Sociology of Sports Mega Events: A Tourism Perspective

Bheki HLABANE

Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University

Abstract

The aim of this article is to examine the effect of mega events on host nations from a tourism perspective. The discussion will provide a better understanding of how mega events can be used to improve the image of host destinations, open new tourism markets, and expand tourism products. The first part provides a theoretical framework based on a tourism perspective about the impact of mega events on host nations. The second part consists of a discussion about the ideological concepts of collaboration and network theory prominent in tourism for mega events. The last part is a case study of the South African Tourism branch office in Japan, and how it uses collaboration and networks to maximize the volume of tourism for the 2010 World Cup event and beyond. The case study will show that collaboration between South African Tourism (Japan) and the Japan Association of Travel Agents (JATA) in marketing and promoting the South African tourism market in Japan has succeeded in consistently increasing the number of Japanese travelers to South Africa. Based on the argument presented throughout the discussion, the article will conclude that collaboration and network systems at play between South African Tourism (Japan) and JATA are vital for the overall success of the 2010 South Africa World Cup tourism objectives.

Keywords: collaboration, destination, FIFA World Cup, marketing, network, tourism.

Introduction

The 2002 Japan-Korea World Cup helped to raise the level of interest in the game of football locally to a new level of business, the media and the public. This enthusiasm for football inherited from the 2002 Korea-Japan World Cup has been increased by the huge interest in the progress of the two countries' respective national teams and the progress of their overseas-based players. South Africa could learn much from the experiences of the 2002 Japan-Korea World Cup and the 2006 German World Cup in terms of organizing and marketing the World Cup tournament. With 100 days to the start of the 2010 South Africa World Cup event, the host nation is still at work developing

infrastructure and is also using the excitement about the event as a result of international interest in the last rounds of qualifying matches to brand and market itself as a host nation. From the beginning of the organization process, projections for the 2010 World Cup (were) looking healthy with officials already predicting that 500,000 people would visit South Africa in 2010, staying an average of 15 days. As a result, in 2007 I undertook a challenge and embarked on an action research project called "The 2010 Gambatte Project" as part of my fieldwork.

The project looked into the impact of the 2002 FIFA World Cup co-hosted by Japan and Korea, paying close attention to collaboration and network systems involved in marketing the event locally and internationally. Issues relating to identifying key stakeholders and investigating the role each played in marketing Japan as a destination were important topics for my research. Furthermore, the study focused on various techniques used by Japan to increase local interest in the 2002 Korea-Japan World Cup event and related activities. These included public relations issues, media-business network, cultural exchange and tourism marketing initiatives. However, for the purpose of this article only the issues relating to tourism and marketing will be discussed. The action research project was designed with four main objectives, firstly to create awareness about the 2010 South Africa World Cup in Japan. Secondly, to use collaboration and network systems in coordinating and enhancing communication, cooperation and awareness between FIFA World Cup stakeholders, including the 2010 South Africa World Cup Organizing Committee (LOC), FIFA sponsors, the governments of Japan and South Africa respectively. Thirdly, to use the 2010 South Africa World Cup as a tool for developing and implementing effective marketing and publicity initiatives aimed at increasing the Japanese market for South African 2010 tourism, and finally, to contribute to the overall success of the 2010 South African World Cup event. The study arose from the hypothesis that collaboration and network systems between the South African Tourism office in Japan and JATA would be crucial for maximizing the number of tourists from Japan for the 2010 South African World Cup event.

The research question focused on three specific issues: (a) What are the promotion and marketing initiatives that South African Tourism developed to promote tourism in Japan? (b) What obstacles have been identified as having a negative effect on the number of tourists traveling from Japan to South Africa and what steps have been taken to address those problems? (c) Are the measures introduced producing any positive results?

In an attempt to answer these questions, the article will first provide a theoretical framework of sports mega events tourism from leading literature on the subject. The second part of the article will be about the ideological concepts of collaboration and network theory prominent in tourism for mega events. The third part will be a discussion

about action research methodology as adopted for our investigation and its application. The last part is a case study of the South African Tourism branch office in Japan, and how it uses collaboration and networks to maximize tourism volumes for the 2010 World Cup event and beyond. The discussion will conclude by summarizing prominent concepts throughout the article and raising more questions for future research.

Theoretical framework

According to Horne (2004: 1234), "for the past decade numerous cities and municipalities of various sizes have been enthusiastic about the prospect of economic growth fueled by investment in mega sport events." He argues that "facilities and theme parks, the subsequent increase in tourism and the anticipated improved image of the region" are economic drivers pushing investment. South Africa is catching up fast and building an impressive reputation for hosting mega-events. Between 1994 and 2004, the country successfully hosted five mega-events. However, South Africa lost the 2002 Cape Town City Olympic bid to Greece (Athens) and 2006 FIFA World Cup to Germany. Having hosted the "1995 Rugby World Cup, the 1996 African Cup of Nations, the 1998 All Africa Games, the 2003 Cricket World Cup, and having won the rights to host the 2010 Football World Cup, sports mega-events are increasingly being pursued by the South African government, not only for their developmental and financial gains, but also for their more elusive identity building and signaling benefits, and their democracy and human rights enhancing qualities" Van der Merwe (2006: 1). In addition, South Africa has also used the mega event strategy to improve the image of the country as a destination.

Definition of "mega events"

Horne and Manzenreiter (2006:2) argues that "whilst there have been a number of earlier discussions about 'special,' 'hall-mark' or mega events ... see for example … Witt, 1988 ... it is Maurice Roche's definition of them that commands our attention today." Roche (2000: 1) defines mega events as "large-scale cultural (including commercial and sporting) events, which have a dramatic character, mass popular appeal and international significance." Roberts (2004: 108) defines them as events which are "discontinuous, out of the ordinary, international and simply big in composition." Ritchie (1984:2) provides a more tourism oriented definition by viewing mega events as ''major one-time or recurring events of limited duration, developed primarily to enhance the awareness, appeal and profitability of a tourism destination." It is clear from the definitions given above that mega events have two distinct features,: (1) that they " have significant consequences for the host city, region or nation in which they occur, and (2) that they will attract considerable media coverage" (Roberts 2004:108). Figure 1 below represents

Roche`s summary of types of events and their dimensions, features of sports events and their impact.
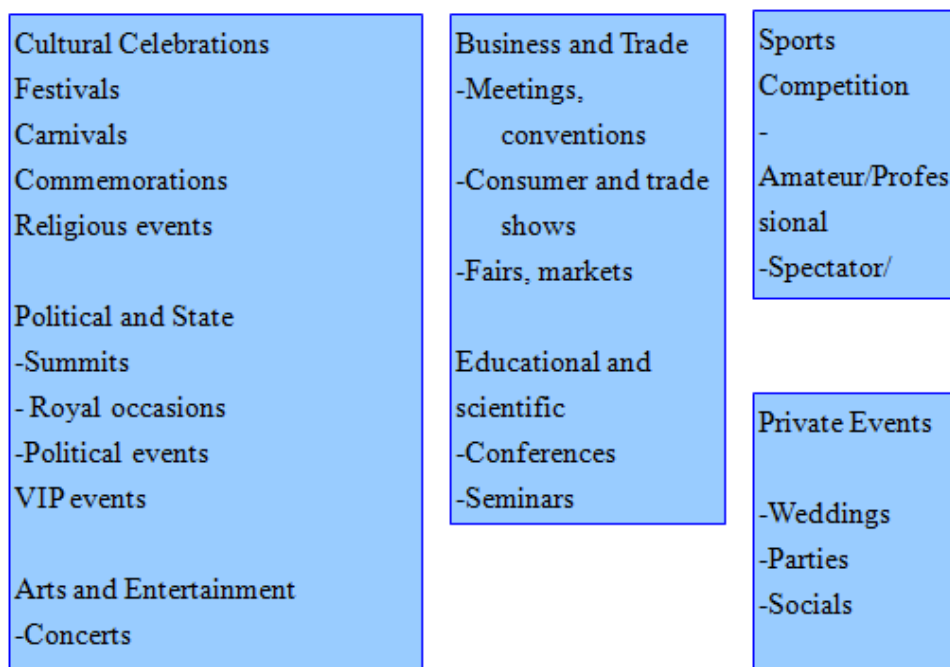
Figure 1

Type of Event	Example of Event	Target Attendance/ Market	Type of Media Interest
Mega Event	Expos Olympics World Cup soccer	Global	Global TV
Special Event	Grand Prix (F1) World Regional Sport (e.g. Pan-Am Games)	World Regional/ National	International TV National TV
Hall Event	National Sport Event (e.g. Australian Games) Big City sport/festivals	National Regional	National Local TV
Community Event	Local community Event	Local	Local TV/Press Local Press

Source: Roche 2000.

