

key concepts

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Key Concepts in Sport Management

TERRI BYERS, TREVOR SLACK AND MILENA M. PARENT



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TERRI BYERS, TREVOR SLACK AND MILENA M. PARENT



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USING THIS BOOK

This book is a quick and useful reference guide to some of the key concepts in sport management and is particularly useful for those studying the management of sport in order to identify appropriate research topics and to understand how past research is important for developing any current research focus. By examining past and current research we can start to build a rational and clear focus for our research enquiries and avoid unnecessary/repetitive studies which will add little to our field's knowledge base and/or will not contribute to the wider field of management. As the reader will notice, some of the past research to be considered includes sport-industry-specific research and more generic management and organization research rather than just focusing on the sport-specific research that has been conducted.

Many of the concepts included here are from a knowledge base known as Organization Theory (OT) and this book will help the reader to understand the power of OT in identifying appropriate research questions/problems and demonstrate to students especially how OT can be useful in understanding the management of sport. However, other concepts included in the book are broader in nature and refer to a larger discipline of study, such as media/broadcasting, sport law, sport funding and volunteers. These concepts are examined in order to provide the reader with

a comprehensive (though not conclusive) array of concepts which have been and/or are currently being investigated by researchers interested in the management of sport.

Practitioners can also benefit from this reference guide as the concepts have very real and practical implications for those working in the industry and facing problems and challenges in the management of sport. The book identifies concepts which can be useful in meeting those challenges and managing sport successfully. It also identifies a multitude of resources, research articles and theories that are focused on the management of sport which may offer some helpful advice or solutions to the problems faced by sport practitioners.

It may also prove useful in bridging the gap between academia/students and industry. As each concept is discussed, it becomes apparent how students/academics and practitioners have common interests in, for example, sponsorship, conflict, governance and change. For academics/students to perform their research, access to the industry is often required, yet sometimes this is difficult to obtain. For practitioners who may be busy with the day-to-day or strategic aims of their business, but who also require knowledge and information to help them make decisions, student researchers or interns can be invaluable. The concepts presented in this book are relevant both to students/academics and practitioners and are therefore examples of where collaborations between research and industry in the management of sport would produce fruitful results.

For academic staff teaching research methods or supervising dissertations and research projects this text can be used as a starting point for discussions around forming a research question and rationale for a research project. The content of each concept should raise many questions that can be discussed by staff with students. Some challenges for students include the following:

- Taking a concept of your own choosing, find one article published in the last three months which is relevant to the research on that concept. Discuss the content and source of this article and suggest how it fits with what is mentioned in the book.
- Lots of relationships between concepts are discussed within this book – choose two concepts that are of interest and find one journal article that looks at these. Then suggest a possible research question you may pursue.
- Write a research question for a concept of your own choosing and discuss why this question is important. Then consider who may benefit from the answer to your question.
- The literature mentioned in each concept is not fully elaborated upon – choose an article mentioned in this book and access it via your library. Read the article and make a note of how you may build this into a full literature review or theoretical framework for a concept/research question.
- Taking a concept of your own choosing, identify the research methods usually adopted by researchers and discuss how you may utilize different methods and for what reasons.
- Make a more comprehensive chronological list of definitions adopted by researchers for a concept of your own choosing. Discuss how these different definitions would influence how you measure/recognize the concept in a research project.

introduction

The purpose of this book is to highlight what we believe to be the key concepts which relate to the management of sport. Many of the concepts come from a field of study known as 'organization theory' which is increasingly being used in research on the management of sport. Some of the concepts are much broader than those found in organization theory, such as the disciplinary areas of marketing/sponsorship, funding/finance, and sports law. We have set out to produce a book of key concepts which relates to the management of sport and is aimed primarily at students and academics. Undergraduate or postgraduate students can use this introductory text to gain an overview of concepts that have been and are currently being investigated by researchers and to begin to understand some of the research which has already been conducted. Practitioners in the management of sport may also be interested in this text as it identifies key issues in the management of sport that have very practical implications as well as giving a history of research and academic interest.

