

**SPORTS TOURISM:
A PROPOSAL FOR ECONOMIC AND INFRASTRUCTURAL
DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA**

By

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ABSTRACT

Sports tourism is recognised to be a fast-growing sector in the tourism industry. The current fiscal crisis and poorly performing economies have brought renewed attention to tourism particularly its sports as a tool that could help revive economic growth in Africa. The trend in the performances of sports tourism in Africa i.e. the 1995 Rugby World Cup, 2003 ICC Cricket World Cup, 2010 FIFA World Cup and recently the 2021 AFCON tournament in the last decade, have shown the importance of the sector to the continent's economy. Hence there is a strong belief that sports tourism has great potential to significantly contribute to Africa's infrastructure and economic development. The research explores strategies to facilitate sports tourism participation in Africa, with specific references to South Africa's football club Mamelodi Sundowns and Kenya's Machakos county as its case studies. While there are other case studies such as Gabon, Cameroon and Morocco, Machakos County and South Africa's F.C Mamelodi Sundowns appeared as the stand-out cases for the research given challenges each faced such as lack of finances and poor management respectively. The study used a mixed-methods research approach to obtain the key factors, followed by the two mentioned case studies, to propose steps towards sports tourism success against the backdrop of the underlying challenges faced by sports tourism in Africa such as political instability, travel constraints, lack of infrastructure and safety and security issues. The research makes the argument for African countries to adopt a long-term or a more sustainable strategy towards sports tourism rather than the common short-term strategy of seeking to lure megaevents and fast-track development in order to catch up to developed countries. African countries pursuing sports tourism should also be guided by the principle of Africa following its own discourse of infrastructural and economic development, a point that also has bearing on the definition of sports tourism itself as will be demonstrated.

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Introduction

Sports tourism, particularly its mega and small-scale events, has been recognized to provide opportunities to market destinations, which has brought growth and tourist popularity. One good example is South Africa and the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup of 2010, which put the country on the map as a favourable destination in Africa. South Africa's tourist arrivals between the period of January to September 2010 increased by 16,8% as it recorded 856,934 more visitors to the 5 087 634 visitors which had been recorded during the same nine months in 2009 (National Department of Tourism, 2010). Former tourism minister, Marthinus van Schalkwyk, during an interview commented that, "the hallmark event positioned South Africa as a viable investment market and improved its perception abroad, which could have a long-lasting impact, not only on the country and its development, but on the continent as a whole" (Montsho, 2010).

The Rainbow nation's efforts in hosting the FIFA World Cup saw it receive a 90% success rate award for its stadiums and world class facilities by former FIFA President Sepp Blatter. The value of such a prestigious award would later be questioned by author Bond Cottle in his book *South Africa's World Cup: A legacy for whom?* (2011). Sepp Blatter's presidency came under scrutiny as he was charged with fraud and corruption after recording ZAR 25 billion in profit with no taxes, making it one of the most profitable World Cups for him and the FIFA executive board. Whilst it is fair to admit that the 2010 FIFA World Cup was memorable and took place in some spectacular stadiums such as Soccer City in Johannesburg and the Moses Mabhida stadium in Durban, the corruption scandals which emerged discredits the value of the award as it appears to be given based on the large profits recorded by the organizers and not the profits recorded for the benefit of the host nation. However, the award by FIFA during the time was more than enough in boosting both citizen's pride and the country's image which is often tarnished by its high crime rate. South Africa's efforts as a developing country in hosting such a mega-event was a deemed a success story of sports tourism for other countries in Africa given its potential in developing infrastructure, economy and social livelihoods of communities (Siyabule, 2014: 2).

1.1 Main Purpose of Study

The main purpose of this mini-thesis will be to discuss why sports tourism, particularly its mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup or the Olympics are not a fix-all tool for economic and infrastructural development across Africa. While it does intend on revealing the components that would make such events viable in Africa, it wishes to propose the adoption of small-scale sporting events such as yearly tournaments as an alternative to these mega-events. This is due to the fact that

small-scale events require much smaller budgets in a shorter period compared to mega-events and are more sustainable in the long term. To achieve this, the study looks at the current state of sports tourism in developing countries to determine success stories. Whilst this will also reveal the many challenges faced by sports tourism in developing countries, this will help the study propose strategies and policies to combat these challenges and harness sports tourism potential in these regions.

1.2 Problem Statement

The focus on sports tourism is unsurprising as the concept of tourism itself has been tasked with the burden of alleviating poverty in Africa since the early 2000s. Zambian economist and author, Dambisa Moyo (2009), in her book *Dead Aid* indicated that more than \$1 trillion dollars' worth of aid over the past fifty years has been poured into Africa in an attempt to eradicate poverty and develop Africa to the levels of Europe. This has unfortunately failed dismally as it has only created an overreliance on aid, thus trapping developing countries in Africa in a never-ending cycle of dependency, corruption, deterioration in infrastructure and increase in poverty. Tourism was recognized as a development tool which was more sustainable in nature in comparison to aid. Sustainable tourism, which the World Tourism Organization (WTO) defines as "tourism that manages resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetics needs can be fulfilled, whilst preserving cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems", became the 'new aid' for most developing countries. It was perceived as actually uplifting low income communities through employment opportunities. Therefore, it was only normal for scholars and governments to start considering sports tourism as a poverty alleviation tool, given its potential to generate a large amount of income in a short space of time, which could reduce the projected time that African countries need in order to catch up with developed countries such as the United States of America (USA) or the United Kingdom (Muhanna, 2007: 37).

Africa's continued dependence on aid in order to thrive has seen the continent labelled as 'underdeveloped' which has allowed Europe to maintain influence over its formal colonial states and the rest of Africa as it steers the often-troubled continent towards attaining 'First World' status. This broader context outlined above is necessary to appreciate why such an influence today can be seen in African sports as competitions. The newly founded Basketball Africa League (BAL), the Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON), Confederation of African Football (CAF) Champions league and even soccer leagues in countries such as Egypt, Algeria or South Africa, are regulated by sports executive committees from the global North such as FIFA and the National Basketball Association (NBA). These African competitions are expected to modify their development discourse to fit with European standards. Despite decades of following this discourse, sports in Africa is still underdeveloped

compared to sports in Europe, which continues to improve each year. This idea of development has also continued to favour the white-saviour complex (a phrase referring to a “white person who acts to help non-white people, but in the context is perceived as self-serving”) at the expense of crippling Africa as the continent has seen itself lose top football talents such as Didier Drogba, Samuel Eto’o to European soccer teams such as Chelsea and Football Club (F.C) Barcelona. It is for such reasons that Africa needs to start rethinking its own path towards alternative development (Mathew, 2018: 2). Tourism through its many forms has been of huge benefit to Africa. It has improved infrastructure, increased local consumption, diversified exports, empowered the youth and young women through arts and crafts and aided the preservation of heritage and culture (Christie *et al.*,2014: 23). There is still a feeling, however, that tourism in Africa carries a burden of eradicating poverty on a large scale as structures responsible to do so have failed to have a desired impact. Therefore, the consideration of sports tourism, particularly its mega-events like the FIFA World Cup as a key to fast-track African countries to First world status such as the USA or United Kingdom, appears as rather ambitious and merely another carrot for African countries to continue playing along to global rules. The decision to focus on mega-events such as those mentioned above is partially due to their large influence in the world of sports tourism. Mega-events are often valued at millions to billions of dollars which often has a direct impact on a host nation’s economy. However, there is also a need to be aware of the damaging impact that these mega-events could have if they were to be implemented in Africa as they require extensive investment that the host nations must pay for. This often attracts huge debt and the construction of facilities such as large stadiums, to which host cities in the past fail to find use for after the event has taken place.

The above discussion leads to the main research question of the mini-dissertation being: What steps and models are required for Sports Tourism to be considered as a suitable tool for the economic and infrastructural development of Africa? A secondary question that will be considered is why there is an interest to implement sports tourism in Africa at a large scale. With the implementation of the correct strategies and policies, sports tourism can play a role in boosting African countries’ economies, as well as help develop non-industrial regions (Namin & Niknam, 2011: 895). Sports tourism in developing regions can provide alternative means of income generation as well as create sustainable jobs and entrepreneurial opportunities. Furthermore, sports tourism can also generate foreign exchange reserves, foster international relations as well as attract domestic and foreign investment in other tourism related infrastructure and services. Lastly, this thesis also hopes its research can contribute towards the continued growth of sports tourism literature by making it more sensitive to the unique needs and contributions of African countries. The current state of sports tourism across Africa perhaps suggest the need of governments to think long-term in terms of their

strategies to adopt sports tourism rather than focusing on luring mega-events that only offer short-term solutions. Despite its problematic history of racial segregation (apartheid), South Africa was able to attract the 1995 Rugby World Cup mega-event due to its long-term investment in the sport of rugby.

1.3 Methodology

This thesis uses a mixed methods approach, which will allow in-depth and critical analysis of the complex issues in question in their real-life settings. While the quantitative approach will be helpful to the research as it provides readily analysable numeric data, qualitative methods will provide insight into the feelings, impressions and viewpoints of different contexts. This will be critical as the thesis also explores the social impacts of sports tourism in Africa. Quantitative methodology will provide data to explore the economic impacts of sports tourism on the continent. However, using a mixed methods approach does not guarantee a perfect analysis as the qualitative approach can sometimes be susceptible to bias, whilst the quantitative approach can lead one to believe that all facts are true (Goundar, 2012).

Books, videos, online newspaper archives such as SA Media and NewsBank's Rand Daily Mail collection, working papers as well as journal articles were used, whilst statistics were obtained from the several reports on the 2010 FIFA World Cup published by the Department of Statistics South Africa (StatsSA) as well as from the National Department of Tourism. Journal articles served provided insights into the state of the political environment as well as domestic tourism in developing countries as these have a direct impact on the success of sports tourism. Other forms of media such as *News24*, *South African History Online (SAHO)* and *The Nairobi Wire* were also used to conduct studies on success stories of sports tourism in developing countries despite the many challenges faced.

Research on the mini-dissertation's case studies Machakos County and Football Club (F.C) Mamelodi Sundowns were primarily obtained from online sources and journal articles. These provided detailed discussions of the rise of sports tourism in Machakos County through sports events such as Masaku 7s International Rugby, *Tour de Machakos*, bullfighting including the development of a football organization and how its success is interpreted as a sports tourism model through Anholt's (2011) National Brand Index (NBI). Although the NBI is often used to measure the global perception of a destination through categories (people, governance, exports, tourism and investments), a favorable perception across such categories attracts tourists which generate revenue for economic and infrastructural development. The use of the NBI together with the use of several online sources helped construct the two case studies of Machakos County and South Africa's F.C Mamelodi Sundowns and present them in a way that the reader can easily understand.

1.4 Sports Tourism: A literature review

As the study aims to discuss the concept of sports tourism, which forms the conceptual background of the research, it makes use of Heather J. Gibson's journal article 'Sports Tourism: Critical analysis of research' (1998) to define the concept. Gibson notes the three categories ('nostalgia', 'events' and 'active tourism') which all form part of the concept. With few articles on sports tourism, as it is an emerging topic in the academic field, Gibson does an exceptional job in capturing the debates from other scholars such as Paul De Knop (1995) and Charles Pigeassou (1997), who question the idea of recognising the concept as an independent study field or a new product of tourism. Gibson in her article also discusses the commercialisation of sports, which provides information regarding the origins of sports tourism.

As there is also a need to look at the world of sports apart from the concept of sports tourism, Mike Weed and Chris Bull's chapter 'Tracing the development of Sports Link' from their book *Sports Tourism* (2009), provided the foundation of sports itself from ancient history until the 21st century, a perspective which also compliments Gibson's view. Further discussion on this topic can also be drawn from *Sports in World History* by David G. McComb (2004). The author traces the development of newer sports from the 19th to the early 20th century, through the industrial and the scientific revolution as well as the period of urbanisation. In contrast to Bull and Weed, McComb looks more at the 'athletic imperative' and reasons for modern sport together with globalisation and its broader significance. This source will be relevant to my research as this fills the gap that is on the academic writing of ancient and modern sports' development which is important if we are to establish its connection to tourism.

Further discussion on sports and tourism will be drawn from the book titled *Sports Tourism* by Joy Standeven and Paul De Knop (1999). The authors take a unique approach in attempting to fully understand the concept of sports tourism as they rethink it as an experience of physical activity, travel and space. Standeven and De Knop take the discussion into new areas by further investigating the relationship existing between sports itself and the concept of tourism. They also look at sports in the development of tourism as well as tourism in the development of sports before assessing the overall impact of sports tourism on the environment, economy, health, administrative and policy issues. They also consider the implications as well as its future prospects in the 21st century, which complements McComb's *Sports in World History* (2004), which traces the development of sports between the 19th century to the early 20th century.

To assess the value of investing in mega-events, the book *Hallmark tourist events: impact, management and planning* (1992) by Collins Michael Hall is crucial in doing this as the author defines

hallmark events and discusses their significance. The information drawn from Hall's book provides readers with an understanding of what makes a mega-event before determining the value which it carries. In his book Hall not only assesses the economic impacts mega events have on host nations, but also their social dimensions, the politics associated with them and the management as well as planning which goes into them. The author also ends his book by giving a detailed strategy on hosting these hallmark events, otherwise labelled as 'avoiding the hangover'. This blueprint provided by Hall will also contribute to the measurements which need to be taken in a destination before sports tourism *can* be recognized as a feasible proposal for economic and infrastructural development in Africa.

Andrew Zimbalist's books *Circus Maximus* (2015) and *Rio 2016: Olympic myth and hard realities* (2017) will also help provide data regarding the case studies on the 1984 Olympic games in Los Angeles as well as Rio Olympic games in 2016. In his two books the author questions the idea of investing in these mega-events as he evaluates the change in the nature of the events and high expenses which have come to be associated with them. I will also use Eddie Cottle's and Patrick Bond's *South Africa's World Cup – A legacy for whom?* (2011) as well as newspaper articles and numerical data from the South African government. This latter book, particularly the chapter 'Economic promises and pitfalls of South Africa's World Cup' (Cottle & Bond, 2011) provides a critical analysis of why the World Cup did more harm than good for South Africa. Bama Hilary Kennedy Nji and Tembi Maloney Tichaawa's article also provides more insights into the costs incurred by South Africa in constructing stadiums, transportation systems as well as other facilities to make itself ready to host the hallmark event (Nji & Tichaawa, 2016: 8).

Udesh Pillay, Richard Tomlinson and Orli Bass's *Development and dreams: the urban legacy of the 2010 Football World Cup* (2009) also complements Cottle's and Bond's (2011) view on the mega event doing more harm than good for South Africa as they debate the scholar's viewpoint on the 2010 mega-event offering the biggest potential to poverty reduction in the country. The authors perceive this viewpoint as a "repudiation of Afro-pessimism and an assertion of a contemporary African identity both at home and on a global stage". They provide a multi-disciplinary viewpoint on the probable impact of the World Cup on the economy and infrastructure of South Africa's host cities. In addition, this narrative extends to the projection of the country's culture and identity which the rest of the public found invaluable as the country prepared to host what was to be the largest sporting event ever in Africa. Their study also gives attention to a wide range of topics such as management costs of hosting a mega event which Zimbalist also discusses in *Circus Maximus* (2015) and the uncertain economic and employment benefits based on ex-ante reports which provide reasons as to why sports tourism is not a feasible proposal for the economic and infrastructural development in Africa.

To help assess the feasibility of sports tourism as a proposal for the economic and infrastructural development in Africa, the study also makes use of Odounga-Othy and Swart's 'Sport events as catalysts for tourism and hospitality development in Libreville, Gabon' (2016) as well as 'Conceptual Framework for Strategic Destination Branding through leveraging home-grown sports events' by Hemmonsbey, Tichaawa and Knott (2018). The articles by these authors are critical to the study as they discuss small-scale events which have been successful in African countries such as the 2012 AFCON tournament, "La Tropicale Amissa Bongo" a cross country road cycling race, Taekwondo and the Libreville International Moto Show in the case of Gabon and the Two Oceans Marathon, ABSA Cape Epic, Cape Town Cycle Marathon as well as the Volvo Oceans Race in the case of South Africa. Odounga-Othy and Swart's article discusses the challenges sports events face in Gabon such as Insufficient infrastructure, skills shortage/poor management, lack of funding, corruption and lack of involvement between departments/collaboration which also support the discussion in the thesis's second chapter which looks at the spectrum of sports tourism including the common challenges it faces on the African continent (Odounga-Othy, 2016: 12).

