CHAPTER – I

I.1: INTRODUCTION:

Mass Media

Mass communication is actually a one-way-mode of communication in which media communicates with the members of society and receives their appreciations and suggestions from time to time. It refers to means of connecting people from different parts of the globe by sharing information using technology. The medium through which mass communication occurs is called mass media. Basically the mass media are diversified media technologies that are intended to reach a large audience by mass communication. The technology through which this communication takes place varies. Broadcast media such as radio, recorded music, film and television transmit their information electronically. Print media use a physical object such as a newspaper, book, pamphlet or comics. Janowitz defined the Mass communication as follow—Mass communications comprise the institutions and techniques by which, specialized groups employ technological devices to disseminate symbolic content to large heterogeneous and widely dispersed audiences.

Media and Society:

From the primitive gong of the village town crier, the leaf lettering of anti-colonial movements, the bold headlines of the national dailies, the crystal clear news footages of the cable television networks, to the internet blogs, no one can seriously ignore the impacts of today's mass media on society, politics and governance, especially in developing democracies. In any democratic society media plays a very significant role. In today’s era the media is all around us. From the shows we watch on TV, the music we listen to on the radio, to the books, magazines, and newspapers we read each day. Without the media, people in societies would be isolated, not only from the rest of the world, but from governments, law-makers, and neighboring towns and cities. The flow of information is important for the development of communities and the media facilitates this. Without a wide array of information, people's opinions and
views would be limited and their impressions and conclusions of the world around them stunted. In an age of multinational media corporations we are constantly persuaded to believe that we live in a "global village" – a single, undifferentiated information society. Undoubtedly the flow of information through the media is greater and faster than it was, say, in the 1960s when the term "global village" was coined - still more by comparison with the age before mass broadcasting.

**Media and Democracy:**

Any democracy is impossible without a free media. The role of media in the democratic society can be understand with the popular saying of American founding father and third president of the united states Thomas Jefferson. Jefferson was a spokesman for democracy. On the Role of Media in the democratic society Thomas Jefferson had once said that if he had to choose between a government without newspapers or newspapers without a government, he would pick the latter, the popular saying of Thomas Jefferson known as Jeffersonian declaration. The mass media constitute the backbone of democracy. The media supplies the political information that voters base their decisions on. They identify problems in our society and serve as a medium for deliberation. They are also the watchdogs that we rely on for uncovering errors and wrongdoings by those who have power. Democracy requires the active participation of citizens and the media keep citizens engaged in the business of governance by informing, educating and mobilizing the public. The most important democratic functions that we can expect the media to serve are listed in an often-cited article by Gurevitch and Blumler (1990). These two functions include surveillance of sociopolitical developments, identifying the most relevant issues, providing a platform for debate across a diverse range of views, holding officials to account for the way they exercise power, provide incentives for citizens to learn, choose, and become involved in the political process, and resist efforts of forces outside the media to subvert their independence. It is the mass media that make the exercise of freedom of expression a reality. Freedom of the press affords the public one of the best means of discovering and forming
an opinion of the ideas and attitudes of their political leaders. In particular, it gives politicians the opportunity to reflect and comment on the preoccupations of public opinion; it thus enables everyone to participate in the free political debate which is at the very core of the concept of a democratic society. It informs the public about matters of public interest and act as a watchdog over government. The mass media, which proclaimed as the fourth estate, a co-equal branch of government that provides the check and balance without which no government can be effective in any democratic country. In India democracy took a giant step forward with the first general election held in 1951-52 over a four-month period. These elections were the biggest experiment in democracy anywhere in the world. The elections were held based on universal adult franchise, with all those twenty-one years of age or older having the right to vote. There were over 173 million voters, most of them poor, illiterate, and rural, and having had no experience of elections. The big question at the time was how the people would respond to this opportunity. Many were skeptical about such an electorate being able to exercise its right to vote in a politically mature and responsible manner. Some said that democratic elections were not suited to a caste-ridden, multi-religious, illiterate and backward society like India's and that only a benevolent dictatorship could be effective politically in such a society. The coming elections were described by some as 'a leap in the dark' and by others as 'fantastic' and as 'an act of faith.'

History of Mass Media in India
Indian mass media consists of several different types of communications: Newspapers, television, radio, cinema, magazines, and internet-based websites. Indian media is active since the late 18th century with print media started in 1780, radio broadcasting initiated in 1927, and the screening of Auguste and Louis Lumière moving pictures in Bombay initiated during the July of 1895—is among the oldest and largest media of the world. The first newspaper Bengal Gazette was started by James Augustus Hicky in 1780. The Gazette, a two-sheet newspaper, specialised in writing on the private lives of the Sahibs of the Company. He dared even to mount scurrillious attacks on the Governor-
General, Warren Hastings' wife, which soon landed "the late printer to the honourable Company" in trouble. Hicky was sentenced to 4 months jail term and Rs.500 fine, which did not deter him. After a bitter attack on the Governor-General and the Chief Justice, Hicky was sentenced to one year in prison and fined Rs.5,000, which finally drove him to penury. These were the first tentative steps of journalism in India. The southern India got its first newspaper as The Madras Courier in 1785 by Richard Johnson, a government printer. In 1878, The Hindu was founded, and played a vital role in promoting the cause of Indian independence from the colonial yoke. Today this paper enjoys the highest circulation in South India, and is among the top five nationally. Bombay was a late starter compare to Calcutta (now Kolkata) and Madras (now Chennai). The Bombay Herald came into existence in 1789. Significantly, a year later a paper called the Courier started carrying advertisements in Gujarati.

The emergence of twenty-four hour television news channels in India started during the last decade of 20th century. However the news on television was already on Doordarshan, but it was not round the clock and another thing is that it was government owned. The private television news channels changed the style of Journalism in India. Post-1990 satellite television in India has become transnational in nature. It coincided with the entry of multinational companies in the Indian markets under the Government policy of privatization. International satellite television was introduced in India by CNN through its coverage of the Gulf War in 1991. In August 1991, Richard Li launched Star Plus, the first satellite channel beamed the signal to Indian subcontinent. Subhash Chandra’s Zee TV appeared in October 1992. It is India’s first privately owned Hindi channel to cater the interest of Indian viewers. Doordarshan’s earlier mandate to aid in the process of social and economic development had clearly been diluted. Doordarshan had faced a stiff competition in news and public affairs programming with international channels like BBC and CNN. For televised news, the viewers had to watch Doordarshan and some international news channels like BBC or CNN. In this race to provide more news, more information, Zee Television jumped into the battlefield by launching the news
channel Zee News in 1995. This News and current affairs channel revolutionized the way news was delivered to the viewers. The other round-the-clock news channel, the Murdoch owned Star TV beamed its exclusively 24-hour news channels, Star News in 1998. After the huge success of news programme _Aaj Tak_, TV Today group launched a 24-hour Hindi news channel with the same name _Aaj Tak_, in December 2000, which covers India with insight, courage and plenty of local flavour. Within 11 months of its launch, Aaj Tak emerged as India's number one news channel. The trend of 24 hours news channel which started in 1995, still continued.10 In any society or democracy media needs freedom in its work. Indian media has been free and Independent throughout the most of its history, even before establishment of Indian empire by the Great Asoka, on the foundation of righteousness, openness, morality and spirituality. Only the period of emergency (1975–1977), declared by Prime Minister Indira Gandhi, was the brief period when India's media was faced with potential government retribution.

**Sport and the Media**

In many ways, both today's sport and the media are classic outcomes and, indeed, icons of the far-reaching social, economic and technological change that characterized the twentieth century. Each has developed extensively and rapidly as a major global industry. Each plays a significant part in structuring and informing people’s lives. Each has a global as well as more local scope of operation and has the structures and practices to reflect this. Importantly, they are two industries tied together in complex networks of relationships. Their respective histories of development have been fuelled and influenced by the dynamics of this partnership. The evidence of the partnership is all too apparent. The wellbeing of particular sports or, indeed, sport as whole has become linked to income generated directly or indirectly from the media. The way in which sport fills newspaper pages and television and radio schedules bears testimony to the influence it has on the structure and extent of media activity. However, partnerships are not always equal, stable or constructive for those involved. In
this chapter, consideration will be given to a number of themes and issues that characterize the link between sport and the media. Difficulties and tensions exist but ultimately a media sports product emerges whether it is, for example, a live TV broadcast of the Olympic Games or a newspaper report on a local rugby match. This raises a series of issues about the nature of the product. Does the media presentation of sport mirror reality or is it a representation and a construction reflecting the media’s objectives and the influences and practices of the professionals working in it? Such questions will also be considered later but they in turn introduce the part played by the audience for media sport. For example, is the viewer knowledgeable about the sports products on offer to them and do they exercise choice about what they view and how they receive the messages and influences inherent in the programmes? The chapter will conclude by addressing this conundrum. Questions about the genesis and content of media products and the influences impacting on them figure prominently in what is a growing sociology of sport literature on media sport (Kinkema and Harris, 1998; Maguire, 1999; Rowe, 1999; Wenner, 1998; Whannel, 1992).

The mass media entered the twentieth century with the emphasis on the printed word. Today, in the early years of the twenty-first century, it is television and radio that are to the fore. Satellite-based multinational companies like BSkyB TV have appeared on the scene and are now major players in the global sport media marketplace. There are new developments like the Internet which have further extended media activities. Sport has long been an important aspect of media output but more recently there has been a growth in specialist media sports products. Dedicated sports-only TV channels (e.g. SkySport1), radio stations (e.g. Talk Sport), and publications (e.g. Sports First) have appeared in ever increasing numbers. The exposure to and consumption of media products, including those concerned with sport, have increased dramatically. A Henley Centre report has gone as far as to suggest that people in the UK spend nine hours a day consuming media in its various forms, with television viewing occupying the equivalent of a day a week. (Financial Mail on Sunday, 31 Jan.
Television has, indeed, become a principal leisure activity and source of information. Through it we gather our knowledge not only of our immediate world but also of the complex global village in which we now live. It acts as a key socialization agent and is integral to framing, determining and influencing our picture of reality. Our experience of sport has become increasingly constructed and ordered through television output.

Sport has become ‘big business’. It is now a well-established global industry with international organizing bodies, like the International Olympic Committee (IOC), eager to promote and structure its further development. Sport, but not necessarily in all its forms, has something to sell. It has its events, leagues, clubs and elite performers. Sport can make money but the costs involved, not least the large rewards paid to the top performers in some sports and the capital and revenue expense of increasingly spectacular sports stadiums, has left it with an insatiable appetite for more and more funding. The world of sport is a competitive one, not just in terms of which team tops the league or who wins the gold medal, but also which sports are able to attract the greatest financial resources. The relationship with the media is central to the political economy of sport. Traditionally, it was the medium through which key information like schedules of events/matches, venues and times were transmitted to the public. Today, the media, primarily television, offer sport-added attractions in terms of finance from broadcasting fees and exposure to advertisers, sponsors and a wider audience. Hence there is the all too apparent readiness of sports organisations to get involved with the media. However, alongside the obvious benefits come some possible costs to sport. To link with the media has meant sport losing a degree of control over its own activities and destiny. The promise of media attention and the wide-ranging spin-offs (in terms of increased profile, status and finance, greater numbers of participants and spectators and enhanced attractiveness to sponsors and advertisers) make such loss of control something sports organisations appear willing to accept (Goldlust, 1987). The ability to appreciate and deal with the full extent of the consequences of its partnership
with the media is a major challenge confronting sport in the twenty-first century.

