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**GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS AND
GOVERNMENT LEADERSHIP**

***TOPIC: The Role of Sport Tourism in the Economic Activity
of Mafikeng***

RESEARCH REPORT

By

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that “THE ROLE OF SPORT TOURISM IN THE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY OF MAFIKENG” is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted were indicated with complete references and acknowledgements.

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my late father Mr. Tawana Robert “Toney” Marumo.
Papa I wish you were here to see the fruits of what you have ploughed in your son.

Abstract

This study assesses the role of sport tourism in the economic activity of Mafikeng. More especially the analysis focuses on the socio-economic impact/benefit of sport tourism for a city like Mafikeng. The primary objective of the study was to assess and identify the differences sport tourism could make as a developmental factor in the socio-economic impact of Mafikeng. The study also focused on the following specific objectives: To examine the importance of sport and tourism in Mafikeng; To investigate whether sport and tourism can help Mafikeng become viable socially and economically; To find out what facilities are needed in Mafikeng to attract a high influx of sport tourists; The study sought to answer the following research questions: Does sport tourism have an impact on the role of the socio-economic activity of Mafikeng? Will sport tourism help alleviate the economic problem in Mafikeng? Can the sport tourism facilities available in Mafikeng help host a mega-event or small event? Are the current sport tourism facilities being used effectively? The data collected was subjected to quantitative analysis. A questionnaire was developed and used as a data collection instrument. Two hundred questionnaires were distributed and hundred and fifty one questionnaires were completed and returned. Simple random sampling technique was employed for data collection. The number of 108 returned questionnaires was deemed sufficient sample size of presentation. The study revealed that there was a positive correlation between environmental concerns and other variables like age and citizenship, indicating that environmental concerns were true. Results revealed a positive correlation between infrastructure concerns and other variables like citizenship and length of service indicating that infrastructure concerns were true. Other results revealed a correlation between sport tourism facilities concerns and the age of respondents. Other facility concerns included the correlation between maintenance and qualifications. There was a correlation between the lack of marketing and location of respondents.

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Chapter One

Background to the Study

1.1 Overview of the Study

A number of initiatives have been put in place by the South African government aimed at the diversification of the national and local economies away from the historic dependence on mining and agriculture, such as the Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS) and Local Economic Development strategies. Apart from diversification, these policies have also been aimed at creating jobs and poverty alleviation. This has resulted in the promotion of new economic growth activities, predominantly in the service sector such as tourism (Binns and Nel, 2002).

The purpose of this study is to explore the role of Sports Tourism in the economic activity of the Mafikeng of the administrative capital of the North West province of South Africa. Mafikeng forms Central Region, which is a part of four regions, which are located in North West Province of South Africa. The province has an international border with Botswana, and neighbours four other provinces, namely; Gauteng, Limpopo, Northern Cape and the Free State provinces. The North West province is mainly rural, with a population of 3271952 and is mainly reliant on government and agriculture sector for employment (Statistics South Africa, 2010).

The literature used in this chapter has been derived from the South African Government policies, academic journals and periodicals, contemporary literature and debates on the impact of tourism, with specific reference to Sports Tourism, on the economic and social activities of a country or region.

This chapter includes a brief background of the study, and highlights the problem statement of the research. This is followed by a section that looks at the research objectives. The objectives have been split into primary and specific objectives. The rationale of the study has been discussed followed by the research design, which gives the research methods used, sample design and analysis methods and the data collection instruments. A scope of study that stipulates the area, which the research is confined, has been given in the chapter. Finally, the plan of the study has been made, which briefly describes what is contained in the subsequent chapters of the study.

1.2 Background of the Study

Sport plays an important role in the economic and social growth of a nation. According to Keller (1999) sporting events open up new opportunities for national economies, and are an additional source of employment and revenue. Tourism on the other hand contributes directly to tourism related industries such as accommodation, transport, as well as cultural and recreational services. Tourism contributes indirectly to the services, retail trade, construction and manufacturing sectors (North West Province Tourism Sector Monitor, 2005:5). According to the Research and Planning Unit of the North West Parks and Tourism Board, the North West provincial trend of international visitor arrivals, over the period 2003 to 2005, annual average was 665, 194 visitors.

Leisure based travel takes individuals temporarily outside of their home communities to participate in activities or ventures and attractions associated with physical activities (Gibson, 1998:49). Furthermore, Gammon and Robinson (1997: 20) observe, persons travelling to or staying in places outside their usual environment participate actively or passively in a competitive or recreational sport as a secondary activity.

Authors like Hall (2000:10) have explored the issue of government involvement in tourism development. The author is of the opinion that many sectors in the economy such as transport, accommodation, telecommunication, ecotourism, community development, cultural celebration and the image of the province are enhanced by sports tourism. The compelling reason for pursuing tourism as a development strategy is its positive contribution to the local or national economy (Opperman & Chon, 1997: 109). The staging of mega sporting events tend to enhance tourism as many people flocking into the country to support their respective teams or countries experience the aesthetics of the hosting country. Tourism and sport are key elements in today's culture and exert a specific influence on the behaviour of present-day society. The benefits attained by these two activities have generated effects that make significant contribution to economic and social development in many countries.

1.3 Problem Statement

Despite the South African government's initiatives to diversify the national and local economies by allowing new economic activities such as Sport Tourism, and other economic sectors besides mining and agriculture, and its intention to create more jobs

aimed at poverty alleviation, this still remains a challenge. The need to participate in Sports Tourism either actively or passively has become apparent in today's rapidly changing modern society. Many economic and social challenges can be addressed by sporting activities like Sport Tourism. Harrison (2003:295) indicates that tourism can help in reviving the economy and change its quality. This is not the case with Mafikeng. Mafikeng continues to suffer social and economic setbacks because of the inability to assess the effective contribution that can be generated from varied economic activities such as Sport Tourism. Problems faced by Mafikeng, which preclude its effective participation in Sports Tourism, include the following;

- Lack of adequate sporting facilities, such as equipped gymnasium, Olympic standard swimming pools and FIFA standard football pitches,
- Lack of accommodation for sport tourists,
- Inadequate parking for sport tourist, such as visitors coming for soccer where the local stadium does not have sufficient parking that can accommodate more than 8 00 vehicles,
- Lack of qualified sport tour guides, who escort sport tourists around Mafikeng,
- Shortage of qualified sport instructors, coaches and supervisors who can manage sport activities offered in Mafikeng such as gym instructors, aerobics instructors, soccer coaches and swimming instructors

1.4 Research Objectives

1.4.1 Primary Objective

The primary objective of this research is to assess and identify the difference Sport Tourism can make as a developmental factor in the economic impact of Mafikeng. Recognition of the community development potential of Sport Tourism has resulted in the increased interest in demonstrating the economic impact of sports events, which involve measuring the net effect of a non-resident spending beyond what should be expected in the region if the event was not held (Daniels, 2004: 181-182).

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

- To examine the importance of sport and tourism in Mafikeng.
- To investigate whether sport and tourism can help Mafikeng become viable socially and economically.

- To find out what facilities are needed in Mafikeng to attract a high influx of sport tourists.

1.5 Rationale of the Study

The government of South Africa has embarked on an initiative to diversify the local and nation economies through the increased participation of other sectors in the economy, especially the service sector. Sports Tourism can provide an excellent option for diversification in areas like Mafikeng the area being considered in this research. The inability by the Government to assess the way in which Sport Tourism and its impact on Mafikeng's economic development, has prompted the researcher to conduct this study. It is the researcher's view that promotion of Sport Tourism in Mafikeng will contribute to the region's economic growth.

1.6 Key Words

Mafikeng, sport, tourism, sport tourism, hallmark events, mega-events, small events, socio-culture, and socio-economic challenges.

1.7 Research Design

1.7.1 Research Method

The research method will be restricted to the descriptive-quantitative approach. Numerical data is mainly analysed using quantitative method. A coding system is used in a quantitative research methodology, which is derived from measurement of different scales and numbers allowing diverse variables to be evaluated. Deductive logic is followed in quantitative methodology (Bless, Higson and Kagee 2006).

1.7.2 Sample Design and Analysis

Sampling was opted to make the research manageable by the researcher. Sampling refers to "the process of selecting things or objects which involve some form of selection of elements from target population (Mouton, 1996: 12).

1.7.3 Data Collection Instruments

Questionnaires and interviews are used to gather data in this research. Interviews in English and Setswana (a local South African language common in the North West province), are used to conduct interviews. Questionnaires are distributed direct to the

intended subjects who respond to research questions in writing. To qualify for the intended purpose, a questionnaire should be appropriately designed in a manner that will allow data to be collected and analysed. A questionnaire can be used to gather information of fact or information of concept (Denscombe, 2003). Questionnaires for the purpose of this research would be disseminated to local government, North West University (Mafeking Campus), and municipality offices. At least 100 questionnaires were distributed.

1.8 Scope of the Study

The scope of the study will be limited to Mafikeng the administrative capital of the North West province. The Mafikeng forms part of the Central Region, which is divided in four regions, located in North West province of South Africa.

1.9 Plan of the Study

The thesis is arranged in five chapters. Chapter one gives the overview and background of the study. The chapter outlines the problems statement, why the study was undertaken and gives the objectives of the study. The research design and scope of the study have been shown in the chapter.

Chapter two presents a review of the literature that highlights contemporary debates on the economic, social and the environmental impact of Sports Tourism. The chapter focuses on the positive factors that can be attained by the growth of Mafikeng's economy in relation to Sports Tourism.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of the study and how it will be conducted. It presents the research design, the methodology outlining methods of analysis and procedures utilised in the study.

Chapter 4 presents the analysis and discussion of the findings of the study. It focuses on the experience that the participants have about the effect of Sport Tourism and its impact on social and economic development.

Chapter 5 will present the discussion of the finding and gives a conclusion. This is followed by the conclusion of the findings and recommendations that will assist the authority in Mafikeng with the assessment of Sports Tourism as an activity that can be used for sustainable economic growth.

1.10 Conclusion

The South African government has embarked on the diversification of nation and local economies from the historic dependence on mining and agriculture. The initiative aims to exploit other economic activities such as Sport Tourism. It is anticipated that this will bear economic and social benefits, which include creating jobs and poverty eradication. This study specifically focuses on the role of Sport Tourism on the economic activity of Mafikeng, the administrative capital of the North West province.

Despite government's effort, a number of economic and social challenges continue to be faced especially in areas like Mafikeng. This emanates from the region's inability to assess the economic and social contribution that can be derived from other economic activities such as Sport Tourism.

The inability to exploit other economic activities in Mafikeng bears a cost reflected in the constrained economic and social condition of the area. This study will added to the existing body of literature on Sport Tourism. It is also anticipated that the findings and recommendations of this study will assist the provincial authorities by highlighting the economic and social benefits that can be derived from other activities such as Sport Tourism.

In the chapter that follows, chapter two, other literature on Sport Tourism is benchmarked. This constitutes the literature review of this research, where literature presented in articles and periodicals by other authors' will be reviewed. Other literature that will be reviewed will include related government literature on the topic.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Sport has always been an integral part of the culture of South Africa. It has increasingly taken a significant position in the economy of the country (Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005). Tourism and sport industries in South Africa have not reached their probable contribution to the economic development. This can be attributed to the hitherto regime's apartheid policy (Swart, 2005). Sport tourism is a comparatively new concept although its scope of activity is far from recent (Tassiopoulou & Haydam, 2008). Sporting events have been one of the fastest-growing segments of the tourism industry with cities and countries enthusiastically competing to host such tournaments (Booth, 1999; Brown, 2000; Kidd, 1994 as *cited* in Gelan, 2003).

There is a lack of adequate sport tourism and supplementary facilities like accommodation in Mafikeng. This is due to lack of knowledgeable, skilled and qualified administrators of sport tourism. This has impacted badly on the community and the development of sport tourism activities. The majority of the facilities do not have sufficient amenities such as stadia, swimming pools, parking and recreation amenities to adequately support sport tourism activities.

The key word used to search for literature included; Mafikeng, sport, tourism, sport tourism, hallmark events, mega-events, small events, socio-culture, and socio-economic challenges. The main search engines used were Google Scholar, Emerald, and Business Source Complete.

The literature review has ten sections. The first section looks at the definition of concepts and key words. This is followed by a section that discusses tourism and sport as separate entities. A section, dealing with the relationship between sport and tourism, follows this. Sport tourism classifications and focus discussion follows, introducing the next section, which looks at the impact of sport tourism on economic development. Social and economic challenges faced by communities and the creation of sustainable sport tourism have been discussed under respective sections. A section on literature pertaining to Government policies and strategies on sport tourism leads to the final section, which discusses the future and development of sport tourism. The chapter closes with a section

listing the research questions and a conclusion that gives a summary of the whole chapter and the researcher's brief conclusion of the literature studied.

2.2 Definition of Concepts and Key Words

Tourism: the act of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for the purpose of recreation, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited (Annual Tourism Sector Monitor, 2008). A range of people, businesses and organisations working together to create the travel experience (Keyser, 2002).

Sport: an engagement in physical or psychomotor skills, competitive frame work, codification of rules that bound movements and activities within clear and stringent parameters, enacted within a predetermined time frame, tradition and or history of past practice (Merchant, Griffin & Charnock, 2007).

Sport tourism: travel generated by a sporting event or activity (Sinclair, 2005).

Hallmark event: refers to major fairs, expositions, cultural, and sporting events of international status that are held on either a regular or one time basis (Hall, 1998:236).

Small scale-sport: refer to events as regular season sporting competitions (ice hockey, basketball, soccer, rugby leagues), international sporting fixtures, domestic competitions, Masters or disabled sports, and the like (Higham, 1999:87).

Active sport tourists: individuals who travel to actively participate in sport (Active sport tourism) (Gibson, 1998; Hall, 1992; Standeven & De Knop, 1999).

Passive sport tourists: individuals who travel to watch a sport event (Event sport tourism) (Hall, 1992; Standeven & De Knop, 1999).

Socio-culture: is the way people act and develop based around their surroundings (What is social., 2010).

Socio-economic challenges: are problems accruing not only in the sector of social aspects, which affect population and the society, but also the countries' economy (Economic and social., 2010).

2.3 Tourism and Sport

This section discusses literature pertaining to tourism and sport independently. This will give the reader an indication of the significance, which each activity can have on a hosting locality such as Mafikeng. Tourism and sport largely been developed independently in terms of structure and recognition (Swart & Bob, 2007). Although this may not be ideal, status quo begs reasoning. The section therefore first highlights literature concerning tourism and concludes with sport.

There has been a deliberate desire by the South African Government to attract large volumes of tourists to destinations. This has led to the increased use of innovation (Murphy, 1997; Essex & Chalkey 1998 as *cited* in Hall, 1998). The repackaging of tourism into models like spot tourism has been a result of this. The development of this model has been important both at international and local levels development both at national and local levels have not been insignificant (Pillay & Bass, 2008).

2.3.1 Tourism

Tourism plays an important role in the economy of South Africa in general, and the North West province in particular (Annual Tourism Sector Monitor, 2008). Internationally, tourism is a sector that has performed well and has continued to be an important component that has shaped the economy of the world (Williams, 1998 as *cited* in Binns & Nel, 2002). Several countries now see tourism as a catalyst to development (Williams 1998; Dann, 2002: 236, *all cited* in Binns & Nel, 2002). Tourism is an alternative for the diversification of many economies. Tourists that visit destinations and compelled to buy other goods and services, which is different from other export earning opportunities (Kaplan, 2004). Tourism has progressed in the growth of wealth, employment and jobs for countries (Neto, 2003). Binns and Nel (2002) observe how inexpensive tourism can be as a strategy for the generation of foreign exchange, just by showing off local culture and the environment (Binns & Nel, 2002).

Despite this alluring side of tourism it has its advantages. These include its impact on the environmental and socio-culture. Despite this, the industry has recorded one of the fastest and largest growth worldwide (Neto, 2003). The negative attributes of the industry have much been out-weighed by its economic benefits where some scholars have equated the visit of a foreign tourist entering a country, to an income equal to that of 20 barrels of oil

created. The World Business Association asserts that every tourist injects at least 1000 dollars into economic and employment cycle (Esfahani *et al.*, 2009).

The amount of earnings expected from tourism has made it a competitive industry. The level of service and professionalism, as well as the level of innovation offered, are key variables that determine a country's success in attracting and growing its share of the tourism market (Kaplan, 2004). South Africa has managed to stay above this and ranked as one of the most preferred destinations in Africa (Rogerson & Visser, 2005). The sector has experienced growth domestically and internationally (Ritchie & Adair, 2004).

The industry has evolved a number of niche markets aimed at re-establishing itself. These, for instance, have included themes stimulating night markets disguised as shopping tourism (Hsieh & Chang, 2005 as *cited* in Rogerson & Visser, 2005). Other reinventions of the industry have taken the form of convention or business tourism in major cities (Lew & Chang, 1999; Go & Govers, 1999; Hailin *et al.*, 2000 *all cited* in Rogerson & Visser, 2005). This has its own disadvantages especially concerning the environmental attributed to mass urban tourism (Jim, 2000 as *cited* in Rogerson & Visser, 2005).

Tourism had largely been a missed opportunity for South Africa in the past, but could provide an, instrument of growth, capable of and reviving other sectors of the economy (DEAT, 1996 as *cited* in Spenceley & Seif, 2003). Emphasis of the growing significance of tourism as a vehicle for local economic development in urban South Africa by the findings of a national survey of municipalities, disclosed that tourism was currently one of the most popular Local Economic Development (LED) strategies (Binns & Nel, 2002). Slightly examined are policies of integrating tourism in LED planning in South African cities despite its growth (Rogerson & Visser, 2005).

This section has given a brief background of the importance of tourism and its development into niche markets. Highlighted in the section, are some of its existing disadvantages including the competitive nature of the industry.

2.3.2 Sport

This section looks at sport and how it is socially and economically perceived. Sport has the influence to eliminate social calibre, create social unity and peace. Sport potential of as a tool for development and peace is being harnessed by an expanding range of organisations at local, national and international levels, engaging in developing public-private

partnerships. It is common to use sport as means of development and social development through sport as a new social movement'. This is being used by organisations and institutions such as international corporation dedicated to corporate social responsibility, international aid organisation pursuing the Millennium Development Goals or a non-governmental organisation (NGO) seeking to meet the needs of disadvantaged communities in the Global South (Spaaij, 2009).

Comparable to tourism, the recreation and leisure market is one of the largest and fastest growing sectors of the global economy. The size of the industry serves sporting activities listed under serious leisure fields such as golf, tennis, fishing, and downhill skiing (Lamont and Dowell, 2008). Sport sectors have commercialised and carefully reformed over the past 30 years. The restructuring of the sector has taken the objective of profit generation (Cornelissen, 2007). Nauright (2004) observed the evolution of sport and its increasing role within the globalisation process and in the regeneration of national, regional and local identities in the postcolonial and global age (Nauright, 2004).

Sport has been used as an economic strategy and it has been observed for instance in the British context that most of the cities following this strategy of using sport for economic regeneration have been industrial cities, not normally known as major tourist destinations (Gratton *et al.*, 2005; Jones, 2001). Cities in the UK have intensified the ability of sports events and infrastructure to development urban economic and physical growth. This trend has been the same with cities in North America (Jones, 2001).

The importance of the proper classification of sporting activities has arisen in many literatures. There has been a growing scepticism over the extent to which hosting mega-events potentially results in economic growth. This includes scepticism on the significant developmental impacts as compared to smaller events (Humphreys & Prokopowicz, 2007; Whitson & Horne, 2006; Owen, 2005; Higham, 1999 all *cited* in Pillay & Bass, 2008).

Sports and sporting events have become integral components of a global political economy (Nauright, 2004). The use of sport as an economic and social remedy of issues, targeted by politics, such as poverty alleviation and job creation require the careful development of skills and infrastructure in order to attain competitiveness internationally (Kaplan, 2004).