The research will also use Anholt's (2011) National Brand Index as it will be pivotal in helping assess its selected case studies of Machakos County and South Africa's F.C Mamelodi Sundowns. The NBI which is a concept of measuring the attractiveness or global perceptions of a destination through categories such as government, people, tourism (domestic) and investments will help determine the viability of these case studies as success sports tourism practices. For example, if the destination or city at which Mamelodi Sundowns plays its home matches (Loftus Versfeld stadium in Pretoria) offers several attraction sites, good hospitality and political stability, this all-together creates a favorable environment for the football club to position itself in the market as a sports tourism package. The ability for tourists which primarily travel to attend Mamelodi Sundowns' games at the Loftus Versfeld and also visit nearby attractions before or after the football match helps generate revenue through entrance fees and souvenir purchases. This revenue generated through sports tourism helps facilitate the development of the destinations' infrastructure. Such practices of sports tourism are common in developed countries such as Spain with football clubs like F.C Barcelona being reported to contribute €1,191 million to the city of Barcelona's Gross Domestic Product (FC Barcelona, 2020).

Domestic tourism has grown tremendously in many developed countries across the globe as it has shifted from a luxury only a few could afford to a basic pleasure many can enjoy. Whilst the success of domestic tourism in many developed countries has been critical to the success of sports tourism, its success rate across many African countries has been relatively low as it has been hindered by extreme poverty, poor transportation systems and access roads, transportation problems and lack of efficient branding and marketing strategies. Whilst a few developing countries like South Africa are

an exception, as it has seen its domestic tourism thrive due to its excellent marketing agencies such as Brand SA, the same cannot be said for other countries like Zimbabwe as its domestic tourism has been overlooked by the government. This has led Zimbabwean tourism to be underdeveloped and under-researched. The article titled ‘A situational analysis of Zimbabwe’s domestic tourist’ travel trends’ (2019) by Forbes Kabote, Patrick Walter Mamimine and Zororo Muranda will be crucial to the study as they do well in capturing the situation. Their research takes a qualitative approach in determining data across aspects such as destination preference, activities on offer and destination connectivity systems which contribute to the success of domestic tourism in a country. The article ‘Pricing and domestic tourism performance in Zimbabwe’ (2014) by Forbes Kabote, Berthur Mashiri and Sebastian Vengesayi will also compliment the article above as it discusses the importance of domestic tourism to the country and how pricing of services and products have affected domestic tourism in Zimbabwe.

Domestic tourism in South Africa will also be discussed and its findings will be drawn from Christian M. Rogerson and Gustav Visser’s *Tourism and Development Issues in Contemporary South Africa* (2004). Noting the big difference between Zimbabwe’s and South Africa’s domestic tourism, the book provides a critical review of the existing research in South Africa as well as a ten-year review on the country’s tourism and development post-apartheid. This critical review will be important to the research as it highlights the difference between how both countries have progressed in terms of tourism. This will also be in contrast with Kabote, Mamimine and Muranda’s article (2019) as they also provide a similar review of Zimbabwe’s tourism development since independence (1980) and how it never seemed to grow but rather slumped.

1.5 Chapter Outline

The first chapter explores the existing sports tourism literature to provide a critical analysis of the historical process involved and challenges faced by scholars like Joy Standevan and Paul De Knop (1999) or Heather J Gibson (1998) in defining the concept of sports tourism. As this reviews how difficult it has been for different scholars to agree on what constituted ‘sports tourism’ or ‘sport tourist’, this mini-dissertation uses some of the elements or paradigmatic dimensions like time, space and motivation of travel identified in sports tourism definitions by Derek Van Rheenen, Sorina Cernaianu and Claude Sobry (2017) to its best of ability to define sports tourism in an African context.

The second chapter reviews the current state of sports tourism in Africa. While the mini-dissertation acknowledges the gap in sports tourism development between Africa and Europe, it highlights the challenges sports tourism faces in Africa that continue to affect its growth. In addition to this narrative, the mini-dissertation also recognizes that a great deal of sports tourism research has been

from the developed world, which has contributed to the concept's success. Therefore, this chapter also aims to contribute to the sports literature through the provision of research written from an African perspective. Lastly the chapter also discusses the ongoing global pandemic and how this may affect sports tourism in Africa.

Chapter three discusses two cases studies, of South African football club Mamelodi Sundowns and Machakos county in Kenya. Nicknamed 'Masandawana' or 'the Brazilians', Mamelodi Sundowns, through its takeover by South African businessman Patrice Motsepe, has seen it rise to become one of the country's most successful sporting clubs. Its participation in global competitions like the 2016 FIFA Club World Cup and partnerships with multinational companies Puma and Hyundai has also seen its brand gain popularity across Africa and in certain parts of Europe. Since Kenya's dissolution of its old governing system in 2010, many of the newly formed 47 counties under the newly introduced federal system began developing sport facilities and promoting sporting events within their counties. Machakos, in particular, has been viewed as a model county as it has invested remarkably in this sporting project which has attracted both local and international tourists to the region (Njoronge *et al.*, 2017: 195). Lastly, this chapter seeks to analyse both cases studies and assess if their success can be translated into successful sports tourism models.

The final chapter gives proposals for the best strategies and policies African leaders may adopt to deal with the challenges revealed in chapter two and taking the lead from the success stories examined in chapter three. Whilst political turmoil remains a serious barrier to tourism in several parts of Africa, the Kenyan case study discussed in the third chapter serves as one of the research's strengths as it presents a tried and tested method which could prove useful to neighbouring countries such as Ethiopia and Somalia who are in a similar predicament. This chapter also discusses the challenges faced while conducting the research and the lessons that were also learnt along the process.

Chapter 1: Sports Tourism: Defining the field of study

With the research reviewing sports tourism as a proposal for the infrastructural and economic development in Africa, the concept itself has generally been understood and defined from a developed world perspective rather than an African one. This chapter explores the determining factors such as time, space or motivation of travel used by European scholars to define sports tourism in attempt to see if such factors can also be applied by African scholars in defining the concept from an African perspective. Although sport-related tourism only began capturing widespread interest in the 21st century, the act of traveling motivated by sports dates back at least to 776 BC when the Greeks held their first Pan-Hellenic games, otherwise now known as the modern-day Olympics. During this period, the Greeks had already adopted the lifestyle of travel and trade which meant they were more than comfortable to travel over great distances to both participate and spectate in an annual event of this nature. This nature of travel at a later period would also see the development of more infrastructure specifically for sporting entertainment such as the oval-shaped Colosseum in the city of Rome (Weed & Bull, 2009: 3).

Given the term ‘sports tourism’ itself has recently only attained recognition both as a trending tourism product and a field of study in academics, defining it has not been a straight path. In fact, a contributor to sports tourism literature, Charles Pigeassou (1997) went on to state that, “sports tourism often finds itself in a constitution phase of its true identity as the absence of globalised information on it is a deterrent in the analysis of the phenomenon and its delimitation.” This serious lack of writing on sports tourism has only added to the complication of defining the concept as it has only led to further questions that hindered progress. Chief among these questions are:

1. What is sports tourism and should it even be labelled as such or as tourism sport rather?
2. Should academics continue to address sports tourism as an independent concept as it appears to be or must it be recognised as a newly emerging product under adventure tourism?
3. Does sports tourism refer to the spectating of tourists at a hallmark event or rather the participation in sport by those individuals on holiday?

Such questions amongst many others were the ones asked by scholars like Paul De Knop (1995), Joseph Kurtzman and John Zauhar (1995) as well as Brent W. Ritchie and Daryl Adair (2004). This increase in the nature of the questions surrounding sports tourism during this period only showed that there were no definite answers as is the case with any emerging field of study (Gibson, 1998: 46).

For example, after tourism itself became a field of study, authors Charles R. Goeldner and John Raymond Brent Ritchie would point out the difficulties of defining what the concepts of tourism,

tourist and excursionist were in the first place. The questions they raised, such as how long and how far one needs to be away from their place of dwelling to be recognized as a tourist or an excursionist, are still being asked today. Identifying the purpose of these trips whether inbound or outbound also made the process of defining tourism and the terms it came with complicated. This of course created a split between the scholars who felt that tourism was only limited to leisure travel whereas others disagreed as they believed business travel also fell under tourism as they contributed to souvenir purchasing and Airbnb spending. With sport also becoming heavily professional, as we now know it to be, does it mean that it also falls under the definition of business tourism (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2009: 15)?

Despite the questions raised, which seemed to provide more problems than solutions, this did not stop many academics from trying to define the concept and contribute to the literature review of an emerging field of study. Joseph Kurtzman, at the Sports Tourism International Council (STIC)'s inaugural conference in 1990, would go on to define sports tourism as “the use of sport as a touristic endeavour.” The intention of Kurtzman's definition was primarily to address entrepreneurs and operators of mega-sporting events as well as sports attractions such as Wembley Stadium in London, tours, resorts and cruises. Kurtzman's address to the STIC during this time made it clear that first attempts at defining sports tourism were focused on entrepreneurship rather than academic study. A major reason for this was the launch of the first existing Journal of Sports Tourism (JST) in 1993 which served the trade and professional organizations like the STIC as well as the academic community. Whilst the JST's dual role seemed praiseworthy at first, it would later prove to be a difficult task as the content produced often left the academic community disappointed. However, it was not until 2006 when the JST was changed to the Journal of Sport and Tourism (JS&T) and repositioned for the academic community by editor Mike Weed. The key aspect of the journal's development and maturity was its guiding principal, which stated that “manuscripts had to substantially contribute to the body of within temporary sports tourism research” (Van Rheenen *et al.*, 2017: 76).

Without a methodical review of the newly named JS&T since it was established in 2006, authors Derek Van Rheenen, Sorina Cernaianu, and Claude Sobry (2017) analysed text from the old JST and JS&T journal that only focused on defining the concept of sports tourism. A study such as this would also be critical in identifying which elements were used to define sports tourism as outlined in the JS&T so far. The journal's meta-review over the past two decades would produce 517 texts taken from several abstracts, articles, editorials, chapters as well as book reviews published from 1993 to 2014. From the 517 texts which were analysed, several efforts did not construct new definitions as they simply cited previous definitions or referred to authors who had defined the concept in the past.

Only 30 texts between the period of 1992 to 2012 would be found to attempt to provide distinct definitions of sports tourism which appeared in both the volumes and issues within the JST and JS&T. One should also note that the sports tourism scholarship over this period would also go through expansion as new sub-fields were emerging due to the attempt to define the boundaries of its research (Rheenen *et al.*, 2017: 79).

This would also lead to the identification of five paradigmatic dimensions that were found to be predominant in the sports tourism definitions between 1992 to 2012. These paradigmatic dimensions were SM – sport as motivation for travel which included aspects such as the type, level as well as extent of the sporting activity, T – time (duration away from home), S – space (travel away from home), PE – participant experience of the sporting activity and EM – economic motivation which referred to the development of a niche market or economic sector. The paradigmatic dimensions were calculated according to percentages, and were revealed to be: SM (90%); S (70%); T (36,67%); PE (33,33%) and EM (13,33%). It would also be realized that the dimensions SM, S and T would be the most consistent parameters used to define sports tourism over time. For example, these three dimensions provided empirical support for T.D Hinch and J.E.S Higham’s definition. Sports tourism according to Hinch and Higham (2001), was a “sports-based journey away from the home environment for a limited amount of time, where the sport is characterised by unique rule sets, competition related to physical prowess and playful nature” (Van Rheenen *et al.*, 2017: 81).

1.1 Sports as a motivation for travel

Although the activities of participants vary significantly, the paradigmatic element SM remains the dominant parameter used to define sports tourism in the last two decades. Authors Sean Gammon and Tom Robinson in their conceptual framework (2003) would define the study of sports tourism as the, “analysis of individuals or groups of people who actively travel or passively participate in either competitive or recreational sport whilst traveling to or staying in places that are usually outside their residing environments.” Gibson and Yiannakis (2002) also described sports tourism as, “traveling away from home to participate in recreational or competitive sports, or traveling to spectate sports at a grassroot or elite level.” In addition, it could also include visiting sporting attractions such as sports hall of fame or a water park that’s away from home or place of residence (Deery *et al.*, 2004: 238). Scholars such as Gammon and Robinson (2003) as well as Gibson and Yiannakis (2002) strongly argued that sporting activities were the primary reason for travel as they sought to conceptualise a coherent body of knowledge in the subject. However, the existing definitions of sports tourism that have been identified over the past two decades in the journals are heavily impacted by the fact that the concept of sport itself has been seen as vague. This is due to the different cultural interpretations

of sport that also exist from several parts of the world. For example, Standeven and De Knop (1999), state that the North American definitions of the concept sport often characterise it as a pursuit that demands physical skill, vigorous physical exertion, some form of rule-governed competition as well as organised and structured relations whilst still keeping a sense of freedom and spontaneity. This is very different from the European definitions of sport which are much looser. Sport in Europe is formally defined as, “all forms of physical activity, which through casual or organised participation, aim at improving physical fitness and mental well-being, forming social relationships or obtaining results in competition across all levels” (Standeven & De Knop. 1999: 8).

As a result of such varied interpretations, scholars have continued to look for clarity in the emerging field with some even attempting to differentiate sport from sports. This difference in terminology was believed to be more significant than that between a singular and a plural form. Moreover, these differing terminologies have also affected the understanding of sport tourism as an academic field of discipline. For example, Heather J Gibson (2002) would favour the use of ‘sport tourism’ as it recognized sport as a “social institution rather than a collection of disparate physical activities or sports.” On the other hand, Mike Weed and Chris Bull (2004), chose ‘sports tourism’ since this defined a wide range of diverse activities and experiences that can contribute to understanding sport tourism participation in a phenomenological way. It is also imperative to know the term tourist itself is by no means immune to cultural differences as well. For example, the term ‘tourist’ is often used to refer to athletes of the British and Irish Lions of the Rugby Union team when they tour South Africa, Australia and New Zealand. Such differences can have a significant impact on how sports tourism and the prevalent characteristics it entails have been defined since 1992 to current (Van Rheenen *et al.*, 2017: 84).

1.2 Space

The paradigmatic dimension of Space was found to be the second predominant parameter which was referenced in the definitional data obtained from both the sport journals. As both scholars and practitioners in the field such as Gammon and Robinson (2003); Gibson and Yiannakis (2002); Hinch and Higham (2001) as well as Standeven and De Knop (1999) acknowledged, sport tourism implied travelling to a location that one was not accustomed to such as a place of residence. They also argued that, “research into the relationship between sport and tourism had to adopt theories, concepts and develop research questions from a geographical perspective focusing on space, place as well as the environment.” This approach helped fill in the gaps regarding the notion of geography as it not only looked at the physical location but also aspects such as whether these sport activities were local, regional, national or supranational. The parameter of space differed from the other four as it

acknowledged the human element as central to sport tourism, which was seen as critical in the development of its definitions. For instance, Standeven and De Knop (1999: 61), would state that, “sports tourism was referred to as an experience of physical activity tied to an experience of a place or a two-dimensional experience of physical activity tied to a particular setting.” The intent to define sport tourism from a human perspective, which includes social, cultural, and physical experiences, can also complicate the efforts of other academics. Social inclusion recognises the need for a multi-dimensional research encompassing time, space and sport and other tourism-related activities and experiences. Furthermore, it is also imperative for us to acknowledge the role of social inclusion in the framework which plays a role in defining sports tourism in an African context (Rheenen *et al.*, 2017: 86).

1.3 Time

The paradigmatic dimension T served as the third most consistent parameter used in defining the emerging field over the period of time. Similarly, the parameter has been critical in trying to differentiate terminologies such as tourist, visitor and an excursionist or day-tripper. It has also highlighted similar challenges such as determining the number of hours one had to dedicate towards sport activities to differentiate the types of sporting tourists, whether participant or spectator. Earlier existing types such as sport event tourism in the classical Greek era have allowed scholars such as Nogawa, Yamaguchi and Hagi (1996) to differentiate the participants from the spectators of the type of sport related tourism based on the reason of travel. A sport event participant would be identified as an individual whose primary purpose was to travel to participate in an organised sport event (in this case this would be the first Pan-Hellenic games), whilst the sport event spectator would be an individual who was primarily motivated by watching the organised sport with traveling to the destination serving as the secondary motivation (Nogawa *et al.*, 1996: 48).