The concepts we present in this book as 'key' in the field of sport management are, as we have said above, primarily derived from organization theory. We have done this for several reasons. First, there has been a growing amount of research conducted using organization theory to understand the management of sport and so any person interested in studying sport management should be aware of this current knowledge base. Second, the area of organization theory covers a significant range of concepts and theoretical perspectives, which have been influential in developing current knowledge of the management of sport. And finally, it is organization theory which is our area of interest and expertise and thus we feel able to provide the reader with a thorough introduction to the numerous interesting concepts which have emerged in this area of study. However, before we begin exploring the key concepts it will be worthwhile to furnish the reader with some further details about organization theory and its significance both to sport management and conducting research in this field.

ORGANIZATIONAL THEORY

Organizational theory is an area within the field of business/management studies, concerned with the structure, processes, and design of organizations and their subunits. It is relevant to our understanding of sport organizations because we know little about the structural arrangement of these organizations and the influence that that structure may have on various organizational processes. Researchers who work in this field look to identify commonly occurring patterns and regularities in organizations or their subunits. Research, which examines issues related to organizational size, change, effectiveness, environment, structure and design, decision making, technology, power and politics, conflict and culture, encompasses all these organizational theory topics.

Researchers may use a variety of theoretical perspectives, which will include but are not limited to resource dependence, institutional theory, contingency theory, population ecology, and the life-cycle approach. Unfortunately it is beyond the scope of this book to explore all of these different perspectives for the various concepts introduced. For a thorough introduction to these issues in relation to the management of sport organizations, the reader is referred to Slack and Parent (2006).

While researchers who use organizational theory are concerned with issues of theory (that is to say, with pushing back the frontiers of knowledge about organizations), those who study the management of sport should not be concerned that the subject area has no practical application. On the contrary, scholars in this area frequently work with practising managers; the central focus of a large percentage of the research they undertake will be to discover ways to help managers in their jobs. For those who study the management of sport, organizational theory can provide a better understanding of how sports organizations are structured and designed, how they operate, and why some are effective and efficient while others are not.

Understanding sport organizations from an organization theory perspective can help those who study sport to analyze the problems they face and in turn prepare them to respond with appropriate solutions. Much of the work that is undertaken about the management of sport is not organizational theory based, rather it is more concerned with the actions of individuals within the organization (e.g., studies covering motivation, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment), which is an organizational behaviour approach. Researchers should not think that these two approaches are contradictory: they are instead complementary. Students who are interested in organizational theory approaches should investigate work by Slack and colleagues who have examined a wide variety of important issues in the management of sport, including change, decision making and strategy. For a contemporary view of the history of studying organizations, the reader is referred to March (2007), and for some thoughts on the future of organizational theory, see Czarniawska (2007).

Organization theory and behaviour offer key insights into the management of sport from a structural and interpersonal perspective. Yet other broader areas of research have also contributed to our understanding of the management of sport, such as economics, operations, law, ethics and marketing. So as to provide the reader with a sufficiently focused view of research on the management of sport and still be inclusive of the growing diversity of this field, we shall include concepts from these wider knowledge bases.

STRUCTURE OF THE BOOK

The concepts presented in this book are those that appear mainly in the journals which are relevant to the management of sport organizations, including sport-specific (such as the *Journal of Sport Management* and the *European Sport Management Quarterly*) and general management/business/economics periodicals (such as *Organization Studies* and *Administrative Science Quarterly*). While some of the concepts covered have received extensive attention from the research community,

it is beyond the scope of this text to provide comprehensive and critical literature reviews for all the concepts that are of relevance to the management of sport. Instead we define each concept before going on to introduce some of the research which has been conducted, and where appropriate, we suggest some criticisms of the work and where future research may focus. By doing this we demonstrate how ‘gaps’ in the literature can indicate where a lack of knowledge exists. For each concept, a basic definition is provided within a text box and the general business and management literature is usually relayed before demonstrating how the concept has been explored by sport management scholars. In some instances, where appropriate (e.g., sport sponsorship) and owing to the specific nature of the concept in relation to sport, we address only literature from the management of sport.