The use of sport in tourism can generate a competitive advantage for tourism (Sinclair, 2005). This introduces the use of the two activities as an entity termed 'spot tourism'. The linkages between sport and tourism have increased over time, mutual benefits to both fields

have become evident as the concept, and practice of sport tourism has developed. Sport is a tourism generator (Lamont & Dowell, 2008). The following section therefore dedicates on literature that shows the relationship of the two activities.

2.4 Relationship between Sport and Tourism

Ritchie and Adair (2002) found a growing recognition of sport tourism as both a popular leisure experience and important economic activity (as *cited* in Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005). Worldwide, events have been recognised as a strong component of sport tourism that draw people from different places (Getz, 2008), and is becoming an integral and major part of tourism development and marketing strategies (Tassiopoulos, 2005 as *cited* in Ntloko & Swart, 2008). Marketing of sport events brings social, physical and economic benefits to the host community or nation. The anticipation of tourists and increased expenditure in the destination area is a common feature of any special event (Walo, Bull & Breen, 1996). Behind most cities the regeneration rationale for the purpose of sport link to economic benefits of tourism (Hall, 1998). Recently, sports and tourism have used as forces to revive economy (Esfahani *et al.*, 2009). Sport and tourism have become significant economic activities both in the developed and developing world. In 2001, the World Tourism Organisation estimated that sport's average contribution to gross domestic product (GDP) was 1-2 per cent, while tourism's contribution was 4-6 per cent (Ritchie & Adair, 2004 as *cited* in Swart & Bob, 2007).

Weiler and Hall (1992) noted special interest tourism of various types that had become popular (Weiler & Hall, 1992). One form of special interest tourism is travel related to sport termed sport tourism. There has been some classification of tourists involved in sport tourism. Most scholars classify individuals who actively travel to participate in a sport as active sport tourists and those who travel to watch a sports event as Event Sport Tourists (Gibson, 1998; Hall, 1992; Standeven & De Knop, 1999 *all cited* in Gibson, Willming & Holdnak, 2003).

A link between tourism and sport further illustrated by the World Tourism Organization (WTO) and the International Olympic Committee (IOC) emphasised the importance of sports tourism as a target market. In 2004, they announced their commitment to reinforce their partnerships on collaboration in the sports and tourism domain. They stated that tourism and sport are interrelated and complementary and that both are powerful forces for

development, stimulating investment in infrastructure projects such as airports, roads, stadiums, sporting complexes and restaurant-projects that can be enjoyed by the local population as well as tourists who come to use them (WTO, 2004, as *cited* in Tassiopoulou & Haydam, 2008). Both sport and tourism have economic benefit where WTO noted the contribution of sport contributes just under 2 per cent to the gross domestic product of industrialised nations (WTO, 2001) while tourism contributes between 4 and 6 per cent (WTO, 2001).

Sport represents an attraction category within the broader tourism industry. Other attractions in tourism that are similar to sport include culture, environmental and social (Swart, 2005). Special sport events are powerful tools to target desired segments of tourism markets as well as spreading industry geographically and seasonality (Gelan, 2003). This was also affirmed by Cornelissen (2007), by noting the connection of tourism to infrastructural preparations toward sport event based around provide the opportunity to invest in the infrastructures connected with them as well as other equipment and attractions (Cornelissen, 2007). Such infrastructure and equipment provide opportunities for long-term profits such as tourist attractions. When cities host sport and cultural events, fairs and festivals, they can improve their equipment to attract tourists (Esfahani *et al.*, 2009).

In October 1997, South Africa launched South Africa Sports Tourism (SAST), an international theme to attract foreign visitors. Under SAST, sport tourism had a strategic role to play in achieving the aims of the reconstruction and development program, aimed at uplifting South African society economically (Swart, 2005). Despite the failure of SAST, the tourism sector experienced growth both domestically and internationally. Four per cent of the domestic tourism market in South Africa comprised of sport tourism (Ritchie & Adair, 2004).

Communities are attracted to hosting sport events to draw marketing benefits that will contribute to the success of the destination in the end by creating awareness, improving their image with visitors and attracting tourism business to generate future inbound travel (Kyriaki, 2007). Besides watching sport people tend to take full tourism packages. This generates benefits to the sport participants and tourists at the same time generating economic and community development (Swart & Bob, 2007). Tourism has its own negative aspects (Crandall, 1994; Shaw & Williams, 1994 as *cited* in Weed & Bull 2004); these are also characteristic to sport tourism (Weed & Bull 2004).

According to Shaw and Williams (1994 as *cited* in Weed & Bull 2004), there are negative effects of the socio-cultural impacts of sport tourism. They are:

- Stereotyping of the host and guest,
- Xenophobia, where the host tends to hate the tourists even before they arrive at a particular destination,
- Social pollution resulting from the number of people who go to a destination during a major event the residents leave the city,
- Commodification and exploitation of culture and traditional ways of life, where culture tends to be common and not special,
- Threat to traditional family life in host communities as a result of the introduction of new ideas and new ways of doing by tourists. They could also contribute to high levels of violence. This confuses the host and he has to find a compromise between tradition and the new way of doing and,
- Prostitution where sex tourism develops and expands where there are many people together, especially at a major event like the Olympics games and FIFA World Cup. The sex industry is also associated with child sex, pornography, gangsterism and drugs thus creating conflicts in the host community (Shaw and Williams, 1994 as *cited* in Weed & Bull, 2004).

The lure of large and spectacular sport events is an expedient way to attract media interest in a host city, which translates into an influx of capital through tourism and new investment (Nauright, 2004). Sport event generates diverse and heterogeneous flows of travellers that may include fans, athletes, coaches, media, team personnel, parents and family members (Gratton, Shibli & Coleman, 2004 as *cited* in Yusof, Omar-Fauzee, Shah & Geok, 2009).

There can be no generalisation of any perceived results of the use of sport tourism. Tourism benefits are provisional in the developing world situation. Korea did not receive the expected boost in tourism post, during the Olympics or post World Cup (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006; Whitson, 2004). In 2002, the year of the World Cup, South Korea received approximately the same number of visitors as they had in 2001; Japan named an increase of 30,000 visitors (Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006). Sport on the other hand can be a

competitive advantage of tourism. Hosting sport events has been a focus of destination marketers as a strategy to enhance its destination image and differentiate its tourism products (Kyriaki, 2007).

The section gave a link between tourism and sport, which mainly have economic and social connotations with the aim of progressing tourism. Therefore, sport is a niche in the tourism industry geared to provide some competitive advantage. This has brought to the fore sport tourism, as commonly known. The next section discusses the actual impact of sport tourism.

2.5 Sport Tourism Classifications and Focus

As the tourism industry has been formed by its past so too has sport and recreation (Swart, 2005). This has resulted in various classifications of tourism, for instance the conceptual distinction given by Judd and Fainstein (1999). Three categories of tourist city were *cited* namely; the resort city, which included the casino resort, spas and seaside towns; the 'tourist-historic city'; and, the converted city. This referred to zones where traditional manufacturing or capital cities changed function to incorporate tourism. Other writers sought to widen this classification for example, to include tourism world cities (Tyler, 2000 as *cited* in Rogerson & Visser, 2005). Similarly, with sport tourism having taken the place of being one of the fastest growing segments of the tourism industry (Delpy, 1996 as *cited* in Daniels, 2007) has earned classifications. Activities under sport tourism can classify into five exclusive areas namely; resorts, attraction, cruises, tours and events (Zauhar, 1997 as *cited* in Swart, 2005).

Classification of Sport tourism has followed overlying reasons for engaging in the activity. This has taken two forms of sports-related tourism: firstly, the classification by destinations seeking to develop their tourism profiles, and secondly, where tourism has emerged spontaneously because of sports activity (Weed & Bull, 2004).

An interesting classification has taken the form of size of the sporting occasion. This introduces the terms hallmark and mega sporting events. As described by Nauright (2004) major sporting competitions and tournaments are regarded as 'events' to be 'marketed' and 'managed', and terms such as 'hallmark' and 'mega' suggest that size really does matter (Nauright, 2004). There is a distinction between large or hallmark events which induce an accelerator effect on capital investment and stimulate possible opportunity costs, and

smaller local events which generate a marginal level of tourist activity which can be met from existing resources (Walo *et al.*, 1996 as *cited* in Smith, 2005).

The choice of type or classification of spot tourism will vest in individual host nation or cities preferences and desired outcome. UK cities have concentrated more on the beneficial effects of media coverage, international visitation, and investment associated with globally renowned hallmark events, than on servicing locally based season-oriented team sports (Gratton & Dobson, 1999; Roche, 1994 as *cited* in Jones, 2001).

Others literature classifies sport tourism using actual visitors to sport event for example the classification given by Yusof *et al.* (2009) using three categories, namely; sport excursionist, active sport tourist and passive sport tourists.

Sport tourism overall has focused as an emerging tourism niche market recognised as having the capacity to draw visitors to a city or region. Sport tourism has assimilated as a strategic element of economic development plans at regional and national levels (Lamont & Dowell, 2008). The sport tourism as a niche market has received growing attention. Sport tourism and sport tourism events reflected South Africa's sport tourism contribution to the country's economy to be in the range of 4% (Ritchie, 2004). Estimations given by the South African Tourism (SAT, 2006) show the country's tourism contribution to 122.49 billion to the GDP (Ntloko & Swart, 2008). In South Africa, the traditional sport tourism markets are rugby and cricket. The hosting of the FIFA World Cup has potential to add football as one of the sport tourism markets for South Africa (Swart & Bob, 2007).

The section has explained some of the different classifications given to sport tourism. Of importance has been the distinction of hallmark or mega even to small spot events. The section also identifies sport tourism, as a tourism niche market. This will serve as a preamble to the section that looks at the impact of sport tourism on economic development.

2.6 Impact of Sport Tourism on Economic Development

Sport tourism has received attention as an economic development strategy (Crompton, 1999; Daniels, Norman & Henry, 2004; Delpy, 1998; Gelan, 2003; Higham & Hinch, 2002; Lee & Taylor, 2005 *all cited* in Daniels, 2007). Ritchie and Adair (2002) acknowledge sport tourism as a popular leisure experience and important economic activity (Ritchie & Adair, 2002 as *cited* in Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005). Recognition of community development potential of sport tourism has resulted in the heightened

interest in demonstrating the economic impact of sport event, which involves measuring the net effect of a non-resident spending beyond what should be expected in the community if the event was not held (Daniels, 2007). Ten percent of South African visitors come to watch or participate in a sport event, generating R 250 million in spending every year (South Africa, 2001). Of that component of foreign visitors, spectators account for 60 per cent to 80 per cent of these arrivals (SAT, 2004 as *cited* in Swart & Bob, 2007). Sports tourism is a lucrative business that has been valued as high as \$ 51 billion or around 10 per cent of the total global tourism market valued because sport tourists spend, more than ordinary tourists do and are often from the privileged 'AB' demographic (L'Etang, Falkheimer & Lugo, 2006).

In the United States for instance, event sport tourism generates an estimated \$27 billion a year (Travel Industry Association of America, 2001) where more than 75 million American adults (two-fifths of the population) reported attending a sports event either as a spectator or as a participant (TIA, 1999). The Los Angeles Sports and Entertainment Commission (2003 as *cited* in Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005) claimed that the average economic impact on a city hosting a major sporting event was US\$ 32.2 million. The Canadian Sport Tourism Alliance (2003 as *cited* in Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005) estimated that in excess of US\$ 2 billion per annum was generated by the sport tourism industry in Canada (Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005). Around the world, thousands of people travel significant distances to watch their favourite sports on a regular basis (Gibson *et al.*, 2003), which resounds the economic benefits noted in USA and Canada above. According to an economic impact study conducted by Swiss Business Hub South Africa (2007), the FIFA 2010 World Cup will have the following impact on the economy:

- R 2.72 million tickets will be sold, generating the revenue to the tune of R 4.6 billion.
- Capital expenditure on upgrading the stadiums and other infrastructure will amount to R 2.3 billion.
- The event will lead to direct expenditure of R 12.7 billion, while contributing R 21.3 billion to the country's gross domestic product (GDP).
- Some 159 000 new employment opportunities will be created and some R 7.2 billion will be paid to government in taxes (Swiss Business Hub South Africa, 2007).

Holder (2003) further suggests the economic significance of sport tourism resulting from economic benefits of the movements of people that involve transportation, construction, and renovation of facilities, creation of employment, cultural exchanges, specific services and a range of commercial activity involving sports cruises, tours, attractions, and use of resorts. (Holder, 2003 as *cited* in Sinclair, 2005). This entails a major catalyst for development and job creation, and a growing generator of foreign exchange (Swart, 2005). The employment factor is challenged by Crompton (1999:57) as *cited* in Gelan (2003), maintaining that the employment multiplier is often misleadingly interpreted because the implicit assumption is that local businesses were fully engaged with no spare capacity. Businesses may not hire additional full-time employees in response to a temporary additional demand. Existing employees are likely to be requested to work overtime to accommodate the peak demand or only a few additional short term ones may be hired. Even then, it is possible for the new job to be taken up by a nonlocal (Gelan, 2003).

According to Keller (1999), events open up new opportunities for community economies and are additional source of employment and revenues. With the staging of a mega event by the country, tourism in the country is enhanced, as more people will be flocking into the country and communities around will benefit by hosting sport tourists and they will be experiencing the aesthetics of the community together with that of the country. Many sectors in the economy such as transport, accommodation, telecommunication, ecotourism, community development, culture celebration and image of the community are enhanced by sport tourism. Sport and tourism are key elements of today's culture and exerts a very specific influence on the behaviour of present day society. The dimension acquired by these activities has generated effects that are already making decisive contribution to economic and social development in a large number of communities (Keller, 1999).

Tourism and advertising revenues generated by mega-sport events have become a major boost to the economies of hosting nations. The contribution to real GDP is estimated to be in excess of R10 billion, with thousands of jobs being created by the construction of new venues and upgrading of existing infrastructure (Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005). The reckoning of gains generated by sport tourism includes urban redevelopment, resulting from stadium construction. This creates benefits which 'trickle down' from property developers, sports teams, and stadium operators to the wider community largely in the form of employment growth (Jones, 2001). Other economic benefits associated with sport tourism include construction or renovation of facilities, employment generation, cultural

exchanges, regional awareness and commercial activity, be it tours, attractions, resorts or events. Sport tourism also provides opportunities for all levels of society to work together toward a common goal, particularly organisers, promoters, volunteers and entrepreneurs (Lamont & Dowell, 2008). Tourism can be more labour intensive than such industries as manufacturing. In comparison to other modern sectors, a higher proportion of tourism benefits for example jobs, informal trade opportunities go to women (Ashley *et al.*, 2001). Spenceley and Seif (2003), apart from gains in infrastructure and investments, the hosting city obtain extra economic benefit from television coverage during the duration of the competition itself (Swart, 2005).

Cities staging major sports events have a unique opportunity to market themselves to the world (Gratton *et al.*, 2005). Harnessing such economic swings can have significant potential for areas that are seeking to regenerate their local economies because of economic change or marginalisation (Binns & Nel, 2002). Events have entertainment value that provides economic benefits specifically for local businesses. They promote community pride and act as regional hoists (Ntloko & Swart, 2008). Sport event promoters emphasize the potential of such events to entice tourists and their concomitant spending. This brings in “new money” that stimulates local economic activity through connections of tourism with other sectors of the economy. This was resonated by Goeldner and Ritchie (2000) as *cited* in Gelan, (2003) by summing the potential benefits going beyond tangible economic outcomes and include “psychic income” with even a small community celebrating its uniqueness, promoting itself, developing local pride, and enhancing its economic wellbeing (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2000 as *cited* in Gelan, 2003).

L’Etang *et al.* (2006), complement tourism has a massive social, political and environmental impact on global, national and local locations, which in turn advances matters of community relations and social responsibility. While this may be so, some scholars argue certain tourism activities such as mega-events are for political mileage. While Kim and Chalip (2004) adapt the notion expressing that such events enhancing local economies that add to the brand element of sport to their destination marketing profile (Kim & Chalip, 2004). Yuan (2001) as *cited* in Daniels (2007) explain how communities authorities will go all the way to host sport events for entertainment purposes, to enhance community pride, under the pretext of stimulating spending. The latter considered the primary motive because economic impacts validate events and determine their protraction (Daniels, 2007).

Sport mega-events have potential role in promoting economic and developmental agendas (Swart & Bob, 2007). This was supported by Higham (1999) who attested that hosting amateur events that are “regular” as opposed to mega events, in nature would not be a reason for disquiet or significant reflection. Regular sport events include those that have negligible bidding expenses, little to no infrastructure development costs, a minimal burden on public funds, and a limited impact on local residents (Higham 1999). Higham (1999) as *cited* in Daniels (2007) however introduces a rather controversial element to the economic concept when he argues that these small-scale operations are not necessarily beneficial to the host community. Some form of clarification is given to what may constitute economic generating events by Daniels and Norman (2003) who established that event type, the average participant age, and the presence of complementary activities influenced the overall economic impacts of amateur sport events (Daniels & Norman, 2003). The composition of the community’s resources available would enhancement the success and ultimately economic value of an event. Certain destinations are better suited to tourism initiatives than other destinations (Freshwater, 2000 as *cited* in Daniels, 2007).

Hallmark events have become significant for cities and their future development. Hallmark tourism encompasses a range of sporting events, fairs, festivals and expositions, and plays a characteristic role in shaping contemporary urban tourism (Shaw & Williams, 2002). Hallmark events fix a host city as an international tourist destination and facilitate touristic activity in the years after the event. Some literature characterise the positive impact of hallmark events (Gratton *et al.*, 2000; Ritchie & Smith, 1991), scholars have recognised the disadvantages associated with these events (Orams & Brons, 1999). Roche (1994) argues that mega events tend to be momentary but have lasting consequences for a community that may not always be positive. Other scholars argue that hallmark events frequently result in enormous debts for host communities, likelihood of corruption during the bid process (Jennings, 1996), and often lead to the dislodgment of local residents because of new infrastructural improvements (Hall & Hodges, 1996; Hiller, 1998; Olds, 1998).

In South Africa, the assertion holds true. It is evident that cities and towns across South Africa recognise the importance of hallmark events to the development and expansion of urban development (City of Cape Town, 2001; Turco *et al.*, 2003). Sports tourism has been significant for growing the tourism economy in cities (Van der Heever, 1996). This shows the developments made following the hosting of the Rugby and Cricket World Cups and

the forthcoming 2010 FIFA World Soccer Cup. Much of the success in terms of hosting these events links to the government launched sports tourism campaign under the banner; South Africa Sports Tourism (SAST), a theme-based initiative (Rogerson, & Visser, 2005).

Humphreys and Prokopowicz (2007) disagree to literature on mega or hallmark events, maintaining, mega-events may not be effective regional economic development vehicles in transition economies Humphreys and Prokopowicz (2007 as *cited* in Pillay & Bass, 2008). In view of the challenges linked with hallmark events, Higham (1999) suggests small scale-sports events might result in effects that are positive for host communities (Higham 1999 as *cited* in Gibson, Willming, & Holdnak, 2003). Higham (1999) described small scale-sports events operate within existing infrastructures, require minimal investments of public funds, are more manageable in terms of crowding and congestion compared to hallmark events, and seem to minimize the effects of seasonality (Higham, 1999 as *cited* in Gibson *et al.*, 2003). This however is in total contrast to his assertion; Higham (1999) as *cited* in Daniels (2007), where he maintains small-scale operations are not necessarily beneficial to the host community. Prior literature also held different ground in favour of small events where observation on small special events opportunity costs estimated low. Thus, community benefit could enhance from other sources including direct tourist expenditure (Walo *et al.*, 1996).

Further literature criticising mega-events dispelling economic benefit from mega-events look at the holding of a mega-event like the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa. The mega-event postulated on generation of benefits on the actual developmental impacts could be narrow. Evidence from international literature, shows at times long-term costs associated with the hosting of mega-events have had serious consequences for the national economies of host countries. The job creation opportunities, mostly for low skills, in the construction and built environment sectors ahead of 2010, these are temporary involving limited numbers. This is not in the end expected to deter the unemployment rates of the country. The expected sequel effect, especially for the majority of the immediate community living in squalor and poverty is negligible (Pillay & Bass, 2008).