Such a distinction by Nogawa, Yamaguchi and Hagi allowed Nan Chen and Daniel C. Funk (2010) to use the Time parameter to define a sport event tourist as a temporary visitor who stays at least 24 hours (day and night) away from a place of residence. A temporary threshold would be adopted by several organizations such as the World Tourism Organization in the early 1990s. Chen and Funk (2010:244), further add that the visitor’s main purpose is to watch or participate in a sport event (competitive or non-competitive) at the destination where the sport event is taking place serving as a non-primary factor. Such a definition of course in modern times can easily be contested as destinations in sport tourism have become as equally important as participating or watching the sport event. With sport closely linked to politics in the 21st century, attending or participating in the upcoming FIFA World Cup 2022 in Qatar may present a challenge due to the accusation of slave

labour and ill-treatment of the LGBT community (Wintour, 2019). The development of sub-fields in sport tourism such as golf, skiing, surfing, and cycling has caused the parameter to remain a point of contention in defining the concept's conceptual boundaries. While cycling may include day excursions, other subfields such as surfing or football may last up to a year, which makes it challenging to apply the temporary threshold of 24 hours to both (Van Rheenen *et al.*, 2017: 85).

1.4 Defining Sports tourism

In the late 1900s, De Knop also attempted to define a sports tourist as an individual who participated in sports whilst on holiday – a definition which was focused more on active participation than spectating. This definition of course follows a much similar pattern used to define tourism in a more satisfying nature in which tourism and tourists were analysed independently. Under active sport vacations, De Knop came up with three categories which were: 'pure sports holiday', sports facilities present at a holiday destination', and 'a private sporting holiday'. The first category was primarily focused sports participation where, for example, people would take a trip with the sole purpose to go skiing. The second category would then comprise of tourists taking full advantage of the sporting facilities available at the destination, such as tennis courts, whereas the third category involved the participation of tourists in non-organized sports activities such as volleyball on holiday. De Knop's view on sport vacations would also be supported by Glyptis and Jackson (1993) who found more than 50% of the holidays in UK taken by British tourists were inclusive of sport participation with 26% of the holiday-makers prioritizing sport as their primary vacation activity. However, the attempts of both Glyptis and Jackson (1993) as well as De Knop (1990) in defining a sports tourist were met with criticism as they focused more on the participating side of sports tourism whilst completely ignoring the spectating side which also came with the field of study.

Other scholars such as Haruwo Nogawa, Yasuo Yamaguchi and Yumiko Hagi tried to address this problem by adapting the 1992 World Travel Organization's tourist definition (a visitor travelling domestically, inbound or outbound whose trip includes an overnight trip) to define a sports tourist as a visitor who stays 24 hours at a specific area with the main purpose of participate in the sporting event there with the area's scenery serving as a secondary motive. These sports tourists could also be divided into three categories: event participants who are only travelling to take part in the organized sporting event; the event spectator who is only travelling to watch such an organized event and the sport lover who travels to participate in self-organized sport (Gibson, 1998: 47). Given Nogawa, Yamaguchi and Hagi are of Japanese descent, there is room to also discuss the possibility of the scholars' cultural background having an influence on their definition of the concept sports tourism.

Such possibility would indicate the importance of cultural context in sports tourism which therefore, is also vital to one's understanding of the sports tourism concept in an African context.

Joy Standeven and Paul De Knop in their book *Sport Tourism* (1999) would also make a strong case to rethink sports tourism as an experience of physical activity, travel and space. While this approach succeeded in answering questions regarding the distance of travel, or its nature as an independent concept, or emerging product under adventure tourism, it still left the issue of sports tourism as leisure or non-leisure in limbo. Before the authors could provide a definition for the new concept of sports tourism, they would first look at sports and tourism separately as these had existed in the academic field for a much longer period. According to Standeven and De Knop (1999), "sports referred to a range of competitive or non-competitive active pursuits that involved skill, strategy as well as chance in which individuals engaged in simply leisure purposes or accolade purposes." Tourism itself would then be seen as the short-term movement of people beyond their own home and work to engage in experiences (Standeven & De Knop, 1999: 40).

It was only after more careful research into sports tourism in the early 2000s that a more widely accepted definition was formulated, which scholars such as Mike Weed and Chris Bull (2004) agreed with and even quoted in some of their works. Stephen D. Ross would define sports tourism as the experience of travelling to participate or spectate in sports-related activities. The concept of sports tourism can be classified into three categories which are Sports Events Tourism (spectator behaviour), Active Sports Tourism (active participating behaviour) and Nostalgia tourism (a visiting and paying tribute behaviour). The first of the three categories refer to the hallmark events such as four-yearly events such as the FIFA and the Rugby World Cup or the Olympics. Active sports tourism refers to the travelling of people with the sole purposes of participating in sporting activities such as pool or tennis, whilst Nostalgia tourism is the travelling of people to visit famous sites such as museums or arenas where they witnessed a memorable match. Such an example of this could be South African rugby fanatics visiting Ellis Park stadium in Johannesburg to relive the moments of their Rugby World Cup victory in 1995 or the Springbok Experience Museum in Waterfront, Cape town which tells the story of South African rugby (Ross, 2001: 3). While scholars from developed countries may resonate with Ross's definition of sports tourism which recognises the concept in the form of three categories, African scholars may have to reassess how sports tourism can be defined from a developing world perspective. This is because Active sports tourism serves as the most predominate category in Africa with nostalgia tourism being almost non-existent. However, developing countries such as South Africa and Brazil are an exception as they have engaged sports tourism in all three categories.

1.5 Sports Events Tourism

Sports events in the past have often been referred to as modern pilgrimages with people participating in spectacles such as the Olympic games, FIFA World Cup as well as other smaller regional events annually. The term pilgrimage itself has been around for more than 200 years with its history dating back to the Greek era where pilgrims travelled great distances seeking guidance from the several visionaries that were spread across the islands. In its simplest form, a pilgrimage can be described as, “an onerous and fraught journey that one endures to worship and/or pay respects to a site of special religious significance, in anticipation of receiving salvation or protection.” Examples of such pilgrimages could be Muslims travelling to the city of Mecca or Christians travelling to the church of the Holy Sepulchre in the old city of Jerusalem in anticipation of spiritual protection or connection. Over the years, however, the term pilgrimage has come to include all types of visits to a destination that are thought to hold sentimental value or value to the traveller (Gammon, 2004: 31).

For one to understand the connection between pilgrimage and sport event tourism, one has to look at the tourist/pilgrim dichotomy. By distinguishing between secular and sacred/religious travellers based on their motivations or reasons for traveling, scholars have been able to distinguish secular tourists from religious tourists. For instance, a person motivated to visit the Church of the Holy Sepulchre for prayer will be classified as a sacred/religious tourist, whilst a person visiting the same site but for the admiration of the building’s baroque architecture style is perceived as a secular tourist. However, depending on the degree of motivation for travel, it can also be possible for an individual to become both types, or in this case, be a secular tourist but also be on a pilgrimage. The Hagia Sophia in Turkey, amongst many sites, has become a mass tourist attraction in its own right as it attracts Muslims for religious purposes and secular tourists for artistic and historical interests (Gammons, 2004: 35).

It is also vital to note that many styles or attractions around the world are designated religious icons or symbolic not because of the building itself but because of the meaning they hold for individuals or a group of people. This same concept is then applied to sport event tourism as over the years sporting facilities such as football facilities such as football stadiums have attained symbols of almost religious importance due to the success achieved in them. The journey back to the FIFA World Cup in 2018 for Tunisia after a 12-year absence from the prestigious tournament, can be seen as spiritual journey in its own right, especially when applying Victor Turner’s (1969) three stages: separation, liminality phase and the aggregation phase which one goes during a pilgrimage or rite of passage. According to Turner, “the (1) separation stage consists of symbolic behaviour which signifies the detachment of an individual or group either from a respectable social structure whilst the (2) liminality phase

involves the passing of the ritual subject(s) through a cultural realm that offers a few or none of the attributes of the past or the coming state.” This phase also represents the arduous part of the pilgrimage as it often consists of arbitrary punishments. The last phase (3) of reaggregation or reincorporation, marks the end of the pilgrimage where the ritual subject(s) is once again welcomed back into the social structure where rights and obligations or a clearly defined type are restored (Turner, 1969: 94).

This separation stage which serves as the first stage in the spiritual journey, in this case, is represented Tunisia’s failure to qualify for the FIFA World Cup mega-event (the everyday and familiar or respectable social structure) in the years 2010 and 2014. Their unsuccessful World cup qualifiers campaign of 2007-09 and 2011-13 in aim to participate in the 2010 and 2014 FIFA World Cup serves as the national team’s arduous part of the journey. A top-finish at the conclusion of their 2015-17 World cup qualifiers would end their 12-year spell as they would get reintegrated or reincorporated back into the 2018 FIFA World Cup mega-event. Although a victory such as this may not mean much to outsiders, it holds a deep meaning for the Tunisians affording the Egyptian national soccer team a symbol of ‘religious’ importance (Okeleji, 2018).

1.6 Nostalgia Sport Tourism/Sport Heritage

Although little research has been conducted on sport-related heritage, it is increasingly becoming recognised as a potential motivator of tourism within the nostalgic sport tourism concept. The sports tourism strategy includes attractions such as halls of fames, sports museums like the Springbok Experience Rugby Museum in South Africa or the Museu do Futebol in Brazil, as well as other sites of special sporting significance like the Soccer City stadium for the FIFA World Cup 2010 which aim to celebrate past sporting eras and personalities. According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), “heritage in its broadest sense is both a product and process (tangible and intangible) that provides societies with a wealth of resources that are inherited from the past, created in the present and preserved for the future generation” (UNESCO, n.d.).

Sport over the years has served as an important heritage to many people, cities as well as nations. Its fanatics or fans have been known for identifying with their team’s past or history regardless of whether they were present to witness it or not, whilst others perceive the sport as a progression of that city’s or nation’s legacy/identity. The Football Club (F.C) Barcelona, for example, since its establishment in 1899 has over the years played a crucial role in fighting for the Catalan Independence. Its motto ‘Mes Que un club’ meaning more than a club, has allowed many fanatics to see the club as a symbol of the Catalan identity as well as the leader of the resistance against the oppressive Franco government (History Hit, 2018).

A sport such as football in this case, reflects this heritage which occurs on the pitch, whilst honouring the achievements of teams like FC Barcelona as well individual athletes in various events i.e. farewell matches, which go beyond the sport itself and become part of a much bigger narrative. Much like other existing forms of heritage such as natural, cultural or historical, nostalgic sport tourism also features several characteristics that identify particular sports-related features such as artefacts, experiences as well as locations. These characteristics are categorized as tangible immovable, tangible movable, intangibles as well as goods and services. Whilst the immovable refers to spaces or sites such as stadiums that have hosted popular events like Cup Finals, tangible movable refers to objects or artefacts such as trophies, medals, shields and tifos¹, which can be moved between several exhibitions. This is then followed by intangibles which refer to sport-related traditions, chants or memories, with goods and services referring to the production of vintage shirts or football jerseys from previous eras, which are often worn to celebrate or commemorate an important decade in the team's history. While the production of these sports products like vintage shirts, football jerseys and tifos are highly prevalent in Europe and the United States, it is difficult to say the same for sports tourism in Africa due to cultural differences and its state being underdeveloped (Ramshaw & Gammon, 2005: 235).

1.7 Active Sports tourism

The trend of travelling is one that has been repeated throughout the course of history as affluent sectors of society have continued to travel in pursuit of their favourite sport. According to Heather Gibson (1998), it was estimated that 33% of all airline passengers in the US during the mid-1970s were sport tourists. While these findings are an indication towards the advances in transport infrastructure made by developed countries, they are also an indication of the gap in transport systems which exist between Europe and Africa. Travelling constraints in Africa still serve as a barrier for sports tourism even though active sports tourism is the most prevalent category. With active sports tourists being defined as individuals who participate in sporting activities whilst on vacation, it is no surprise that holiday resorts have become meccas for them. Originally, holiday resorts were built for the sole purpose of being marketed as summer destinations in an attempt to attract upper-class citizens by presenting them with the opportunity to escape the busy cities (Gibson, 1998: 157).

¹ The word Tifo which derives from the Italian vocabulary is used to describe the a colourful, vibrant and often choreographed visual display organized by a Supporters Group (SG) otherwise known as Ultras, a group of football enthusiasts renowned for their fanatical support. Tifo culture has roots in Italy and has also spread across Europe including the United States of America (Madanat, 2018)

These traditional summer destination resorts were then followed by warm winter resorts in California and Florida in the early 1900s, which provided the wealthy with the opportunity to escape the cold northern winters. In attempt to lure American health-seekers and pleasure tourists, California and Florida were sold by Railroad and hotel companies including travel agencies as tropical destinations that allowed white tourists to enjoy healthful contact with pre-modern nature and cultures without necessarily abandoning the comforts of progressive modernity. This ideology also capitalised on the fears of rapid industrialization and urbanization which would lead to citizens being ‘over-civilised’ (Knight, 2013: 45). It was not long before the nature of these resorts began shifting from environments of eating, relaxation and drinking to environments of physical activity to accommodate the rising popularity for sports such as skiing, tennis, golf as well as fishing. This development in traditional resorts would see the establishment of arguably the first golf course in the United States of America at the Pinehurst resort in North Carolina in 1897 (Gibson, 1998: 158).

However, it is also imperative to note that this shift by most traditional holiday resorts was not primarily because of the rise in the popularity of the sports mentioned above but due to the change in people’s workstyles. The shift from production orientation to one of service orientation during the late 1890s to the early 1900s led to a situation where Americans wished to be awed by elite sport or still be seen as active despite the change in the nature of their labour force. This change also played into the stereotype that American citizens were obsessed with sports, fitness and exercise. This claim, however, was proven false when the Surgeon’s General report on Physical Activity and Health of 1996 showed that only less than 20% of American’s population was sufficiently active, with the rest being classified into the categories ‘not regularly active’ and ‘not active at all’ (Gibson, 1998: 160). While this transition of holiday resorts in the US would not be emulated in the developing countries, what is perhaps interesting to note is the transitioning of certain traditional practices in Africa into cultural sporting events. For instance, bull-fighting which began as a tradition amongst the Luhya people of Kenya to commemorate significant events such as funerals would later on transition into a renowned sport amongst Kenyans. Due economic hardships faced by developing countries such as Kenya, reasons for this transition in cultural practices are believed to be financially motivated (BBC, 2019).

1.8 Conclusion

As this chapter sought out to bring the existing literature on sports tourism to light, it also recognizes that the concept is relatively new in academics with still much room for research given its growth. The statement by one of the key contributors, Charles Pigeassou (see page 10) paints an overall picture of the sparse academic writing which currently exists in this emerging field. The research in certain

categories of the concept such as sport event tourism is heavily focused on the economic impact of host nations and cities, with little to no research on the psychological as well as the environmental impact. Sean Gammon (2004), does take an interesting take in comparing sports events tourism to pilgrimages, which contributes greatly to the literature. The description of the spiritual phases of separation, liminality and reintegration in sport language to explain the value of sport competitions helps readers gain a deeper understanding of the subfield beyond its financial impact on key organizations such as FIFA and not the athletes or spectators themselves. The research on the Active Sport tourism which develops around the wealthy as the only participants in the form of tourism is misleading when applied in the modern context. Whilst there is no denial that sports such as golf or skiing started off as sports for the upper-class citizens, this has now changed as both middle and lower-class citizens now also engage in the form of tourism.

The 1995 Recreation Roundtable profile which recognised the average American sport tourist as college-educated and in the age category of 18-44 with an income of more than US\$40,000.00 per year, leaves quite a number of questions unanswered. For instance, the profile does not indicate the average number of year-round participants or those who switch sports as the season changes. For example, the Cricket season in South Africa runs from October – March each year which means athletes might have to engage in a different sport outside that period to remain fit (Sporting Opportunities, n.d.). The age of 18-44 itself may not necessarily fit the description of the average active sport tourist in the 21st century as athletes nowadays engage in sport at a much younger age and still continue being active past the age of 44. For example, Youssoufa Moukoko of Cameroonian descent would become the youngest athlete to compete in the Europe's most elite footballing competition, the UEFA Champions league at the age of 16 since its establishment in 1955. Tennis player Younes El Aynaoui from Morocco would surpass the 44-age threshold to retire at 47 making him the oldest athlete with an Association of Tennis Professionals (ATP) ranking (Lane 2020; Bell 2020).

However, positive efforts have also been made towards the contribution of the sports tourism literature which is crucial to the field's journey. Scholars such as Derek Van Rheenen, Sorina Cernaianu and Claude Sobry (2017), have conducted a systematic review of the existing JST and JS&T journals to come up with paradigms such as SM (Sport as motivation for travel), S (Space) and T (Time) and how these have been used by other scholars such as Gibson and Yiannakis (2002); Gibson (2002); Nogawa, Yamaguchi and Hagi (1996) as well as Standeven and De Knop (1999) to try and define the emerging field. These elements are important in helping scholars that are new to the field have a deeper understanding of the concept and how it has developed from the 1990s to now and whether the change in events creates opportunities to arrive at a more inclusive definition of

Sports tourism. Although African scholars such as Siyabulela Nyikana, Tembi Tichaawa, Swart and Urmilla Bob (2018) have made contributions to the sports tourism literature, these have not necessarily focused on defining sports tourism from an African perspective as they have adopted definitions from the developed world. Instead, these contributions have comprised of impact-based studies seeking to analyse the probable consequences sports tourism can have on certain developing countries such as Cameroon and South Africa. While the desire to redefine sports tourism from an African perspective is perhaps what makes this study unique, research by these African scholars have helped provide more accurate insights into the state of developing countries and the challenges impeding the development of sports tourism.