We include ‘mainstream’ literature and sport-specific literature where possible to demonstrate to the reader that when conducting research into the management of sport it is necessary to recognize literature in the general field of management and organizations as well, rather than make assumptions that sport organizations are dissimilar to other organizations. This is particularly important for those researchers thinking of publishing their work, as it encourages them to think about the relevance of their research to both the management of sport and the management of organizations more generally, thereby increasing the audience and sources of publication for their research. For broader concepts, outside of the organization theory field, we illustrate some of the key concepts which have been identified in the literature and which are contemporary to the practising sport manager. As indicated above, owing to the very broad nature of some concepts we are restricted to identifying a few relevant concepts but would not suggest that we have by any means provided an exhaustive account of all the research conducted.

All of the concepts in this book are interrelated and in order to understand one concept it will often be necessary to refer to several others as well: as a result we highlight these interrelationships by placing concepts that appear elsewhere in the book in **bold** and then reiterate these at the end of each concept. Also, at the end of each entry the reader will find a short list of suggested reading. These may cover key references used in the preceding discussion of the concept, or be in addition to those references already provided. However, we would encourage the reader to explore the full list of references for each concept provided at the end of each entry and to seek additional reading by using the section on ‘Keeping Up To Date’ where we provide a short discussion of how the reader may keep abreast of current research on the management of sport by identifying appropriate journals, trade magazines and other publications where work and practice are reported. This is done in order to acknowledge the constantly changing nature and development of research on the management of sport, as well as to encourage students or academics to use the contents of this book as a starting point and the recommended publications as sources which will provide access to the most current and up-to-date research being conducted on the concepts presented. Finally, each reference list is organized in order to enable the reader to have a clear idea of those readings that are particularly relevant to every concept in the book.

A NOTE ABOUT CONTENT

It is important for the reader to recognize that the content of this book does not represent 'literature reviews' for each concept, as this is beyond the scope of the *Key Concept Series*. We have provided an indication of some of the research which has been done on each concept and would acknowledge that for those interested in a particular concept, some further reading and searching for literature would be required in order to develop a fuller understanding and begin more systematic critiques of the themes, theories and perspectives found within this literature. For illustrative purposes, we provide some criticisms of the current research and where appropriate make suggestions for how research may be advanced with future studies. We have therefore provided an introduction to the research on each concept rather than an exhaustive or systematic critical review of each of these.

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Change

Change is the process of becoming different and can refer to people, structures, technologies or organizational processes. Change can be planned and deliberate or reactive in response to some environmental pressure.

Change is one of the most ‘unchanging’ aspects of all organizations. In spite of its frequency and importance, change is paradoxical. On the one hand, managers prefer organizations that are stable, i.e., that do not change a lot, but on the other hand, managers must respond to changes that affect their organization. Change may occur in a number of areas. For instance, it can take place in the people who work for the organization, in the technology it uses, in the products or services it offers, or in its structure and systems. The dynamic nature of change means that when a change occurs in one area (**structures/systems**, **people**, **technology** or **products/services**), the remaining areas are also affected and likely to experience or require some change. The figure below is adapted from Slack and Parent (2006) and illustrates the dynamic and interrelated components of change in organizations. This model is limited in its explanation of change in that it identifies the components but also presents the change process as occurring within organizations and does not mention the impact of the external environment on internal processes, people, technology or systems. The nature of the change process is not indicated by the model and so there is no indication if change is thought to be linear, chaotic or otherwise. The model also assumes change to be the same regardless of **context**.