Some residents, especially in terms of urban regeneration, increased sense of security, positive fan behaviour and the general atmosphere surrounding mega-events take an optimistic view (Ohmann *et al.*, 2006). However, this perception in terms of redevelopment is not without social and economic costs (Olds, 1998). Essex and Chalkley

(1998) note the anticipated results may result in administrative glitches, traffic congestion, security breaches and over commercialisation (Hall, 1998). Additionally, sport initiatives do not necessarily deliver the images envisaged by city elites. Poor organisation and security incidents can erode the benefits of staging a major sport event (Smith, 2005). A typical example is the recent (2010) Africa Cup of Nations held in Angola, which left some players killed by rebels (BBC NEWS, 2010).

Gibson *et al.* (2003) argue that small sport events like college sports events have the potential to increase city revenue and community spirit, while increasing traveller's awareness of the local community. Sport Excursionists and Sport Tourists spent money on food and shopping while attending games, but their main motivation was to see the game (Gibson *et al.*, 2003). The foregoing suggests small-scale event conveniently measures up to that of mega-events. This raises the predicament on whether small towns like Mafikeng ought to lobby small events or mega-events.

The section looked at the attention sport tourism has received as an economic development strategy. Sport tourism has the potential of raising billions in revenue. Sport is an inducement for tourism where sport event promoters emphasize the potential of such events to entice tourists and their concomitant spending. The chapter included discussion on issues pertaining to mega and Hallmark events compared to small sport events. Mega-events may not be effective regional economic development vehicles were some literature suggested the significance of small sport events, especially for small towns like Mafikeng. The following section looks at literature pertaining to the social economic challenges faced by communities. Anticipation is that sport tourism has a role to play in communities such as Mafikeng, thus the connection to such communities and sport tourism will emerge in the subsequent section.

2.7 Social and Economic Challenges Faced by Communities

Governments of developing countries have struggled for many years to promote economic growth in places like mountainous, landlocked areas inhabited by ethnic minorities that are considered to be behind the mainstream national culture and economy (Wood, 1997). Many of these areas are inconveniently located in relation to important trade centres, which limit such communities' ability to compete with other regions in terms of productivity (Gee & Fayos-Sola, 1997 as *cited* in Nyaupane *et al.*, 2006). Thus, over and above the selection of tourism activities in favour of those that are environmental friendly, another

aspect is considered. Tourism should also give significance to community participation and poverty alleviation. Prominence should include pro-poor tourism both national and international levels (Neto, 2003). In the wake of sport tourism, there are scholars who however sound caution that despite the economic enhancing attributes that follow activities such as sport tourism, not all communities have the prospect of hosting successful events (Daniels, 2007).

Sport has the ability to harmonise racial or ethnic differences (Cornelissen, 2007). In a speech during the a workshop on the 19th Century on Governance, held in Boksburg, Johannesburg, of 23 June, 2008, Motshekga reiterated South Africa continues to face a number of mounting socio-economic challenges following the apartheid regime prior to 1994 (Motshekga, 2008). In a survey conducted by Ohmann *et al.* (2006) show that sport had the reinforcement of the sense of community and the improvement of the relationships between people of different origin. Eighty-eight per cent of respondents supported this.

Skills continue to daunt South Africa in terms of development. This was observed by Kaplan (2004) who asserts the lack of an integrated and co-ordinated approach to tourism skills advancement inhibits the potential of skills development to impact positively on development in South Africa and on the transformation of tourism (Kaplan, 2004).

South Africa suffers low entrepreneurship, while entrepreneurship has the capacity to minimise challenges like poverty and unemployment (Global Entrepreneurism Monitor, 2006). Tourism should be government led, private sector driven, community based, and labour conscious. This should aim at aggressively promoting entrepreneurship and community shareholding in tourism (DEAT, 1996 as *cited* in Spenceley & Seif, 2003). Communities and development organisations are increasingly seeing tourism as a livelihood option. There are many initiatives to support community tourism, including promotion of joint ventures (Ashley & Jones, 2001).

However, some scholars argue that sport tourism on its own cannot address issues of poverty as such. Mentioned is the hosting of the 2010 FIFA World Cup by South Africa. It is unlikely that poverty alleviation will ensue, as the result of fast tracking urban development impetus. This will not constitute a significant aftermath towards poverty. There is a high opportunity cost of capital especially in a developing nation. The cost of building a new stadium does not portray the amount of money required to build the facility

but rather the value to society from the same amount of capital spent on the next best community project (Pillay & Bass, 2008).

Sprawling to find equilibrium between hosting of such hallmark events (FIFA World Cup) and the fight to alleviate poverty is a daunting task. Meanwhile, the South African government has implemented policies aimed at the diversification of the economy, away from the historic activities of mining and agriculture (South Africa, 2001). Fundamental processes of restructuring, an increased mobility of capital, the rise and decline of localities and regions and the pursuit of new economic growth activities, particularly in the service sector have characterised the economic layout of South Africa (Binns & Nel, 2002). Similar strategy policies have worked in USA, cities such as Indianapolis and Cleveland adopted in the 1970s and 1980s. These strategies followed increased unemployment due to deindustrialisation (Gratton *et al.*, 2005).

Hosting sporting events such as the FIFA World Cup 2010 for South Africa have its benefits as some scholars have argued (Chalip, 2006; Kim & Petrick, 2005; Oldenboom 2006; Mohsin, 2005). Scholar believe that great sport events improve tourism infrastructures such as parks, jogging areas, sport equipment, public transportation, highways, tourist attractions and airports. Additionally, sports events have the potential to attract active participants, spectators and tourists. Sport events can increase mass media's attention and as a result create a positive reaction for the inhabitants (Esfahani *et al.*, 2009). Anticipation is that the FIFA 2010 World Cup attracts more than 500,000 visitors to South Africa (Swiss Business Hub South Africa, 2007).

Most African countries suffer poor image. This can have an impact on economic growth in terms of outside investment and attraction of tourists (Smith, 2005). Imaging strategy becomes important. The prime aims of the imaging strategies are to

- attract tourism expenditure;
- generate employment in the tourist industry;
- foster positive images for potential investors in the region, often by 'reimagining' previous negative perceptions; and
- provide an urban environment which will attract and retain the interest of professionals and white-collar workers, particularly in 'clean' service industries such as tourism and communications (Hall, 1992 as *cited* in Hall, 1998).

The image of a destination facilitates the impact of sport tourism. This may include the event image and past behaviour with the destination and can influence plans to come back to the destination for leisure activities. Destination marketing embraces the exercise of co-branding with regard to brand images of event and destinations. Image is priority to the development of an assessment tool of sport tourism from the perspective of active sport tourists or participants (Kyriaki, 2007).

The section discussed literature on social and economic challenges faced by communities based on racial challenges, skills, entrepreneurship, diversification, livelihood/employment, poverty, and infrastructure and image challenges. The literature used was contextualised with the background of countries like South Africa are used. The following section looks at literature on the creation of sustainable sport tourism. This aims to look at relevant literature that addresses some of the issues faced by communities.

2.8 Creating Sustainable Sport Tourism

The Sport and Recreation South Africa (SRSA) that forms part of the South African Sports Commission (SASC), intended to enhance the sustainability of the sport and recreation with the following:

- Promotion of 'home-grown' events such as the Comrades Marathon, Dusi Canoe Marathon, Argus Cycle Tour and Two Oceans Marathon, which attract large numbers of international participants and spectators,
- Working closely with South Africa Tourism and the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism to promote more attractive tourist packages for spectators who want to accompany touring sports teams to South Africa,
- Assisting agencies, in line with a major events strategy and the hosting and bidding regulations, to attract major International sports events to South Africa.
- Marketing South Africa's sport and recreation facilities abroad, such as golf courses and beaches (South Africa Year Book, 2002/03).

Notwithstanding growing acknowledgment of tourism's developmental potential for Africa, in terms of the New Economic Partnership for African Development, tourism research as a whole remains limited and centred upon issues of nature-based tourism, conservation and rural development (Visser & Rogerson, 2004 as *cited* in Rogerson &

Visser, 2005). In order to develop sport tourism as a sustainable industry for instance, the lack of communication, both vertically and horizontally, has been a problem (Pillay & Bass, 2008). To have overall exploitation of tourism and sport benefits there needs to be a close and continuing association concerning sport and tourism organisations (Ritchie, 2004).

There has been an increasing volume of scholarly work on sport tourism in recent years although the subject is in its early stages in terms of growth. Currently there is insufficient articulate and practical form of knowledge that has emerged, while the development remains measured (Weed, 2006). Limitations exist in the current works. First, most studies are essentially descriptive in nature, providing information on what is taking place but generating little in the way of understanding or explanation (Gibson, 2005), with an overemphasis upon developing typologies of participants (Green and Jones, 2005), leaving important questions of understanding and explanation, largely unanswered (Gibson, 2005). Weed (2005), echoes this argument by proposing that existing work on sport tourism experiences is descriptive. Weed (2005) observes the failure to address issues such as why the sport tourist experience is enjoyable, or why participants would like to repeat the visit (Weed 2005). Nearly a third of the literature does not have any form of data collection and is hypothetical in drawing inferences, than empirically supported (Weed, 2006).

The need to create sustainable tourism arises because of the potential this has on the improvement of the quality of life of residents by attracting visitors and thus contributing to the economic well-being of local communities (CTC, 1999, as *cited* in Swart & Bob, 2007). This leads to a sense of purpose, generate community pride and the celebration of culture (Weed & Bull, 2004). Community pride has political connotation. Politics and spectacle combine in an elaborate exhibition and utilisation of host resources, culture and other facets of distinction (Cornelissen, 2007). Mules (1998) classify the motivation to host a major event and the use of taxpayers' money on the construction of different facilities into two categories. The first justification is the potential tangible and intangible benefits that accrue to the host community at large. There would not be enough incentive for private enterprises to stage major tournaments, because either they cannot exclude the rest of the community from benefits or they cannot recover the costs in the short-run. The second motivation could be political where government leaders stand to earn publicity, where they are seen as significant by their constituency because of their socialising with

splendid sports stars, or be perceived as ordinary sports minded people (Mules, 1998:26 as *cited* in Gelan, 2003).

Achievement of sustainable sport tourism cannot be without the actual involvement of the hosting communities. Event hosting is not good enough until recognition to the resources used is given, and the host communities. Communities should identify with the participatory processes (Ntloko & Swart, 2008). When considering levels of community involvement and government control in planning and management of tourism, most destinations in developing regions fall into endogenous groups or community-based, or exogenous or state-controlled groups (Gartner, 1996; Snowdon *et al.*, 2000).

Researchers have emphasized the benefits of including community participation in tourism planning and management. Reasons suggested by certain authors why members of host community should be involved in tourism planning arise because of the community's historical understanding of how the region adjusts to change. Tourism closely affects the community therefore expecting to become an essential part of the tourism product (Scheyvens, 1999; Simmons, 1994 as *cited* in Nyaupane *et al.*, 2006). Subsequently, the Public Private Partnership (PPP) approach, which focuses on strategies that enhance benefits to the poor, within the community, and aim to unlock opportunities for the poor can be used (Ashley *et al.*, 2001). Participation of people in host communities, directly or indirectly is vital for the continuing existence of these activities. Following this trend negative event impacts could be minimised. Event impacts are the effects and implications of how the event impinges on local residents' quality of life and their reactions thereof (Fredline & Falkner, 2002 as *cited* in Nyaupane *et al.*, 2006).

However Sharpley (2002) contends that tourism seldom is a 'development panacea'. Tourism development often comes at a price and economic gains must balance against social and environmental costs (Sharpley, 2002 as *cited* in Binns & Nel, 2002)). To support this Mitchella and Reid (2001) question whether the costs and impacts of tourism can be justified, and whether this can be an empowering development strategy for the host community, from which it can derive sustainable long-term benefits (Mitchella & Reid, 2001 as *cited* in Binns & Nel, 2002). The use of community for the mere purpose of involvement is not enough. Factors influence such joint venture success that include committed individuals, philosophy, facilitation, time and trust, local institutions, policy context, and tourism market trends (Ashley, & Jones, 2001).

Another important factor to consider in the scope of creating sustainable sport tourism is the customer. Event participants are the guaranteed 'customers' of sport events and destinations that host them. Consequently, the needed for a theoretical framework that focuses on participants' psychological processes is to examine the factors that influence participants' intentions to revisit a destination to participate in leisure activities need consideration (Kyriaki, 2007).

The human element will contribute to sustainable sport tourism in terms of skills and management. To reach this potential in contributing to socio-economic development then it requires a sufficiently skilled workforce to benefit from the job and business opportunities presented by tourism activities, such as sport tourism (Kaplan, 2004). Sports education would help to prepare sports leaders, as distinct from leading sportsmen and sportswomen, for the challenges, which the full development and exploitation of sports tourism opportunity entail (Sinclair, 2005). Yusof *et al.* (2009) maintains competence mastery and intellectual factors are significant variables, which motivate people to seek active sport-oriented vacations (Yusof *et al.*, 2009). Ntloko, and Swart, (2008) identify a link between management and impact of events as a measure to maximise the positive impacts and minimise the negative impacts.

The importance of management is further expounded through the increased activity of 'event management' as a fast growing professional field in which tourists constitute a potential market for planned events and the tourism industry has become a vital stakeholder in their success and attractiveness (Getz, 2008). Management of events raises issues for public relations concerns in relation to multi-cultural communication, ethics, safety, social responsibility and in some cases globalisation. Other public relations functional aspects that come into play include promotion and marketing support plus creating images of locations, in terms of activities and identities or lifestyles (L'Etang *et al.*, 2006). To inspire images of individual cities, municipal authorities and affiliated agencies often promote carefully selected images to further a city's tourism ambitions (Smith, 2005).

It is considered that the development of international standard sporting facilities and related infrastructure upgrades create a head start for bidding of other major events (Weed & Bull, 2004). Contention on such major sport facilities usually built for mega-events have to be adaptable for local community use subsequent to the event (Swart & Bob, 2007).

Meanwhile, conducive factors would include a clean environment, adequate facilities and infrastructure, a genuine range of events and attractions, friendly host population and local government receptive to the wishes of the host population and more (Walo, Bull & Breen, 1996). At a regional level, smaller participative events have an advantage in that they offer high benefit to cost ratios because they can be comparatively inexpensive to host while attracting large numbers of people to a city or region. This characteristic makes such events particularly attractive to smaller communities that lack the infrastructure necessary to host large-scale events (Lamont & Dowell, 2008). The next section looks at government policy and strategies on sport tourism. This looks at current strategies in place and how they have been developed.

2.9 Government Policies and Strategies on Sport Tourism

In 1994, the South African government undertook to make tourism one of the country's leading industries in the creation of employment and the generation of foreign income (WTTC, 2002 as *cited* in Tassiopoulou & Haydam, 2008). Sport tourism is not a new phenomenon; it has received increasing attention in recent years as an economic development strategy (Crompton, 1999; Daniels *et al.*, 2004; Delpy, 1998; Gelan, 2003; Higham & Hinch, 2002; Lee & Taylor, 2005 *all cited* in Daniels, 2007).

However Malizia and Feser (1999) observed that without theory, the economic developer follows practical strategies with professionally accepted techniques but has no way to build a strong, independent basis for understanding and performing. With theory, the developer can first understand the threats and opportunities facing the local economy and can approach unique strategies that address its strengths and weaknesses (Malizia & Feser, 1999 as *cited* in Daniels, 2007). Daniels (2007) therefore asserts successful sport initiatives can result in heightened use of a destination's attractions, resources, and services through use of certain theories like the Central place theory. This assists in predicting the type of location that stands to benefit from sport tourism development (Daniels, 2007).

The South African Government has taken a deliberate approach towards tourism, which includes the launching of the South Africa Sports Tourism (SAST), in October 1997. This is an international theme to attract foreign visitors. The initiative acknowledges the role of sport tourism as a strategic used as a reconstruction and development program, which aims to uplift South African society economically (Swart, 2005).

The 1996 Tourism White Paper specifically identifies the sports tourism sector and encourages the development of sports tourism products as offering good potential for developing a vibrant specialist tourism sector (South Africa, 1996). Despite the recognition of sport tourism as such, no direct reference is made to sports tourism in the Tourism Growth Strategy (South African Tourism, 2002) or the 2004-2007 Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy (DEAT1, 2004) (Tassiopoulou & Haydam, 2008). Strategies can be unrealistic with benefits over-estimated unless a combination of factors conducive to tourism growth and development are articulated (Walo *et al.*, 1996).

Sport and recreation in South Africa has been the responsibility of the South African Sports Commission (SASC). The mandate of the Commission is to deliver sport and recreation through its programmes and those of its clients (the national federations). Included is the development of policy within the context of the national sport and recreation policy, with the principal agents being provincial federations and macro-bodies. Other responsibilities under the Provincial governments are responsible are the following:

- optimising the usage of facilities through better management and capacity-building
- implementing recreation policy, through the Provincial Recreation Councils (PRORECs)
- funding these agencies • upgrading facilities created by local governments for national and provincial events (South Africa Year Book, 2002/03).

However, policy on how a state or a government perceives the processes of building tends to be tied to the possibilities and requirements of an upcoming event (Cornelissen, 2007). For instance, based on the important role that sport and tourism can help to contribute to South Africa's transformation agenda (Swart and Bob, 2007), the 2010 FIFA World Cup has presented South Africa with an opportunity to take a strategic approach to sport tourism in the run up to and post 2010 (SAT, 2005). This strategy can be used in places where new image or employment opportunities are sought arising out of factors such as industrial base (Gratton, Shibli & Coleman, 2005). Foreign governments such as the United Kingdom where a number of cities have employed policies focused on the ability of sports events and stadia to stimulate economic and physical regeneration (Jones, 2001) have used this. Some scholars have called for caution on the use of event-led strategies because they are often justified by their abstract image effects and the celebrities, iconic

structures and media exposure. This association with events like sport means can make the events appear particularly effective (Smith, 2005).

While both tourism and sport can be used to manage sustainable development, Amoah and Baum (1997) observed one of the key factors, impeding successful development in the industry was policies and lack of co-ordination between the various organisations responsible for tourism (Amoah & Baum 1997 as *cited* in Kaplan, 2004). In South Africa, for instance, the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism's vision (DEAT) is to manage tourism in the interests of sustainable development in such a way that it contributes to the improvement of the quality of life of all citizens (Spenceley & Seif, 2003). Independently on the other hand, many local communities promote sport, recreation and tourism opportunities to make full use of their recreational facilities and to expand and diversify their local economy (Walo *et al.*, 1996).

The South African Government launched 'developmental local government' strategy (RSA), in 1998. This was in direct response to the economic plight of the poorest areas. The initiative actively encouraged the pursuit of local economic development as a 'pro-poor' strategy (RSA 2000). Tourism widely related to the promotion and recognised was a key growth alternative for the country (Rogerson, 2000 as *cited* in Binns & Nel, 2002). South Africa's urban managers and policy makers recognise tourism development as a means by which to stimulate their local economies. There are a number of strategies being deployed to further enhance and develop the tourism potential of South African cities (Rogerson & Visser, 2005).

With high urbanisation rates projected, with the six 'big' metropolitan economies currently contributing the majority of the national gross domestic product (GDP), and with service, infrastructure and income disparities widening in urban areas, initiatives aimed at stimulating economic growth and job creation need to be carefully nurtured and sustained (Pillay *et al.*, 2006; Pillay, 2004). It appeared that the hosting of the FIFA World Cup in 2010 had the potential to do precisely this (Pillay & Bass, 2008).

Tourism is susceptible to all kinds of risks and crises partly because of its intangibility. Tourism destinations are more than goods and most likely more than services in general. This makes tourism dependent on media images as a strategy. The importance of media representations increases when the reader has no experience of a destination (Jenkins, 1999

as *cited* in L'Etang *et al.*, 2006). The following section looks at literature on the outlook and developments that made in sport tourism.