The Roche (2001) illustration highlights the power of mega events to attract global media and the profound implications they have on the host nation. From a tourism viewpoint the question as to how host nations use the media attention generated by these events is of great importance. Whitson (2004) argues that advancement in mass communication technology and, more importantly, the influence of satellite television, have increased the global audience figures for events such as the soccer World Cup and the Olympic Games. According to Wilson (2004) the 2004 Athens Olympics attracted "a record 4 billion viewers that tuned in to watch the games." These figures attest to the global reach of sports mega events. Some authors perceive them as "useful means for semi-peripheral societies to attract a `CNN presence` and, concomitantly, tourism, capital, students and similar multiplier effects" Black and Van der Westhuizen (2004:13). It could be argued that boundaries dividing sport and politics, business and sustainable development, culture and religion, local and global, rural and urban, developed and under-developed, technology and art, men and women, sponsorships and ambushers, and simple and formal, appear to be shrinking as a result of the impact of mega events on host nations. According to Getz (2007) the "Sports Business Market Research Inc. (2000:167) observed that in the 1980s and 1990s American cities "put heavy emphasis on sports, entertainment and tourism as a source of revenue for the cities." Gratton and Kokolakakis (1997) believe that in the UK sports events had become the main platform

for economic regeneration in many cities. According to Getz (2007:411), Carlsen and Taylor (2003) looked at the ways in which "Manchester used the Commonwealth Games to heighten the city's profile, give impetus to urban renewal through sport and commercial developments, and create a social legacy through cultural and educational programming." Figure 2 by Getz (2007:404) below illustrates "different types of events based primarily on their form—that is, obvious differences in their purpose and program."

Figure 2: Typology of Planned Events

Cultural Celebrations	Business and Trade	Sports
Festivals	-Meetings,	Competition
Carnivals	conventions	-
Commemorations	-Consumer and trade	Amateur/Profes
Religious events	shows	sional
	-Fairs, markets	-Spectator/
Political and State		
-Summits	Educational and	
- Royal occasions	scientific	Private Events
-Political events	-Conferences	
VIP events	-Seminars	-Weddings
		-Parties
		-Socials
Arts and Entertainment		
-Concerts		

Source: Getz (2007:404)

Although the Getz categories indicate differences in the form and nature of listed events, it is interesting to note that despite the differences, tourism appears to be the main common link in all the categories. For example, some events may "aim to foster civic pride and cohesion while others are planned for purposes of competition, fun, entertainment, business or socializing" (Getz 2007: 404). "'Event tourism' is generally recognized as being inclusive of all planned events in an integrated approach to development and marketing" (Getz 2007: 405).

A Sports Tourism Perspective: Destination Marketing and Imaging

Daniels (2006: 333) says sports tourism "has received increasing attention in recent

years as an economic development strategy (Crompton 1999; Daniels, Norman, Henry 2004; Delpy 1998; Gelan 2003; Higham and Hinch 2002; Lee and Taylor 2005)." According to Higham and Hinch (2002: 175), a host of literature on tourism and events have addressed the issues of sport mega events capacity "to generate tourism". Getz (2007: 406) on the other hand, queries if there are any differences between sport tourism and event tourism: "their conceptualization showed sport tourism as being at the nexus of event tourism and sport, with both sport tourism and event tourism being sub-sets of tourism in general." Getz argues that, looking at events from a tourism industry perspective, "they are highly valued as attractions, catalysts, animators, place marketers, and image-makers (and) conventions are considered business travel and participation sport events or festivals are part of leisure travel," (Getz 2007:406). Burbank (2002: 180) states that cities in particular "have come to emphasize policies that promote urban tourism [and] these policies typically include the development of convention centers, large hotels, restaurants, entertainment facilities, and shopping malls." Thus, international tourism has witnessed the rise of international events as an important segment for global tourism. Horne and Manzenreiter (2004) note that many countries are influenced by nation branding and marketing as key factors which push them to host sports mega events. The author refers to Gibson (1998) who asserts that tourism destinations have strategically positioned the hosting of mega events as a marketing development strategy. Accordingly, this   increasingly popular mega events strategy is influenced by its potential tourism volumes, huge sponsorship investment, global media coverage and the showcase effect. As Lee and Taylor (2004) argue, mega events are also seen as a useful means to market products globally, create business opportunities and instill a sense of pride and dignity among the local people. Daniels (2006: 332) adds that "public and private stakeholders are interested in adding the brand element of sport to their destination marketing profile as they view it as a means of enhancing their local economies."

Sports mega events provide the host nation with an opportunity to showcase its cultural dynamism, economic capability, political will and tourism brand. They appear to have developed into an "important element in the orientation of nations to international or global society" (Horne and Manzenreiter 2006: 1). Eisinger (2000: 317) remarks that "the arts, entertainment, festivals, leisure, tourism—and remaking cities as 'places to play '" have become a prominent feature of globalization as cities "compete to get noticed" Yuen (2008: 29). This notion is compounded by the fact that mega events attract a lot of media attention, and that has become a significant feature of the events. Black and Westhuizen (2004: 1208) assert that host nations hope to attract tourists and investors through media by showcasing their distinctive culture, technical and managerial sophistication, growing modernity and quality of life "in highly stylized and

commodified form. " The 2002 FIFA World Cup, staged in Japan and South Korea, provided even more (with) 41,000 hours of programming in 213 countries and produced an estimated cumulative audience of 28.8   billion viewers" (Madrigal et al, 2005: 182). Figure 3 below shows the television viewing for the FIFA World Cup from 1986 to 2002.

It could also be argued that recent trends in the organization of sports mega events is also highlighted by the special emphasis placed on the opening and closing ceremonies by event planners. These two events have developed into the most important stages of the entire process. The global media attention on the two ceremonies have resulted in organizers spending huge resources on improving the artistic and audio-visual production capacity of the events. For example, during the 2008 Beijing Olympics, China hired a Hollywood Oscar-winning director and producer, Steven Spielberg, as the event`s artistic advisor to assist in audiovisual productions. However, this relationship soon came to an end following Spielberg's withdrawal from his position, citing China`s poor foreign policy and human rights record. A BBC report (2008) reported that Spielberg had "accused China of not doing enough to pressure Sudan to end the 'continuing human suffering' in the troubled western Darfur region." However, the trend of adding a bit of Hollywood in sports mega events planning is expected to increase.

Figure 3: Television Viewership During World Cups
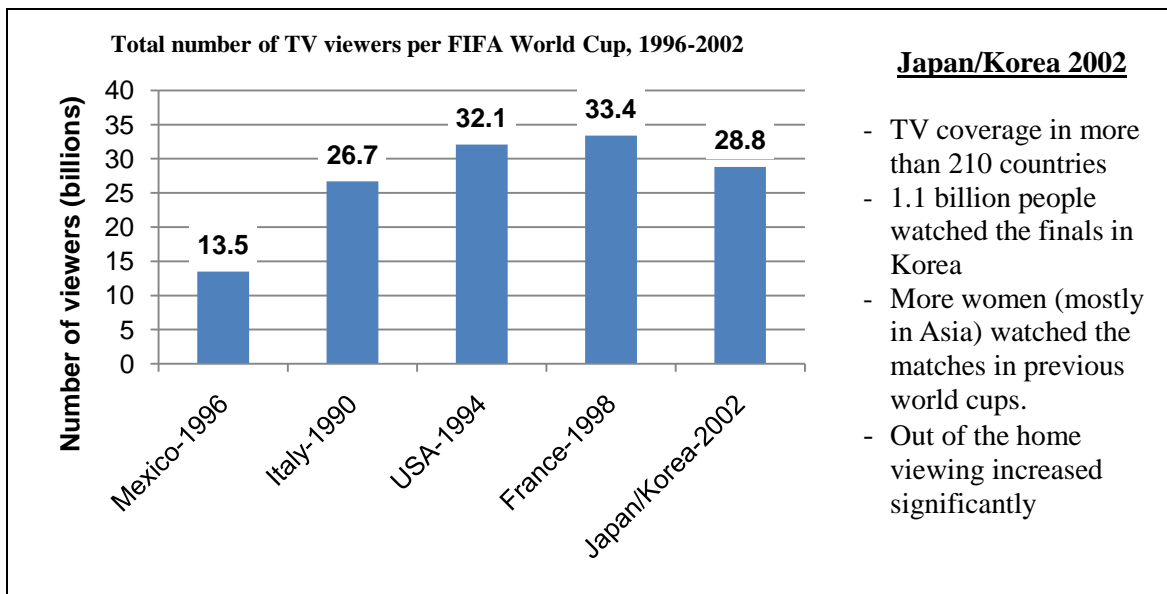
Source: Madrigal, 2005