The Sports Media Partnership

The media Competition and Control

The media sport production process involves the sports organisations, e.g. the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA), the governing body of world football, working with the media companies. The sports bodies may do this directly or through intermediary marketing and promotional agencies operating on their behalf. They may engage with the media as individual companies or in partnership with others. The media organisation concerned may be a quasi-governmental body, like the British Broadcasting Company, or a multinational global commercial one such as BSkyB. A sport has something to sell, such as the TV and radio broadcasting rights to cover its world championships, and it is up to the media companies to submit bids. The competition to become the agreed lead broadcaster can be intense, although the sheer size of the financial undertaking can lead to fierce media rivals working together on a bid. In the example of FIFA selling the rights to its World Cup, the sums involved are considerable and the bidding and decision-making processes are complex and sensitive. Competition for broadcasting rights and the prominence of sport in media schedules have had a dramatic inflationary effect on the fees paid to some sports. An early globally televised Olympics, such as the 1964 Tokyo Games, cost the lead broadcaster around £1m. More recently, it has been reported that the US broadcaster NBC has paid the IOC $3.5bn for the rights to the Winter Olympics of 2002 (Salt Lake City) and 2006 (Turin) and the Summer Olympics of 2004 (Athens) and 2008 (Beijing). These massive sums of money have to be balanced out by the very considerable amount of airtime that can be filled by such events. Indeed, sports broadcasting can be seen as a relatively cheap way to fill schedules. Sports events can also be particularly useful for the all-important audience ratings by attracting large numbers of viewers and listeners. For example, ITV in the UK attracted 23.2 million viewers, some 80 per cent of the available television public for the
England versus Argentina football match at the 1998 World Cup finals. The number of viewers peaked to almost 27 million during the penalty shootout! (*Sport First*, 3 Jan. 1999: 16). A successful bidder’s production costs for a major global sports event will involve the expense incurred in securing the broadcasting rights plus a heavy investment in people, accommodation, travel and equipment. It is not surprising therefore that a media company will endeavour to exercise considerable control over the event. If the sporting event concerned is not one that is deemed to be particularly attractive, then to get the media on board may involve the sports organisation accepting an especially weak bargaining and control position. Even when the sports organisation involved is powerful, such as the IOC or FIFA, there is still a trade-off in terms of a loss of control. This can lead to significant changes in sport, for example, to dates, times and venues. The actual structure and presentational style of an event may be strongly reflective of the media’s interests. Football’s World Cup competition is an example of a particularly large-scale and well-established sport event but it is still not immune from media preferences. Indeed, loss of control needs to be considered whenever a sports organisation, however local and small, gets involved with the media. Many more sports and events are vying for media money and to an extent, the media, notably television with its schedules to fill, are not averse to encouraging sports bodies to approach them.

The rise in the numbers and influence of the private media companies has had a number of important consequences. The private sector is characterized by the existence of some large-scale monopolistic groupings. Global media entrepreneurs like Rupert Murdoch, Alan Bond, Kerry Packer and Silvio Berlusconi have recognized the value of media sport and each has, to a varying degree, made a significant impact on the world of sport. BSkyB in the UK, FoxTV in North America and Channel Seven in Australia form just part of Murdoch’s extensive News Corporation media empire. Each has won major sports contracts and invested heavily in sports related programming. Murdoch’s activities cover radio, TV and newspapers and have put him in a powerful position to direct media sport developments. In some cases, these multinational
media companies have gone further and strengthened their controlling opportunities by actually moving into sport’s ownership through investing in clubs. BSkyB’s ambitious, but eventually thwarted, attempt to take a controlling stake in Manchester United is a telling case in point.

Another important control aspect of global media sport is the power exercised by the North American media market. The upward explosion in certain broadcasting fees has been fuelled largely by US media money. Sport on television is particularly popular in the USA and the advertising revenue the media companies can obtain on the back of sports coverage can be enormous. For example, advertising slots around TV coverage of the American Football’s Super bowl can cost many thousands of dollars per second. In the UK, the private satellite-based companies have put themselves in a powerful position with regard to their terrestrial and, sometimes, public sector competitors. BSkyB started buying up the right to cover events and sports as soon as it appeared in the UK. Sport was seen as a particularly useful product through which to sell subscriptions to its service. There had always been competition to broadcast some sports. However, the emergence of BSyB injected new dynamism into the media sport marketplace and highlighted the differential abilities of media organisations to compete financially. The licence-fee-funded BBC, which for so long had enjoyed a high reputation for its sports programming, has found itself unable to match the sports resources available in the private sector, principally the satellite companies. It has lost out on the rights to cover many major sports or particular events and is now criticised for what appears to be a lack of commitment to sport. Flagship BBC programmes like Grandstand, for decades Britain’s leading media sports product, has become marginalized as it has sought to fill its time with an increasingly limited diet of available events. From season 2001/02, another symbol of the BBC’s long-standing contribution to sport (i.e. its Saturday evening football highlights programme), has been lost to another terrestrial channel (i.e. ITV), albeit working in partnership with BSkyB. Whilst the BBC may be marginalized in the media sport marketplace, other UK media organisations like ITV and
Channel 4 have looked to increase their involvement. The latter has wide sporting interests and has invested in motor racing, Italian football, WWF (wrestling) and cricket. To a degree, competition for sports to cover has extended the choice for the television viewer but the question of access is a somewhat more complex question.

**Issues of Access and Equity:**

As media sport has risen in prominence, so questions have to be asked about whether this represents sport for all or only for some. The extensive involvement of satellite companies and their array of dedicated sports only channels have clearly led to a major extension of the range and number of sports choices available to viewers. However, this has come at a financial cost to the viewer in terms of the equipment (e.g. satellite discs) and regular subscriptions that are required. These kinds of financial factors, allied to the satellite companies’ growing domination of broadcasting rights, highlight the issue of equity in the sense of media sport becoming primarily the preserve of those people who can afford it. Interestingly, the greater involvement, indeed in some ways the re-emergence, of ITV in the media sport marketplace has been through the introduction of a subscription-based channel. The financial implications for the viewer are likely to become even more problematic as the private companies offer more sport on a ‘pay-to-view’ basis. This involves events (e.g. boxing championships and selected English Premier League football matches), which require the viewer to make a one-off payment on top of their subscription. The introduction of BSky B’s ‘pay-to-view’ facility (i.e. Sky Box Office), is representative of what may be the greatest challenge to wide access to media sport.

Governments, particularly in the European Union, have been encouraged to respond to this equity concern, particularly when it is access to major national sporting events that is coming under threat. In 1996, ironically one media form (newspapers), led a ‘Save our Sport’ campaign in the UK which opposed the movement of sports events to the satellite companies. Government intervention
was called for. The campaign arose in response to Sky buying up, and attempting to monopolise, the media coverage of top sporting events. An example of Sky’s success was the obtaining of the rights to golf’s Ryder Cup. The significance and concerns at the time can be summed up in the following quote from a disgruntled BBC producer: ‘They’ve sold it to a station nobody watches. It’s like buying Gone with the Wind and showing it at the bottom of a coalmine’. (The Mail on Sunday, 14 Jan. 1996: 86). In the UK, there are a number of ‘jewels in the sporting calendar’, like the Football Association’s Cup Final and the Wimbledon tennis championships, which are on a special government list requiring them to be broadcast on terrestrial TV. This list has protected opportunities for the media sport consumer but it is a safeguard constantly under threat as the satellite media companies see a valuable and popular commodity beyond their grasp and the sports organisations involved see potentially lucrative events being kept out of the broadcasting rights marketplace. Interestingly, both FIFA and the IOC have resisted approaches from BSkyB on the grounds that a satellite-based broadcaster did not offer access to the highest possible audience. This is not to say that FIFA and the IOC have not gone some way towards appeasing the media. Both these world bodies have extended the number and the scale of their international flagship events. In doing so they have provided even more broadcasting opportunities. The FIFA World Cup finals now involve more teams than previously and the event extends over a longer time period. Such specific changes in sport are now, to a large extent, often part of a deliberate response to the pressures and promises of being part of the media sport Partnership.

The media involvement in changing face of sports
Media’s increasing involvement in, and control over, sport and sports organizations has put it in a powerful position to dictate the characteristics of events or, indeed, even to change fundamental aspects of a sport (e.g. its rules). Sport’s sovereignty over its own destiny has weakened. In essence, the media have come to play an increasingly influential part in both the construction and destruction of sporting structures and practices. The media have been influential
in the genesis and development of new competitions, events and leagues. New sport forms have appeared and old ones have become marginalized. Rules have been changed and playing conditions revised so as to enhance media coverage. Even the clothes athletes wear and the equipment they use have come to reflect media-related interests. The colours and designs can add to the spectacle and the drama. Names on the players’ kit help the viewer. Sponsors’ logos proliferate. Opportunities to link media, sport and commerce are all too readily available. For example, the increasingly spectacular sports stadiums provide backdrops ‘wallpapered’ with advertising hoardings. Sport has become more of a product that is manufactured, bought and sold. The sports organisations have gone along with this and, increasingly, have used agents and marketing companies to get their particular products into the media sport market place. Thus further complexity to the web of interdependencies that characterizes media sport has been introduced. The media/sport production complex that has emerged today comprises the sports organisations, the media marketing organisations and the media personnel (Wenner, 1989).

Sometimes a sport jumps before it is pushed and, in a quest to make itself attractive as a media product, has been keen to introduce changes itself. Highly traditional aspects of the sporting experience disappear or are diluted. English football was once a Saturday afternoon ritual: today it has become almost a daily event as the television companies endeavour to fill their schedules and, importantly, maximize the return on the considerable sums they have invested in the game. Not only can the sporting day change, but so too can the season. English Rugby League, traditionally a winter sport, has now developed a seemingly made-for-television summer Super League characterized by a quest for entertainment and impact (Falcous, 1998). Clubs have changed their names (e.g. to the Bradford ‘Bulls’), so as to enhance the spectacle and to offer potentially more commercial spin-offs. Rugby League in England has come under increasing competition for funding and exposure; the newly professional rugby union game has emerged as one notable threat. The media-inspired Super League has offered salvation, even though the trade-off has involved the loss of
traditions and even the disappearance or downgrading of long-established and famous clubs. There are numerous examples where sports with a record of limited or reducing attraction to media companies have tried to encourage interest. It is not always easy to establish the extent to which the push originated from the media companies. Night games and coloured clothing and many other changes in cricket, tighter ‘figure hugging’ clothing in a number of female sports (e.g. netball), and rule changes to speed up play (e.g. hockey), are just a few examples of sports trying to add to the glamour and spectacle and thus make them more marketable. Specific timetabling changes in sports events have been made that are all too clearly about meeting the needs of the media. Events are sometimes held at times that would not appear to be in the best interests of the athletes involved, but which fit in with the viewing habits of the primarily North American television audience. Olympic or World Championship marathons run at the hottest time of the day and a number of high-profile heavyweight boxing championships in the early hours of the morning are cases in point. In the UK, football and rugby matches are not only played on non-traditional days, but lunchtime or early evening kick-offs have become part of the experience. Sports agree to such conditions so as to secure the best broadcasting fees. However, whether such decisions benefit the spectator or are consistent with the wellbeing of the athletes concerned is questionable. The commercial media gain much of their income from advertising, hence the introduction of more or longer breaks in sports events. North American sport, in so many ways the exemplar of the practical realization of media influence, is characterized by action frequently and deliberately punctuated by the ‘time-outs’ or other breaks in proceedings. Association football has a ‘15-minute’ halftime break which apparently ends when the referee receives the signal that the TV advertising has been completed.

Another area of sports development particularly reflective of media involvement has been the growth in the ‘big event’. The proliferation of high-profile and spectacular events, notably global championships and competitions (e.g. Rugby Union World Cup), has given the media access to larger and more
varied audiences and hence greater potential in terms of recruiting advertisers. The media can also be seen as a central factor in the emergence of new sports (e.g. beach volleyball and beach football). Attention has also been focussed on the way in which media companies have attempted to extend the wider global diffusion of sports. The initiatives taken by a partnership of the NFL, its sponsors and media companies to make American football a global game are prime examples (Maguire, 1990). A somewhat less far-reaching but nevertheless revealing initiative has been the coverage of Japanese Sumo wrestling, which has appeared on European television schedules. Sports, large and small, are vying for media attention, exposure and money but the experience of the media sport partnership is by no means the same for all of them.