2.10 Future and Development of Sport Tourism

Up until recent times, there was a neglect of tourism in cities. Overall increase for research linked to the rising demand by tourists for urban historic sites and heritage cities, and concerted efforts by policy makers to focus on the role of tourism in revitalising urban areas and economies has addressed this (Chang & Huang, 2004: 223-224 as *cited* in Rogerson & Visser, 2005).

Cities are becoming increasingly competitive in their attempt to attract investment and create employment opportunities in the global economy (Hall 1996 as *cited* in Swart, 2005). Cornelissen (2007) similarly asserted this through an observation towards the increasing competitiveness of drawing of capital in the international economic environment (Cornelissen, 2007). Raising levels of efficiency and service through the improvement of education and training are seen as some of the key ways in which comparative advantage can be created (Kaplan, 2004).

Tourism always has a higher marginal value when it takes place in areas, which have underused tourism facilities, underemployment and relatively low incomes and prices (Bull, 1995 as *cited* in Walo, Bull & Breen, 1996). As such, this has contributed to the increase in the use of tourism as a 'pro-poor' strategy is an emerging theme in development literature (Ashley & Roe, 2002). Debate at the same time has emerged on the use of tourism to promote community development in a sustainable way that does not create radical social and environmental concern (Wahab & Pigram 1997; Elliott *et al.*, 2001; Sharpley, 2002 as *cited* in Binns & Nel, 2002). In South Africa, poverty reduction strategies therefore centre on black economic empowerment initiatives, job creation, transportation integration and township regeneration. Such agendas prominently persist in connection with the FIFA World Cup (Cornelissen, 2004). There is insufficient research that evaluates the probability of South Africa to accomplish social and economic gains from the hosting of mega-events (Pillay & Bass, 2008). Small-scale sporting events have demonstrated an ability to generate a range of benefits for the host community. These include benefits related to an injection of new money into the local economy through visitor spending, smoothing of seasonality in demand for tourist facilities like restaurants,

accommodation properties and attractions. These small-scale sporting events also create potential for repeat stopovers (Lamont & Dowell, 2008).

Lamont and Dowell (2008) argue on the success of sport tourism events is highly dependent upon the ability of event organisers to meet costs associated with staging an event such as marketing, infrastructure, human resources and insurance. Revenue to meet these costs is often drawn from sources such as participation fees, merchandising, fundraising and corporate sponsorship. Sponsorship has frequently proven to be the source of revenue that provides the financial strength for many events. Sponsorship is often regarded as a key requirement for an event of any type to be successful with numerous authors agreeing that sport tourism events are the most prevalent form of sponsorship investment among large corporate organisations (Lamont & Dowell, 2008).

The perception of tourism in the past has been as a social occurrence only related to individual leisure. This has been the view of many journalists, who have regarded tourism and travel as soft news. According to Deuschl (2006), the media interest in tourism has changed owing to commercial pressures. Likewise academics from media sociology and cultural studies have become interested in the field (Crouch, Jackson, & Thompson, 2005; Falkheimer & Jansson, 2006; Sheller & Urry, 2004; Urry, 2002 *all cited in* L'Etang, Falkheimer & Lugo, 2006). This has seen an increase in of media corporations' investment at unprecedented levels in sporting coverage and team/league ownership, particularly as pay television (Nauright, 2004).

2.11 Research Questions

The literature discussed in this chapter gives an insight on the selected topic, which deals with the role of sport tourism in Mafikeng. Based on the topic and the themes of the literature review, the following are the chosen research questions:

1. Does sport tourism have an impact on the role of the socio-economic activity of Mafikeng?
2. Does sport tourism have negative or positive socio-economic effects on the town?
3. Can the sport tourism facilities available in Mafikeng help host a mega-event or small event?

4. Are the current sport tourism facilities being used effectively?

2.12 Conclusion

The chapter on the review of literature opened with a definition of concepts and key words to help determine the parameters and consideration of the study. Tourism and sport are discussed separately where the significance of both tourism and sport has been articulated. The relationship of sport and tourism are discussed showing the growing significance of the two under the banner sport tourism. Under the relationship, constraints of sport tourism growth have been underlined, which includes the main constraint pertaining to the development of the two sectors separately. Literature on the classification of sport tourism and focus has been discussed in order to generate understanding the development of sport tourism as a niche in the tourism sector. The foregoing literature has been a prelude of the discussion on the impact of sport tourism on economic development and the social and economic challenges faced by communities which it sport tourism is intended to address. Issues on the significance of hosting mega or hallmark events as opposed to small-scale events and their contribution to hosting communities have been articulated. Having ascertained the role played by sport tourism, literature on government policies and strategies on sport tourism is discussed to give perspective to the topic in relationship to government as a stakeholder. Lastly, the trends and development expected in sport tourism are discussed in relation to competitiveness and funding of sport tourism.

For a town like Mafikeng, small-scale events are less costly and easily manageable. The town's leisure service professionals must firstly be aware of the people's interest, opinions, desire and knowledge in a community regarding recreation and leisure in sport tourism participation. In other words what does a person do in his or her leisure time, what sport tourism facilities do individuals use. For Mafikeng, the need identification may be used to evaluate other factors relative to the delivery of sport tourism leisure and to determine the answer and questions such as; what is the quality of sport tourism leadership that exists, what sport tourism facilities are available and the quality of maintenance and development of those sport tourism facilities? Identification and assessment of needs can be revealing factors relating to both people of the community or sport tourism participants.

Information and literature on the study can help in providing meaningful and applicable information to the North-West Sport, Art and Culture Department, North-West Parks and Tourism Board together. Other stakeholders that will benefit from the study include the

Department of Tourism and Economic Development policy makers and program implementers and others working to mitigate the impact on both individuals, communities and the town. This will strengthen the collective responses to these challenges to the identified challenges.

The next chapter looks at the research methodology, which can best be utilised for determining the role and impact of sport tourism in Mafikeng. There two possible research methodology that can be applied namely; the quantitative and qualitative methodology. The advantages and disadvantages of each research method are discussed. This will lead to an appropriate decision on which method of research will be applied to provide the answer to the research questions concerned.

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The research problems given in the previous chapter are unanswered given the literature reviewed. This chapter therefore contains the methodology used to satisfy the research questions that have been chosen. The following research questions that this study attempts to answer are: 1) Does sport tourism have an impact on the role of the socio-economic activity of Mafikeng? 2) Does sport tourism have negative or positive socio-economic effects on the town? 3) Can the sport tourism facilities available in Mafikeng host a mega-event or small event? 4) Are the current sport tourism facilities being used effectively?

The study is poised at determining the role of sport tourism in the economic activity of Mafikeng. This will require the use of an appropriated research methodology linked with the problems statement (Leedy & Omrod, 2005). Hartley and Dickson (2004) define research methodology as the approach to linking the research questions, objectives and the data collection, followed by analysis and interpretation in a logical sequence (Hartley & Dickson, 2004). To achieve this, it will be vital to target the right population and collect precise information using the apt research methodology.

This chapter outlines the research methodology used for the study in relation to the topic and the data collection methods available. The chapter also outlines the sort of questions posed to respondents and the appropriateness of questionnaires used. Discussion on the population and sampling closing with ethical bounds to which the researcher sort to adhere. The following section discusses the research types used in the study.

3.2 Research Types

3.2.1 Quantitative and Qualitative

The three main research classifications are quantitative, qualitative and mixed or triangulation. Choice of which methodology applied depends on the characteristic of data to be collected and the problem of the research. The quantitative methodology will apply where data is numerical while qualitative methodology will usually be undertaken where the data collected is verbal (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005).

Quantitative analysis is the collection and analysis of data that is non-qualitative (Lofland & Lofland, 1984). Quantitative methods allow the section between different actions following a systematic evaluation. This involves the setting up of models pertaining to the problems under analysis, selecting input to the models and deriving an output from the models (Drott, 1989). Leedy and Ormrod (2005) concur with the systematic approach of using numerical data for the purpose of possible correlation among two or more phenomenon, while stressing the use of quantitative methodology examines the situation as it is and therefore does not lead to any addition to the investigation, nor does it provide the cause-and-effect relationship. In some case, the failure to use of quantitative methods has been attributed to the inability to understand computational data and models or interpretation of statistical inferences (Grayson, 1980).

In contrast to quantitative methods, qualitative methods focus on phenomena occurring in its natural settings and aims to study the phenomena in their complexity entirely (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Under qualitative analysis, the assumption is that there are diverging views to a problem or phenomenon, and the use of this method will deliver an accurate opinion of the matter studied. The researcher is required to dwell on the interpretation of the matter other than focusing on quantifying the situation (Creswell, 2003).

Peshkin (1993) asserts qualitative research has the ability to:

- Enable the researcher to have fresh views concerning a specific phenomenon allowing the development of new concepts or theoretical perspectives and or draw complications pertaining with the phenomenon
- Expose the nature of certain situations, settings, processes, relationships, systems or people
- Give the researcher tools to judge the effectiveness of certain policies, innovations and practices
- Encourage the researcher to test the validity of particular assumptions, theories, generalisations or claims within a practical setting.

The following is a comparison of the quantitative and qualitative using a table:

Quantitative	Qualitative
Bias towards counting	Counting only if clearly necessary
More detached, impersonal orientation favouring use of data	Greater investment in the data
Rule driven, with clear mental model for the researcher	Encourage substantial flexibility in research procedure because there are no strong prototyping models to follow
Predictable outcomes with little processes of variables	Focus more on understanding organisational processes and less predication outcomes
More generalised because presentation is mostly free of context	Heavily grounded within the local context in which the phenomena of interest occur. This leads to problems when generalising empirical results pertaining to a large population or other settings
Less focus on particular reasons	More explicit about participants' reaction

Table 3.1 Distinction between quantitative and qualitative methodology (*Source: Cassel & Symons, 1994*)

3.2.2 Research Method used in this Thesis

The approach used in this study is the quantitative research methodology. The reason to use this method has been arrived at considering the use of the two possible methodologies i.e. quantitative and qualitative. The qualitative methodology can best be used in descriptive, interpretive, verification and evaluation studies. On the other hand, quantitative methodology can best be used for observation studies, correlation research, development designs and survey research (Leedy & Ormrod). This aim of this study is to examine the correlation between the role of sport tourism and its impact on the economic activity of Mafikeng.

3.2.3 Data Required

Primary data is original information collected by the researcher meant specifically for the study conducted. Such data or information can be collected using interviews and surveys.

Secondary data on the other hand is information or data collected from previously gathered sources conducted by someone else for the purpose of a related study and subsequently used by other researcher. Secondary sources includes data collected from sources such as journals, periodicals, books and reports (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Whereas according to Leedy and Ormrod (2005), primary data is considered the closest to the actual study and secondary data as a layer farther away from the study performed, Cooper and Schindler (2004) consider secondary data provides background information and direction for a research. Therefore, this study employs both primary and secondary data. As recommended by Leedy and Ormrod (2005), a research methodology is used for obtaining primary data based on a conducted survey. Secondary data has been drawn from journals, reports and available literature in the academic field on the topic.

3.3 Data Collection Method

3.3.1 Methods for Collecting Primary Data

Cooper and Schindler (2004) classify data collection as a monitoring and communication process. In monitoring, the researcher does not need any response from subjects but inspects activities or nature of a material. In the interrogation or communication type of data collection, the researcher questions the subjects through interview or telephone conversation, self administered or self-reported instruments. There is no simple answer to what is the best data collection instrument. The nature and purpose of the research will just give guide to which method to use (Blankenship & Breen, 1993).

a) Interviews

Qualitative studies tend to have open-ended interviews, survey research interviews tend to be structured. The questions posed in a structured interview tend to have a standard set of questions from the researcher (Leedy & Ormrod 2005).

b) Survey

The characteristic of a survey is the collection of numeric or quantitative data from a given group using direct observation. A survey can be used for various reasons that can include one of the following:

- Explore differences
- Examine correlations and associations
- Exploratory research

- Testing of a theoretical model
- For identification of trend

The primary data in this study will be collected by conducting a survey with structured questionnaires. The questionnaires will be distributed physically and through email to all government departments involved in sport and tourism within Mafikeng. These will include the following:

- Department of Sport, Arts and Culture
- Department of Economic Development and Tourism
- North-West Parks Board - Mafikeng
- Mafikeng Municipality
- District Municipality
- North-West University –Mafikeng Campus, Civic Centre, Leopard Park Golf club etc.

Only selected officials in the departments will form part of the survey. These will include decision makers such as directors and managers. Other questionnaires will be distributed to sporting facilities in Mafikeng. Target people respondents from the sporting facilities will include managers and administrators.

3.3.2 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is the data-gathering tool used in this study. The data collected will be analysed to determine the relationship of the role of sport tourism and its impact on the economic activity of Mafikeng. Physically delivered to the respondents within Mafikeng of the questionnaire will be done, with other questionnaires emailed to respondents. In the questionnaire-based survey, relevant respondents will answer questions about the role of sport tourism and its economic impact on Mafikeng. A formal questionnaire was developed using standard techniques from relevant literature. Questionnaire-based surveys are inexpensive, easy to administer data gathering methods. Information obtained from questionnaires is mostly quantitative and easy to process. Subjects are generally familiar with the survey mechanism. In situations where the subjects are not required to answer questions at the spot, they can think about their answers and recall information that is more accurate (Farr & Timm, 1994).

The choice of using closed ended questions was based on factors such as objectives of the study, ease communication with the respondents and amount of information presumed held by the respondents. However, both qualitative and quantitative methods have advantages and disadvantages, all the questions used in the questionnaires are closed ended. Closed ended questions are less costly to administer, easier to code and analyse. In addition, closed ended questions reduce the variability of responses and need less skill from the researcher's side. Closed ended questions can actually be as effective as open-ended questions if properly designed (Cooper & Schindler, 2001).

Twenty (20) brief questions but essential to the research make up the questionnaire as recommended by Leedy and Ormrod (2005). The intention is also to encourage and maximise the response rate. The questionnaire has three sections (Refer to Appendix C). The first part concerns permission to use the respondent's answers the academic research. The second section aims at collecting biographical data on the respondents such as age, gender and qualifications. The third section contains specific questions pertaining to the role of sport tourism and its impact on the economic activity of Mafikeng. Responses require the respondent to indicate a yes or no answer. The following table gives the questionnaire outline.

A short disclaimer describing the purpose of the research – refer to Appendix A	
A reminder – refer to Appendix B	
The Questionnaire – Refer to Appendix c	
A 'Thank you' Note – refer to Appendix D	
Section 1	Permission to use the respondent's answers the academic research
Section 2 Questions 1-9	Collects biography data on the respondents including age, gender and qualifications
Section 3	Focuses on collecting response on the role of sport tourism and its impact on the economic activity of Mafikeng

Table 3.2: Questionnaire Outline

3.3.3 Sampling Methods

Babbie *et al.* (2003:112) describe a population for a study as that group (usually of people) about whom the researcher wants to draw inferences. However, with limited time and money, researchers are unlikely to study the entire body of relevant facts about the whole group of people under investigation. Therefore, the findings and conclusions in survey research are based on information gathered from a limited number of people from whom generalisations can be made about the whole number. This selected group from the population is called a sample (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996:201). When choosing a

sample, the researcher often has to prepare a comprehensive list of all units in the target population that is called a sampling frame (Leedy & Ormond, 2005).

The population of concern to this study is all decision makers and managers in government departments directly or indirectly relegated to sport, tourism and the economic affairs of Mafikeng. The other part of the population consists of all owners, managers, instructors and supervisors of sport facilities within Mafikeng. The participants of the sample intended will require having the following description:

- The participants must be directors, managers or administrators in decision-making
- The participants must have worked in the incumbent role for at least four years

The above requirements will be essential considering experience because respondents lacking the desired calibre will not be in positions to articulate the role of sport tourism and its economic impact on Mafikeng, which may affect the authenticity of the results pertaining to the research being conducted. A list of all participants required for the sample will be sourced followed by a random selection of the sample to be used for the purpose of the survey.

A table prepared by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) can help establish the appropriate sample size (S) based on the population (N). The proposed population size in this particular study $N = 150$ therefore $S = 108$. This entails that the sample size will require of a minimum of 108 completed questionnaires in order to draw an expressive conclusion from the data collected in the survey.

3.3.4 Types of Variables

Diamantopoulos and Sclegelmilch (2004) describe a variable as an empirical observable characteristic of some phenomenon, which can take more than one value or response category. For example, gender, number of tourists visiting a town, etc. Expectation is that all questions raised in a questionnaire generate a variable. The common variables include nominal, ordinal and ratio variables (Diamantopoulos & Sclegelmilch, 2004).

Nominal variables: involve variables where the response can be placed in any order and the numbers assigned to the response categories have no other property except to serve as labels.

- Nominal variables allow the classification of responses

- The responses groups should be mutually exclusive and collectively exclusive in nature
- The frequency or percentage of occurrence under each category can be determined for nominal variables
- No numerical meanings are given to the categories

Ordinal variables: these are variables where the response categories have a certain order and the numbers assigned to the response categories have an order.

- Response from ordinal variables can be placed in categories
- The frequency or percentage of occurrence under each category can be determined for nominal variables
- Order of the number assigned to the categories have meaning
- The number assigned to the ordinal variables do not have meaning
- A rank or order of response can be placed on ordinal variables
- Difference between consecutive categories need not be the same

Ratio variables: these are numerical variables where there is some standard unit of the property measured. The distance between consecutive numbers is the same. Therefore, accurate statements on the differences between cases can be made.

- Responses can be categorised
- The frequency or percentage of occurrence under each category can be determined for nominal variables
- The number assigned to the rational variables have meaning
- The order of the number assigned to the categories have meaning
- A rank or order of response can be placed on rational variables
- Distance between two cases can be calculated allowing the measure of how much more or less
- The ratio of the two responses can be calculated

The survey will employ a combination of variables. For identifying participants, nominal and ordinal variables will be applied. The nature of questions asked will determine variables applied for survey questions varying from ordinal to ratio variables.

Data handling

This research requires a complete list, names and contact details, of all the UNISA postgraduate students that are studying towards a Master of Science (MSc) in computer science or information systems. This information is confidential, and required the appropriate permission from UNISA. This permission was granted by the Manager of Administration for the school of computing, at UNISA. The researcher's course supervisor also approved obtaining these student details for the purpose of this research.

The questionnaire will be delivered primarily using e-mail, and if the participant does not use e-mail, then facsimile transmission will be used, thereafter courier or postal service or hand delivery will be used by the researcher.

The questionnaire will be self-administered, where each participant will complete the questionnaire without the researcher being present. This method of administration is contrasted with a researcher-administered questionnaire, which is a type of structured interview, where the researcher asks the participant each question in turn and writes down the participant's responses (Oates, 2006: 219). The self-administered questionnaire fits the researcher's cost and time constraints, requires no special social skills on the part of the researcher, and is suitable for literate participants.

Bias is a term that can be used to describe an unfair situation, where some parties are favoured over others. When this term is applied to surveys, bias occurs when the survey sample does not accurately represent the survey population. This type of bias is called selection bias. Selection bias can be caused by under coverage, non-response bias, or voluntary response bias (AP statistics tutorial: Bias in survey sampling, n.d.). Under coverage bias occurs when some members of a population are not sufficiently represented in the sample. Non-response bias occurs when there are sample participants who do not respond or partially respond to the survey, and these non-responding participants differ in meaningful ways to the responding sample participants. The result is that the inferences made and conclusions drawn from the sample do not reflect the actual population, because only certain members of the population are represented by the sample data. Voluntary

response bias occurs when the sample members are self-selected volunteers; the result is an over representation of those members of the population with very strong views.

This research will not suffer from under coverage or voluntary response bias because the entire population is being surveyed. This research may suffer from non-response bias. Bias in surveys can be the results of a poor measurement process, this is called response bias. Leading questions and social desirability lead to response bias (AP statistics tutorial: Bias in survey sampling, n.d.). Leading questions are loaded in a way that favours one response to a question over another response to the question. Social desirability occurs when participants providing answers that they think are socially acceptable instead of the truth.

The data will be collated and entered onto a spreadsheet where statistical calculations will be done and used and interpreted. This research relies on the questionnaire's validity and reliability to minimise response bias.

