007:31-32). Environmental awareness, in general, and the greening initiatives undertaken were to prove to be valuable, direct legacies of the 2010 event for the country (Pillay *et al.*, 2011:21).

6.3.2.5 *Other strategic planning issues for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™*

One of the modern infrastructural challenges host countries of the FIFA Soccer World Cups face is to build up to 10 stadiums with a minimum capacity of 40 000 spectators each (Bohlmann, 2006:20). According to Bohlmann (2006:21), in the wake of South Africa's winning bid to host the 2010 FSWC™, the need to address infrastructure capacity and skills shortage were two of the main concerns. Venter (2006:48) suggests that the national government was acutely aware that South Africa had huge infrastructure problems as well as particularly poor information technology, communication systems and transport, hence, the so-called strategic intervention of AsgiSA (Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa) and Jipsa (Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition).

Since the 2004 general election, the socio-economic development of South Africa was to be performed through the new macroeconomic framework called AsgiSA and Jipsa initiative (Venter, 2006:48). Briefly, the purpose of AsgiSA is to reduce unemployment to below 15% of the economically active population by 2014 with the concomitant intention of halving poverty to less than one-sixth of households (Venter, 2006:48). Therefore, the South African government generously supported the 2010 FSWC™ by sponsoring all the 2010 FSWC™ projects through the ASGISA and JIPSA initiatives (Venter, 2006:48). As a result, these strategic support measures could possibly have had an influence on the marketing and e-marketing of the 2010 FSWC™ to which the focus now turns.

6.3.3 Marketing and e-marketing of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

The SALOC for the 2010 FSWC™ employed a variety of marketing and e-marketing strategies to successfully market the event. These strategies, which have reference to previous sport mega-events and which have been described in accordance with the case studies selected and analysed in Chapter 5, are now considered in relation to the 2010 FSWC™.

6.3.3.1 Major 2010 communication conferences prior to the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ event

A series of the 2010 NCP Conferences, with the theme 'Africa's Time Has Come' were held where key marketing and advertising outcomes and strategic priorities for the 2010 FSWC™ were decided upon (Heath, 2007:2). It was envisaged that the sophisticated ICT requirements of the World Cup would accelerate Internet access for South Africans, in part, through the introduction of digital TV infrastructure (Konrad, Adenauer & Stiftung Partners, 2011:50). As a result, the Department of Communication provided the ICT

infrastructure for the 2010 FSWC™ in order to accelerate reliable and affordable ICT infrastructure for the country (GCIS, 2008:4). According to Heath (2007:2), a common thread that ran through the 2007 to 2010 NCP Conferences, for example, was a commitment to optimise the potential legacies that could be achieved for South Africa and the entire African continent through the successful hosting of the event and the use of the following marketing and e-marketing strategies:

a. Television

Danny Jordaan (2007:9), CEO of the 2010 FSWC™ Organising Committee in South Africa, during the 2010 NCP Conference held on 15th August 2007, stated that TV rights to the amount of R 14.7 billion had already been sold. As a result, the many TV channels that were made available, together with the official broadcasters, ensured that people enjoyed all that the 2010 FSWC™ had to offer online, without payment (Arvind, 2010:2). The South African Broadcasting Corporation (SABC) was the official broadcast partner of the 2010 FSWC™ as had been the case during the 2009 FIFA Confederations Cup (Zwane, 2009:1). South Africa's leading signal distributor, Sentech Limited, committed to the advancement of expertise in information communication and technology in South Africa and rolled-out Digital Terrestrial Television (DTT) to upgrade South Africa's analogue broadcasting infrastructure to a digital-ready terrestrial system in time for the competition (BuaNews, 2006:1). The acting Chief Operating Officer for Sentech, Mr Lindeque, stated that digital TV sets were to become integrated with fixed and mobile broadband networks, thereby allowing viewers to switch easily between watching TV, surfing the Internet or doing online shopping (Lindeque, 2006:1).

A strategic cooperation agreement between FIFA and the African Union of Broadcasting (AUB) was also signed to ensure that the broadcasting of all 64 FSWC™ matches for the 2010 FSWC™ were live on free-to-air TV and radio in 41 African territories in English, French and Portuguese (BuaNews, 2008:1). In addition, Entertainment and Sports Programming Network (ESPN) and SABC teamed up to bring all matches 'live' on TV in the USA, while the BBC and International Television (ITV) in the UK, Canadian Broadcasting Corporation (CBC) in Canada, ESPN-Star Sports and Doordarshan in India were also official broadcasters of the 2010 FSWC™ (Arvind, 2010:2).

b. Radio

During the 2007 to 2010 the NCP Conference, Egbuna (2007:6), the Director General of the Federal Radio Corporation of Nigeria and President of the African Union of Broadcasters (AUB), reinforced the notion that building synergy between the various media organisations was a critical success factor in the successful hosting of the 2010 FSWC™ on the African continent. As a result, an agreement between FIFA and the AUB focused on the advantages of uniting broadcasters to ensure that all sub-Saharan Africans were able to have access to radio and TV coverage for all the events. (BuaNews, 2008:1). An African production centre, the AUB-FIFA Broadcast Academy, was established by FIFA and the AUB at the International Broadcasting Centre in Johannesburg, to guarantee high-quality coverage and broadcasting of the 2010 FSWC™ on HDTV (Jordaan, 2007:9; BuaNews, 2008:1). According to Zwane (2009:1), the SABC also acquired additional infrastructure, such as two digital outside broadcasting vans as well as being involved in various corporate social investment initiatives, such as the distribution of some 20 000 low-cost radio sets to rural communities.

c. *Print advertising media*

The 2010 FSWC™ also utilised inter-text in the printing of advertisements for commercial messages (Conradie, 2011:291). In an inter-text print advertisement, the manner in which the advertisement refers to the event serves to activate specific aspects of a reader's background knowledge about the event and functions by formulating positive statements about the advertised product or service to make readers believe that whatever assumptions were drawn from memories are relevant to the product (Conradie, 2011:294).

One of the print advertisement headlines, for example, was 'The other Trophy from Africa' (Conradie, 2011:297). Here, the 2010 FSWC™ was established as the inter-text on a graphic level in which inter-textuality was most prominent in the 2010 FSWC™ logo, but was also situated in the small soccer ball, which functioned as a symbol of the World Cup (Conradie, 2011:294). The soccer ball was viewed as a symbol rather than an icon, because although it bears a physical resemblance to the object used in the sport, it might be iconic of any soccer tournament.

According to Conradie (2011:298), the headlines in print advertisements, like the one quoted in the previous paragraph, reinforced the association between the products and the 2010 event through metaphors that mapped the prestige and desirability of the 2010 FSWC™ onto the products concerned. Thus, the presence of the 2010 FSWC™ logo provided readers with metaphorical evidence through which the intent to attribute the prestige of FIFA World Cup trophy to products is conveyed (Conradie, 2011:298). Apparently, the usage of an inter-textual reference to the 2010 FSWC™ in print advertisements contained the propositional assumption that, in 2010, the FSWC™ belonged to Africa regardless of the eventual victors (Conradie, 2011:298).

d. Sport sponsorship marketing

The driving force of FIFA's profit motive was and remains corporate partnerships with sponsors who provide the material base for Soccer World Cup events (Riegel, 2010:97). Four international companies, namely, Adidas, Hyundai, Coca-Cola and Sony had already signed partnership rights, lasting until 2014 (Riegel, 2010:97; The 2010 Football World Cup, 2007:17). In the case of South Africa, MTN (Telecommunications Company) and First National Bank (FNB) signed on as national sponsors with the result that more than US\$ 3 billion, in partnership contracts, had been signed for the FIFA Soccer World Cup, which was more than the final figure for the Germany 2006 World Cup (Ajao, 2010:2; The 2010 Football World Cup, 2007:17). Therefore, in the case of the 2010 FSWCTM, great determination was shown, by both the hosting country and the sport governing body, to counter-act ambush marketing tactics which, at the same time, might be regarded as a threat to any future sponsorship market and sport mega-events (Piatkowska & Żyśko, 2010:127). As a result, the South African Parliament enacted wide-ranging ambush marketing legislation to create boundaries for the sport marketing industry (Schwarz, Hall & Shibi, 2010).

Prior to the 2010 FSWCTM, FIFA launched the FIFA Rights Protection Programme aimed at tackling organised ambush marketers, counterfeiters and unauthorised traders, all of whom might seek to profit from an event to which they had not contributed (FIFA, 2010). In South Africa, FIFA's rights Protection Programme used legislative tools to combat ambush marketing. The strategy encompassed registered trademarks of an extensive portfolio under the Trade Marks Act, 194 of 1993 (Piatkowska & Żyśko, 2010:127). The most important trademarks terms included '2010 FIFA World Cup South Africa', '2010 FIFA World Cup', 'FIFA World Cup', 'World Cup', 'World Cup 2010', 'Football World Cup', 'SA

2010', 'ZA 2010', 'South Africa 2010', 'Ke Nako – Celebrate Africa's Humanity', 'Soccer World Cup' and 'Zakumi' (Dean, 2010:19). In terms of Section 34 of the Trade Marks Act, the use of any of these trademarks (or marks that are confusingly similar to them) without FIFA's authority could constitute an infringement of the specific trademark (Piatkowska & Żyśko, 2010:127).

It may be concluded that the organisers of the 2010 FSWC™ wanted to ensure that not only were its official trademarks and other intellectual property rights protected and enforced, but that the exclusive marketing rights of the official sponsors associated with the event were also guaranteed (Piatkowska & Żyśko, 2010:127). However, Dean (2010:19) identified at least three cases in which civil law cases were pursued in the South African High Court on grounds of attempted ambush marketing.

e. *Merchandising and the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™*

During the 2010 FSWC™, Global Branding purchased the licensing and merchandising rights from FIFA and, therefore, controlled the rights for the official licensing of the FIFA World Cup as well as the official licensing of FIFA stores and on-site concessionaires and retail space (The 2010 Football World Cup, 2007:17). The first major international marketing of the 2010 event through merchandising was the unveiling of the 2010 event logo on 7 July 2006 in Berlin before thousands of media representatives and high profile leaders including the Secretary General of the United Nations, the President of the African Union, the South African President and the President of the African Football Association (The 2010 Football World Cup, 2007:18).

f. The Web

One of the outcomes of the 2007 to 2010 NCP Conference was the development and implementation of a user-friendly and easily accessible website as an information gateway and an information tool, along the line of Wikipedia, to enable everybody to contribute to the website and to harness the collective energy towards a shared vision of the 2010 FSWC™ Games (Heath, 2007:2). As a result, there were several useful 2010 websites that could be followed for up-to-date content before, during and after the 2010 FSWC™ tournament, for example, the *www.sa2010.gov.za*, the 2010 NCP website, health website for the 2010 event, *fifa.com*, *mtnfootball.com*, *kickoff.com* and *Supersport.com* where Supersport is a South African multi-channel on DStv (Kekana, 2007:11; Masebe, 2007:18; GCIS, 2008:6; Ajao, 2010:1). All these websites provided updates on the 2010 FSWC™, such as, information on fixtures, results, team news, ticketing, stadiums and host cities, past soccer world cup winners, news headlines, video content and sports talk by sport journalists (Ajao, 2010:3).

g. Mobile applications

South Africans have access to four cellular service providers, namely, Cell-C, MTN, Virgin Mobile, and Vodacom, each of which offers both pay-as-you-go and contract arrangements for cellular phone users (Carlson, 2010:58). According to Carlson (2010:58), these companies participated in a number of initiatives for self-promotion and for promoting the 2010 FSWC™. The MTN, which is the continent's largest cellular operator, pledged \$65 million to the 2010 FSWC™ and planned to deliver tournament highlights to customers's mobile phones (Hesse, 2007:209).

The 2010 FSWC™ delivered full broadcasts on mobile phones and the trend was also towards electronic newspapers and multimedia re-posting (Jordaan, 2007:9). Therefore, it was resolved, during the 2007 to 2010 NCP, that traditional community radio stations, the Internet, mobile phones and social media such as blogs were to be creatively used to ensure that messages reached everybody (Heath, 2007:16). In addition, Ayodale Cole, the founder and CEO of Cole Solutions LLC, an American mobile content and application provider, stated that the 2010 FSWC™ was a showcase for mobile content and applications because a global mobile operator was among the flagship sponsors for the tournament (Cole, 2009:1). Mobile content and application was only a fledging market during the 2006 Germany FIFA Soccer World Cup™. However, the market matured during the 2010 FSWC™ given the fact that South Africa had a massive cellular penetration and a large population of users who were already making use of mobile content and its applications and because fixture and match information via text messaging on the mobile Web, multimedia clips and social networking applications were extremely popular during the 2010 event (Cole, 2009:2).

During the 2010 FSWC™, mobile users of iPhone, BlackBerry and Android, as well as the iPad, were kept up-to-date with all the latest sports news in ten languages including Russian, Chinese and Arabic (Wauters, 2010:1). Therefore, the mobile users managed to keep track of all the events related to the 64 matches of the 2010 event or stayed connected to the latest scores and results with live running commentary through the mobile applications (Wauters, 2010:1). The mobile applications also enabled South African soccer fans to share information and opinions with their friends as many of them were already carrying smart phones with advanced Internet features. The country also had excellent 3G and High-Speed Downlink Packet Access (HSDPA) coverage in its

metropolitan areas (Cole, 2009:2). The major 2010 Communication Conferences that preceded the 2010 event, such as the NCP Conferences regarding the marketing and advertising of the 2010 FSWC™, made a huge contribution to the development of a coordinated and integrated strategic communications plan for the 2010 FSWC™. This plan addressed the shared communication and marketing objectives, yet allowed sufficient flexibility for the specific initiatives of the respective organisations (Nkomo, 2007:15).

6.3 SUMMARY

Since 1994, sport mega-events have become a growth industry all over the world as well as in South Africa. To-date, South Africa has already hosted mega events, such as the 1998 United Nations Commission on Human Rights, the 13th International HIV/AIDS conference in Durban during July 2000 and the WSSD held in Johannesburg in 2002. In addition, South Africa hosted sport mega-events including the 1995 International Rugby World Cup, the 1996 African Cup of Nations, the 2003 International Cricket World Cup, the 2007, the 2009 British and Irish Lions tour, the 2009 Confederations Cup and the 2010 FSWC™ to name but a few. The hosting of sport mega-events in South Africa is perceived to be very prestigious and opportune as these events are used as economic, social, political and environmental drivers to meet developmental priorities identified by the South African government.

Similarly, the 2010 FSWC™ was envisaged as meeting South Africa's developmental priorities, such as creating economic development, enhancing tourism opportunities and fostering nation-building in South Africa and on the African continent at large. As with the previous sport mega-events that were selected and studied in Chapter 5, it emerged, from

the literature, that various marketing and e-marketing strategies, such as TV, radio, print media, sport sponsorship, the website and social media were to be applied for the 2010 FSWC™. It was assumed that the use of in-depth interviews in this study could yield interesting results regarding the actual usage of e-marketing during the 2010 FSWC™.

CHAPTER 7: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter 1	The research problem in context
Chapter 2	The role of mega-events in the tourism industry
Chapter 3	Approaches to and trends regarding the marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 4	E-marketing developments and approaches with reference to sport mega-events
Chapter 5	E-marketing lessons from previous sport mega-events since 2000
Chapter 6	Marketing of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ with particular reference to e-marketing
Chapter 7	Research Methodology
	Research design
	Data collection tool
	Ethical considerations
	Data analysis
	Limitations of the research
Chapter 8	Research findings and discussions
Chapter 9	Conclusions and Recommendations: A strategic framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, attention is given to how the researcher applied the qualitative approach to the problem statement, which was to determine the usage and outcome of e-marketing strategies for the 2010 FSWCTM. In order to answer the research questions, the social survey method was used as the main approach towards providing results for the problem under investigation. The discussion surrounding the description of the research design applied to this study, the population and the nature of the population sample from which the primary data was collected, the research instrument used and the process of designing the research instrument is covered below. The limitations of this study, data analysis process and presentation of research results are also discussed in this section.

7.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The qualitative research design was used to determine the usage of e-marketing strategies and tools for the 2010 FSWCTM. The different types of qualitative research designs are case studies, ethnography, phenomenological studies, grounded theory and content analysis (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:137-144). In respect of the qualitative research design, the researcher provides a brief description of the nature of the research method and the data collection and data analysis strategies adhered to when conducting the research. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:135), qualitative approaches focus on phenomena that occur in natural settings, that is, in the 'real world', and involve studying these phenomena in all their complexity.

In this study, a grounded theory approach was applied, which according to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:142), is the approach that "... refers to the idea that the theory that emerges from the study is derived from and "grounded" in data that have been collected in the field rather than taken from the research literature". According to Glaser and Strauss (1967:1), the tradition of the "grounded theory approach" is that "the discovery of theory from data provides researchers with relevant predictions, explanations, interpretations, and applications." In addition, the grounded theory enables the researcher to do an analysis of data and reconstruction of theory that is richer and more reflective of the content in which participants are situated (Mills, Bonner & Francis, 2006:28). Therefore, the epistemology underpinning the grounded theory is a belief that the researchers construct theory as an outcome of their interpretations of the respondents' stories (Strauss & Corbin, 1994:274; Mills *et al.*, 2006:32).

Since the target population for the 2010 FSWCTM research was dispersed across nine host cities throughout the nine provinces of South Africa as shown in Figure 7.1 (p.170), the in-depth, semi-structured interview approach, which is one of the methods for qualitative research, was applied to this study. According to Lofland and Lofland (1995:18), the goal of in-depth, semi-structured interviews is to elicit from the interviewees rich and detailed material that can be used in a qualitative analysis. The in-depth, semi-structured interview strategy was therefore adopted in this study because of its inherent advantages, such as its capability to enable the researcher to capture the deep meaning of experiences in the participant's own words (Marshall & Rossman, 2006:55). The grounded theory is critical because "theory is grounded in the relationships between data and the categories into which they are coded" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967:18). Therefore, a grounded theory approach was adopted in this study to develop an understanding of the perceptions and

experiences of research respondents regarding the use of e-marketing in sport mega-events.

7.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this section, the discussion is centred primarily on the nature of population sample, the research instrument used to collect the empirical data, the processes used for designing the data collection tool, the data analysis process, the limitations of the research methods applied and the ethical procedures adhered to in determining the usage of e-marketing strategies for the 2010 FSWC™ hosted in South Africa.

7.3.1 The data

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:89), the primary data are often the most valid and the most truth-revealing facts because the truths are not derived from secondary data, but from the primary data instead. For this study, the primary data was collected directly from the population described below.

7.3.2 Population

The in-depth interview survey tools were e-mailed to selected potential respondents across the nine South African host cities for the 2010 FSWC™, namely, Cape Town, Durban (eThekweni), Johannesburg, Bloemfontein (Mangaung), Tshwane (Pretoria), Rustenburg, Port Elizabeth (Nelson Mandela Metropolis), Polokwane, and Nelspruit (Mbombela), prior to when the actual interview would take place. Figure 7.1 (p.170) is a map of South Africa that displays the host cities for the 2010 FSWC™ from which the

selected potential respondents were identified. In order to contact the potential respondents, the 'links' for all the host cities for the 2010 FSWC™ were first obtained from the 2010 FSWC™ website, that is, <http://www.sa2010.gov.za>.

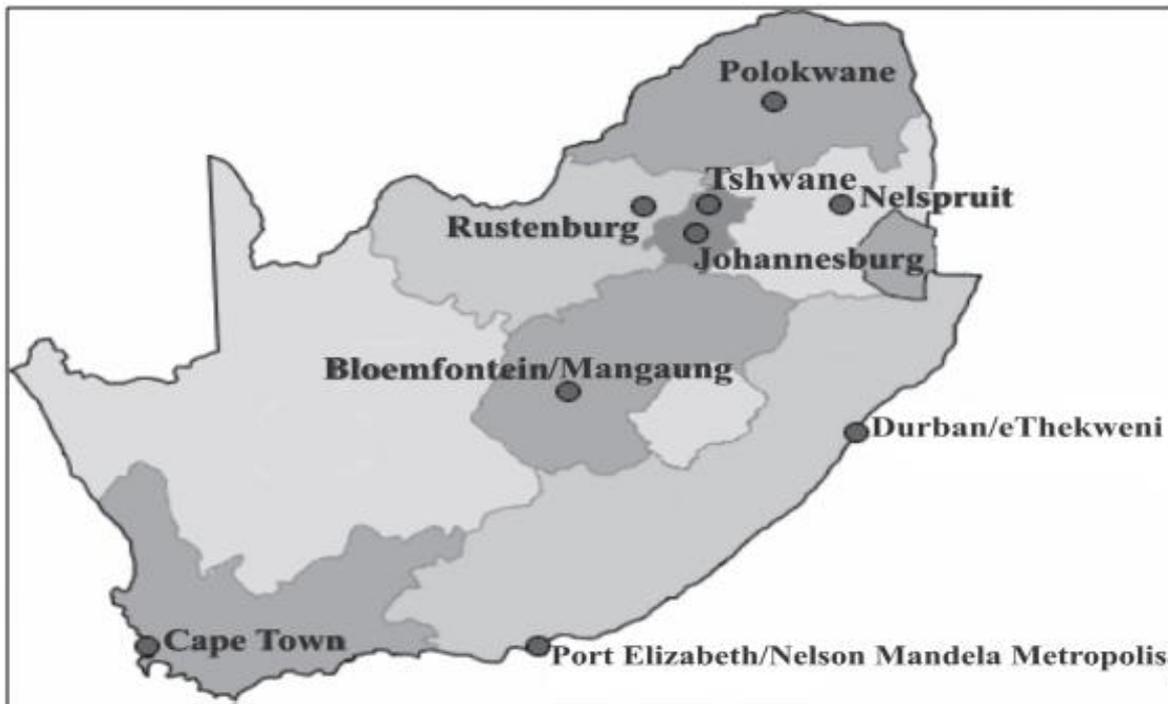


Figure 7.1: South African host cities for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ (Campbell & Phago, 2008:28).

The researcher then made telephone calls to these contact officials in order to identify the potential respondent/s. A telephonic discussion between the researcher and each of the identified respondents took place, after which a formal e-mail introducing the researcher, together with an invitation to participate in the study were sent to the potential respondent/s.⁹ An 'informed consent form for participation in an academic research study, whereby respondents formally agree to participate in this research were subsequently sent

⁹ See Appendices F (i) (CD1) and F (ii) (CD1) for formal introductory e-mails sent to the potential respondents.

to the potential respondent/s.¹⁰ Finally telephonic follow-up calls were made to confirm the actual date and time for each interview.

The pre-event and post-event interviews that were conducted were of two types, namely, face-to-face and telephonic interviews. The type of the interview conducted with the respective respondents was based on locality. On the one hand, in the case of face-to-face interviews, the interviews took place at venues, convenient to the respondent, in the host cities considered to be in close proximity to the researcher's place of abode, namely Gauteng Province.

The face-to-face interviews were all audio-recorded using an Olympus Digital Voice Recorder VN-3500PC together with an Olympus PearlCorder S701 Microcassette Recorder, which was used simultaneously as a back-up for the face-to-face interviews. Throughout the interviewing process, the researcher filled-in the interview questionnaire and, later, listened to the recordings of the equivalent interview in order to ensure that all the issues raised by the interviewee were transcribed in their entirety.

On the other hand, due to logistical reasons, the telephonic interviews were conducted with respondents in the host cities considered to be far away from the researcher's place of abode, namely, Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Durban, Bloemfontein, Polokwane and Nelspruit. Using telephonic interviews with respondents from the above-mentioned 2010 FSWCTM host cities was seen to be cost effective, in terms of both time and avoidance of expensive travelling costs to these cities. Throughout the telephonic interviewing process, the Sony Ericsson K810i Cyber-shotTM cellular phone was used for recording the interview

¹⁰ Refer to Appendix D for an informed consent for participation in an academic study.

sessions while, at the same time, the researcher completed the interview questionnaire. At the end of each telephonic interview, the researcher listened to the recordings of the interviews conducted in order to transcribe them in their entirety.

Pre-event and post-event telephonic interviews were conducted and proved to be very helpful to the researcher. These interviews were conducted for the purpose of determining the intended e-marketing usage for the 2010 FSWC™. Post-event interviews were conducted to obtain data regarding the actual e-marketing of the event to ensure that sufficient data was collected in respect of the research problem. The main purpose of having interviews with the same respondents during the post-event interviews was to check, verify and confirm whether the respondents interviewed during the pre-event interviews managed to apply the e-marketing strategies and tools they had indicated they would be using for the marketing and e-marketing of the 2010 FSWC™. In addition, the post-interviews were intended to determine whether there were any other marketing tools and techniques used by the organisers to market the 2010 FSWC™, besides those mentioned by the respondents during the pre-event interviews.

Unfortunately, the researcher did not manage to get hold of all the respondents interviewed during the pre-event interviews for the post-event interviews. Three respondents interviewed prior to the 2010 FSWC™, from Cape Town, Bloemfontein and Polokwane respectively, could not be contacted for the post-event interview.¹¹

¹¹ Refer to Appendix C for the in-depth instrument used for post-2010 FSWC™ interviews.

7.3.2.1 Nature of the sample

The selection of respondents for an appropriate and informative sample was, of necessity, dictated by the problem under inquiry. In this study, it was impossible to use probability sampling methods in which all individuals or units in the population have an equal chance of being chosen. Essentially, the non-probability sampling method was used, that is, snowball sampling which involves asking each participant or group of participants to refer the researcher to other participants (Neergaard, 2007:266; Merriam, 2009:77; Wejnert & Heckathorn, 2011:474). It was possible to identify a sample of 39 interviewees with whom 21 interviews were conducted prior to the 2010 FSWC™ and 18 later, that is, post-2010 FSWC™.

With the purposeful snowball sampling technique, the researcher was not concerned with the representativeness of the sample with regard to the wider population because specific stakeholder groups were targeted for inclusion in the study (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006:61; Neergaard, 2007:266; Merriam, 2009:78; Daniel, 2012:87). Since the sample was not based on probability sampling methods designed to ensure a representative sample from the wider community of potential respondents, the replies may be somewhat biased and not representative of that wider community. However, the sample was thought to be fairly typical of the wider population of interest and it was also anticipated that it was drawn from people appropriately qualified to yield insights and an in-depth understanding of the usage of e-marketing strategies and tools for sport mega-events with reference to the 2010 FSWC™.

It can be seen from Figure 7.2 (p.174) that the population sample size of 39 respondents consisted of individuals drawn from the National, Provincial and Local Government Sectors

as well as the Umbrella Tourism Private Sector bodies from within South Africa. The sample was comprised of individuals who were holding the positions of Managers and Directors of the 2010 FSWC™, Coordinators and Researchers from DMOs, senior members of the National and Provincial Tourism Organisations and the South African Local Organising Committee (SALOC) for the 2010 FSWC™. The composition of the population sample, therefore, included individuals with expert knowledge; special experience, involvement, and competence in coordination and marketing of sport mega-events.

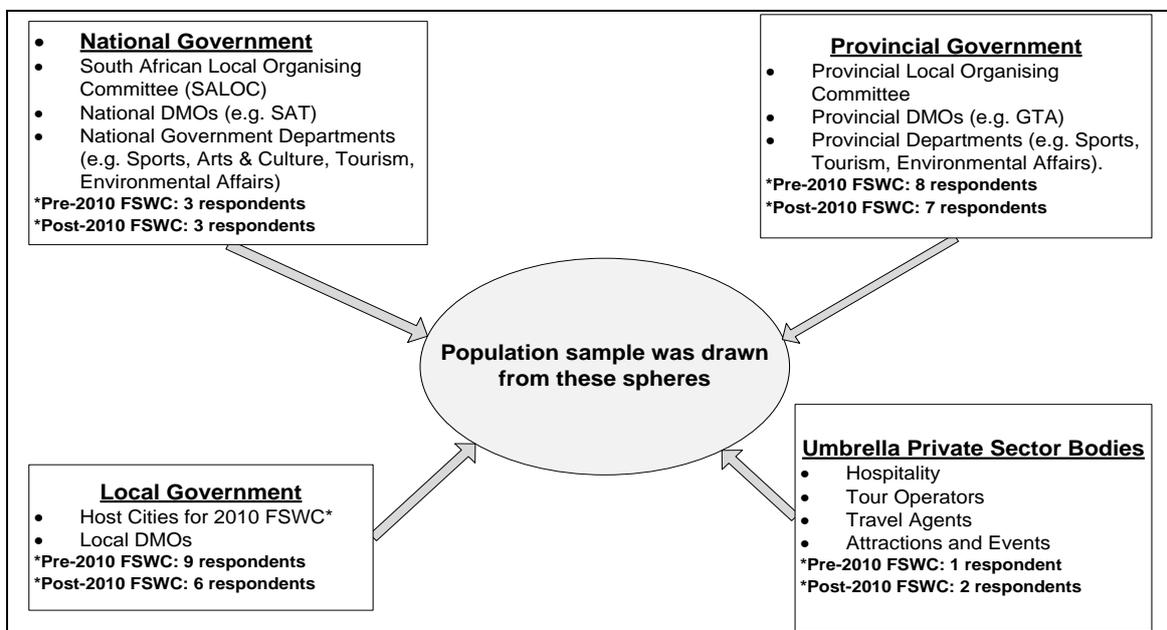


Figure 7.2: The four sectors in South Africa from which the sample was drawn.