Some studies have suggested that mega events could be used by cities or bidding nations

as a new strategy to rejuvenate their economy and stimulate urban growth. According to Yuen (2008:29) with the impact of "globalization, sports development is increasingly being regarded as a part of the city's cultural and leisure capital to reinforce place promotion and consumption-based economic development." Charlkley and Essex (2001: 201) argue that recently "in a period of deindustrialization, economic restructuring and globalization, the promotion of urban spectacle or mega events has become a key strategy by which urban areas justify significant projects of renewal and regeneration, advertise their status and personality and thus, attract new inward investment and modernize their economies." This way host nations are able to expand and diversify their tourism product while at the same time break into new tourism markets. Coccosis and Tsartas (2001: 172) argue that the global trend towards the growth of these events is "mainly due to the sharp increase in demand for specialized tourist products." A Korean tourism website (Korea.net 2006) wrote that "having hosted the 2002 FIFA World Cup, Korea appears to have found a niche market in the world cup related tourism through fan parks and public cheering popularized during the games. The tourism industry has managed to convert street cheering into a tourism attraction." It was reported that during the 2006 German World Cup the Korean Tourism Organization successfully "sold an outdoor cheering tour program to visitors from Malaysia, Canada and the United States. In the case of programs sold in Canada and the U.S., many of the participants are young Korean residents there who want to experience the atmosphere of cheering in the streets of their parents` homeland" (Korea.net 2006). The idea was to invite visitors to experience the Korean excitement and euphoria of watching the games in public and open places such as the city streets, parks and shopping malls. In this manner, the Red Devils (the official national football fan club) has been used as a tourism symbol of Korea. South Africa is planning to emulate the 2002 Korea Japan World Cup and the 2006 German World Cup by creating public viewing experiences through fan parks in all host cities. Maennig (2007: 15) says the "value of an improved perception (nation) as well as the feel-good effects experienced by the people" when the events take place is huge.

Collaboration and Network Theory

Selin (1993: 217) claims that "interest in collaborative alliance as a management strategy and as an object of scientific inquiry is on the rise in tourism field." Bhat and Milnes (2008: 1132) echo the same view by maintaining that issues of "collaboration and partnership have come to the forefront of tourism research." According to March and Wilkinson (2008) there has been a lot of studies in the last twenty years investigating the positive aspect of collaboration in tourism. Bhat and Milnes (2008:1131) state that the

interest in collaboration and network systems appears to be inspired by the view that they serve as a "useful conceptual framework for understanding the collaborative phenomenon in the tourism domain." Selin (1993: 222) asserts that "several recent journal issues and conferences have been devoted to this theme" But the question is how these terms can be understood in a tourism sense without getting trapped in the web of definitions. Jamal and Getz (1995) offer some suggestions to overcome this problem: the terms 'co-operation' and 'collaboration' are typically used synonymously, 'co-operation' which literally means "working together towards some end" does not sufficiently capture several major dimensions that are felt to be critical to 'collaboration.' In particular, "the nature of collaboration as a necessary response to the complexity of the problem domains is felt to be underemphasized by the term 'co-operation'" (Fyall and Garrod (2005:136). One may suggest that in this case, the complexity of the problem lies in the network systems within the collaboration framework. Bhat and Milnes (2008:1132) pointed out that "network" is different from "networking which is about people making connections though networking." The authors also view networking as something which is "probably very much a part of what goes on in a network" (Bhat and Milnes: 1132).

This article adopts an approach of combining collaboration and network concepts under the same umbrella. The motive is to recognize the significance of "working together" as a core element in the shared interests within the relation. Therefore I apply Gray's (1989: 227) definition of collaboration in tourism terms as "a process of joint decision-making among key stakeholders of a problem domain about the future of that domain." In the same breath I use Ndou`s (2005: 1) definition of networks as a "complex systems of enterprises where each single enterprise realizes a small part of the total service or product, and contributes in increasing the total value delivered." Öztürk (2009: 589) argues that from a tourism perspective, stakeholders aim to "benefit from the different advantages of networking and collaboration (Bramwell and Sharman 1999; Selin and Chavez 1995)." In addition, the author says that the need to create a competitive destination is the core common goal for tourism firms, which encourages them to join together (Gray 1989, Jamal and Getz 1995; Tinsley and Lynch 2001, Öztürk 2009: 1). Selin (1993) comments that the tourism sector applies the collaboration concept to adjust in the ever changing tourism environment and to benefit from their linkage by making decisions collectively. March and Wilkinson, (2009: 455) maintains that "attracting more tourists through collaborative effort can benefit not only the narrow financial objectives of tourism operators, but also the more diverse social objectives of the public sector."   Öztürk (2009:589) argues that stakeholders in tourism are inclined to adopt a collaboration approach with the intention to improve their understanding and at the same time encourage innovation.

Action Research Methodology: Definition, Considerations and Application

Defining action research

According to O` Brien (2001) "a German social and experimental psychologist" by the name of "Kurt Lewin is generally considered the 'father' of action research." Checkland (1981) believes Lewin is the first person to introduce the term `action research` Sandretto (2007:1) argues that the phrase "action research has come to describe a related group of research methodologies that share aims ranging from an emphasis on personal reflection, to claims that action research can lead to greater social justice for disempowered groups, Cardno (2003)." In addition, the author notes Noffke` s (1997) classification of action research as "methodologies (to) include such approaches as developmental action research, practitioner research, participatory action research, collaborative inquiry, emancipatory research, action science, classroom action research, action learning, and critical action research,"(Noffke 1997:1).

Let us consider the following three definitions of action research: (a) McCutcheon and Jung (1990:148) defines it as a "systemic inquiry that is collective, collaborative, self-reflective, critical and undertaken by participants in the inquiry",(b) Kemmis and McTaggert (1990:5) view action research as "a form of collective self-reflective inquiry undertaken by participants in social situations in order to improve the rationality and justice of their own social or educational practices, as well as their understanding of these practices and the situations in which these practices are carried out;" (c) Rapoport (1970:499) advocate that "action research aims to contribute both to the practical concerns of people in an immediate problematic situation and to the goals of social science by joint collaboration within a mutually acceptable ethical framework."

It is clear from the abovementioned definitions that action research has three basic requirements and Grundy (1988: 353) correctly set them out as follows:

> (1) The project takes as its subject-matter a social practice, regarding it as a strategic action susceptible to improvement; (2) The project proceeds through a spiral of cycles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting, with each of these activities being systematically and self-critically implemented and interrelated; (3) The project involves those responsible for the practice in each of the moments of the activity, widening participation in the project gradually to include others affected by the practice and maintaining collaborative control of the process.

Therefore, the idea of social practice is a central subject matter within action research. In addition, as a result of the collaboration and network systems involved in the process, the research is allowed to proceed within a spiral of cycles of planning,

acting, observing and reflecting, with each of these activities being systematically and critically implemented. Grundy (1988) argues that an action research project involves those responsible for the practice in each of the moments of the activity, widening participation in the project gradually to include others affected by the practice and maintaining collaborative control of the process.