3.4 Ethical Consideration Pertaining to the Study

This research concerns the role of sport tourism and its impact on the economic activity of Mafikeng. Respondents enquired about the role and impact of sport tourism in Mafikeng or any related questions should not to understand the current performance of any organisation or individual by these variables. In any instance where any specific department or organisation failed to excel in relation to these variables, managers or administrators need not necessarily feel concerned or guilty. Further, utmost privacy and confidentiality is attached to all responses and respondents. This study is an aggregate and categorised in terms of the role that sport tourism can play to the economic impact of Mafikeng. The study need not create unnecessary fears or misunderstanding among people from outside which are reading the report. The researcher pledges that any statistics obtained will be treated in confidence and has written consent from all respondents. The information will be treated for statistical or research purposes only. There will not be no publications whatsoever without the prior written consent from the researcher or any institution participating in the publication.

In the event that other researchers may have conducted this research, commitment to the rule of plagiarism will be abided by. Credit will be shown to other authors that have been used in obtaining and compiling the body of knowledge contained in this research study.

3.5 Limitations

Survey technique suffers from a number of shortcomings including the low response rate from to questionnaires. This will tend to impinge on the relevance of the research owing to lack of full representation.

- Other limitations arise where respondents are required to tick one of the possible answers and are not asked to give their true feelings
- Survey respondents are also likely to provide socially acceptable answers or avoid strongly negative or positive views and stick to compromise positions
- Some respondents deliberately and unnecessarily give extreme opinions as their answers. Occasionally, response rates are also low and it takes researchers extra time and expense to collect required number of responses
- Correlation research has a limitation where the correlation may suggest existing relationship between two variables, while proof of change in a variable resulting from that of the other variable may not be given.

3.6 Conclusion

One has to agree/ accept that there is no perfect research survey. Currently local communities are going through a period of socio-economic challenges/ constraints and they are also feeling the effects of financial cutbacks. Communities, because of these factors, and the government encouraging people to start initiating with their campaign of Vuk'uzenzele. Communities should start initiating and devising some means to help themselves to build a solid foundation for the future. South Africa needs to empower its people within communities to develop themselves. All individuals have the right to participate in sport tourism.

Last but not least, it is important for government through initiatives from Departments such as Sport, Arts and Culture, Economic Development and Tourism and North-West Parks Board to educate, ensure health pattern of sport tourism behaviour and active lifestyle for all.

Chapter 4

Discussion of Results

4.1 Introduction

The survey conducted involved the role of sport tourism in the economic activity of the Mafikeng. Sport tourism has become an important part of the economy of South Africa (Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005). Sporting events open up new opportunities for national economies, and are an additional source of employment and revenue (Keller, 1999). This is in line with the diversification initiatives of the Government, which aims the promotion of new economic growth activities, predominantly in the service, sector such as tourism (Binns & Nel, 2002). Despite Mafikeng being the Provincial capital of the North West, major sporting activities elude the economic activities of the town.

In this chapter the research findings and provides analyses and interpretation of data are discussed. The survey conducted had certain questions asked that have been analysed based on the application of Pearson correlation coefficient and p-value. The Pearson correlation coefficient method correlates all listed variables with each other, using two at a time, and indicates statistical significance of the relationship. The p-value provides extra information on the extent, which the significant region is, placed (Diamantopoulos & Schlegelmilch, 2004).

This chapter starts with a descriptive introduction based on the demographics of the respondents. This is followed by a section reflecting the findings of the target survey's perception with regard to the role of sport tourism in the economic activity of the Mafikeng. This starts with Frequency Tables and Figures on sport tourism, and its impact on the economic activity of Mafikeng followed by the measures of association using Standard deviation of the means, and correlation. The chapter closes with ANOVA with all the tables.

4.2 Response rate

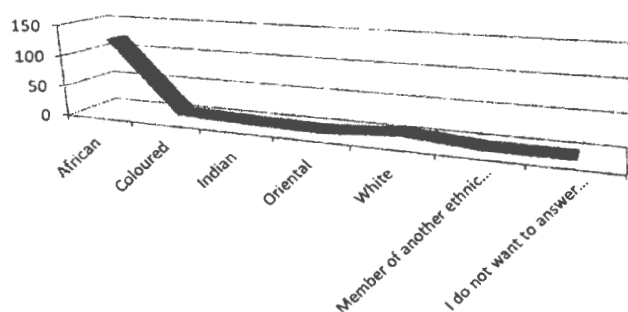
The data was summarised on a spreadsheet (EXCEL) and figures and table were drawn. There were 200 questionnaires distributed and 151 questionnaires were completed and returned. Simple random sampling technique was employed for data collection; the number of 108 returned questionnaires was deemed sufficient sample size to represent the universe

according to Krejcie and Morgan (1970). Reason why some people elected not to answer could be that they were scared of being victimised or seen as being ignorant of the subject matter. The data was summarised on a spreadsheet and xlSTAT was used to produce the required results.

4.3 Demographics

The results on demographics are discussed in the following section. The results include figures and tables highlighting the ethnicity demographic profile, job profiles of the respondents, qualification profiles of the respondents, gender profiles of the respondents, age of the respondents, citizenships of the respondents, and place of residence of the respondents and finally the section looks at the time worked of the respondents.

Figure 4.1 Ethnicity of the respondents



Out of the 151 respondents, 125 (82.78%) were African. Distribution on the race of the respondents was requested because this would indicate the common culture of the respondents. This is vital because it will assist the researcher in understanding the perception of the respondents on the dominant social activity pursued in the area. Mafikeng is a former Bantustand, which explains the high number of African respondents. The high number of African responses may have a bias towards the African perception on the study. Suffice to say, in a country as South Africa sport has the ability to harmonise racial or ethnic differences (Cornelissen, 2007).

Table 4.1 Occupation of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Director	12	7.9	7.9	7.9
Manager	37	24.5	24.5	32.5
Supervisor	31	20.5	20.5	53.0
Other	71	47.0	47.0	100.0

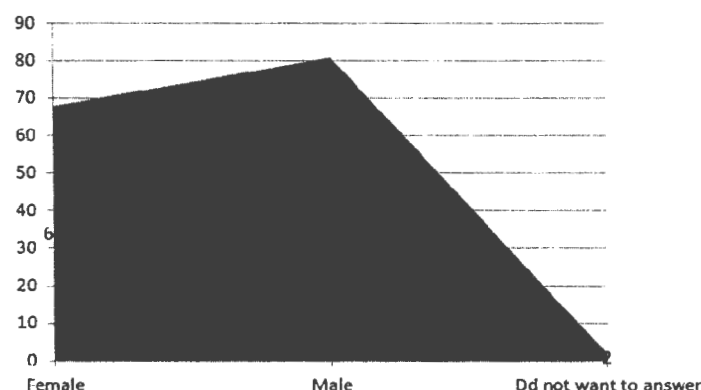
The majority of the respondents fell within the unclassified or other occupation distribution. This implies that most of the respondents chose not to reveal their respective ranks in their Departments or organisations. The intended survey sample was aimed at respondents who were in positions of authority. This was therefore targeted at directors, managers or supervisors. It was assumed that people in these positions were able to articulate the role of sport tourism in the Mafikeng area in association with the relevant Departments dealing with sport, tourism or social activities. The results were scattered across the different job levels within the organisations.

Figure 4.2 Qualifications of the respondents

Out of the 151 respondents, the majority of the respondents 61(40.40%) indicated that there were in position of a degree qualification. The aim of the question was to find out the level of comprehension the respondents had on the topic being asked. It is expected that the higher a respondent's qualification, the better understanding they would have concerning the topic. The results showed that most of the respondents are highly educated. This will be an advantage for the current research being undertaken and for future research in connection with the role of sport tourism to the economic activity of Mafikeng. Skills continue to daunt South Africa in terms of development. This was observed by Kaplan

(2004) who asserts the lack of an integrated and co-ordinated approach to tourism skills advancement inhibits the potential of skills development to impact positively on development in South Africa and on the transformation of tourism (Kaplan, 2004).

Figure 4.3 Gender of the respondents



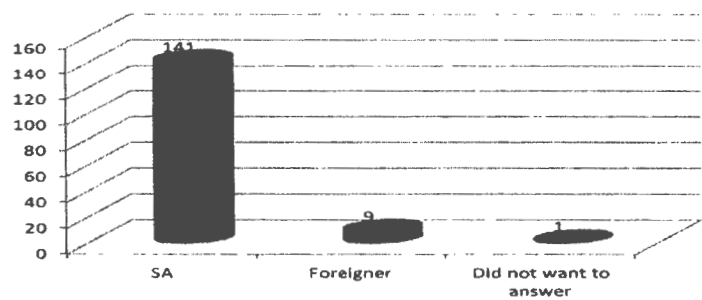
Out of the 151 respondents, the results indicated that there were 81 (53.64%) male and 68 (45.03%) female. The difference in the gender is nearly even. This implies that organisations have an equal employment policy. This may be because of Government initiatives that are promoting gender equality especially of women in employment. Certain sporting or social activities are mainly restricted to gender. Therefore the results are encouraging because views from both gender are well represented concerning the role of sport tourism on the economic activities of Mafikeng from both sides.

Table 4.2 Classification occupation of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1.00	92	60.9	60.9	60.9
2.00	59	39.1	39.1	100.0

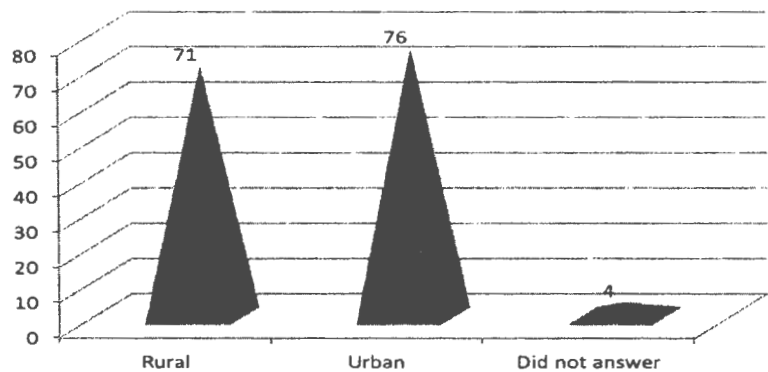
The occupation of respondents was divided into managerial and non-managerial. The results show that there were 92 (60.9%) respondents who fell in the managerial category, while there were 59 (39.1%) who fell in the non-managerial category. The managerial category included supervisors, managers and directors. It was the researcher's intention to target respondents who were in decision-making positions. Respondents in this category are able to articulate more to sport tourism can play to the economic activity of Mafikeng.

Figure 4.4 Citizenship of the respondents



Out of the 150 respondents, the majority 142 (94.03%) of the respondents were brought up in South Africa, with only 8 (5.30%) indicating that they were brought up outside South Africa. The importance of this question was to develop whether they were respondents who were not familiar with the South African social and environmental situation. The result implies that most of the respondents are familiar with the prevailing situation of the social and environmental conditions. A foreign perception would have however added flair of foreign best practice.

Figure 4.5 Geographic place of abode of the respondents

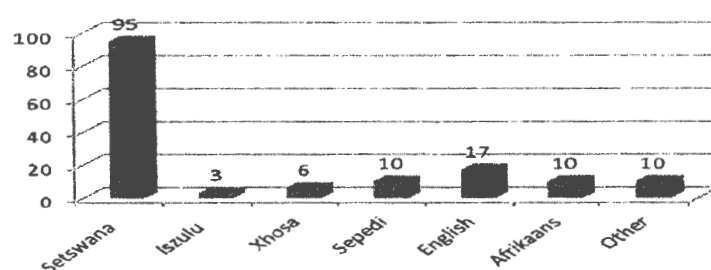


Out of the 151 respondents, the results indicated that there were 79 (52.31%) were from respondents brought up in the urban area, while 71 (47.02%) indicated they were brought up in rural areas. The difference of the two residences of the respondents is insignificant. Availability of facilities and infrastructure, such as sporting amenities, differs between the urban and the rural areas. The rural areas are mostly lagging behind the urban areas. While Mafikeng is considered a rural area, it was encouraging to discover that most of the respondents indicated that they came from urban settings. This result will deliver a fair representation from both areas and the perception towards sport tourism.

Table 4.3 Years service of the respondents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-5 yrs	70	46.4	46.4	46.4
6-10 yrs	48	31.8	31.8	78.1
11-15 yrs	16	10.6	10.6	88.7
16+ yrs	17	11.3	11.3	100.0

From the 151 respondents, the majority of the respondents 68 (45.03%) indicated they had been in employment for a period between 1 and 5 years. This was followed by respondents 48 (31.79%) who indicated they had been in employment for a period between 6 and 10 years. The results showed a scattered of levels of employment at all levels. It would be expected that most employees in the low ranks like supervisors fell in the 1 to 5 year experience while the higher ranks of directors and managers fell in the higher years of experience. The number of years in employment will add value concerning the respondent's understanding of the role played and the impact of sport tourism in Mafikeng. On the other hand employees who worked between 1 and 5 years would be expected to bring in fresh ideas with regard to the development of sport tourism. The human element will contribute to sustainable sport tourism in terms of skills and management. To reach this potential in contributing to socio-economic development then it requires a sufficiently skilled workforce to benefit from the job and business opportunities presented by tourism activities, such as sport tourism (Kaplan, 2004).

Figure 4.6 Language of the respondents

From the 151 respondents, 92 (60.93%) were Setswana speaking. Mafikeng is a predominantly Setswana region, therefore the response confirm this. Distribution on the common language spoken was requested because this would indicate the common culture

of the respondents. This is important because it will assist the researcher in understanding the perception of the respondents on the dominant social activity pursued in the area. This exemplifies the issue of how local culture can be affected or not affected by sport tourism through visiting tourists bringing foreign cultures. Furthermore, achievement of sustainable sport tourism cannot be without the actual involvement of the hosting communities (Ntloko & Swart, 2008).

Table 4.4 Knowledge of the Respondents of Sport tourism

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	138	91.4	91.4	91.4
No	13	8.6	8.6	100.0

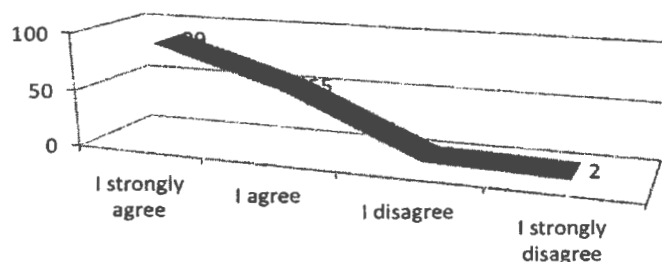
Out of the 151 respondents, most 138 (91.4%) of the respondents indicated that they understood what sport tourism was. There were only 13 (8.9%) indicated that they did not have an idea about what sport tourism was. The results were encouraging considering that no prompts were given to any of the respondents. This indicates the importance attached to sport tourism with the communities. This is in line with the theory advanced in the literature review which states that tourism has a massive social, political and environmental impact on global, national and local locations, which in turn advances matters of community relations and social responsibility (L'Etang *et al.*, 2006).

4.4 Frequency Tables for Sport Tourism

The following section looks at the frequencies of occurrences using figures and tables. Included in the section are frequencies on the response of the contribution of sport tourism to development; response on the ability of sport tourism to solve different issues such as racism; response on the link between sport tourism and negative issues such as environmental problems. Other frequencies look at the response on the ability of sport tourism leading to negative issues such as resource problems; response on whether sport tourism can lead to financial problems; response on whether sport tourism events lead to negative effects; response on whether sport tourism can help develop infrastructure in Mafikeng. The section has frequencies that look at the response on whether the sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng may help host mega events such as the FIFA World Cup or the Olympics; response on whether there is any need for new sport tourism facilities in

Mafikeng or whether the sports facilities in Mafikeng are adequate and whether the facilities are well maintained. Frequencies included show the response on whether the sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng are adequately marketed. Lastly the section has a frequency showing response on whether sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng cater for the disabled.

Figure 4.7 Do respondents think sport tourism can contribute to development



Of the 151 respondents the majority think that sport tourism can contribute to development, where 89 (58.94%) indicated that they strongly agreed and 55 (36.42%) agreed. This may be a misconception arising out of the desire of many to have development of any kind happening within Mafikeng. As South Africa hosts the FIFA World Cup, many have seen the developments that have been associated with hosting cities. This assumption is supported by theory advanced in the literature review, which indicates that cities staging major sports events have a unique opportunity to market themselves to the world (Gratton *et al.*, 2005). Harnessing such economic swings can have significant potential for areas that are seeking to regenerate their local economies because of economic change or marginalisation (Binns & Nel, 2002).

Figure 4.8 Do respondents think sport tourism can solve different issues such as racism



Of the 151 respondents, 94 (62.25%) indicated that sport tourism can solve different issues such as racism. There were 57 (37.75%) who were of the view that sport tourism cannot

help solve racism. The result is encouraging considering that the majority answered in the affirmative. However, the number who think otherwise (no matter how small the number) presents a matter of concern. This may have resulted from misconceptions because sport on its own has little racism. South Africa comes from a background of high racial differences. Sport is a unifier and has the ability to harmonise racial or ethnic differences (Cornelissen, 2007). It would therefore be of benefit to encourage inter racial sporting activities that can further unit race difference.

Figure 4.9 Do respondents think sport tourism can lead to negative issues such as environmental problems



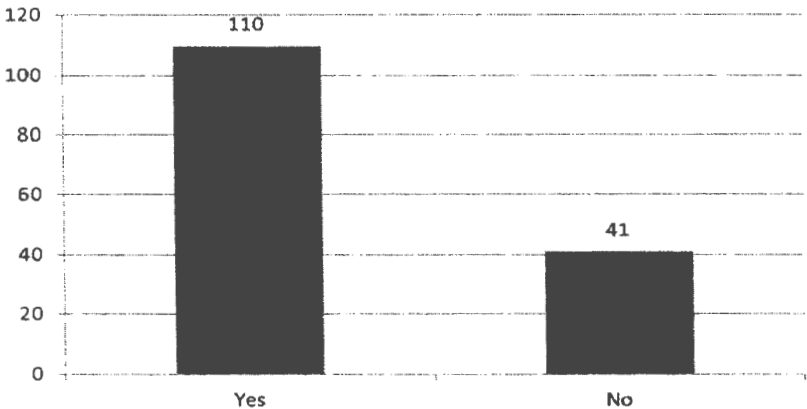
The results revealed that 90 (59.6%) of the respondents think sport tourism can lead to negative issues. There were 61 (40.4%) respondents who think otherwise. Common environmental concerns that can arise from sport tourism include littering, noise, overcrowding and radical environmental concerns arising out of clearing of land to allow building of sporting infrastructure. Other environmental concerns involve the displacement of human allowing for the development of sporting infrastructure. To avoid negative environmental effects of sport tourism, planning must conform and involve the hosting communities.

Figure 4.10 Do respondents think sport tourism can lead to negative issues such as resource problems



Of the 151 respondents, the majority 123 (81.46%) think sport tourism can lead to negative issues such as resource problems. There were 28 (18.54%) of the respondents who thought otherwise. Major resource problems include financing infrastructure development in readiness for hosting sporting events. These include building of infrastructure like roads, stadia and accommodation. There is high cost associated with this kind of development. This may present a high opportunity cost of capital especially in a developing nation. The cost of building a new stadium does not portray the amount of money required to build the facility but rather the value to society from the same amount of capital spent on the next best community project (Pillay & Bass, 2008).