The conclusion drawn from the sample profile was that the respondents' replies gave a valuable range of information and insights, because they are experts and decision-makers in the organising and marketing of sport mega-events, such as the 2010 FSWC™. Saturation was achieved as the responses became very repetitive.

7.3.2.2 *Biographical information of respondents*

The respondents were asked to give information about their organisations, the type of organisation and its operation.¹²

7.3.3 Research instrument

An in-depth interview strategy was chosen as the most appropriate tool to enable the researcher to collect the primary data relating to the problem under investigation. According to Peräkylä (2008:351), the researcher can reach areas that would otherwise remain inaccessible as well as gain access to people's subjective experiences and attitudes through the use of in-depth interviews. This interview strategy was applied due to its flexibility in permitting the researcher to fully explore all the factors that underpin the participant's answers, reasons, feelings, opinions and beliefs and in allowing the responses to be fully probed and explored (Legard, Keegan & Ward, 2006:141; Veal, 2006:197).

In addition, the in-depth interview instrument was chosen to ensure that questions were clear, using every-day and simple terminology where possible and that the order of their presentation was logical in order to solicit the desired responses and attain the study objectives. To this effect, the closed questions yielded results of a quantitative nature and the open-ended questions produced replies of a more discursive and qualitative nature.

¹² Refer to Appendices E (i) and E (ii) for information about respondents' organisations.

7.3.3.1 *The process of designing the in-depth interview instrument*

The information about the target population was gathered prior to the process of designing the in-depth interview instrument. During the design of the interview instrument, a series of drafts were produced and these were critically examined until the final version was produced. During this process, a number of guidelines provided by Kvale and Brinkmann (2009:161-175), such as the relevance of questions to participants, their clarity and the avoidance of complex questions, were considered when particular questions were assessed. In designing the in-depth interview instrument, efforts were also made to ensure that only questions related to the study objectives were asked.

Careful consideration was given to what the study wanted to achieve and this ultimately informed the formulation and phrasing of the survey questions and the avoidance of any ambiguity, which could cause misunderstanding, confusion and invalid responses. Fundamental to this survey was an approach that permitted respondents to provide testimony based on case studies from their own experience of having been involved in the marketing and e-marketing of South African sport mega-events. The final version of the interview instrument was therefore kept more streamlined in terms of providing face-to-face or telephonic contact interview platforms.

7.3.3.2 *Choice of key survey questions*

By carefully analysing the research objectives of this study, it was possible to formulate the main general themes to be covered in the survey more explicitly, namely:

- The perceived role of e-marketing in sport mega-events.
- The usage of e-marketing in particular events.

- The usage of e-marketing prior to the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™.
- The outcomes of e-marketing the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™.
- The critical success factors related to the e-marketing of sport mega-events.
- The future of e-marketing.

The finalised in-depth interview instrument was structured in the manner described below:

- **Theme 1:** The perceived role of e-marketing in sport mega-events with 3 questions, that is, 1.1 to 1.3, of which 2 were closed and 1 open-ended.
- **Theme 2:** The usage of e-marketing in particular events with 5 open-ended questions, that is, 2.1 to 2.5.
- **Theme 3:** The usage of e-marketing prior to 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ with 6 questions, that is, 3.1 to 3.6, of which 1 was closed and 5 open-ended.¹³
- **Theme 4:** The outcomes of e-marketing the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ (post-2010 FSWC™).¹⁴
- **Theme 5:** The critical success factors related to the e-marketing of sport mega-events with 1 open-ended question, that is, 4.1.
- **Theme 6:** The future of e-marketing with 1 open-ended question, that is, 5.1.

In addition, the finalised in-depth interview instrument also contained a section for any other comments and/or suggestions regarding the e-marketing of major sport events and the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ in particular, with one open-ended question, that is, question 6. In respect of Biographical information questions 7.1a and 7.1b were designed to characterise the respondents, their current employment, their job title and status.¹⁵

¹³ See Appendix B for the in-depth interview instrument used in the pre-2010 FSWC™ study.

¹⁴ See Appendix C for the in-depth interview instrument used in the post-2010 FSWC™ study.

¹⁵ See Appendices B and C for Q 7.1 on profiles of respondents.

Furthermore, the questions asked in Themes 1 to 6 on the in-depth interview instrument were designed to highlight the six areas identified, from a variety of perspectives. Most importantly, a balance was sought between the questions asked about the perceived role of e-marketing in sport mega-events, the questions pertaining to the challenges posed with regards to the use of e-marketing tools for the 2010 FSWC™ event and those questions about the critical success factors relating to the e-marketing of international sport mega-events.

7.3.3.3 The format of the in-depth interview instrument used

The interview schedule document was a Word document.¹⁶ The interview schedule commenced with a covering letter explaining the focus and aims of the study. Instructions regarding how responses to the questions were to be made were indicated throughout the interview instrument. Questions were also grouped together according to subject matter, that is, the systematic arrangement of questions, in a logical manner, was considered to be important as was the linking of sentences, particularly, when moving on to a different topic. In the introductory part of the interview schedule, the definitions of the concepts most frequently used in the interview, that is, 'e-marketing' and 'mega/major-events' were provided. The purpose of defining these two concepts was to provide the most recent definitions and to clarify the context in which they were used in this survey.

7.3.3.4 Reliability and validity of the in-depth interview instrument used

The interview schedule was drafted and a small-scale pilot study (pre-test) was conducted prior to the survey by means of three face-to-face interviews as a way of testing the

¹⁶ See Appendix B or C for the format of the in-depth interview instrument used.

instrument before distributing it to the target population. From the responses given to the questions by the pre-test respondents, it appeared that the questions were clear and relevant to the objectives of the study. Based on the results of the pilot study, the only minor adjustment made to the in-depth interview instrument entailed the provision of more space for the answers to some of the questions. Therefore, on the basis of the outcome of the pilot study, the in-depth interview instrument chosen for data collection in this study proved to be reliable and valid for yielding the desired research results.

7.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The code of ethics which the researcher adhered to in order to design this research study is both methodologically sound and morally defensible to all those involved on the following grounds:

7.4.1 Ethical issues during the preparatory phase of the design and gaining access

The process of gaining access to potential respondents was open and transparent as the names of the initial contacts were in the public domain and therefore readily accessible. No ethical issues were involved. Once the potential respondents were identified, informed consent from the participants was obtained through the provision of an informed consent letter that not only contained an invitation to participate in the research project, but also gave an indication of the purpose of the study and the intended outcomes. Assurance was given that confidentiality would be strictly maintained and that participation in the project was entirely voluntary. Finally, the respondents were required to sign acknowledgement

that they understood the benefits and disadvantages of participating in the study and were prepared to do so.¹⁷

7.4.2 Ethical issues during data collection

The ethical issues considered during the data collection stage of this research were that:

- Firstly, the researcher was objective by ensuring that the data was collected accurately and comprehensively.
- Secondly, confidentiality and each respondent's right to anonymity were maintained.
- Thirdly, the researcher avoided pressing a respondent for a response.
- In the fourth instance, the researcher made it clear that respondents had the right to decline responding to any question.
- Fifthly, the researcher avoided asking questions that undermined the participant in any way and arranged a time that was convenient for a respondent to be interviewed.
- Finally, the researchers' personal safety was considered by not divulging personal information, such as home and office address or telephone number when collecting primary data alone with the respondents.

7.4.3 Ethical issues related to analysis and reporting

The researcher represented the data honestly in the analysis and reporting of the research findings. As Blumberg *et al.*, (2005) and Robson (2002 cited in Saunders *et al.*, 2007:192)

¹⁷ Refer to Appendix D.

state, ethical issues relating to analysis and reporting, in turn, prohibit the researcher from reporting data that are attributable to a particular individual.

Finally, Finn, Elliot-White and Walton (2000:36) highlight the fact that ethical concerns also relate to what happens to the results of the research. For this research, the research findings are to be used for purposes of the National Research Foundation (NRF) section for Scarce Skills, which falls under the auspices of South Africa's National Department of Labour that approves (or anticipates) the importance or value of the research it funds. Ultimately, the NRF and the University of Pretoria have the rights to the research findings of this dissertation

7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

In this study, choice of the sample was based on carefully selected information-rich respondents in terms of the topic and was not based on rigorous, probabilistic methods of sampling which would yield a representative sample. The sample of respondents was determined by relevant persons who were directly involved in the marketing of the 2010 FSWCTM. Thus, the population targeted for sampling was determined by non-probability sampling as the researcher was reliant on being referred to relevant marketing persons for the collection of the primary data for this research.

The core problems encountered during this study relate to the busy period during which the research had to be conducted due to the 2010 FSWCTM arrangements; in some instances it was not possible for the researcher to interview the same respondents for pre-2010 and post-2010 interviews. It was also not always possible to interview all

interviewees personally due to time and financial constraints. However, should similar studies be conducted in the future, these problems could possibly be handled differently, for example, by conducting such research interviews within appropriate time frames.

However, since the 2010 FSWCTM was to be hosted in nine South African cities, it was probable that data collected from respondents in these host cities could yield insights and an in-depth understanding of the problem under investigation. It could also be argued that the sample drawn was quite likely to give a useful cross-section of views and experiences which was reasonably representative of the wider population involved in the marketing and e-marketing of sport mega-events in South Africa. It is worth noting that the sample was drawn from a large and diverse population because the interviewees were from the DMO's, 2010 FSWCTM host cities, SALOC, South African National, Provincial and Local Governments, National and Provincial Tourism Organisations in South Africa.

Since the respondents who consented to be interviewed were a self-selected sample, the sample may be biased by factors that make some respondents more strongly motivated to participate in the study, for example, people with strong and distinct views and opinions which may not be typical. However, it was just as likely or even more likely that respondents chose to participate because they felt they had valuable insights and experience to contribute to a subject of crucial interest to them in both professional and personal terms. Although it was difficult to assess how representative the sample was, there are no strong reasons to assume they had any particular biases.

Therefore, the conclusions drawn from the sample should be treated with some caution since the sample was not obtained by any rigorous or systematic sampling procedure and

also because of the small size of the sample. Regardless of how representative the sample is of the wider community involved in the marketing of sport mega-events in South Africa, the views expressed by the respondents during the interviews do provide a range of informative data and significant comments and insights regarding the e-marketing of sport mega-events with specific reference to the 2010 FSWCTM. The respondents were also drawn from a range of experts who have extensive and varied experience in the field.

7.6 DATA ANALYSIS

According to Rubin and Rubin (2005:202), qualitative data analysis is not about mere counting or providing numeric summaries. Instead, the objective and goals of the analysis, as Rubin and Rubin (2005:202) state, is to discover variation, portray shades of meaning, and examine complexity and also to reflect on the complexity of human interaction by portraying it in the words of the interviewees, through actual events, and to make that complexity understandable to others. Qualitative data analysis is a means to explain or make sense of the inquiry by eliciting meaning from the data in a systematic, comprehensive and rigorous manner and, therefore, interpreting and theorising that data (Henning *et al.*, 2004:127). One of the aims of data analysis in any qualitative and quantitative research undertaken is to describe both the data and the objects or events to which the data refer (Henning *et al.*, 2004:128).

Data analysis in qualitative research is an ongoing and interactive process and does not proceed in a linear fashion (Henning *et al.*, 2004, 127; Merriam, 2009:269). For this study, data collection and analysis took place simultaneously. Data analysis was also within-case analysis and each case was treated as a comprehensive case. This type of analysis as

Merriam (2009:269) states enabled the researcher to learn much about the contextual variables from the data gathered. The analytical process in this research was grounded theory, which involves the generation of analytical categories and their dimensions from the examination of data and the identification of relationships between them (Glaser & Strauss, 1967:3; Spence, Ritchie & O'Connor, 2003:201).

The significance of grounded theory during the analysis of data is that "... theory is grounded in the relationships between qualitative data and the categories into which they are coded" (Lindlof & Taylor, 2011:252; Corbin & Holt, 2011:114). Therefore, grounded theory is relevant to empirical situations because it provides social researchers with relevant predictions, explanations, interpretations and applications (Glaser & Strauss, 1967:1). The data analysis techniques applied in this study are outlined below.

7.6.1 Data management, compilation and processing of research data

A total of 39 in-depth interviews were conducted of which 21 in-depth interviews were conducted prior to the 2010 FSWC™ and 18 in the aftermath of the 2010 FSWC™. All recorded interviews were transcribed while the manually completed interview questionnaires were also checked for verifying responses. Each transcribed and completed in-depth interview schedule was coded by assigning each a unique case number and the types of data were logged according to 'respondents' and 'themes' so that reference could be made to the original document once the data has been put together.¹⁸ Coding of data is one of the strategies applied by social researchers for judging the credibility of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967:224; Corbin & Holt, 2011:114). Therefore, the process of coding the completed in-depth interview questionnaires by

¹⁸ Refer to Appendices G (CD1) and H (CD1) for the transcripts of replies to the 'open ended' questions

labelling them with unique numbers and dates was very helpful. This was useful when verifying data where the wrong data had been recorded. This strategy also enabled the researcher to manage the gathered data and to easily retrieve it for analysis (Merriam, 2009:173).

7.6.2 Construction of categories and themes

According to Marshall and Rossman (2006:158), generating categories refers to the identification of salient themes, recurring ideas or language, and patterns of belief that links people and settings together. Glaser and Strauss (1967:230) state that social researchers must ensure that the categories of the theory generated are meaningfully interrelated, because this increases the probability of its credibility being accepted by the readers. For this study, six themes or categories for the data collected were generated during the designing of the interview instrument.

The interview instrument was used to gather information about the perceived role of e-marketing in sport mega-events, the usage of e-marketing in particular events, usage of e-marketing in the 2010 FSWCTM, outcomes of e-marketing the 2010 FSWCTM, critical success factors related to the e-marketing of major international sport mega-events and the future of e-marketing. All these six categories facilitated the highly organised data gathering process and are clearly outlined in paragraph 7.3.1.2. In order to uncover patterns and themes evident in the setting and points of view expressed by participants, the researcher searched for internal convergence and external divergence.

7.6.3 Presentation of the research results

Glaser and Strauss (1967:231) state that by detailing the many similarities and differences of the various comparison groups precisely, the researcher is enabled to know if the theory generated from the research findings is applicable to the research question. For this research, the research question was to determine the role of e-marketing strategies and tools for sport mega-events with particular reference to the 2010 FSWC™. The interpretation of empirical data in this research was based on who the researcher interviewed, who talked to the researcher, what diverse groups were compared and the kind of experiences the researcher had with the respondents interviewed.

In presenting the research results, the researcher used illustrations and in some instances the illustrations are accompanied by figures to present data as evidence for the conclusions that were drawn. As Glaser and Strauss (1967:229) suggest, the researcher quoted directly from the interviews.

7.6.4 Judging the theory's credibility regarding this research

Glaser and Strauss (1967:233) state that the theory generated from data can be applied and adjusted to many situations through the provision of sufficient facts to guide the readers' thinking, understanding and research. The researcher "... uses the theory to discover new theory, not to correct or test older theory, and once new theory is discovered and developed, any modification of an older theory would occur" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967:235). For this research, deductions were made from the research findings to determine the role of e-marketing strategies in future sport mega-events. The researcher anticipated that the theory generated from the data could be applied to the successful e-

marketing of future sport mega-events. Ultimately, the theory generated from data in this research could be applied by marketers of sport mega-events to future sport mega-events. In turn, this could enable marketers of sport mega-events to identify the best e-marketing practices to be applied for the optimal usage of e-marketing in future sport mega-events.

7.7 SUMMARY

The research methodology, including the processes of designing the research instrument used for data collection in this study, was explored. The grounded theory was applied and essentially, the non-probability sampling method, that is, snowball sampling was used to identify and obtain the respondents who were interviewed in this study. The ethical considerations adhered to in this study, such as gaining access to the respondents and the ethical issues prior to and during the data collection process, were outlined to ensure that this research was conducted in a methodologically sound and morally defensible manner. The data analysis process applied in this study, namely, the grounded theory approach, as well as how the research results were to be presented, was also discussed. Finally, the limitations associated with this study were also outlined.

CHAPTER 8: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter 1	The research problem in context
Chapter 2	The role of mega-events in the tourism industry
Chapter 3	Approaches to and trends regarding the marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 4	E-marketing developments and approaches with reference to sport mega-events
Chapter 5	E-marketing lessons from previous sport mega-events since 2000
Chapter 6	The 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ with reference to e-marketing
Chapter 7	Research Methodology
Chapter 8	Research findings and discussion
	Perceived role of e-marketing in sport mega-events
	Usage of e-marketing in previous flagship sport events in South Africa
	Usage of e-marketing in the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respondents' intended e-marketing initiatives for the 2010 FIFA Soccer world Cup™
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outcomes of e-marketing the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™
	Future of e-marketing
Chapter 9	Critical Success factors related to the e-marketing of international sport mega-events
	Conclusions and Recommendations: A strategic framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents findings, regarding the use of e-marketing, obtained from respondents who were interviewed across the nine South African host cities of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ (2010 FSWC™). The perceived role of e-marketing in sport mega-events is discussed and examined with particular reference to the respondents' experience in their usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events previously held in South Africa. The respondents' intended e-marketing initiatives for the 2010 FSWC™ are also discussed, followed by the actual use of e-marketing during the 2010 FSWC™. Comments and suggestions regarding the future of e-marketing in major international sport events are also provided, after which the critical success factors related to the e-marketing of major international sports events are covered.

8.2 PERCEIVED ROLE OF E-MARKETING IN SPORT MEGA-EVENTS

E-marketing is defined in Chapter 1 as one of the key components of e-commerce, which can be viewed as a modern business practice that is involved with the marketing of goods, services, information and ideas via the Internet and other electronic means to achieve marketing objectives (El-Gohary, 2010:216; Hooda & Aggarwal, 2012:108). In this section, the perceived role of e-marketing in sport mega-events has been determined by assessing the respondents' involvement and their marketing roles in major international sport events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009.

8.2.1 Involvement of the respondents in major international sport events preceding the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

With regard to the respondents' involvement in major international sport events in South Africa, the replies clearly show that all 21 respondents were involved in the marketing of one or more flagship sport events in South Africa as indicated in Figure 8.1. These are regarded as the flagship sport events in South Africa, because of the global media coverage they received. It is interesting to note that ten of the respondents had also been involved in the marketing of domestic sport events in South Africa.¹⁹

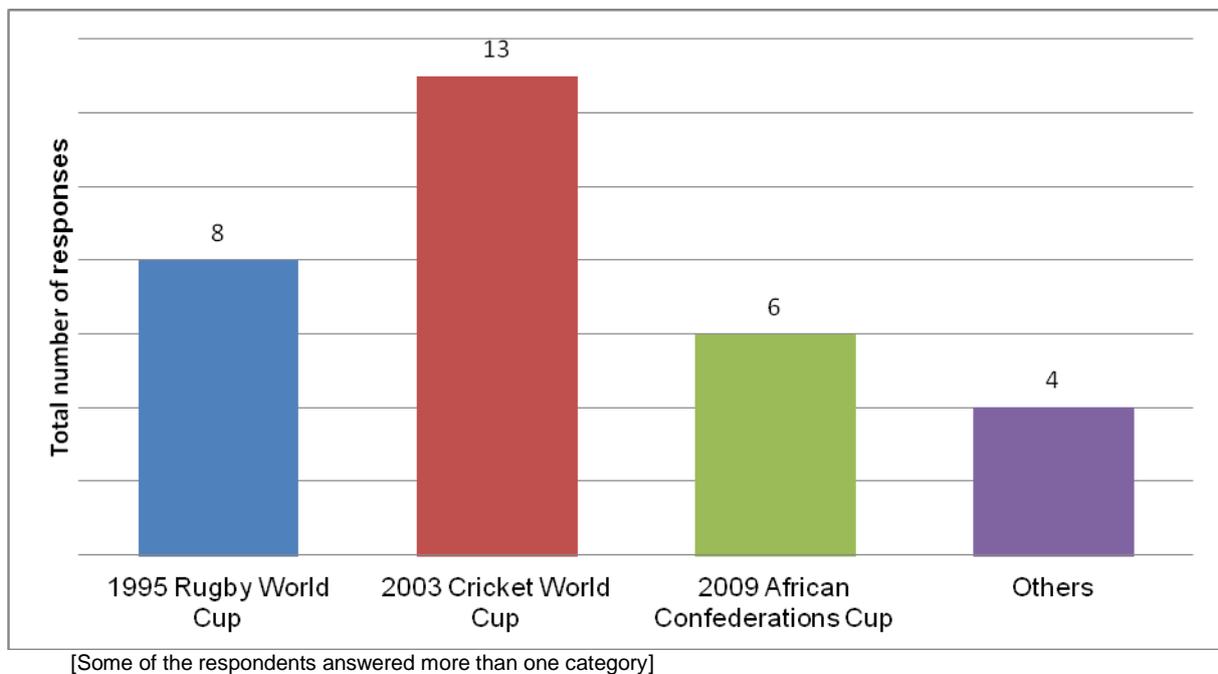


Figure 8.1: The flagship sport events the respondents were involved with in South Africa

8.2.2 Marketing roles in major international sport events

As stated in Chapter 2, destinations develop, facilitate and promote events of all kinds to meet multiple goals, such as to attract tourists, to serve as a catalyst for increasing the

¹⁹ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q1.2 for the respondents' responses.

infrastructure and tourism capacity of the destination, to foster a positive destination image and contribute to general place marketing and to animate specific attractions or areas (Getz, 2008:406). All the respondents confirmed that their marketing role in the major international sport events in South Africa was **to market South Africa** as a tourist destination, **to attract tourists into South Africa** and **to market (previous) major sport events** held in South Africa during the last 15 years.²⁰

8.2.3 E-marketing techniques used in major international sport events

Events such as sport mega-events are now delivered through a variety of new marketing platforms (as discussed in the literature review). These new marketing platforms include websites, online commentaries, digital video, cellular phones and social networking media, such as blogs, podcasts, YouTube, Twitter and Facebook, which create the opportunity to market the sports mega-events not only to live, but also to virtual customers (Volkmer, 2009:9; Ratten & Ratten, 2011:618).

8.3 THE USE OF E-MARKETING IN PREVIOUS MAJOR SPORT EVENTS

An overall perspective on the usage of e-marketing in previous major sport events held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009 is outlined in this section. This is done with particular attention being paid to the e-marketing tools used, the purpose for which e-marketing tools were used, the stages at which e-marketing tools were used, the successes derived from the usage of e-marketing techniques or tools in these events, the positive e-marketing lessons learnt and the e-marketing challenges arising from these previous sport events.

²⁰ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q1.2 for the respondents' responses.

The discussion on the respondents' views about what they would do differently when using e-marketing tools for future major sport events are also covered in this section.

8.3.1 E-marketing tools used in previous major sport events held in South Africa (1995 - 2009)

E-marketing is understood to be one of the technologies that adapts marketing strategies into the Web environment. Therefore, e-marketing tools are the core elements of e-marketing technology. Figure 8.2 indicates the e-marketing tools used in sport mega-events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009.

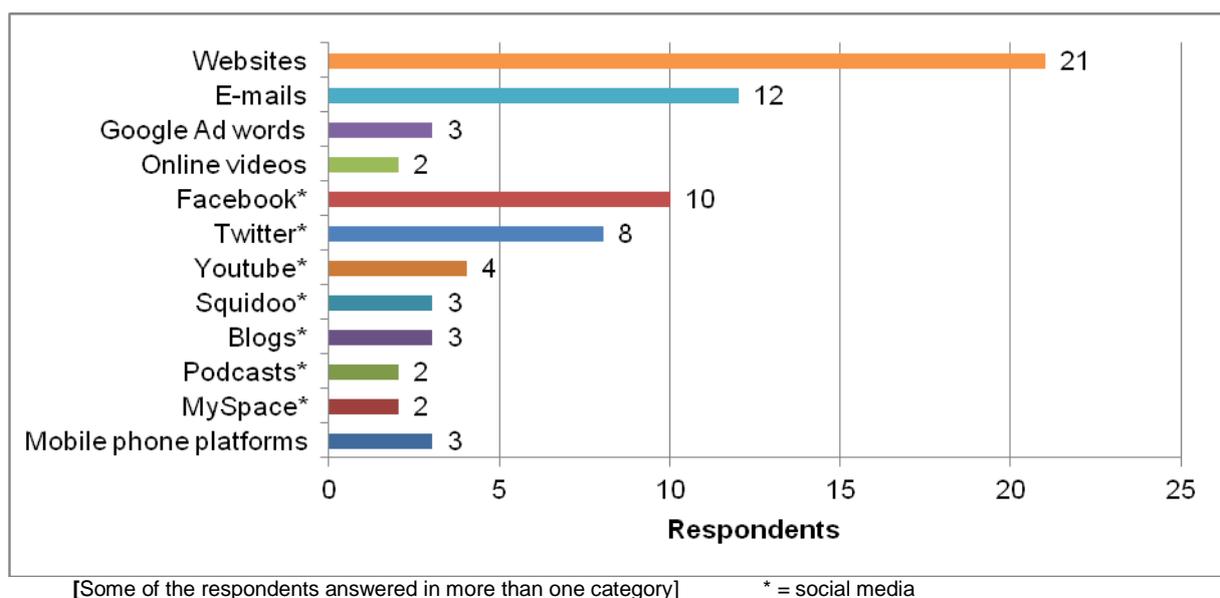


Figure 8.2: E-marketing tools used in previous major sport events held in South Africa in the last 15 years.

It can be seen from Figure 8.2, that the **website** and **social media** were used most frequently, while **mobile phone technology** was used to a lesser extent during the South African sport mega-events that were held during the last 15 years. The websites used during these events were mainly those from different organisations, such as National, Provincial and Local Governments and Destination Marketing Organisations as well as

other bodies involved in the events. Apparently, the website technologies that were mainly used in these events include E-mails and Google Add-words. With regard to the social media, Facebook and Twitter appear to have been used extensively, while YouTube, Squidoo and Blogs were only used partially. In order to confirm that e-marketing tools were used during the South African sport mega-events from 1995 to 2009, one of the respondents stated that:

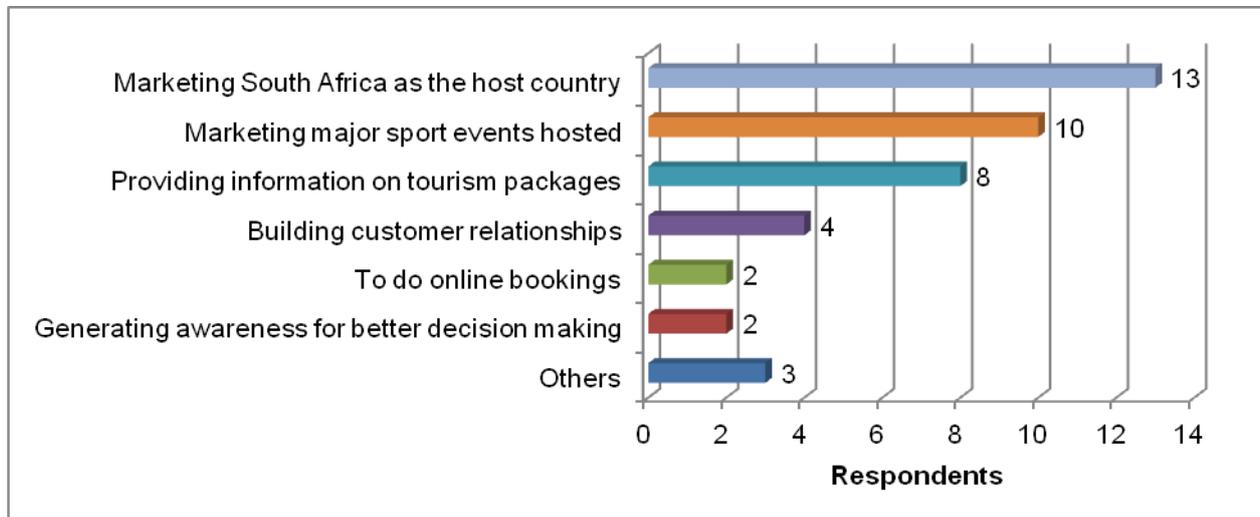
“... Internet, cell-phone, and all the social networks (Facebook, Twitter, MySpace etc.), were means deployed to catch up with the demand as a result of interest in the City Business Model of delivering the tournament” (Q2.1: Respondent 19).

8.3.2 The purpose and the stage of e-marketing usage in major sport events held in South Africa (1995 - 2009)

As highlighted in the literature review, e-marketing is much more than just the Web as it involves other technologies that enable customer relationship management, market research, analysis, enterprise resource planning, sales activity, supply chain management, text messaging and digital television. It became apparent that e-marketing was used for a variety of purposes during the major sport events previously held in South Africa during the last 15 years.

It is reported in the literature that browsers, such as Internet Explorer and Netscape to access Web documents and Yahoo directory, were introduced into the Internet during 1995 to 2000 period (Nik, 2008:15; Beal, 2001:1). As a result, it became easier for users to make use of graphical navigator for surfing the Web. As shown in Figure 8.3 (p.194), 13 respondents stated that e-marketing was used in previous sport mega-events **to market**

the host country and ten respondents stated that they were used to market sport mega-events.