**Who are the winners and Losers**

The greater penetration of the media into the world of sport has had an impact on the relative status of particular sports and also on relationships within sports. Sports that are especially attractive to the media (e.g. football), have gained far greater status, exposure and economic wealth compared with other sports. The more glamorous football clubs in the Premier League, with the wealth of their BSkyB/ITV contracts to support them, have been able to distance themselves from the rest of the clubs in England. The economic and political distance between sports and between clubs and leagues has widened. The media have helped fuel this in a direct sense by their patronage and contracts, but as sponsors and advertisers gravitate to the more glamorous and high-profile sports, events, leagues and clubs, so the differentials further increase. The introduction of media money and influence has also had an impact in pulling elite sport away from its roots. Elite sport, with its media-supported emphasis on spectacle, personalities and financial rewards, can become a somewhat alien activity for the recreational-level participant, who may have difficulty relating to it as the same sport. The elite performers in a number of sports have become all too aware of their marketability as part of the media sport package and also of the vast amounts of media money that have flowed into sport. Aided by the
emergence of agents working on their behalf, an increasing number of elite athletes have sought and obtained very high salaries or substantial prize money. This has further alienated athletes from the people who watch them on television and who read about them in the newspapers. Whilst all this media attention and money may raise the profile and status of elite athletes, this may also contribute to a more restricted life for them. They are now in the public eye and have become part of the media sport spectacle. Their degree of control over their own lives is brought into question. The media creates sporting personalities to help sell their programmes and newspapers and this involves athletes being media commodities in situations that can extend way beyond the direct sporting context. Media sport is about a production process. As media intrusion into sport continues to grow, it becomes more important to delve more deeply into the actual nature of the media sport product, how it is developed and the objectives behind it. The particular ways in which the media structure, direct and influence the public’s experience of sport and with what impact are now key concerns. They are more relevant when one considers the significant degree to which people now gain their sports knowledge and understanding through the media rather than through direct personal involvement in spectating and participation. As implied earlier, the media’s objective in engaging with sport is based largely on the profit motive. For the government supported media bodies there is the responsibility of providing a public service. The production process involves the media professionals using their knowledge and expertise to develop media sports products that reflect their ability and proficiency, and in doing so they are, in part, seeking to enhance their status and reputation, not least amongst their peers. These kinds of objectives impact on what is produced.

The media Sports Product: Characteristics Influences and Outcomes

Much of what has been discussed has centered on sport’s interrelationship with television and radio. The latter elements of the media are the ones injecting finance into sport and, increasingly, wishing to assume a greater degree of control. However, the media sports products on offer also include the printed
word, the traditional mediated way that sports knowledge and understanding have been conveyed to the public at large. This section examines the specific nature of the media sports product and what is influencing this. Therefore much of what is discussed reflects the activities of newspapers and other printed media as well as television and radio.

**Meanings and Messaging:**
Reference has been made to the higher profile of elite athletes and how the media have been instrumental in bringing this about. However, personality creation is only one of the ways in which the media influence and direct the sporting experience for their customers. This structuring of knowledge, messages and meanings inherent in media sport products has become an increasingly researched and significant area of interest (Lawrence and Rowe, 1986; McKay and Rowe, 1987; Sage, 1990; Whannel, 1992). It is a field of enquiry that encompasses interest in the ideological content of sports coverage and reporting and, in particular, how this reflects the dominant values and ideology prevalent in society. A principal focus is on the ways in which the media transmit the values and support the political and economic objectives of their owners and controllers. At a different level, there is the interest in the roles played by the media professionals and the nature and impact of their particular production codes and techniques on media sports products. In summary, the challenge is to examine the degree to which what the media audience is exposed not to a neutral and objective presentation of reality, but rather to a packaged representation and construction imbued with ideological content and reflective of the practical and professional interests of the production staff involved (Gruneau et al., 1988).

**Textual Messaging and Meanings:**
Research into the textual messages contained in the media sport output of various countries suggests the heavy influence of such ideological factors as capitalism, nationalism, patriarchy and racism (Gruneau, 1989b; Whannel, 1992; Sage, 1990). Each of these factors may reflect the ideological biases
evident within the ownership and control of the increasingly dominant multinational media companies and, indeed, the dominant values in a particular society.

**Capitalism**

Media sport is an area of endeavour where capitalist virtues can come to the fore, not least in the prevalence of the profit motive (Lawrence and Rowe, 1986, McKay and Rowe, 1987). The media, a key cultural industry and so much a symbol and vehicle of capitalist interests, have become, through sports pages and programming, a source of support for ownership values and priorities. Media’s implicit and explicit support for the dominance of monopoly capitalism has contributed to the resilience of capitalism in society and for the status quo in the way society is stratified. The inculcation and acceptance of the desired characteristics of the ‘workplace’ are fostered. The value of hard work and the spirit of free enterprise are characteristics to be found in sport that the media may choose to emphasize and describe in noticeably positive terms. An adherence to the work ethic is deemed worthy of particular praise. Core sporting characteristics such as competitiveness and teamwork are highlighted. An athlete’s power, aggression and competitiveness are applauded. The Olympic motto, *Citius, Altius, Fortius*, emphasises the challenge of getting ‘Faster, Higher and Stronger’. It is not surprising therefore that sport, particularly as it has become increasingly commercialized, has been seen by the media ownership as a site for promulgating capitalist values and interests. The USA can be portrayed as the leader in promoting the role and importance of capitalism. It is also a world leader in media sport. Bring these factors together and it is clear why the Americanization tendencies found in media sport production can be highlighted and explained in terms of monopoly capitalist domination. American media sport glorifies organisation and leadership. The qualities and ambitions inherent in the Olympic motto are particularly evident in US media and sport. There is also the fascination with sporting statistics to back up such interests.
Nationalism
Sociological research has highlighted the significance of media sport as a site for nationalistic fervor and national stereotyping (Maguire, 1999; Rowe et al., 1998). Nationalities can be promoted or put down. The home country’s athletes and teams are portrayed as heroes and their opposition as the villains of the piece. Sporting events can be used a vehicle for calling for unity within a nation and for a show of allegiance. Media-led national and local campaigns can be established to encourage the public to rally to the cause. Heightened emotional attachment can sell newspapers and recruit viewers and listeners. Nostalgic memories of past triumphs can be evoked as a way of ‘rallying the troops’. Whilst victories of a sporting nature (e.g. the, 1966 England football World Cup success), can be revisited by the media, it is not unusual for audiences to be reminded of events of a non-sporting nature. For example, during the Euro ’96 Football Championship held in England, the British media drew attention to the Spanish Armada and the Second World War as part of the build-up to the host countries’ matches against Spain and Germany respectively (Maguire and Poulton, 1999). Newspaper coverage of events can involve the use of photographs and headlines to underline the stances being taken. A proliferation of national flags and colours on the sports pages (and even front pages) and emotive banner headlines may serve to direct the reader’s interest and enthusiasm. These kinds of media devices can be used extensively in the coverage of events. Story lines strongly reflective of nationalist interests are developed and presented.

Patriarchy
Gender bias and inequality are evident in both sport and media. It is not unexpected therefore that patriarchy is a characteristic of sport media products. It is an area that has come under close and extensive scrutiny (see, for example, Birrell and Cole, 1994; Duncan and Hasbrook, 1988; Eastman and Billings, 2000; Theberge, 1989; Williams et al., 1986). Media sport ownership and production are male dominated; sport and media sport are important aspects of culture which help to underpin male hegemony in society (Birrell and Theberge,
1994). Of particular attention to researchers has been the way in which the media disregard and marginalise women’s sport (Daddario, 1994). Female athletes and sports get little coverage in the media relative to their male counterparts. It is rare to find newspaper column inches and photographs allocated to women’s sport. Few female sports are to be found in television schedules and those that are tend to be given a low profile. Not only is the quantity of the media coverage of women’s sport highly limited, but its form and quality have also to be questioned. The media are seen to stereotype, trivialise and sexualise female athletes (Duncan, 1990; Duquin, 1989; MacNeil, 1988). Sportswomen are either put down as not fitting male perceptions of appropriate femininity or they are glamorised. Attention has been drawn to photographic approaches that highlight and emphasise the physical characteristics and attractiveness of some female athletes. The narrative that is attached to the media output is of a similar nature, often with sporting prowess disregarded or played down. There are fewer high-profile female athletes, a fact reflective of the low media attention paid to women’s sport in general. Those that do exist usually correspond to stereotypical images which frequently view sporting ability as a seemingly secondary consideration. An example is the extensive media coverage afforded to the Russian tennis player, Anna Kournikova: media interest has focused primarily on her physical attributes rather than her prowess on court. The connection between gender in media sport extends beyond the treatment of female sport and athletes. There is the interest in how the media report male sport. This can encompass a concern with the treatment of violence in sport (Young and Smith, 1989) and the imagery associated with male bodies and masculinity (Trujillo, 1995; Messner et al., 2000).

**Racism:**

The ownership control of the major global media institutions is dominated by white males. National media reflect dominant racial and ethnic interests (Tudor, 1998). The background, values and practices of the professionals working in the media and in sport are usually consistent with such concerns. The consequence
of all these factors is that the sporting achievements of certain groups can either be celebrated or played down in the sports media. In a similar fashion to gender, stereotyping based on racial or ethnic lines may also be evident (Davis and Harris, 1998). For example, black male athletes may well be applauded in the media for their aggression and physicality whilst their hard work and intelligence are disregarded. In contrast, it is the latter attributes that the media assign to the white athletes. On television the performance of black athletes is frequently linked to such stereotypical attributes as natural ability and tactical naivety (Whannel, 1992: 129). Racism in the media can also be seen to reflect a kind of nationalistic prioritization. International success by black British athletes can get played down in comparison to similar successes achieved by their white counterparts. The above kinds of ideological influences are important considerations when examining media sport but so too are the particular professional approaches of the people who actually put together the programmes and newspapers.

The Media Professionals
The media professionals (e.g. producers, directors, commentators, reporters and cameramen) exist to produce a media sports package that aims to attract, interest and excite their audience. They work in a particularly competitive working environment. The emphasis is on making the product attractive and to this end it is sometimes difficult to establish where the sport starts and the media event ends. Selling a televised sports programme is the paramount concern. Often sport is sold as ‘showbiz’ with similar characteristics to the Hollywood ‘thriller’ or the weekly ‘soap opera’. It not surprising that what emerges is a distorted and packaged representation of reality rather than a neutral, objective and natural presentation. Neutrality is clearly a debatable point, as the evidence of the ideological content referred to above illustrates. The various professionals working in television and radio attempt to naturalize events for their audience. They bring to bear the skills and technical developments. They endeavour to provide atmosphere and to encourage a feeling of attachment to what is happening. They present the event as being an
experience of reality. The media companies may bill sporting programmes as providing a 'ringside seat', but in many ways nothing could be further from the truth. So much is missed by not being present at the event and so much is added by the media professionals. Not all your senses are brought to bear. The media sports experience is not the same as being there live at the event. Sociological research has suggested a number of key characteristics of the media sports product (Grueneau, 1989a; McKay and Rowe, 1987; Whannel, 1992). Each of these characteristics reflects the way in which media professionals work to a series of codes, conventions, assumptions and approaches. The outcome is to move the audience away from a sporting and towards a media experience. The media interpret happenings and provide their audience with explanations and meanings. They structure our knowledge and understanding for us. What is offered is not inevitable. Decisions are taken for the audience; you are directed what to see and read and how to make sense of it. The media professionals construct and frame the sport experience their audience. The pre-event advertising and build-up, the nature of the presentation and its placement in the programming schedules help to provide the audience with information and points of reference to help explain what is going to happen and why it is significant. There is often harking back to previous events that are deemed to have a bearing on what is about to take place. Statistics and other historical material are presented to contextualize what is about to happen.

**Media Sports Production**

The ways in which meanings and messages are organized and influenced are reflected in the narrative, audio-visual and technical and presentational/packaging aspects and objectives of the media sports product. The media personnel involved are the commentators and reporters, photographers, camera operators, sound technicians, producers, editors and directors. These production aspects and individuals are central to what is, in essence, a process of event construction undertaken by the media. Increasingly, media sports programmes are being developed with the following important characteristics to the fore. There is, first, a growing emphasis on
spectacularisation (Gruneau, 1989a; Sewart, 1987). Reference has already been made to the growth of the big global sporting occasions. These offer opportunities to add variety, colour and impact, to enhance the entertainment element and to provide a wealth of material for the ‘big build-up’ to the event. The Olympics have gone far beyond the status of a sports event. The opening ceremonies have become spectacles tailor-made for the medium of global television.