Jonsonn (1991: 371) went further to claim that "the contribution to theory is not affected in AR (Action Research) because the study is done much more deeply as the researcher has an inner involvement with the environment. AR is seen as adding texture to theoretical notions and food for theoretical speculation, and a way of dealing with complexity in the presence of oversimplified and primitive theory." Therefore, the "Action Research" approach was a major component of my research as I saw it as a solution to the question; how do I ensure that my research contributes towards a successful 2010 South Africa World Cup? In other words, I recognized the significance of active participation in research designed to affect social change and I view that as the main ethos of the action research approach. Sandretto (2007: 5) asserts that "when outside facilitators form cooperative relationships with practitioners, helping them to articulate their own concerns, plan strategic action for change, monitor the problem and the effect of changes, and reflect on the value and consequences of the changes actually achieved," then action researching is taking place. Robertson (2000: 307) classifies this form of action research as "action research for action purposes" while Sandretto (2007) refers to Carr and Kemmis's (1986: 203) notion of "practical action research." Nonetheless, "this form of action research is collaborative and allows for research into the concerns of the practitioners themselves" Sandretto (2007: 3). This article has applied an action research method that is collaborative, practical in nature, and to use Robertson`s words, it is "action research for action purposes." Neill (2006) points to Strauss and Corbin (1990) who argue that "the qualitative nature of an action research project allows the researcher to explore the richness, depth, and complexity of phenomena through the discovery of "'findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification.'"

Strengths and limitations of action research methodology
There are certain strengths of action research methodologies. Noffke (1997: 321) argues that "bridge the knowledge-practice gap" is one of the main strengths of action research because the research is grounded in the realities of practice. Wink (2000: 59) supports Noffke`s argument and advocates that "theory building and critical reflection inform our practice and our action, and our practice and action inform our theory building and critical reflection." As Horton and Freire (1990: 98) conclude, "practice and the development of knowledge are inextricably linked, therefore without practice there's no

knowledge." Rust and Meyers (2006: 84) assert that "action research projects" designed to affect "social justice" can "highlight areas and opportunities for policy reform." However, it could also be argued that all research methods have strengths and weaknesses. Although collaboration has been cited as a crucial element of action research, it also has its critics.

Waters-Adams (1994) argues that in certain instances, personal inquiry involved in action research may need to precede collaborative inquiry. Furthermore, as Griffiths (2003:101) questions "is one person's co-operation and consensus another's coercion and constraint?" This question highlights the concerns about power and power-sharing involved in collaboration. In other words, a confusion can occur when the participants misread the intentions of the action researcher to collaborate with them. This scenario was evident in the case of our action research project. The main problem that appeared to have contributed to the confusion was the fact that our action research had too many stakeholders from a wide range of fields and at times their aims and objectives for their involvement in the project often conflicted. This caused us the project to continuously change in scope in order to accommodate and link all the participants/ stakeholders' interests. As a result, this made the action research project an expensive endeavor requiring huge financial resources to meet its goals.

Problems of my Fieldwork (Action Research Project)

1. Ethical considerations: dealing with contacts/informants
According to Robert et al. (1980: 178), the researcher and his informants/contacts have a reciprocal relationship and continuously seek to "clarify and compromise" with each other through the process of their relationship. Therefore it is crucial that the researcher is ethical in the course of his/or her research by treating both the informants and the information with respect, dignity and humanity. Robinson and Lai (2006) argue that informed consent given freely is an important issue as far as ethical considerations are concerned. Sandretto (2007: 5) maintains that: "If a practitioner/researcher is associated with an institution that has an ethics committee, those protocols can be followed." Accordingly, the process include lodging an application that set-outs the outline of the research taking into account the potential for harm against participant. Therefore, the researcher is required to show measures he/she will employ to receive the desired consent."An action research project concerned with issues of social justice will seek to conduct the process of action research in socially just ways, and, as such, will be cognizant of issues of power" Sandretto (2007: 5). To that end, it is imperative that the researcher provide a conducive environment for conducting the research project by ensuring that participation is free and voluntary.

In terms of my action research project, in an effort to overcome the issue of legitimacy and adherence to protocol, I managed to acquire formal support from three significant sources, namely Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU),the South African Tourism office in Japan, and the South African Embassy in Japan. The three offices became the most important sources of authority and guidance throughout the project. Lastly, I approached an event management company based in Fukuoka to assist in the project by providing conceptual and logistical support. The company (Presence Co Ltd) hosted several events before, during and after the 2002 World Cup, and its experience therefore proved to be crucial to the overall success of the project.

Hill and Robertson (2006) claim that other important issues to consider relate to power and copyright. According to Sandretto (2007), inviting researchers and practitioners to co-present in conferences and to publish as co-authors could assist in ensuring that power issues are avoided. As a result, I succeeded in arranging a partnership between APU and South African organizations which enabled APU to hold an international symposium, "Fulfilling the 2010 South African World Cup Promise: Learning from the 2002 Korea Japan Experience," for which I assisted in organizing. In consultation with all stakeholders, with great success I invited the local and international media to publish the outcome of the symposium, with the Ritsumeikan Center for Asia Pacific Studies (RCAPS) having the copyrights to the conference.

2. *Choosing a Research Site/Location*

The decision of where to conduct the action research project is a crucial one as it may have serious implications for research quality. Maykut and Morehouse (1994) argue that when implementing a research project, it is crucial to take the issue of quality of research into account. The authors asserts that the ability to produce research results that can be referred to by the audience with a certain degree of confidence is an important aspect of quality. Capobianco and Feldman (2006) add that one way of dealing with the quality aspects of   an action research project is to look into the way the research was conducted and also the tools used. In other words, the process involved of in any action research project is of paramount significance when it comes to quality issues. Bradbury and Reason (2006) stresses the significance of taking into account the kind of choices one makes throughout the research project. According to the authors, this point has serious implications for the credibility of the results and thus, the quality of the process. Therefore, issues pertaining to group relationships between participants are important as are the project outcomes. One of the most significant decisions in action research is the decision where to conduct the fieldwork. It is imperative that a researcher place him or herself at a location where he/or she would be able to conduct the research in terms of collecting and analyzing data. This step will have a profound effect on the

quality of the research. Two factors can be identified as the main considerations when choosing a research site, accessibility of information and same location as informants/contacts. In other words, a researcher might choose a location based on the fact that the information he or she seeks is freely available at a certain place but only at certain times or based on the fact that he or she believes that there would be plenty of informants/contacts who would be willing to participate in his or her research. In my own experience, I chose the location of my research based on the location of my informants as I believed this would encourage continuous dialogue and also place me (the researcher) closer to the communities I wished to study.

3. Financial considerations

Conducting fieldwork research in a country different to that of the researcher creates different financial challenges for the project. Some fieldwork research projects require a lot of traveling, like the one I conducted where much traveling was required both within and outside Japan. For my project this meant enormous financial backing was required for it to be success, so I had to seek sponsorship. As a result I came up with an idea to involve the 2010 South Africa World Cup commercial partners in their capacity as the event official sponsors. As official sponsors, the FIFA partners have the legal rights to actively participate or associate themselves with any local and international commercial/ marketing/ advertising project or activity they deem suitable. In addition, I managed to arrange a partnership deal between APU and South African Tourism (Japan) to assist in funding and organizing the 2008 RCAPS symposium mentioned earlier in the article.

Research Findings and Outcomes

Case Study: Collaboration and Network Systems between South African Tourism Japan Office and JATA (South Africa Working Group) for the purpose of marketing and promoting South African Tourism leading up to the 2010 South Africa World Cup

The 2010 South African World Cup is expected to attract many overseas visitors traveling to watch the games and also enjoy the country`s tourism products. Although tourists from Europe and the United States of America make up a huge proportion of the total number of visitors to South Africa, Japan has emerged as a significant and highly lucrative tourism market for South Africa. In an interview with Bradley Brouwer, country manager for South African Tourism in Japan, in 2006 South Africa welcomed an "18 percent year-on-year increase in arrivals from Japan, making it the fastest growing source market in the Australasia region." Corroborating Brouwer`s claim, figures released by Statistics South Africa for April 2006 showed that "arrivals from Japan grew

by 24 percent year-on-year and in the first quarter of 2006, 14 percent over the first quarter of 2005" (Mlangeni 2006). However, various world factors have had a negative impact on the number of tourist from Japan to South Africa. These factors include the global economic crisis of 2008 that resulted in massive job losses, companies filing for bankruptcies, and fewer tourists. In addition, the media has speculated that many people would be unable to travel to South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup games because of job losses and uncertainty surrounding the financial crisis. To highlight the impact of the crisis, figures released in 2008 indicated that the steady increase in tourist numbers from Japan encountered in the previous year had been declining. Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) reported that the total number of travelers who visited South Africa during August 2008 "was down 6.2% year-on-year (y/y) to 2.084 million from the 2.221 million recorded in August 2007" (*Business Times* 2008). The report further said that the number of travelers from overseas showed a steady growth from 2004 to 2007, but dropped between 2007 and 2008. Data indicates that the UK, US, Germany, France, Italy, the Netherlands, Australia and Spain were the eight leading overseas source countries" for South African tourism (Business Times 2008). Regarding the Asian markets, the Gauteng government report indicated that China and Japan both dropped out of the top 10 source markets in July. China showed a 23.8% drop, while Japan showed a 7.3% drop. Other Asian markets seem to have fared well with India showing an impressive 10.9% increase (Gauteng Tourism News 2008).