Therefore, with the factors discussed above, this mini-dissertation wishes to define sports tourism as the experience of travelling to visit sporting attractions such as arenas and museums or traveling to participate or spectate in competitive or non-competitive sports-related events. A sports tourist can then be seen as an individual who travels from one's residence intending to visit these attractions or to at least participate or spectate in competitive or non-competitive sports-related events. While these definitions are an adaptation of Ross's (2001) definition of sports tourism, the inclusivity of terms such as 'competitive or non-competitive, traveling from one's residence and intent' are critical as these factors in issues surrounding space (S) and motivation of travel (SM). The term 'non-competitive/non-professional/informal' also creates room for us to have the discussion of traditional or culture-related sports such as Cameroon's traditional wrestling known as *Bakweri*, Brazil's *Peteca* and potentially children's games in Zimbabwe such as *Hwishu* or *Pada* in the second chapter of this dissertation. As scholars such as Nogawa, Yamaguchi and Hagi (1996) do attempt to solve the concerns surrounding time (T) by asserting that one has to spend at least 24 hours in order to be recognized as a sports tourist. This still leaves a gap unfulfilled as anyone spending less than the stipulated is labelled as an excursionist or in this case a sport excursionist. With the Merriam-Webster dictionary defining an excursionist as a person who travels for pleasure, the term itself when associated with sport can only accommodate individuals travelling to either visit sports attractions or spectate in competitive or non-competitive events. Therefore, it is with reason why the suggested definition chooses to sacrifice the paradigm of time (T) as it does not cover both the participating or spectating tourist.

Chapter 2: The Spectrum of Sports tourism and its challenges in Africa and the Developing World

Although sports tourism in emerging economies has not achieved remarkable success as it has in Europe or the USA, it has still shown great potential to create opportunities for developing countries just as much as it has in these developed areas. Scholars such as Siyabule Nyikana and Tembi M. Tichaawa (2018: 70) have highlighted that developing countries throughout the past decades have been characterised by their over-reliance on traditional industries such as mining and agriculture as means of boosting their economies. The new phenomenon of sports tourism, which was valued at US\$800 billion by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) in 2017, would soon appeal to these countries as it became more recognized as the fastest growing segment with the travel industry (Parker, 2019).

An appeal such as this, easily led to developing countries such as Nigeria, Togo, South Africa, Brazil and Qatar attempting to bid for and host sports tourism events due to the perceived benefits they brought. After all, sports tourism looked to serve as an avenue through which economies and other tourism benefits could be amassed in both the long and short term, whilst also quickly providing much-needed sporting and transport infrastructure to the local communities. Sports tourism in the developing world has not only been utilised for the socio-economic restructure of both local and urban communities but also the enhancement of social cohesion amongst citizens, the promotion of wellness and health as well as the boosting of profiles as a desirable tourist destination. As noted in the introduction, after hosting the FIFA World Cup in 2010, South Africa would become a favourable tourist destination as its tourist numbers increased by 16.8% (National Department of Tourism, 2010). With such rewards, perhaps it is in this context that developing countries have grown to perceive sports tourism as a central platform for development, instead of viewing it as a complimentary concept that could be incorporated to already-existing development initiatives (Tichaawa *et al.*, 2018: 186).

Sports tourism has witnessed extensive growth, particularly on the African continent in the last two decades. This has been due to the rise in interest in sport development, the change in the socioeconomic and demographic situation of individuals and groups, the influence of globalisation and corporate capitalism as well as the increase in leisure time and wealth for the low and middle-class sector. Other factors which have also greatly contributed to this growth include the development of the mega-events themselves. For much of the twentieth century, hosting mega-events such as the Olympics or the FIFA World Cup were recognised as manageable costs for host cities as these took place in well-developed countries. The 1970s, however, would change the course of mega-events when organisations like the International Olympic Committee (IOC) and Fédération Internationale de

Football Association (FIFA) began requiring world class facilities, security, television broadcasting stations, Olympic parks as well as transport infrastructure. This easily inflated the hosting costs for these mega-events as countries such as South Africa, Brazil and Qatar went over their budgets by spending billions of dollars in preparations (McBride, 2018).

However, Africa presents itself as more complex when compared to the other regions like Europe or America. This is due to its disparities in terms of the continent's infrastructure and governance capabilities, tourism capacity, economic and developmental trajectories as well as its populace and natural resources. The continent consists of countries which range from highly developed and formalized such as Seychelles to the poorly developed and informalized countries such as Zimbabwe. These conditions also highlight the different levels of inequalities and persistent poverty in Africa as well global challenges such as migration and climate change that often present both crises and opportunities. Although there has been a joint effort on the continent to bring Africa in from the margins and fully achieve its tourism potential, this progress is unfortunately affected by major challenges such as economic recessions, natural disasters as well as terrorist attacks. The uneven physical geography on the continent becomes quite evident when one considers the number of mega sporting events which have been hosted in Africa. As mentioned previously, South Africa clearly stands out amongst most developing countries as it hosted the 1995 Rugby World Cup, 1996 Africa Cup of Nations (AFCON), 2003 International Cricket Council (ICC) Cricket World Cup, 2009 FIFA Confederations Cup (prelude tournament in preparation of the 2010 mega-event), 2010 FIFA World Cup, as well as the 2013 AFCON tournament (Tichaawa *et al.*, 2018: 189).

While factors such as space, security and accessibility are vital towards the construction of sports stadiums, there are also several other issues such as harsh climate as well as different surface conditions that can also present challenges to it. Due to the continent's geological position (37° North and 35° South of the Equator), most parts of Africa pass through the tropical zone thereby receiving direct sun-rays and experience hot temperatures throughout the year (Iken Edu, 2012). Such conditions, including those experienced above the equator in the Sahara region, make it very difficult to host sport tourism events as athletes are easily at high-risk from fatal heatstroke. To avoid such calamities, countries facing similar weather conditions in the Middle East have encouraged the scheduling of many outdoor sports such as soccer and rugby at night as the temperatures during this period are often low (Footprints Recruiting, n.d.). Such measures taken by the sporting governing bodies have also seen popular sporting events like Formula One's (F1) Bahrain and Abu Dhabi Grand Prix get scheduled in the evening, making it two of the few night races on the sport's calendar. Although the primary motive for this decision was to allow more supporters coming from work or school to attend, the account of weather also made the sporting event even more desirable (Saha,

2020). In preparation for the 2022 FIFA World Cup, Qatar has also implemented sustainable air-conditioning systems in its eight stadiums making these the first of their kind to possess such innovative technology (FIFA, 2019). South Africa's climate, however, is moderated by the warm Agulhas and cold Benguela currents from the Indian and Atlantic Ocean thus making it a favourable destination for sports tourism on the continent (South African Government, n.d.).

Sport tourism in South Africa has been recognized as a niche product, with the government largely encouraging the development of training facilities, marketing, as well as promoting the sport segment of the country's overall tourism industry. Institutions in the country such as the University of Pretoria (UP) and the University of Cape Town (UCT) offer some of the best sporting facilities in the region which attract international athletes and other local sporting organizations to use as training camps.

For example, the University of Pretoria's High-Performance Centre (HPC) would be used by the Argentinian national team as its training camp for the 2010 FIFA World Cup (Schlebusch, 2011). With South Africa having hosted once-off events such as the ones mentioned above, the country also hosts a variety of annual sporting events such as the Cape Town Cycle tour, Two Oceans Marathon, Durban Comrades Marathon, Telkom Knockout Cup as well as the DSTV premier soccer league (Siyabulela, 2016: 14).

According to Nyikana and Tichaawa (2018: 75), "sports in Cameroon has for a long period served as a way of uniting citizens." Such turmoil includes the ongoing Anglophone crisis, rooted in Cameroon's colonial legacies of Germany (1884 – 1916), Britain and France (1916 – 1946). The unification of the unfairly divided German Cameroon (Anglophone and Francophone) in 1961 saw the rise of tensions between the two states as the 'Anglophones' were overwhelmed by the rising population of the 'Francophones' whose regime set out to eclipse their political identity (Awason, 2020: 270). Much like South Africa, Cameroon also hosted a variety of sports events such as the 2016 Women's AFCON tournament, the Mount Cameroon Race of Hope, Tour du Cameroon, Tug of war, canoe racing, swimming, basketball as well as the MTN Elite one football league (Wood, 2014). Perhaps the most important sport to most Cameroonians is wrestling, which is often used by the Bakweri or the Duala ethnic groups as a rite of passage. Designed to showcase their ancestral inheritance of physical endurance, agility and a fierce fighting technique, Bakweri Traditional Wrestling (BTW) or 'Wesuwa' is taken very seriously by all its members of the community. In the past, BTW was used as an important way to determine the rightful leader in villages with the winner being crowned king. A dispute from the result in 1891 would result in a war between two villages after the people from Ghango set-alight the village of Molonde as they sought revenge for the death of their best wrestler and potential king. Today the traditional sport is performed in a manner that has rules and regulations during every Sunday of the months February and March (Vigneron, n.d.).

It is evident that although Standeven and De Knop (1999) define sports tourism as “tourist travel to destinations for the primary purpose of participating in sports related activities”, a sport like Wesuwa, which carries a cultural element, does go on to challenge the authors’ definition of sports tourism. Wesuwa’s primary purpose is to showcase an ancestral inheritance of physical strength and agility to determine leadership or a successful rite of passage. This suggests a need to reconsider the sport as a new product of ‘cultural sports’ tourism as this would embrace its unique cultural element. With little attention paid to culture within the existing sports tourism literature, this chapter suggests the act of travelling to destinations for the primary purpose of engaging in culture-related activities such as rites of passages or rituals through forms of sport as a possible definition of cultural sport tourism.

As a point of comparison, looking outside of the African continent, between the period of 2007 to 2016 Brazil stood out amongst developing countries especially in the South American region. Its hosting of important events such as the Pan American and Parapan American Games Rio of 2007, the 5th International Military Sports Council (IMCS) or Conseil International du Sport Militaire (CISM) World Games 2011, FIFA Confederations Cup 2013, 2014 FIFA World Cup as well as the Rio Olympics and Rio Paralympic games of 2016, easily saw it become recognised as a popular sports tourism destination. Brazil’s ability to host a significant number of sporting events in a short period of time would come with rewards as it saw a significant improvement in its GDP, infrastructure, as well as its image as a tourist destination on a global scale (Uvinha *et al.*, 2018: 182). Although megaevents such as the 2014 FIFA World Cup attracted at-least a million foreign visitors and generated more than a billion euros in revenue, sport tourism in Brazil not only relies on mega-events but also small-scale events or amateur competitions. Small scale events, such as street races as well as marathons, have become popular trends in Brazil as they often attract participants from all over the world from time to time. For example, the 42km Rio De Janeiro Marathon which passes through the city’s beaches, picturesque neighbourhoods and mountains attracts an average of 29,000 participants each year (Highway Brazil, 2016). The country’s largest city by population, Sao Paulo, also hosts the annual F1 Brazilian Grand Prix event, at its *Autodromo de interlagos racetrack*, which benefits its community as it generates up to \$80 million in revenue and creates employment opportunities.

However, with events such as F1 or football being easily recognised as common sports across many developed countries, Brazil also boasts several native sporting events of its own such as Peteca and Capoeira that have gone on to influence modern sports and dance techniques. Popular amongst the Tupi people in the 16th century, Peteca or ‘swing’ is an ancestral sport similar to Badminton, played to keep warm during winter and on occasions of dance and song celebrations. It would only be after the 20th century that the sport was professionalized and played in Germany and Japan after the first Peteca Federation was established in 1973 as well as the World Peteca Federation in 2000. Capoeira,

which is a form of mixed martial arts with dance and acrobatics, was widely practised by enslaved Africans in Brazil during the 1500s as a means of breaking away from both physical and mental bonds of slavery. Whilst this is no longer the reason for its practise today, Capoeira, which was officially recognized as a sport by the Brazilian government in 1972, is believed to have influenced modern day breakdancing and also practiced as a form of fitness and exercise across countries such as South Africa and Indonesia (Borrega, 2017).

2.1 Sports tourism constraints in Africa

Whilst the countries discussed above such as Brazil, South Africa and Cameroon, do highlight the presence of sports tourism across African and developing countries on both small- and large-scale platforms, there are still many challenges which set sports tourism practise apart from that of developed institutions. Some of these challenges include issues such as politics, infrastructure, travel constraints, safety and security, poor sports management as well as corruption.

2.2.1 The political environment

Political instability in the past has and continues to be one of the biggest barriers impeding African countries from hosting global sporting events. This is because the continent is largely dominated by emerging democracies, which are often marred with a long history of violent conflict linked to horizontal inequalities, weak social cohesion and little to no collective national vision. According to Gashaw (2017), the reason for this can be traced to the Berlin Conference of 1884-85, which saw the demarcation of Africa by European powers for territorial conquest. As such actions were taken based on usage of underdeveloped maps and superficial knowledge of the continent, this brought dire consequences. These artificial borders separated ethnic groups into different colonial regions, which affected their daily nomadic practices, thereby inflicting economic hardships and civil unrest. For example, the Somalians in the Horn of Africa were divided into British Somaliland, Italian Somalia, Ethiopian Somalia, the French Somaliland and the Somalia region of northern Kenya. Whilst these people shared a common culture, they would be forced to live as separate citizens of Ethiopia, Kenya, Eritrea, Sudan and Djibouti. The European's 'divide and rule' system would contribute to the loss of social norms and, most importantly, instigate conflicts amongst local people causing further division which consequently strengthened the colonial power. This has been seen in the post-colonial era as countries in the Horn of Africa region engaged in devastating inter-state wars such as the Ethiopia - Somalia wars (1964, 1977-78, 2006-2009), Kenya-Somalia war of 1963, Ugandan-Tanzanian war (1978-79) with the Rwandan genocide (1994) occurring in the east African region (Mengisteab, 2013: 26).

Although many countries across the continent have tried to democratise and transform governance dynamics, state-society relations as well as the underlying power structures, these efforts have not always worked in harmony. The election processes established to foster the legitimacy, accountability and responsiveness of several political systems have been associated with clientelism and corruption as leaders have sought power for personal gain with little concern for the public. Such actions, therefore, affected the continent's economic and infrastructure development which has made it almost impossible for sports tourism to achieve success as potential investors are not guaranteed investment returns or a safe environment to conduct business in (Menocal, 2013).

2.2.2 Travel Constraints

Whilst sporting events across Europe and the US have consecutively been played in sold out arenas and stadiums contributing to millions of dollars in ticket revenue, this has not been the case when it comes to a lot of events hosted in developing countries. The lack of investment in affordable public transport such as buses or rail has affected both sports and domestic tourism as it means only a few individuals with access to private transport have the privilege to travel and attend sports events. Low Gross Domestic Product (GDP), which is a characteristic of developing countries, also contributes to the travel constraints as only a small percentage of the population can afford to travel. As participation in sports tourism often leads to additional costs such as transport, accommodation, food and tickets, the total cost of attending a sports event can become relatively high, therefore constituting a luxury, while most people opt to support their favourite team from home instead. Commenting on Zimbabwe's domestic tourism, Forbes Kabote, Patrick W Mamimine and Zororo Muranda (2019), report that less than 25% of the country's population were willing to travel to Victoria Falls (one of the country's popular tourist destinations) due to high fuel costs and the depreciation in the value of the Zimbabwean dollar (Kabote *et al.*, 2019: 5). Although this was a comment on the state of the country's domestic tourism, it still paints the picture of the state of sports tourism in the country as it reflects on a fraction of the population that actually has the disposable income to participate in sports tourism. Poor road networks in many developing countries are also an issue as they prohibit people from attending sports events thereby impacting the revenue generated by sports tourism in African countries. Roads in countries such as Nigeria and Zimbabwe have often been referred to as death traps due to the size of potholes, which often worsen during the rainy season (Obioji 2019: The Independent 2017). With most of these roads providing access to cities, stadiums and arenas, tourists travelling to participate in sports tourism events take on the risk of incurring possible additional costs such as tyre puncture repair or damage to their vehicles.