**The Choreography of the Opening of the Olympics: A made for Television Spectacular**

A second powerful characteristic of media sport production is that of dramatization. The media professionals set up story lines around the sporting event and the individuals involved. They work to script the event so as to excite. They provide pre-event discussion and analysis. The audience’s appetite and anticipation are heightened by the extent and form of the build-up that the media provides. The media endeavour to create or home in on tension, emotion and incidents. Suspense, conflict and confrontation are emphasized so as to add to the dramatic effect. Event creation has already been discussed but the media may go further than just helping in the establishment of a particular competition or the development of new sport; they may create happenings within events. For example, a head-to-head encounter between the top two track and field athletes from a particular discipline can provide the drama and personalization on which the media thrive. Television and radio seek to heighten the dramatic impact by offering the audience a sense of immediacy. The television sport presentation aims to provide that ringside seat mentioned earlier. The media claim to get their audience as close as possible to the action: replays, camera angles and interviews are employed to enhance this effect. Stump cameras in cricket coverage get you close to action. You too can see what it is like to face the bowling! Athletes today face a barrage of cameras and microphones the moment their event/match is over. Cameras are now even going into changing rooms. A third aspect of media construction is the process of personalization that is undertaken. Individual sportspeople are highlighted,
built up and examined, often in great detail. Media sport superstars are born. Post event/ match press conferences are now a fact of life for many athletes. Both sporting and non-sporting lives come under the media microscope. Great deeds or misdemeanors of the past are resurrected and inspected. The audience is encouraged to associate with and warm to an individual. Alternatively they may be asked to view an individual in less than favorable terms Heroes and villains are created. Interpersonal rivalries are highlighted, indeed invented by the media. The media’s obsession with the relationship between Sebastian Coe and Steve Ovett is a classic example (Whannel, 1992: 140–8). An interesting example from British media sport is the footballer, Vinnie Jones, labeled by the media as a ‘hard man’ characterized by his uncompromising way of playing. Reference was frequently made to his past offences and colorful disciplinary record. Ironically and perhaps revealingly, Vinnie was later to find stardom as a stereotypical villain and ‘hard man’ in another media form, that of films. Often criticised but much in evidence in the construction of media sport production is the use of expert analysis. The wise head with the penetrating insights to aid the lead commentator and the panel of experts to tell us what is going and why have now become the norm in so many sports presentations. Love them or hate them, these individuals (usually former players or managers/coaches) are there to take a role in educating the members of the audience, directing them to the salient aspects of what is about to or has happened and, importantly, to structure and influence their opinions. These various media sport construction characteristics are reinforced and enabled by the actual technical conventions and devices employed in the media world. In newspapers, sports reporting is developed and enhanced through the skills of the editors, headline writers and photo-journalists. Sports reporting lend itself to the emotive and ‘catchy’ headline and to the dramatic or heart-rending photograph. Often a picture can send a stronger message than words. In television, the programme director is central to making the most of the media opportunities available. They are aided in this task by skilled camera and sound work. A camera angle obtained and then selected by the director can add to the spectacle and drama of the occasion. Event location can help: the coverage of swimming events at the Barcelona Olympics in, 1992
will long be remembered for the spectacular backdrop of the city. Similarly sound – imported or at the actual event – can be used to direct the attention and interest of the audience.

The Media Sports Audience

A major question surrounding media sport is the role played by the audience. Are they knowledgeable about the media sport product to which they are exposed? Are they able to make informed choices about what they see, hear and read? One viewpoint maintains that the audience does exercise free choice and is essentially receiving the sports media products that they want. Their wishes are reflected in the output from the media companies and the professionals who work for them. The media are viewed as neutral and pluralist, reflecting the diversity in their audience and respecting the sovereignty of their consumers. A contrary viewpoint sees the media sport audience as one lacking in knowledge and experience. Despite physical improvements in the many sports venues and the attempts by sports organisations to make the ‘live’ experience a pleasurable and exciting one, for an increasing number of people, their experience of elite sport is solely through the media. The ‘couch spectator’ has before them a wealth of media sports products to choose from, together with a growing array of gadgetry to make the involvement more interesting and personal. Interactive television, with the ability to choose highlights, to select camera angles and to have facts and figures at the press of a button, is promoted as superior to being present at the event. It can be argued that one aspect of the changing nature of this engagement with sport is a reduction in first-hand knowledge of what actual goes on at the ‘live’ event. The sporting knowledge-base of the audience is therefore reduced and thus renders them more susceptible to the interpretations provided by the media.

Media Sports: Where and How

The media set fashions but are also influenced by wider social change. They are conscious of the importance of keeping their viewers, listeners and readership. Ratings and sales and linked advertising revenues are crucial and are monitored
carefully. Sport, by engaging with the media, has increasingly linked itself with what is a volatile industry built powerfully on the profit motive. It is also a highly competitive industry with media sport broadcasting rights a sensitive and significant battleground. Media commitment to sport, and more particularly to certain sports or events, can change, leaving an ever more dependent world of sport vulnerable to instability. How elite commercialized sport continues to operate in such an environment will be of particular interest. Further far-reaching changes in some sports and in some events may result. Will the line between what counts as sport entertainment and what counts as media entertainment become even more blurred? The initial inroads made by media companies into direct ownership of sport may well be extended. This would fundamentally alter the balance of power within the media sport partnership and enhance the likelihood of a growth in ‘made-for-television’ sport. Is the rise to prominence of WWF wrestling the shape of things to come? Developments in the forms and technical aspects of media, principally the use of the Internet, may have a profound effect on media sport production. This is yet another unknown factor to take into account. New players in what will become an increasingly global media sport marketplace, perhaps more specialized media sports companies, may further enhance the money flowing into sport, but will the patterning still remain in terms of which sports benefit and which do not? The extension of ‘pay-to-view’ ways of marketing and receiving media sports products is highly likely and therefore, the issues of access and equity are unlikely to disappear in the short term. How the media sport audience reacts to these kinds of developments will be vital. The media live or die on the success or not of their ratings or circulation. Will media sport still retain massive audiences in the years ahead or will the public discover participation and ‘live’ spectating to be far more satisfying? In doing so, will the audience come to recognize that what they have been receiving as media sport has moved too far away from what sport should be about? Inevitably the answers lie in the capacity of the public to influence their own media usage habits and the ability of the media, in all its forms, to keep its audiences contented with what is offered.
The Role of the Media:

The media is known as the mass communication industry, it includes newspaper, television, radio, internet, and other means or instrumentality for storing and communicating information. Recently, the publicity which sports enjoy is second to none. The media gets people informed of the happenings within their locality and far beyond. Folks can relax at the comfort of their homes, and simply recourse to their media devices for life-streaming and updates of sporting activities throughout the world. And they can share their opinions live on various issues in sports. When sport is publicized, do you really know the beneficiaries? The athlete! He becomes popular, and if he is the best, then he becomes an icon, a demigod and his name enters into the hall of fame. Most importantly, the spectators are not left out. Without the spectators and the media, the game will lose its substance. Through the media, sports today are presented with electrifying beauty. This makes sports attractive and lucrative. Little wonder too that sports command high followership. Surely, it is a perfect opportunity to invest and advertise, even in collaboration with the athletes themselves. It is therefore not strange that athletes from poor and illiterate background, become multi-billionaires. The media encourages people to develop reasonable interests in engaging in sports. Either for fun, excitement, recreation, physical fitness or health care. In the homes, countless number of youths involves themselves in sporting activities. This has contributed to the remarkable improvement of fitness among the youths. Another role that the media play in sports is the advocacy of unity among diverse races, religions, ethnic groups, language, colour, peoples, idiosyncrasies and world-views. Sworn enemies become temporary friends as long as they root for a team in action. Many sports publicly condemn and penalize racism, and similar forms of discrimination. Today, sports have been able to utilize the media in projecting the cause for child education. Governments of several countries have through the media, used sports to promote the education of children, and the need for young people to work harder towards a set goal. They use the achievements of some sports men and women as motivation; for instance, the one Goal
programme of UNICEF. The marriage between the media and sports has been of immense impact in the economy of many a country, e.g. England, Spain, South Africa, Germany, Italy, USA, Brazil, etc. Since today’s sports are made attractive through the instrumentality of the media, and millions of people are glued to their Television, radio, internet, even the newspapers, countries are expected to utilize this as a means to attract investors.

The Adverse Circumstances of the Media:

Fanaticism in sports is no doubt a potential danger and a challenge that rocks today’s society. There is no doubt too that the media contributes to fanaticism. The efficiency of the media in transmitting sports gives fans uninterrupted opportunities to support their teams. A pitiable number of fans are strangers to curtailing the excesses posed by sports; unending excesses which in modern day is traced to the media. With such media excesses, sports fanatics and friends fall guilty of consciously or unconsciously substituting sports for God. We had said that sports, with the aid of the media, are pivotal in the advancement of the campaign for education. But the fashion in which the athletes are glamorously celebrated by the media is unfortunately a threat to the aforementioned campaign. As stated earlier, literacy is no criterion for being the best athlete in the world. And young people, fully cognizant of this, opt for sports in place of education, as the quickest means to success and fame. It is a fact that the media has been able to capture the attention of both the young and the old; and using sports as one of its attractions, many exhausts valuable time on sports. We stand to wonder what impact parents can make in guiding the young who are glued two – four – seven to their media devices – from where they choose role models.

Simple Admonition:

“Virtue” they say, “lies in the middle”. It is established that the importance of sports, and the role media play, can never be overemphasized. and it is beneficial that we apply caution to the possible excesses that flow from these activities. It is a common knowledge that the number of persons that visit our
libraries today is fast dwindling. People now see that it is easier to get information with the electronic media such as internet, television, radio, phones, etc. It is astonishing; the meager number of persons that read printed copies of books. This indeed is a cause for concern.

Communication, the process of creating shared meaning through sending and receiving information, is vital for understanding and providing knowledge to people.\(^2\) It enables people to understand and appreciate their environment, and facilitate relationships between and among individuals and societies. Communication can be oral or written; formal or informal; verbal or non-verbal; traditional or modern. Whatever form it takes communication is meant to convey information from one party to another. The source, message, medium, receiver and effects are the main ingredients of communication.\(^3\) Communication between a mass medium and its audience is mass communication.\(^4\) There are multiple ways by which communication is made, and these are collectively known as the “media”.

**The importance of communication and media**

The promotion of sport events is a marketing technique that requires the targeting of a niche market. When marketing sport events, it is fundamental to try and reach subjectivity in the transmission of certain messages that will be received by fans and/or others directly involved in the “consumption” of a specific service. Impressions of the organization have a strong impact on the customers’ perception of a product or service (Pickton & Broderick, 2005). It therefore comes natural to understand that the activities of a sponsor for a specific event, even if not directly related to the event, are also fundamental in the marketing of the product.

In general, a medium can be defined as:

“[…] Anything that is capable of carrying or transmitting a marketing communications message to one or more people” (Pickton & Broderick, 2005, p. 116). Finally, in a globalized world where information is at the hand of almost everyone, understanding how activity through media, and social media
in particular, can satisfy the needs of fans, is fundamental for sport event organizers as it will help them to “increase the levels of involvement and ultimately, improve business results” (Van Shaik, 2012).

Old Media
In general, companies rely on effective ads in order to get the customers to purchase a specific product or service. In order to do so, companies need to develop a specific media strategy, which can be defined as “the process of analyzing and choosing media for an advertising and promotion campaigns” (Clow & Baack, 2010, p. 234). In order to develop this media strategy, a media planning is of fundamental importance. In order to successfully implement a media plan, a company needs to carefully identify a segment of the market to be targeted and to understand what the main influencers of its publics’ decision-making process are. Media plans can be more focused on what we call the “old media” or on the more modern “new media” or on a hybrid advertising strategy. This chapter looks at the different advantages and disadvantages in the usage of three different old media: the television, newspapers and the radio. One could easily argue that with the current advancements in technology, the usage and reception of old-media-marketing is futile. However, it is important to understand how different aims and communication goals require wide spectrum of communication tools and media to transmit a specific message. These tools can, even in our modern days, be identified in the older media.

Television
According to R. L. Phillips (2005), television advertising is a marketing method that diverges broadly both in terms of demand as well as in desirability. This is applicable to both the company advertising as well as to the consumer. Not only will marketer much rather have his spot broadcasted at a hit prime-time TV show, rather than at 5 am during an unknown event; but also the consumer will much rather watch an ad that actually fits his or hers needs, as stated in the “Recency Theory” (Fill, 2009). This brings us to one of the first drawbacks of television advertising: the inability to efficiently target the market, something that Clow and Baack (2010) identified as a prerequisite in creating a successful
media plan. Another disadvantage of television advertising is the great clutter present due to so many ads being broadcasted during a program. As it can be read in Clow’s and Baack’s paper (2010), during prime-time shows in the U.S., television ads average to circa 19 minutes and 31 ads for every hour of programming and breaks of up to 5 minutes are becoming more and more popular. The audience has therefore started to switch channels during commercial breaks, making ads at the beginning and at the end of these breaks much more valuable than the ones in the middle (Clow & Baack, 2010).