The Japanese football market is believed to be expanding and the general interest in the game of football is also said to be on the rise. Some reports have gone further to claim that during the 2006 German World Cup, "a total of 70,000 Japanese traveled all the way to Germany to support the Japanese national team" (The Japan Forum 2009). Nonetheless, these figures are believed to have been exaggerated and thus unreliable. However, during the 2008 RCAPS symposium at APU Mr Toru Furusawa, Japan Association of Travel Agents (JATA) representative, confirmed the figure by stating that about 30,000 Japanese travelled to Germany for the World Cup in 2006. He also went on record asserting that his organization (JATA) plans to reach a target of 50,000 tourists from Japan to travel to South Africa for the 2010 FIFA World Cup event. He also revealed that South Africa has emerged as one of the interesting destinations for their market. Furthermore, he indicated that the number of tourists from Japan between 2005 and 2007 had grown steadily from 27,285 to 31,855 respectively and therefore JATA plans to increase the number as a result of South Africa hosting the 2010 World Cup. Below is Figure 4 showing trends in Japanese international departures and breaking points in the travel patterns. This information is crucial in understanding the Japanese travel patterns to South Africa as indicated in figure 5.
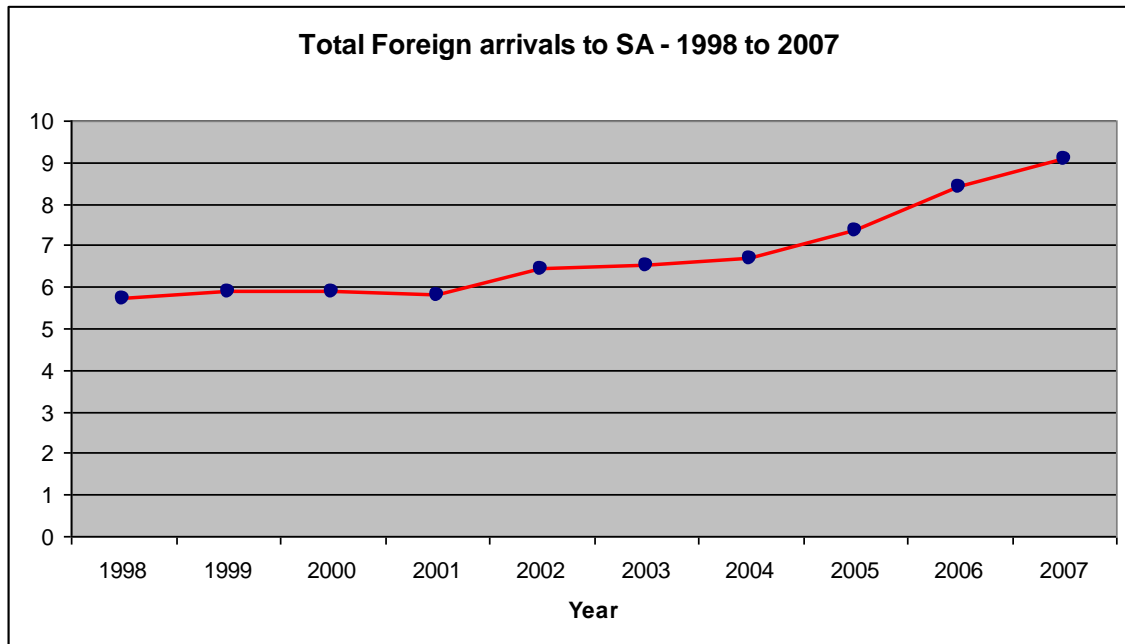
Figure 4: Japanese International Departures
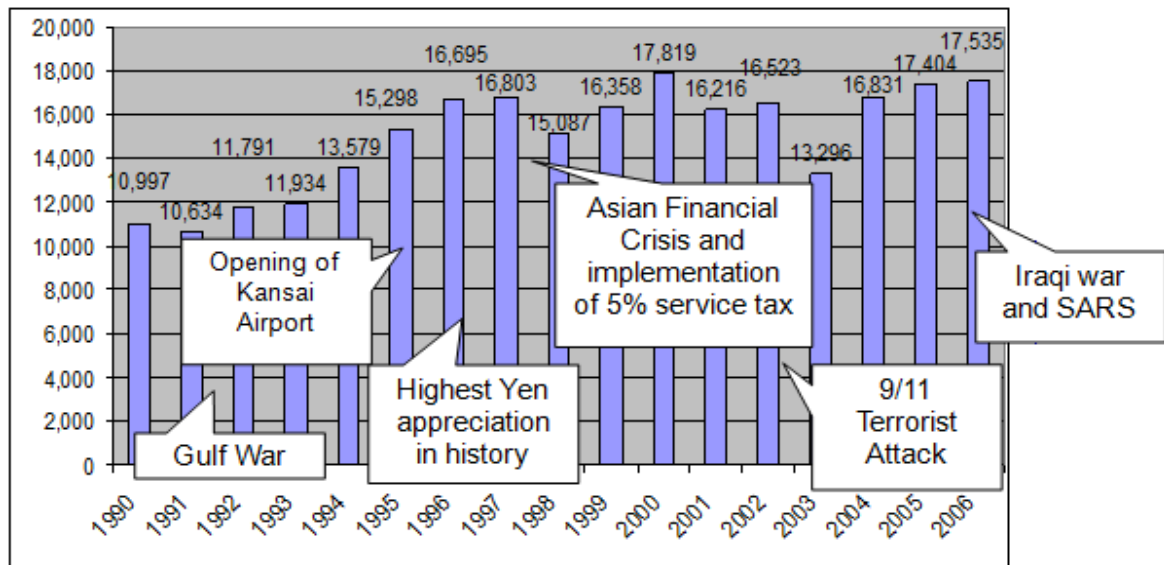
Source: Mr Furusawa Toru, JTB Corp (2008). Paper presented at RCAPS Symposium. Fulfilling the 2010 South African World Cup Promise. Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan.

The graph in Figure 4 shows interesting breaking points in the Japanese travel trends. In 1997 more than 16000 Japanese traveled outside the country to various destinations, matching the same number of travelers in the previous year. However in 1998 the number dropped significantly to 15,806, almost the same number registered in 1995 when only 15,298 departures were recorded. One of the main reasons cited for the breaking point was the effect of the Asian financial crisis in 2007 which had a negative impact on tourism. Although the trend soon recovered, with 17,819 departures recorded in 2000, the number could not be sustained the following year due to the effect of the 9/11 terrorist attack on the United States. The incidents in the USA proved to be significant independent variables which had a negative impact on outbound tourism in Japan with a total of 16,216 departures recorded in 2001, down from over 17000 registered in 2000. The figures remained the same for 2002 with an improvement of only 307 more travelers compared to the previous year. Any hopes of recovery were dashed when the United States and its allies invaded Iraq in 2003. As a result, many Japanese were cautious about traveling abroad and that caused the number of departures to drop to its long-time low of 13,296, about the same number reached in 1994 (13,579). However, the figures increased drastically in 2004, reaching 16,831, and continued to rise in the subsequent years reaching 17,535 departures in 2006.