[Some of the respondents answered in more than one category]

Figure 8.3: The actual purpose for what e-marketing was used for in previous major sport events held in South Africa in the last 15 years

In affirmation of the above two of the respondents stated:

*“Post, during and pre-event. Well, there are two main things: **One** was to be able to get people understand what South Africa has to offer, so is not just the football. So, as a destination we wanted to highlight what South Africa as a destination has to offer to people and fans. The **second** thing is that we actually ran our **competition** with an incentive for people to come into South Africa”* (Q2.2: Respondent 2); and

“Well, we were using the Internet in particular to market the city. Basically we used it to display information so that people could acquire information on issues, such as accommodation and entertainment opportunities besides watching soccer games...” (Q2.2: Respondent 11).²¹

²¹ Refer to Appendix H (CD1): Q2.1 for the respondents’ responses.

It emerged that e-marketing was used as a marketing platform by way of displaying and disseminating information, such as the preparations surrounding sport mega-events, event ticket procurement, accommodation, event schedules, parking and safety and security measures. In this regard, during 1995 to 2000, e-marketing was used in previous major sport events to disseminate information about products and services related to these major sport events.

It is reported in the literature that the years 2001 to 2005, represent a period of advanced use of the Internet for marketing and of e-commerce growth, especially business-to-business (B2B) e-commerce. (Turban *et al.*, 2008:8-10; Nyheim & Connelly, 2012:77). As shown in Figure 8.3 (p.194), four respondents stated that e-marketing was used for **building customer relationships** while two respondents stated that it was used in previous major sport events for **generating awareness for better decision making**. One respondent confirmed this by stating:

“The email part of the website was used to get contributions from the public. Preference centre in the website allowed people to register and indicate what their interests were in relation to a particular event...” (Q2.2: Respondent 1).

Therefore, during this period, e-marketing was used by sport marketers in major sport events for relationship marketing. This affirms reports in the literature that during 2001 to 2005, e-commerce improved customer service and customer involvement in a way that enabled sport fans to engage in visiting sport websites to obtain game results and shop for merchandise (Bickel, 2012:5).

Technological advances and the use of the Internet led to an increase in online social media during 2006 to 2009 and even beyond this period (Bickel, 2012:6). According to

Williams and Chinn (2010:422), social media are tools, platforms and applications that enable consumers to connect, communicate, and collaborate with others. For example, YouTube, Google, Twitter, Facebook and Blogs are reported in the literature, as the most commonly utilised social media sites used by sport fans for communication purposes (Zagnoli & Radicchi, 2008:4). As shown in Figure 8.3 (p.194), two respondents stated that e-marketing was used **to do online bookings** in major sport events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009.

“... E-marketing is fully integrated in South African Tourism marketing strategy; and the public and tourists used it for their bookings of accommodation and travel. The tourists also use it for information...” (Q2.2: Respondent 3); and

“... We used them mainly for awareness generation, and sometimes we placed packages online for tourists to book online or we basically used them for transactional purposes” (Q2.2: Respondent 6).

During 2006 to 2009, it appears that e-marketing, particularly social media sites, were used to communicate with sport fans, publish and disseminate sport related information, check the availability of sport products, provide sport products service customisation, provide personalised sport services, allow collaboration between spectators of sport mega-events and for online shopping for sport products, such as travel, match and airline tickets. Evidently, this shows that the Internet increasingly became an advanced multi-use vehicle for the marketing of sport mega-events as was reported in the literature (Bickel, 2012:5).

Little mention was made about the use of e-marketing for other purposes during some of the previous flagship sport events, such as to drive traffic to the promotional websites. With regard to the stage at which e-marketing was used, 16 respondents reported having

used e-marketing tools **throughout** the previous flagship sport events held in South Africa, that is, **pre-, during** and **post-events**, while five respondents cited that they used e-marketing tools primarily **during** these sport mega-events.

8.3.3 Successes derived from using e-marketing in major sport events in South Africa (1995 - 2009)

The assertion by Kocaoglu and Anderson (2003:3) that "... when technology is properly used and managed, it leads to the reshaping of the world for the benefit of humankind, whereas if it is not managed well, humankind becomes a slave to it" was highlighted in Chapter 1. Similarly, benefits are perceived to have been derived by both organisations and customers through the use of e-marketing technology. The successes or benefits arising from the use of e-marketing in previous flagship sport events held in South Africa are covered in this section. E-marketing benefits derived from the usage of e-marketing for the sport mega-events previously held in South Africa during the last 15 years, include the following factors.

8.3.3.1 *Efficient interactive communication with customers*

One of the perceived e-marketing benefits is that e-marketing technology enables organisations **to create interactions by customising information** for individual customers. Linh (2010:9), for example, states that e-marketing has auto responders, e-mail and frequently asked questions (FAQ) from which customers can look for the answers to some of the more commonly posed questions. In turn, this allows customers to design products and services that meet their specific requirements. Eleven respondents stated

that e-marketing enabled them **to communicate successfully with customers** during previous flagship sport events.²²

It emerged that e-marketing is good for sharing positive stories about major sport events timeously, because users can login and receive information at their finger tips. This finding is supported by one respondent who stated that:

“... the negative intentions that were intended at derailing the country and its host cities to lose focus and time to prepare for the prestigious tournament were largely extinguished by the use of e-marketing tools” (Q2.3: Respondents 19).

Therefore, it appears that e-marketing is appropriate for marketing major sport events, because it enables the sport fans and customers to access sport related information on time and in a form that can be easily understood and processed. Users can also give feedback about products and services by posting comments on the sites.

8.3.3.2 Reduction of marketing costs

Using traditional mass media for marketing, such as face-to-face sales people, TV and the print media, like national newspapers and magazines, are often more costly in reaching target markets than e-marketing. Unlike traditional mass media, e-marketing **reduces the cost of marketing**, because information is provided on media platforms, such as websites and social channels which are less expensive than telephone or regular e-mail. Furthermore, e-marketing **reduces the administrative costs** of processing, distributing, storing and retrieving paper-based information because services are done online. Three respondents raised this issue as one of the successes derived from using e-marketing in

²² Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.3 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.3 for the respondents' responses.

previous flagship sport events.²³ In this regard, e-marketing appears to be perceived as a cost effective technology that could be used for the successful marketing of future major sport events.

8.3.3.3 Improvement in customer relationships

One of the issues that became clear is the fact that e-marketing can **improve customer relationships**. It was mentioned, in the literature review, that e-marketing enables customers to interact with other customers in virtual communities, that is, groups of individuals linked on the Internet, where they can exchange ideas, compare experiences and receive quick and accurate feedback (George, 2008:389). E-marketing is important in that it entails communication and customer relationship management techniques that **add customer value** and **builds long-term customer relationships with existing customers**.

Twelve respondents agreed that e-marketing in previous flagship sports events assisted them to build customer relationships with fans. One respondent, for example, stated that:

“The social networking here in the district has worked very well ... Your engagement with people on face-to-face level is quite critical...” (Q2.3: Respondent 5).

The fans visiting host cities could use e-marketing tools to login and find details of contacts in case they wanted more information about the hosts or the major sport events.

²³ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.3 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.3 for the respondents' responses.

8.3.3.4 E-marketing reaches large spectator numbers

Another perceived benefit derived from using e-marketing, is the fact that e-marketing offers **ways to gain new customers**. As a result, e-marketing is seen as a means **to expand the marketplace**. Fourteen respondents agreed with this statement and highlighted the fact that e-marketing appears to be critical for the marketing of sport mega-events since it allows organisations to reach spectators who may not otherwise be accessible.²⁴ In support of this finding, two respondents stated:

“E-marketing is very successful as we get responses from international and national investors whom we would not have reached on a one-to-one basis contact” (Q2.3: Respondent 11); and

“By utilising all these various tools we created additional visibility and also additional traffic to our website” (Q2.3: Respondent 13).

From the respondents’ perspective, it is essential that sport marketers strive towards using e-marketing in future major sport events so that they are in a better position to market these events to the many sport fans and tourists who are some of the major users of e-marketing technology.

8.3.3.5 E-marketing provides transactional platforms for online spectators

E-marketing platforms are described as media that provide online services for customers and organisations to perform online transactions. Four respondents stated that they had used e-marketing tools in previous major sport events held in South Africa **for transactional purposes**, such as bookings for accommodation, making travel

²⁴ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.3 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.3 for the respondents’ responses.

arrangements and the purchasing of match tickets.²⁵ An important factor in the e-marketing of major sport events is that spectators and tourists can use this technology to find services that are available within the host countries and do online bookings for the services in which they are interested. In turn, this may be good for future major sport events, because e-marketing could be used to minimise the time and administrative costs related to services for these events.

8.3.3.6 E-marketing tools are convenient to use

The convenience derived from using e-marketing tools, such as Blogs and Facebook, allows individuals to write and post comments online that are then read and replied to by others. Of crucial importance is the fact raised by three respondents (Q2.3: Respondents 3, 15, 16) that **e-marketing tools are convenient** and **more accessible** to the public than traditional mass media, such as cable TV, which is expensive for advertising major sport events and which also broadcasts matches of major sport events through commercial time slots.²⁶ One of these respondents stated that:

“We live in an information technology age, and as such convenience in communication through the utilisation of technology, such as the website becomes imperative. Imagine social networking platforms like Facebook and Twitter; they have brought the global village even closer” (Q2.3: Respondent 16).

Indeed, e-marketing tools could be considered in the e-marketing of future major sport events due to the convenience these tools offer to users in terms of accessing information about such events.

²⁵ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.3 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.3 for the respondents' responses.

²⁶ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.3 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.3 for the respondents' responses.

8.3.4 E-marketing lessons learnt and e-marketing challenges from previous major sport events held in South Africa

In determining the positive e-marketing lessons learnt from, and the e-marketing challenges experienced during the flagship sport events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009, the assumption was made that the respondents could have possibly acquired some experience and skills regarding the usage of e-marketing, since they had been involved in the flagship sport events previously held in South Africa.

8.3.4.1 The positive e-marketing lessons learnt

A summary of positive e-marketing lessons learnt from sport mega-events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009 features in Figure 8.4.

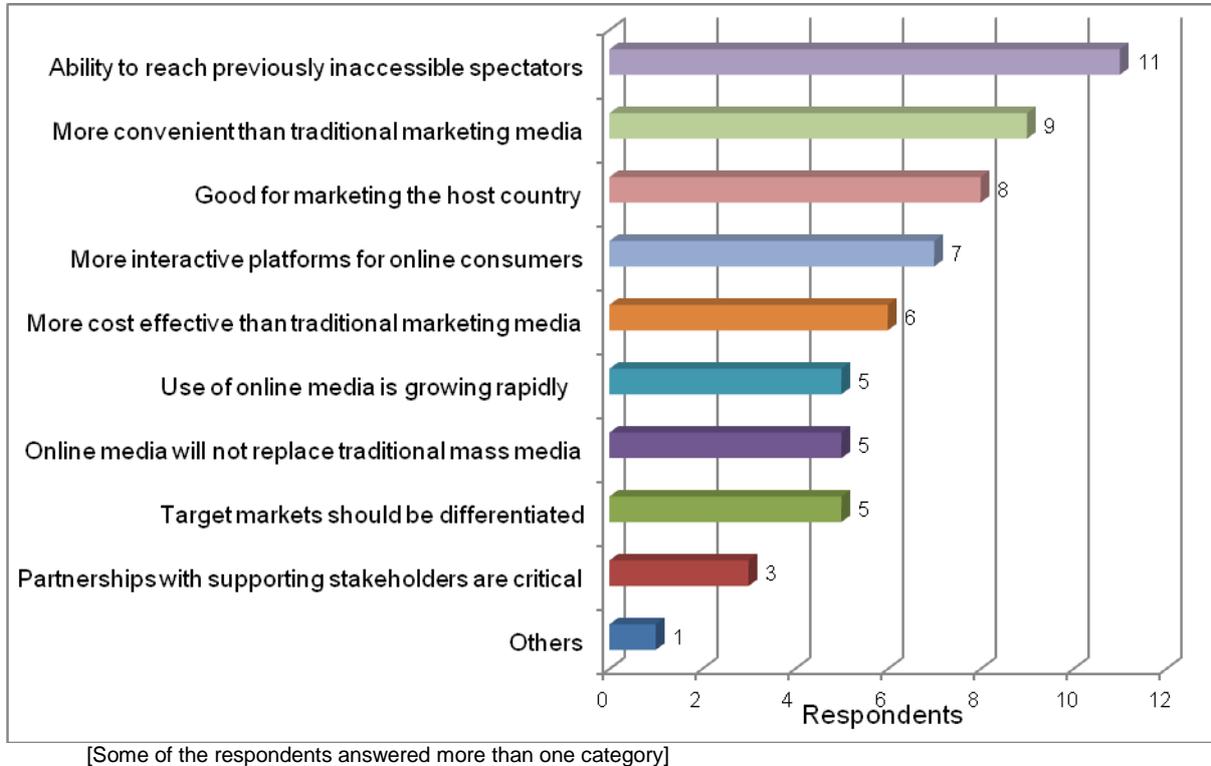


Figure 8.4: The positive e-marketing lessons learnt from previous major sport events

It can be seen from Figure 8.4 (p.202), that the positive e-marketing lessons learnt from sport mega-events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009 include the following:

a. *E-marketing can reach previously inaccessible spectators*

E-marketing provides **access to desirable target markets** and allows organisations to reach customers that may not normally be accessible (as discussed under 8.3.3.4). As indicated in Figure 8.4 (p.202), eleven respondents raised this fact as one of the positive e-marketing lessons they had learnt in the major sport events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009.²⁷ One respondent stated that: *“E-marketing can reach a large number of people (globally) within a short period of time”* (Q2.4: Respondent 4) and another respondent mentioned that *“More people do come to the events and this shows that we achieved the objective of attracting many people to the events”* (Q2.4: Respondent 8). From these perspectives it appears that e-marketing is good for major sport events, since it has the potential to reach and attract local, national and international sport fans and tourists.

b. *E-marketing is more convenient than traditional marketing platforms*

One of the e-marketing benefits to consumers centres mostly on convenience, speed and the ability of customers to buy customised products and personalised services online (as discussed under 8.3.3.6). As shown in Figure 8.4 (p.202), nine respondents mentioned that e-marketing tools offer great convenience for the marketing of sport mega-events because **they are more readily available.**²⁸ In turn, the online buying process made

²⁷ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.4 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.4 for the respondents' responses.

²⁸ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.4 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.4 for the respondents' responses.

available by e-marketing takes decision-making by consumers into account during the information, searching and purchasing decision process.

c. *E-marketing tools are good for marketing the host destinations*

It was discussed in Chapter 2, that the main rationale for staging most sport events is the event-related publicity and the desired subsequent impact of increased tourism that is best regarded as an indirect economic impact (Coalter & Taylor, 2008:17). From Figure 8.4 (p.191), it can be seen that eight respondents agreed with this statement by highlighting the fact that e-marketing tools were used **to market the host destinations** of previous flagship sport events held in South Africa by providing more detailed information on tourism offerings within these destinations.²⁹ Important to destination marketing through major sport events, **is the media coverage associated with sport mega-events**. In this regard, e-marketing seems to be the appropriate technology for the marketing of host destinations to international markets through major sport events.

d. *E-marketing offers interactive platforms for online consumers*

It is interesting to note that seven respondents, in Figure 8.4 (p.202), commented that the Web and social media channels are the types of media that offer **the platforms for virtual communities to interact**.³⁰ Unlike traditional media, e-marketing tools are regarded as the most appropriate tools for marketing major sport events as fans can interact on matters related to these events, such as match schedules and results (as discussed under 8.3.3.3).

²⁹ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.4 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.4 for the respondents' responses.

³⁰ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.4 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.4 for the respondents' responses.

e. E-marketing is more cost effective than traditional marketing platforms

From Figure 8.4 (p.202), it can be seen that six respondents stated they have learnt that e-marketing reduces the transactional costs of marketing major sport events from flagship sport events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009, because **it is much cheaper than traditional marketing platforms** (as discussed in 8.3.3.2).³¹ What seems to be critical in the e-marketing of major sport events is that e-marketing tools are far more affordable compared to traditional marketing platforms and, therefore, ensures a cost-reduction experience by consumers. One of the respondents confirmed this by stating that:

“... Also, e-marketing is much cheaper than traditional marketing and the value is much bigger than adverts on television, and you can also measure your return investment on the market much more accurately” (Q2.4: Respondent 2).

f. The use of online media for sport marketing is growing rapidly

It was stated in the literature review, that new digital broadcasting media, such as YouTube and digital videos were first used at the Athens 2004 Olympic Games and, subsequently, at the Turin 2006 Olympics. These new marketing communication platforms were seen to have created the opportunity to market sport mega-events to virtual customers. It is shown, in Figure 8.4 (202), that five respondents stated that: *“... many people have now started using more of the communication gadgets in the online space”*.³² The main issue is that **online marketing** and **virtual campaigns have become popular** and **a valuable part of the marketing activity** of every important brand. What is critical is that the growth of online media is significant for the marketing of major sport events to global sport fans that are inclined towards using modern e-marketing technologies.

³¹ Refer to Appendix G (CD1) : Q2.4 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.4 for the respondents' responses

³² Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.4 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.4 for the respondents' responses.

Marketers of sport events should, therefore, make more use of e-marketing tools in order to successfully market such events.

g. Online media platforms will not replace traditional marketing media

One of the e-marketing lessons learnt from the major sport events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009 was that e-marketing is a new means of reaching customers and is taking its place alongside the more traditional modes of marketing, such as print, TV, radio and mail. Five respondents in Figure 8.4 (p.202) confirmed that “... *there is a very strong relationship between sports and mass media*”.³³ According to them, the successful marketing of previously held major sport events was achieved through the **integration of e-marketing tools and traditional mass media** in that:

“Online platforms will not replace traditional platforms, such as, television and print. Online platforms such as e-marketing act as a supporting mechanism to interact with consumers. It is easy to get target markets with online platforms...”

(Q2.4a: Respondent 1).

h. E-marketing is good for reaching differentiated target markets

It was found in the literature review that the interactivity and precise targeting capability of e-marketing satisfies a wider range of needs and has driven growth in comparison with traditional media. According to Nik (2008:29), e-marketing is good for the customisation of almost every product that is on offer. From the respondents’ replies, it became clear that **target marketing** for online customers is one of the key features of e-marketing, because e-marketing tools can target thousands, if not millions, of potential customers at a relatively

³³ Refer to Appendix H (CD1): Q2.4 for the respondents’ responses.

low cost. It can be seen, in Figure 8.4 (p.202), that five respondents stated they had learnt that e-marketing was capable of marketing flagship sport events previously held in South Africa to different target markets.³⁴ Two of these respondents highlighted the following:

“One should develop comprehensive, but clear campaigns with an integrated approach that are also consistently used to communicate with target markets. Differentiating different target markets and designing unique messages is also important...” (Q2.4: Respondent 6); and

“The positive lesson learnt is that you enjoy a quick turnaround time because almost all targeted companies and individuals are playing in the same space of e-marketing...Through e-marketing one has a deep reach because it is also much targeted, unlike casting a wide net like with the traditional marketing tools” (Q2.4: Respondent 16).

Therefore, the conclusion drawn from the respondents' experiences was that e-marketing tools appear to be the best for major sport events since they can reach anyone, everywhere, within a short space of time.

i. Partnerships with the relevant supporting stakeholders are critical

As discussed in the literature review, one of the critical success factors related to e-marketing during the Sydney 2000 Olympic Summer Games was the conducting of promotions jointly with supporting stakeholders (IOC, 2001:1). It can be seen from Figure 8.4 (p.202), that three respondents raised this fact. What seems to be important is that **collaboration with relevant supporting stakeholders** and a **common shared vision of the Games** is critical for optimal usage of e-marketing in major sport events.³⁵

³⁴ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.4 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.4 for the respondents' responses.

³⁵ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.4 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.4 for the respondents' responses.

j. E-marketing tools offer transactional platforms for online spectators

From Figure 8.4 (p.202), it can be seen that only one respondent, who was a General Manager for Provincial Tourism Services stated that the lesson learnt from previous flagship sport events was that e-marketing tools can be utilised as transactional communication tools. This is reflected in the comment:

“E-marketing allows packaging for potential tourists to purchase online” (Q2.4: Respondent 6).

Although the fact that online shopping is becoming popular amongst online customers (George, 2008:377; Linh, 2010:10), as was discussed in the literature review, surprisingly, only one respondent stated that e-marketing in sport mega-events may also be used for shopping on the Internet. For example, **to disseminate booking information, to direct opportunities for ticket sales and to provide booking information** about other **licensed services** to sport fans and other users (as discussed under 8.3.3.5).

k. Other comments on successes derived from using e-marketing in previous major sport events

In terms of any additional remarks, four respondents made **interesting comments** in their responses to the question regarding the successes derived from using e-marketing tools in the flagship sport events previously held in South Africa.³⁶ Such comments referred more to **the e-marketing challenges** rather than to the successes derived from the use of e-marketing technology. It appears that these respondents did not have any idea as to what benchmarks could be used to determine the successes derived from the usage of e-

³⁶ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.3 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.3 for the respondents' responses.

marketing in previous major sport events. The following statements highlight what two of these respondents stated.

“It is very hard to measure especially with marketing or to be absolutely accurate in measuring the impact of e-marketing because we were also using regular marketing tools, such as, Posters and Score Boards” (Q2.3: Respondent 7); and *“Tools are difficult to gauge. People seem to be listening, but in our case there are no direct sales feedbacks”* (Q2.3: Respondent 21).

It was assumed that if the successes derived from using e-marketing in future major sport events are to be determined, then perhaps it is crucial **that a strategic framework for measuring e-marketing successes** is established in advance and made known to the sports marketers. It is envisaged that this could serve as a guideline for sport marketers to benchmark, monitor and evaluate the e-marketing successes derived from the use of e-marketing strategies in major sport events.

8.3.4.2 E-marketing challenges from previous major sport events

It was demonstrated in Chapter 1, that emerging technologies represent considerable new challenges, which need to be mastered in the context of strategic and, specifically, in technology management (Ji-wu, Lu-cheng, Jian & Weng-guang, 2007:2140). The usage of e-marketing, like any other technology, is associated with some challenges. A summary of the e-marketing challenges emerging from the sport mega-events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009 is presented in Figure 8.5 on p.199 and includes the following:

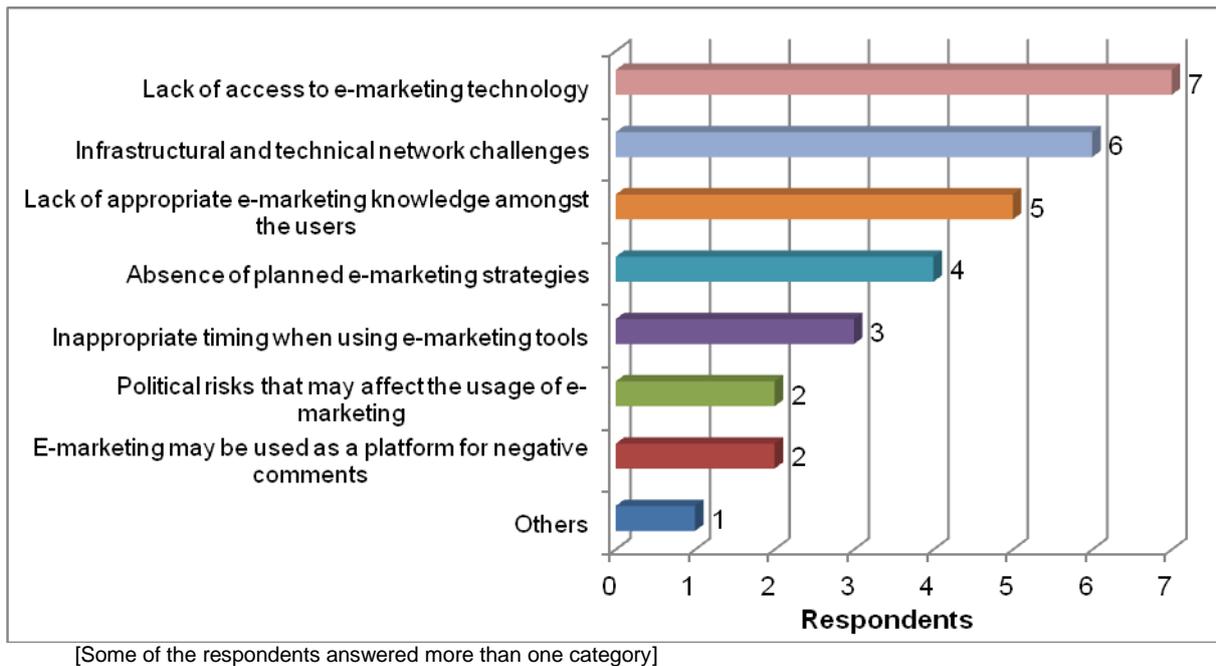


Figure 8.5: E-marketing challenges in previous flagship sport events

i. Lack of access to e-marketing technology

As shown in Figure 8.5, seven respondents stated that other members of the public, especially in rural areas, did not have access to e-marketing technology for previous flagship sport events in South Africa.³⁷ The following statements highlight the fact that access to e-marketing technology was one of the e-marketing challenges encountered during the South African sport mega-events held from 1995 to 2009.

“I won’t really call it negative, but a challenge. There are instances whereby some sectors of the community still are devoid of Internet access and reach becomes a challenge” (Q2.4: Respondent 16); and

“The other negative input is that there is still a substantial number of people that does not have access to some of these techno-gadgets and that number cannot be taken lightly” (Q2.4: Respondent 19).

³⁷ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.4 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.4 for the respondents’ responses.

It is important for sport marketers of major sport events to note that **easy access to e-marketing technology** by users is critical for the successful e-marketing of sport mega-events. Sport marketers must ensure that e-marketing techno-gadgets are easily accessible to the users whenever e-marketing is used in promotional campaigns surrounding major sport events.

b. Infrastructural and technical network challenges

Contrary to the discussion in the previous paragraph, one of the e-marketing challenges in previous major sport events was related to infrastructural and technical network challenges in areas that already had the infrastructure. It is apparent that one of the key factors to the success of e-marketing sport mega-events is **an infrastructure with sufficient bandwidth** to handle large volumes of sport related information. Six respondents stated that they learnt about this issue during previous flagship sport events held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009, as demonstrated in Figure 8.5 (p.210). The statements below are examples of what the respondents stated in confirmation of the issue:

“There are more challenges on the technical site of the website, for example, downloading of information from the website is slow, and I could not elaborate further” (Q2.4: Respondent 1); and

“Connection breakdowns can be nightmares; nothing moves once such plug-in...It is for that reason that other means of mass communications (community radio stations, print media were deployed)” (Q2.4: Respondent 15).

c. Lack of appropriate e-marketing knowledge amongst the users

During the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games, sport marketing was constrained by a lack of information and communication amongst the stakeholders (Garcia, 2001:213). As indicated in Figure 8.5 (p.210), five respondents highlighted the fact that one of the e-marketing challenges emerging from the major sport events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009 was the ineffective use of e-marketing technology due to a lack of appropriate e-marketing knowledge by stakeholders. The statements below are representative of the finding stated above.

“For South Africa, e-marketing growth is very slow because South Africans do not understand the full use of it” (Q2.4: Respondent 3); and

“... Not all segments targeted are conversant with the e-marketing platforms” (Q2.4: Respondent 16).

What is critical is that all stakeholders involved in the e-marketing of major sport events **must have e-marketing knowledge** in terms of **what e-marketing technology is, how it works** and **what it is capable of doing**. It is envisaged that appropriate knowledge of e-marketing technology could enable sport marketers to optimally use e-marketing technology in major sport events.

d. Absence of properly planned e-marketing strategies

A lack of e-marketing plans and, most importantly, a lack of effective integration of marketing plans, featured as one of the e-marketing challenges encountered in the promotions of the Sydney 2000 Summer Olympic Games in Australia (Garcia, 2001:213). Four respondents in Figure 8.5 (p.210) raised the fact that sport marketers must employ **e-marketing strategies** when using e-marketing for future major sport events. It is assumed

that well planned e-marketing strategies for major sport events could assist in enabling sport marketers to successfully use e-marketing technology in future.

e. *Inappropriate timing when using e-marketing tools*

It was found that three respondents, in Figure 8.5 (p.210), stated that the e-marketing success during previous major sport events was hindered by inappropriate timing when using e-marketing for these events. Two of these respondents confirmed this by stating that:

“The timing of using e-marketing tools is a problem, for example, what events to use to target the market, and we tend to lose due to this” (Q2.4: Respondent 8);

and

“Unfortunately, not enough time in advance was allowed for proper planning and execution” (Q2.4: Respondent 12).

Similar to the challenges facing strategic marketing around events, **planning in advance** could ensure that e-marketing tools are used at the right time when e-marketing major sport events. This could be very helpful in terms of making correct decisions on **what, how, when** and **which e-marketing tools to use** and **for which major sport events**. Indeed, this could assist sport marketers use e-marketing tools appropriately when e-marketing for future major sport events.

f. *Political risks that may affect the usage of e-marketing*

As was discussed in the literature review, sport mega-events can be used as a political ‘football’ between parties for political gain, such as to garner votes or official support and guarantees promised that do not materialise (Theodoraki, 2011:190). Two respondents, in

Figure 8.5 (p.210), stated that the effective usage of e-marketing in previous flagship sport events held in South Africa was hindered by political risks or challenges.

“Complaints of a political nature should be handled with great care and as an opportunity to address wrong perceptions” (Q2.4: Respondent 6): and

“The big one for me is how indecisiveness particularly on the part of the political principals can adversely affect sound planning at the level of implementation”

(Q2.4: Respondent 9).