For a number of years change was seen as a logical series of steps where managers identified a problem and then proposed a solution: this solution would involve identifying the steps that needed to be taken to alleviate the problem. In other

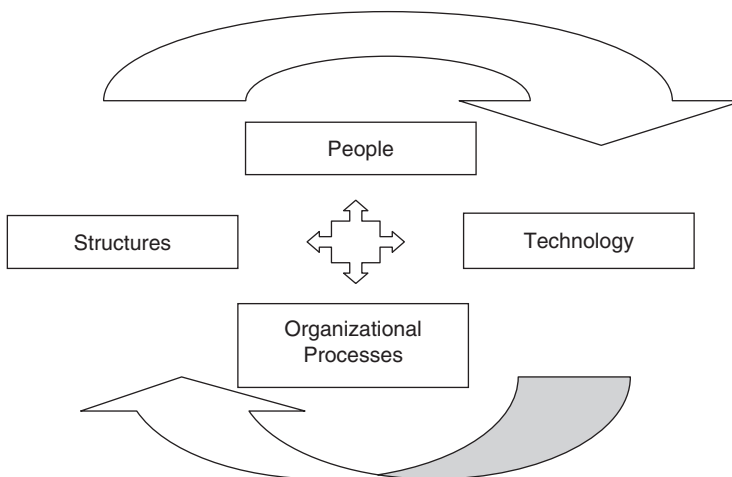


Figure 1 The Dynamics of Change Components

words, change was essentially seen as a linear, sequential process. Much emphasis was placed on the role of individuals acting as change 'agents'. However, this is now considered a 'rational' view of change and does not take into consideration different organizational **contexts** or different types of change.

In the past fifty years we have seen considerable movement in the political and economic situation of many countries. Consequently, new ways of looking at change have emerged. One of the approaches used in the general management literature is termed the contextualist approach. This emanates from the work of Andrew Pettigrew (1985) and his staff at the Centre for Corporate Strategy and Change at the University of Warwick Business School. Pettigrew's contextualist approach is best exemplified in his book about Imperial Chemical Industries, *The Awakening Giant*. Pettigrew is critical of much of the existing work on change. He suggests that it is ahistorical, aprocessual, and acontextual. Much of it, he suggests, views change as being a single event. To counteract his concerns, Pettigrew calls for a multilevel analysis and suggests that we should study changes over the period of the change process. He suggests three areas of change that we should look at, and indicates these areas as the corners of a triangle which he calls one context that he says consists of both an inner and outer context. He also suggests we need to look at the content and processes of change and goes on to look at the interaction among these three areas.

The contextualist approach uses detailed case studies of the change process in order to study change. Girginov and Sandanski (2008) employed the contextualist approach in his study of change in three Bulgarian national sport organizations. The study examined change in conceptual orientation, structures, resources, capabilities and outcomes over a twenty-five-year period from 1980 to 2004. The author suggested that the contextualist approach was useful in that it enabled an in-depth appreciation of the historical, contextual and processual factors that contributed to the changes observed as well as how these influenced the management of the sport organizations.

In contrast to this approach is the one termed 'population ecology', which has its roots in biology and particularly the idea of the survival of the fittest. It is mathematically underpinned and as the name suggests is concerned with the populations of organizations and how these will change to meet the demands placed on them. It also looks at a long change period rather than discrete change events.

Population ecologists see change as a number of phases. In the first phase of the process there is variation in the population of organizations (e.g., variation in **structure**, size, **effectiveness**, etc.). This occurs because managers will have to respond to the various contingency factors that their organization faces (e.g., competition, consumer **demand**, economic conditions, etc.). A number of these organizations will respond more appropriately to these factors. As such, those that change and respond to the contingency factors will survive while those that do not do so will, to use the language of population ecology, be selected out – that is to say, they will fail. This response to the various contingency factors is how organizations change in the population ecology approach.

Cunningham (2002) used the population ecology approach combined with institutional theory, strategic choice and resource dependence theories to examine radical organizational change in physical education and sport programmes. Resource dependence has been a popular theory among scholars, the fundamentals of which can be found in Pfeffer and Salancik's (1978) book *The External Control of*

Organizations. In resource dependence theory, the argument is made that organizations are dependent on their environment for the resources they need to operate. Resource dependence theory is not just about the dependency of organizations on their environment but also about the actions that are engaged in by organization members to ensure the continual flow of vital resources which are needed for that organization's operations. Because the environment of an organization will change, managers will have to engage in activities that will ensure this continued flow of resources. The activities that a manager may engage in are numerous, but the most important are changes in **strategy** such as merges, diversification and joint ventures.