Figure 5: Total Japanese Arrivals to South Africa

1998-2007: 6.3%; 2000-2007: 6.4%; 2002-2006: 7.2%; 2004-2007: 10.8%; 2005-2007: 11.1%; 2006-2007: 8.3%

Source: Mr Furusawa Toru, JTB Corp (2008). Paper presented at RCAPS Symposium. Fulfilling the 2010 South African World Cup Promise. Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan.

The trend of Japanese traveling to South Africa appears to be consistent with the general trend of international departures witnessed by the country over past years. For example, the slump in the Japanese travel figures recorded in 2001 was also reflected by a decline in Japanese arrivals to South Africa during the same period. A total of 5,872 arrivals from Japan was reported for the year 2000, but in 2001 the figure dropped slightly to 5,787, the decline could be attributed to the 9/11 terrorist attack in the USA. However, the number increased in the following years with a total of 6,430 in 2002, climbing to 6,505 in 2003 and reaching 6,678 in 2004. Despite the slowdown in total tourism travel or departures by Japanese recorded in 2003 as a result of the Iraq war, the trend of Japanese traveling to South Africa continued to increase without any deterrent. In 2007 the number reached 9,091, the highest ever achieved by South African Tourism. According to JATA, business travel is the most common reason for travel to South Africa, followed by leisure and other. As a result of South Africa hosting the 2010 FIFA World Cup event, the South African Tourism office in Japan and JATA decided to form a partnership in 2007. The main idea was to examine ways in which the two parties can share information about the 2010 World Cup and at the same time promote South Africa as a tourist destination of choice for the Japanese market. Several factors have been

attributed to the rise in the number of Japanese traveling to South Africa and these include the "interest in the wild animals, natural scene, culture, high quality of the ground operation as a result of experience in handling many visitors from Europe and America, access from Japan (many routes from Japan to Johannesburg) and the general interest in the 2010 South Africa World Cup"(Furusawa 2008).

According to South African Tourism and JATA, there are still some obstacles that continue to stand in the way of increasing tourism volume to South Africa and both parties are working together to resolve the issues. The problem areas include safety and security in South Africa and also at the airports, a negative image of Africa and lastly planning and itinerary. As a result, both parties introduced collaborative measures in an attempt to address the identified issues. The first phase saw South African Tourism inviting JATA officials to South Africa for site inspections and a round of talks with officials from the tourism sector, aviation and government. According to Brouwer (South Africa Tourism, Japan Country Manager), ten Japanese delegates representing travel agencies and tour operating operations landed on November 21 and departed on December 1, 2007. He added that the trip was part of the JATA South Africa Working Group's action plan which covers four core themes (a) "to improve South Africa's image", (b) "tour products", (c) "security and safety", and (d) "airports". Through the trip, "the Group intends to cultivate new tourism offerings, and create new itineraries," explained Brouwer. Furthermore, JATA had an extensive meeting with Airport Company South Africa (ACSA) in an effort to address the issue of theft and loss of travelers' luggage in the main airport of the country.

In 2005, Kentaro Kaneko, JATA, visited Kenya with other JATA officials and in his address to Kenya Tourism officials, he stressed the issue of safety and security and argued that "Japanese are far more sensitive about these matters than other people globally. We (Japanese) have an old saying in Japan that says 'Safety and water are free.' Japanese people see these as a given. It is part of their nature to expect them." Therefore, the problem of safety and security still remains as the biggest challenge for the South African authorities given the high crime rate in the country and the general perception of South Africa as an unsafe destination. As a result, in an effort to project a positive image of the country and at the same time raise awareness of destination South Africa in Japan, South African Tourism hosted senior journalists from leading travel trade and mainstream publications in Japan on a 10-day tour of South Africa. Brouwer argued that his office was aware that "newspapers and magazines are the top three information sources for travelers seeking information about South Africa and therefore getting South Africa covered by respected publications is of major importance."

As part of the co-operation between Japan and South Africa, the JATA South African Working Group developed an aggressive marketing and promotional campaign

known as "Japan-Africa Exchange Year 2008." The campaign was designed to grow the Japanese tourist arrivals in South Africa by developing familiarity with South Africa as a destination.　In addition, the "Picture Perfect Contest" was also introduced as part of the 2008 marketing campaigns and its basic idea was to invite the Japanese public to explore South Africa's rich tourism offering through photographs supplied by other Japanese people who have visited South Africa before. According to Brouwer, the campaign was the biggest and most visible online campaign ever launched by South African Tourism in Japan and its main objective was to profile South Africa as a friendly, easy and affordable destination. It included a "word-of-mouth" element in that visitors to South Africa were invited to provide their own stories along with the images submitted. Mr Brouwer argued that the campaign was designed to ensure that "South Africa's unspoiled beauty and wildlife as well as [South Africa's] our welcoming spirit will be conveyed to Japanese audiences by Japanese people who have experienced the country first hand."

On the other hand, as argued earlier in the article, the issue of classic tours or stereotype tours have been criticized and identified as one of the reasons for the decline in tourists' interest in traveling to South Africa. In 2005, JATA president Mr Kaneko suggested that Africa should look into campaigns such as tree planting tours to entice the Japanese traveler and at the same time diversify tourism products on offer by the host nation. He argued that "the importance of tree planting on the ground of the African Continent has been more and more understood by Japanese. [Mr Kaneko believed that] the very occasional event like tree planting will make the tourists happier than before. They recognize that their activity will contribute slowly but firmly to the future of the entire planet "'The Earth.'" Through collaboration with JATA, South African Tourism in Japan invited a group of 120 Japanese tree planters in 2009 to travel to South Africa for the purpose of planting trees on African soil. Mr Brouwer asserts that the "aim is to improve the quality of life of disadvantaged communities while promoting an awareness of climate change, food security and sustainable natural resource management." While in South Africa, the group will also be invited to a traditional South African *braai*, enjoy South African music, experience a real safari and visit Sun City, in the North West Province. "Apart from making a contribution to greening and feeding South Africa, the visit will also serve to highlight South Africa's development challenges, wonderful people, incredible landscape and cultural offerings to these visitors and to others back home in Japan," Mr Brouwer argued. With the 2010 South Africa World Cup drawing closer, the South African Tourism office in Japan views the issue of the country`s negative perception in Japan as important and has since moved to intensify initiatives to improve it. As a result, the office held Southern Africa Trade Workshops in Osaka and Tokyo on June 11 and 12, 2009,　welcoming a record number of visitors and had a

total of 29 exhibitors, including FIFA partners. "The objective of the workshops was to improve the perception of South Africa as 2010 hosts as well as being an attractive travel destination, and to increase the number of Japanese visitors to the country," stated Mr Brouwer. To mark the significance and achievements of the collaboration between JATA and South African Tourism (Japan), JATA took a decision in September 2009 to extend its relationship with its South African counterpart until the end of 2010. Mr Brouwer viewed that as "a huge achievement" considering that "JATA has never extended a relationship in the past regarding marketing initiatives with a destination." In addition, the JATA Working Group logo, which was developed by the Working Group Trade, "will continue to show JATA's support in selling South Africa in the trade, and is to be used by JATA-affiliated agents on their brochures in support of South Africa as a must visit' destination," Mr Brouwer echoed.

Conclusion

This article has shown that many nations and cities compete vigorously to host mega events and are motivated by the prospect of economic growth fueled by investment in these events. For the purpose of this discussion, two distinct features of mega events were identified: (a) their importance in terms of their broad impact on host nations and their regions and (b) their power to draw global media. Viewing sports mega events from a tourism perspective, the article argued that branding, marketing and strategy development of tourism destinations are the main drivers of countries' decisions to bid and host events such as the FIFA World Cup and the Olympics. In addition, the huge media interest in mega events have fueled the drive towards bidding and hosting as nations hope to attract tourists and at the same time reach a global audience watching the events on television. The media also provides the host nation with an opportunity to showcase its distinctive culture, technical and managerial sophistication, growing modernity and quality of life in highly stylized and commodified form. Further, this article discusses a collaboration and network systems in tourism. It has been argued that the interest in these concepts appears to be inspired by the view that they provide an easy understanding of collaboration efforts within tourism. The process of all interested parties making decisions jointly in the collaboration concept in tourism, has been singled out as a significant factor when considering the issues of definition of the concept.