It appears that when e-marketing is used in major sport events, sport marketers must **be aware** and **cautious of political challenges** that could stifle the effective usage of e-marketing in major sport events. The identification of these political risks could ultimately inform the designing of **strategies to manage such political challenges**, if experienced, when e-marketing is used in major sport events.

g. E-marketing may be used as a platform for negative comments

According to Bickel (2012:7) and Balliol and Hutchinson (2010:398), one of the risks regarding the use of social media is that it is impossible to control the information that is displayed on these sites. Two respondents, in Figure 8.5 (p.210), raised an important issue, by stating that e-marketing tools were, in some instances, used for publishing negative or bad comments about the major sport events. It is imperative, for marketers of sport events to be aware that e-marketing tools may sometimes **be open to misuse** and can be used to communicate incorrect perceptions about major sport events. For example, social-economic issues, such as high crime rates, security or pandemic disease may be used and publicised through social media to discredit a specific sport mega-event. It is crucial that the users of e-marketing technology **read any published information related to major sport events with open and critical minds**.

“The blogs may be used by people to make nasty comments about the events or organisations” (Q2.4: Respondent 3) and

“Negative or bad comments can occur on social tools about organisations or sport events” (Q2.4: Respondent 8).

h. Failure to use cellular phone technology efficiently

It is interesting to note that little was mentioned about the failure to use cellular phone technology in previous flagship sport events (as discussed under 8.3.1). One respondent, who was a Director for the 2010 FSWC™ Operations in Local Government, stated that cellular phones were not sufficiently used in e-marketing previous major sport events held in South Africa.

“I guess we haven’t used cell phone technology...The Website we used is more for international tourists, and we haven’t used cell phone technology, which can be a very useful tool in South Africa for the local people” (Q2.4: Respondent 12).

It appears that it is important for sport marketers to know and understand that **mobile technology** has become one of the **key e-marketing technologies** and, therefore, the **e-marketing success** of future major sport events also depends on the use of this technology.

8.3.4.3 Respondents' comments on what they would do differently when using e-marketing tools for future major sport events

The respondents were given scope to express their opinions regarding what they would do differently when using e-marketing tools for future major sport events. The respondents mentioned a wide range of comments in this regard, such as:

a. There must be greater usage of online media in major sport events

One of the positive e-marketing lessons learnt during previous flagship sport events was that the use of online media for sport marketing is growing very rapidly (as discussed under 8.3.4.1). Nine respondents stated that there must be **a greater usage of social media** at future major sport events, while three respondents commented that **mobile phone platforms** must be used sufficiently when e-marketing future major sport events.³⁸ What appears to be a critical factor in promotions surrounding major sport events is the need to **leverage the usage of e-marketing tools** in major sport events.

b. Planning in advance when using e-marketing is important

One of the e-marketing challenges experienced in previous major sport events was that the e-marketing success of these events was hindered by **inappropriate timing** when using e-marketing tools (as discussed under 8.3.4.2). Four respondents agreed that **proper timely planning** is critical when using e-marketing tools and highlighted the fact that it is imperative that planning for the use e-marketing tools in major sport events must be done in advance to ensure that e-marketing tools are used at the right time. Two of the respondents stated:

³⁸ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.5 for the respondents' responses.

“I would ensure that all systems are in place well before the events, so that we can receive good rankings for major search items. Plan more for post events items, which are hard to plan for by using data from previous events” (Q2.5: Respondent 17), and:

“I would plan properly on how and where to use e-marketing tools” (Q2.5: Respondent 20).

c. *Designing proper e-marketing strategies is critical*

A business strategy for every organisation is necessary to ensure that organisational business objectives are realised. Similarly, **designing a proper e-marketing strategy or e-marketing plan** appears to be of critical importance when using e-marketing in major sport events. This was confirmed by two respondents. One stated that:

“I would not change the strategy but it would be part of the strategy to use Facebook and E-mail system for the future. However, there will be a need to refine the strategy” (Q2.5: Respondent 21).

The other mentioned that the best thing to do for future major sport events when using e-marketing is: *“To have an e-marketing and communication strategy together as part of the plan”* (Q2.5: Respondent 17).

d. *An integrated e-marketing approach is critical*

An integrated e-marketing approach that allows e-marketing tools to be integrated with traditional mass media was mentioned as one of the positive e-marketing lessons learnt during previous flagship sport events (as discussed under 8.3.4.1). This issue was also discussed in Chapter 5, where it was indicated that an integrated

e-marketing approach was applied in Vancouver during the e-marketing of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games. Five respondents highlighted this fact as well. It is crucial that **an integrated e-marketing approach** is seen as part of the e-marketing strategy to be adopted and applied in future major sport events. With an integrated approach, it is envisaged that sport marketers could enable the stakeholders involved in promotional campaigns surrounding major sport events, to work together when using e-marketing tools in future.

It is also important to note that three respondents made interesting comments regarding what they would do differently when using e-marketing tools for future major sport events. For example, one of these respondents stated:

“I would not change the strategy but it would be part of the strategy to use Facebook and E-mail system for the future. However, there will be a need to refine the strategy” (Q2.5: Respondent 21) and another:

“I would not do anything different regarding the tools I had been using. But, I would ensure that tools are linked to other websites which are, for example, Tourism websites and business community websites to be able to use them more effectively” (Q2.5: Respondent 1), while the third responded: *“Nothing”* (Q2.5 Respondent 7).

The assumption from two of the three statements **is that something could be done differently**, such as designing the e-marketing strategy for future events.

e. *E-marketing content should be consistent and current*

As discussed in Chapter 5, Vancouver won the 2010 Winter Olympic Games Bid because (Vancouver 2010) its Bid Committee managed to provide consistent and specific

messages to the IOC members and the public about these games (Cameron, 2005:2). The **dissemination of consistent and current information** appears to be critical in the e-marketing of sport mega-events. Five respondents felt that e-marketing tools seem to be the right tools to disseminate consistent and current information related to major sport events.

f. *Packaging products and services for online consumers is critical*

One of the perceived e-marketing benefits, mentioned in Chapter 3, is that e-marketing offers ways of packaging tourism products by differentiating between products through packaging for tourists. **Packaging of tourism products and services for online consumers** appears to be critical when using e-marketing for future major sport events, as highlighted by two respondents. One of the respondents stated: “...*Growth must be towards central booking system/e-commerce, for example, for buying and packaging for tourists*” (Q2.5: Respondent 4), while another responded with: “*I would use packaging for consumer booking in real time using credit cards*” (Q2.5 Respondent 6). Packaging products for the online fans of major sport events and tourists is critical in terms of enabling them to make well informed decisions regarding the services surrounding the major sport events. This is critical for the successful e-marketing of major sport events.

g. *Innovative partnerships with relevant stakeholders are critical*

The establishment of partnerships with relevant supporting stakeholders was mentioned as one of the positive e-marketing lessons learnt in previous major sport events held in South Africa (as discussed under 8.3.4.1). In Germany, for example, during the Germany 2006 FIFA Soccer World Cup™, additional support came from various associations, such

as football associations, which assisted with the distribution of additional promotional material, for example, films and flyers (Brauer & Brauer, 2006:15). It is imperative for the e-marketing of future major sport events that strategic planning through **collaboration with strategic and supporting partners** is seen to be a necessity. In this regard, one respondent stated:

“...I would ensure that tools are linked to other websites which are, for example, Tourism websites and business community websites to be able to use them more effectively” (Q2.5: Respondents 1).

This statement highlights the fact that partnerships with other stakeholders, such as accommodation developments, travel operators, DMOs and other Tourism Organisations, could ensure that stakeholders are constantly up-dated with the developments regarding the major sport events to be hosted. Four respondents raised this point as one of the critical factors to consider when using e-marketing for future major sport events.

h. E-marketing messages should be specific and relevant for the target markets

Target marketing was cited as one of the positive e-marketing lessons learnt in previous flagship sport events (as discussed under 8.3.4.1). One respondent stated that:

“Target markets are to be clearly differentiated and the message and language should be different when addressing audiences. The focus should be both at international and local markets, and integrated messages should be clear and focused” (Q2.5: Respondents 4).

Two other respondents commented on this issue as well. What appears to be critical is that when using e-marketing tools for future major sport events, sport marketers must ensure that they are used to **disseminate specific e-marketing information about major sport events** in such a way **as to reach different target audiences**, such as

accommodation providers (e.g. hotels, lodges and Bed & Breakfast establishments), distribution channels (e.g. tour operators and travel agencies), transport providers (e.g. airlines and car rental companies) as well as the spectrum of consumer targets who are the main stakeholder groups in major sport events.

i. Dedicated and skilled e-marketing personnel is critical

During the Beijing 2008 Summer Olympic Games, the modelling dynamics of EUTV Net's system was both complicated and complex (Georgantzas *et al.*, 2008:16). As a result, the EUTV Net's system required a modelling team at EUTV Net to accomplish the task of capturing the processes required to complete the cycle of services purchased, services rendered and revenues received by clients during the Beijing 2008 Games. Three respondents highlighted the fact that dedicated and skilled e-marketing personnel are critical when using e-marketing in major sport events.³⁹ One of these respondents stated that:

"I would essentially assemble a matrix team with the necessary skills and experience complement to ensure efficient delivery through an effective project implementation war room. Often there tends to be a disastrous gap between technology and marketing people; with the one group not quite understanding or even failing to fully collaborate with the other...One of the critical team members would be a trade specialist that works with industry in ensuring that the right experiences are packaged and availed timeously" (Q2.5: Respondents 9).

It appears that **dedicated e-marketing personnel** with **specialised e-marketing knowledge** could be required for the effective and efficient usage of e-marketing tools in future major sport events (as discussed under 8.3.4.2).

³⁹ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q2.5 and Appendix H (CD1): Q2.5 for the respondents' responses.

j. A dedicated e-marketing budget must be allocated

As discussed in the literature review, **financial risk** is one of the many challenges associated with the hosting of sport mega-events (Matheson, 2006:21; Coalter & Taylor, 2008:33). Two respondents (Q2.5: Respondents 2, 8) stated that funds must be made available for e-marketing when used in major sport events.⁴⁰ As a result, a **budget** allocated specifically **for e-marketing initiatives** seems to be critical in the e-marketing of major sport events. The e-marketing budget could possibly be used for installing the infrastructural network and other services required for the successful usage of e-marketing technology in major sport events.

8.4 THE USAGE OF E-MARKETING IN THE 2010 FIFA SOCCER WORLD CUP™

A discussion on the usage of e-marketing in the 2010 FSWC™ is covered in this section. The assumption made was that the respondents might have learnt about the challenges facing e-marketing as well as the best practices used in e-marketing in previous major sport events which could be used for the 2010 FSWC™. Therefore, it was critical to determine how best the respondents could apply their e-marketing experiences to the 2010 FSWC™. In determining the usage of e-marketing in the 2010 FSWC™, attention was then paid specifically to the respondents' intended e-marketing initiatives for the 2010 FSWC™ and the potential outcomes of e-marketing the 2010 FSWC™.

⁴⁰ Refer to Appendix H (CD1): Q2.5 for the respondents' responses.

8.4.1 Respondents' intended e-marketing initiatives for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

It is important to note that the respondents' intent regarding the usage of e-marketing for the 2010 FSWC™ was determined by focusing on the e-marketing tools intended for the 2010 FSWC™, the purpose for which e-marketing was intended and the anticipated challenges or problems regarding the usage of e-marketing for the 2010 FSWC™. A detailed discussion on the respondents' intended e-marketing initiatives for the 2010 FSWC™ is explored in this section.

8.4.1.1 Assessment of the intent to use e-marketing for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

As mentioned in Chapter 3, since 2000, "... computer users with access to personal computers were already accessing sport information, such as sports scores online via the websites" (Brown, 2003:49). Therefore, an assessment of the respondents' intent regarding the use of e-marketing for the 2010 FSWC™ was aimed at verifying whether the respondents intended using **e-marketing technology in the promotional campaigns** surrounding the 2010 FSWC™.

All 21 respondents stated that they intended to use e-marketing tools for the 2010 FSWC™. This decision could be attributed to the e-marketing experiences they gained about the potential role played by e-marketing during the previous major sport events. In addition, the respondents intended to make more use of online media for the 2010 FSWC™. It could also be assumed that the respondents may have acquired a better

knowledge of **e-marketing technology** and **how best to use** e-marketing technology for future major sport events.

8.4.1.2 E-marketing tools intended for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

Websites, social media and mobile technology have become the key e-marketing tools in sport mega-events (as discussed under 8.3.1.). It can be seen from Figure 8.6, that these tools were intended for use for the 2010 FSWC™ in order to market this event globally.

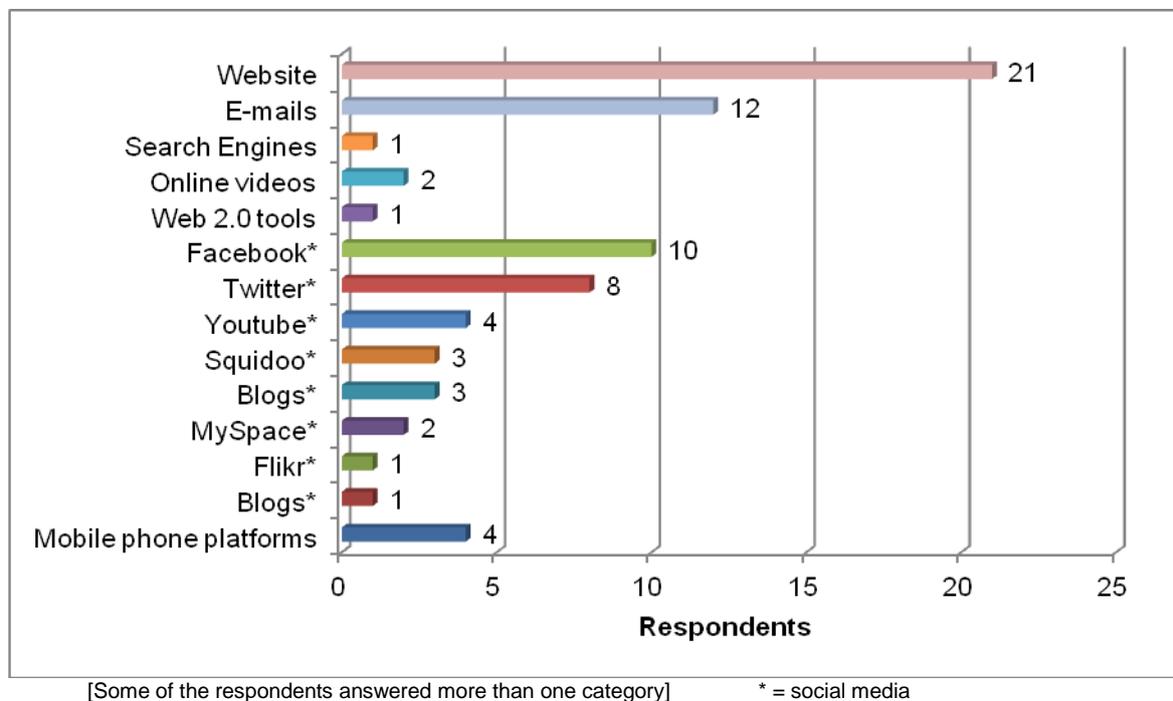


Figure 8.6: The e-marketing tools intended for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

It can be seen from Figure 8.6 that all 21 respondents intended to use **websites**. Eleven respondents intended to use **social media** and four intended to use **mobile technology** for the 2010 FSWC™. For example, one respondent stated that: *“The website, social networking, such as, Facebook, YouTube, Twitter, Squidoo, etc. will be used at the beginning of the event”* (Q3.2: respondent 13) and another mentioned that: *“...We will use*

cell phones for marketing and communicating with taxi drivers” (Q3.2: respondent 18). The assumption was that the decisions on the use and choice of e-marketing tools for the 2010 FSWC™ were partly influenced by the e-marketing experiences gained from previous major sport events (as discussed under 8.3.1).

8.4.1.3 *The intended purpose for e-marketing tools for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™*

In terms of the Conceptual Model of Destination Competitiveness discussed in Chapter 2, mega-events are described as part of the supporting industries and services that reinforce and strengthen a destination’s tourism industry by their presence in a destination and as the key motivators for visiting a destination (Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:104). For the 2010 FSWC™, it can be seen from Figure 8.7 that 15 respondents intended to use e-marketing for the placement of advertisements related to the **2010 FSWC™** event and 12 respondents intended using it for marketing **South Africa**.

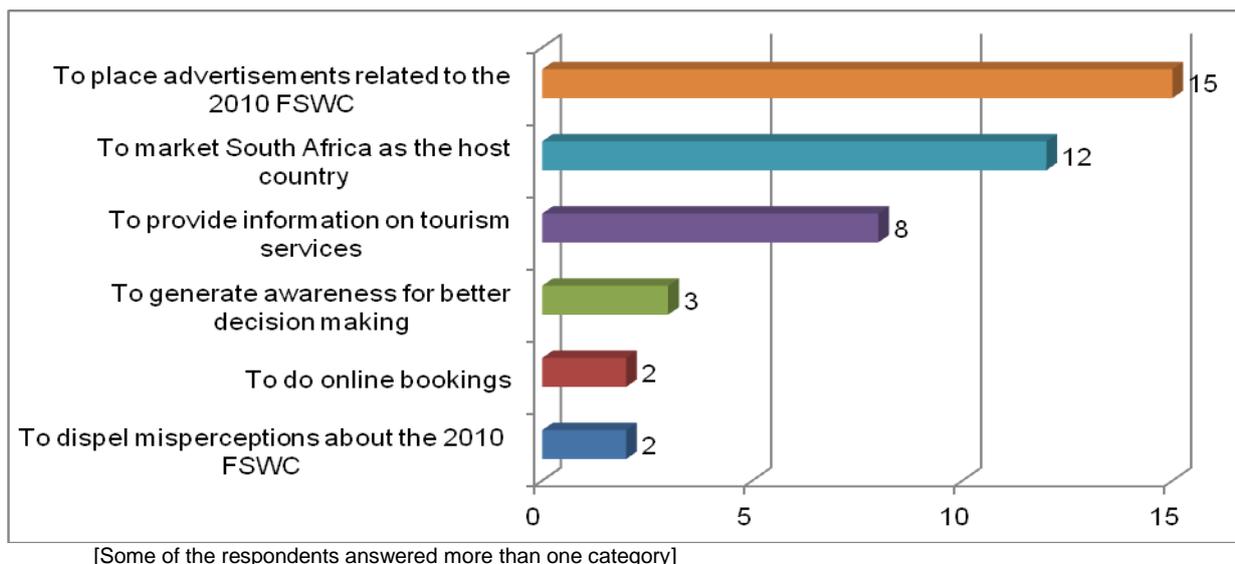


Figure 8.7: The purpose for what e-marketing tools were intended for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

It can also be seen from Figure 8.7 (p.225) that eight respondents intended to use e-marketing for **providing information to the public on tourism offerings** during the 2010 FSWC™. It is interesting to note that one respondent stated: *“We will use e-mail campaigns for competitions related to the 2010 event”* (Q3.2: Respondent 13), while another respondent mentioned that *“We will create banner adverts on Super Sport Channel when running 2010 event campaigns”* (Q3.2: Respondent 15).

It is worth noting that the respondents also made other interesting comments regarding other purposes for which e-marketing was intended for the 2010 FSWC™, such as to **generate awareness for better decision making, for online bookings and to dispel misperceptions about the 2010 FSWC™**. One respondent stated:

“We are putting content into them to showcase what the destination has before people do the booking for the tickets” (Q3.2: Respondent 8) and another mentioned: *“I would create a special 2010 Blog, and this will mainly assist in dispelling misperceptions about certain aspects of the event (especially issues like crime, HIV, Malaria, etc.)”* (Q3.2: Respondent 16).

8.4.1.4 The stages at which e-marketing was intended to be used for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

It became clear from the previous sport mega-events that e-marketing was used at different stages during these events (as discussed under 8.3.2). Apparently, the respondents had similar opinions regarding the stages at which e-marketing was intended to be used for the 2010 FSWC™. Fifteen respondents intended to use e-marketing tools **continuously** or **‘throughout’ the event**, that is, pre-, during and post- the 2010 FSWC™, while six respondents intended to **primarily use** e-marketing for the 2010

FSWC™ event. It is also worth noting that one respondent made an interesting observation regarding the stages at which e-marketing could be used in sport mega-events. The respondent stated: “...Each e-marketing tool has its own strategy and has a specific time at which it will be deployed” (Q3.2:Respondent17).

8.4.1.5 E-marketing strategy intended for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

The respondents were asked to comment on the state of the e-marketing strategy for the 2010 FSWC™ within their organisations. The purpose was to determine how e-marketing was intended to be implemented by the organisations involved in the marketing of the 2010 FSWC™. From Figure 8.8, it can be seen that ten respondents stated that their organisations had a **dedicated e-marketing strategy** for the 2010 FSWC™.

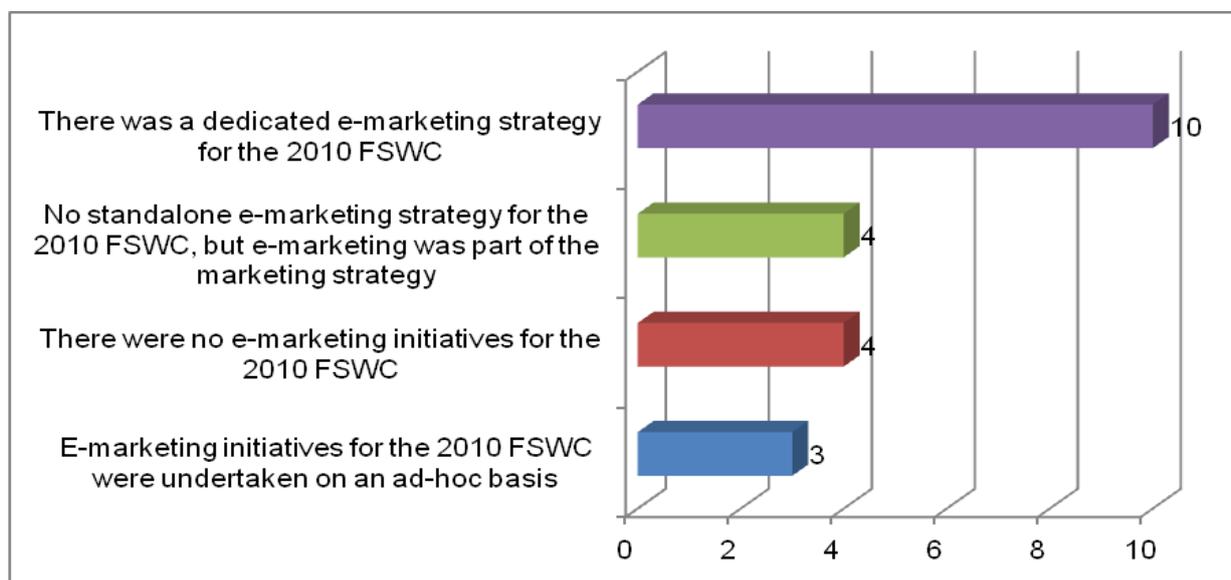


Figure 8.8: The e-marketing strategy intended for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

Four respondents stated that e-marketing for the 2010 FSWC™ was **not a stand-alone strategy**, but part of the entire organisational marketing strategy, while four others stated that there were **no e-marketing initiatives** planned within their organisations for the 2010

FSWC™ and three mentioned that e-marketing initiatives for the 2010 FSWC™ were **undertaken on an ad-hoc basis**. Although, Nik (2008:20) states that e-marketing strategies can help organisations to achieve strength in the e-business environment, surprisingly, as reflected in Figure 8.8, the organisations involved in the e-marketing of the 2010 FSWC™ did not appear to have a common e-marketing strategy for this event.

8.4.1.6 The intent of using e-marketing tools with other industry stakeholders for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

In Chapter 1, the fourth objective tabled is to determine the usage of e-marketing strategies for the 2010 FSWC™. As had already been discussed in the literature review, one of the e-marketing lessons learnt from the case studies of the Vancouver 2010 Winter Olympic Games and Beijing 2008 Olympic Games, is that **partnerships with other supporting industry stakeholders** were crucial to the successful e-marketing of these events. The importance of partnerships with other industry stakeholders also emerged as one of the positive e-marketing lessons learnt from previous flagship sport events in South Africa (as discussed under 8.3.4.1 and 8.3.4.3).

Twenty respondents (Q3.4: Respondents 1-19, 21) intended using e-marketing tools **in collaboration with a wide range of supporting industry stakeholders** for the 2010 FSWC™, while one respondent (Q3.4. Respondent 20) **did not provide an answer** to this question.⁴¹ Perhaps the need for collaboration with other strategic sectors for the 2010 FSWC™ was informed by the e-marketing lessons learnt from previous major sport events.

⁴¹ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q3.4 for the respondents' responses.

8.4.1.7 The envisaged spend on e-marketing initiatives related to the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

The hosting of sport mega-events such as the Olympic Games requires a huge investment in facilities, infrastructure and organisation expenditures (Maennig & Du Plessis, 2007:579; Hashimi, *et al.*, 2008:28). As discussed in Chapter 5, during the Beijing 2008 Olympic Games, marketing for this event was allocated US\$ 60 million, which was 3.7% of the total budget for the event (Hashimi *et al.*, 2008:28-29). The same percentage was envisaged for the 2010 FSWC™. It can be seen from Figure 8.9, that eleven respondents **disclosed their envisaged expenditure** for the e-marketing initiatives related to the 2010 FSWC™.⁴²

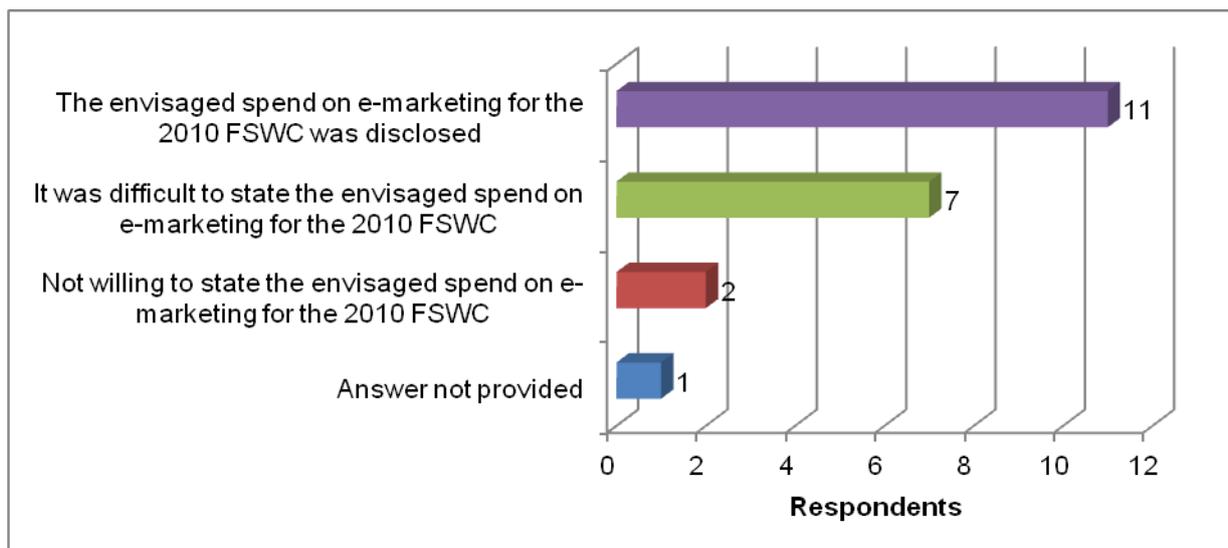


Figure 8.9: The envisaged expenditure on e-marketing initiatives for the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

However, three of these respondents also disclosed that the amount they stated was not only allocated for e-marketing but also for other activities related to the preparations for the

⁴² Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q3.4 for the respondents' responses.

2010 FSWC™ event, such as transport and accommodation.⁴³ It can also be seen from Figure 8.9 (p.229) that seven respondents stated that **it was difficult to state their envisaged e-marketing expenditure** for the 2010 FSWC™ since their organisational budgets were not broken down into specific categories. Two respondents **were not willing** to state their envisaged e-marketing expenditure for the 2010 event and one respondent **did not provide an answer** to this question.

Three ranges of expenditure for e-marketing initiatives relating to the 2010 FSWC™ were identified but not disclosed. The ranges were from R 100 000 to R 600 000, R 600 000 to R 20 million and R 20 million to R 300 million. The conclusion drawn from the findings on the envisaged e-marketing expenditure for the 2010 FSWC™ was that **a dedicated e-marketing strategy** appears to be imperative when using e-marketing in major sport events (as discussed under 8.3.4.3 and 8.4.2.5). A dedicated e-marketing strategy could provide guidelines to sport marketers for **the allocation of a budget for e-marketing initiatives** related to major sport events.

8.4.2 OUTCOMES OF E-MARKETING THE 2010 FIFA SOCCER WORLD CUP™

This section focuses on determining whether the respondents managed to implement their intended e-marketing initiatives in the 2010 FSWC™ or not, and if not why not. Therefore, the discussion in this section is about **what actually took place** at the 2010 FSWC™ regarding the usage of e-marketing for this event. Thus, this section should be read in conjunction with the findings regarding the respondents' intended e-marketing initiatives for the 2010 FSWC™ as was discussed in the previous section.

⁴³ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q3.4 for the respondents' responses.