Figure 4.11 Do respondents think sport tourism can lead to financial problems



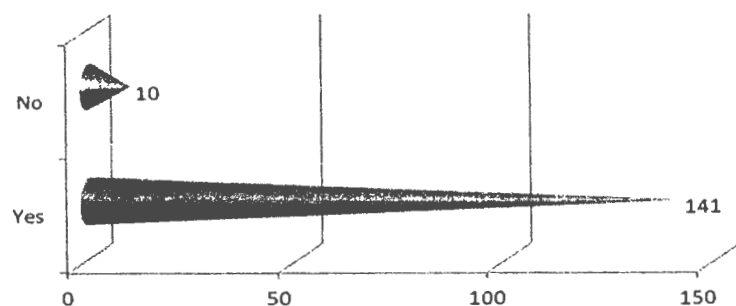
Of the 151 respondents, the majority 110 (72.85%) think sport tourism can lead to financial problems. The other 41(27.15%) did not think sport tourism can lead to financial problems. The size of the sporting event will normally dictate the kind of financial commitment required. Small or regular in contrast to mega or hall mark events are sport events that have negligible bidding expenses, little to no infrastructure development costs, a minimal burden on public funds, and a limited impact on local residents (Higham 1999). Hallmark events frequently result in enormous debts for host communities, likelihood of corruption during the bid process (Jennings, 1996). Mega-events may not be effective regional economic development vehicles in transition economies Humphreys and Prokopowicz (2007 as cited in Pillay & Bass, 2008). Small scale-sports events might result in effects that are positive for host communities (Higham 1999 as cited in Gibson, Willming, & Holdnak, 2003).

Table 4.5 Sport tourism events lead to negative effects

	#	%	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
I strongly agree	32	21.2	21.2	21.2
I agree	57	37.7	37.7	58.9
I disagree	38	25.2	25.2	84.1
I strongly disagree	23	15.2	15.2	99.3
I do not want to answer	1	.7	.7	100.0

The majority of the 151 respondents were of the view that Sport tourism events lead to negative effects. There were 57 (37.7%) who strongly agreed and 38 (25.2%) who disagreed. Some of the negative effects, other than environmental and financial effects discussed above include social and cultural effects. Sport tourism has an effect of diluting cultural fibre of hosting communities. Some influences include the increase of negative vices such as prostitution and crime. Sport and tourism are key elements of today's culture and exerts a very specific influence on the behaviour of present day society (Kettler, 2002). Mega and hallmark events often lead to the dislodgment of local residents because of new infrastructural improvements (Hall & Hodges, 1996; Hiller, 1998; Olds, 1998).

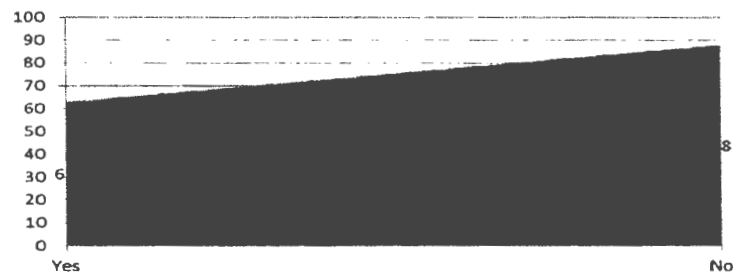
Figure 4.12 Sport tourism can help develop infrastructure in Mafikeng



Of the 151 respondents most 141 (93.38%) indicated that sport tourism can help develop infrastructure in Mafikeng. There were 10 (6.6%) who thought otherwise. As South Africa hosts the FIFA 2010 World Cup, it has been evident that host cities have experienced much development in infrastructure. This may have influenced the perception of most of the respondents. The evidence in South Africa shows that sport tourism has the potential to

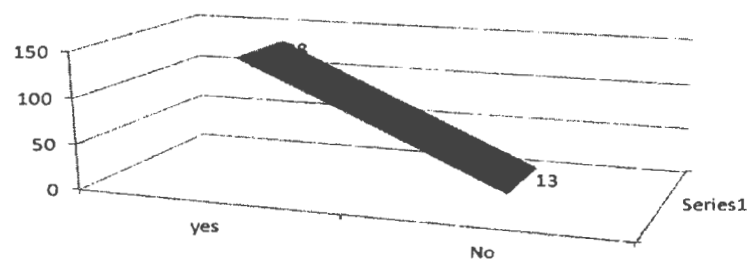
develop infrastructure. Economic benefits associated with sport tourism include construction or renovation of facilities (Lamont & Dowell, 2008). Great sport events improve tourism infrastructures such as parks, jogging areas, sport equipment, public transportation, highways, tourist attractions and airports (Esfahani *et al.*, 2009).

Figure 4.13 Sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng may help host mega events such as the FIFA World Cup or the Olympics



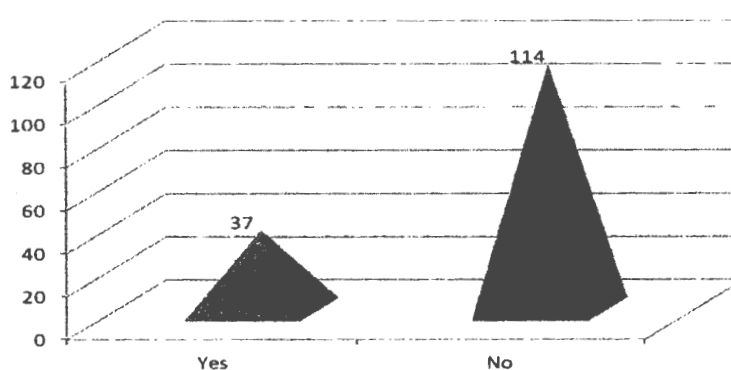
Of the 151 respondents, 88 (58.28%) indicated that sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng may not help host mega events such as the FIFA World Cup or the Olympics; 63 (41.72%) respondents indicated otherwise. These results represented a fair outcome and appeared realistic. Mafikeng is the Provincial capital of the North West provincial, which would normal place the city in a position to host most major sporting events. None of the FIFA 2010 World Cup games will be hosted by the city; not even training matches. This emanates from the poor sporting infrastructure currently available. It is considered that the development of international standard sporting facilities and related infrastructure upgrades create a head start for bidding of other major events (Weed & Bull, 2004). The number of people who responded in the negative may feel there are other factors that can dissuade the hosting of a major sporting event in Mafikeng like its remoteness.

Figure 4.14 Need for new sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng



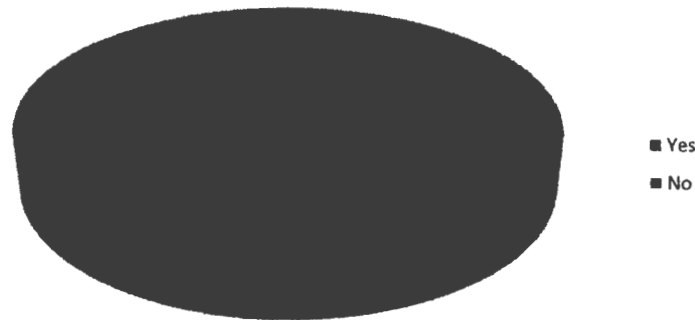
Of the 151 respondents, 138 (91.39%) indicated the need for new sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng, while 13 (8.61%) indicated otherwise. This is in contrast to the result above (Figure 4.13), which suggested the lack of need for sport tourism facilities. The reasoning behind this anomaly could be that the respondents were of the view that the facilities in Mafikeng are adequate, which may be far from the truth. The other rational explanation would be that the respondents feel they need to have new sport tourism for use for local tourism or for social welfare. The economy of Mafikeng is driven by Government employment or survival through grants, which is rural, with a poor population. Mafikeng would do well with the promotion of new economic growth activities, predominantly in the service sector such as tourism (Binns, and Nel, 2002).

Figure 4.15 Adequate sports facilities in Mafikeng



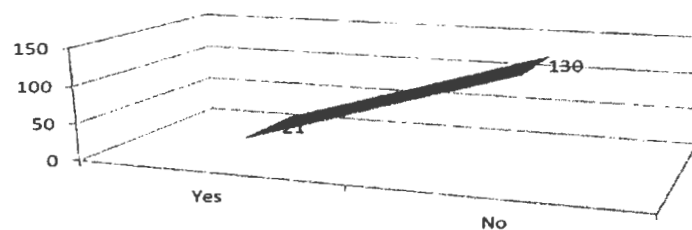
Of the 151 respondents, 114 (75.5%) indicated that Mafikeng does not have adequate sports facilities in Mafikeng, while 37 (24.5%) were of the view that the facilities were adequate. The municipality owns most of the sporting facilities in Mafikeng. There is only one multi-purpose stadium. The city has an 18 hole golf course and four gymnasiums. Most of these facilities lay in derelict or abandoned because of little or no activity. A plausible reason for the contradicting response behind the need for world class sporting facilities, indicated above, is the need for sporting facilities that first can accommodate the locals before they can think of allow outsiders in. The economic depression of the city would corrupt many to assume that more needs to be done to resuscitate or revitalise the economy other than through sport tourism alone.

Figure 4.16 Facilities in Mafikeng well maintained



The response indicated that out of the 151 respondents, most 124 (82.12%), were of the opinion that sporting facilities in Mafikeng are not well maintained. This result concurs with the assumption outlined in 4.15 above concerning the state of the sporting facilities. A plausible reason for the abandoning of the existing sporting facilities arises out of the lack of sporting activity in the city. The city should do more to market itself as a host venue for sporting activities such as football or rugby. Mafikeng lies on the border with Botswana and therefore is well placed to hold international sporting events between South Africa and Botswana. This can only be achieved through marketing and through the development of a positive image as a sporting city. To inspire images of individual cities, municipal authorities and affiliated agencies need to carefully selected images to further a city's tourism ambitions (Smith, 2005).

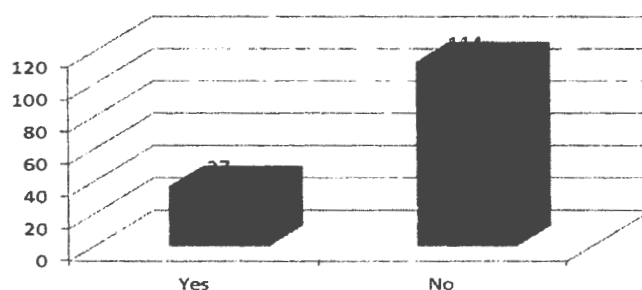
Figure 4.17 The sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng are adequately marketed



Of the 151 respondents, 130 (86%) indicated that they did not feel the sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng are adequately marketed. Most of the sporting facilities in Mafikeng belong to the municipality. The few private owned sporting facilities are located away from the majority of the population. The municipality has no deliberate policies that will encourage people to participate in sport thereby excluding them from the mainstay of sport

tourism. Communities and development organisations are increasingly seeing tourism as a livelihood option. There are many initiatives to support community tourism, including promotion of joint ventures (Ashley & Jones, 2001).

Figure 4.18 Sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng cater for the disabled



Of the 151 respondents, 114 (75.5%) indicated that sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng do not cater for the disabled, while 37 (24.5%) indicated otherwise. Most of the sporting facilities in Mafikeng do not have adapted facilities that will allow disabled people to participate in sport. As stated above, if any facilities or resorts catered for such people, then marketing of such facilities remains poor. Establishing sporting facilities that will cater for the disabled will be in line with social responsibility and community development. Tourism has a massive social, political and environmental impact on global, national and local locations, which in turn advances matters of community relations and social responsibility (L'Etang *et al.*, 2006).

4.5 Measures of Association

The following section looks at the correlation of the data presented. To ascertain authenticity of the correlation, the mean, standard deviations and p-values have also been discussed in the section. Correlation analysis is a technique that describes the relationship between variables and measures the extent to which a change in one variable is attributed to a change in another. Correlation often measured as a correlation coefficient indicates the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two random variables (Welman & Kruger, 2001: 209-212). S: (n) correlation coefficient, coefficient of correlation, correlation (a statistic representing how closely two variables co-vary; it can vary from -1 (perfect negative correlation) through 0 (no correlation) to +1 (perfect positive correlation). Below is an indication of correlation ranges:

Small	0.1 to 0.3
Medium	0.3 to 0.5
Large	0.5 to 1

For the purpose of this study, correlation that is above the value of 0.5 will be considered to show a strong correlation. The p-value is the probability that the current result would have been found if the correlation coefficient would be zero.

Pearson correlation, assumes that the two variables are measured on at least interval scales, and it determines the extent to which values of the two variables are "proportional" to each other. The value of correlation (i.e., correlation coefficient) does not depend on the specific measurement units used; for example, the correlation between height and weight will be identical regardless of whether inches and pounds, or centimetres and kilograms are used as measurement units. Proportional means linearly related; that is, the correlation is high if it can be summarised by a straight line (sloped upwards or downwards).

The significance level calculated for each correlation is a primary source of information about the reliability of the correlation. As explained before, the significance of a correlation coefficient of a particular magnitude will change depending on the size of the sample from which it was computed. The test of significance is based on the assumption that the distribution of the residual values (i.e., the deviations from the regression line) for the dependent variable y follows the normal distribution, and that the variability of the residual values is the same for all values of the independent variable x. It is impossible to formulate precise recommendations based on those Monte Carlo results, but many researchers follow a rule of thumb that if your sample size is 50 or more then serious biases are unlikely, and if your sample size is over 100 then you should not be concerned at all with the normality assumptions.

Table 4.6 Pearson Correlation

		RACE	OCCUPATION	QUALIFI	SEX	AGE	CITIZEN	LOCATIO	SERVICE	LANGUA
RACE	Correlation	1	-.217**	.057	.133	.005	.089	.309**	.176*	.459**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.007	.490	.103	.949	.278	.000	.031	.000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151

OCCUPATION	Correlation	-.217**	1	.110	-.108	-.066	-.063	-.186*	-.226**	-.164*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007		.177	.187	.423	.445	.023	.005	.045
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
QUALIFI	Correlation	.057	.110	1	.013	.134	.043	.036	.080	-.087
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.490	.177		.871	.102	.599	.658	.332	.287
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
Gender	Correlation	.133	-.108	.013	1	-.006	.125	.109	.079	.135
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.103	.187	.871		.946	.125	.182	.333	.097
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
AGE	Correlation	.005	-.066	.134	-.006	1	-.014	.153	-.030	-.085
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.949	.423	.102	.946		.862	.060	.718	.301
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
CITIZEN	Correlation	.089	-.063	.043	.125	-.014	1	.208*	.150	.307**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.278	.445	.599	.125	.862		.010	.066	.000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
LOCATIO	Correlation	.309**	-.186*	.036	.109	.153	.208*	1	.074	.310**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.023	.658	.182	.060	.010		.366	.000
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
SERVICE	Correlation	.176*	-.226**	.080	.079	-.030	.150	.074	1	.200*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.031	.005	.332	.333	.718	.066	.366		.014
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
LANGUA	Correlation	.459**	-.164*	-.087	.135	-.085	.307**	.310**	.200*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.045	.287	.097	.301	.000	.000	.014	
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151

	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
SPORT	Correlation	-.025	.003	.150	.031	-.052	-.079	.033	-.030	-.103
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.763	.969	.066	.707	.524	.337	.686	.713	.208
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
TOURISM	Correlation	.220**	-.142	.142	.021	.135	.179*	.241**	.067	.141
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	.081	.082	.799	.098	.028	.003	.411	.084
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
RACISM	Correlation	.083	-.091	-.170*	.050	.188*	-.007	.032	.076	-.111
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.312	.265	.037	.541	.021	.929	.695	.355	.173
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
ENVIRON	Correlation	.137	-.240**	-.109	.043	.254**	.216**	.100	.136	.076
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.092	.003	.182	.600	.002	.008	.221	.096	.351
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
RESOURC	Correlation	-.021	-.048	.022	.106	.002	.177*	.107	-.056	.062
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.795	.559	.785	.196	.980	.029	.193	.494	.450
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
FINANCE	Correlation	.087	-.025	-.025	.055	-.092	.210**	.196*	.111	.102
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.288	.759	.760	.504	.260	.010	.016	.177	.212
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
NEG_EFFE	Correlation	-.025	.100	-.013	-.038	-.088	-.070	-.019	-.051	-.029
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.763	.221	.874	.647	.282	.393	.814	.534	.724
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
INFRASTR	Correlation	.069	-.070	.027	-.032	-.050	.213**	.070	.115	.117
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.402	.394	.745	.696	.546	.009	.394	.160	.153
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151

FACILITY	Correlation	.038	-.170*	.073	-.040	.237**	-.067	.050	.103	.007
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.645	.037	.371	.630	.003	.416	.541	.210	.936
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
NEED	Correlation	.071	-.160	-.049	-.150	.093	.004	-.053	-.101	.065
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.383	.050	.553	.066	.256	.957	.517	.218	.428
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
SPORTS	Correlation	-.114	-.054	-.095	.083	-.017	.146	.101	-.045	-.039
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.162	.511	.248	.309	.835	.074	.218	.587	.633
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
MAINTEN	Correlation	.025	-.064	-.256**	.054	-.030	.085	.127	-.015	.103
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.760	.435	.002	.510	.714	.297	.120	.853	.208
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
MARKET	Correlation	.080	-.106	-.037	.030	.047	.103	.164*	.138	.036
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.327	.196	.654	.714	.564	.208	.045	.091	.657
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151
DISABLED	Correlation	.149	-.099	-.023	-.005	.078	.038	.073	.125	.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.068	.224	.783	.951	.344	.646	.375	.128	.884
	N	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151	151

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

4.5.1 Correlation between race and position occupied

The correlation between race and position occupied is -.217, a negative correlation between two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. The chances are good (99%), which implies that Africans will occupy a higher position. This is in accordance with the present Government policy that encourages Africans to occupy positions of high authority. The higher people go in the organisation, the higher the benefits they get. This will allow them to venture more in sport because of the increased

disposable income. The human element will contribute to sustainable sport tourism in terms of skills and management (Kaplan, 2004).

4.5.2 Correlation between race and location

The correlation between race and location is 0.309 a positive and medium correlation between two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. The chances are good (99%), which implies that more African people will stick longer to their local place where they are staying. In other words will not move around and this could be used by sports club to get more members. If people stayed longer, they might join sports clubs and venture into other sports other than soccer like golf and rugby.

4.5.3 Correlation between race and location

There is a small correlation of 0.176 between race and service in a department. It means that black people may stay longer in a governmental job. This is because other races will have to look for promotion in other places. This situation arises mainly because of Government policies such as the Black Economic Empowerment policy. African people will find themselves in high positions that will attract high incentives and benefits. This will afford many with disposable income that will allow them to participate in leisure activities such as sport. More people that are African will be able to join sporting clubs as well.

4.5.4 Correlation between Africans languages and the race

The correlation between Africans languages and the race is about 0.459 a positive and weak correlation between two variables with a 99% certainty. One would expect that people will speak more English if there is a culture of sport tourism but this shows that people are still inclined to speak their own home language and this will for sure influence sport tourism. There are eleven official languages in South Africa. This implies that most regions communicate in different languages common to their regions with very little allowance for other languages. This can be an obstacle for the development of sport tourism considering that language is a critical factor for communication between people of different origins.

4.5.5 Correlation between position and the location

The correlation between race and position occupied is $-.186$, a negative correlation between two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. The chances are good (99%), which implies that higher positions were occupied by respondents in the location. Mafikeng is a Provincial capital of the North West province. Most of the administration functions of the North West province are carried out in Mafikeng. This means that people of authority within the NWPG will be located in Mafikeng. Positions occupied include senior manager and director positions. People in these positions will have authority to exercise with regards the promotion of sport tourism for economic growth.

4.5.6 Correlation between position and service

There is a small correlation of $-.226$ between race and service in a department. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. It implies that people in higher position will stay longer in a job. The situation will not favour younger employees just joining because most of the position will be filled with older employees who will tend to stay longer. This also implies that the older employees will have more disposable income than the newer ones, suggesting that the employees with higher positions will have the propensity of joining sports clubs and thereby participating more in sports such as golf or squash.

4.5.7 Correlation between position and language spoken

There is a negative and weak correlation of $-.164$ between race and service in a department. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. It implies that people in higher position will speak more of their vernacular languages than common languages like English. There are eleven official languages in South Africa. Many regions communicate in languages common to their regions with very little allowance for other languages. This applies to most places of work, where the common languages of communication or command will be the regional vernacular languages.