2.2.3 Safety and Security issues

As mega-events are popularly known for their glamour and ability to attract billions of viewers from around the world, they have also been recognized as scenes of both premeditated as well as opportunistic crime. The Olympic Games in Mexico 1968 would be remembered for their violence and political protests, whilst the 1972 Munich games were overshadowed by the abduction and murder of eleven Israelite athletes by the Black September terrorist group (Zimbalist, 2015: 1). Although these events took place before the internet, the negative impact on the hosts' image cannot be understated if history were to repeat itself in the 21st century. Such an impact was seen on Sao Paulo's image after news of the Mercedes AMG Petronas F1 team being ambushed at the Brazil F1 Grand Prix quickly spread across the world through platforms such as Twitter and Facebook (Sky News, 2017).

Western media over the years has been widely known for its negative coverage of developing countries especially when it comes to the hosting of the major global events. This was evident in the case of South Africa during the months leading up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup. Close attention was paid to the country's crime levels by British tabloids like the *Daily Mail* and *Daily Star* and broadsheets such as *The Times* and *The Guardian*, without much question going into the statistical data provided. Irish actress, Victoria Smurfit's escape from gang-shooting in Cape town would be presented as an attack towards foreigners with title '*Ballykissangel star Victoria Smurfit shot on Kill a Tourist Day*' as means of spreading the narrative of fear amongst travelling fans and teams (Tapper, 2010). Another incident the tabloids would also exploit was the murder of far-right Afrikaner Weerstandsbeweging/Resistance Movement (AWB) leader, Eugene Terre'blanche on his farm in April 2010. The death of the white supremacist prompted Steve Hughes (2010) of the *Daily Star* to warn England fans that they would be heading into a "machete race war" at the World Cup in South Africa. Whilst the murder of Eugene Terre'blanche was a result of racial tension in the country, the reporting on this was heavily blown out of proportion as its tone and content constructed the English (civilised) against the African (barbaric) thereby reinforcing the perception of South Africa as a violent and primitive nation (Hammet, 2011: 69).

The activities of extremist groups such as Boko Haram in West and Central Africa and Al Shabaab in East Africa, including civil wars in the Central African Republic and Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) also serve as issues that are continuously reported on in the international news. With such issues negatively impacting the African continent, it makes it difficult for a lot of countries to guarantee the safety and security of lives as well as the properties of those looking to invest in sports tourism (Tichaawa *et al.*, 2018: 194). Although sports leaders can consider the use of armed escorts

as means of protecting and taking advantage of safe zones such as DRC's Goma, Bukavu and Kinshasa, navigating in these countries can still pose major security threats and loss of tourist's lives (Constable, 2019). Such issues regarding Africa's safety and security discourage sports tourism participation on a large-scale which has a bearing on the continent's economic and infrastructural development.

2.2.3 Infrastructure

The provision of world-class facilities such as stadiums, arenas, racetracks and rehabilitation centres in developed countries such as Spain, Australia, Germany or the USA have been crucial in ensuring the success of sports tourism in these destinations. Germany in 2006 would easily have one of the most successful FIFA World Cups as it already had facilities in place such as the Allianz Arena, Westfalenstadion 'Signal Iduna Park' and Gottlieb Daimler Stadion 'Mercedes Benz Arena' to name a few, which already belonged to Football clubs Bayern Munich, Borussia Dortmund and Verein für Bewegungsspiele (VFB) Stuttgart (Allmers & Maening, 2009: 512). Although these facilities had to be renovated in order to meet FIFA's requirements, the same would not be said for South Africa and its 2010 World Cup, as it had to build five of its ten stadiums from scratch, including the construction of the Gautrain fast rail network (Nji & Tichaawa, 2016: 8). Such a comparison between Germany and a developing country such as South Africa not only shows the difference in host preparation costs, but also highlights the gap in terms of infrastructural development. Many developing countries have failed to bid for mega-events or even market themselves as successful sport tourism destinations due to lack of inadequate infrastructure. Whilst colonisation can easily be labelled as the reason for this, governments from developing countries have also played a role in mismanaging resources that could otherwise have been used to invest in local tourism.

It is particularly apparent to me, as a Zimbabwean citizen, that the poor managing of state funds has been the theme of the country's ruling party, Zanu Patriotic Front (P.F), in the last decades as taxes dedicated for improving daily lives have been used to fund personal agendas. The Confederations of African Football (CAF) association would deem all Zimbabwean stadiums as unfit for international matches in early 2020 forcing the 'Warriors' (Zimbabwe's national soccer team) to play its home games in South Africa (Samaita, 2020). Former Zimbabwe Tourism Authority (ZTA)'s chief executive officer, Mr Karikoga Kaseke, would reveal Spain's national soccer team decision to cancel its visit to Zimbabwe due to poor pitch conditions whilst the South African Rugby legends had to settle for playing its match against the Zimbabwe Rugby legends team at Victoria Falls Primary School. Whilst the primary school in the country's top tourist destination offered the best grounds for a match of this standard, it should not be the best that Zimbabwe offers at an international level. Poor

road networks in Zimbabwe also discourage tourists from travelling as, has been noted, these often have often been described as death traps due to large potholes. Although the government has continued to adjust tollgate and licensing fees, most roads in the country remain unmaintained since colonial times (Sunday News, 2015). Overall, the lack of infrastructure or sports facilities such as the mentioned above in developed countries hinders the development of sports tourism in Africa.

2.2.4 Poor Sports Management

Although adequate infrastructure is crucial in ensuring the success of sports tourism, the management of the sport itself remains just as important. Many countries across Europe have superb management in place, that has succeeded in taking their sports, such as football, to the highest level through investing at grassroots levels and with the aid of sponsorships. For instance, football clubs such as FC Barcelona have managed to achieve success and contribute to Barcelona's image as a sport tourist destination through developing talent at its La Masia youth academy. The club has also partnered with global brands such as Nike, Coca Cola, Oppo and Gatorade to name a few which have not only been beneficial in terms of finance but also marketing the club across the world (FC Barcelona, n.d). Whilst these teams, such as Spain's FC Barcelona or England's Manchester United, are widely known across the globe due to such measures and their media attraction, it is difficult to say the same for Zimbabwe's football clubs Caps United or South Africa's Chippa United who are barely known beyond Southern Africa. Poor officiating of sports events across many developing countries such as Nigeria and South Africa has also been an issue as this continues to discourage potential sports tourists from travelling and participating in sports events.

The football systems, like Zimbabwe's Castle Lager Premier league, under which clubs such as Caps United operate, are hugely affected by corruption that hampers them from attaining the same recognition as their European counterparts. Corruption across football structures in Africa has been known to take many names, such as 'little something', an 'envelop' or 'sharing the national cake', which goes to show the extent of how the practice has been legitimized. Whilst this discredits the legitimacy of football structures in Africa it is also imperative to not perceive football structures in the developed world as upright. Cases of corruption at the highest level have also been reported with the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) indicting several FIFA officials on charges of money laundering, fraud and racketeering. This saw the resignation of FIFA President Sepp Blatter and Union of European Football Associations (UEFA) President Michael Platini, after they were found guilty of several breaches including a 'disloyal pay out' of \$2 million in 2011 (BBC, 2015). Such incidents only prove to us that there are issues of corruption across all levels of management in football and not just in the developing countries.

Through politics, African football has also been developed into a system of patronage in which rich and powerful individuals employ clients regardless of their proper qualifications or skill for positions to amass personal wealth and gain. Robert Price refers to this system as the ‘Big Man Small Boy Syndrome’ in where the ‘Big Man’ or individual at the top makes all the decisions while the ‘Small Boy’ is expected to not question the decision but instead look the other way (1974: 175). Such actions by those in power have resulted in former football players such George Weah, Didier Drogba and Benjani Mwaruwari sacrificing their personal wages to not only develop their communities but in some cases, even bail out their national teams (NewsDay, 2012).

After the end of their campaign in the 2019 AFCON tournament in Egypt, the Zimbabwean national team was asked to fund their own return tickets after the Zimbabwe Football Association (ZIFA) stated it could not afford to pay for the plane tickets. A few individuals fortunate enough to play for European and South African clubs, where wage earnings are high, would pay for the other team members that could not afford to return (Mlotha, 2019). Although the Forum of African Investigative Reporters (FAIR) has tried to flag several cases across the continent ranging from bribery of the ZIFA presidential elections to the looting of the \$800,000 stadium renovation funds in Cameroon, not much has been done about it due to FIFA’s Non-Interference policy² (Chiweshe, 2014: 30). Introduced after the detaining and torture of Iraqi football players by military and sports chairman Uday Hussein, the FIFA rule would prevent any form of political interference or government direct control over the governance of football. The non-interference policy would prohibit the recourse to all courts of law for all types of provisional matters unless specifically provided in the FIFA regulation. While this policy was enacted for good purposes and the independent operation of football, this has also protected corrupt officials especially in Africa. The decision by the High Court of Kenya to dissolve Kenya’s Football Federation (KFF) over corruption claims in 2004, led to the ban of the International football team as well as clubs from participating in both local and international sport competitions. Consequentially, the government would overrule its High Court’s decision as it reinstated the KFF including the officials charged with corruption (Walid, 2017: 5).

2.2.5 Sports and its future in Africa

Although, as has been discussed, sports tourism in the developing world faces many challenges, ranging from harsh climatic conditions to political instability and poor sports management, the industry still shows potential for growth. While South Africa has clearly dominated in terms of hosting several mega and small-scale events, there are several annual as well as small-scale events

² Article 17 of the FIFA Statutes of Regulations states that “each member is to manage their affairs independently and assure that their own affairs are not influenced by any third parties.” <https://resources.fifa.com/image/upload/fifa-statutes5-august-2019-en.pdf?cloudid=ggymhxxv8jrdfbekrrm> (Accessed: 28 March 2021).

which many developing countries can take advantage of. Given the cost incurred when hosting megaevents such as the Olympics or FIFA World Cup, as set to be revealed in the third chapter, small-scale events such as AFCON or annual events like league football serve as the best strategy for developing countries to improve their sports tourism as these are relatively low and manageable costs. There is also a great need for sport leaders to advocate for the construction and maintenance of sporting facilities as these are not only crucial in enhancing sport development, but also encourage tourism demand in the region (Tichaawa *et al.*, 2018: 198).

Sporting facilities such as stadiums and arenas can also serve as an investment towards the diversification of the tourism industry, thus contributing towards a more sustainable industry. For instance, stadiums in European countries in the last decade have been able to generate millions of dollars through non-related match ticket sales. This has been achieved through use of stadiums as concert and private function venues during the off-season. In 2011, Sunderland's Stadium of Light would generate £2 million after hosting the Take That pop group, with Wembley stadium (England's national stadium) selling over 600,000 tickets across eight dates during the same year. Naming rights have also been pivotal towards the maintenance and upgrading of stadiums in Europe for many football clubs. This has seen stadiums that had been named after the area which they were built in get renovated, or in some cases get demolished with newer stadiums being constructed and renamed after businesses. 2004 would see F.C Arsenal move from Highbury to the new Emirates stadium, constructed by Emirates Airline after the parties signed a deal worth £100 million. The 15-year deal would also see the airline company become the club's shirt sponsor for eight years with an option to renew the deal. Such measures taken by these football clubs towards securing long-term investment in their infrastructure can also be implemented by sport leaders across many developing countries. Although the construction of these stadiums can be seen as too expensive for most developing countries, their construction can easily be spread over several years to allow more flexible budget planning as they will not be primarily built for the World Cup (Football Stadiums, n.d.).

With most sponsors only willing to associate their names with a 'winning project' it is also imperative that developing countries, especially in Africa, come up with a retention strategy which keeps top athletes. The majority of African athletes have been lured to European clubs simply due to better wages and facilities, which ensure the athlete's development. The loss of African talent from various sporting disciplines has hampered the success of sports within developing countries as teams fail to advance past the first round of regional competitive tournaments or to even qualify for them. As tourists are willing to travel a great distance to watch elite athletes abroad such as Lionel Messi, Serena Williams or Sir Lewis Hamilton, an improved effort towards retaining new talent could also see the attraction of fans to local or regional sport in developing countries. Whilst we can accept that

Lionel Messi, Serena Williams and Sir Lewis Hamilton are exceptional in their disciplines due to natural talent, it is also important to take note that hard work, passion and eating habits have contributed to their success. Many athletes in the developed world work with qualified dietitians as well as professional trainers to achieve peak performance across their various disciplines. European football clubs such as Barcelona have also hired professional team nutritionists and partnered with Turkish appliance and electronic brand Beko, to ensure each player has the right food before and after training sessions and matches (FC Barcelona, 2019). Sports leaders in the developing countries ought to look at making use of professional dietitians and nutritionists if they are to improve the quality of performance from their athletes.

There is also a great need for research towards traditional or culture-related sports such as Cameroon's Bakweri or Brazil's Peteca. Growing up in Zimbabwe, I played several Shona games such 'Hwishu'³, 'Pada'⁴, 'Tsoro'⁴ and 'Rakaraka'⁵. Although these games have now become unpopular amongst children nowadays due to technology and computer games, sport leaders in Zimbabwe should dedicate efforts towards researching and preserving these traditional sports as they could gain recognition as Brazil's Peteca. The data generated from this research could help provide a trend analysis and promote diversification across all forms of sports in developing countries (Tichaaawa *et al.*, 2018: 199).

2.3 Conclusion

It should be said that sports tourism in Africa and developing countries, with the exception of South Africa and Brazil, is in a bad state by all standards, especially when compared to that of the developed

³ A game played between two teams (kickers vs pitchers) each stationed in two circles or halves separated by a centreline. After a coin toss is performed to determine the team starting the game as the kicker's or vice versa, the selected member in the pitcher's circle rolls the ball towards the member of the kicker's group who is supposed to kick the ball as far as possible. Much like cricket in concept, the kicker has to run from his/her circle to the centreline and back in order to score points before the ball is brought back into play. In this game a player from the kicker's side can be eliminated by either missing his/her kick or by getting struck with the ball by any of the pitching members before he/she returns to the kicker's circle or the safety zone. If all members of the kicker's side are eliminated before reaching the set points required to win, the pitchers become the kickers and vice versa as they attempt to win the game (Mugari & Matemera, 2016: 130). ⁴ Pada or Hopscotch is a popular game where players toss a small object known as a lagger into numbered triangles and rectangles drawn on the playground before then jumping or hopping through the spaces to retrieve the lagger. The game can be played as individuals or in teams (Mailar, 2019).

⁴ A mathematical strategy game played by two people across equally divided shallow holes or grooves on the playground surface using stone pebbles or tokens. In this game, each player aims at having the agreed number of tokens in the same line either horizontally, vertically or diagonally, while at the same time preventing his/her opponent from coming up with this same pattern (Mugari & Matemera, 2016: 128).

⁵ Rakaraka or 'free start' is a game played using a ball by many players across a playground with four circles joined by rectangular shapes each. With the players divided into two teams, runners and throwers, the members from the side of the thrower's team position themselves outside the rectangular shapes otherwise known as running lanes as they attempt to strike the runner who will be running across the four circles in a clockwise direction. In this game, a player can be eliminated either by being struck with the ball or if the throwers complete ten passes before the runner is able to score points (Mugari & Matemera, 2016: 129).

world. The lack of interest by most governments in investing towards grassroots development continues to cast uncertainty over the industry's future despite it being widely known for its economic benefits. With FIFA's non-interference policy, the rise in corruption cases which go unchecked continues to see existing poor facilities deteriorate further. The abuse of funds set aside for the development of sporting infrastructure and investment towards sporting academies not only discourages financial investment from businesses but affects people as it diminishes their hopes of pursuing their dreams of becoming professional athletes. The continued conflicts, such as the civil war in the Central African region, South-Sudan border wars and the Sinai insurgency in Egypt still make it extremely difficult to guarantee the safety and security of sports tourists.

Whilst developed countries have been able to dedicate a significant portion of their yearly budget towards safety and security against both current and possible future attacks, it is more difficult for developing countries to follow the same practise given their low budget. For instance, whilst USA, is able to dedicate \$934 billion towards its military defence, homeland security and cyber security, Zimbabwe would only dedicate ZW\$391.8 billion (US\$4.8 billion) for its entire country in 2021 (Amadeo 2021: Bhoroma 2020). Although this may seem like an unfair comparison given the USA's population is ten times larger than Zimbabwe's, it still goes to show the gap between the economies of developed and developing countries.