Another problem with television advertising is its short life-span: most ads need to capture the audiences’ attention in about 30 second (a good example for this are the Super Bowl 30-second ads) and the marketers therefore need to make a very good job in creating an effective, catchy and short TV ad all in one. As defined by Keegan and Green (2011), television ads are forms of “paid television programming in which a particular product is demonstrated, explained and offered for sale to viewers” (p. 480). This brings us to the next shortcoming of marketing using television as a medium: the overall costs per ad are extremely high (Clow & Baack, 2010), as compared to the costs of advertising through most of the newer media. These costs don’t only refer to the actual time a company needs to pay for in order to be broadcasted, but the costs of producing the ad itself can be very high: on average, the costs for producing a TV ad in the U.S. can reach up to $358,000 (Clow & Baack, 2010).

However, although the overall costs can be very high, the cost per contact is low which, as Clow and Baack (2010) state, can be a justification to spend up to $3 million to produce a 30 second ad to be broadcasted during the Super Bowl. According to Clow and Baack (2010), there are many other advantages to television advertising, such as its high intrusion value, which can be obtained through motions and sounds; its high frequency potential and most of all its high reach. In fact, although nowadays the Internet has taken over a large amount of all advertising activities, people still watch television at home; they have favorite TV shows, movies and even online personalities, all factors that influence the decision for individuals’ to turn on their televisions.
Nowadays, television advertising may or may not be the best option for sport events. However, the strong involvement and cloud of emotionality that surround sports make sport games on TV interesting for advertisers, as they can promote a specific event to a group of targeted customers who are likely to watch certain games or matches on television. L. A. Wenner (1989) supports this statement by writing: “what makes the sports contest on television so appealing to advertisers may be the relative intensity with which sports fans view the game” (p. 14).

Newspapers

Today, more people than ever before read newspapers; this, thanks to the many different ways one can now read the news (Kilman, 2012). According to the World Association of Newspapers and News Publishers (WAN-IFRA), more than 50 percent of the world’s adult populations read the newspapers. The numbers speak clearly: according to the World Press Trend Report of 2012, 2.5 billion people read print-newspapers and 600 million read them in digital form. According to Kilman (2012) these numbers represent “more readers and users than total global users of the Internet”. This shift towards online-readership and the merging of old and new media has forced newspapers to adapt and change accordingly. The Huffington Post, for example, is now created to best fit the short attention spans and social-media dependency of the so-called “wired generation” (The Economist, 2012). The aims themselves of newspapers have slightly changed, with papers now wanting to post stories that stick into the readers’ minds and in order to do this, they mix both more serious and frothy news, these being accompanied by different opinions of guest bloggers (The Economist, 2012). These and other factors have caused a “lack of intensity” when considering the amount of time digital-news readers spend reading the news online as compared to print news. This, in turn, compromised the newspapers’ digital revenues, as they haven’t replaced the revenues lost in print with digital advertising (WAN-IFRA, 2012).

When considering more traditional print newspapers, Clow and Baack (2010) identify a variety of pros and cons of newspaper advertising. First of all,
newspapers offer a high geographic selectivity as people in one specific area mainly purchase them. Also, Clow and Baack (2010) write that flexibility is a main advantage as short lead times allow companies to quickly change and/or adapt ads. Another fundamental pro is the credibility that newspapers offer to readers, as they mainly focus on factual information rather than buzz. This can be considered a fundamental attribute when looking and the effectiveness of communication, as a high credibility factor increases the likelihood of a message being accepted by the receiver (Fill, 2009).

From a monetary perspective, newspaper advertising has a small cost per exposure, mainly because of cumulative volume discounts that companies are offered when buying column inches for advertising space (Clow & Baack, 2010). At the same time, newspaper advertising carries a few disadvantages, these including the short life span of ads, the poor quality opportunities, especially when it comes to colored ads and the strong competition imposed by the classified ads that the Internet offers (Clow & Baack, 2010).

Overall, according to Larry Kilman (2012), the newspaper one is a strong industry. At the same time, he says: “[...] Newspapers are changing, and must change, if they are to continue fulfilling their traditional role as watchdog, and as the provider of credible news and information that citizens need to make informed decisions in society. The problem is not one of audience. We have the audience. The challenge is largely one of business, of finding successful business models for the digital age”.

Radio
Nowadays, not only is the range of different platforms that allow the distribution and sharing of audio content constantly growing, but also more traditional telecommunications are merging and converging with modern media. Therefore, it is difficult to define the current and possible future meaning of “radio” or “radio industry” (Creative Skillset, 2010). Even if marketers are currently moving towards this merging of telecommunications and media, today the radio isn’t considered as being as exciting and glamorous as, for example,
television is (Clow & Baack, 2010). For smaller or local companies, radio advertising might be a good and effective solution, as radio allows marketers to define specific (and usually quite small) target markets according to the format of the radio station (Clow & Baack, 2010). Furthermore, radio makes memorization much easier: in fact, thanks to visualization or memorization techniques, skilled radio advertisers make it easier for the listener to remember a specific message (Clow & Baack, 2010). According to Clow and Baack (2010), another advantage of radio advertising is its flexibility and short lead-time. Thanks to these attributes, the creation/modification and placing in air of an ad can take place within a few days or even hours. Another attribute of radio advertising is the intimacy that it is able to create between the listener and a certain radio personality that the listener has grown to like throughout the time he or she has been listening to that radio station (Clow & Baack, 2010). This advantage is relevant to the purpose of this thesis, as sport events carry a great amount of emotionality with them, a feeling that is often conveyed by sport commentators to which fans feel personally close to.

However, radio advertising has a variety of drawbacks. As Clow & Baack (2010) state, some of the first disadvantages of radio advertising are the short exposure time of ads, as they usually last only about 15 to 30 seconds; the clutter, which causes lack of concentration from the audience and an information overload; and only little chances for a radio station to reach a wider and eventually national audience as is possible, for example, with television. However, the afore mentioned merging of traditional and more modern media has made it possible for radios to offer an online live streaming option, and therefore target the wider online-audience.

Radio advertising can be most successful when the target market, radio stations and broadcasting times are chosen carefully and when the ads are constructed in a way to immediately capture and retain the listener’s attention throughout the ad (Clow & Baack, 2010).
New Media

Throughout the past decades, there have been enormous advancements in computer technology, electronics and telecommunication. In particular, advancements made in the storage, analysis and retrieval of vast amounts of data have been occurring at an exponential rate. This, in turn, has led to the growth of database technology that has allowed companies to collect very useful information on customers and their buying behavior. However, according to Pickton and Broderick (2005) these technological advancements haven’t only led to larger databases, but also to a variety of other facilitations that will be listed below:

Targeted communication thanks to the storage and accessibility of a large amount of data, marketers have been able to retrieve statistics that allowed them to target communications to specific groups. This, in turn, has made it possible to minimize the marketing waste and advertise as effectively as possible.

Computing power vs. storage costs the increase in computing power has led to a significant decrease in storage costs and has therefore allowed for organizations to develop their own database systems and marketing information.

Shifts in communication means social, lifestyle, demographic and other changes in peoples’ attitudes and behaviors have caused the need for a shift in the way companies communicate with them. E.g. younger people nowadays have more spending power; they have the freedom to express their individuality by supporting a specific brand. Also, more people are living longer and this, in turn, has brought to the identification of new needs, wants and target groups (Pickton & Broderick, 2005, p. 106).

More direct and personal communication: In addition, new media has shown to have such power that it hasn’t only changed marketing techniques, but it has also significantly revolutionized customers’ buying behavior itself. More specifically, the technology associated with new media, permits:

1. Interactivity

2. Shorter response times

3. More direct communications
4. More sophisticated communications

(Pickton & Broderick, 2005, p. 223)
When looking at the narrower field of sports and sport events, through new media people have been given the ability to share their interests for a specific team or sports event, exchange information and knowledge, or simply to express their affection for one specific team.

At this point, it becomes clear that new media hasn’t only facilitated the companies’ outreach and ability to keep in touch and learn more about their customers: new media has and keeps on having a substantial impact on the way customers and consumers communicate with each other and with the product/service providers.

The Internet
According to the Internet Advertising Report (IAB) (2012), the Internet Advertising Revenues hit a historic high in the 3rd Quarter of 2012, with an 18% increase since the same period in 2011 and with revenues reaching almost $9.3 billion. These numbers clearly show the significance of online advertising for marketers and the value that they are able to get from using digital media.

The following figure depicts the constant increase in online advertising revenues since 1996. The graph clearly shows an almost vertical increase in digital advertising at a monthly rate: in fact, only the 3rd Quarter of 2012 saw a 6% increase in revenues from the 2nd Quarter of that same year.
Growth Trends in Online Advertising (Source: IAB)

As Fill (2009) states, the Internet has now given the chance to marketers and consumers to start a two-way communication and to convey messages to consumers in radically different ways than they used to do once. Today, communications are interactive, allowing both parties to find information much faster and to enter transaction processes in completely new ways than they used to with older media. Fill (2009) says: “The internet is both a distribution channel and a communication medium, one that enables consumers and organizations to communicate in radically different ways. It allows for interactivity and is possibly the best medium to enable dialogue” (p. 23).

In the United Kingdom, the Internet overtook Television as the advertising sector with the largest market share already four years ago in 2009, signaling a radical change in the way advertising is done and perceived (Pfeiffer & Zinnbauer, 2010).

The thought of Randall Rothenberg, CEO of the IAB, is very much similar to Fill’s, as he sees this steady increase in online advertising revenues as a result of the efficiency of the Internet as a communication medium. Randall (2012) views the Internet as a particularly effective medium when it comes to engaging and interacting with customers; he states that thanks to the Internet “[customers] are no longer passive, but are active participants in contemporary media online, through social media, and on-the-go with mobile” (IAB Internet Advertising Revenue Report, 2012). This last statement also helps us understand a fundamental characteristic of the Internet: its capability to adapt to different types of hardware, making its penetration possible in almost any modern environment. As a matter of fact, many different authors such as Moriarty, Wells & Mitchell (2009), Elliott (2013) or Fill (2009) agree on the previously mentioned interactivity and engagement opportunities that the Internet offers. These new forms of two-way communication are at the basis of an Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) program, which will be analyzed in the later chapters. These shifts in communication are also allowing
organizations to receive real-time feedback from consumers and leverage it in order to create long-term relationships with customers (Moriarty, Wells, & Mitchell, 2009). While with more traditional media customers’ responses were mainly collected through – often expensive – research; the Internet offers extremely valuable opportunities and cost reductions when it comes to researching the customers’ feedback as this happens in a “real-time environment of ongoing communication” (Moriarty, Wells, & Mitchell, 2009; p. 163) that allows companies to employ more interactive forms of communication such as online marketing or personal selling (Moriarty, Wells, & Mitchell, 2009).