A case study on collaboration and network systems between the South African Tourism office in Japan and the Japan Association of Travel Agents has been discussed, looking at the nature and form of their joint tourism marketing initiatives. The two parties' main aim in their collaboration and network systems is the desire to increase the tourism volume from Japan to South Africa before, during and after the 2010 South

Africa World Cup event. Furthermore, issues relating to South Africa's lack of safety and security, the negative perception in Japan of Africa and the reliance on so-called classic tours have been identified as creating a negative impact on the two parties' collaborative efforts. As a result, continuous dialogue and co-operation between the said parties have been stepped up in an attempt to resolve the problems and thereby increase the number of Japanese travelers to South Africa. In September 2009 JATA took the decision to extend its relationship with its   South African counterpart until the end of 2010. For South African Tourism the move was seen as a huge achievement considering that previously JATA had never extended a marketing relationship with a destination body. This could be viewed as a recognition of the positive results achieved due to the dynamics of the collaboration and network systems involved in their relationship. For example, an online tourism publication (*Travel Vision Weekly,* 2009) reported that Mr Brouwer (South African Tourism, Japan Country Manager) received an award from the 2010 host city of Mpumalanga, the office of Mpumalanga Tourism and Parks Agency, "in recognition of his outstanding job in Japan for marketing and promotion of Mpumalanga Province." According to the report, "the number of Japanese visitors to the Province is reported to have nearly tripled in 2008 over the previous year" (Travel Vision Weekly 2009). Also a different media report announced that South Africa would host Japan when the two meet in a friendly match scheduled to take place on 14 November 2009 (date yet to be announced) at Durban, Kwazulu-Natal Province. . As part of my action research project, the Mpumalanga Tourism and Parks Agency (MTPA) was invited to an international symposium held at Ristumeikan APU organized by myself under the auspices of Ritsumeikan Center for Asia Pacific Studies (RCAPS). A representative from MTPA, Mr Sekgobela, gave a presentation to the audience and the Japanese media included NHK (national broadcaster). His topic was "Progress and Achievements of Host Cities in Preparing for the 2010 South Africa World Cup". He gave a host city perspective about the impact of hosting a sport mega event like the World Cup and was also provided with an opportunity to engage the Japanese and South African media during a media briefing.

Also as a result of my action research project, I managed to meet and speak about the project with high-level authorities from the South African Embassy in Japan and had the support of the office throughout the process. The lines of communication were always open and a written letter of support would often be considered on request. In addition, the Honorable Ambassador Dr Ngubane (former Premier of Kwazulu-Natal Province) and the Mayor of Petermaritzburg (Kwazulu-Natal Province) visited APU in 2008 and had discussions with Professor Malcolm Cooper, Vice President, Director of International Cooperation Studies Kazadi Sanga-Ngoie and the current Dean of Asia Pacific Studies, Professor Eades. I had the opportunity to be present at the meeting and

contributed towards the discussions. The South African delegation also met separately with the ex-Governor of Oita Prefecture, Hiramatsu Morihiko. Mr Hiramatsu was the keynote speaker at the symposium due to his experience as the Vice Chairman of the 2002 Japanese World Cup Local Organizing Committee and ex-Governor of Oita Prefecture which was one of the host cities during the 2002 World Cup event. Therefore, keeping in mind the views expressed by Rapoport (1970) that the use of the action research method can assist in solving an immediate problem and at the same time contribute to the objectives of social science, we can understand that the key in achieving this level of contribution through action research lies in the ability to adapt a framework based on collaboration and the   application of ethics. The contribution of my action research project towards the creation of   awareness and promotion of the 2010 South Africa World Cup in Japan may at the same time have a positive effect in highlighting the South African tourism market. For future research, it would be interesting to look into the following issues: (a) the nature and dynamics of collaboration-network systems at play between South African Tourism (Japan),   JATA and the MTPA which lead to an increasing number of Japanese tourists to the province of Mpumalanga; (b) the extent of the contribution by the action research project in forming or strengthening collaboration between the South African Embassy in Japan and Oita Prefecture and also between Ritsumeikan APU and these offices. Furthermore, during the 2010 South Africa World Cup, each participating nation chose a city/town or village for their stay and training camp for the duration of the event, so it would be interesting to examine which location Japan chose and why.

References

Bhat, Sushma, and Simon Milnes 2008. "Network Effects on Cooperation in Destination Website Development." *Tourism Management* 29(6): 1131-1140.

Black, David and J. van der Westhuizen. 2004. "The Allure of Global Games for 'Semi-Peripheral' Polities and Spaces: A Research Agenda." *Third World Quarterly* 25(7): 1195-1214.

Business Times. 2008. "South Africa Tourism Growth for 2007-2008 Period." http://www.businesstimes.co.tz/ (11 April 2008).

Bradbury, H., and P. Reason. 2006. "Conclusion: Broadening the Bandwith of Validity: Issues and Choice-Points for Improving the Quality of Action Research," in P. Reason and H. Bradbury, eds. *Handbook of Action Research* (Concise Paperback Edition). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bramwell, B. and A. Sharma. 1999. "Collaboration in Local Tourism Policy Making." *Annals of Tourism Research* 26(2): 392-415.

Burbank, M.J. 2002. "Mega-events, Urban Development, and Public Policy." *The Review of Policy Research* 19(3): 179-202.

Capobianco, B.M and A. Feldman. 2006. "Promoting Quality for Teacher Action Research: Lessons Learned from Science Teachers` Action Research" *Educational Action Research* 14(4): 497-512.

Cardno, C. 2003. *Action Research: A Developmental Approach*. Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Carlsen, J and A. Taylor. 2003. "Mega-events and Urban Renewal: The Case of the Manchester 2002 Commonwealth Games." *Event Management* 8(1): 15–22.

Carr, W. and S. Kemmis. 1986. *Becoming Critical Education Knowledge and Action Research*. Basingstoke: Falmer.

Charlkley, B., and S. Essex. 2001. "Mega-sporting Events in Urban and Regional Policy: A History of the Winter Olympics." *Planning Perspectives* 19(2): 201-232.

Checkland, Peter. 1981. *Systems Thinking, Systems Practice*. New York, NY: Wiley

Coccosis, H. and P. Tsartas. 2001. *Sustainable Tourism and the Environment*. Athens, Greece: Kritiki.

Crompton, J. 1999. *Measuring the Economic Impact of Visitors to Sports Tournaments and Special Events.* Ashburn: National Recreation and Park Association.

Daniels, M. J. 2006. "Central Place Theory and Sport Tourism Impact." *Annals of Tourism Research* 34(2): 332–347.

Daniels, M., W. Norman, and M. Henry. 2004. "Estimating Income Effects of a Sport Tourism Event." *Annals of Tourism Research* 31: 180–199.

Deery, M., L. Jago and L. Fredline. 2004. "Sport Tourism or Event Tourism: Are They One and the Same?" *Journal of Sport Tourism* 9(3): 235-245.

Delpy, L. 1998. "An Overview of Sport Tourism: Building Towards a Dimensional Frame- work." *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 4: 23–28.

Eisinger, P. 2000. "The Politics of Bread and Circuses: Building the City for the Visitor Class." *Urban Affairs Review* 35: 316–333.

Furusawa Toru, JTB Corp. 2008. "South African Tourism through JATA Activities." Paper presented at RCAPS Symposium, Fulfilling the 2010 South African World Cup Promise. Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan.

Fyall, Alan and Brian Garrod. 2005. *Tourism Marketing: A Collaborative Approach*. Channel View Publications.

Gauteng Tourism News, http://www.gauteng.net (accessed 27 Nov 2008).

Gelan, A. 2003. "Local Economic Impacts: The British Open." *Annals of Tourism Research* 30: 406–425.

Getz, Donald. 2007. "Event Tourism: Definition, Evolution, and Research." *Tourism Management* 29(3): 403-428.

Gray, B. 1989. *Collaborating: Finding Common Ground for Multiparty Problems*. San
Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Gibson, H. 1998. "Sport Tourism: a critical analysis of research."*Sport Management
Review* 1: 45-76.

Gratton, C. and T. Kokolakakis. 1997. *Economic Impact of Sport in England 1995*.
London: The Sports Council.