As Qatar is yet to host the FIFA World Cup 2022, its situation will be interesting to monitor, post the mega-event, given the country's incredible economic turnaround in the last few decades. The country's discovery of oil reserves in the 1940s as well as gas in the 1970s would see it transform from a fishing and pearling economy to one of the largest multifaceted economies in the world (Al-Thani, 2017). Whilst the government's efficiency in the management of these resources has ensured Qatar's economic turnaround, the same cannot be said for Nigeria, which also discovered crude oil in 1956. The abuse of power by politicians has led the country into enormous debts while military coups have continued to increase political instability and uncertainty, thus promoting a wholesale looting of the state (Campbell, 2019). With Qatar participating in both traditional and contemporary western sports such as Arabian horse racing, camel racing, falconry, basketball, golf including its most famous sport football, its growing economy will ensure investment towards the sports' future. However, it is important to be aware that Qatar's tourist destination image is currently in jeopardy due to issues of human rights abuse which has seen many national teams such Netherlands, Norway and Germany protest before their World Cup 2022 qualifiers' matches (Goal, 2021).

Chapter 3: African Success Stories

While sports tourism has been shown to be in a poor state of affairs across Africa, especially when compared to Europe, a few institutions have managed to achieve success despite the many challenges like political instability and the serious lack of infrastructure that sports tourism continues to face within the continent. This chapter sets to discuss such institutions including their successes whilst assessing the ability of recognizing the case studies as forms of successful sports tourism practices. To achieve this, the chapter provides two tables which make use of Simon Anholt's National Brand Index (NBI) which suggest Tourism, Investment, Heritage and Culture as well as Government and People as components contributing to the attractiveness of a destination. While Anholt's work focuses on the nation branding and the marketability of a tourism product, the components from the (NBI) also contribute to the success of sports tourism practise (Anholt, 2011: 23).

For instance, the availability or lack of tourist activities (Tourism) which serve as secondary or supplementary attractions can either enhance or reduce the attractiveness of a primary attraction while the hospitality or hostility of the locals and political environment (Government and People) can either serve as a pull or push factor for tourists. As tourists often purchase souvenirs as a way of commemorating their visit, the uniqueness of the artefacts (Heritage and Culture) adds value to the tourist attraction while the ability to attract potential business and outsiders (Investment) contributes towards infrastructure. However, it is worth noting a primary attraction to one tourist may not necessary be a primary attraction to the other and vice versa as these are determined by preferences, interests and reasons for visiting (Ladplee, 2018: 216). The institutions discussed in this chapter are the South African football club Mamelodi Sundowns and Kenya's Machakos county which also serve as the primary attractions for the NBI assessment. Although the mini-dissertation acknowledges the existence of other African success stories like South Africa's 2013 AFCON edition or Egypt's 2019 AFCON tournament, the two case studies of FC Mamelodi and Machakos County presented dominant factors which appeared to be of most importance. Such dominant factors included financial backing through sponsorships and long-term strategy implementation for Mamelodi Sundowns as well as decentralisation and good management for Machakos County. It is important here to note that these two case studies discuss two possible approaches to achieving success in sports tourism, private investment for sports in the case of FC Mamelodi and public policies which emphasises public investment and restructuring.

3.1 Football Club (F.C) Mamelodi Sundowns

Locally known as the Brazilians or Masandawana, the professional football club was founded in 1970 and is regarded as one of the most successful sporting clubs on the African continent. Since its

participation in South Africa's top tier football league system, the Premier Soccer League (PSL) formed in 1996, Mamelodi Sundowns has gone on to win a total of 11 league titles making it the most successful club in the competition. The football club has also performed well in the country's other domestic knockout cup competitions such as the Nedbank Cup, Telkom Cup and MTN 8 by winning 11 trophies across all competitions. Its victory in the CAF Champions league and CAF Super Cup in 2016 would see it participate in the FIFA Club World Cup, a prestigious competition which comprises of winners from each continent's major competition for the very first time (Fraser, 2016).

The club's takeover by South African businessman and recently appointed CAF President, Patrice Motsepe, as of March 2021, has paved the way for the acquisition of talent, good coaches as well as sponsorship deals from Puma, Hyundai, TransLux and investment company Ubuntu – Botho S & E. Mamelodi Sundown's talented football players and coaches like Pitso Mosimane, together with an extensive financial backing, has allowed the club to go from strength to strength as it has seen its brand gain popularity across Africa as well as some parts of Europe. In May 2018, Motsepe would secure a friendly match between the Masandawana and the Spanish champions FC Barcelona at the First National Bank (FNB) stadium in Johannesburg South Africa (Ngcatshe, 2018). As this friendly match between the two giants (each in their own right) was broadcasted on international television, it not only helped spread the popularity of the Mamelodi Sundown but also showcase what South Africa had to offer to the world of football.

While having the financial means to acquire talented players and football coaches can almost guarantee success to any club, global dominance, however, is hard to come by. European Clubs like Paris Saint-Germain (PSG), with a much larger financial backing, are testimony to this as they have often been underwhelming in football's most elite competition, the UEFA Champions League, despite having talented players such as Neymar, Di Maria and Kylian Mbappe. To assert total dominance upon their competitors, Mamelodi Sundowns have had to rely on more than just their financial ability. According to sports journalist Njabulo Ngidi (2020), Masandawana's reign of success has strongly been due to its resilience, character and mental strength. Their successful campaign in the 2016 CAF Champions League would be a true reflection of this statement as each stage of the competition had its challenges for the club. Needing a win against Congo's AC Leopards in order to advance to the second round of the competition, Sundown's six-hour journey from Congo's capital Pointe Noire to Dolisie would not be smooth sailing as the players travelled without proper food due to a catering mix up. Upon arrival, and after playing their match against AC Leopards, the Masandawana found themselves stuck in Congo for a further two days as flights were suspended due to ongoing Presidential elections. Although travelling in between match fixtures is part of the sport, flight delays and long waits in transits often plays a part in an athlete's mentality, which could be the difference

between a win and a loss. Perhaps here it is also important to highlight that this incident faced by the Mamelodi football club does well to illustrate the challenges facing sports tourism in Africa.

Mamelodi Sundowns' 2-0 defeat in the second leg match⁶ and elimination from the CAF Champions League's Play-Offs by Ghana's Medeama Sporting Club (S.C) in Sekondi-Takoradi, would leave the club feeling humiliated as they carried a 3-1 advantage from the first leg match. However, the team's disastrous trip to Ghana would be forgotten after their reinstatement into the knockout competition due to the disqualification of the Congolese football club AS Vita who fielded an illegal player. Determined not to repeat their mistakes against Medeama, the Masandawana would show character as they went on to outplay and outclass the Algerian side ES Sétifienne at their home stadium resulting in an uproar by the rival fans. While violent behaviour and throwing of projectiles by the Algerian fans would have unsettled many, the Mamelodi Sundowns players stood firm and endured the harsh treatment in Setif. Such a show of bravery against ES Sétifienne in their home stadium would strengthen the team's mentality as they went on to progress further in the tournament to become champions (Ngidi, 2020).

Other driving forces behind Masandawana's success are their 'all-round' stability, willingness to set high standards, a like-for-like kind of players and an effective squad rotation. For instance, the squad boasts a veteran, a youth academy player, and a player in peak athletic condition in each position. This stability in each position has provided Mamelodi Sundowns with a competitive advantage over its rivals as it has the experience, agility, and efficiency which other teams lack. With one of the largest squads in South African football, the Masandawana have been able to practice effective squad rotation which has been crucial to the club's ability to tackle an influx of games coming from the PSL, CAF Champions League and other domestic knockout competitions (Gumede, 2021). Such practice of effective squad rotation has also seen being implemented by successful European teams such as Bayern Munich, F.C Barcelona and Real Madrid who have dominated the football world in the last two decades. For instance, Real Madrid would go on to win Europe's elite competition, UEFA Champions League three times in a row between 2016 – 18 while FC Barcelona won five of its last ten domestic league campaigns including five domestic cup competitions between 2011 – 21 (Marca, 2017).

The club's desire to set high standards has also played a critical role in making its brand appeal to many people in South Africa. Whilst there are other clubs like Kaiser Chiefs or Orlando Pirates with

⁶ The term second or first leg match is often used to describe a 'home and home' football match series played between two clubs or national teams. This two-legged tie system is often used in knockout competitions such as the UEFA Champions League and Spanish's Copa Del Rey with the result often being decided on the away goal's rule and aggregate score (Sports Pundit, n.d.).

a similar market value as Mamelodi Sundowns, it is hard to argue that both the clubs' appeal is the same as the Masandawana. Although kept subtle by the club's coaches who hide behind the old phrase "we are focusing on the next game", Mamelodi Sundowns look to write the history books by becoming the first team to finish its season undefeated – an accolade that has only been achieved by a few teams like F.C Arsenal, Juventus and Egypt's Al Ahly (Egypt Today, 2017). Such targets set by the club have brought consistency in their performances, which have led to favourable results for its fans. For instance, the Masandawana would win six of its ten PSL campaigns between the period of 2011 – 21 while Orlando Pirates and Kaiser chiefs would only manage to win three trophies combined.

Numerous studies on fans has identified several factors that affect sport consumption decisions and team identification, like team success, style of play, team popularity, promotional activities and the presence of star players. Mamelodi Sundown's accolades, together with its promotional activities like its friendly match with F.C Barcelona, has established it as a successful club in South Africa that also attracts a large fan base. As the term 'team identification' is postulated to form the basis for the understanding that sports teams are symbolic representations of communities that provide individuals with a sense of belonging at grassroot levels, Mamelodi Sundowns and its history is certainly a club many locals resonate with given South Africa's transition from apartheid to democracy (Dhurup *et al.*, 2010: 474). The club's rise to success against a backdrop of racial discrimination is a common story for many South Africans who have achieved success and relocated from Mamelodi, a township in Pretoria developed under the Group Areas Act of 1950 and designed as the cornerstone of the apartheid policy to eliminate mixed neighbourhoods (SAHO, n.d.).

Perhaps the biggest threat to Mamelodi Sundown's dominance in African football is its management which has often been guilty of poor conduct. Amongst its long list of administrative errors, the club has been found guilty of fielding ineligible players before a match on more than one occasion, resulting in them getting fined by the PSL disciplinary committee for breaching the FIFA Disciplinary Code and National Soccer League (NSL) rule. In 2007, the club was involved in a controversial court case following the suspected forgery of a contract extension for its former player Jose Torrealba who had provisionally agreed to join Sundown's rival Kaiser Chiefs for the 2008/09 season. After investigations found the club to be guilty of forging the player's signature, its troubles would be far from over as Jose Torrealba went on to sue the Brazilians R5,5 million for defamation (Mokoena, 2011). In 2016, the club again found itself in a heated battle with another former player, Keagan Dolly, after obstructing a transfer to the Greek football club Olympiacos who had appealed for his services. At the heart of this battle was the club's administration which had put the wrong 'buy-out

clause'⁷ in Dolly's contract. Upon a contract negotiation between Mamelodi Sundowns and Dolly in 2014, the club would put a clause of R12,5 million (a market price they valued the player during his time at Cape town's Ajax club) instead of R28 million after acquiring his services. This administrative error by the club's management would only be picked up on in 2016 when Olympiacos offered a sum of ZAR 14 million based on the R12,5 million buy-out clause that Mamelodi Sundowns refused to accept. While Mamelodi Sundowns won the case against Dolly at the PSL's Dispute Resolution Chamber (DRC), such poor management of his contract amongst those of many other players not only instils a lack of confidence in the club's leadership but can also tarnish the club's image. Therefore, Mamelodi Sundowns need to look deeply into the scrutiny of employees in its leadership positions as well as the administration of other big football organizations in Europe for inspiration (Ngidi 2017; Ngidi 2020).

⁷ A buy-out clause is a clause included in a football player's contract which typically foresees the payment of a sum or fee to the club in exchange for the player being free to transfer to the club seeking the player's services (Aho, 2014).

Table : Mamelodi Sundowns F.C as a practice model for Sports tourism

Brand Element (Anholt)	
Tourism (Secondary tourist attractions)	<p>With South Africa's capital city Pretoria serving as Mamelodi Sundown's hometown, sports tourists traveling into the city for a PSL match can visit sites such as;</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Union Buildings: considered as one of South Africa's architectural masterpieces, the Union Buildings houses the offices for the country's government. With its lush gardens and statues, sports tourists can participate in activities such as picnics and photography before or after a sporting event (SAHO, n.d.). 2) Voortrekker monument: the iconic granite structure is one of South Africa's heritage sites where tourists can learn about the history of Afrikaners – an ethnic group descended from predominantly Dutch settlers who arrived in the country during the 17th century (SAHO, 2014). 3) Other attractions also include art museums, historical museums and the National Zoological Gardens of South Africa
Heritage & Culture	<p>With multiple speaking languages such as Sepedi, Sesotho, Tswana, Tsonga, Afrikaans, and English, Pretoria offers a lot of cultural diversity. However, what is crucial to highlight is the football culture established by club Mamelodi Sundowns. Its style of play and dominance over other football teams serves as an attraction for sports tourists.</p>
Government/People	<p>The country's relatively stable democracy provides a favourable environment which attracts all forms of tourism including sporting events. However, occasional uproars such as violent protests and lootings due to inequality, government corruption and poor service delivery often results in cancelling or postponement or sporting events which may discourage tourists.</p>
Investment	<p>The financial investment and sponsorship for Mamelodi Sundowns has been vital as it has paved way for the acquisition of talent, coaching staff and the ability to market the football club which has helped spread its popularity.</p>

3.2 Machakos: Kenya

Since the late 1970s, tourism has served as an important socio-economic factor for Kenya contributing between 10-13% of its GDP. With its favourable tropical climate and attraction sites such as Hemingways Watamu beach resort, Mount Kenya National Park and Maasai Mara National Reserve, Kenya over the years has become a popular destination for many international tourists. However, the rise of extremist groups and increasing political instability in the North Eastern coastal region and Nairobi, has resulted in a sharp decline of visitors as countries like Britain, France and Netherlands have discouraged their citizens from travelling to these regions. The recent Al-Shabaab attacks, such as the 2013 massacre at Nairobi's Westgate Mall and shooting at Kenya's top tourist attraction site, Lamu island in 2014, led to a massive cancelation of holiday bookings and all chartered flights from Western countries (Jorgic, n.d.). As a result, this also had a huge impact on the tourism sector as over 5000 jobs were lost due to the country's coasts becoming deserted and its hotels closing down (Njoronge *et al.*, 2017: 196).

Following the frustrations from the western, central and coastal regions of the country, Kenya's new government shifted its focus towards the eastern province as it looked to revitalize its tourism sector through luring tourists from Asian countries. While the other proposed strategies which were to stimulate domestic travel such as state-funded holidays never took place, sports tourism, particularly in Machakos county, showed high promise. With the establishment of the 47 counties following the newly introduced Kenyan federal governing system in 2010, many counties like Kisii, Nairobi, Kakamega and Taita Taveta worked towards developing sports facilities as well as promoting sports events in their appropriate counties. However, Machakos county has served as Kenya's most popular sports destination ahead of the other counties due to its high investment in its sports infrastructure (Njoronge *et al.*, 2017: 196).

A combination of rural countryside and a bustling metropolis, Machakos county is located 69 km south of Nairobi and a 30-minute drive away from Jomo Kenyatta International airport. Its name was derived from Masaku, a seer and chief of the Kamba tribe who welcomed the British to Kambaland in 1887. After Kenya was annexed by Britain, Machakos became the first administrative centre for the new British East Colony until its dissolution in 1963 (National Geography, 2017). Now serving as an administrative county for post-colonial Kenya, Machakos consists of eight constituencies which include Mavoko, Masinga, Yatta, Kangundo, Kathiani, Matulungu, Mwala and its capital constituency Machakos town. With a semi-arid climate and a hilly terrain covering most parts of the county, Machakos is also perfect for tourist activities such as music festivals, hiking, game drives at the Ol Donyo Sabuk National park, camping, eco-tourism and cultural tourism amongst many more.

This also benefits the sports tourism in the county as tourists who visit the county primarily for sports events can also take place in secondary activities such as the ones mentioned above (Machakos Government, n.d.).

After the refurbishment of its Kenyatta stadium by the county's first governor Dr. Alfred Mutua, Machakos has gone on to host both local sports and regional tournaments such as the 2013 Confederation of Eastern and Central Africa Football Association (CECAFA)⁸, 2014 Confederations of African Rugby (CAR) women's sevens and the Masaku 7s International competition. Under the leadership of its governor, the county of Machakos has also seen the development of infrastructure such as lodging, restaurants and recreational facilities, which have emerged from the sports initiative. One of such facilities is the Machakos Peoples Park (MPP), which opened its gates to the public in 2014. Featuring an open-field amphitheatre, the MPP has become popular with both the locals and day trippers as it hosts annual concerts as well as award ceremonies. With the recreational park easily accessible and only 6 km away from the Kenyatta stadium, MPP also serves as a fan zone for many rugby fanatics from Fiji, Australia, USA and UK, who come to the county during the annual Masaku 7s International Rugby series (Njoronge *et al.*, 2017: 201).