Armstrong-Doherty (1995) used the resource dependency approach to look at the funding of Canadian intercollegiate athletics. Her work focused on the way athletic departments obtained funds. It does not however look at the techniques used by athletic departments to obtain funding. Another approach to understand organizational change is termed 'the life cycle'. As with population ecology, the life-cycle approach to understanding organizational change uses biology as its basis. In contrast to the idea of population ecology this approach looks at single organizations or small groups of organizations. It has been criticized for being too linear and deterministic. Essentially the life-cycle approach sees organizations as going through stages just as humans or animals do. These stages are referred to by various names but may include birth, maturity and death.

The life-cycle approach was developed by John Kimberly (1980) and can help to understand change. It sees this as developing from the birth of an organization, through growth, to maturity and possibly even death. Of course, organizations do not necessarily follow this life cycle in the same manner and some will be born, will grow and mature, and then through some innovation or change, will begin another period of growth. Likewise, death need not be a stage in every organization's life cycle. Kimberly (1987) referred to this method of understanding organizational change as the biographical approach. There are few studies that have substantially applied the life-cycle approach to sport organizations in order to understand the management of change. There are, however, numerous writings on organizations (e.g., Prouty's (1988) work on the US Cycling Federation, and Wolfe's (1989) work on the Dallas Cowboys) which if combined with either the life cycle or contextualist theoretical approaches could help us understand the change process using these theories.

Another approach that is currently popular is termed 'institutional theory'. In this, organizations will change because they are trying to imitate other successful organizations. Because of its emphasis on societal expectations, in the institutional approach the belief is that organizations should be studied from a sociological perspective. It has become the dominant perspective to study both sport organizations (cf. Berrett and Slack, 1999; Southall et al., 2008; Steen-Johnsen, 2008) and other types of organizations (cf. Greenwood et al., 2008; Washington and Ventresca, 2004).

The patterning of organizational elements is another approach which is used in the general management literature and it is one of the more contemporary views on organizational change. It is also the approach that has been utilized to undertake the most advanced work on sport organizations. Several studies have shown that organizations show patterns in the elements by which they are constituted. This patterning is variously referred to as archetypes, design archetypes, configurations, or *gestalts*. With the exception of archetypes this patterning looks only at the structural

elements of organizations. Archetypes also look at the values and beliefs that underpin the structure. The reader should note that there have been criticisms of archetype theory (Kirkpatrick and Ackroyd, 2003) and its application in certain organizational contexts such as public service organizations. Kirkpatrick and Ackroyd (2003) provided a detailed analysis of the problematic elements of archetype theory and offered an alternative approach which attempted to resolve the deficiencies in the theory that they had identified.

Greenwood and Hinings (1993) have noted that developments in organizational theory over the past several years have emphasized the importance of considering **structure** (i.e., the system of roles and responsibilities) and values (i.e., statements about what kinds of behaviours or end-states are preferable to others) in relationship to each other in order to understand organizational change. An organizational archetype in this sense is a particular composition of ideas, beliefs, and values connected with structural and systemic attributes. Change occurs because there is a lack of consistency between structures and values. They are, in Hinings and Greenwood's (1988) view, 'schizoid'.

Archetypes are institutionally specific. Kikulis et al. (1989), using a group of Canadian national sport organizations, identified three kinds of organization that they termed a 'kitchen table', an 'executive office' and a 'boardroom' design. The kitchen table design is relatively unstructured, with a low hierarchy of authority and attendant values that favour a volunteer-controlled organization where membership preferences and quality service are seen to produce an effective organization. In the boardroom design there is more structuring, with an emphasis still remaining on volunteers who are assisted by professionals. In the executive office design there is a structured organization where decisions are made by professionals who operate at the mid-levels of the organization. These professionals are assisted by volunteers; for more of an explanation of the three designs see the original Kikulis et al. (1989) article or the work by Slack and Parent (2006).