**Mobile Internet**

During the first ten years of the 21st century, telephones have become more accessible and therefore popular, with the number of landlines increasing almost by a factor of four between 1976 and 2000 (Ling & Donner, 2009). In 2009, there were 740 million mobiles (Ling & Donner, 2009) and as of May 2012, the mobile market amounted to 1 billion phones only for China. Samsung alone shipped over 100 million devices and Apple over 37 million iPhones in the 1st quarter of 2013 around the globe (Epstein, 2013). According to the Facebook Newsroom (2013), 751 million monthly active users used Facebook mobile products as of March 31st, 2013 (Figure F, Appendix). These values are astonishing when we think that this number represents almost 1 seventh of the Earth’s population and that it’s only referring to one single online social networking platform. As a matter of fact, mobile Internet users are creating a mass market: one that has access to a variety of tablets, smartphones and many other affordable mobile devices. This, in turn, has created a variety of new opportunities for marketers in terms of “communications, media and technology players” (Elliott, 2013). As a consequence, any industry that aims for mobile communication has been given the chance to start interacting with customers in a completely new, direct and intimate way. The outstanding improvements in both network coverage and quality have been some of the main drivers in the increased use of mobile Internet (Mohr, Laloz, & O'Brien, 2012). According to a Mobile Web Watch (2012) study conducted in 13 different countries across
Europe, Latin America and South Africa, over 69% of people accessing the Internet, do so by using mobile devices. Out of these, 61% accessed it through a smartphone and the remaining do so either through a netbook or a tablet. This market is also narrowing the gender gap: in fact, 73% of men and 66% of women use the mobile Internet (Mohr, Laloz, & O’Brien, 2012). What is more interesting for the purpose of this thesis is that 62% of mobile Internet users accessed online communities such as Facebook; and younger users did so to connect with others through online communities and chats (instant messaging), both of which have become key tools for users to interact and communicate with one another (Elliott, 2013). One of the major social changes of the mobile market is the fact that we don’t call anymore to a specific location: today, we want to get in touch with one individual, independently from where they are – and we can do this from anywhere we are. This, in turn, has changed the way we inter-correlate our daily actions and interactions (Ling & Donner, 2009). Mobile telephones are used for a variety of reasons, some of these being for teens to keep in touch with their friends, to check their social networks also while performing other activities (Ling & Donner, 2009) and it can be used by fans of a certain celebrity or team to stay up to date with the latest news and events. It is clear that the world is becoming always more and more interconnected, which is causing competition to grow, as the number of devices and mobile platforms people can choose from is constantly increasing. Therefore, it is important for marketers to understand the new needs of active and engaged consumers “what take for granted interoperability, multi-device and multi-platform support and a superior user experience” (Elliott, 2013). Furthermore, Elliott (2013) writes that, nowadays, mobile Internet users are particularly open to try new experiences, as they are also willing to pay higher prices for premium services. This is of utmost importance for marketers, who need to know where and when to effectively advertise. However, Mohr, Laloz and O’Brien (2012) say that mobile Internet users are increasingly expressing a feeling of discontent with the cluttered online advertising; therefore, marketers will need to concentrate on more specific and targeted advertising techniques.
Social Media and Social Networks
Throughout the past years, social media has grown in importance, usage and influence. In fact, apart from having proven to be a powerful communication tool (Fisher, 2011), social media has also caused a significant democratization of corporate communications (Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy, & Silvestre, 2011). The numbers of active social network users are impressive and constantly growing. According to Facebook Newsroom (2013), Facebook boasts more than 655 million daily active users on average around the globe and it had a total of 1.1 billion Monthly Active Users (MAU) and 665 million Daily Active Users (DAU) as of March 2013 (figure F, Appendix). As displayed in Figure F in the Appendix, the steady growth of Facebook in the past year is astonishing. Given that the research of this thesis will be focused on social media platforms, especially on Facebook, the author considered it useful to give the reader an overview of the reach and influence this network has on people in general. The first row in the figure focuses on the “social growth” of Facebook that saw an average of 4.5 billion likes and 4.75 billion items shared daily since August 2012. Instagram, a photo-sharing platform bought by Facebook for $1 billion in April 2012 (BBC, 2012), has reached 100 million MAU as of February 2013. Another interesting number for the purpose of this thesis shown in the afore-mentioned figure is the number of Local Businesses that have created a “page” on Facebook where they can post content, interact with users and get immediate feedback; this number has grown to be of 16 million pages as of May 2013: a 100% increase since June 2012. These numbers go hand-in-hand with the number of so-called “promoted posts”, which are posts that the owner of a page decides to pay for in order for them to be displayed more frequently in a person’s newsfeed and hopefully shared more often. This type of promotion has reached the 7.5 million as of May of this year. Furthermore, since Facebook’s gone public, its incomes have boomed reaching a $1.46 billion in revenues. Another widely used online micro-blogging social network is Twitter; according to Lunden (2012), Twitter’s users amounted to 517 million accounts as of July 1, 2012. Twitter was launched on the 21st of March 2006, making this platform 7 years old (Smith, 2013). As of today, an average of 170
billion tweets are being sent daily by Twitter’s 200 million active users, who have 208 followers on average (Smith, 2013). Lunden (2012) writes that Twitter has been ranked as the second-biggest social networking site after Facebook and that around 1.058 billion public tweets were sent only in the month of July 2012. Although most of Twitter’s users are from the U.S., the three cities where people tweet the most from are Jakarta, Tokyo and London. These numbers are astonishing and they are meant to make the reader understand the interconnectivity and active involvement of people in today’s social media. LinkedIn is another online platform that focuses more on professional networking. This platform counted 100 million members as of 2011 (linkedIn.com, 2011). These numbers clearly define the significance and impact that social media have in today’s online-population. At a constant growing rate, social media have substantially contributed in transforming customers and consumers in general “from silent, isolated and invisible individuals, into a noisy, public and even more unmanageable then usual collective” (Patterson, 2012, cited in Zaglia 2012; p. 216). As a consequence, the management and successful leveraging of social media have become one of the main focuses of industries that need to actively involve consumers in their day-to-day communications. Being characterized by mainly perishable products and services, the tourism industry has proven a high interest and involvement in communicating through social media. For instance, sport events are a particularly perishable service that requires the presence of the consumer in order to be delivered. For this reason, sport events need to make the best use of social media communications in order to increase ticket sales to their maximum and avoid empty seats/unsold tickets etc. as an “empty” seat symbolizes an irreplaceable loss in revenue.

For the purpose of this thesis it is fundamental to understand that social networks have a strong influence on the behavior of their members (de Valck, van Bruggen & Wierenga, 2009, cited in Zaglia 2012) and on the interpersonal relations that develop between the different members of these social networks (Granovetter, 1985). It therefore becomes a logical extension of this though to
believe that sport events, being social and interpersonal activities, are highly influenced by social networks. In addition, social networks have proven themselves as being platforms for strong social interaction between friends, family members, business colleagues as well as members of groups with similar interests (Mizruchi & Galaskiewicz, 1993; Raacke & Bonds-Raacke, 2008; Rapoport & Horvath, 1996; cited in Zaglia, 2012). This aspect of social networks is crucial to sport events, as these are gatherings of people supporting certain teams, leagues etc. and social platforms can therefore offer a virtual space to gather these fans and create involvement as well as excitement arousal prior to the actual event taking place.

Furthermore, social networks have proven themselves to be particularly effective in influencing consumer behavior when it comes to “virtual communities of consumption, which feature characteristics like high consumer knowledge and companionship” (de Valck et al., 2009; cited in Zaglia, 2012; p. 217).

**Communication Models**

Marketing itself is an exchange between two parties. This exchange can either be transactional or collaborative (Fill, 2009). The first one takes place independently of any other exchanges and is usually defined as a single exchange at a specific point in time. The second type of exchange, however, identifies a kind of exchange with the aim of building a relationship between supplier and consumer, of creating customer loyalty and a long-lasting relationship over time. As stated by Fill (2009), relationships become stronger as the amount of exchanges increases, as the focus shifts from the product itself to the relationship. Communication, as efficiently defined by Fill (2009), can be defined as an “oil [that] lubricates these exchanges and enables them to function. However, [...] different types of communication are necessary to engage with different audiences“ (p. 24). However, globalization and an increasing competition in the channels through which you can interact with sport fans, makes it harder to segment smaller markets. Van Shaik (2012) writes
that connecting with fans is now becoming harder and it requires more interaction and community building.

**The Schramm Model**

The Schramm Model (1954, cited in Narula U., 2006) sees communication, and specifically mass communication, as a linear and one-directional process of communication. According to this model, the sender (who?) sends a message (what?) through specific media (how? /by which means?) to a receiver (to whom?). However, Schramm (1960) states that it is necessary to consider the effect that the communicated message has on the receiver. In fact, throughout the communication process a variety of semiotics (signs, body language, questions asked and so on) influence the content of the communication. For this reason, Schramm states, it is necessary to consider pragmatic, syntactic and semantic semiotic rules when looking at a communication model.

It is fundamental to remember that the communications process defined by Schramm is at the basis of how we nowadays interpret and understand marketing communications as well as the macro and micro context in which marketing communications take place (Pickton & Broderick, 2005).

**Lasswell formula**

The Lasswell formula (Lasswell, 1948, cited in Narula U. 2006) of communication tells us which elements to look at in a communication process. Lasswell studies are particularly interesting for this research, as the sociologist was mainly interested in mass communication and propaganda; therefore focusing on and applying it to media. Lasswell, similarly to Schramm, divides the communication process in five different blocks, identifying them with the following renowned statement: **Who** – the communicator – (says) **What** – the message – (through which) **Channel** – the channel – (to) **Whom** – the audience, the listener – (with what) **Effect** – an effect –.

In order to better visualize the communication model analyzed above, a simple graphic representation of the theory will be displayed.
Lasswell's linear communication model (source: Communication Theory)

Shannon-Weaver Model

It becomes clear that the previously mentioned communication models do not encompass all the variables that might influence communication, especially so if communication occurs through new media, where a multitude of receivers is targeted and where communication does not happen in person. It is because of the spread of both “old” and new media that researchers have tried to better explain how communication takes place between parties. Shannon and Weaver (1948) theorized a model that doesn’t only look at the sender, the message and the receiver. The model presented by Shannon and Weaver looks at the source of the information that will be transmitted through a transmitter and will be perceived by the receiver and finally interpreted by the targeted person/destination. Of course, throughout this process, a variety of factors can influence how the receiver interprets and perceived the transmitted message. Shannon and Weaver name these factors “noise” that transform the message from a transmitted signal to the received one. Below the reader can see a graphic representation of the above-described model.

The Shannon-Weaver Mathematical Model, 1949

Shannon-Weaver Communication Model (Source: SHKaminski.com)

A shift in the Challenges of Communication
Nowadays, when thinking about media, we are constantly drawn to review and rethink our perception of advertising, from both a marketer’s as well as from a consumer’s point of view. Messages can be carried by taxi, train, bus, packages, people, word of mouth, smells and so on (Bond, D. 2001). Therefore, it comes natural to think that our generation is unconsciously witnessing a persistent and constant shift in the challenge that advertisers and, therefore, „communicators“ are facing. Today, it’s not about what and when to advertise: the questions have expanded and a variety of difficulties in delivering the right message, at the right time, to the right people and with as little waste as possible are being faced by marketers every day (Pickton & Broderick, 2005).

**Different Goals of Communication**

Different forms of communication intrinsically imply different messages delivered, in order to achieve different goals. In this section of the paper, three main goals of communication for the marketing of sport events will be taken into consideration:

1. **Ticket sales**

2. **People/fan involvement**

3. **Awareness building**

Clearly, different communication goals can be delivered through different channels and media. Fisher (2011) states that social media are most effective tools when it comes to fan interaction and involvement as well as to create a connection between fans and their favorite teams or leagues. In addition, he states, social media has also proven its effectiveness in ticket and merchandise sales as well as in boosting TV viewership. Fisher (2011) continues, and states that although social media has demonstrated its multilateral success in communication with fans and consumers, „there remains nothing close to one-size-fits-all approach for effectively leveraging social media“ (p. 14). Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy, & Silvestre (2011) agree with Fisher and write that however powerful social media has proven to be in the past years, „many executives [...] are [still] unable to develop strategies and allocate
resources to engage effectively with social media” (p. 245). It therefore comes natural to believe that the most effective communication is achieved through a successful merging of different strategies. Such a form of communication could be exemplified by a harmonious concert of both new and old media. In general, communication is a fundamental activity when it comes to sport events. This can be easily explained by taking into considerations some of the basic characteristics of tourism products. Events, in general, and sport events, more specifically, are intangible services. Therefore, consumers cannot physically touch nor view them prior to consumption. Specifically, the value of a tourism or sport product is “a function of the quality and quantity of experience they promise” (MacCannell, 1976, cited in Standeven and DeKnop, 1999; p. 23). Not only that, but given that an event “is always tangibly and experientially different” (Getz, 2007; p. 19) from the previous ones: the experiences, psychological states and behaviors of the spectators will always differ from one event to the other. This, in turns, makes “customer reviews”, word of mouth and friends’ suggestions cardinal tenants when it comes to the attendance of these events by other people. In simpler words, sport events are experiences that can only be recalled and relished after the event has taken place; therefore, an effective communication is fundamental in making the customer believe that the experience they are paying for will be memorable. In this way, the marketer’s goal becomes making the customer believe that the event they will attend will be “unique”, “attractive” and “compelling”: a “once in a lifetime” experience (Getz, 2007; p. 21).