4.5.8 Correlation between qualification and age

The correlation between qualification and age is approximately .134, a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. There is no statistically significant linear correlation between the two variables. This suggests that the qualification of employees do not have significant impact on the perception of the role of sport tourism to the economic activity of Mafikeng.

4.5.9 Correlation between citizenship and location

The correlation between citizenship and location is .208 a positive and weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. It implies that the citizenship of respondents mattered. South Africa has very stringent immigration requirements, which will normally favour people with skills to offer or with ample resources to invest. This has led to a rigorous screening of people seeking to leave in the country. This may have a negative effect on sport tourism considering that the opportunity of learning from best practices of other expatriates may be foregone. Understanding race differences becomes vital for the promotion of tourism. According to Shaw and Williams (1994 as *cited* in Weed & Bull, 2004), there are negative effects of the socio-cultural impacts of sport tourism. These include stereotyping of the host and guest and xenophobia, where the host tends to hate the tourists even before they arrive at a particular destination (1994 as *cited* in Weed & Bull, 2004).

4.5.10 Correlation between citizenship and length of service

The correlation between citizenship and length of service is .150 a positive and weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This implies that citizenship is a factor with regards to the length of service. Locals will stay longer in employment services than foreigners will. Most job opportunities are reserved for locals. Where foreigners are employed they normally are required to service specific number of years under contract. This entitles most citizens to have permanent jobs that will allow the certainty to join clubs and thereby venture in sporting activities. As stated above, understanding race differences is vital for the promotion of tourism. According to Shaw and Williams (1994 as *cited* in Weed & Bull, 2004), there are negative

effects of the socio-cultural impacts of sport tourism. These include stereotyping of the host and guest and xenophobia, where the host tends to hate the tourists even before they arrive at a particular destination (1994 as *cited* in Weed & Bull 2004).

4.5.11 Correlation between citizenship and language spoken

The correlation between citizenship and language spoken is 0.307 a positive and medium correlation between two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. The chances are good (99%), which implies that citizenship is a factor with regard to the language spoken. In as much as there is a high diversity of languages spoken in South Africa, most foreigners will opt to speak in a common language usually English. Many foreigners are inclined to learn the local languages to enhance their communication abilities. The integration of locals with foreigners allows the sharing of best practices in activities such sport and culture. Citizenship and language can be synchronised by understanding challenges communities face with foreign visitors. Understanding race differences becomes vital for the promotion of tourism. Stereotyping of the host and guest and xenophobia, where the host tends to hate the tourists even before they arrive at a particular destination (1994 as *cited* in Weed & Bull, 2004).

4.5.12 Correlation between race and tourism

The correlation between race and tourism is 0.220 a positive and weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This suggests that race does have an influence tourism. Mostly tourism has been seen as an activity limited to foreign tourists. Tourism has been repackaged to allow both international and local level development both at national and local levels significantly (Pillay & Bass, 2008). This has increased participation of local tourists.

4.5.13 Correlation between tourism and occupation

There is a negative and weak correlation of -0.142 between tourism and occupation. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This suggests that there is a relationship between tourism and the position occupied. Tourism has been seen as a luxury and therefore limited to foreign tourists. The growth of the middle-income group in South

Africa has seen an increased participation of local tourists especially those occupying middle income earning positions. This arises because of the increase in disposable income that this segment of the population has enjoyed. Tourism has significantly been repackaged to allow participation at both international and local levels (Pillay & Bass, 2008).

4.5.14 Correlation between tourism and citizenship

The correlation between tourism and citizenship is .150 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This implies that citizenship with regards tourism. Most tourism activities have been designed to cater for foreign tourists. This arises from the assumption that foreign tourists are more attractive than the local tourists are because of the foreign exchange potential. Tourists that visit destinations are compelled to buy other goods and services, which is different from other export earning opportunities (Kaplan, 2004).

4.5.15 Correlation between tourism and location

The correlation between tourism and location is .241 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This suggests that there is a relationship between tourism and location. Tourist location is influenced by the image the location has in the mind of the tourist. To inspire images of individual cities, municipal authorities and affiliated agencies often promote carefully selected images to further a city's tourism ambitions (Smith, 2005).

4.4.16 Correlation between tourism and language

The correlation between tourism and language is .150 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This implies that language plays a role in the impact of tourism. Tourists will be more comfortable to visit places where they are able to communicate with their hosts. To achieve this, it becomes imperative that skills are developed in order to attain competitiveness internationally (Kaplan, 2004).

4.5.17 Correlation between racism and qualification

There is a negative and weak correlation of $-.170$ between racism and qualification. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. It implies racism is a factor concerning qualification. South Africa comes from a background of separate education systems. Recent Government policies such as the Affirmative Action policy encourage the development of African students over other races. It is believed that this will narrow the gap between educated and the uneducated racially.

4.5.18 Correlation between racism and age

The correlation between racism and age is $.188$ a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. South Africa comes from a background of separate education systems. Recent Government policies such as the Affirmative Action policy encourage the development of African students over other races. It is believed that this will narrow the gap between educated and the uneducated racially.

4.5.19 Correlation between environmental concerns and race

The correlation between environmental concerns and race is $.188$ a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. Tourism has its advantages despite its numerous advantages. These include its impact on the environmental and socio-culture (Neto, 2003). The correlation indicates that this concern is true across all ages.

4.5.20 Correlation between concerns environment and occupation

The correlation between concerns environment and occupation is $.240$ a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This implies that the environmental concerns are true at all levels of occupation. Tourism has its advantages despite its numerous advantages. These include its impact on the environmental and socio-culture (Neto, 2003).

Environmental concerns involve noise and littering. Other concerns include the clearing of land to pave way for infrastructure, especially for sport tourism.

4.5.21 Correlation between concerns environment and age

The correlation between concerns environment and age is .254 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This implies that the environmental concerns are true at all levels of respondents' ages. Tourism has its advantages despite its numerous advantages. These include its impact on the environmental and socio-culture (Neto, 2003). Environmental concerns involve noise and littering. Other concerns include the clearing of land to pave way for infrastructure, especially for sport tourism.

4.5.22 Correlation between concerns environment and citizenship

The correlation between concerns environment and citizenship is .216 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This implies that the environmental concerns are true at far all type of citizens. Tourism has its advantages despite its numerous advantages. These include its impact on the environmental and socio-culture (Neto, 2003). Environmental concerns involve noise and littering. Other concerns include the clearing of land to pave way for infrastructure, especially for sport tourism.

4.5.23 Correlation between resources and citizenship

The correlation between resources and citizenship is .177 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This implies that respondents of all citizenship acknowledge the scarcity of resources. Governments of developing countries have struggled for many years to promote economic growth in places like mountainous, landlocked areas inhabited by ethnic minorities that are considered to be behind the mainstream national culture and economy (Wood, 1997) and maybe sport can help. Many of these areas are inconveniently located in relation to important trade centres, which limit such communities' ability to

compete with other regions in terms of productivity (Gee & Fayos-Sola, 1997 as *cited* in Nyaupane *et al.*, 2006).

4.5.24 Correlation between resources and citizenship

The correlation between resources and citizenship is .210 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This implies that the issue of finance is common to all respondents of all citizenship. Tourism has its advantages despite its numerous advantages. The justification to invest in sport tourism is the potential tangible and intangible benefits that accrue to the host community at large (Mules, 1998: 26 as *cited* in Gelan, 2003).

4.5.25 Correlation between resources and location

The correlation between resources and location is .196 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This implies that the issue of finance is common concern to all respondents from urban and rural locations. Tourism has its advantages despite its numerous advantages. The justification to invest in sport tourism is the potential tangible and intangible benefits that accrue to the host community at large (Mules, 1998:26 as *cited* in Gelan, 2003).

4.5.26 Correlation between infrastructure concerns and citizenship

The correlation between infrastructure concerns and citizenship is .213 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This implies that the concern for the lack of sport tourism infrastructure was a concern by respondents across all citizenship. Economic benefits associated with sport tourism include construction or renovation of facilities (Lamont & Dowell, 2008). Great sport events improve tourism infrastructures such as parks, jogging areas, sport equipment, public transportation, highways, tourist attractions and airports (Esfahani *et al.*, 2009).

4.5.27 Correlation between infrastructure concerns and length of service

The correlation between infrastructure concerns and length of service is .115 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This implies that the concern for the lack of sport tourism infrastructure was a concern by respondents with different lengths of service. Economic benefits associated with sport tourism include construction or renovation of facilities (Lamont & Dowell, 2008). Great sport events improve tourism infrastructures such as parks, jogging areas, sport equipment, public transportation, highways, tourist attractions and airports (Esfahani *et al.*, 2009).

4.5.28 Correlation between infrastructure concerns and language spoken

The correlation between infrastructure concerns and language spoken is .117 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This implies that the concern for the lack of sport tourism infrastructure was a concern by respondents with who spoken different languages. Economic benefits associated with sport tourism include construction or renovation of facilities (Lamont & Dowell, 2008). Great sport events improve tourism infrastructures such as parks, jogging areas, sport equipment, public transportation, highways, tourist attractions and airports (Esfahani *et al.*, 2009).

4.5.29 Correlation between facilities concerns and age

The correlation between facilities concerns and age is .237 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This implies that the concern for the lack of facilities was a concern by respondents across all ages. It is considered that the development of international standard sporting facilities and related infrastructure upgrades create a head start for bidding of other major events (Weed & Bull, 2004). Mafikeng would do well with the promotion of new economic growth activities, predominantly in the service sector such as tourism (Binns & Nel, 2002).

4.5.30 Correlation between facilities maintenance and qualifications

The correlation between facilities maintenance and qualifications is .256 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This implies that the concern for the lack of facilities maintenance was a concern by respondents of all qualifications. It is considered that the development of international standard sporting facilities and related infrastructure upgrades create a head start for bidding of other major events (Weed & Bull, 2004). Mafikeng would do well with the promotion of new economic growth activities, predominantly in the service sector such as tourism (Binns & Nel, 2002).

4.5.31 Correlation between marketing and location

The correlation between marketing and location is .164 a positive and very weak correlation between the two variables. According to criteria as set above, those correlations that are above the absolute value of 0.5 will be considered to have a strong relationship. This is significant at 99%. This implies that the concern for the lack of marketing of sport tourism facilities was a concern by respondents from the urban and respondents from the rural areas. The perception of tourism in the past has been as a social occurrence only related to individual leisure. This has been the view of many journalists, who have regarded tourism and travel as soft news. According to Deuschl (2006), the media interest in tourism has changed owing to commercial pressures.

4.6 ANOVA

ANOVA partitions the variability among all the values into one component that is due to variability among group means (due to the treatment) and another component that is due to variability within the groups (also called residual variation). Variability within groups (within the columns) is quantified as the sum of squares of the differences between each value and its group mean. This is the residual sum-of-squares. Variation among groups (due to treatment) is quantified as the sum of the squares of the differences between the group means and the grand mean (the mean of all values in all groups). Adjusted for the size of each group, this becomes the treatment sum-of-squares. Each sum-of-squares is associated with a certain number of degrees of freedom (df, computed from number of subjects and number of groups), and the mean square (MS) is computed by dividing the sum-of-squares by the appropriate number of degrees of freedom.

The F ratio is the ratio of two mean square values. If the null hypothesis is true, you expect F to have a value close to 1.0 most of the time. A large F ratio means that the variation among group means is more than you would expect to see by chance. You will see a large F ratio both when the null hypothesis is wrong (the data are not sampled from populations with the same mean) and when random sampling happened to end up with large values in some groups and small values in others. The P value is determined from the F ratio and the two values for degrees of freedom shown in the ANOVA table.

Table 4.7 ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
OCCUPATION	Between Groups	8.638	6	1.440	1.413	.213
	Within Groups	146.700	144	1.019		
	Total	155.338	150			
QUALIFI	Between Groups	4.225	6	.704	.602	.728
	Within Groups	168.477	144	1.170		
	Total	172.702	150			
SEX	Between Groups	3.840	6	.640	2.470	.026
	Within Groups	37.312	144	.259		
	Total	41.152	150			
AGE	Between Groups	1.530	6	.255	1.067	.385
	Within Groups	34.417	144	.239		
	Total	35.947	150			
CITIZEN	Between Groups	1.716	6	.286	3.928	.001
	Within Groups	10.483	144	.073		

	Total	12.199	150			
LOCATIO	Between Groups	7.524	6	1.254	4.783	.000
	Within Groups	37.748	144	.262		
	Total	45.272	150			
SERVICE	Between Groups	14.583	6	2.430	2.559	.022
	Within Groups	136.768	144	.950		
	Total	151.351	150			
LANGUA	Between Groups	219.594	6	36.599	11.710	.000
	Within Groups	450.075	144	3.126		
	Total	669.669	150			
SPORT	Between Groups	.074	6	.012	.150	.989
	Within Groups	11.807	144	.082		
	Total	11.881	150			
TOURISM	Between Groups	4.363	6	.727	1.895	.086
	Within Groups	55.253	144	.384		
	Total	59.616	150			
RACISM	Between Groups	2.040	6	.340	1.464	.195
	Within Groups	33.443	144	.232		
	Total	35.483	150			
ENVIRON	Between Groups	1.540	6	.257	1.061	.389
	Within Groups	34.818	144	.242		
	Total	36.358	150			

RESOURC	Between Groups	1.408	6	.233	1.579	.157
	Within Groups	21.400	144	.149		
	Total	22.808	150			
FINANCE	Between Groups	1.335	6	.222	1.123	.352
	Within Groups	28.533	144	.198		
	Total	29.868	150			
NEG_EFFE	Between Groups	4.264	6	.711	.698	.652
	Within Groups	146.703	144	1.019		
	Total	150.967	150			
INFRASTR	Between Groups	.455	6	.076	1.229	.295
	Within Groups	8.883	144	.062		
	Total	9.338	150			
FACILITY	Between Groups	.837	6	.140	.560	.762
	Within Groups	35.878	144	.249		
	Total	36.715	150			
NEED	Between Groups	1.118	6	.186	2.493	.025
	Within Groups	10.763	144	.075		
	Total	11.881	150			
SPORTS	Between Groups	.956	6	.159	.850	.533
	Within Groups	26.978	144	.187		
	Total	27.934	150			
MAINTEN	Between Groups	.800	6	.133	.625	.710
	Within Groups					
	Total					

	Within Groups	30.697	144	.213		
	Total	31.497	150			
MARKET	Between Groups	.671	6	.112	.926	.478
	Within Groups	17.408	144	.121		
	Total	18.079	150			
DISABLED	Between Groups	1.057	6	.176	.944	.466
	Within Groups	26.877	144	.187		
	Total	27.934	150			

The ANOVA between occupation groups shows an F-value of about 1.413 – close to 1 and this means that one would not expect such a large variation within the group. The null hypothesis that there would be no variation is therefore accepted. The other section showed F-values close to 1 as shown in the table above. The null hypotheses that there would be no variation are therefore accepted. The F-value for need is not close to one but still small. One might accept this. The F-value for language 11.710 and is not close to 1. The null hypothesis that there would be no variation is therefore not accepted.

4.7 Conclusion

The chapter provided results of the research using statistical methods. Tables, graphs, and statistics have been used to give the results of the survey. The data has also been presented as part of the chapter.

The analysis of the results revealed a correlation between race and tourism positive and very weak. There was a positive correlation between environmental concerns and other variables like age and citizenship, indicating that environmental concerns were true. Results revealed a positive correlation between infrastructure concerns and other variables like citizenship and length of service indicating that infrastructure concerns were true. Other results revealed a correlation between sport tourism facilities concerns and the age of respondents. Other facility concerns included the correlation between maintenance and

qualifications. There was a correlation between the lack of marketing and location of respondents.

The following chapter looks at the recommendations arranged in the order of significance to different stakeholders. The aim has been to guarantee easy comprehension of the recommendations, and to add value to existing literature by identifying gaps where new and further research can be conducted.

Chapter Five

Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1 Introduction

The importance of diversifying local economies away from the historic economic activities of mining and agriculture is being encouraged by the Government of South Africa. Tourism is an activity that has been (Binns and Nel, 2002). Sport tourism is seen as one such activity that will enhance the economic diversification of remote places like Mafikeng (Binns & Nel, 2002). The purpose of this study is to analyse sport tourism and the role it can play to the economic activity of Mafikeng.

This chapter consolidates the findings of the research, derived through analysing and interpreting of statistical data, which has been discussed in the previous section. The research questions pertaining to the role of sport tourism in the economic activity of the Mafikeng area are also answered.

5.2 Summary of the Study

Governments of developing countries have struggled for many years to promote economic growth in places that are considered to be behind the mainstream national culture and economy (Wood, 1997). A number of initiatives have thus been put in place by the South African government aimed at the diversification of the national and local economies (Binns & Nel, 2002). Sport has been used as an economic strategy and it has been observed that most of the cities following this strategy of using sport for economic regeneration (Gratton *et al.*, 2005 Jones, 2001). The use of sport in tourism can generate a competitive advantage for tourism (Sinclair, 2005).

The research was aimed at analyse sport tourism and the role it can play to the economic activity of Mafikeng. The study looks at the potential Mafikeng has in developing sport tourism as an economic activity. This is looked at with the backdrop of the current sporting infrastructure and the rationale of developing more facilities and infrastructure.

The study revealed that there was a positive correlation between environmental concerns and other variables like age and citizenship, indicating that environmental concerns were true. Results revealed a positive correlation between infrastructure concerns and other variables like citizenship and length of service indicating that infrastructure concerns were

true. Other results revealed a correlation between sport tourism facilities concerns and the age of respondents. Other facility concerns included the correlation between maintenance and qualifications. There was a correlation between the lack of marketing and location of respondents.

5.3 Response to Research Questions

The main findings of this research in relation to each of the research questions will now be discussed. Each of the questions is followed by a discussion of the findings relating to the question.

Does sport tourism have an impact on the role of the socio-economic activity of Mafikeng?

Sport tourism is a popular leisure experience and important economic activity (Ritchie & Adair, 2002 as *cited* in Bohlmann & Van Heerden, 2005). The economic significance of sport tourism resulting from economic benefits involve transportation, construction, and renovation of facilities, creation of employment, cultural exchanges, specific services and a range of commercial activity (Holder, 2003 as *cited* in Sinclair, 2005). Sport tourism events open up new opportunities for community economies and are additional source of employment and revenues (Kettler, 2002).

The results in section 4.6 shows that the majority of the respondents, where 89 (58.94%) indicated that they strongly agreed and 55 (36.42%) think that sport tourism can contribute to development. The results imply that sport tourism has an impact on the role of the economic activity of Mafikeng. Economic benefits associated with sport tourism include construction or renovation of facilities (Lamont & Dowell, 2008). Great sport events improve tourism infrastructures such as parks, jogging areas, sport equipment, public transportation, highways, tourist attractions and airports (Esfahani *et al.*, 2009). Sport tourism can contribute to the diversification of the economic activities of Mafikeng, which predominantly is supported by Government departments and activities. This is because Mafikeng is the provincial capital of the North West province (Binns & Nel, 2002).

On a social front the majority 94 (62.25%) of the respondents as shown in Section 4.7 indicated that sport tourism can solve different issues such as racism. There were 57 (37.75%) who were of the view that sport tourism cannot help solve racism. The result is encouraging considering that the majority answered in the affirmative.

Does sport tourism have negative or positive socio-economic effects on the town?

Sport tourism has an effect of diluting cultural fibre of hosting communities. Some influences include the increase of negative vices such as prostitution and crime. Sport and tourism are key elements of today's culture and exerts a very specific influence on the behaviour of present day society (Kettler, 2002). The majority of the respondents were of the view that sport tourism events lead to negative effects. There were 57 (37.7%) who strongly agreed and 38 (25.2%) who agreed that sport tourism events lead to negative effects concerning culture.

Ninety (59.6%) respondents think sport tourism can lead to negative issues concerning the environment. Environmental concerns that can arise from sport tourism include littering, noise, overcrowding and radical environmental concerns arising out of clearing of land to allow building of sporting infrastructure. Other environmental concerns involve the displacement of human allowing for the development of sporting infrastructure. Sport tourism may result in administrative glitches, traffic congestion, security breaches and over commercialisation (Hall, 1998).