8.4.2.1 The actual use of e-marketing in the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

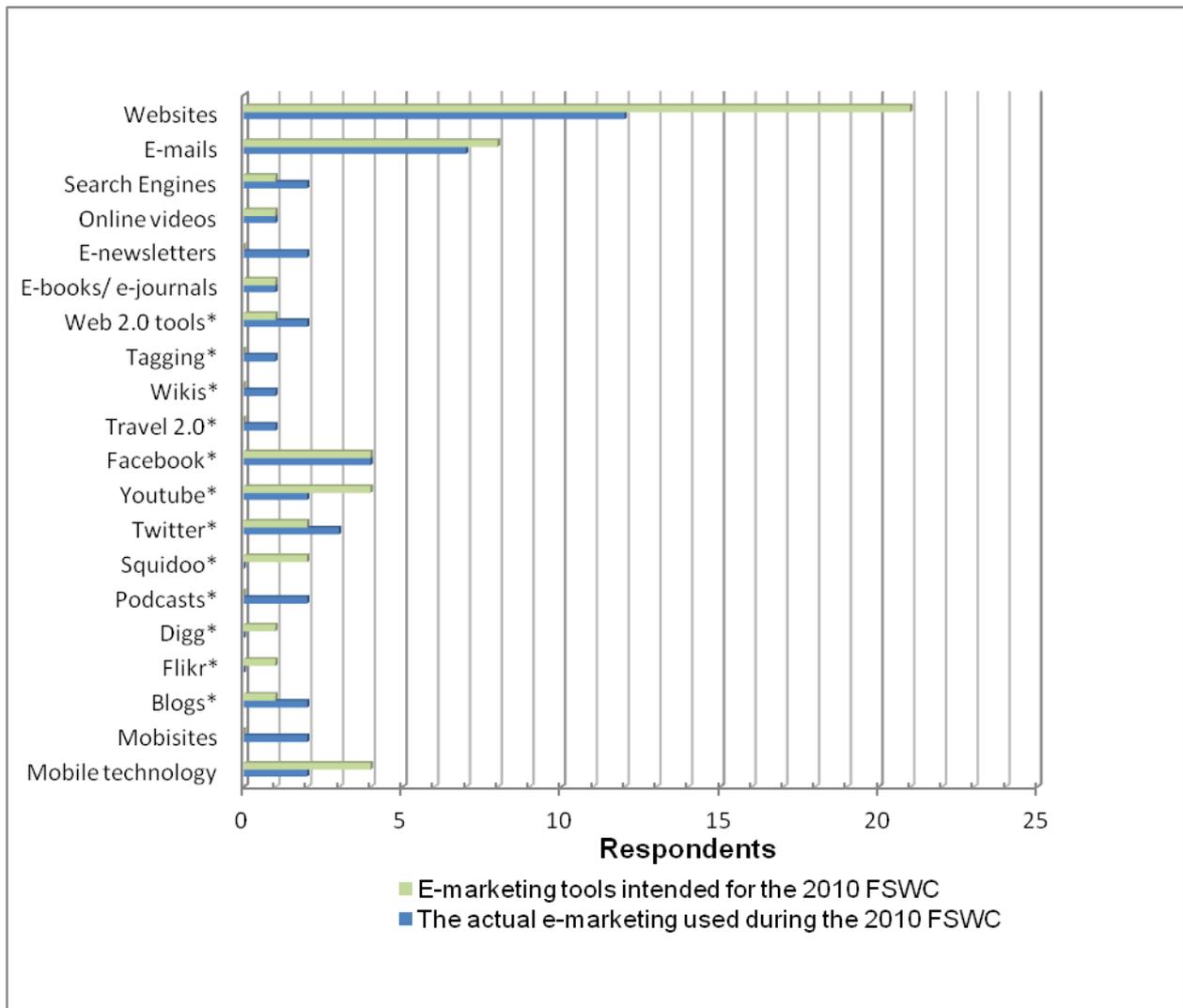
Eighteen respondents confirmed that they had used e-marketing during the 2010 FSWC™. Therefore, **e-marketing was actually used** during the 2010 FSWC™ as intended (as discussed under 8.4.1.1). In confirmation of this, two of the respondents stated:

“We used all of the above. Everything mentioned in the concept of e-marketing above. We participated in every single one of them (that is, internet and its related technologies and features (e.g. the Web, e-mails, social networking, online video, Web 2.0, Travel 2.0, tagging, wikis, web blogs, podcasts)...” (Q3.2: Respondent 2); and

“We continuously used Website, Mobisite (real-life documentary-style short videos for web purposes), Facebook, Twitter, Search Engine advertising, and E-mail” (Q3.2: Respondent 7).

8.4.2.2 The actual e-marketing tools used in the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

It can be seen from Figure 8.10 (p.228), that there is a definite of correlation between the e-marketing tools intended for the 2010 FSWC™ and the actual e-marketing tools used during the 2010 FSWC™. However, a difference is noted between the numbers of respondents who intended to use a particular e-marketing tool as opposed to those who actually used the same e-marketing tool during the 2010 FSWC™. For example, it can be seen from Figure 8.10 (p.232) that 21 respondents intended to use the websites for the 2010 FSWC™ event, but only 12 respondents actually managed to use the websites for this event.



[Some of the respondents answered more than one category] * = social media

Figure 8.10: The actual e-marketing tools used in the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

It can be seen from Figure 8.10, that **different e-marketing tools**, such as **websites**, **social media** and **mobile technology** were **actually used during the 2010 FSWC™** as intended. This was confirmed by two respondents who stated:

“For the first time the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup was watched on a cell phone. South Africa needs to have capacity to take advantages of e-marketing opportunities, and the key challenge will be to sustain that” (Theme 6: Respondent 2 in Appendix G (CD1)); and

“... We constantly engage with people in sports to remind them how successful we were in hosting the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ and therefore we have the capacity or South Africa has the capacity in that respect...” (Theme 6: Respondent 2 in Appendix H (CD1)).

It can also be seen from Figure 8.10 (p.232) that additional e-marketing tools, over and above those intended, were used during the 2010 FSWC™, such as Tagging, Wikis and Travel 2.0. As shown in Figure 8.10, little mention is made of having used mobile technology for e-marketing the 2010 FSWC™ event, as only two respondents stated that they had actually used cellular phones during this event. It is surprising, because Cole (2009:1) states that the 2010 FSWC™ was to be a showcase for mobile content and applications, because a global mobile operator, namely, Cole Solutions LLC was among the flagship sponsors for the tournament. Furthermore, Cole (2009:2) highlight the fact that during the 2010 FSWC™ event, mobile users of iPhone, BlackBerry and Android, as well as the iPad were kept up-to-date with all the latest sport news related to the 2010 event in ten languages including Russian, Chinese and Arabic. In addition, it is interesting to note that e-marketing tools were used simultaneously with the traditional media during the 2010 FSWC™.⁴⁴ Two respondents stated the following:

“...In terms of marketing, we did not ignore traditional platforms like TV and Print. We used the online platforms to interact with our consumers and we used traditional platforms to drive consumers to our website” (Q3.2: Respondent 1);
and

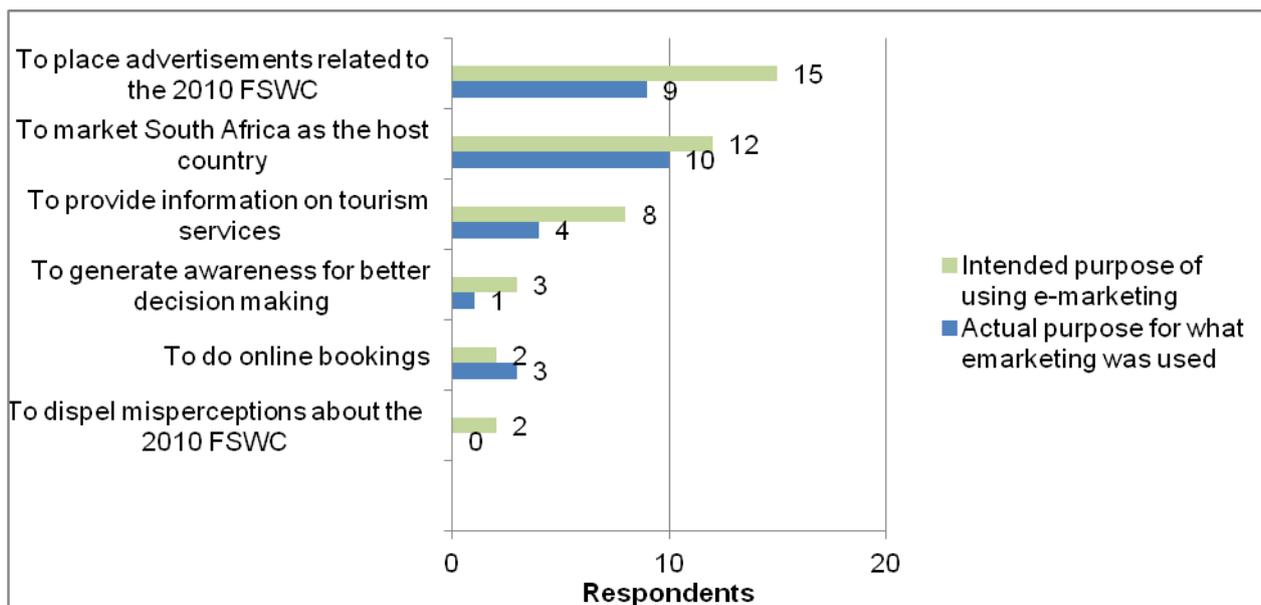
⁴⁴ Refer to Appendix H (CD1): Q3.4 for the respondents' responses.

“We used the website, cell phones, television and radio for the purpose of bringing about updates regarding the City’s state of readiness and preparedness” (Q3.2: Respondent 15).

These statements confirm that an **integrated e-marketing approach** is critical for future major sport events (as already discussed in 8.3.4.3).

8.4.2.3 *The actual purpose for which e-marketing was used during the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™*

As shown in Figure 8.11, nine respondents actually used e-marketing **to place advertisements related to the 2010 FSWC™**, less than the 15 who intended to use e-marketing for a similar purpose. It can also be seen from Figure 8.11, that ten respondents actually used e-marketing **to promote South Africa** as the host for the 2010 FSWC™, while eight used it to provide information on tourism services. The figure also shows that e-marketing was used **to do online bookings**, although at a minimal rate.



[Some of the respondents answered more than one category]

Figure 8.11: The actual purpose for what e-marketing was used in the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

However, the responses regarding the outcomes show that the respondents had different opinions regarding the performance of e-marketing in this regard. For example, ten respondents felt that e-marketing tools enabled the marketers of the 2010 FSWC™ **to successfully promote South Africa globally as a tourism destination** as was intended. One of these respondents stated:

“...The research after the 2010 event shows that more than 90% of people that came to the event in South Africa want to come back to South Africa, and we know that 80% of the people that came here had great experiences and would tell other people how South Africa is...For example, we never used to operate in Spain but Spain has now become an important market for South Africa...we managed to change the perceptions of people globally that South Africa is more than a destination or place of violence and poverty but that South Africa has other things as well” (Q4.1: Respondent 1 in Appendix H (CD1)).

What is highlighted in this statement is that e-marketing of the 2010 FSWC™ actually **raised South Africa, as the host destination, to international prominence** because South Africa was capable of attracting international audiences. This issue was raised previously as being one of the purposes of hosting sport mega-events (as discussed in Chapter 2).

Two respondents were **not really happy about the performance** of e-marketing tools in achieving the purpose for which they were actually used during the 2010 FSWC™. One respondent stated:

“We did use the e-marketing tools although not in full swing as expected, due to infrastructural challenges” (Q3.2: Respondent 14 in Appendix H (CD1)); and another commented:

“...The greatest weaknesses in my assessment are some of the value chain players who seemed to wake up rather too late to the need for proper planning. We also did not package the information according to the specific market needs due to poor Customer Relations Management (CRM) processes so that we could do a better market segmentation exercise in understanding the soccer fans from specific parts of the world; especially areas that are not very familiar with our destination” (Q3.2: Respondent 9 in Appendix H (CD1)).

The conclusion drawn was that **e-marketing was actually used for different purposes** than was intended during the 2010 FSWC™. However, some concerns were raised that highlighted the fact that **e-marketing was not fully utilised as intended**.

8.4.2.4 The actual stages at which e-marketing tools were used in the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

The stages at which e-marketing was intended for use at the 2010 FSWC™ were discussed under 8.4.1.4. Ten respondents confirmed that they used e-marketing tools **consistently** or **‘throughout’** the **2010 FSWC™** event, while eight **did not use** e-marketing tools at the same momentum during the 2010 FSWC™ as they did once the event started.

8.4.2.5 The actual e-marketing strategy during the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

As shown in Figure 8.12 (p.237), nine respondents stated that their organisations had a **dedicated e-marketing strategy**, two stated that e-marketing was **not a stand-alone strategy**, but was part of the entire marketing strategy, two (Q3.3: Respondent 6 and 12)

said that there were **no e-marketing initiatives** for the 2010 event and five reported that e-marketing was done **on an ad-hoc basis**.⁴⁵

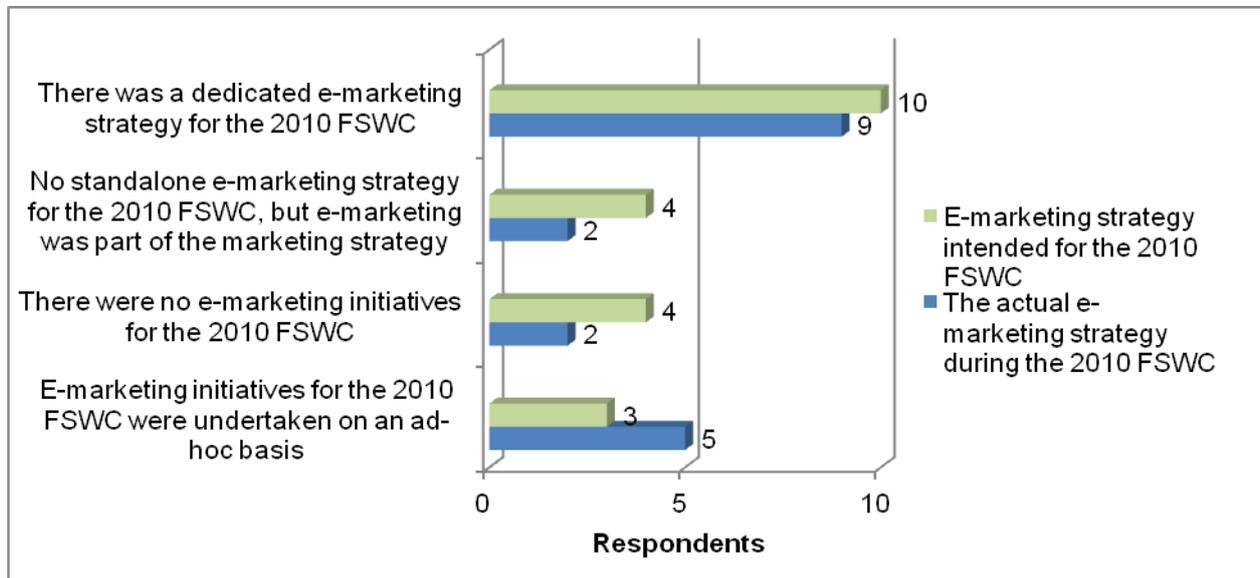


Figure 8.12: The actual e-marketing strategy during the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

The assumption made from these findings is that the lack of common e-marketing initiatives undertaken during the 2010 FSWC™ could have been attributed to the **lack of a clear-cut e-marketing strategy undertaken** by the various organisations involved in e-marketing the event. This could also possibly be due to the fact that some organisations had a global marketing strategy rather than a stand-alone e-marketing strategy. Nevertheless, half of the organisations which were involved in the e-marketing of the 2010 FSWC™ **had a dedicated e-marketing strategy**. This confirms that an e-marketing strategy was used as a driving force to ensure that e-marketing was used during the 2010 FSWC™ as intended.

In today’s business, an organisational strategic action plan is critical to move any organisation into an attractive business position and to build sustainable competitive

⁴⁵ Refer to Appendix H (CD1): Q3.3 for the respondents’ responses

advantage (Nik (2008:5). Therefore, what seems to be important in the e-marketing of major international sport events is **a dedicated e-marketing strategy** that outlines the **e-marketing plans**, the **e-marketing personnel** and the **e-marketing budget** required for a successful outcome of these events (as discussed under 8.3.4.3). One respondent confirmed this by stating: *“We have an e-marketing strategy and we actually came up with a specific campaign specifically for the 2010 Soccer World Cup”* Q3.3: Respondent 2).

8.4.2.6 The actual use of e-marketing tools with other stakeholders during the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

Sixteen respondents confirmed that they used e-marketing tools together with **a wide range of other industry stakeholders** during the 2010 FSWC™. One respondent reported **not having used e-marketing tools in collaboration with other industry stakeholders**, while one respondent **did not provide an answer** to this question.⁴⁶

The findings reveal that **partnerships with strategic allies** are critical in the e-marketing environment for major sport events (as discussed under 8.3.4.1 and 8.3.4.3). A Director of Tourism, who was responsible for Promotion and Development of Tourism in one of the host cities stated:

“Sport mega-events link departments because they enhance new ways of communication amongst stakeholders. During these events the hosts must show that they keep pace with technological change...” (Theme 6: Respondent 4)⁴⁷; while the Acting Senior Manager for the 2010 Legacy and Flagships working for the Local Government stated:

⁴⁶ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q3.4 for the respondents' responses.

⁴⁷ Refer to Appendix E (i): for profiles of respondents.

“The success of hosting the best World Cup in the history of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup was very much alive as a result of partnerships with stakeholders...” (Q3.4: Respondent 15).⁴⁸

The outcomes regarding the usage of e-marketing tools in collaboration with other industry stakeholders during the 2010 FSWCTM indicate that **it was successful** as was intended.

8.4.2.7 The actual expenditure on e-marketing initiatives related to the 2010 FIFA Soccer World CupTM

The range of expenditure for e-marketing initiatives identified during the 2010 FSWCTM, were similar to those envisaged, that is, from R 100 000 to R 600 000, R 600 000 to R 20 million and R 20 million to R 300 million. Four respondents presented accurate expenditure estimates for the e-marketing initiatives during the 2010 FSWCTM, which, in turn, fell within the identified range of expenditure. Five respondents stated that it was difficult to mention the actual expenditure for e-marketing initiatives during the 2010 event. For example, one of these respondents stated that:

“It will not be a true reflection of the exact figures given because certain partnerships mitigated the cost. For example, the SABC were the official partners in the World Cup, which paved ways for host cities to forge partnerships with local based SABC radio stations. Then one can imagine the kind of airtime that the partnerships bailed out” (Q3.5: Respondents 15).

Only one respondent was not willing to disclose the e-marketing expenditure during the 2010 FSWCTM because such information was believed to be ‘confidential’.

⁴⁸ Refer to Appendix E (ii): and Appendix H (CD1): Q3.4 for the responses.

During the 2010 FSWC™, it became apparent that some of the organisations which were involved in the e-marketing of this event did not have a specific e-marketing budget. This was perhaps due to the fact that there was **no dedicated e-marketing strategy for the 2010 FSWC™** within such organisations or to the fact that e-marketing initiatives relating to the 2010 FSWC™ were **incorporated into the entire organisational marketing strategy**. The fact that there was a budget for e-marketing initiatives in some of the organisations involved in the e-marketing of the 2010 FSWC™ could be attributed to these organisations having **a stand-alone e-marketing strategy** for the 2010 FSWC™.

The sport marketers who were involved in the e-marketing of the 2010 FSWC™ gave estimates on the expenditure for e-marketing initiatives related to the event. It is also interesting to note that eight respondents stated that minimal costs were incurred on e-marketing initiatives during the 2010 FSWC™).⁴⁹ Two of these respondents confirmed this by making statements that: *“The micro-site was managed in-house, thus it did not incur any expenditure”* (Q3.5: Respondent 12); and *“It is not expensive to use e-mails and Internet as we have systems in place”* (Q3.5: Respondent 14).

These statements reiterated what has already been highlighted, namely, that **there is a need for a greater usage of online media** when e-marketing is used for future major sport events (as discussed under 8.3.4.3), because **e-marketing is, by all indications, more cost effective** than traditional marketing (as discussed under 8.3.3.2 and 8.3.4.1). Furthermore, **online media is perceived to be growing rapidly** (as discussed under 8.3.4.1) since e-marketing tools are cheaper. Indeed, this confirms that e-marketing is one of the potential technologies to be applied to the marketing of future major sport events as

⁴⁹ Refer to Appendix H (CD1): Q3.6 for the respondents' responses.

has been discussed in the literature review. It is, however, also imperative for sport marketers to assess the costs associated with implementing an e-marketing plan for sport mega-events.

8.4.2.8 The challenges of e-marketing the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

In Chapter 1 of this research, the third objective was to determine the challenges and critical success factors in the e-marketing of previous sport mega-events. As a result, the e-marketing challenges from the case studies selected from previous sport mega-events were discussed in Chapter 5, while the discussion on the **e-marketing challenges** that occurred during the 2010 FSWC™ is covered in this section.

a. Inappropriate timing when using e-marketing tools

Inappropriate timing when using e-marketing tools was mentioned as one of the e-marketing challenges that occurred during previous flagship sport events in South Africa (as discussed under 8.3.4.2). Furthermore, the failure to design e-marketing plans on time was stated as one of the critical factors to be considered when using e-marketing for future major sport events (as discussed under 8.3.3.1). The 2010 FSWC™ seemed not to be an exception because one respondent highlighted this problem by stating:

“Initially when we started with e-marketing there were problems in getting the site up on time, in making it user-friendly, and in getting people to interact with the site. Every campaign requires a large amount of awareness and I think in the beginning the awareness was not that high. But, when everything was up and running that is when people started interacting with the site” (Q3.6: Respondent 1).⁵⁰

⁵⁰ Refer to Appendix H (CD1): Q3.6 for the respondent' response.

Although little mention was made of the time factor as being one of the e-marketing challenges experienced during the 2010 FSWC™, this could perhaps be one of the issues to be considered when using e-marketing for future events. Failing to set up e-marketing sites on time, in one instance cited during the 2010 FSWC™, could be attributed to several factors reported by the respondents. For example, three respondents cited **the lack of appropriate e-marketing knowledge amongst the users** as one of the causes of inappropriate timing when using e-marketing tools.⁵¹ Four respondents mentioned the **absence of planned e-marketing strategies** and the **lack of dedicated and skilled e-marketing personnel** to provide support and maintenance of e-marketing technology as e-marketing challenges emerging from the 2010 FSWC™.⁵²

These are critical factors to **consider carefully** when using e-marketing in future major sport events, because e-marketing managers need to be well informed about e-marketing planning processes. In addition, it is important for event marketers to gather up-to-date e-marketing knowledge throughout in order to be able to manage the e-marketing planning process aimed at satisfying identified customers' desires and needs (as discussed in 8.3.4.2 and 8.3.4.3).

b. The problem of access to e-marketing tools

The lack of access to e-marketing tools was mentioned as one of the e-marketing challenges arising from the previous major sport events held in South Africa (as discussed under 8.3.4.2). In support of this claim, four respondents stated that the accessibility of e-marketing tools was a problem encountered during the 2010 FSWC™, particularly in the

⁵¹ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q3.6 and Appendix H (CD1): Q3.6 for the respondents' responses.

⁵² Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q3.6 and Appendix H (CD1): Q3.6 for the respondents' responses.

rural areas where challenges existed in respect of access to the Internet. Therefore, a clear message is that sport marketers who intend to use e-marketing tools in future major sport events should not assume that everybody has access to e-marketing tools. Sport marketers of future major sport events must ensure that e-marketing tools are **made more accessible to the public** before e-marketing technology can be used in major sport events.

c. *Infrastructural and technical network challenges*

One of the e-marketing challenges during the flagship sport events previously held in South Africa was related to infrastructural and technical network challenges (as discussed under 8.3.5.2). This factor was also raised by four respondents as one of the e-marketing challenges arising during the 2010 FSWC™.⁵³ One of these respondents highlighted the fact that:

“The only real problem experienced was seeing that Africa was far from being mobile on the desktop Internet. So, we had got to shift a lot of our campaign and give them a mobile enabled desktop Internet. That was the big problem or challenge we faced. So, the whole ‘one size fits all’ approach doesn’t work in Africa because it works in first world countries. So, you can’t use flashes in Africa because a lot of African audiences don’t have mobile phones compatible with flashes. So, we created special mobile phones because of Africa” (Q3.6: Respondents 2).

It became evident from the research findings that **relevant infrastructure** and **reliable technical networks to handle recent e-marketing tools** must first be put in place before e-marketing technology can be used in future major sport events.

⁵³ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q3.6 and Appendix H (CD1): Q3.6 for the respondents’ responses.

d. Financial constraints related to e-marketing of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™

As discussed in Chapter 2, financial risks are some of the challenges associated with the hosting of sport mega-events. In addition, the allocation of a specific e-marketing budget was mentioned as one of the critical issues to be performed when using e-marketing for future major sport events (as discussed in 8.3.4.3).

As such, three respondents stated that e-marketing initiatives during the 2010 FSWC™ were constrained by limited funds. One of these respondents, who worked as a Brand Manager for a provincial tourism agency stated: *“Financial constraints affected our e-marketing advertising campaign”* (Q3.6: Respondent 3) and another respondent, who worked as the 2010 FIFA World Cup Coordinator in one of the host cities, stated:

“The challenge that we are experiencing is around the issue of accessibility and I think that still remains: and affordability of e-tool marketing for the broader community to access some of the opportunities that might come with hosting of this event, especially the poorest of the poor...Sometimes they had to go and pay R 20.00 for the Internet which they could add in purchasing the ticket with” (Q3.6: Respondent 11).

It is evident that the financial constraints related to e-marketing initiatives during the 2010 FSWC™ should not be underestimated. According to Nik (2008:24), developing and implementing e-marketing programmes can be expensive, because costs are linked to the design and integration of software, internet access, technology support, website operation and maintenance as well as training. It could be stated that e-marketing initiatives for the 2010 FSWC™ were constrained by limited funds for purchasing the e-marketing tools, for

providing the Internet infrastructure and hiring the relevant e-marketing personnel. It is, therefore, important that sport event marketers develop a performance evaluation matrix to **assess the costs associated with e-marketing initiatives** in order to ultimately ensure that the e-marketing benefits outweigh the costs and create greater value when e-marketing is used for sport mega-events (as discussed under 8.3.4.3).

e. Political challenges that affected the usage of e-marketing

The hosting of sport mega-events is associated with political risks or challenges (as discussed under 8.3.4.2). According to Theodoraki (2011:190), local politicians and business leaders may apply pressure to the event organisers for the reorientation of event preparations in line with their personal agenda. It appears that e-marketing of the 2010 FSWC™, as with other major sport events previously held in South Africa, was also hindered by political challenges. This fact was confirmed by two respondents (Q3.6: Respondents 9, 16) who stated:

“Indecisiveness by the political principals in availing the special project budgets to fund the relevant projects including the usage of e-marketing. Procurement processes also become a drag in a scenario where everything gets off to a lazy start and suddenly starts moving at an alarming speed” (Q3.6: Respondent 9);
and

“Yes, there were challenges because we were unable to have all the information on the web due to FIFA’s strict rules on the use of some of the trademarks or words” (Q3.6: Respondent 16).

Therefore, it is of great significance that sport marketers of future major sport events must be **aware of political challenges** because there are often attempts by local politicians to hijack event preparations to fit their personal agenda and this may have an impact on the

e-marketing initiatives related to major sport events. Sport event marketers should always be prepared to **manage the political challenges** that may hinder optimal usage of e-marketing in major sport events.

f. *Lack of collaboration and cooperation amongst the stakeholders*

Partnerships of e-marketing initiatives with strategic allies were regarded as one of the key positive e-marketing lessons learnt from previous major sport events held in South Africa (as discussed under 8.3.4.1 and 8.3.4.3). The findings on the actual usage of e-marketing tools with other industry stakeholders during the 2010 FSWC™ revealed that there was collaboration with the marketing initiatives of other industries during this period. Only two respondents stated that there was a lack of collaboration and cooperation amongst stakeholders involved in the e-marketing of the 2010 FSWC™. Their statements are reflected below:

“Yes, trying to get sponsors and stakeholders like FIFA to work together takes a very long time” (Q3.6: Respondent 15); and

A Senior Manager for Tourism Marketing stated:

“Not really, however, one of the challenges would be the silo-effect which results to uncoordinated marketing strides especially from institutions of government that is supposed to be combining resources for the same course. Host cities have their own campaigns, Tourism Authorities their own, Provincial Government has its 2010 organising units, all these reasons are aimed to promote the 2010, and however, their endeavours are not co-coordinated” (Q3.6: Respondent 16).⁵⁴

⁵⁴ The Silo Effect in business refers to the lack of communication and cross-departmental support often found in large companies

According to these respondents, the agendas of the various stakeholders shape their views about the event's ultimate success or failure. As a result, when using e-marketing for major sport events, it is of paramount importance that partnerships with supporting stakeholders are taken into account in terms of the power they hold over the resources, such as financial and physical resources as well as the intangible aspects, such as goodwill and branding. Sport marketers should strive to create synergies amongst stakeholders who will then benefit collectively from the e-marketing of sport mega-events.