**Ticket Sales**

As previously mentioned, sport events need to be marketed as a “once in a lifetime” experience (Getz, 2007). Events themselves are “temporal phenomena”, meaning that they have a specific start and end date. The author, however, notes that the experience of an event starts previously to the actual “consumption” of the product. This means that the “anticipation and recollection” of the event is a fundamental experience. For this reason, marketers need to focus on involving the fan and on building awareness of an
event before and after the event takes place (e.g. through regular and constant posting of content on the Facebook pages): the communication should encompass more than just the pursuit of ticket sales (Getz, 2007). Moriarty, Mitchell, & Wells (2009) agree with Getz’s thought and write that marketers and the marketing concept itself should focus on identifying the wants and needs of the customers in order to develop products and services that the customers really want, rather than selling products that the customers may not necessarily want. In addition, an effective operational management of events can create enjoyable experiences for fans, which, in turns, create opportunities for additional revenues (Zygband & Collignon, 2011). Finally, some organizers have decided to adopt a different technique: lowering ticket prices in order to give the opportunity to those with less affluence to attend certain games. For instance, the organizers of the FIFA World Cup in 2010 announced that the number of cheaper tickets for locals had risen from 10% to 29%, at a price of $20 per ticket. Although this wasn’t a cheap price for the locals, it gave the chance to round 1 million South Africans to take part in the games watching (Clark, 2010). These new techniques highlight the importance of investing in attendance and atmosphere rather than in the mere sale of tickets.

People/fan involvement

According to Ahonen & Moore (2005), cited in Zaglia (2012), the community activity “is the biggest change in business in 100 years” (p. 216): this short and to-the-point statement indicates how society has slowly moved from a more individualistic behavior of the person, to one that tends towards being involved in a “community”, to interaction and involvement. According to Fill (2009), the traditional marketing mix has evolved and changes in dramatic ways. Since the days where most advertising was done through buying a few minutes on television, there has been a constant proliferation of media such as the Internet and audiences no longer seek for information in television or newspapers. Nowadays, there has been a shift in peoples’ wishes: the audience doesn’t want passive involvement anymore; they want to actively be part of the marketing and advertising process (Fill, 2009). And this change can easily be understood
by looking at the evolvement of the marketing mix: the medium used to convey a message has now become more important than ever, even more important than the tool used to transmit it. At this point, one could ask themselves why has there been this shift to what we now call an “integrated marketing mix”: a mix that facilitates the creation of both cognitive but also emotional responses to a message. While back in the day people could only “consume” an ad on television or they had to read a newspaper in order to be exposed to an advertisement, nowadays consumers can choose when to be exposed and how to consumer information, given the choice of media and leisure activities they have been given. The audience can now create its own content, especially through social media, in the form of music, video or simply text (Fill, 2009). Cheung and Lee (2010), agree with Fill (2009) and write that today, social networks allow people to interact in a written or visual form, or through videos and pictures. This, of course, happens amongst other interacting activities that characterize social networks.

As mentioned earlier, this new, more direct engagement of the audience in the communication and marketing processes of a brand or organization has shaped customer behavior itself. In fact, according to Moore (2007), people now utilize the media in order to satisfy four additional needs that were previously obscure to marketers, because not felt by consumers:
- To discover;
- To participate;
- To share;
- To express themselves

These needs clearly express the need for marketers to engage consumers in more interactive forms of communication than ever before: forms of communication where the receiver himself is assigned a bigger and therefore more important responsibility in the decoding part of the communication process. Today, consumers have been given the choice to involve family, friends and other people with the same interests in this content-creating process.
in order to get others’ opinions, confront themselves, be able to proactively learn and always be up-to-date with the latest events, happenings, products and so on. This has therefore lead to a substantial change from an intervention-based marketing approach to a more permission-based one, where “the focus is on communication with the members of an audience who have already expressed an interest in a particular offering” (Fill, 2009, p. 21). This shift has made it possible to initiate a closer relationship with the audience (e.g. through short, friendly and conversational posts of Facebook) and engage in a more interactive communication. For the more specific spectrum of sport events, the above defined shift in marketing communications makes it easier than ever to interact and involve fans in the marketing of these occurrences. However, the challenge still remains of how to most effectively and efficiently use the media we now have to successfully engage customers in an active communication.

**Awareness Building**

Clearly, the goal for most marketers as well as event organizers is to be able to reach out to a wide audience during their events. In order to do so, marketers of a certain event need to raise awareness about it. Through online communities, marketers are able to influence the choices of group and especially to “rapidly disseminate knowledge and perceptions regarding new products” (Dholakia, Bagozzi, & Klein Pearo, 2004, S. 241). Awareness building, in fact, is a fundamental activity when marketing online. Although this might not directly contribute to the revenue streams of a company, with a constant and well-targeted online communication, marketers will be able to slowly raise awareness and inform people about a certain product or service (Fill, 2009). Subsequently, the audience will either get directly involved in the trial of a specific service or it will decide that that service does not necessarily fulfill any of its needs (Kotler, Armstrong, Wong, & Saunders, 2008). In the case of sport, trying to raise awareness about a specific event has become always more and more difficult especially because of globalization and the radical increase in competitiveness as the market isn’t ruled by television or radio anymore: social networks, the mobile internet, online advertising and many other tools are now
used to reach out to customers (Van Shaik, 2012). Clearly, raising awareness about a sport event is much easier when you are advertising directly to fans of a specific team or athlete involved in the event, as they will most likely already be informed about it and is more likely to participate (Van Shaik, 2012). However, the creation of *enduring relationships* with their audiences (Elliott, 2013) will allow marketers to reach customers at a deeper level (Van Shaik, 2012) and the vast amount of new media at their disposition gives them a chance to do so (Clow & Baack, 2010).

**Event Tourism**

As Getz (2007) writes, the term ‘event tourism’ wasn’t particularly common before 1987, when The New Zealand Tourist and Publicity Department coined the term and realized the importance of this growing market by stating: “*Event tourism is an important and rapidly growing segment of international tourism*” (p. 24). Ever since, event tourism has become an important segment of the tourism industry and in order to define sport tourism, it is necessary to understand what researchers have defined as an “event”. Much research has been done on this topic, and for the sake of consistency, not all theories will be written about in this chapter. Instead, Getz’s “Event Studies” (2007) will be used as a fundament on which to build this paper’s author’s arguments. Getz (2007, p. 18) defines an event as: “*An occurrence at a given place and time; a special set of circumstances; a noteworthy experience*”. Furthermore, according to Getz (2007), events can either be *planned* or *unplanned*. Sport events, are usually categorized as planned events, together with cultural celebrations, political events, art and entertainment events or business and educational events. For an overview of the different typologies of planned events, please refer to the table below.
Types of planned events (Source: Getz, 2007)

A further classification of sport events tourism has been carried out by Standeven and DeKnop (1999), who diversify between those tourists who attend sport events merely as an audience and those who do so by actually taking part in them (e.g. through competing with other athletes). The research for this paper, however, focuses only on the first type of sport events, where the visitors are consumers that aren’t directly involved in the event.

Sport Tourism

According to Standeven and DeKnop (1999), “a symbiotic relationship exists between sports and tourism” (p. vii), this is due to the fact that while tourism is the world’s largest industry, sport has gained international recognition since the 1960es and has attracted a large amount of fans, marketers, media and money ever since. Therefore, these two sectors can provide for and balance one another (Standeven & DeKnop, 1999). Many studies (e.g. Glyptis, 1982; Gammon, 2002 et al.) have also been conducted on the nature and different types of sport tourism. Throughout these studies, many categorizations of sport tourism have been given and Weed and Bull (2004) gave a broader and more encompassing subdivision for sport tourism:

1. Tourism with sport content – this being a type of sport tourism where the major goal of the visit to a certain destination does not necessarily have to be
the primary motivator for such a visit, rather an alternative activity (e.g. going to the local indoors swimming pool due to bad weather);

2. *Sport participation tourism* – this type of tourism simply involves the participation of the spectators in the sport activities;

3. *Sports training* – this sport tourism type refers to visits paid to a specific location due to the training facilities it offers;

4. *Sports events* – this is the form of sport tourism this paper focuses on and it refers to the tourism which purpose is to either view or take part in a specific sport event;

5. *Luxury sports tourism* – this type of tourism does not refer to a specific sport activity or motivator, rather, it refers to the quality and the luxury of the trip.

(Weed and Bull, 2004, p. 123)

In turn, sport events can be categorized according to their form and function (Getz, 2007) or their size (Standeven and DeKnop, 1999).

**Events and Sports**

According to a study commissioned by Lagardère Unlimited and carried out by Zygband and Collignon (2011), the worldwide sports event market was worth €45 billion in 2009 and has been growing ever since. Overall, in May 2012, the whole sports industry was worth between €350 and €450 billion, including different income sources such as the construction of infrastructure, other sporting goods, different licensed products and, naturally, sport events (Zygband & Collignon, 2011). According to this same study, as of 2009, the soccer market was worth €16 billion alone in Europe. Below, you can see a graph that displays the different worths of sports in the worldwide sports events market as of 2009. Soccer is ranked first, owning 43% of the sports event market, followed from a distance by U.S. football and baseball.
Worldwide sports events market in 2009 (Source: Zygband & Collignon, 2012)

Another interesting finding brought forward by Zygband and Collignon (2012) is that in the so-called BRIC countries (Brazil, Russia, India and China) and also in more developed markets of Europe and North America, the sports industry’s growth is exceeding the GDP growth of the countries themselves. It therefore becomes clear that the sports market is an ever-growing field, where marketers and organizations can leverage the commitment of fans and their involvement in order to promote a specific event. Clearly, the size and regularity (Standeven & DeKnop, 1999) of an event has a significant influence on the impact of the event on the country’s or region’s economy (Zygband & Collignon, 2011). Therefore, academics such as Standeven and DeKnop (1999) have differentiated events according to their scale. These differentiations can be carried out with a variety of methods, the main one being a cost-benefit analysis. However, each method has its limitations in measuring the non-monetary profits of an event. Nonetheless, for the sake of consistency, these methods won’t be analyzed in this chapter. As mentioned in the previous chapter, according to Standeven and DeKnop (1999), events can be categorized in three major groups by size:

1. Mega Sport Events

2. Intermediate Sport Events

3. Smaller Sport Events
The best examples for Mega Sport Events could be the Olympic Games, the Super Bowl or the FIFA World Cup. These events are usually always a major tourism attraction (Ritchie, 1984, cited in Standeven & DeKnop, 1999) and the spending for them is very high. For the 2008 Beijing Olympics, around $43 billion were spent and the 2012 London Olympics saw expenditures of almost $20 billion (ODA, 2012). Getz (2007) uses a different terminology and defines these mega events as “hallmark events. An intermediate event is an event of smaller scale than a mega event; with also substantially smaller expenditures and visitor spend. Smaller scale events are, according to Standeven and DeKnop (1999), the events with the smallest impact on an area’s economy and a relatively small amount of visitors. However, the regularity of events such as the monthly/yearly repetition of a smaller event in a location, contribute substantially to the region’s revenues (Standeven & DeKnop, 1999). Higham (1999), cited in Gibson, Willming, & Holdnakc (2003), argues that hallmark (or mega) events are often the cause of major challenges for destinations and says that smaller-scale-events might therefore have a more positive impact on the community where they take place.