Hinings et al. (1996), in studying national sport organizations, found that those in an archetypal status showed consensus in the organization's values. They also found that when organizations were in an archetype there was consensus as regards the values of the elite and when organizations were outside an archetype there was no value consensus. Amis et al. (2004), with the same sample of Canadian national sport organizations, used the concept of archetypes. They found that contrary to popular belief wide-scale rapid change was not a determining factor in whether or not an organization reached archetypal status. They also found that an early change in specific high impact systems was important if organizations were to achieve an archetypal change. They suggested that change was not necessarily linear in nature. The notion of archetypes is important for understanding organizational change and the reader can access Greenwood and Hinings (1988) work for more information on this concept.

We may well ask 'Why do organizations change?' The answer to this question will depend upon the approach from which change is viewed. The table below summarizes the approaches discussed previously and briefly highlights their view of organizational change.

From the information it gives, it is apparent that the reason why a sport organization (or any organization) will change may come about because of shifts in that

Table 1 Approaches to Studying Organizational Change

<i>Contextualist</i>	Change that occurs over an extended period of time should not be seen as a single event; the content, context and process of change need to be studied to fully understand the concept.
<i>Population Ecology</i>	Change occurs within organizations as a result of pressures in the external environment and it is the impact of this environment on whole groups of organizations that should be studied in order to understand how change occurs.
<i>Resource Dependence</i>	Organizations are wholly dependent upon resources in their external environment, and change occurs in response to the availability of resources. The steps the organization takes in order to secure the necessary resources are an important factor in how the organization may change.
<i>Life Cycle</i>	Change is akin to the biological process of life in that organizations are born, develop, and decline, and finally cease to exist.
<i>Institutional Theory</i>	Organizations change according to pressures from their institutional environment which indicates the appropriate structures and systems to adopt for their successful and legitimate operation.
<i>Archetype Theory</i>	Change occurs within archetypal forms and is specific to institutional environments. Archetypes represent consistency in values and change from one archetype to another indicates a significant shift in values.

organization's external environment, or alternatively this may arise from within the organization itself (from what are known as change agents). Those who study organizations from the population ecology or institutional perspective stress the role of the external environment in the change process. Those who study organizational change from the resource dependence or contextualist approaches stress the role of internal factors and their interaction with external factors in the change process. **Sport organizations**, like other organizations, do not like to change. Change may be resisted because the culture of the organization may work against the shifts that are proposed. Organizations do not change because they may have sunk costs into the way they currently operate. Members of organizations will not want to change if they perceive that change may result in them having less power. Alternatively those who perceive that change will bring them more **power** will favour the change.

As a result of power relations, managing change often involves managing **conflict** between individuals or groups. However, managing change and managing conflict have primarily been treated separately by researchers and so we shall refrain from examining conflict here and include it as a separate concept to be examined later.

To understand change more fully the reader may refer to the concepts of **structure, technology, context, power, sport organizations, conflict** and **strategy** that can be found elsewhere in this book.

FURTHER READING

For some further reading on this concept, we would recommend the following:

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Commercialization

Commercialization is the process used to involve something such as a product or service in commerce (the exchange of something for economic value).

Commercialization generally describes the process whereby a product or service is evaluated in terms of its potential to secure some economic value from a defined target market. Many examples of research that investigates the process of commercialization in various contexts can be found. One area of research that has received increased attention recently is the commercialization of new technologies (Price et al., 2008). Thistoll and Pauleen (2010) explored the role of social **networks** and relationship management in commercializing high-technology innovations internationally. Specifically they focused on how individuals establish and manage network relationships. Their findings suggested that a variety of **stakeholders** established and managed relationships in different ways; they emphasized that the practical implications of their research suggested caution to managers and highlighted the need to be aware of different stakeholders' interpretations of risks and benefits. This is an interesting notion that the process of commercialization (including managing networks) may not be a standard generic one, but a process that is dependent upon various **contextual** factors.

There is also some research that examines **ethical** issues associated with the process of commercialization. Haddow and colleagues (2007) highlighted the ethical concerns held by members of the public over commercializing genetics-based research and the creation of databases related to such information. They presented a sociologically informed model that questioned the exclusivity of commercial interests in favour of a more pragmatic solution that would take into account public concerns. Other ethical concerns with commercialization have been examined in relation to marketing practices (Martin and Smith, 2008), highlighting how marketers and public policy makers should manage the ethical implications associated with this form of marketing.