The majority 123 (81.46%) of the respondents think sport tourism can lead to other negative issues such as resource problems. Major resource problems include financing infrastructure development in readiness for hosting sporting events. These include building of infrastructure like roads, stadia and accommodation facilities. There is high cost associated with this kind of development. This may present a high opportunity cost of capital especially in a developing nation (Pillay & Bass, 2008).

The majority 110 (72.85%) of the respondents think sport tourism can lead to financial problems. The size of the sporting event will normally dictate the kind of financial commitment required. Small or regular in contrast to mega or hall mark events are sport events that have negligible bidding expenses, little to no infrastructure development costs, a minimal burden on public funds, and a limited impact on local residents (Higham, 1999). Hallmark events frequently result in enormous debts for host communities, likelihood of corruption during the bid process (Jennings, 1996).

Can the sport tourism facilities available in Mafikeng host a mega-event or small event?

It is considered that the development of international standard sporting facilities and related infrastructure upgrades create a head start for bidding of other major events (Weed & Bull, 2004). Such facilities require high investments whereas regular sport events or small sporting events have negligible bidding expenses, little to no infrastructure development costs, a minimal burden on public funds, and a limited impact on local residents (Higham, 1999).

The majority of the respondents, 88 (58.28%) indicated that sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng may not help host mega events such as the FIFA World Cup or the Olympics. This result was affirmed by the fact that despite Mafikeng being the provincial capital of the North West, none of the FIFA 2010 World Cup games will be hosted in Mafikeng.

Further results indicated that the majority 114 (75.5%) indicated that Mafikeng does not have adequate sports facilities in Mafikeng, while 37 (24.5%) were of the view that the facilities were adequate. The municipality owns most of the sporting facilities in Mafikeng with a very few private owned facilities.

The results above imply that although Mafikeng may not have sport tourism facilities that can be used to host mega or hallmark events, it does have facilities that can host regular or small sport tourism events.

Are the current sport tourism facilities being used effectively?

For sport tourism to be successful, management is important, through the increased activity of 'event management' and is a fast growing professional field in which tourists constitute a potential market for planned events and the tourism industry has become a vital stakeholder in their success and attractiveness (Getz, 2008). Management of events raises issues for public relations concerns in relation to multi-cultural communication, ethics, safety, social responsibility and in some cases globalisation. Other public relations functional aspects that come into play include promotion and marketing support plus creating images of locations, in terms of activities and identities or lifestyles (L'Etang *et al.*, 2006).

The results showed that there were 130 (86%) indicated that they did not feel the sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng are adequately marketed. Most of the sporting facilities in Mafikeng belong to the municipality. The few private owned sporting facilities are located away from the majority of the population. The municipality has no deliberate policies that will encourage people to participate in sport. The majority 124 (82.12%) of the respondents, were of the opinion that sporting facilities in Mafikeng are not well maintained. To inspire images of individual cities, municipal authorities and affiliated agencies need to carefully selected images to further a city's tourism ambitions (Smith, 2005).

5.4 Managerial Guidelines

From the results of this study the following guidelines can be given to departments

- The North-West Sport and Recreation Department policy makers together with the Tourism and Economic Development must ensure that sport tourism contributes to the enhancement of the economy of Mafikeng. According to the findings of this survey research, 58.94% of the respondents indicated that sport tourism can contribute to the enhancement of the economy of Mafikeng. This is in agreement with Esfahani *et al.*, (2009) who states that, sports and tourism have been used as forces to revive the economy. He further more explained that sport and tourism have become significant economic activities both in the developed and developing world. Sport tourism is not a new phenomenon; it has received increasing attention in recent years as an economic development strategy (Crompton, 1999; Daniels *et al.*, 2004; Delpy, 1998; Gelan, 2003; Higham & Hinch, 2002; Lee & Taylor 2005 *all cited in* Daniels, 2007).
- Existing sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng must be improved and well maintained. This is supported by 82.12% of the respondents. Furthermore 91.39% of the respondents indicated the need for new sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng. This was also affirmed by Cornelissen (2007), who noted the connection of tourism to infrastructural preparations toward sport event based around providing the opportunity to invest in the infrastructures connected with them as well as other equipment and attractions (Cornelissen, 2007).
- A comprehensive marketing strategy must be developed to market the city's sport tourism facilities. This was evident from the 86% of the respondents who indicated

that they did not feel the sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng are adequately marketed. Getz (1997) is in agreement with the idea that worldwide, events have been recognised as a strong component of sport tourism that draw people from different places. He further emphasized that events are becoming an integral and major part of tourism development and marketing strategies (Tassiopoulos, 2005 as cited in Ntloko & Swart, 2008). Marketing of sport events and sport tourism facilities brings social, physical and economic benefits to the host community or nation. (Kyriaki (2007) is in support of the idea that, sport tourism facilities helps communities to be attracted to hosting sport events to draw marketing benefits that will contribute to the success of the destination in the end by creating awareness, improving their image with visitors and attracting tourism business to generate future inbound travel.

- More workshops and seminars on the role of sport tourism must be conducted to enlighten the Mafikeng community on the impact sport tourism can make in the socio-economic activity of the city. The idea is emphasised in literature under the problem statement of the study which indicates the shortage of qualified sport instructors, coaches and supervisors who can manage sort activities offered in Mafikeng. This is in line with the theory advanced in the literature review which states that tourism has a massive social, political and environmental impact on global, national and local locations, which in turn advances matters of community relations and social responsibility (L'Etang *et al.*, 2006).
- A sound relationship with stakeholders (both direct and indirect) must be established in order to attract sponsorship. This is supported by Nauright (2004), who is of the opinion that the lure of large and spectacular sport events is an expedient way to attract media interest in a host city, which translates into an influx of capital through tourism and new investment. Sport event generates diverse and heterogeneous flows of travellers that may include fans, athletes, coaches, media, team personnel, parents and family members (Gratton, Shibli & Coleman, 2004 as cited in Yusof, Omar-Fauzee, Shah & Geok, 2009).

5.5 Limitations

This study has been limited to sporting facilities and activities in the Mafikeng area. This study has therefore only focused the economic impact of sport tourism to the Mafikeng economic activities.

5.6 Future Research

The researcher recommends further research in the following areas:

- Specific study on the development of tourism facilities in the Mafikeng area
- The enhancement of the use and marketing of sport tourism facilities in urban areas of the North West province
- Sustainable sport tourism through the involvement of hosting communities
- Development of regular or small sport tourism as an economic growth incentive

5.7 Conclusion

The chapter discussed the purpose of the study. Each research question has been discussed highlighted followed by a discussion on the findings relating to the questions. The chapter discussed the limitations, ending with recommendations for future research.

Sport tourism of mega or hallmark magnitude may lead to environmental concerns and other variables like age and citizenship, indicating that environmental concerns were true. Identified environmental concerns include the noise, traffic congestion and displacement of residents for construction of sporting facilities.

Sport tourism may lead to infrastructure and resource concerns especially for hosting mega or hallmark sporting events. Mega or hallmark events require financial investment by the hosting community. This may be done at the opportunity cost of alleviating immediate community issues such as poverty. Most of the times, hosting communities of mega or hallmark events are left with unnecessary debts.

To enhance the potential of a city or town to host sport tourism events, available facilities ought to be well maintained and marketed. Well-maintained and marketed facilities improve the image of a sport tourism hosting community.

The role of sport tourism to a city like Mafikeng can improve its economic activity through the hosting of regular or small sport tourism events. Small or regular sport tourism events can be hosted using existing facilities and do not require colossal financial investments.

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Appendix A:

Source #	Theme/Source	Theme #	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
			Definitions of Sport Tourism and concepts	Current community status of tourism and sport	Future of Sport and Tourism and its impact	Relationship between sport and tourism	Sport tourism categories and focus	Social and Economic challenges faced by communities	Challenges to sustainable Sport Tourism	Effect of sport tourism on local economic development	Strategic plans to develop a sustainable sport tourism industry	Policies and economic growth strategies on Sport tourism	Rationalisation of sport tourism and new developments	International Perspective on Sport Tourism
1	Strategic planning – implications for the bidding of sport events in South Africa			1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	1	1
2	Crafting Legacies: The Changing Political Economy of Global Sport and the 2010 FIFA World Cup							1	1	1		1	1	1
3	The Eluding Link Toward Developing a National Sport Tourism Strategy in South Africa Beyond 2010													
4	Global Games: culture, political, economy and sport in the globalised world of 21st century, The perceived social impacts of the 2006 World Cup on Munich residents.		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
5														

6	Sport and Economic Regeneration in Cities The Impact of Hosting a Major Sport Event on the South African Economy			1			1	1		1		1
7	A level playing field? Sports stadium infrastructure and urban development in the United Kingdom	1	1	1			1	1				1
8	Skills development in tourism: South Africa's tourism-led development strategy				1			1		1		1
9	Sports education – a priority for Caribbean sports tourism			1	1		1	1		1	1	1
10	Strategies, Impacts and Costs of Pro-Poor Tourism Approaches in South Africa	1			1							1
11	'Achieving economic benefit at local events: a case study of a local sports event'	1	1	1		1		1	1	1		
12	Tourism as a Local Development Strategy in South Africa				1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
13				1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1

	The impact of sport events on city images											
14	Joint ventures between community and tourism investors: experience in South Africa	1			1		1	1		1	1	
15	Tourism in Urban Africa: The South African Experience	1		1		1	1					
16	Mega-events as a Response to Poverty Reduction : The 2010 FIFA World Cup and its Urban Development Implications		1		1		1	1	1	1	1	1
17	Exploring Small-Scale Sport Event Tourism in Malaysia, <i>Research</i>		1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1
18	Public relations and tourism: Critical reflections and a research agenda	1			1	1						
19	Progress in Tourism Management	1					1	1	1	1		1
20	Event tourism: Definition, evolution, and research	1							1	1		
21	Sport tourism event impacts on the host	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1		1



	communit y: A case study of red buill ig wave Africa, South African , The Analysis of the Factors Affecting the Develop ment of Iran Sport Tourism and the Presentati on of a Strategic Model, World											
22	A process model of small and medium enterprise sponsorsh ip of regional sport tourism events				1		1		1			1
23	Golf tourists in South Africa: A demand- side study of a niche market in sports tourism, Central Place Theory and Sport Tourism Impacts				1	1		1	1		1	1
24	The impact of sport tourism event image on destinatio n image and intentions to travel: A structural equation modeling analysis	1	1	1	1	1			1	1		
25	Running Away from Home: Understan ding Visitor	1	1	1		1	1		1	1	1	
26												
27					1		1	1	1		1	
							1					

	Experiences and Behaviour at Sport Tourism Events											
	A new approach to sustainable tourism development: Moving beyond environment protection			1		1		1				
28	The role of community involvement and number/type of visitors on tourism impacts: A controlled comparison of Annapurna, Nepal and Northwest Yunnan, China			1		1	1			1		
	Small-scale event sport tourism: fans as tourists											
30	Local Economic Impacts	1		1	1			1				1
31	Imaging, Tourism & Sports Event Fever: The Sydney Olympics and the Need for a Social Charter for Mega-Events		1	1	1		1	1	1	1		
32	Sport and Recreation											
33	Socio-economic impacts of sport tourism in the								1	1		
34								1				

	union and the super 12 competition												
42	Qualitative research methodologies Practical research planning and design	1							1				
43	Partial Equilibrium Analysis in a Market Game: the Strategic Marshallian Cross	1											
44	Analysing social setting; A guide to qualitative observation and analysis details	1											
45	Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods	1											
46	Admittance matrix design for force-guide assembly	1											
47	Business Research Methods	1											
48	State of the Art Marketing Research	1											
49	Adventures in social research: data analysis using SPSS 11.0/11.5 for Windows	1											
50	Research methods in the social sciences	1											

	Determining sample size for research activities. Educational and Psychological Measurement	1										
51	Strategic innovation, the construct, its drivers and its strategic outcomes	1										
52	Sport and Tourism: A Conceptual Framework	1	1	1		1						
53	Tourism planning: policies, processes and relationships				1					1		
54	Tourism in developing countries				1	1		1				
55	Sustainable Tourism Development in the Caribbean : Practical challenges				1		1		1			1
56	Estimating the income effects of a Sport Tourism Event				1			1				
57	The good research guide	1										
58	Research and Planning Unit: North-West Parks and Tourism Board											
59	Tourism development	1			1							
60					1	1		1				

61	Lessons to be learned from the 19th Century on Governance, which could enhance our current leadership in the development of local government sector			1		1	1	1		1		
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Appendix B:

Research Questions	Survey Questions	Variables(s) and or Relationships measured	Statistical Test
1. Does sport tourism have an impact on the role of the socio-economic activity of Mafikeng?	1.1 Can sport tourism contribute to the reduction of poverty levels in Mafikeng?	Ordinal/Nominal Variables 1.1 Strongly Disagree, Disagree Strongly agree, Agree, Don't know	Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts
	1.2 Can sport tourism actively or passively help to reduce crime in the community?	1.2 Strongly Disagree, Disagree Strongly agree, Agree, Don't know	Normal and distribution curve, bar charts, frequency tables
	1.3 Will sport tourism contribute to the enhancement of the economy of Mafikeng?	1.3 Yes/No	Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts
	1.4 Can sport tourism contribute to the creation of employment in Mafikeng?		
	1.5 Can local businesses benefit from hosting of sport tourism events?		

		1.4 Yes/No	Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts
		1.5 Yes/No	Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts
2. Does sport tourism have a negative or positive socio-economic effect on the town?	2.1 Will sport tourism create a social impact within Mafikeng communities, e.g. change cultural or traditional norms? 2.2 Will sport tourism contribute to undesirable activities in Mafikeng, e.g. prostitution? 2.3 Can sport tourism events have an effect	2.1 Yes/No 2.2 Yes/No	2.2 Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts. 2.3 Normal and distribution curve, bar charts, frequency tables

	on the environment of Mafikeng, e.g. noise and littering? 2.4 Can sport tourism events held in Mafikeng create traffic congestions? 2.5 Can sport tourism create spatial concerns in Mafikeng, e.g. space for constructing new sport facilities?	2.3 Yes/No 2.4 Yes/No 2. Yes/No	2.4 Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts. Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts. Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts.
3. Can the sport tourism facilities available in Mafikeng host a mega-event or small event?	3.1 Can sport tourism contribute to the infrastructure development of Mafikeng? 3.2 Can the sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng host mega events such as the FIFA World Cup or the Olympics?	3.1 Strongly Disagree, Disagree Strongly agree, Agree, Don't know Yes/No	Normal and distribution curve, bar charts, frequency tables Descriptive statistics,

	3.3 Is there a need for new sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng? 3.4 Do the sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng have adequate amenities, e.g. parking space, gymnasiums, confectionery shops? 3.5 Does Mafikeng have adequate lodging and recreational services to host sport tourists?	Yes/No Yes/No 3.5 Yes/No	frequency tables, bar charts. Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts. Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts. Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts.
4 Are the current sport tourism facilities being used effectively?	4.1 Are there adequate sports tourism facilities in	4.1 Yes/No	Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar

	Mafikeng?		charts.
	4.2 Are sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng well maintained?	Yes/No	Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts.
	4.3 Do sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng cater for the disabled?	Yes/No	Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts.
	4.4 Do the sport facilities in Mafikeng attract sport tourists?	4.4 Strongly Disagree, Disagree Strongly agree, Agree, Don't know	Normal and distribution curve, bar charts, frequency tables
	4.5 Are the sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng adequately marketed to the local and sport tourists?	4.5 Yes/No	Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts.
	4.6 Does sport tourism in Mafikeng have qualified sport administrators e.g. gymnasium instructors, coaches, supervisors?	4.6 Yes/No	Descriptive statistics, frequency tables, bar charts.

Appendix C:

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY: Respondent Code: _____

VOLUNTARY QUESTIONNAIRE

Graduate School of Business
North-West University (Mafikeng Campus)
Researcher: Mr Kagiso Marumo

Note to the respondent

- The researcher needs your help to understand the role of sport tourism in the economic activity of Mafikeng.
- Although the researcher would like you to help, you do not have to take part in this survey.
- If you do not want to take part, just hand in the blank questionnaire at the end of the survey session.
- What you say in this questionnaire will remain private and confidential. No one will be able to trace your opinions back to you as a person.

The questionnaire as four parts:

Part 1 asks permission to use your responses for academic research.

Part 2 asks general personal particulars like your age, gender and home language.

Part 3 asks about the role of the role of sport tourism in the economic activity of Mafikeng.

How to complete the questionnaire

1. Please answer the questions as truthfully as you can. Also, please be sure to read and follow the directions for each part. If you do not follow the directions, it will make it harder for the researcher to do the research project.
2. The researcher only asks you about things that you should feel comfortable talk about. If you don't feel comfortable answering a question, you can indicate that you do not want to answer it. For those questions that you do answer, your responses will be kept confidential.
3. You can mark each response by making a tick or a cross, or encircling each appropriate response with a PEN (not a pencil), or by filling in the required words or numbers.

Thank you very much for filling in this questionnaire.

Part 1: Permission to use my responses for academic research

I hereby give permission that my responses may be used for research purposes provided that my identity is not revealed in the published records of the research.

Initials and surname _____ Postal address: _____

_____ Postal code: _____

Contact numbers: Home: _____ Cell: _____

No.	PART 2: GENERAL PERSONAL PARTICULARS <i>Please tell us a little about yourself</i> Please mark only ONE option per question below.	Part 3: Role of sport tourism in economic activity of Mafikeng
1.	I am: ☐ African ☐ Coloured ☐ Indian ☐ Oriental ☐ White ☐ a member of another ethnic group: ☒ I do not want to answer this question	11. Do you think sport tourism can contribute to a. The economy of Mafeking b. A reduction in crime in Mafeking c. Job creation d. Local businesses ☐ I strongly agree ☐ I agree ☐ I disagree ☐ I strongly disagree ☐ I do not want to answer this question
2.	I am a: ☐ Director ☐ Manager ☐ Supervisor ☐ Other (Please Specify) 	12. Will sport tourism help solve the following problems in Mafikeng: i. Racism ☐ Yes ☐ No ii. Environmental problems (e.g. littering, etc.) ☐ Yes ☐ No iii. Resource problems ☐ Yes ☐ No iv. Financial problems ☐ Yes ☐ No
3.	I have: ☐ a degree ☐ a post-graduate degree ☒ Matric ☐ I do not want to answer this question	13. Can sport tourism events lead to negative effects e.g. dilute the culture, traffic jams? ☐ I strongly agree ☐ I agree ☐ I disagree ☐ I strongly disagree ☐ I do not want to answer this question
4.	I am a: ☐ Female ☐ Male ☐ I do not want to answer this question	14. Can sport tourism infrastructure develop Mafikeng? ☐ Yes ☐ No
5.	I am _____ years old. ☐ I do not want to answer this question	15. Can the sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng help host mega events such as the FIFA World Cup or the Olympics? ☐ Yes ☐ No

6.	I grew up in: ☒ In South Africa ☒ Abroad _____ ☒ I do not want to answer this question	16.	Is there a need for new sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng? ☐ Yes ☐ No
7.	I grew up in: ☒ a rural area ☒ an urban area ☒ I do not want to answer this question	17.	Are there adequate sports facilities in Mafikeng? ☒ Yes ☐ No
8.	How many years of service do you have with the department/organisation ☒ 1-5 years ☒ 6-10 years ☒ 11-15 years ☒ More than 16 years	18.	Are facilities in Mafikeng well maintained? ☒ Yes ☐ No
9.	What is your home language? ☒ Setswana ☒ Iszulu ☒ Xhosa ☐ Sepedi ☒ English ☐ Afrikaans ☐ Other _____	19.	Are the sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng adequately marketed to the local and sport tourists? ☐ Yes ☒ No
10.	Do you understand what sport tourism is? ☐ Yes ☐ No	20.	Do sport tourism facilities in Mafikeng cater for the disabled? ☐ Yes ☒ No