**Sports as a social phenomenon**

Online forums and social platforms offer a variety of opportunities for marketers to engage, cooperate and develop active relationships with customers (Dholakia, Bagozzi, & Klein Pearo, 2004). Sport events, being a social phenomenon, offer itself as a perfect occurrence to be discussed and analyzed on such platforms. Most commonly, users decide to join online groups because they want to participate and receive information that satisfies their needs (Dholakia, Bagozzi, & Klein Pearo, 2004). Clearly, users join certain online communities because they share a specific interest with its members, and consider the opinions of their “online-peers” as objective and, therefore, valuable (Wu, Chen, & Chung, 2010; cited in Zaglia, 2012). Upon this thought, is based the “social identity theory” discussed by Bagozzi and Dholakia (2006), which states that belonging to a virtual community makes its members feel connected to one another, while distancing themselves from other non-
members. Two of the many outcomes derived from being part of a virtual group are now clear: community building and a feeling of belonging (Algesheimer et al. 2005; cited in Zaglia, 2012). Also Getz (2007) states that events, whether planned or unplanned, have a community-building role. He also adds: “every nation and community needs its celebrations, events that generate pride and a sense of belonging, and which build development capacity through volunteering, capital investments and improved marketing“ (p. 40). In addition, sport – and sport events in particular – are underpinned by interest, excitement and an active fan involvement, which is clearly shown by how cinemas, open-air screens and other venues are increasingly broadcasting live sport events in order to make it possible also for those who can’t or won’t purchase a ticket to see a match or a game (Clark, 2010). Events are also characterized by different shared rituals and traditions, through which members of a community are able to assign a special significance to what they experience within a community and communicate this both to inside and outside the group (Casaló, Flavián, & Guinalíu, 2008; cited in Zaglia, 2012). As Van Shaik (2012) writes, people love to interact and engage with anything that they perceive as significant on an emotional level. Sports certainly fall into this category, as “they allow you to feel real emotional investment in something that has no actual real-world consequences” (Sternbergh, 2011). Sport fans identify with their team to the point where they say; “we” won, although they didn’t actually win. As a matter of fact, fans perceive themselves as being an “integral part” of their favorite team. This is due to the support and commitment they showed through time and to their need for “social recognition” (Van Shaik, 2012). Surely, emotionality is one major player in a fan’s life: fans “attend games, they buy apparel, they live and die with each pitch, pass or shot” (Burke, 2012; p. 1).

1.2: EMERGENCE OF THE PROBLEM:
The researchers in the field of physical education and sports from last two decades and has witnessed the effect and role of media, which has encouraged the athletes at the same time few talented sportsmen due to over ambition and miser of fame has reached nowhere. In this context the researcher is in pursuit
to find out the exact role and degree of importance of media both print and
electronic in the performance and enhancement of sports and sportsmen at
ground level, hence the topic motivated the research scholar and with
acceptance of the supervisor and the research recognition committee has
finalized to go into the matter at grassroots level.

I.3: NEED OF THE STUDY:
The present scenario related to the domination of media in every aspect sports
being no exception to it has promoted the thought of research scholar and found
that it is the demand of the time to go into deeper into the matter of fame and
defame of the concerned players. The research scholar found that media has to
be the prime locus of control of the development of sports and its outreach into
the mass through its proper and optimum utilization.

I.4: STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM:
“The Role and Effect of Mass Media in Promotion of Sports: An Analytical
Study”

I.5: OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY:
1. To find out the role of media in promotion of sports from journalists
2. To find out the role of media in promotion of sports from sportsmen
3. To find out the role of media in promotion of sports from association/
federation members
4. To find out the role of media in promotion of sports form coaches/
trainers
5. To find out the importance of media in promotion of sports from
journalists
6. To find out the importance of media in promotion of sports from
sportsmen
7. To find out the importance of media in promotion of sports from
association/ federation members
8. To find out the importance of media in promotion of sports from coaches/trainers.

9. To analyze in a systematic, well-organized, precise, scientific, reasonable, rational, well-grounded, well-thought-out, logical, sound, solid, cogent, perspicuous, perceptive, penetrating, searching, thorough, conclusive solution to the responses given by the respective experts.

I.6: HYPOTHESIS:

H1: The research scholar hypothesize that there is significant role of media in promotion of sports from point of view of sportsmen.

H2: The research scholar hypothesize that there is significant role of media in promotion of sports from point of view of journalists personnel.

H3: The research scholar hypothesize that there is significant role of media in promotion of sports from point of view of association/federation personnel.

H4: The research scholar hypothesize that there is significant role of media in promotion of sports from point of view of Coaches and Trainers.

I.7: SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY:

1. The results may find helpful to the players to make up their minds for the fame and defame thorough the media.

2. The results may also find helpful to the coaches to encourage their player during their defeat and defame in media.

3. The results may find helpful to the association/federation personnel to keep up pace and also provide ample facilities and development through media.

I.8: DELIMITATIONS:

1. The study is delimited to only the print and electronic media.

2. The study is also delimited to the role and importance of media in promotion of sports.
3. The study is further delimited to the demographic location of the research scholar
4. The study is delimited to the daily and electronic media agencies only in Aurangabad
5. The study is further delimited to the positive side of the development of sports and sportsmen.
6. The questionnaire is administered with the sportsmen, journalists, association/ federation personnel and coaches/ trainers only in Aurangabad District.

I.9: LIMITATIONS:
1. The study is limited to the sincere response from the sportsmen, journalists, federation/ association personnel and coaches/ trainers
2. The study is further dependent on the availability of all the subjects at a time in a place is limitation.
3. The study is limited to few aspects related to understanding, knowledge, and seriousness among the subject and is beyond the control of the researcher.

I.10: OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS:

Effect:
Noun: a change which is a result or consequence of an action or other cause. Synonyms: results, consequence, upshot, outcome, out-turn, sequel, reaction, repercussions, reverberations, ramifications. Verb: cause (something) to happen; bring about.

Role:
Part played by the media in promotion of sports

Mass Media:
In the late 20th century, mass media could be classified into eight mass media industries: books, the Internet, magazines, movies, newspapers, radio, recordings, and television. The explosion of digital communication technology in the late 20th and early 21st centuries made prominent the question: what
forms of media should be classified as "mass media"? For example, it is controversial whether to include cell phones, computer games (such as MMORPGs), and video games in the definition. In the 2000s, a classification called the "seven mass media" became popular. In order of introduction, they are:

1. Print (books, pamphlets, newspapers, magazines, etc.) from the late 15th century
2. Recordings (gramophone records, magnetic tapes, cassettes, cartridges, CDs, and DVDs) from the late 19th century
3. Cinema from about 1900
4. Radio from about 1910
5. Television from about 1950
6. Internet from about 1990
7. Mobile phones from about 2000

Each mass medium has its own content types, creative artists, technicians, and business models. For example, the Internet includes blogs, podcasts, web sites, and various other technologies built atop the general distribution network. The sixth and seventh media, Internet and mobile phones, are often referred to collectively as digital media; and the fourth and fifth, radio and TV, as broadcast media. Some argue that video games have developed into a distinct mass form of media.

While a telephone is a two-way communication device, mass media refer to media which can communicate a message to a large group, often simultaneously. However, the modern cell phone is no longer a single-use device. Most cell phones are equipped with Internet access and capable of connecting to the web, which itself is a mass medium. A question arises whether this makes cell phones a mass medium or simply a device used to access a mass medium (the Internet). There is currently a system by which marketers and advertisers are able to tap into satellites, and broadcast commercials and advertisements directly to cell phones, unsolicited by the
phone's user. This transmission of mass advertising to millions of people is another form of mass communication.

Video games may also be evolving into a mass medium. Video games (for example massively multiplayer online role-playing games (MMORPGs, such as RuneScape) provide a common gaming experience to millions of users across the globe and convey the same messages and ideologies to all their users. Users sometimes share the experience with one another by playing online. Excluding the Internet however, it is questionable whether players of video games are sharing a common experience when they play the game individually. It is possible to discuss in great detail the events of a video game with a friend one has never played with, because the experience is identical to each. The question, then, is whether this is a form of mass communication.

Characteristics

Five characteristics of mass communication have been identified by sociologist John Thompson of Cambridge University:

- Comprises both technical and institutional methods of production and distribution" - This is evident throughout the history of mass media, from print to the Internet, each suitable for commercial utility
- Involves the "co modification of symbolic forms" - as the production of materials relies on its ability to manufacture and sell large quantities of the work; jabs radio stations rely on their time sold to advertisements, so too newspapers rely on their space for the same reasons
- Separate contexts between the production and reception of information"
- Its "reach to those 'far removed' in time and space, in comparison to the producers"
- Information distribution" - a "one too many" form of communication, whereby products are mass-produced and disseminated to a great quantity of audiences

Mass vs. mainstream and alternative
The term "mass media" is sometimes erroneously used as a synonym for "mainstream media". Mainstream media are distinguished from alternative media by their content and point of view. Alternative media are also "mass media" outlets in the sense that they use technology capable of reaching many people, even if the audience is often smaller than the mainstream.

In common usage, the term "mass" denotes not that a given number of individuals receives the products, but rather that the products are available in principle to a plurality of recipients.

Mass vs. local and specialty
Mass media are distinguished from local media by the notion that whilst mass media aims to reach a very large market, such as the entire population of a country, local media broadcasts to a much smaller population and area, and generally focuses on regional news rather than global events. A third type of media, specialty media, provide for specific demographics, such as specialty channels on TV (sports channels, porn channels, etc.). These definitions are not set in stone, and it is possible for a media outlet to be promoted in status from a local media outlet to a global media outlet. Some local media, which take an interest in state or provincial news, can rise to prominence because of their investigative journalism, and to the local region's preference of updates in national politics rather than regional news. The Guardian, formerly known as the Manchester Guardian, is an example of one such media outlet; once a regional daily newspaper, The Guardian is currently a nationally respected paper.

Promotion:
Activity that supports or encourages a cause, venture, or aim; the publicizing of a product, organization, or venture so as to increase sales or public awareness

Sports:
Etymology: "Sport" comes from the Old French de sport meaning "leisure", with the oldest definition in English from around 1300 being "anything humans find amusing or entertaining".

Other meanings include gambling and events staged for the purpose of gambling; hunting; and games and diversions, including ones that require
exercise.\textsuperscript{[10]} Roget's defines the noun sport as an "activity engaged in for relaxation and amusement" with synonyms including diversion and recreation.

Nomenclature: The singular term "sport" is used in most English dialects to describe the overall concept (e.g. "children taking part in sport"), with "sports" used to describe multiple activities (e.g. "football and rugby are the most popular sports in England"). American English uses "sports" for both terms.

Definition: The precise definition of what separates a sport from other leisure activities varies between sources. The closest to an international agreement on a definition is provided by Sport Accord, which is the association for all the largest international sports federations (including association football, athletics, cycling, tennis, equestrian sport and more), and is therefore the de facto representative of international sport. Sport Accord uses the following criteria, determining that a sport should:

- have an element of competition
- be in no way harmful to any living creature
- not rely on equipment provided by a single supplier (excluding proprietary games such as arena football)
- not rely on any "luck" element specifically designed into the sport

They also recognize that sport can be primarily physical (such as rugby or athletics), primarily mind (such as chess or go), predominantly motorized (such as Formula 1 or power boating), primarily co-ordination (such as billiard sports), or primarily animal-supported (such as equestrian sport). The inclusion of mind sports within sport definitions has not been universally accepted, leading to legal challenges from governing bodies in regards to being denied funding available to sports. Whilst. Sport Accord recognizes a small number of mind sports, it is not open to admitting any further mind sports. There has been an increase in the application of the term "sport" to a wider set of non-physical challenges such as video games, also called e-sports, especially due to the large scale of participation and organized competition, but these are not widely recognized by mainstream sports organizations.

\textbf{Analytical Study:}
Analytic and enumerative statistical studies are two types of scientific studies: In any statistical study the ultimate aim is to provide a rational basis for action. Enumerative and analytic studies differ by where the action is taken. Deming summarized the distinction between enumerative and analytic studies as follows:

Enumerative study: A statistical study in which action will be taken on the material in the frame being studied.

Analytic study: A statistical study in which action will be taken on the process or cause-system that produced the frame being studied. The aim being to improve practice in the future (In a statistical study, the frame is the set from which the Sample (statistics) is taken.) These terms were introduced in *Some Theory of Sampling* (1950, Chapter 7) by W. Edwards Deming.

In other words, an enumerative study is a statistical study in which the focus is on judgment of results, and an analytic study is one in which the focus is on improvement of the process or system which created the results being evaluated and which will continue creating results in the future. A statistical study can be enumerative or analytic, but it cannot be both. This distinction between enumerative and analytic studies is the theory behind the Fourteen Points for Management. Dr. Deming's philosophy is that management should be analytic instead of enumerative. In other words, management should focus on improvement of processes for the future instead of on judgment of current results. "Use of data requires knowledge about the different sources of uncertainty. Measurement is a process. Is the system of measurement stable or unstable? Use of data requires also understanding of the distinction between enumerative studies and analytic problems." “The interpretation of results of a test or experiment is something else. It is prediction that a specific change in a process or procedure will be a wise choice, or that no change would be better. Either way the choice is prediction. This is known as an analytic problem, or a problem of inference, prediction."