Although it reported in the literature that updating information about products or services, security and privacy invasion of users' information on a regular basis remains a constant drawback of e-marketing (Hume, 2008:9; Linh, 2010:11), surprisingly, not one of the respondents mentioned these factors as e-marketing challenges encountered during the 2010 FSWC™. Of great importance is that marketers must expect to encounter e-marketing challenges like these when e-marketing is used in sport mega-events and they should always be prepared to handle them successfully.

8.5 FUTURE OF E-MARKETING

Since the respondents had been involved in the e-marketing of the 2010 FSWC™, in particular, they were asked in Q5.1 to state their opinions about the key trends and possible future developments regarding the e-marketing of major international sport events. The assumption was that the respondents could apply e-marketing experiences and the e-marketing lessons learnt from their usage of e-marketing during the 2010 FSWC™ in order to comment on the future of e-marketing.

8.5.1 The key trends regarding the e-marketing of major sport events

E-marketing technology is evolving, as are other technologies. This implies that e-marketing technology is dynamic and, therefore, keeps changing over time. As an e-marketing technology changes so does the manner in which e-marketing technology is used in major sport events. Therefore, it was also critical to determine, from the respondents, **what the key trends are regarding the e-marketing of major sport events**. These trends are discussed in this section.

8.5.1.1 A widespread increase in the use of online media in sport mega-events

The fact that **online media for sports marketing is growing rapidly** was mentioned as one of the positive e-marketing lessons learnt in previous major sport events (as discussed under 8.3.4.1). In addition, it was highlighted that **there must be a greater usage of online media** when using e-marketing tools for future major sport events (as discussed under 8.3.4.3). Eighteen respondents confirmed that there has been a rapid and widespread increase in the **use of the Web** and **social media channels**, such as Twitter, Facebook and Blogs, in the coverage of major international sport events.⁵⁵

8.5.1.2 Mobile telephony as one of the marketing tools for sport mega-events

As mentioned in Chapter 2, **mobile technology** is one of the most recent and dynamic services of the new technologies that offers many opportunities, such as reaching sport fans with customised content. Furthermore, mobile telephony was stated as being one of the e-marketing tools intended for use during the 2010 FSWC™ (as discussed under

⁵⁵ Refer to Appendix H (CD1): Q5.1 the respondents' responses.

8.3.1). Twelve respondents confirmed that mobile technology has become one of the key marketing tools used in sport mega-events.⁵⁶ One of these respondents highlighted the fact that:

“... the mobile platform has become a huge market especially within developing countries such as South Africa, where more people have access to cell phones than computers. More people are now serving the Net on the mobile phones than what they are doing on computers. It is important that we are playing on that space” (Q.5.1: Respondent 1).

It is interesting to note that four respondents confirmed that an increase in the use of modern communication technology, such as cellular phone messaging, e-mails, chat room postings and interactive Internet messaging had come **along with some challenges for the e-marketing of major international sport events.**⁵⁷ Two of these respondents stated that:

“Live streaming via the Internet and mobile could have a negative trend for people actually going to the event” (Q.5.1: Respondent 8); and

“...But, it also means that whatever platform we engage in, especially the mobile platform, we must, have the technical capability to play in that space and it’s got to be important” (Q.5.1: Respondent 1).

The above-mentioned statements confirm the fact that technology, whether it is e-marketing or telecommunication technology, has its own merits and demerits. The usage of e-marketing in major sport events is, therefore, not immune from challenges.

⁵⁶ Refer to Appendix H (CD1): Q5.1 for the respondents’ responses.

⁵⁷ Refer to Appendix G (CD1): Q5.1 and Appendix H (CD1): Q5.1 for the respondents’ responses.

8.5.2 Possible future developments regarding the e-marketing of sport mega-events

It was envisaged that the possible future developments in Web applications may be applied when e-marketing future major sport events. As a result, the possible future developments in Web applications are discussed in the following sub-sections.

8.5.2.1 Semantically-oriented Web applications

It was mentioned in Chapter 4 that a semantically-oriented generation of Web applications constitute the future of the Web. It was stated that semantically, Web applications include semantic search, semantic Wikis, semantic Blogging and semantic Desktop. Six respondents confirmed these statements. One of these respondents who was a Brand Manager for Trade Industry highlighted the following:

“Well, I think the e-marketing, whether is of mega-events or anything the two measures are that the social media revolution has taken place and the other big trend is that everything is happening in the mobile. So, if you can look, when I say mobile, I talk about iPods and mobile devisor so it is not just a phone. What is happening is that the devisors are changing therefore the user’s experience is changing. So, the Web 2.0 has now gone into space and it is just about social media and mobile” (Q.5.1: Respondent 2); and

The other respondent commented on the use of semantically-oriented Web applications in the future by stating:

“The key trends are the introduction and usage of social networks that enables event organisers to market to their target audience instead of marketing blindly. Newsletters are effective method of updating and communicating with database.

The possible future developments are the increase of Search Engine Optimisation (SEO) for specific events to appoint or dedicate a resource to focus on SEO. For example, if the user inserts the word like in Google, Google will pick it” (Q.5.1: Respondent 9).

The conclusion drawn from these statements was that the semantic web applications could possibly be applied in the e-marketing of future major sport events.

8.5.2.2 The Web with Computer Telephony Integration

Computer Telephony Integration (CTI) includes a collection of technologies that integrates the computer and telephone functionality and can be extended to include the Web capability (Jazayeri, 2007:11). One respondent stated:

“A more sophisticated, interactive website which extensively uses social networking tools such as Face-book, Twitter etc will be used. This website will enable the complete booking of a spectator’s itinerary from the purchasing of tickets for events to accommodation, etc.” (Q.5.1: Respondent 10), while

Another respondent stated:

“The convenience of technology has been seen in the revolution of the gadgets. Cell phones are now multi-purpose which means that there are more than five functions they can perform which conveniently makes the life of the user much better. The television cameras versus the production that come with all that, has improved tremendously, the quality of the picture is remarkable to say the least. The computerisation of technology has advanced and there is no question about the direction it is heading. Gradually, a number of tech-gadgets are intertwining their respective operational deliverables” (Q.5.1: Respondent 15).

It can be concluded from these statements that maybe the Web with CTI, could be used for e-marketing future major sport events.

8.5.2.3 Web 3.0 marketing could be applied to future major sport events

As discussed in Chapter 4, Web 3.0 marketing includes browsing habits, browsing methods and more intelligent information on the Web. The Web 3.0 marketing was also described as marketing where customised, intelligent information is available at a user's fingertips, on any device, such as the Blackberry, iPhones, and portals into Web 3.0. Two respondents (Q5.1: Respondents 3, 17) highlighted this fact.⁵⁸ A Brand Manager for a Tourism Organisation stated:

"In future, we will use Web 2.0 tools and Web 3.0, Search Engine Optimization and dedicated budget for advertising on Destination Marketing Organisations"

(Q5.1: Respondents 3); while

The Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of another Provincial Tourism Organisation stated:

"E-marketing is moving faster than you are, and one must adapt to it. BlackBerry and iPhones are going to be the dominant communication devices. One must design the message and be aware of the communication tool in getting the message right. One must create space for the customer to do the message and spread it on a device platform. If the message is right, then targeted customers will share it with other people" (Q.5.1: Respondent 17).

Therefore, it was highlighted that the Web 3.0 marketing would possibly be applied to future sport mega-events.

⁵⁸ Refer to Appendix H (CD1): Q5.1 for the respondents' responses.

8.6 SUMMARY

The discussion in Chapter 8 was based on research findings on the usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events. The research findings were presented under three sub-headings, which are the findings in respect of the perceived role of e-marketing in sport mega-events with reference to the respondents' experience in the usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events previously held in South Africa from 1995 to 2009, the findings on the respondents' intended e-marketing initiatives for the 2010 FSWC™ and on the outcomes of e-marketing the 2010 FSWC™. These research findings on the usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events have ultimately laid the basis for the proposed conceptual strategic framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events as discussed in the concluding chapter of this study, which is Chapter 9.

CHAPTER 9: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS: A STRATEGIC FRAMEWORK FOR THE OPTIMAL USAGE OF E-MARKETING IN SPORT MEGA-EVENTS

Chapter 1	The research problem in context
Chapter 2	The role of mega-events in the tourism industry
Chapter 3	Approaches to and trends regarding the marketing of sport mega-events
Chapter 4	E-marketing developments and approaches with reference to sport mega-events
Chapter 5	E-marketing lessons from previous sport mega-events
Chapter 6	Marketing of the 2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™ with particular reference to e-marketing
Chapter 7	Research Methodology
Chapter 8	Research findings and discussion
Chapter 9	Conclusions and Recommendations: A strategic framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events
	Macro-environment
	Micro-environment
	Technological environment
	Stakeholders
	E-marketing strategy
	Critical Success Factors (CSFs) of e-marketing

9.1 INTRODUCTION

In order to optimally use e-marketing in sport mega-events, it has become evident from the research findings that an understanding of the potential role of e-marketing in sport mega-events is critical. Throughout the chapters of this study, the researcher has aimed to examine, investigate and produce a coherent assessment of the e-marketing applications in sport mega-events. The findings derived from the empirical research identified the purposes for which e-marketing is used in sport mega-events and confirmed the Critical Success Factors (CSFs) relating to e-marketing sport mega-events.

Building on the literature studied, the local and international case studies that were evaluated and the results of the empirical research, the aim of this chapter is to present the theoretical and practical contributions of the thesis which is a conceptual framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in future sport mega-events. This framework will be described, along with the applicable guidelines, followed by recommendations for future research.

9.2 A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE OPTIMAL USAGE OF E-MARKETING IN SPORT MEGA-EVENTS

In order for e-marketing to be optimally used in sport mega-events, there are certain fundamental aspects that have to be in place before the sport mega-event can commence. As highlighted in paragraph 1.5 (p.9) the contribution of this study to the existing body of knowledge is the theory, generated from the research findings on the strategic e-marketing

framework, which conceptualises perspectives for the effective utilisation of e-marketing tools in sport mega-events. The framework is presented in Figure 9.1 (p.257).

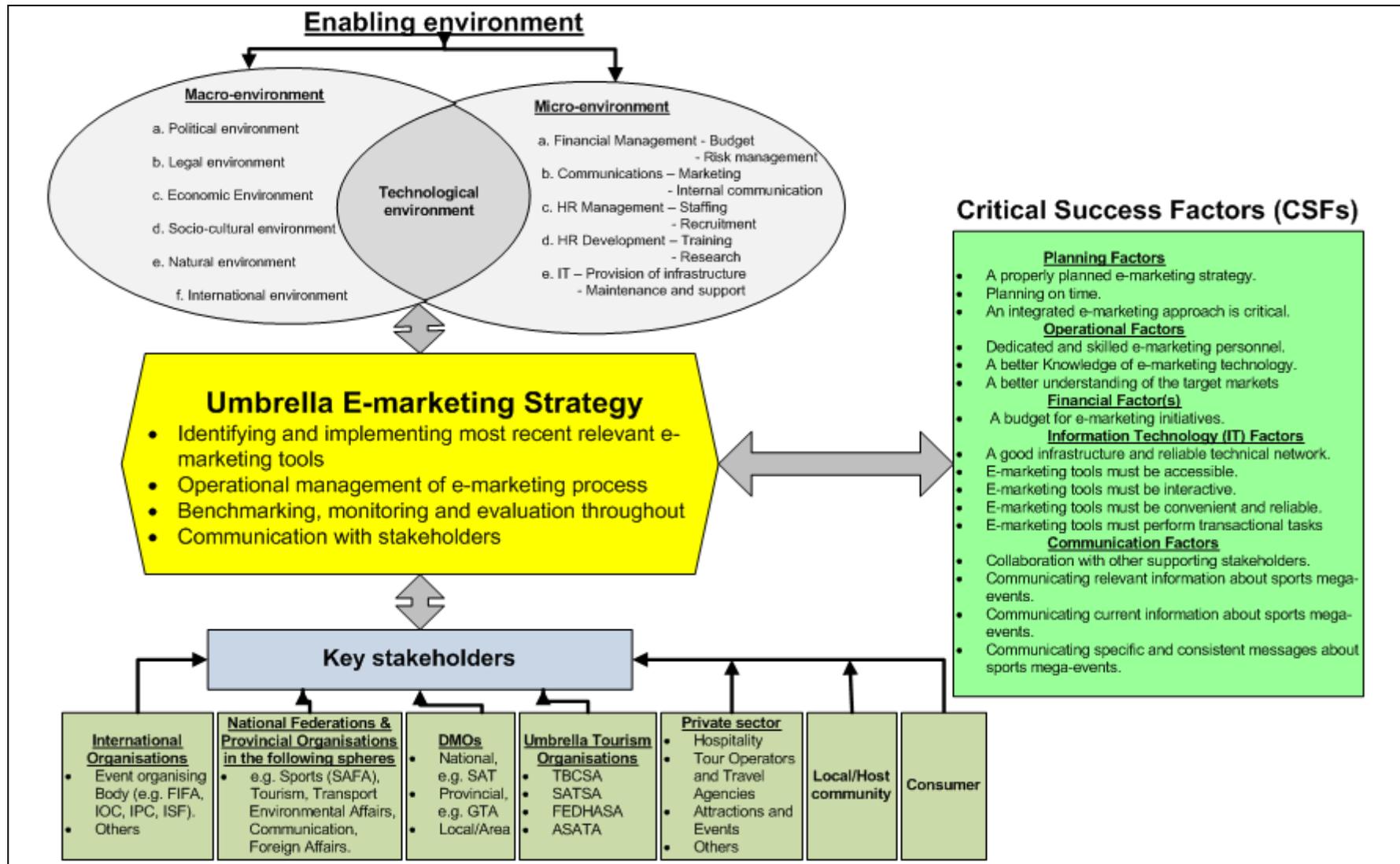


Figure 9.1: Conceptual framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in future sport mega-events (Author's own construction)

The discussion on the fundamental components of the proposed conceptual framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events (refer to Figure 9.1) is covered in the following section.

9.3 THE ENABLING ENVIRONMENT

The enabling environment is critical for every business to become operational and to thrive in the competitive business environment. As is evident from Figure 9.2, the enabling environment is one of the fundamental components of the proposed strategic framework for the effective utilisation of e-marketing in sport mega-events.

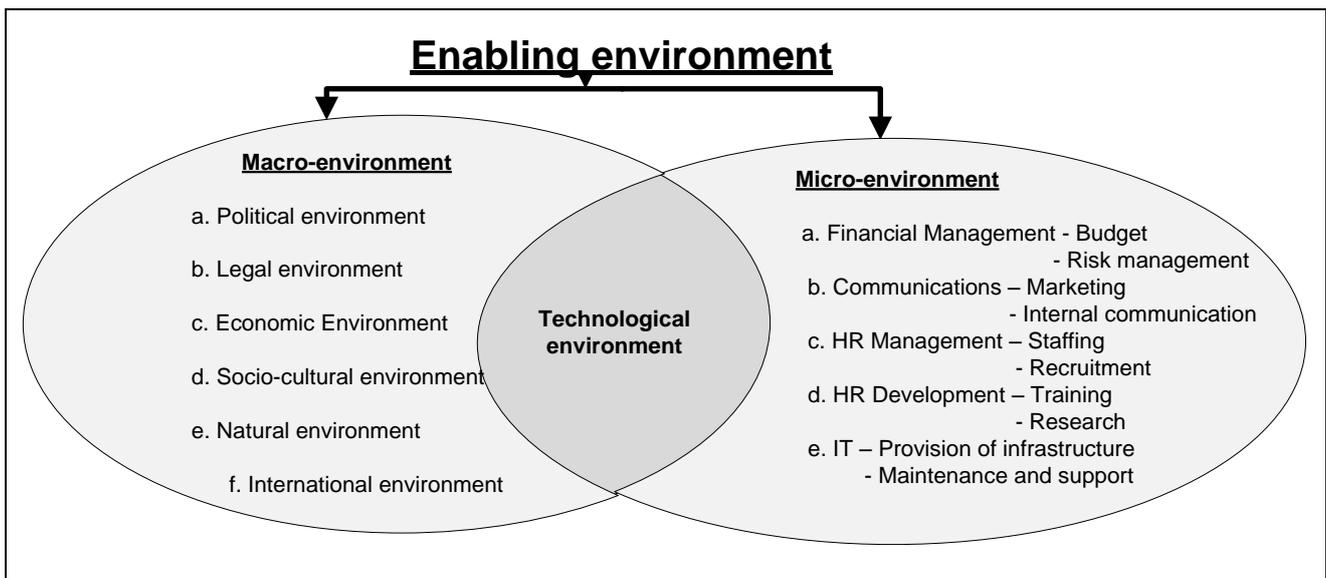


Figure 9.2: The enabling environment for optimal usage of e-marketing (Author’s own construction)

As shown in Figure 9.2, the enabling environment is constituted by the macro-environment, micro-environment and the technological environment outlined below.

9.3.1 The macro-environment

The business environment constitutes external factors that are referred to as the **macro-environmental factors** or **external drivers** (Grewal & Levy, 2010:118). This macro-environment is shaped by influences emanating from general economic conditions, societal values and lifestyles, legislation and regulations, technology and the competitive environment in which the organisation operates (Thompson, Strickland & Gamble, 2010:56). According to Thompson *et al.* (2010:56), the macro-environment has a bearing on decisions that the organisation ultimately makes about its direction, objectives and strategy. Similarly, events such as sport mega-events are susceptible to macro-environmental factors, such as the weather, environment, politics and societal expectations (Theodoraki, 2011:178)

Macro-environmental factors impact on the effective usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events as they are uncontrollable and, therefore, the key stakeholders must respond to them. As shown in Figure 9.2 (p.258), the proposed framework assumes that the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events takes cognisance of the existence of the macro-environment, which includes the components discussed below.

9.3.1.1 *The political environment*

According to Grewal and Levy (2010:133), the political environment comprises a political system, government policies, and government agencies. It emerged from the research findings that political factors, such as government policies, prevailing political conditions and the role of governments within the host destinations of sport mega-events may become challenges to the e-marketing of these events. Such challenges manifest

themselves in terms of governments failing to provide stable infrastructure and reliable technical networks for the e-marketing technology that is required for use in sport mega-events. Therefore, marketers of sport mega-events must develop strategies to respond to political challenges that may impact negatively on the optimal usage of e-marketing in future sport mega-events.

9.3.1.2 *The legal and regulatory environment*

The legal environment refers to sets of laws or legislation and regulations which influence business organisations and their operations (Grewal & Levy, 2010:133; Morrison: 2010:29). It emerged from the research findings that sport mega-events are staged under conditions that impose significant limitations, such as having to respect the rules of the sport, observe the regulations of the event owner, such as the IOC and FIFA, and fulfil the technical conditions required by the sport (Theodoraki, 2011:178). For example, hosts of the FSWCTM and the Olympic Games must fully understand and comply with any FIFA or IOC legislation regarding fair play and competition, consumer protection and FIFA or IOC-specific regulations.

In addition, it became apparent from the research findings that organisers and marketers of sport mega-events must comply with important legislation, such as the Consumer Protection Act, the Environmental Protection Act and the Trade Marks Act of the host destinations and the International Organising Bodies of sport mega-events in order to avoid conflict with these rules and regulations. As such, the proposed framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events assumes that e-marketing best practice should automatically comply with the laws and regulations of the International Organising Bodies of sport mega-events and the host destinations. Ignorance of such laws

and regulations are obviously liable to legal penalties which always have a bearing on the finances of sport organisations.

9.3.1.3 *The economic environment*

Marketers monitor the general economic situation, both in their home country and abroad, because it affects the way consumers buy merchandise and spend money (Grewal & Levy, 2010:132). All business activities and operations are directly influenced by the economic policies framed by governments from time to time (Morrison, 2010:30). Certain of the economic policies relate to monetary and fiscal policies that influence the rate of inflation, foreign currency exchange rates, public expenditure, taxation and interest rates (Grewal & Levy, 2010:132; Morrison, 2010:30).

From the literature studied, it emerged that the hosting of sport mega-events requires major infrastructural and facility development which are financially demanding (Barclay, 2009:62; Jago *et al.*, 2010:227). In addition, it also became apparent that the purchasing power of sport mega-events spectators is important to the marketers of sport mega-events. For example, spectators of sport mega-events may decide not to spend their money on sport related services, such as bookings for accommodation and purchasing of match tickets, mainly because of high interest rates that may ultimately lead to a poor attendance of these events.

The proposed framework, therefore, assumes that with economic policies changing from time to time in view of developments taking place in the economic environment, these policies would have an impact on the effective use of e-marketing in future sport mega-events. Therefore, when using e-marketing technology for these events, marketers must

understand that economic change poses sets of both opportunities and threats. Thus, a better understanding and careful monitoring of the economic environment would place sport marketers in a position to guard against potential threats to e-marketing strategies and enable them to capitalise on opportunities that favour optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events.

9.3.1.4 *The socio-cultural environment*

Hooda and Aggarwal (2012:108) mention that e-marketing technology may not be able to fully replace enterprise-customer relationships without a supportive culture. It became apparent from this study that the challenges faced by e-marketing during previous sport mega-events relate to cultural aspects that can affect the adoption of e-marketing by sport enterprises. For example, it emerged from this study that socio-cultural factors, such as norms, values, attitudes, and practices arising from the experiences of users in their daily lives, may either create barriers or enhance the adoption of e-marketing in sport mega-events. In addition, social factors like customs, traditions, values, beliefs, poverty, literacy, life expectancy and various social trends appear to be shaping the values of consumers around the world. These trends may also influence the adoption of e-marketing for sport mega-events (Grewal & Levy, 2010:128).

Furthermore, Thompson *et al.* (2010:84) highlight the fact that reaching consumers has been made easy by an the advent of many of communication channels, such as PDAs, DVDs, MP3 players, cellular telephones, pagers, personal computers and the Web. These communication channels are perceived to have brought about changes in the attitudes and lifestyles of consumers, such as the spectators of sport mega-events. As a result, the proposed framework assumes that the challenge for marketers of sport mega-events is to

provide services which are relevant to sport fans because culture influences what, why, how and where consumers buy sport products or services.

It is, therefore, critical for marketers of sport mega-events to know the basic cultural values and beliefs of the stakeholders and supporters of sport mega-events in order to ensure that e-marketing campaigns are sensitive to the values of the target audiences. In turn, this would enable sport marketers to respond to the challenges of gaining the attention of consumers by adjusting their sport advertising expenditures from traditional communication media, such as the print media, to the usage of e-marketing tools, such as Facebook, Podcasts, Twitter, and other e-marketing channels.

9.3.1.5 *The natural environment*

One of the e-marketing lessons learnt from the local and international case studies that were examined, is that social concerns about air and water pollution forced the hosts of these events to incorporate expenditure for pollution control and waste management into their cost structures for sport events (Mair, 2011:250; Ponsford, 2011:186). As a result, the proposed framework (refer to Figure 9.1 (p.257)) assumes that when e-marketing is used in sport mega-events, e-marketing strategies need to respond to environmental regulations since they are incorporated into the laws and regulations enacted by the International Organising Bodies of sport mega-events. Sport consumers who advocate the conservation of natural resources may not attend sport mega-events, if e-marketing campaigns for these events are not sensitive to issues surrounding the conservation of natural resources.

9.3.1.6 *The international environment*

Globalisation is very much a driver of change in industries, such as cellular phones, digital cameras and personal computers (Thompson *et al.*, 2010:81). For example, the emerging new Internet capabilities and applications, such as a growing acceptance of Internet shopping, have been major drivers of change in the communication industry (Thompson *et al.*, 2010:81). It emerged from this study that there is an increase in the use of online technology, such as the Internet and social media, within the sport business industry (Hutchins & Mikosza, 2010:282; Rheem, 2010:300).

The proposed framework, therefore, assumes that the challenge for marketers of sport mega-events is to assess how emerging international developments are altering e-marketing technology and its usage in sport mega-events. The assumption is that failing to assess the impact of international developments on e-marketing technology would render the e-marketing strategy for sport mega-events ineffective and redundant. In turn, the e-marketing strategy would fail to drive e-marketing initiatives along e-marketing development trends and approaches; neither would it gain optimal use from the latest e-marketing tools that may be useful for the marketing of sport mega-events.

9.3.2 The micro-environment

The term micro-environment refers to the elements over which the marketing organisation has control or which it can use in order to gain information that would better help it in its marketing operations (Lancaster, 2012:1). According to Lancaster (2012:1), the micro-environment is the internal environment of the organisation which includes all departments, such as management, finance, research and development, purchasing,

operations, accounting, customers and competitors. It emerged from the research findings that the hosting of sport mega-events is a huge undertaking that engages various departments from different organisations. Thus, valuable inputs for decision-making processes related to the marketing and e-marketing of sport mega-events is needed from various organisational departments.

As a result, it can be seen from Figure 9.2 (p.258), that the micro-environment is part of the enabling environment and is critical for the optimal use of e-marketing in sport mega-events. It is envisaged that the micro-environment could assist sport marketers respond to the challenges imposed on the use of e-marketing technology in sport mega-events by both the macro-environmental factors and the technological environment. Therefore, the micro-environment can add value to stakeholders and improve the effectiveness of the e-marketing engine in the successful utilisation of e-marketing in sport mega-events.

The information on a whole range of e-marketing tools, e-marketing approaches and e-marketing development trends, for example, can be obtained through the various components of the micro-environment, such as marketing research as shown in Figure 9.2 (p.258). In this way, the Research and Development (R&D) department would use research as an analytical tool to gather information on best e-marketing practices. The Organisational Management and Accounting Departments would also approve the finances of the e-marketing plans and budgets. The Human Resources Management (HRM) would be responsible for the recruitment of staff specifically for e-marketing initiatives related to sport mega-events, while Human Resources Development (HRD) would be responsible for staff development through the provision of training to improve their performance, knowledge, attitudes and skills regarding the effective usage of e-

marketing technology in sport mega-events. In addition, it emerged from the research findings that the IT and Communications Departments are critical in providing support and maintenance for the increased usage of interactive communication mechanisms such as Twitter, Facebook and the e-marketing engine that complements the use of e-marketing technology in sport mega-events.

9.3.3 The technological environment

Technological advances have accelerated greatly during the past few decades and dramatically altered the value of both products and services (Grewal & Levy, 2010:130; Thompson *et al.*, 2010:82). For example, when the technology changes it creates new markets and new uses for e-marketing tools. Similarly, the macro- and micro-environments are technology-driven and market-driven (McDonald, 2007:7). As a result, it is envisaged that organisations such as the International Sport Bodies have to adopt technological changes from time to time in order to survive and be successful in the accomplishment of their e-marketing initiatives for sport mega-events.

According to Grewal and Levy (2010:130), marketing technology has been changing, since the birth of the first Generation-Y baby in 1977, because, for example, the world has recognised the commercial successes of iPhones, cellular telephones, MP3 players, Internet access, PDAs, WiFi, digital cameras and HDTV. These emerging new technologies have transformed how customers make purchasing decisions, for example, the explosion of features and functions being incorporated into cellular phones and their enormous popularity with cellular phone users is causing all kinds of changes in telecommunications, video games and digital photography (Thompson *et al.*, 2010:81).

The proposed framework, therefore, assumes that technology is the one over-riding critical factor of the enabling environment (refer to Figure 9.2 (p.258) for optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events. The explosion of new communication technologies, therefore, impact on the effective usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events, because the new technologies have transformed how sport services are bought and marketed. For example, spectators of sport mega-events can communicate and collaborate about match fixtures and match results over the Web, Facebook or Twitter and can even use online media for purchasing match tickets. Thus, marketers of sport mega-events must always stay abreast and up-to-date with trends in e-marketing technology so that they do not become laggards in respect of the usage of e-marketing technology in sport mega-events.

9.4 KEY STAKEHOLDERS

It became apparent from this study that there are many stakeholders involved in the hosting and marketing of a sport mega-event as can be seen from Figure 9.3. A key challenge is to identify these stakeholders and motivate them to work together.

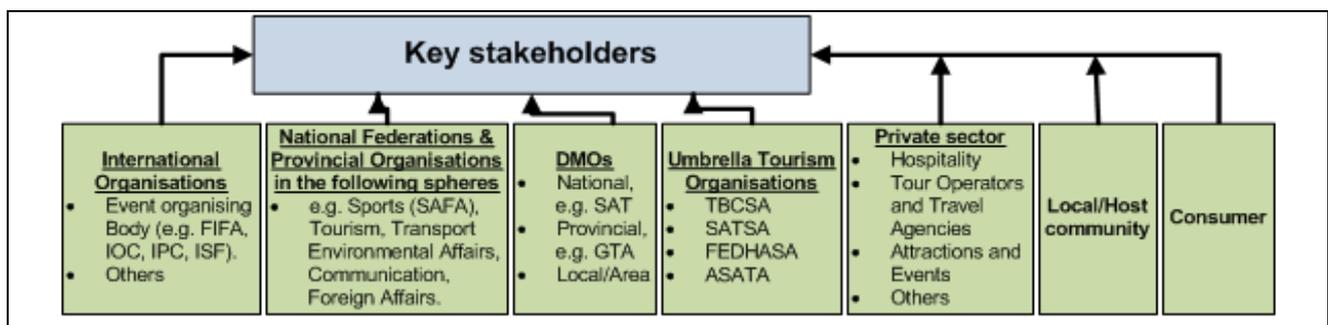


Figure 9.3: Key stakeholders identified to be involved in the e-marketing of sport mega-events (Author's own construction)

The management of stakeholder relationships and stakeholder interaction appear to be critical when using e-marketing for sport mega-events. It is envisaged that the proposed framework will ensure stakeholder interaction throughout the event, that is, before, during and after the event. According to Theodoraki (2011:178), events are affected by numerous unknown constituencies, such as athlete participation, participation of the public, public contributions, sponsors, funders, local or national government, media and the press. Therefore, sport marketers need to know and understand the roles played by key stakeholders in the success of sport mega-events. In practice, the appropriateness of the e-marketing framework for a particular stakeholder and customer interaction would vary according to circumstances. As shown in Figure 9.3 (p.267), the following categories of key stakeholders have been identified as being critical for the effective usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events in the proposed framework.