As sport has become more visible and popular so has it become more commercialized. Sport clothing for example has become fashionable (see Key Note, 2009, 2010). With increased commercialization large corporations now manufacture several lines of sport clothing and will put their name or logo on the items they produce. Athletic footwear is also a rapidly expanding industry (cf. Sage, 2004; Strasser and Becklund, 1991) with athletic shoes by firms such as Nike, Reebok and Adidas appearing to be *de rigueur* in the wardrobe of any teenager. And as it has become more popular and visible, sport, like other social phenomena, has been subject to the pressures of **globalization**. In an attempt to secure more viewers, sponsors and advertisers teams are no longer subject to recruiting their athletes from the local area or a particular nation-state. Teams which play sports such as soccer and basketball will recruit their athletes from all over the world. Traditionally soccer has looked to Western Europe and basketball has looked to the United States for its athletes. Today, however,

athletes come from all over the world to participate in particular sports as this increases the international commercial potential of sporting activity. Slack and Amis (2004) noted that Pau Gasol, a Spaniard playing for the Memphis Grizzlies, increased the amount of NBA basketball that was shown on Spanish TV (and no doubt the amount of money that advertisers spent on basketball in Spain).

Public-private partnerships are frequently seen in the delivery of sport services. Local governments involved in the delivery of sport services have traditionally partnered with other public sector agencies and non-profit organizations in order to provide sport services as an aspect of social welfare and where the market has failed. As Thibault et al. (2004) note, 'More recently, however, sport and leisure departments have developed partnerships and **strategic alliances** with organizations in the commercial sector as a means of providing programmes, facilities, equipment and/or resources.' Quoting Crompton (1989) they argue that this development is a strategic shift involving the adoption of an entrepreneurial mindset that has led to increased interest in cooperating with commercial enterprises. One factor which has had considerable influence on the commercialization process is the relationship of sport to television. Berrett and Slack (2001) found that those national sport organizations which appeared on television frequently were most likely to be the beneficiaries of commercial support. Rupert Murdoch, for example, used the commercial potential of sport to promote his television stations (see Robertson, 2004). Whereas sport was previously used to 'fill space' in broadcasters' schedules, channels now focus exclusively on sport and some of these are dedicated to specific sports.

Gerrard (2004) identified three stages in the relationship between sport and television on the road to commercialization (see the figure below). The first stage he termed 'regulated professionalism', which covers the period from the mid-nineteenth century to the 1950s when television emerged as a mass medium. Here, due to increases in income and available leisure time, sport became available to the masses and was no longer the sole domain of an elite class. It also became a commodity and was no longer played on village greens but in enclosed areas where spectators had to pay to watch. Thus in this respect sport became a business which in turn created a gap between those who owned the teams and the players: this represented the first step in the commercialization process.

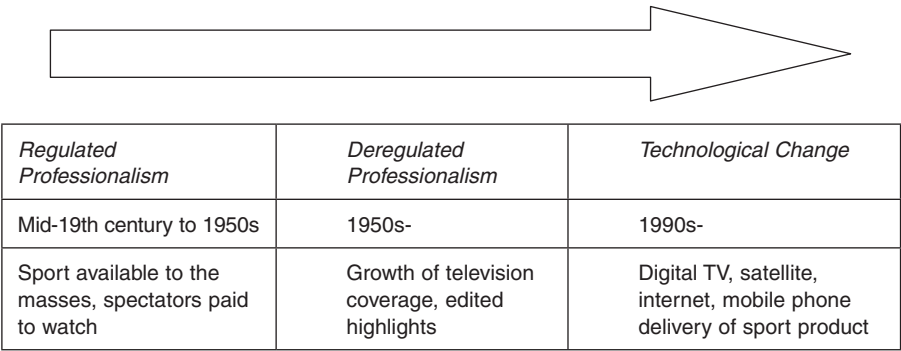


Figure 2 Stages of Commercialization: Sport