Griffiths, M. 2003. *Action for Social Justice in Education: Fairly different*.
Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Grundy, Shirley. 1988. "Three Modes Of Action Research" in S. Kemmis, J.E.S.
Higham and T.D. Hinch. 2002. "Tourism, Sport and the Seasons: The Challenges
and Potential of Overcoming Seasonality in the Sport and Tourism Sectors."
Tourism Management 23: 175-185.

Hill, M and J. Robertson. 2006. "Meeting and Managing Ethical Challenges in a New
Zealand Practitioner Research Project." Paper presented at the British Educational
Research Association (BERA) annual conference, University of Warwick, 6-9
September.

Horne, John and Wolfram Manzenreiter. 2004. "Accounting for Mega-events: Forecast
and Actual Impact of the 2002 World Cup Finals on the Host Countries
Japan/Korea." *International Review for the Sociology of Sport* 39(2): 187-203.

Horne, John. 2004. "The Global Game of Football: The 2002 World Cup and Regional
Development." *Third World Quarterly* 25(7): 1233-1244.

Horne, John and Wolfram Manzenreiter. 2006. "An Introduction to the Sociology of
Sports Mega-Events." *Sociological Review Monograph Series: Sports
Mega-Events: Social Scientific Analysis of a Global Phenomenon*. Wiley.

Horton, Myles and Paulo Freire. 1990. "We Make the Road by Walking: Conversations
on Education and Social Change." B. Bell B.J. Gaventa, and J. Peters, eds.
Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.

Jamal, T. and D. Getz. 1995. "Collaboration Theory and Community Tourism Planning."
Annals of Tourism Research 22(1): 186-204.

Jimlongo, M. 2009. "It Only Gets Tougher for Bafana in 2010 Build-up." *Dispatch
Online*. http://www.dispatch.co.za/article.aspx?id=337282 (14 August)

Jonsonn, S. 1991. "Action Research." Pp. 371-396 in *Information Systems Research.
Contemporary Approaches and Emergent Traditions.* H. Nissen, H.K. Klein and
R. Hirschheim, eds. New York, NY: North-Holland

Kemmis, S. and R. McTaggart, eds. 1988. *The Action Research Planner* (3rd ed).
Geelong: Deakin University Press.

Korea.net. 2006. "Society: Street Cheering Becomes Tourist Attraction." http://www.korea.net/news/news/NewsView.asp?serial_no=20060614016&part=1 09&SearchDay=&source= (15 June 2008)

Lee, Choong-K and Tracy Taylor. 2005. "Critical Reflections on the Economic Impact Assessment of Mega-Event: The Case of 2002 FIFA World Cup." *Tourism Management* 26(4): 595-603.

Madrigal, R., C. Bee, and M. LaBarge. 2005. "Using the Olympics and FIFA World Cup to Enhance Global Brand Equity." Pp. 179-190 in *Global Sport Sponsorship.* J Amis and T.B Cornwell, eds. Oxford: Berg.

Maennig, Wolfgang. 2007. "One Year Later: A Re-appraisal of the Economics of the 2006 Soccer World Cup." ASE/NAASE Working Paper Series, Paper No. 07-25: 1-19.

March, R. and I. Wilkinson. 2009. "Conceptual Tools for Evaluating Tourism Partnerships." *Tourism Management* 30(3): 455-462.

Maykut, P. and R. Morehouse. 1994. *Beginning Qualitative Research: A Philosophic and Practical Guide*. London: Falmer Press.

McCutcheon and Jung. 1990. "Alternative Perspective on Action Research." *Theory into Practice.* 24, no 3:144-151 .

McTaggart, Robin. 1991. "Principles for Participatory Action Research." *Adult Education Quarterly* 41(3): 168-187.

McTaggart, R., ed. *The Action Research Reader* (3rd ed). Geelong: Deakin University Press

Mlangeni, B. 2006. "SA to Host Japanese Travel Agents. Government Communication and Information System." http://www.buanews.gov.za/rss/06/06111615451001 (accessed 16 November 2008).

Ndou, Valentina, and Giuseppina Passiante. 2005. "Value Creation in Tourism Network Systems. Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism." Pp 440-451 in Proceedings of the International Conference in Innsbruck, Austria. Vienna: Springer.

Neill, James. 2006."Analysis of Professional Literature Class 6: Qualitative Research I." http://wilderdom.com/OEcourses/PROFLIT/Class6Qualitative1.htm.

Noffke, S.E. 1997. "Professional, Personal, and Political Dimensions of Action Research." *Review of Research in Education* 22: 305-343.

O'Brien, R. 2001."Um exame da abordagem metodológica da pesquisa ação [An Overview of the Methodological Approach of Action Research]." In *Teoria e Prática da Pesquisa Ação* [*Theory and Practice of Action Research*] Roberto Richardson, ed. João Pessoa, Brazil: Universidade Federal da Paraíba (English version). http://www.web.ca/~robrien/papers/arfinal.html (accessed 20 January

2002).

Öztürk, Hilal Erkus. 2009."The Role of Cluster Types and Firm Size in Designing the Level of Network Relations: The Experience of the Antalya Tourism Region." *Tourism Management* 30(4): 589-597.

Rapoport, R.N. 1970. "Three Dilemmas in Action Research." *Human Relations* 23(6): 499-513.

Reason, P. and H. Bradbury. 2007. *The SAGE Handbook of Action Research*. London: Sage.

Ritchie, Brent J. R. 1984. "Assessing the Impacts of Hallmark Events: Conceptual and Research Issues." *Journal of Travel Research* 23(1): 1-11.

Robert, A., Micheal O Georges, and J. Berkerley. 1980. *People Studying People: The Human Element in Fieldwork*. University of California Press.

Roberts, K. 2004. *The Leisure Industries*. London: Palgrave.

Robertson, J. 2000. "The Three Rs of Action Research Methodology: Reciprocity, Reflexivity and Reflection-on-Reality." *Educational Action Research* 8(2): 307-326.

Robinson, V, and M.K. Lai. 2006. *Practitioner Research for Educators: A Guide to Improving Classrooms and Schools*. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press.

Roche, Maurie 2000. "Mega-Events, Olympic Games and the World Student Games 1991. Understanding the Impacts and Information Needs of Major Sports Events." Pp 1-18 in the proceedings from the Major Sport Events Learning From Experience SPRIG Conference, UMIST Manchester, 1 May.

Sandretto, Susan. 2007. "Discussion Paper: Action Research for Social Justice." Teaching and Learning Research Initiative. Wellington.

Selin, S, 1993. "Collaborative Alliances: New Interorganizational Forms in Tourism." *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing* 2(2/3): 217-227.

Selin, S., and D. Chavez. 1995. "Developing a Collaborative Model for Environmental Planning and Management." *Environmental Management* 19(2):189 –195.

Strauss, A, and J. Corbin. 1990. *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

The Japan Forum, 2009."Soccer as a Popular Sport: Putting Down Roots in Japan." http://www.tjf.or.jp/eng/content/japaneseculture/32soccer.htm (accessed on 16 August).

Travel Vision Weekly, 2009. "Japanese Visitors to Mpumalanga Province, South Africa, on the Rise; Japanese-speaking Guides Are More in Need" http://www.travelvisionweekly.com/article.php?id=1587 (accessed 1 June 2008).

van der Merwe, Justine. 2006. "Comparing South Africa`s hosting of the Rugby and Cricket World Cup: Lessons for the 2010 Football World Cup and Beyond."

Paper presented at the Wiser, CUBES, HSRC and Goethe Institute Symposium on 2010 and the Life in the City, University of the Witwatersrand, September 1-13.

Waters-Adams, S. 1994. *Collaboration and Action Research: A Cautionary Tale. Educational Action Research* 2(2):195—210.

Whitson, D. 2004. "Bringing the World to Canada:'the Periphery of the Centre.'" *Third World Quarterly* 25(7): 1215–1232.

Wilson, Stephen. 2004. "Athens Olympics Draw Record TV Audiences" in *USA Today*. (December 10). Available at http://www.usatoday.com/sports/olympics/athens/news/2004-10-12-athens-tv_x.htm.

Wink, J. 2000. *Critical Pedagogy: Notes from the Real World* (2nd ed.). New York: Longman.

Yuen, Belinda, 2008. "Sport and Urban Development in Singapore." *Cities* 25(1): 29-36.