9.4.1 International sports organisations

The International Sports Federations (ISFs) are international non-governmental organisations administering one or more sports at world level (International Sports Federations, 2012:2). International Federations may cover a range of sports at an international level, such as the IOC, FIFA and International Paralympics Committee (IPC) (International Sports Federations, 2012:2).

9.4.2 National sports organisations and provincial government departments

National bodies may or may not be affiliated to international bodies for the same sport. As shown in Figure 9.3 (p.267), the proposed framework envisages that the national stakeholders responsible for a country's participation in the Olympic Games, Paralympic

Games and FIFA Soccer World Cups™ include National Federations, for example, the South African Football Association (SAFA) in South Africa and the national and provincial government departments. The provincial stakeholders involved in sports within countries are government departments, such as the Department of Sports, the Department of Tourism and the Department of Transport.

9.4.3 Destination Marketing Organisations (DMOs)

In Chapter 1, the concept of DMOs was defined. In short, the DMOs are the principle organisations that coordinate and monitor tourism development and marketing for a destination (Buhalis & Jun, 2011:37). DMOs can be classified into National, Provincial and Local/Area DMOs, all of which are envisaged to participate actively in the bidding, planning and hosting of sport mega-events when destinations intend to host such an event.

9.4.4 Umbrella private sector tourism organisations

As shown in Figure 9.3 (p.267), the Umbrella Tourism Organisations are also identified as stakeholders involved in the e-marketing of sport mega-events. Examples of Umbrella Tourism Organisations are the Tourism Business Council of South Africa (TBCSA), the Southern Africa Tourism Services Association (SATSA), the Federated Hospitality Association of South Africa (FEDHASA) and the Association of South African Travel Agents (ASATA). These Tourism Organisations are the voice of the tourism business sectors involved in tourism. For example, SATSA is a non-profit organisation or association of Inbound Tourism that sets rules for membership and quality levels and lobbies government to share information with its members (Tatalias, 2011), while the primary purpose of the TBCSA is to engage with all stakeholders in developing macro-

strategies that create an enabling environment for tourism development (Saaci, 2012:2). It is envisaged from this study that when e-marketing is used in sport mega-events, the proposed framework would enhance the involvement of key stakeholders such as the Umbrella Tourism Organisations.

9.4.5 The private sector

The proposed framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing assumes that collaboration with other supporting industry stakeholders is critical when e-marketing is used in sport mega-events. As shown in Figure 9.3 (p.267), it emerged from the research findings that the supporting industries involved include the private sector, namely, accommodation institutions, (e.g. hotels, guest houses and bed and breakfast facilities), distribution channels (e.g. tour operators and travel agencies), transport providers (e.g. airlines and car rentals) and conference and event organisers. It is critical for marketers of sport mega-events to co-ordinate activities and collaborate closely with supporting stakeholders from the private sector when using e-marketing in sport mega-events, as this will enable them to successfully package relevant sport products and services for online sport spectators.

9.4.6 Local or host community

Host cities generally attach great importance to factors such as events' economic implications, event-related income and the development of tourism (Chen & Spaans, 2009:9). As a result of the event-related publicity and global media coverage, the key rationale for staging most events and festivals, is related to events acting as tourist attractions for promoting places as tourism destinations (Rein & Shields, 2007:11; Coalter & Taylor, 2009:17; Quinn, 2009:5). Therefore, sport mega-events, such as the FIFA

Soccer World Cup, the Olympic Games, the Cricket World Cup, and the Rugby World Cup are very often increasingly part of a broader strategy aimed at raising the profile of a city and/or country for development efforts geared towards national and international exposure (Magdalinski & Nauright, 2004:200; Matheson, 2006:7; Allen *et al.*, 2008:17).

According to Gold and Gold (2008:301), despite the enormous expenditures on stadia and related facilities, a host city may reasonably expect huge injections of funds from its share of tickets sales, sponsorships, merchandising and branding rights. Furthermore, other long-term benefits of mega-events are perceived to be the legacy of sporting facilities, enhanced community image, stimulation of additional development, improved public welfare and increased tourism offered by investment in the sport (Kasimati, 2003:433; Matheson, 2006:7; Rein & Shields, 2007:78). However, the assertion by Rein and Shields (2007:78) is that the downside to any event platform is that places can be unprepared for the attention and rather than serving as a coming-out party, it may become an indictment of the place's problems.

According to Coalter and Taylor (2008:33), any effective image or branding impacts of sport events will only occur if it is undertaken in partnership with tourism marketing organisations. It is highly unlikely that any tourism offer associated with the hosting of a sport mega-event will be undertaken without cooperation between the host community and international bodies responsible for organising such sport mega-events (Coalter and Taylor (2008:33). On the one hand, politicians can use different kinds of events to build their own personal profiles and gain political advantage (Pitkänen & Siikalouma, 2011:16). Furthermore, environmental groups within the host city may protest against hosting a sport mega-event due to environmental problems that such events are likely to create such as

over-loading the infrastructure capacity and environmental destruction of natural resources (Bohlmann, 2006:13).

As a result of possible challenges emanating from the host community regarding the hosting of a sport mega-event, it is envisaged from this research that when e-marketing is used in sport mega-events, the proposed framework should enhance the involvement of the local community in all the planning processes and preparations for a mega-event. According to Allen *et al* (2002:64), loss of community ownership and control, and community resistance may be experienced while planning for hosting mega-events due to a lack of cooperation between event organisers and the host community. It is envisaged that the framework will enable sports administrators from international bodies and a host community to communicate, cooperate and work together while planning for the hosting of mega-events in order to avoid risk of event failure. Ultimately, as Rein and Shields (2007:78) state, the host community should cooperate with mega-event owners in helping build facilities, participating in joint marketing campaigns, and facilitating the relationships in preparation for mega-events.

9.4.7 Consumers

The consumer is at the centre of all marketing efforts and one of the goals of value-based marketing is to provide greater value to consumers than that which is offered by competitors (Grewal & Levy, 2010:115). According to Grewal and Levy (2010:115), the needs and wants of consumers, as well as their ability to purchase products and services, are affected by a host of factors that change and evolve over time. Therefore, the proposed framework for the optimal use of e-marketing in sport mega-events (refer to Figure 9.3 (p.267) assumes that the consumer is one of the key public stakeholders that

should be considered when e-marketing is used, because e-marketing success in sport mega-events depends largely upon the level of the consumer's satisfaction with the usage of e-marketing tools.

9.5 THE UMBRELLA E-MARKETING STRATEGY

As shown in Figure 9.4, the overarching e-marketing strategy is identified as one of the fundamental aspects for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events.



Figure 9.4: The e-marketing strategy that serves as the e-marketing engine of the proposed framework (Author's own construction)

In terms of the framework, it is proposed that the key stakeholders identified in the e-marketing of sport mega-events and the enabling environment discussed in paragraph 9.3, all converge into an e-marketing strategy. The convergence of these factors, comprising the macro- and micro-environments and the technological environment, at the centre of the proposed framework, is critical, because an overarching e-marketing strategy serves as the e-marketing engine for controlling, integrating and coordinating e-marketing initiatives for sport mega-events. Figure 9.5 (p.274) clearly illustrates the synergy with

which all the components form an integrated whole under the umbrella of the e-marketing strategy.

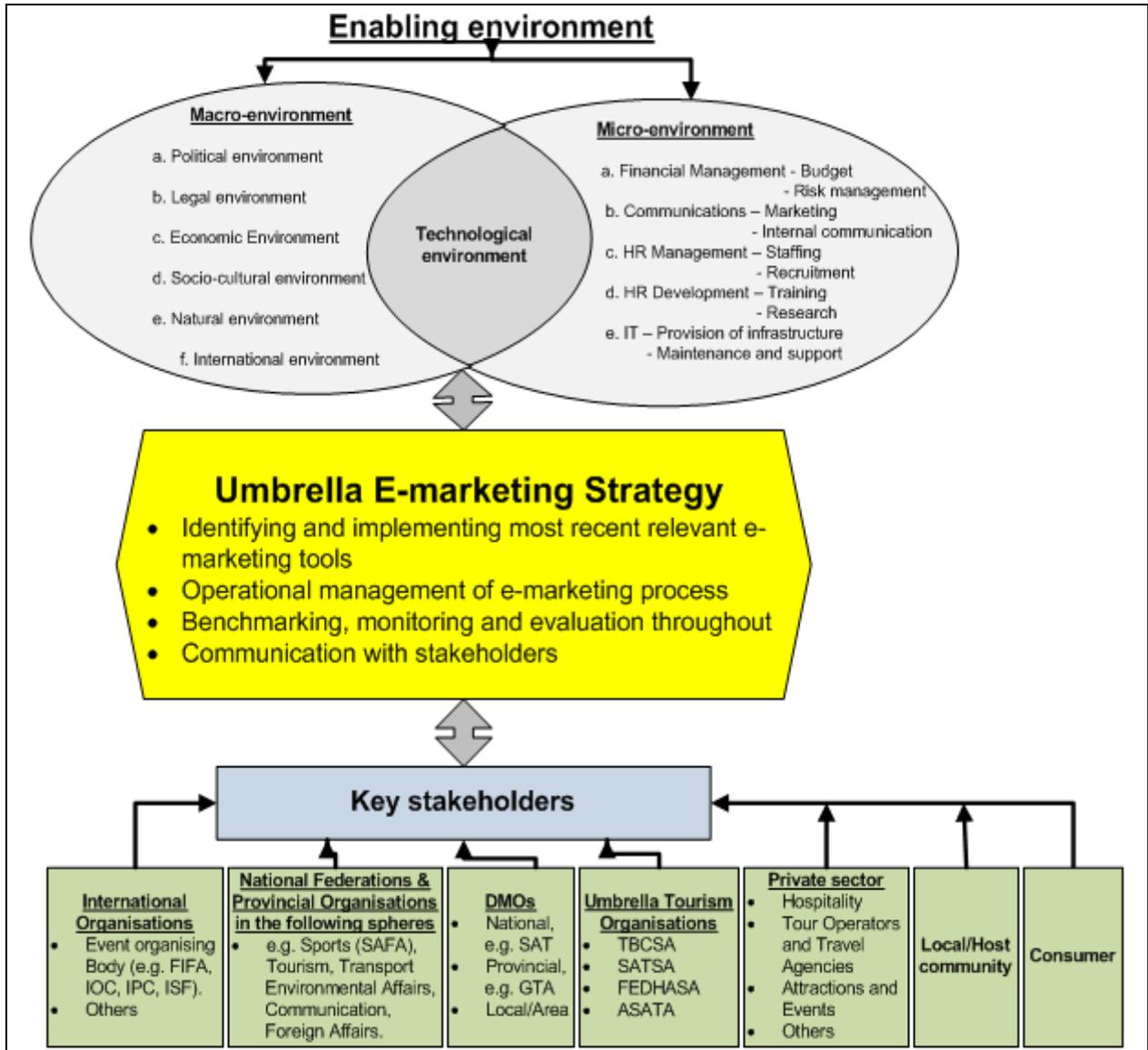


Figure 9.5: The convergence of the enabling environment and key stakeholders into the Umbrella e-marketing strategy at the hub of the proposed e-marketing framework (Author's own construction)

The **e-marketing strategy** for sport mega-events appears to be the engine that drives optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events, because it is located at the centre of all operations (refer to Figure 9.5). The e-marketing strategy acts as the **'hub'** that is

responsible for providing information, facilitating distribution, coordinating activities and enhancing customer relationship management. The e-marketing strategy also serves as a tool for interacting with the key stakeholders involved in the e-marketing of sport mega-events, but it cannot be considered in isolation. As shown in Figure 9.5 (p.274), **the enabling environment** is also critical for assessing the potential role that the e-marketing strategy could play when e-marketing technology is used in sport mega-events.

It is envisaged that the enabling environment would also enable sport marketers to respond timeously to any macro-environmental and technological challenges impacting on e-marketing technology, while the e-marketing strategy, as the 'hub', provides **synergy** for all the e-marketing initiatives, thereby ensuring a seamless integration of those factors impacting on sport mega- events. It is assumed that this would also assist sport marketers to stay abreast of emerging e-marketing tools and other communication gadgets that may be introduced into the e-marketing tools used in future sport mega-events.

The heart and soul of any strategy are the strategies and actions that managers are taking in the marketplace in order to improve the company's financial performance, strengthen its long-term competitive position and gain a competitive edge over its rivals (Thompson, Strickland & Gamble, 2010:7). Similarly, the proposed framework assumes that an **overarching e-marketing strategy** for sport mega-events describes how e-marketing technology can be used optimally in these events as well as serving as the means of implementing e-marketing initiatives relating to sport mega-events.

In addition, the proposed framework demonstrates that an e-marketing strategy enables sport marketers define target markets for sport mega-events, quantify the needs of these

target markets and determine the value propositions to meet these needs. Once the value propositions are determined, an e-marketing strategy then describes ways of communicating them to all the stakeholders involved in order to obtain their buy-in in respect of their respective roles. In general terms, it is assumed that an overarching e-marketing strategy improves e-marketing effectiveness by adding value to the stakeholders in terms of how they should use e-marketing technology for future sport mega-events. The following are the key overarching roles (refer to Figure 9.5 (p.274)) that need to be accomplished by the umbrella e-marketing strategy for sport mega-events:

9.5.1 Identification and implementation of the most recent relevant e-marketing tools

It is reported in the literature that e-marketing technology, like any other technology, is dynamic because it changes constantly (Carlson, 2010:59; Gide & Shams, 2011:1060). From time to time, new versions of e-marketing tools emerge to replace the older versions that have become popular amongst users of e-marketing tools and other social media. The proposed framework for the effective usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events, therefore, assumes that appropriate knowledge about the most recent relevant e-marketing tools is critical for marketers in order to keep pace with e-marketing development trends. In terms of the framework, the R&D department would always strive to put sport marketers in a better position to identify and utilise the most recent relevant e-marketing tools for the implementation of e-marketing initiatives related to sport mega-events, while the overarching e-marketing strategy would be the driving force in this regard.

9.5.2 Operational management of the e-marketing process

When e-marketing is applied to sport mega-events, sport marketers must make critical decisions regarding the e-marketing tools to use for specific events, as well as how to use these tools for the design and offering of relevant sport mega-events services. Decisions must also be made regarding the maintenance of the infrastructure and the technical networks hosting the systems for e-marketing technology to ensure that the desired levels of reliability and stability are attained. As a result, the proposed framework assumes that marketers of sport mega-events would incorporate e-marketing processes related to sport mega-events into the management of basic operations. To this effect, highly trained and dedicated staff for e-marketing technology is critical in order to meet the changing requirements of the users of e-marketing technology and to prevent a breakdown in the trust of customers in using e-marketing tools for sport mega-events.

9.5.3 Benchmarking, monitoring and evaluation

In order for e-marketing to be optimally used in sport mega-events, the proposed framework assumes that benchmarking, monitoring and evaluation of the e-marketing process in sport mega-events is highly critical. Benchmarking is the process of identifying, understanding, and adapting best practices and effective operating procedures that lead to superior performance (Blakeman, 2002:1; Benchnet, 2009:1; Riley, 2012:2). According to Grant (2010:142) and Riley (2012:2), benchmarking offers a systematic framework and methodology that looks outside a particular business in order to examine how others achieve their performance levels and to understand the processes they use. Similarly, it is envisaged that the lessons learnt about the best e-marketing practices of other businesses will enable sport marketers to formulate e-marketing strategies for the effective use of e-

marketing for future events that are based on their organisational strengths and capabilities,

It is envisaged that benchmarking will also enable sport marketers to maintain close communication ties with sport consumers in order to identify and understand their needs and wants. In this way, benchmarking will help sport marketers apply best e-marketing practices, as determined by marketing research on the evolving technology, to sport mega-events.

A comparison of e-marketing practices with those of other organisations by means of benchmarking, monitoring and evaluating e-marketing processes for sport mega-events has become critical. Monitoring and evaluation can be used by measuring such things as e-marketing effectiveness in sport mega-events, for example, by doing a quantitative assessment of e-marketing performance relative to that of competitors. It is assumed that e-marketing performance measurements will provide sport marketers with information that enables them to understand the external environment and as a basis for better decision-making regarding the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events. Thus, any information gathered from the benchmarking, monitoring and evaluation of the e-marketing process would be critical for the review of an e-marketing strategy to improve e-marketing performance and to improve the implementation processes related to e-marketing initiatives for future sport mega-events.

9.5.4 Communication with stakeholders

Communication and collaboration with the stakeholders involved in sport mega-events is one of the positive e-marketing lessons learnt from the previous sport mega-events

studied. As shown in Figure 9.5 (p.274), communication with stakeholders features as one of the key roles to be performed as part of the overarching e-marketing strategy. This implies that knowledge of and integration of stakeholder initiatives is important, because with the e-marketing engine as the hub of the proposed framework, sport marketers can use this information to communicate and coordinate information with a widely-spread geographical population of industry based stakeholders as well as with spectators of sport mega-events, at minimal costs. In this way, individual sport fans may be reached economically through information services, such as notification by e-marketing tools already in their possession, for example, the Facebook and E-mail tools.

9.6 CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS RELATED TO THE E-MARKETING OF SPORT MEGA-EVENTS

According to Finney and Corbett (2007:329), the Critical Success Factors (CSFs) are those specifically distinguished areas that an organisation needs to get 'right' in order for its business to compete successfully in the market place. In Q4.1, the respondents were asked to state their opinions regarding the Critical Success Factors related to the e-marketing of sport mega-events.⁵⁹ In terms of the e-marketing of sport mega-events, the critical enabling (success) factors are those factors or conditions that must be met or the presence of which may increase the likelihood of successfully e-marketing sport mega-events, but which, if absent, may impede e-marketing success. Therefore the CSFs related to the e-marketing of sport mega-events cited by the respondents are presented against the background of the literature studied in this research. From this research **11 such critical e-marketing success factors were identified**. These are shown in Figure

⁵⁹ Refer to Appendices B and C for Q4.1 on the respondents' opinions on CSFs of e-marketing.

9.6. They are classified into four categories, namely, Planning, Operational, Financial, IT, and Communication.

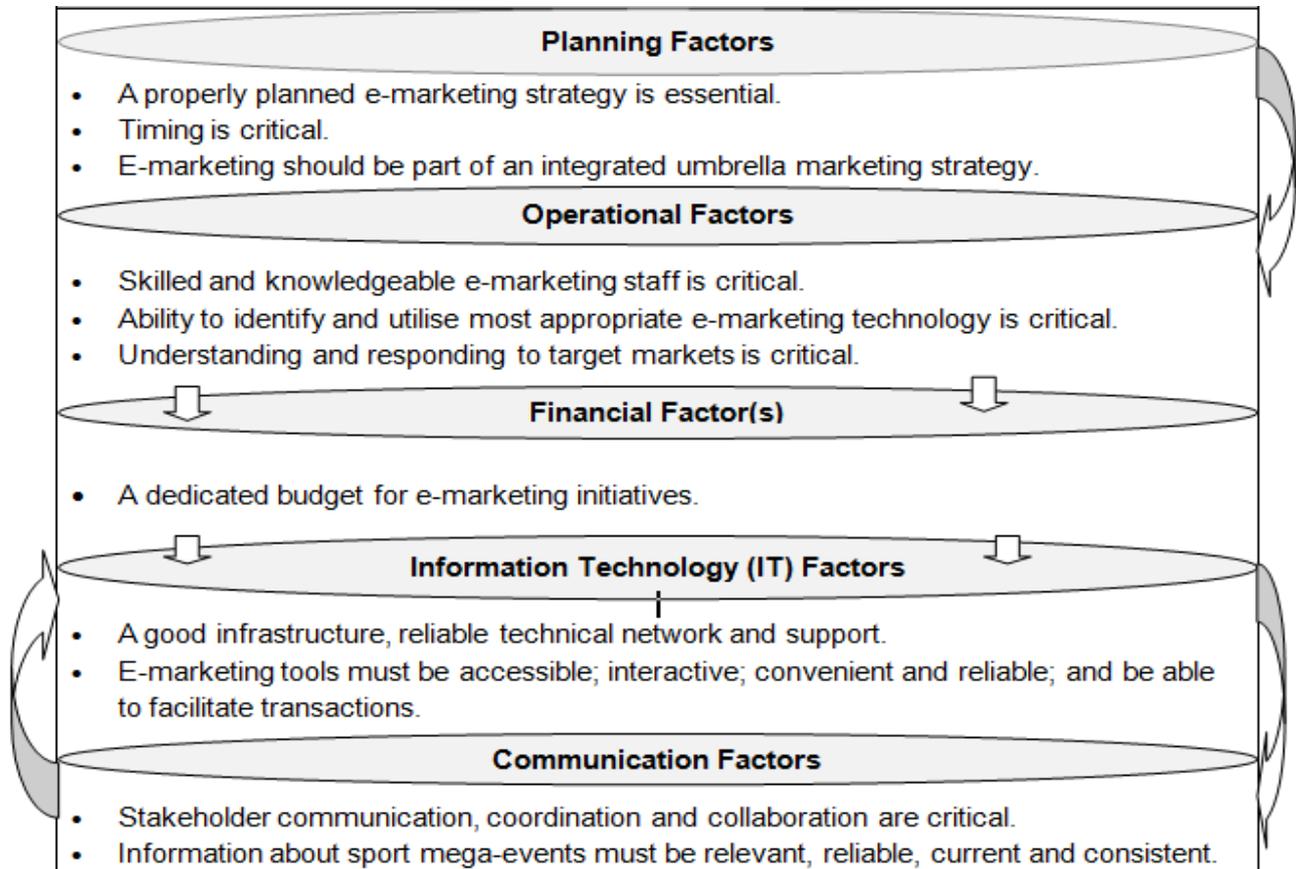


Figure 9.6: Critical Success Factors (CSFs): e-marketing of sport mega-events (Author's own construction)

The CSFs for the e-marketing of sport mega-events presented in Figure 9.6 are briefly outlined in the following sub-sections.

9.6.1 Planning factors

It appears that the existence of an **overarching e-marketing strategy** is critical when planning to use e-marketing for sport mega-events events. It is envisaged that an e-marketing strategy would enable sport marketers to optimally implement e-marketing

initiatives, because it would provide guidelines for efficient and appropriate ways of using e-marketing for sport mega-events. In turn, sport marketers would be in a position **to design proper e-marketing plans** geared towards the establishment of **an integrated e-marketing approach** for future sport mega-events. Ultimately, the e-marketing initiatives for sport mega-events should be aligned with the overall business strategy well in advance of the event, rather than being considered at a later stage.

9.6.2 Operational factors

The implementation of operational factors is always a critical issue in the business strategy of any organisation as it works towards the attainment of intended business objectives. Similarly, the operational factors, such as **dedicated and skilled e-marketing staff**, an **appropriate knowledge of e-marketing technology** by sport marketers and **a good understanding of the target markets** of sport mega-events appear to be critical when e-marketing is used for such events. It is envisaged that all these factors would enable sport marketers to implement an e-marketing strategy designed specifically for sport mega-events. For example, **a dedicated e-marketing team** would provide the necessary technical support and maintenance for the e-marketing tools used for e-marketing campaigns surrounding these events. An **appropriate knowledge of e-marketing technology** among sport marketers is assumed to enhance greater usage of online media, such as the Internet, social media and the mobile technology when promoting sport mega-events. At the same time, the **target marketing capability of e-marketing** is perceived to be critical for deploying relevant e-marketing tools to the relevant audience at the right time when using e-marketing for sport mega-events

9.6.3 Financial factor(s)

It is a well known factor that the hosting of sport mega-events is associated with huge financial costs for the establishment of infrastructure, such as stadiums, transport facilities and broadcasting media centres. Although, e-marketing is perceived to be cheaper than traditional media, **a budget designed specifically for e-marketing initiatives** appears to be critical when using e-marketing for sport mega-events. It is envisaged that this budget would enable sport marketers to put all the necessary **operational factors** for the successful **implementation of the e-marketing strategy** in place.

9.6.4 Information technology (IT) factors

The IT factors perceived to be critical for the optimal use of e-marketing in sport mega-events are **a good infrastructure and reliable technical networks, accessible e-marketing technology, interactive and convenient e-marketing tools and the ability of e-marketing tools to allow online purchases**. It is assumed that sport marketers would fail to utilise e-marketing efficiently in sport mega-events if these IT requirements are not met. If the e-marketing tools, for example, are not accessible to online users there is no way that sport marketers could reach any online spectators of sport events. Online spectators for sport mega-events would also fail to access sport related information and services. Therefore, it is critical that there is **a good infrastructure with good technical levels of system capabilities**, such as sufficient bandwidth, good security; fast speed and good design, in place in order not to compromise **the reliability and convenient speed** for accessing information related to sport mega-events through the e-marketing technology.

9.6.5 Communication factors

It appears that the communication factors critical for optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events include **strategic planning** and the establishment of **innovative partnerships** amongst a wide range of stakeholders involved in the marketing of sport mega-events. The communication factors that have been identified are **communicating relevant information** about sport mega-events, **communicating current sport mega-events information** through e-marketing tools and **communicating specific and consistent e-marketing messages** about sport mega-events to relevant stakeholders. It is envisaged that all these communication factors would lead to optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events, which would also facilitate a common understanding of the aims and objectives relating to the use of e-marketing technology for sport mega-events.

It emerged from the research findings generated by this study that the 11 CSFs pertaining to the of e-marketing of sport mega-events, presented in Figure 9.6 (p.280), are important guidelines for the implementation of the proposed strategic framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events. The framework was previously referred to in paragraph 9.2 and is presented in Figure 9.7 (p.284).

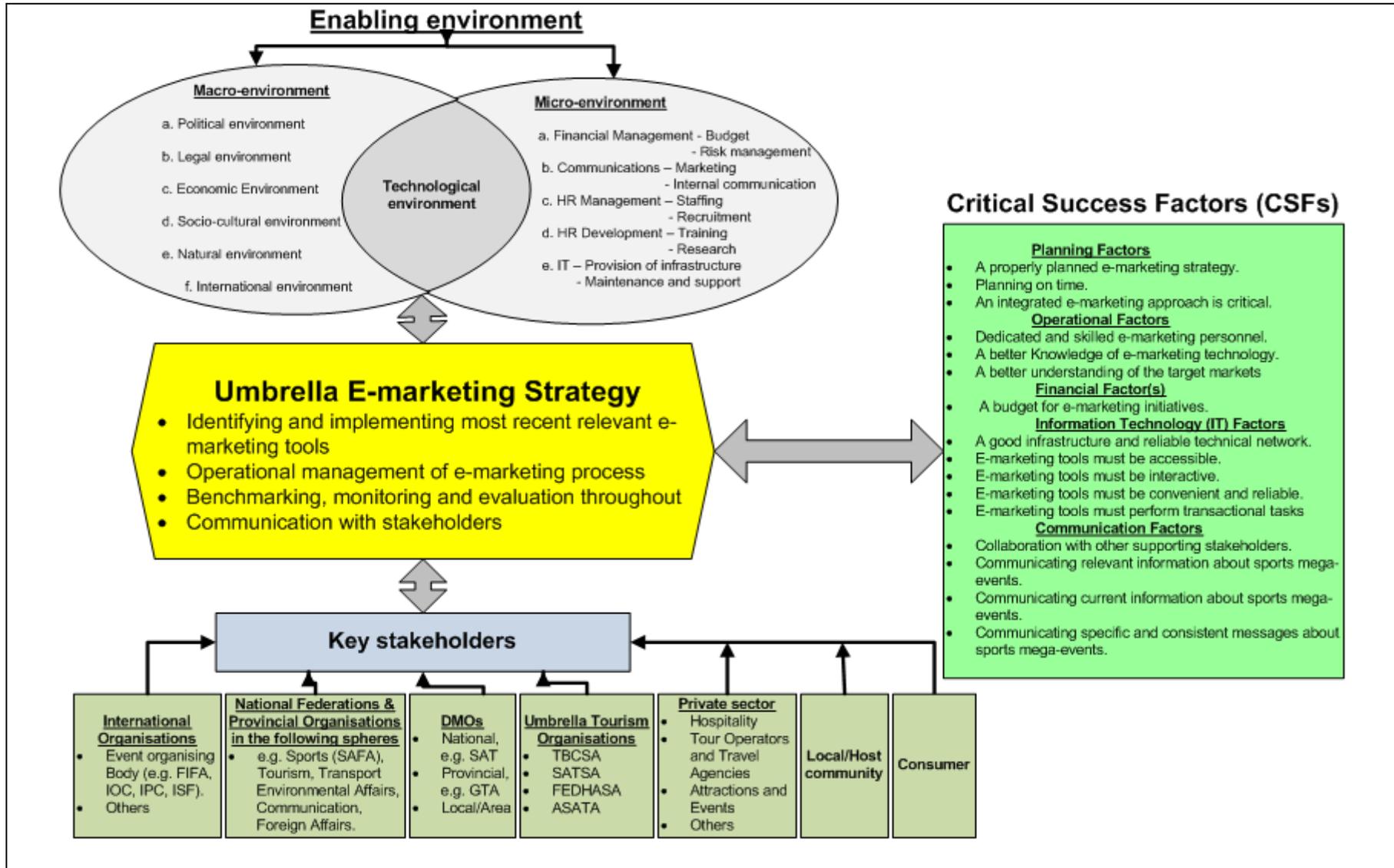


Figure 9.7: Conceptual framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in future sport mega-events (Author's own construction)

With regard to the implementation of the proposed e-marketing framework illustrated in Figure 9.7 (p.284), the planning factors would be the starting point of the process, followed by the correct placement of the operational factors essential for the usage of e-marketing technology in sport mega-events. Thereafter, the financial factors, including an approved budget generated specifically for e-marketing initiatives relating to sport mega-events, would make it possible for sport marketers to establish the reliable infrastructural network required for the operation of e-marketing technology and strategies. It is assumed that once the conditions applicable to the IT factors are met, then e-marketing technology may be used optimally in campaigns surrounding sport mega-events through the implementation of the identified communication CSFs.