With other sporting events like the Kenya Commercial Banking Safari Rally (KCBSR), Kenyan Premier league and the cycling competition *Tour de Machakos* taking place in the county, Machakos receives both economic benefits through ticket revenues and sponsorship, as well as social benefits through cultural exchange and image enhancement. Joseph M. Njoronge, Lucy Atieno and Daniel Viera Do Nascimento conducted a socio-economic impact survey using questionnaires and interviews with panel groups including county government officials, taxi operators, hoteliers and facility managers by scholars (2017). In their findings they presented 32 positive variables and 25 negative variables. The sports-related events discussed above have helped enhance the community's aesthetics and appearance through the development of restaurants, which has also created more job opportunities, increased sanitation facilities such as public toilets, enhanced media visibility, increased trade for local businesses in Machakos and reinforced community spirit and pride amongst many others. With many locals enjoying the infrastructure and urban development which has taken place in Machakos in the last eight years, perhaps it is crucial to also discuss the impact of devolution on sports tourism in Kenya's less popularly known destinations. Defined as the transfer of power and resources from a central government to subnational authorities (county or regional province),

⁸ Now known as the CECAFA Senior Challenge Cup, the competition is considered as the oldest football competition in Africa dating back to 1926 under the name Gossage Cup. The Gossage Cup would begin as a Kenya-Uganda affair only before including Tanzania, Zanzibar, Rwanda, Eritrea, Djibouti, Burundi and Somalia (CECAFA, n.d.).

devolution has helped to necessitate a rethink for diversification of the tourism products offered in Kenya (Hauss, n.d.).

With the old central government system, economic activities were mapped out according to Kenya's districts which restricted tourism to the coastal regions Mombasa and Taita-Taveta, with eco-tourism focal points in the country's major national parks Tsavo and Maasai Mara. As such patterns of mapping were previously used as a guide by National Tourism Bodies Kenya Tourism Federation (KTF), Kenya Tourist Foundation and the Tourism Authority (KTFTA) for tourism development and planning, this often resulted in biased interest towards these popular destinations, ignoring the country's less popular destinations as a consequence. However, the adoption of a decentralised government system would see Kenya's less popular destinations represented in the country's national tourism bodies thereby, allowing for a more hands-on approach from the county governments as well as the KFT and KTFTA in planning towards tourism development. While devolution helped to enhance legitimacy and government accountability, the collaboration between low-level governments and the national tourism bodies also helped address the setbacks faced in the counties, which would otherwise have been ignored under a centralized government system. The transfer of resources and decision-making powers to county governments has allowed them to integrate tourism in their economic developmental plans which not only entailed a reevaluation of options for the diversification of tourism products but also a rethinking of the regional mapping of both economic and tourism activities (Njoronge *et al.*, 2017: 203).

Subsequently, devolved authorities began promoting sports and culture as new tourism products as they showed great potential to develop as economic pillars in the rural regions relying on farming, fishing, livestock, mining and trade. The country's dominant sports identity in athletics, rugby, motorsports and other field events would also make sports tourism appeal as a new destination image for counties such as Machakos and Kakamega amongst many others. While Machakos is seen as a model county and a chosen case study for this mini-dissertation due to its remarkable investment in its sporting infrastructure, Kakamega in western Kenya is another destination which offers culture related sports events similar to Brazil's Peteca or Cameroon's Bakweri. Home to the second-largest tribe after the Kikuyu, the Abaluhya or Luhya are famous for their bull-fighting (see on page 22) which adopts an alternative style to the better-known Spanish blood sport, man versus Toro. Although this sport is not particularly favoured by the Kenyan Society for the Protection and Care of Animals (KSPCA), it continues to attract over 5000 tourists generating income for the locals (News24, 2005).

However, the implementation of sports tourism in its developmental agenda by the Machakos government has not been without its drawbacks. Sports events like the Masaku 7s rugby series have

received criticism from local people for promoting immoral behaviour and underage drinking during the evening parties hosted at the MPP. With Machakos receiving high local and international media attention during the series, this could backfire and tarnish the county's image and reputation. The influx of tourists into the county during the sports-related events often leads to conflicts between the locals and visitors due to the increase in noise pollution, littering, traffic congestion and road closure which cause disruption (Njoronge *et al.*, 2017: 206). While devolution has accelerated the rate of development in what was a relatively unpopular county, the excessive spending on new sporting infrastructure such as the Machakos stadium or recreational facilities like the MPP is seen as controversial as most stakeholders believe the funds spent on the sporting infrastructure could be spent towards housing and bettering the lives of the local citizens. Such controversy on the devolved government spending of county resources might be the reason behind much delayed Machakos Formula One (F1) project promised by Governor Alfred Mutua in 2013 (Nairobi Wire, 2013). Although having the prestigious motorsport event return to Africa after 28 years of absence since its last Grand Prix in South Africa is an exciting prospect, it should be mentioned that F1 is an elitist sport with ticket prices ranging from £45 - £3,500 which would limit local attendance (Longman, 2021).

Should the Machakos government succeed in completing the F1 project and see its race circuit included in the motorsport calendar by the Fédération Internationale de l'Automobile (FIA), this would boost the county's sports tourism incredibly. The annual hosting of the F1 sports event in developing countries over the years has proved profitable with Bahrain generating USD \$600 million in 2008 and Brazil's Sao Paulo received an economic turnover of USD \$ 296 million in 2014 (Gulf Weekly 2009; Iha 2014). While the construction of an F1 race circuit is said to cost between USD \$270 million – USD \$1 billion, this may prove to be an excessively large sum for the Kenyan County, especially in the absence of Public-private partnership (PPP) or lack of sponsorship thereof. This inability to take on large sporting projects such as this also indicate the negative effects of devolution as regional governments operate using a much smaller resource base compared to a centralised government (Sylt 2017; Walthert 2014).

Although, the exciting prospect of hosting Africa's first grand prix after 28 years of the motorsport's absence looks to attract millions from across the globe and generate huge profits, this chapter discourages Kenya and other developing countries alike from falling into the mega-event trap as history has revealed that the hosting costs incurred by destinations have never been enough to justify their value in terms of investment. Perhaps it must be added that hosting a sporting event of this magnitude also poses a high security threat to Machakos county as it could potentially become a target for terrorism attacks. With recent terrorist attacks, such as the mall shooting in Nairobi, the student

massacre at Kenya's Garissa University, or wider afield, the abduction and killing of eleven Israelite athletes at the 1972 Summer Olympics in Munich by terrorist group Black September, history has showed that large gatherings or icon events provide a venue for terrorist groups to inflict significant casualties, cause economic damage and instil fear. The presence of diverse media and live coverage including celebrities, royal family members or government officials can generate instant and widespread publicity which maximises the impact of an attack. Therefore, such a high level of threat to a county's economy, safety and well-being requires a significant investment towards security which not only prevents calamity but also secures investment towards the future of sports tourism development in Machakos. While research on the actual economic value for both constructing the Formula One project and hosting the event is still to be carried out, warnings of relying on ex-ante reports should be given as not all expected impacts materialise. For instance, the unfortunate turn of events such as the Covid-19 pandemic would affect the expected income generation from tourists resulting in losses for Japan and its 2021 Summer Games (Zimbalist, 2015: 1).

Table 2: Machakos County as practice model for Sports tourism

Brand Element (Anholt)	
Tourism (Secondary attractions)	<p>With sports tourism needing domestic tourism to thrive, Machakos county provides attraction sites that sports tourists can engage in whilst attending a sporting event such as Masaku 7s International Rugby or <i>Tour de Machakos</i>. These include;</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Fourteen Falls: A spectacular 27-meter-deep scenery where visitors can engage in several activities such as boating, fishing, diving and bird watching (Kenya Cradle, 2021). 2) Kituluni Hill (The Anti-Gravity Hill): The mysterious hill in Machakos county challenges Isaac Newton's law of gravity as water flows uphill instead of downhill. This site is popular with tourists as cars also move uphill at a speed of 5km/hr when put in neutral (New Times, 2010). 3) Ol Donyo Sabuk National Park: Tourists here can engage in activities such as game drives, hiking and bird watching. The park is home to the animal like olive baboons, mongoose, waterbucks, leopards, impalas, buffaloes and many others which tourists can have the pleasure of viewing. 4) Machakos Peoples Park: The recreational centre houses a 5000 open amphitheatre which hosts annual concerts tourists can attend during sporting events. Whilst at the People's Park, tourists can also engage in activities such as boating, zip lining, archery, horse and camel riding (Into Safaris, 2021).
Heritage & Culture	<p>"Machakos County is home to Kenya's largest handicraft industry which comprises of wood carvers and basket weavers from the constituencies Mwala and Yatta." As majority of its population dominated by the Akamba tribe, tourists can witness practices such as traditional honey harvesting, storytelling and medicinal practices amongst many more (Gathoni & Mwangi, 2019: 265).</p>
Government/People	<p>The dissolution of the old Kenyan government into 47 low-level county governments allowed diversification, increased accountability and the promotion of participatory approach in community development. As Machakos county lies in the safe eastern region of Kenya, the destination serves as a favourable environment for successful sports tourism practise.</p>
Investment	<p>The development of infrastructure such as the Machakos Stadium together with other sporting facilities has also attracted investment towards lodging and catering which is vital for sports tourism to succeed.</p>

Conclusion

Despite the drawbacks discussed in Mamelodi Sundown's rise to dominance in African football and Machakos county sports development, both case studies can be recognised as forms of successful sports tourism practices for Africa due to their dominant factors and components, illustrated in tables 1 and 2. The financial investment and sponsorship deals from various organizations such as Ubuntu Botho – S & E and Hyundai have played a huge role into the development of the South African footballing club Mamelodi Sundowns. While its management has been scrutinized for past administrative errors, there is no denying its visionary leadership, which has also played a role in the recruitment of talented soccer players, good coaches as well as the setting of challenging objectives for the organization. The ability of the club's administration to recruit talented players and good coaches has played a significant role towards influencing Mamelodi Sundown's brand and style of play which has attracted a lot of fans during its matches thereby contributing to sports tourism in South Africa.

The current development of sports tourism in Machakos county has not only showed potential for continued growth but also potential for the adoption of sports tourism in all Kenya's counties. Although this would need to be scaled according to the level of security threats from terrorism, sports tourism in Kenya shows a high rate of success under a decentralized government system as compared to the old central government. Furthermore, in order for both case studies to harness the full benefit of sports tourism in their respective regions, a link between sports tourism and other tourism products like heritage, culture and arts is required. This can be achieved through the promoting of key attractions by offering discounts for entry fees to ticket holders for sporting events. Lastly, there is a need for more research focusing on the impact of devolution on domestic tourism. With acts of terrorism often influenced by issues such as oil, gas, poverty, inequality, religious and political turmoil, a reduction in terrorism attacks through devolution or government decentralization can also be considered as a potential solution for other regions affected.

Chapter 4: Towards sports tourism participation in Africa

The state of sports tourism across African countries can be recognised as mixed when compared to that of the developed world. While there is a dominant narrative of the great strides made by sports tourism in Europe, for sports tourism in African countries is a combination of catastrophes and success stories. South Africa has clearly dominated in hosting several mega and small events as other African countries continue to lag behind. As indicated in chapter two, the growth of sports tourism in Africa, as well as the developing world, has been complicated by various challenges such as the political environment, travel constraints, safety and security concerns, lack of infrastructure and poor sporting management. Having discussed these challenges in chapter two and the success stories of South Africa's Mamelodi Sundowns Football Club and Kenya's Machakos county in the third chapter, this final chapter provides strategies African leaders can implement to facilitate sports tourism participation. The chapter here argues that African leaders or governments need to readdress their political environment, resolve travel constraints, improve their safety and security, invest in infrastructure and in education and research as well as improve on its sports management as these all impede sports tourism growth.

4.1 Addressing the political environment

The complex challenges ranging from clientelism, corruption, poor socioeconomic development, terror attacks from extremist groups such as Boko Haram, Al-Qaeda and Al-Shabaab to interstate wars in the Horn of Africa region have continued to mar the African continent making it almost impossible for sports tourism to develop. While the reasons for some of these issues were traced back to the Berlin Conference of 1884-85, which enforced artificial borders upon different ethnic groups, African leaders need to look at resolving their political environment in order facilitate the participation of sports tourism. Like Kenya adopted a decentralized approach to revive its tourism following the frustrations of terrorist attacks in its western, central and coastal regions, other countries particularly in the Sahel region and horn of Africa, which are in a similar predicament, could also look to consider the implementation of Kenya's strategy. The shift of decision-making power from a central government to its new 47 counties allowed sub-governments to promote local tourism strategies with Machakos county being a stand out model due to its strides on sports tourism development (Njoronge *et al.*, 2017: 196).

Given that devolution enhances legitimacy, enables better control and increases the accountability of the government, which all contributes towards stabilising countries, such a strategy could potentially help to combat terrorism. While violence and insurgency across Africa has been motivated by organised crime, jihadism and local politics, countries such as Mali show a clear example of how

poor governance, corruption, weak state security and structural failings have been the primary reason for the growth of the insurgency in the Sahel region. According to Kodjo Tchioffo (2020), Mali has experienced five military coups (1968, 1991, 2012, 2020 and 2021) in just 60 years of independence. As the adoption of a decentralized system allows for the opportunity for counties or regions to select their desired governments in a free and fair electoral vote, this can reduce the need to resort to violence as more nonviolent resolutions are used to express policy preferences, resolve political conflicts and seek redress (Li, 2005: 280). With a much more stable political environment, it is easier for African countries to pursue sports tourism development as investors are guaranteed safety on their investment.

4.2 Resolving Travel Constraints

The Export-Import Bank of India (Exim) stated that out of the total 2.8 million km of road networks in Sub-Saharan Africa, only 0.8 million km are paved with only 50% of them reported to be in good condition. With most rail networks in Africa constructed by mining companies during the colonial era, 84% of the total 82,000km remains functional as 16% has been closed due to war-related damage, natural disasters, cable theft, general neglect, and lack of funding (Exim, 2018: 11). Such conditions in the Sub-Saharan region, including those reported in countries Zimbabwe and Nigeria, indicate a lack of investment towards transport infrastructure by African governments especially when compared to the European Union (E.U)'s 217,000km of railway, 77,000km of motorway and 329 airports, which are pivotal to its sports tourism (Dionelis & Giaoutzi, 2020). As transport systems play a role in enabling people to travel in between sporting events, African governments need to also invest towards its roads and rail networks to provide easy accessibility for sports tourism participants. South Africa's exceptional road networks, airports, public transport systems such as MyCiTi and A Re Yeng bus service, as well as its Gautrain express commuter rail system that connects the cities of Johannesburg, Pretoria, Ekurhuleni and the Oliver Reginald (O.R) Tambo International Airport have been crucial for the success of various annual small-scale sporting events such as the DSTV Premier Soccer League and the MTN 8 (South African government, n.d.). The Zimbabwean government's collaboration with local companies Bitumen World Contracts, Tensor, Fossil Contracting, Masimba Construction and Exodus and Company to rehabilitate its Harare-Beitbridge highway also highlights the importance of Public-Private Partnerships (PPC) as they help to alleviate financial constraints and encourage investment opportunities (Ayemba, 2021; Brock, 2021). Therefore, African governments need to make use of PPC's to resolve travelling constraints by improving their public transportation systems as well as road networks for easy movement of sports participants to and from sports tourism events.

4.3 Implementing Safety and Security measures

With sports events often being recognised as scenes of both premeditated and opportunistic crime, African countries will need to invest towards its safety and security in order to successfully facilitate the participation of sports tourism. According to author Matt Libber (2021), “safety and security play a pivotal role in providing a quality experience for fans, participants and staff regardless of the size and scope of the event the country or city is hosting.” While it is perhaps easy to assume that drastic measures have to be made towards protecting spectators and participants from extremists looking to do harm, African governments also need to focus their efforts towards dealing with issues such as power, natural disasters, weather and other elements. Sports events organisers need to plan ahead for weather and natural disasters as well as provide emergency management guides, which cover venue specifics, such as escape routes, fire exits, location of medical equipment like Automated External Defibrillators (AED) and the location of emergency command centres. With fights often breaking out on the playground or in the stands between rival spectators, sports events organisers in Africa need to invest in security, which includes the hiring of police personnel to combat such incidents should they occur. African governments also need to invest in technology to provide safer environments for sports tourism. This includes the use of equipment such as Radio-frequency identification (RFID) tags in tickets or mobile applications, which can help identify and track attendees while in the venue in case of medical issues or malicious activity, handheld metal detectors to prevent the entry of dangerous weapons in the venue, camera systems which can be used to monitor suspicious activity and mobile ticketing to facilitate easier entry to venues. Lastly, African governments need to make good use of social media to create its desired narrative on sports tourism in order to combat the negative coverage from western media, which often harms the image of African countries, thereby affecting sports tourism participation (Libber, 2021; Boakye, 2021).