9.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

There is a great scope for future research on the topic of sport mega-events and e-marketing technology. From the analysis of the research findings, the researcher managed to develop some generalisations, which support the premise that e-marketing may be used optimally for sport mega-events. These are generalisations from which the hosts of future sport mega-events may learn and translate into a programme of specific, comprehensive and relevant operational activities, which can be applied when marketing and e-marketing future sport mega-events. It emerged from this study that social media are used globally in sport mega-events, while mobile cellular phones have achieved high levels of penetration, especially among younger consumers who are also more likely to be fans of sport mega-events. As a result, there is a need for marketers of sport mega-events to re-align their e-marketing campaigns for sport mega-events in line with the changing needs and wants of customers.

Furthermore, this study demonstrates that e-marketing technology, especially the websites and social media, such as Facebook, YouTube and Twitter, are amongst the online media that are increasingly being used to access sport products and sport related services. It can be argued that each of the CSFs relating to the e-marketing of sport mega-events, which were identified in this study alone, presents unexplored avenues for further study. The fact that an overarching e-marketing strategy must be designed for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events, is, for example, a theme in its own right that needs to be thoroughly researched in order to investigate how the strategy could be implemented successfully. Another area that is still to be researched relates to the IT factors, such as the infrastructural technical networks, which appear to be a pre-requisite for the effective usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events. Future studies in this area may be geared towards an investigation of architectural environments and network capabilities that are best suited to an evolving e-marketing technology catering for sport mega-events.

Future studies in the sport mega-events field may also focus on the investigation of HR and HRD which appear to be critical for the implementation of the operational factors required for the optimal usage of e-marketing in future sport mega-events. Also, the implication of ambush marketing in the marketing of sport mega-events appears to be another area that is still to be explored in future studies. Finally, although the use of e-marketing and mobile technology in sport mega-events has become important, it has also become apparent that the optimal use of mobile cellular phone technology in leveraging promotions for sport mega-events has not yet been fully and properly researched. In fact, this is still a grey area that needs to be explored and investigated. This study may also be helpful in facilitating future additional research in the field of sport mega-events, such as an investigation into mobile phone technology and its application to sport mega-events.

9.8 SUMMARY

The strategic e-marketing framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events has been proposed (refer to Figure 9.7 (p.284) in this study. The fundamental components of the proposed e-marketing framework for the optimal usage of e-marketing in sport mega-events were identified as the enabling environment which comprises the macro-and-micro environments, the technological environment, the key stakeholders who have to be identified and motivated to work together and the e-marketing strategy for sport mega-events (refer to Figures 9.2, 9.3, 9.4, 9.5). In terms of this proposed e-marketing framework, e-marketing technology would be optimally used in sport mega-events **only if the conditions** indicated in the 11 CSFs identified for e-marketing sport mega-events are met (refer to Figure 9.6). The CSFs for the e-marketing of sport mega-events, therefore, serve as guidelines for the implementation of the proposed conceptual e-marketing framework.

From the proposed e-marketing framework (refer to Figure 9.7 (p.284), the overarching e-marketing strategy is seen and regarded as the engine that is critical for driving e-marketing initiatives related to sport mega-events, while at the same time enabling sport marketers to respond to the macro-environmental factors that impact on e-marketing initiatives for sport mega-events and to keep pace with the technological developments related to e-marketing. It is envisaged that with the proper implementation of the proposed strategic e-marketing framework, the sport marketers for future host destinations may be able to optimally use e-marketing technology for sport mega-events.

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APPENDIX A

**A summary of strengths and weaknesses of various media used in
marketing of sport mega-events**

Print Media		
Types of Print Media	Strengths	Weaknesses
a. Newspapers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. The major advantages of print media such as newspapers are its longevity and opportunity for repetition. ii. Newspapers provide geographic flexibility because it is possible to advertise in national, local and even suburban newspapers. iii. Newspapers have large readership can reach markets at national, regional, and local levels. iv. Newspapers handle long, detailed messages. v. Newspapers reach both select and diverse markets. vi. Newspapers are an excellent medium to use to promote local events or activities; and vii. Once people acquire newspapers they can either keep the entire paper or clip out the information that is important to them. (Adapted from Arora, 2005; Raza, 2005; Oelkers, 2007; Morrison, 2010). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Readers are selective because they read only what interests them. ii. Newspapers have a relatively short life span and are printed on high-speed presses. iii. Newspapers are a very 'crowded' advertising medium, especially on weekends (Thursday, Friday and Saturday), so a message can be lost among competing adverts. iv. Advertising in national newspapers is expensive and can be prohibitive for non-profit organisations or small businesses; and v. Colour reproduction varies in quality from newspaper to newspaper. (Adapted from Arora. 2005; Raza, 2005; Morrison, 2010).
b. Magazines	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Magazines are very good for reaching selected markets. ii. Magazines generally have a higher readership to circulation ratio than newspapers, and a longer life span. iii. Magazines provide quality advertising. iv. Glossy printed publications provide exceptional opportunities for quality colour reproduction. v. Designed to be read in a leisurely manner, they have a sense of luxury and indulgence that newspapers lack. vi. Unlike a newspaper, magazines are often collected and sometimes even saved for many years. vii. They are passed around to others more than newspapers, and viii. Magazines have a sense of "permanence". Once people acquire them, they tend to keep them for a while, and this allows them to be re-read at a later date (Adapted from Raza, 2005; Morrison, 2010). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Most require that photographs and stories be turned in far in advance of publication. ii. It is difficult to make changes between the time a story is accepted and published. iii. Magazines are often more costly in terms of cost per thousand to reach target markets. iv. Most magazines, except for weekly magazines, lack a sense of immediacy, and v. Readers only read what interests them and may not read the whole magazine (Adapted from Raza, 2005; Morrison, 2010).

The Radio		
	Strengths	Weaknesses
The Radio	i. Radio is good for targeting specific markets. ii. Radio can reach large, diverse markets. iii. Radio can help increase the market coverage of other media, especially print media. iv. It can be used to cover events or activities “live”. v. People can listen to it while doing something else. vi. It is an excellent medium for reaching people on the move. vii. Radio can create emotions and involve the listener, making use of the listener’s ability to use the imagination. viii. Advertisement and Public Service Announcements (PSA’s) can be repeated frequently, and ix. It is frequently used as a secondary or complementary media for major campaigns that include print and television (Adapted Raza, 2005; Morrison, 2010).	i. The length of most advertisements and PSA’s is usually short and easy to miss or ignore. ii. Radio cannot be used to demonstrate a process. iii. Being an aural medium, it is difficult to use Radio to give a sense of how a product looks or feels, and iv. Often there are many stations in an area which makes the audience for each station small (Adapted from Raza, 2005; Morrison, 2010).
The Television (TV)		
	Strengths	Weaknesses
The Television	i. TV uses both sight and sound for a dynamic form of promotion. ii. TV can be used nationally, regionally, or locally for large audience. iii. It reaches specific or diverse markets at low cost per person reached. iv. TV is a family and home medium with immense impact because it requires little effort on the part of the viewer, providing vision, colour, movement and sound. v. It can be used to cover an event or activity “live”, and vi. For “pay TV”/ Cable Television, advertising spots can be different than those for commercial television because they can be shorter or longer, for example (Adapted from Wearne & Baker, 2002; Raza, 2005; Raza, 2005; Gillentine <i>et al.</i> , 2009; Morrison, 2010).	i. TV is expensive to use thus it requires large budget. ii. Commercials and other promotional messages are short and easy to miss or ignore if there is a brief distraction at the time the advert appears. iii. The number of desirable time slots for commercials and other promotional messages in prime day or night programmes is limited. iv. TV is often an expensive medium for small businesses to use. v. TV can take time to do well because creating advertisements can take time as well as money. vi. TV is a passive medium, unlike reading newspapers and magazines requires active participation on the part of the reader, TV occurs in front of the viewer, and vii. The main disadvantage of cable television is that not everyone has it, and for information on how to use cable television, people have to contact their local cable television companies (Adapted from Wearne & Baker, 2002; Raza, 2005; Morrison, 2010).

Public Relations (PR)		
	Strengths	Weaknesses
Public Relations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. PR is useful in establishing awareness of services or destination, and can rebuild confidence in a destination or company. ii. Successful PR campaigns can reach a very wide audience. iii. PR provides 'soft' coverage of a tourism offering or destination in an editorial context, and iv. Most PR activities are low cost and rely more on resourcefulness than resources, unlike advertising (Adapted from Morrison, 2010). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. The problem of distortion is a major disadvantage of PR, especially editorials. ii. Unlike advertising, the result of PR activities cannot be controlled. iii. Sending out press releases using PR can be time-consuming, and iv. Press releases using PR are rarely published in their entirety and this might mean that information is misinterpreted (Adapted from Morrison, 2010).
Sponsorships		
	Strengths	Weaknesses
Sponsorships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Sponsorships have helped improve the image and grow the revenues of sports and sports bodies. ii. Media and corporate sponsors have both exerted a profound influence on sport, such as, increasing the level of spectatorship and by bringing about a high profile for the individual sport as well as for sports in general. iii. They enable the companies to fulfil primary marketing communications objectives of creating brand awareness through access to unique global audience, and iv. Sponsoring an event generates the audience while concurrently sending a message to that audience about the event's values (Adapted from Fahy, Farrelly & Quester, 2004; Cornwell & Coote, 2005). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Clutter and conflict among the competing sponsors are the outcomes of the proliferation of sponsorships opportunities and are the medium's biggest challenges. ii. A growing and pervasive phenomenon, ambush marketing, is becoming a threat to the very involvement of sponsors and is influencing their relationship with sport, and iii. Ambush marketing creates consumer confusion, thereby denying the legitimate sponsor clear recognition for its sponsorship role (Adapted from Fahy, Farrelly & Quester, 2004; Cornwell & Coote, 2005).

Merchandising		
	Strengths	Weaknesses
Merchandising	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. Merchandising can be cost-effective ways of extending the reach and effectiveness of campaigns, raising and maintaining awareness and providing customers and distributors with a sense of added value. ii. It provides an organisation with opportunities to maintain a high level of awareness of the organisation's name, brand or logo, and iii. Merchandising can also represent a significant contribution to an organisation's revenue (Adapted from Morrison, 2010). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. The type of merchandising will depend on the type of facility. ii. Merchandising depends on the organisation's ability to select the appropriate merchandise. iii. It depends on the organisation's ability to determine the correct price ranges, create interesting and tempting displays and make it easy for the consumer to buy, and iv. It may contribute to visual clutter (Adapted from Morrison, 2010).
The Internet		
	Strengths	Weaknesses
The Internet	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. The Internet makes it possible for companies to create electronic messages, such as, advertisements, brochures, letters and memo. ii. Potential customers can obtain information about products and services by pointing and clicking to the appropriate part of the display. iii. The Web can display information in the form of text, graphics, sound and video. iv. The customers can send electronic mail (email) to make queries, and can thus proceed to place an order, book a reservation and even pay by credit card, using secure, encrypted systems for transferring credit card details. v. The Web pages can be updated whenever required. vi. The Internet can reach a mass audience right in their place of work or home. vii. The marketer can monitor usage of websites, and even obtain quite detailed data about users. viii. The Internet can offer a channel of distribution as well as a channel of communication, with the chance to book on-line, and ix. The Internet via the Web has provision for the commercial sites and sites established by individuals who want to share their experiences and their views (Adapted from Morrison, 2010). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> i. The amount of information, accuracy, design and usefulness varies tremendously because there are no 'rules' about what goes on the websites. ii. Searching for information in the Internet can be frustratingly hard and time consuming. iii. Many websites are not particularly well designed, and can take a long time to download information. iv. There are security and privacy concerns. v. There are many problems with spamming in e-mail marketing. vi. <i>Visual barriers</i>: concern those who are blind, have low vision or colour blindness. An example of a visual barrier is an image that does not have an alternative text. vii. <i>Physical barriers</i>: are experienced by those who suffer from motor disabilities and have trouble handling the keyboard or mouse and other peripheral devices, and viii. <i>Cognitive and neurological barriers</i>: are experienced by people that have for example dyslexia, learning or memory or seizure disorders (Adapted from Morrison, 2010).

APPENDIX B

Data collection instrument (pre-2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™)

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

E-Marketing of Sports Mega-Events with specific reference to the 2010 Soccer World Cup

PhD Dissertation Research Project of:

Paul Shimane Radikonyana

Department of Tourism Management

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

University of Pretoria

Pretoria

0002

RSA

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

E-Marketing of Sports Mega-Events with specific reference to the 2010 Soccer World Cup

PhD Dissertation Research Project of Paul Shimane Radikonyana

Department of Tourism Management

University of Pretoria

Pretoria

0002, Republic of South Africa

Focus and aims of the survey

This research aims to examine and investigate the role of e-marketing in major sports events, with specific reference to the 2010 Soccer World Cup.

The findings from the fieldwork will form the basis for my PhD Dissertation and will hopefully contribute to our knowledge of the role and importance of e-marketing in major sports events. I trust that this study will also provide useful information for the formulation of e-marketing strategies which the hosts of future major sports events can use to market their events successfully.

Your participation in this interview is voluntary and will be greatly appreciated. All information that you provide in the interview will be treated as **confidential** and will remain **anonymous**.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

The term ‘e-marketing’ and ‘major events’.

The concept ‘e-marketing’ should be understood broadly in this interview to refer to using the internet and its related technologies and features (e.g. the Web, e-mails, social networking, online video, Web 2.0, Travel 2.0, tagging, wikis, web blogs, podcasts, etc.) that could help achieve marketing objectives in conjunction with other marketing communication tools.

Mega/major-events are best understood as ‘large scale events, which have mass popular appeal and international significance. They also have significant consequences for the host city, region or nation in which they occur, and they attract considerable media coverage (e.g. Rugby World Cup, FIFA World Cup, Cricket World Cup, Olympic Games, etc.)

THEME 1: PERCEIVED ROLE OF E-MARKETING IN SPORTS MEGA-EVENTS

1.1 Have you been or are you/your organisation involved in the marketing of major international sports events? (e.g. Africa Cup of Nations, Cape Argus Cycle Tour, Rugby World Cup, Soccer World Cup, Cricket World Cup, etc.)

YES NO

1.2 If **YES**, which events and what was your marketing role in each of these events?

1.3 Did you use e-marketing techniques/tools? (e.g. Internet, social networking, cell phone etc.).

YES NO

THEME 2: USAGE OF E-MARKETING IN PARTICULAR EVENTS

2.1 If **YES**, which tools did you use?

2.2 At what stage and for what specific purpose did you use them? *Please elaborate.*

2.3 From your perspective, how successful were the use of these tools? *Please elaborate in detail.*

2.4 What are both the positive and negative e-marketing lessons learnt from previous sports events?

3.6 What would you do differently, when using e-marketing tools for future major sports events?

THEME 3: USAGE OF E-MARKETING IN 2010 SOCCER WORLD CUP

3.1 Will you be using e-marketing tools for the 2010 Soccer World Cup?

YES NO

3.2 If **YES**, what e-marketing tools will you be using, for what purpose and at what stage?

3.3 Do you have a dedicated e-marketing strategy or are your e-marketing initiatives undertaken on an ad-hoc basis?

3.4 Will these e-marketing tools be used in collaboration with other industry stakeholders? *Elaborate*

3.5 Could you give an indication of your envisaged spend on e-marketing initiatives related to the 2010 event?

3.6 Are you experiencing **problems/challenges** with regard to the use of e-marketing tools for the 2010 event? *Please elaborate*

THEME 4: CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTORS

4.1 What, in your opinion, are the **critical success factors** related to the e-marketing of major international sports events?

THEME 5: FUTURE OF E-MARKETING

5.1 What, in your opinion, are the **key trends** and **possible future developments** regarding the e-marketing of major international sports events?

THEME 6: ANY OTHER COMMENTS AND/OR SUGGESTIONS REGARDING THE E-MARKETING OF MAJOR SPORTS EVENTS; AND THE 2010 SOCCER WORLD CUP IN PARTICULAR.

THEME 7: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

7.1 For your current employment:

(a) Please tell us about the organisation you work for.

7.1.1 Public sector *(type of department)* _____

7.1.2 Private sector *(type of company)* _____

7.1.3 Describe the main function of your organisation. _____

(b) Please tell us about yourself.

7.1.4 Your job title _____

7.1.5 Your role (e.g. *technical manager, general manager, consultant, researcher
marketing manager, communication officer etc*) _____

7.1.6 Your status (e.g. *fixed term, permanent or external contractor/ consultant etc*)

Thanks very much for your help and co-operation!

APPENDIX C

Data collection instrument (post-2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™)

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

E-Marketing of Sports Mega-Events with specific reference to the 2010 Soccer World Cup

PhD Dissertation Research Project of:

Paul Shimane Radikonyana

Department of Tourism Management

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

University of Pretoria

Pretoria

0002

RSA

IN-DEPTH INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

E-Marketing of Sports Mega-Events with specific reference to the 2010 Soccer World Cup

PhD Dissertation Research Project of Paul Shimane Radikonyana

Department of Tourism Management

University of Pretoria

Pretoria

0002, Republic of South Africa

Focus and aims of the survey

This research aims to examine and investigate the role of e-marketing in major sports events, with specific reference to the 2010 Soccer World Cup.

The findings from the fieldwork will form the basis for my PhD Dissertation and will hopefully contribute to our knowledge of the role and importance of e-marketing in major sports events. I trust that this study will also provide useful information for the formulation of e-marketing strategies, which the hosts of future major sports events can use to market their events successfully.

Your participation in this interview is voluntary and will be greatly appreciated. All information that you provide in the interview will be treated as **confidential** and will remain **anonymous**.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

The term ‘e-marketing’ and ‘major events’.

The concept ‘e-marketing’ should be understood broadly in this interview to refer to using the internet and its related technologies and features (e.g. the Web, e-mails, social networking, online video, Web 2.0, Travel 2.0, tagging, wikis, web blogs, podcasts, etc.) that could help achieve marketing objectives in conjunction with other marketing communication tools.

Mega/major-events are best understood as ‘large scale events, which have mass popular appeal and international significance. They also have significant consequences for the host city, region or nation in which they occur, and they attract considerable media coverage (e.g. Rugby World Cup, FIFA World Cup, Cricket World Cup, Olympic Games, etc.)

THEME 1: PERCEIVED ROLE OF E-MARKETING IN SPORTS MEGA-EVENTS

1.1 Have you been or are you/your organisation involved in the marketing of major international sports events? (e.g. Africa Cup of Nations, Rugby World Cup, Soccer World Cup, Cricket World Cup, etc.)

YES NO

1.2 If **YES**, which events and what was your marketing role in each of these events?

1.3 Did you/your organisation use e-marketing techniques/tools? (e.g. Internet, social networking, cell phone etc.).

YES NO

THEME 2: USAGE OF E-MARKETING IN PARTICULAR EVENTS

2.1 If **YES**, which tools were used?

2.2 At what stage and for what specific purpose did you/your organisation use them?
Please elaborate.

2.3 From your perspective, how successful were the use of these tools? *Please elaborate in detail.*

2.4 (a) What are the key positive e-marketing lessons learnt from previous sports events?

(b) What are the key negative e-marketing lessons learnt from previous sports events?

2.5 What would you do differently, when using e-marketing tools for future major sports events and why?

THEME 3: USAGE OF E-MARKETING IN 2010 SOCCER WORLD CUP

3.1 Did you/your organisation use e-marketing tools for the 2010 Soccer World Cup?

YES NO

3.2 If **YES**, what e-marketing tools did you/your organisation use, for what purpose and at what stage?

3.3 Did you/your organization have a dedicated e-marketing strategy or were your e-marketing initiatives undertaken on an ad-hoc basis?

3.4 Were these e-marketing tools used in collaboration with the marketing initiatives of other industry stakeholders? *Elaborate on these initiatives and indicate who the stakeholders were that were collaborated with.*

3.5 Could you give an indication of what your expenditure was on e-marketing initiatives related to the 2010 event?

3.6 Did you experience **problems/challenges** with regard to the use of e-marketing tools for the 2010 event? *Please elaborate*

THEME 6: ANY OTHER COMMENTS AND/OR SUGGESTIONS REGARDING THE E-MARKETING OF MAJOR SPORTS EVENTS; AND THE 2010 SOCCER WORLD CUP IN PARTICULAR.

THEME 7: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

7.1 For your current employment:

(a) Please tell us about the organisation you work for.

7.1.1 Public sector (*type of department*) _____

7.1.2 Private sector (*type of company*) _____

7.1.3 Describe the main function of your organisation. _____

(b) Please tell us about yourself.

7.1.4 Your job title _____

7.1.5 Your role (*e.g. technical manager, general manager, consultant, researcher marketing manager, communication officer etc*) _____

7.1.6 Your status (*e.g. fixed term, permanent or external contractor/ consultant etc*)

Thanks very much for your help and co-operation!

APPENDIX D

Informed consent for participation in an academic research study



Informed consent for participation in an academic research study

Department of Tourism Management

Title of the study

THE E-MARKETING OF SPORTS MEGA-EVENTS WITH SPECIFIC REFERENCE TO 2010
SOCCER WORLD CUP

Research conducted by:
Mr. P. S. Radikonyana (21313335)
Cell: 076 528 7562

Dear Respondent

You are invited to participate in an academic research study conducted by Paul Shimane Radikonyana, Doctoral student from the Department of Tourism and Management at the University of Pretoria.

The purpose of the study is to examine and investigate the role of e-marketing in sports mega-events. Ultimately, the study is intended to identify whether or not e-marketing is the key tool for ensuring a proper framework for strategic marketing of sports mega-events.

Please note the following:

- This study involves an anonymous in-depth interview survey. Your name will not appear on the transcripts and the answers you give will be treated as strictly confidential. You cannot be identified in person based on the answers you give.
- Your participation in this study is very important to me. You may, however, choose not to participate and you may also stop participating at any time without any negative consequences.
- Please answer the questions in the attached questionnaire as completely and honestly as possible. This should not take more than **30** minutes of your time.
- 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 study leader, Prof. E. Heath, on tel. (012) 420 4000 (e-mail: ernie.heath@up.ac.za) 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 E (i)

Profiles of Respondents (Pre-2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™)

Respondent	Name of organisation	Type of organisation			Main function of organisation
		Public	Private	Parastatal	
Respondent 1	Gauteng Tourism Authority (GTA): Johannesburg (GP)	X		X	To market Gauteng Province globally as a tourism destination
Respondent 2	South African Tourism: National (GP).	X			To promote South Africa globally as a tourism destination
Respondent 3	South African Tourism: National (GP).	X			Local and international destination marketing (RSA in particular)
Respondent 4	City of Tshwane Tourism Office: Tshwane (GP)	X			Promotion and Development of Tourism
Respondent 5	Rustenburg Local Municipality: Rustenburg (NW)	X			To deliver basic services to the greater Rustenburg communities
Respondent 6	Tourism KwaZulu-Natal: Durban (KZN)	X			Destination Management Organisation of Tourism KwaZulu-Natal (KZN)
Respondent 7	Polokwane Local Municipality: Polokwane (LP)	X			To serve the people of Polokwane and ensure that the big events would benefit them
Respondent 8	Tourism Cape Town: Cape Town (WC)	X			Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO)
Respondent 9	Tourism Cape Town: Cape Town (WC)	X			Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) responsible for marketing Cape Town and the Western Cape
Respondent 10	Mangaung Local Municipality: Bloemfontein (FS)	X			Provision of services to ensure adherence to different legislations in line with govt priorities and to do things related to hospitality
Respondent 11	Investment Promotion & Tourism: Polokwane (LP)	X			Provision of services and promotion of Local economy
Respondent 12	Mangaung Local Municipality: Bloemfontein (FS)	X			Local Government that manages the municipal area, infrastructure and services within the municipal area
Respondent 13	Nelson Mandela Bay Tourism (NMBT): Port Elizabeth (EC)	X			Marketing Nelson Mandela Bay (Port Elizabeth) as a choice destination for visitors.
Respondent 14	Nelson Mandela Bay Tourism (NMBT): Port Elizabeth (EC)	X			Marketing Nelson Mandela Bay as a destination to increase the number of visitors to the city.
Respondent 15	South African Tourism: National (GP).	X			To market South Africa overseas as a travel and business destination

Respondent	Name of organisation	Type of organisation			Main function of organisation
		Public	Private	Parastatal	
Respondent 16	Mpumalanga Tourism & Parks Agency (MTPA): Nelspruit (MP)			X	Tourism development and promotion, conservation and biodiversity management
Respondent 17	Cape Town Travel Tourism: Cape Town (WC)		X		To promote visitor services to Cape Town
Respondent 18	Mbombela Local Municipality: Nelspruit (MP)	X			Local Municipalities
Respondent 19	Mbombela Local Municipality: Nelspruit (MP)	X			Local Government and it is all about service delivery.
Respondent 20	Limpopo Tourism & Parks: Polokwane (LP)		X		Tourism Marketing
Respondent 21	South African Tourism Services Association (SATSA): Johannesburg (GP)		X		Non-profit Organisation/Association of Inbound Tourism and sets rules for membership and quality level, and lobby government to share information with members.

Appendix E (ii)

Profiles of Respondents (Post-2010 FIFA Soccer World Cup™)

Respondent	Name of organisation	Type of organisation			Main function of organisation
		Public	Private	Parastatal	
Respondent 1	South African Tourism: National (GP).	X			To market organisation that promotes South Africa internationally and locally as a tourism destination. Our main aim is to bring many foreigners into the country as many as possible towards growth of our economy and towards job creation
Respondent 2	South African Tourism: National (GP).	X			Our main function is to promote South Africa as a business and leisure destination overseas.
Respondent 3	Mpumalanga Tourism & Parks Agency (MTPA): Nelspruit (MP)	X			To promote tourism and biodiversity conservation.
Respondent 4	Dept of Cooperative Governance: National (GP)	X			To provide support to Local Government and municipalities
Respondent 5	Cape Town Travel Tourism: Cape Town (WC)	X			To market the city of Cape Town as a place to live, work, travel and study.
Respondent 6	City of Tshwane Tourism Office: Tshwane (GP)	X			To develop and promote the City of Tshwane's tourism in a sustainable and responsible manner in order to create decent jobs and stimulate economic role.
Respondent 7	Nelson Mandela Bay Tourism (NMBT): Port Elizabeth (EC)		X		Marketing Nelson Mandela Bay (Port Elizabeth) as a choice destination for visitors.
Respondent 8	Nelson Mandela Bay Tourism (NMBT): Port Elizabeth (EC)		X		Marketing Nelson Mandela Bay as a destination to increase the number of visitors to the city.
Respondent 9	Gauteng Tourism Authority (GTA): Johannesburg (GP)	X		X	Our dual mandate is to both market Gauteng as a globally desirable tourist destination and manage it as a globally competitive destination.
Respondent 10	Convention Bureau: Durban (KZN)	X			To promote the business tourism services and facilities of the province of KwaZulu-Natal. To secure major business tourism events for this province
Respondent 11	Rustenburg Local Municipality: Rustenburg (NW)	X			Local Government municipality and our role are to provide services to communities in the form of infrastructure services, community services and so forth.

Respondent	Name of organisation	Type of organisation			Main function of organisation
		Public	Private	Parastatal	
Respondent 12	Johannesburg Tourism Company: Johannesburg (GP)	X			To implement experience-based destination and tourism marketing, manage demand-driven tourism development programmes, in order to achieve the tourism growth objectives, all of which are aimed at ensuring: shared and sustainable economic growth and development in the City; the transformation of the tourism sector within the City; a bridging of the gap -ultimately stimulating a vibrant second economy.
Respondent 13	Tourism Cape Town: Cape Town (WC)	X			Destination Marketing Organisation (DMO) responsible for marketing Cape Town and the Western Cape
Respondent 14	Department of Sport, Arts & Culture (NW)	X			Communication
Respondent 15	Mbombela Local Municipality: Nelspruit (MP)	X			Local Government and it is all about service delivery.
Respondent 16	Limpopo Tourism & Parks: Polokwane (LP)	X			Tourism Marketing
Respondent 17	South African Tourism Services Association (SATSA): Johannesburg (GP)		X		To promote South Africa globally as a tourism destination Non-profit Organisation/Association of Inbound Tourism and set rules for membership and quality level, and lobby Government to share information with members.
Respondent 18	B & B Properties Research: Bloemfontein (FS)		X		B&B Properties Research