4.4 Investing in Infrastructure

To facilitate sports tourism growth in Africa, governments need to invest in infrastructure such as stadiums, arenas, rehabilitation centres, training facilities and sports academies. The deteriorating facilities, or lack thereof, have impeded the growth of sports tourism, leading to the migration of African athletes to European countries where there are world-class facilities that enable them to achieve their fullest potential and pursue sport as a career. With its Chloorkop facility boasting amenities such as training grounds, media rooms, athlete lounges, rehabilitation centres and a gym, Mamelodi Sundowns F.C has been able to rely on such infrastructure to compete at the highest level and win trophies. Perhaps what is interesting for the South African football club is its decision to abandon its original stadium, HM Pitje, to share the Loftus Versfeld stadium with the local Blue Bulls

rugby team. While ground-share is a common practice across developed countries with teams such as England's Wigan Athletic F.C sharing the DW stadium with Wigan Warriors rugby team, this is a practice that could benefit both governments and organizations with smaller budgets. According to Tom Cripps (2016), 'ground-share', which simply refers to the shared use of a stadium by two or more sports organizations, is a practice adopted by the involved partners as a means of reducing both construction and maintenance costs. As Zimbabwe had its stadiums declared unfit by the CAF association, ground-share could prove to be vital for its sports tourism as the government and sporting organizations could work together towards rehabilitating grounds/sports fields, thereby dividing the costs involved (Samaita, 2020).

With Qatar looking to unveil the world's first reusable stadium in preparation for the 2022 FIFA World Cup, the success of this infrastructure could also be used by African countries looking to adopt sports tourism as a development strategy. Designed from a series of modified shipping containers with a steel framework, the Ras Abu Aboud Stadium in Doha will have a 40,000-seat capacity, which will be disassembled after the World Cup and split into two smaller stadiums that will be assembled at different locations. As constructors of the modular stadium have stated, the project will cost 20% less than building a traditional stadium, and this could be an affordable strategy for governments with financial constraints. With unpopular African teams being known to have small fan bases, a census count can also be performed to determine the size of stadiums or arenas in order to avoid assembling facilities which maybe too large and expensive for clubs to maintain. These, however, can be extended to accommodate growing capacity in the event a small club starts to gain popularity or is hosting a team with a much larger fan base (Lynch, 2017).



Figure 1: Digital illustration of the modified shipping containers and steel framework used to assemble the Ras Abu Aboud stadium

From: <<https://www.archdaily.com/884528/a-modular-demountable-stadium-built-from-shippingcontainers-will-be-built-for-qatar-2022-world-cup>>



Figure 2: Digital illustration of the fully assembled Ras Abu Aboud stadium near the port of Doha

From: <<https://www.archdaily.com/884528/a-modular-demountable-stadium-built-from-shippingcontainers-will-be-built-for-qatar-2022-world-cup>>



Figure 3: Image containing a possible design for an arena using the materials dissembled from the Ras Abu Aboud stadium

From: < <https://www.qatar2022.qa/en/stadiums/ras-abu-aboud-stadium/legacy> >

4.4 Improving sports management

While financial measures by governments and the practice of ground-share to ensure availability of sporting infrastructure may start to turn the tide for sports tourism in Africa, a great effort in sports management also needs to be implemented. Governments need to exercise scrutiny when it comes to the selection process for sports leaders to curb the high rate of corruption that has undermined the legitimacy of sports structures in African countries. As sports leaders need to possess qualities such as awareness, passion, enthusiasm, will to win and vision, governments need to ensure the selected people in these positions have the best interests of the athletes and the sporting organization at heart. According to Wladimir Andreff (2006: 309), research has shown that the capacity to train sports leaders is far greater in emerging and middle-income countries like Argentina, Cuba, Egypt and Thailand than in most African countries. This is because the cost of training coaches or sporting directors is beyond the budget constraints of most African countries forcing sporting organizations to hire foreign coaches. While the hiring foreign coaches turns to quickly bring success to most African teams due to the high pedigree associated with European and South American sports, this success is usually short-lived as they fail to have a long-lasting impact. It is for such reasons African countries need to abandon this method of coach selection and begin looking for an alternative sports strategy that bring the desired long-term effect. Therefore, African organizations need to invest in training

academies which look to educate potential coaches or sporting directors of their culture, ideologies and philosophies. As the setting up of training academies allows the opportunities for locals to participate in the sporting industry, this also creates potential for organizations to establish better sporting projects for their teams, which can ensure long-term success, thereby facilitating sports tourism (Shafei, 2018).

The hiring of well-trained and qualified people in sports leadership roles will not only be critical towards developing talented athletes but will also help reduce the rate of athlete migration to Europe due to the positive influence sports leaders may have on athletes. As this contributes towards good performances, style of play and team popularity, it will also attract sponsorships to help marketing and creating other sources of income for athletes through ambassadorship. For instance, top athletes such as Lionel Messi earn more than \$30 million per annum from sponsorship deals with Adidas, Gatorade, Konami, and Pepsi amongst many others. While we have to acknowledge the wage gap for athletes in Europe and athletes in African countries, sponsorship deals may certainly be lucrative and help retain talent in Africa (Cooper, 2021). Mamelodi Sundowns FC has made great efforts towards this initiative through sponsorships like Hyundai that provides cars for its players with others like Kama Billiat and Themba Zwane having individual sponsorship deals from Adidas, Lexus and Puma (Kickoff, 2020).

4.5 Education and Research

African governments and agencies must make use of scholars who are grounded in local realities to get accurate information regarding the types of sports and their level of popularity according to various towns or cities. For example, the popularity of football in Africa has allowed for the creation of tournaments such as AFCON, COSAFA and CAF Champions league. Research can be conducted with sporting agencies and scholars to assess the level of interest from communities for the discussed traditional sports such as Cameroon's *Bakweri* wrestling, Kenya's bull-fighting or children's games from Zimbabwe like '*Hwishu*', '*Pada*', '*Tsoro*' and '*Rakaraka*'. A high-level sponsorship of any of these traditional sports could lead to the formation of governing bodies which could regulate these sports and create tournaments for them. Given that their practice does not require the construction of sophisticated and expensive facilities, it is more reason that African governments need to be encouraged to develop traditional sports. In line with investing towards sports at grassroots level in African countries, governments can also implement a solution recommended by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), which looked to address sports participation at schools for children aged 12 to 15. Envisaged with the aim of setting up an event with a similar format to the popular Olympic games, the UNESCO games, would be convened in a

framework of school sports and urban associations. Countries with a wide variety of traditional sports such as Zimbabwe can look to adopt these UNESCO games and invest towards their development, which can offer hope to young children and stimulate sports participation in the country (Andreff, 2006: 314). Given the UNESCO games are developed to encourage sports participation in schools for children, this potentially challenges De Knop's definition of a sports tourist (see on page 15) that emphasized the need for one to be on holiday to engage in any form of sporting activity. As games such as *Hwishu*, *Pada*, or *Tsoro* were popular amongst many millennials who grew up in Zimbabwe, the rejuvenation of these traditional sports in a regulated manner is likely to create a nostalgic effect and stimulate participation which potentially boosts sports tourism in the region.

Conclusion

While there are several other measures governments can implement to better the chances of sports tourism in Africa, this study strongly views the discussed strategies as the key fundamentals that allow sports tourism participation on the continent. Perhaps the daunting task Africa faces is the need to resolve its political environment as it is the more complex. Given issues the continent faces such as poor socioeconomic development and terrorism, governments need to unite now more than ever to think of suitable ways which can encourage political stability. Although one may argue that governments have already tried this initiative through forming the African Union, it is fair to say that AU has failed to live up to its mandate of promoting unity and solidarity as well as advocating for the mantra 'African solutions to African problems'⁹. The much anticipated 2010 presidential elections in Côte d'Ivoire, for example, saw the country plunge into a political crisis after ousted President Laurent Gbagbo refused to accept defeat to opposition leader, Alassane Ouattara. While this was an opportunity for the AU to demonstrate its abilities and determination to resolve African matters, it did so only half-heartedly as it appointed former South African President, Thabo Mbeki as a mediator following his recent failure in resolving the 2008 political crisis in Zimbabwe.

Mbeki's unsurprising failure to help resolve Côte d'Ivoire's political crisis led to France intervening and facilitating the removal of Gbagbo following the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS)'s request to the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) to protect life and property by any means necessary (Lobakeng, 2017: 3). Such incidents have not only indicated the AU's weaknesses but have also continued to encourage Africa's dependency on Western countries which does not solve resolve political problems as these only intervene to serve their interests. While

⁹ A phrase coined by renowned political economist George Ayittey in 1994 following the US army's withdrawal from Somalia, which implies that Africans should take things into their own hands and make use of their resources to resolve the continent's issues (Fisher, 2018).

France's intervention in Côte d'Ivoire brought stability to the country, these efforts are threatening to be short-lived as Gbagbo makes strides to run for Presidency again through his newly formed political party in the upcoming 2025 elections (News24, 2021). Therefore, the AU needs to strengthen its efforts to develop sustainable solutions to its crisis management through the use of African scholars who are grounded in local realities as the continent's problems require knowledge of their root causes. The implementation of long-term strategies by African governments may begin to help resolve the complex problems which have continued to trouble the continent may eventually create a favourable environment that promotes investment towards sports tourism.

Furthermore, research can also be focused towards the development of a sports model that is suitable for the developing world. Looking at the state of African countries, the majority inherited the colonial government systems post-independence without much knowledge of their functionality and management. As this also included the adoption of the current sporting structures which were imported from colonial powers such as Britain and France, such structures have been detrimental to the survival of traditional physical activities present in many African countries. The increase in budget constraints after political independence due to lack of knowledge, unclear management strategies and misuse of public funds inevitably jeopardised these sporting models resulting in their underdevelopment. In this context, sports organizations in Africa are run without a strong economic rationale, which has made them susceptible to the overtures of talent-seeking agents and professional clubs from developed countries. Therefore, research can be utilised to serve a dual role of educating governments and agencies on understanding the management of sporting structures as well as the revival of traditional sports which could be critical towards a more suitable sports tourism model for African countries (Andreff, 2006: 313).

Chapter 5: Conclusion

Sports tourism has been tasked with the burden of alleviating poverty across many African countries due to the renewed interest by governments, particularly in its mega-events as they are seen agents that help towards fast-tracking economic and infrastructural development. As the mini-dissertation has demonstrated such mega-events are not a fix-all tool for Africa's problems. Alternative measures, such as investing in small-scale events with a longer-term focus, which come at a smaller cost given the financial constraints African governments face has thus been proposed as a preferable strategy. Given that Africa has constantly been coerced into conforming to European standards of development, through the discussion of alternative strategies in sports tourism, the research has also sought out to encourage the need for governments to start rethinking their own path and standards of development. Although it is relatively easy for one to be excited about the possibility of African countries hosting mega-events such as the FIFA World Cup, the Olympics or even the prestigious Formula One, the negative long-term after-effects associated with such events have been flagged. As the cost of constructing an F1 track has been indicated to cost anywhere between USD \$270 million – USD \$1 billion (see on page 45), the hosting fee itself costs ranges from USD 30 million – USD 40 million during depending on the location with all agreed contracts including a 5% increase in each year. As most contracts between the FIA and host city are usually signed on a 10-year period, this means that Marseille's hosting cost of USD \$ 44,8 million in year 1 for the French Grand Prix amounts to a total of USD \$483.84 million in fees after ten years. Such hidden costs that are usually associated with these events are what Africans need to be wary of (George, 2019; Sylt, 2017).

The ongoing COVID-19 pandemic which also broke out in December 2019 in Wuhan China, will also need to be monitored by African governments as the sporting industry continues to suffer immensely. 2020 saw the suspension of many sporting events such as the Japan 2020 Olympics, AFCON 2020, UEFA EURO 2020 and South America's football tournament Copa America. While these events were postponed to 2021 and 2022 for AFCON, the relatively high case numbers of COVID-19 around various parts of the world despite vaccination roll-out programmes, could see a decrease in the sports tourism industry's US\$800 billion value. Although the UEFA EURO did commence between the 11th of June-11th of July 2021 with fans in the stadiums, match attendance was still capped at 50% capacity to observe Covid regulations, thus affecting the revenue generated through ticket sales. According to theoretical economics professor, Katsuhiro Miyamoto, Japan's Olympic Committee and government's decision to host Japan 2020 Olympics on the 23rd of July – 8th of August 2021 under a state of emergency will result in Tokyo suffering an economic loss of up to ¥2.4 trillion/US\$ 23 billion (Gillen, 2021), further justifying the insistence in this mini-dissertation of the need to view mega-events with caution.

Governments in African countries can learn from these scenarios and consider sources of income that can support sports tourism during this pandemic (Ogura *et al.*, 2021). European football clubs such as Barcelona, Paris Saint-Germain (PSG), Juventus and Manchester City have recently started recovering from the 2019/20 season's financial losses by investing in cryptocurrencies. Together with many other clubs, the likes of PSG have partnered with the blockchain platform Socios.com to generate funds by issuing fan tokens. Also referred to as football club crypto coins, these tokens contain a tradeable value that grants the holders access to specific products such as football tickets, VIP experiences and voting rights in club projects. While fan tokens could be a great financial strategy for African sports teams during times of uncertainty, it is important to note their tradeable value largely depend on how the club fares in its performances. Therefore, a Mamelodi Sundowns' fan token will likely have a much higher tradeable value than an underperforming team such as Kaiser Chiefs or Orlando Pirates (Hyman & Couchman, 2018).

However, the current state of sports tourism across African countries has to be kept in mind before a financial strategy in sports like cryptocurrency can be considered. Given South Africa's sports tourism is in a much better state when compared to most developing countries, fan tokens are more likely easier to incorporate in the country due to already known trading platforms such as Plus500, Avatrade and capital.com (Trade Forex, n.d.). With countries like Zimbabwe which are more reluctant to cryptocurrencies due to the fear of losing control in their monetary systems, fan tokens in these countries will be much more difficult to incorporate until favourable public policies in these countries are introduced (Muronzi, 2021).

Overall, there are many opportunities African governments and other key stakeholders can utilise to link sports and tourism in a manner that can contribute to sustainable development. However, greater community and private sector involvement is needed to limit the strain on public funds as indicated in chapter 4 (Swart, 1998: 10). While corruption and lack of foresight from governments has been the reason for the general misuse of public funds, governments in the past have also been forced to choose more urgent priorities such as food, health and education. As a result, domestic and sports tourism have often been neglected, which has led them to being underdeveloped and insufficiently researched compared to European countries. On the few occasions African countries have had the opportunity to promote and support sports development, they have often exercised economic and political will to enhance their reputation with the organisations in charge of a mega-event. Governments and sports agencies need to stand firm and introduce policies that aim to curb the issues of rampant corruption, embezzlement and bribery for sports development to succeed in Africa. The practices which have become common such as 'sharing the national cake', 'little something' or the 'Big Man Small Boy syndrome' (see on page 31) should be considered as serious crimes and those found guilty must be

punished severely through heavy fines and prison sentences. Such practices have also become common due to the leniency of the court systems, which have often seen perpetrators go unpunished as they are just made to pay small fines. Amendments to the laws dealing with issues of corruption, embezzlement and bribery need to be made so that the law can be a real deterrent. Along with heavy fines, assets bought by perpetrators can be repossessed and resold through auctions or be used for the benefits of sports tourism development.

Lastly, the assessment of the extant sports tourism literature has established the need for more African-based research on the field. While it is relatively easy to access sports research carried out by scholars from the developing world, it is much more difficult to find research on African sports tourism by African scholars. Unfortunately, this limits the means of research for potential African scholars who are pursuing sports tourism as they have to rely more on internet sources and newspaper articles for their case study analysis due to the absence of journal articles and books. However, sports tourism has shown that it can be recognized as a viable proposal for Africa's infrastructure and economic development given that its governments, sports leaders, and other stakeholders invest in alternative strategies such as the discussed small-scale events whilst also investing in their own traditional sports. As African governments begin to address the challenges like travel constraints, safety and security issues or lack of infrastructure which impede sports tourism through the suggested solutions discussed in chapter 4, their approach to sports tourism needs to be based on long-term thinking rather the false promises of short-term gains. As the innovative technology invented by Qatar to reduce stadium construction costs by 20% can easily tempt African countries to pursue sport term projects and mega-events, it is important to not forget the hidden costs associated with preparing for such events and their impact on the host nation post the glamorous event.

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