TOPIC 10
Sport and physical activity in Australian society

OVERVIEW

10.1 How have the meanings about sport and physical activity changed over time?
10.2 What is the relationship between sport and national and cultural identity?
10.3 How does the mass media contribute to people's understanding, values and beliefs about sport?
10.4 What are the relationships between sport and physical activity and gender?
10.5 Topic review

OUTCOMES

In this topic students will:

- analyse the influence of sociocultural factors on the way people participate in and value physical activity and sport (H12)
- devise methods of gathering, interpreting and communicating information about health and physical activity concepts. (H16)
10.1 How have the meanings about sport and physical activity changed over time?

CRITICAL QUESTION
How have the meanings about sport and physical activity changed over time?

10.1.1 Beginnings of modern sport in nineteenth-century England and colonial Australia

Australia’s sporting and physical activities have been strongly influenced by those that developed in England from the nineteenth century onwards. Therefore, to develop an understanding of sport and physical activity in Australian society it is necessary to examine this history.

Many of today’s popular sports had their origins in England; for example, cricket, football and tennis. These games soon spread throughout the colonies of the British Empire and have even been adopted by other nations as their traditional games — for example, cricket in India.

Links with manliness, patriotism and character

The British Empire and its colonies extended into many regions of the world, including Australia. To administer this empire, Britain needed public servants and army personnel to maintain its policy of colonisation. Because these people were spread throughout the world and were far from home, Britain also needed to be sure they would protect its interests. It became essential to instil in these people a sense of patriotism. Organised sport became the perfect way to achieve this. Through the education systems — public schools, elite private schools and the universities — virtues such as team loyalty, discipline and sacrifice were encouraged and developed, particularly in males.

FIGURE 10.1 A painting from 1870 showing a cricket game in Hyde Park, Sydney

Hyde Park — the old days of merry Cricket Club matches c. 1870? Thomas H Lewis Mitchell Library, State Library of NSW
From the late 1850s in England, a concept known as **Muscular Christianity** became an influence in schools, universities and working men’s clubs. This term described people who were healthy, morally upright Christians, and who were ready to serve and defend their country. The defence of the British Empire was considered to be ‘man’s work’ and school sports such as rugby and cricket instilled the characteristics of courage, determination, self-discipline and manliness. Women were also expected to aid in the defence of the British Empire by supporting their husbands and travelling to wherever they were posted.

**Meaning of amateur and professional sport**

During the nineteenth century it was believed that a true sportsman should be an **amateur**, someone who participates for no reward other than a love of the game. This had the effect of excluding all except for the wealthy, because they were the only ones able to afford the time to train or compete and could do so without suffering any loss of income. At this time, England had a rigid class system and this concept of amateurism also helped to keep the social boundaries in place. Sports such as athletics were controlled by the amateur sporting clubs and because the lower classes could not afford to join they were not allowed to participate. No athlete was allowed to accept prize money without risking their amateur status and thus being excluded from further competitions. Sports such as cricket and rugby were considered to be the pastimes of the upper classes.

The working classes needed to develop their own entertainment and competitions that allowed the players to receive payments. In 1895, the code of rugby league split from rugby union. Rugby league became widespread and eventually developed into a **professional** sport, whereas rugby union remained amateur until 1995. Professional players receive payment for playing a sport or make it their livelihood. Soccer also developed into the ‘people’s game’ for the working classes and became professional. These games had to turn to professionalism to survive, because the lower classes who played needed to be reimbursed for travelling expenses and for the time that they could have spent working. The chance to earn extra money by gambling on games ensured competitions became regular events and were supported by the masses.

Colonial Australia was a reflection of British culture and society. It adopted many of its traditions and developed its sports in a similar manner. The officers, free landholders and convicts were the first to introduce ‘blood sports’ such as hunting and bare-knuckle boxing, but later horse racing and other sports such as cricket, rowing, rugby, billiards and foot races increased in popularity. In the beginning, many sporting activities were played during the holidays or celebrations, with the local publicans organising the events. The opportunity to earn some extra money and improve one’s social status in the colony was never missed, and resulted in a strong association between gambling and the growth of professionalism in sport in Australia. Australia’s Stawell Gift is the world’s oldest professional foot race and began in 1878. The wealthy class ‘sponsored’ runners who competed for the substantial prize money. Many of the best runners were young Indigenous males who received modest rewards for their services. Boxing also provided an opportunity for participants to earn extra income. Professional boxers toured the colony offering bouts to all-comers. Although a person’s social class was not used to exclude them from competition, unless they had a financial backer to provide the entrance fees, travelling expenses, uniforms or equipment, the athlete or player could not compete. This meant that the ‘benefactors’ profited by taking most of the prize money. Also, athletes who accepted prize money could then not compete in future amateur competitions.

As the colony continued to grow, the sport of rugby found its way to Australia, but a unique form soon developed that became known as Australian rules. It was a combination of rugby, hurling and Irish football, and it was supported strongly by the masses. Some historians also contend that the sport was inspired by Marngrook, a game played by Indigenous children in Western Victoria.

The wealthy people in colonial Australia were the only sportspeople to compete as amateurs and continued to support pastimes such as tennis and golf. The rest of the population pursued activities such as cycling and after-dark swimming — a dangerous pastime considering many colonists were poor swimmers and sharks were more numerous in those days (eventually enclosed baths were built).
Inquiry
The relationship between social class and sport
1. Explain the relationship between social class and sports such as rugby union, soccer, rugby league and cricket.
2. Critically analyse how the meanings associated with sport differed for the different social groups in colonial times. Is this similar to or different from today? Discuss.

Inquiry
Amateur versus professional
1. Discuss how the meanings of the terms ‘amateur’ and ‘professional’ have changed over time. Describe the changes in society and within sport that led to the need to change.
2. Account for the reasons why rugby union remained amateur until the 1990s while many sports began to turn professional.
3. Outline the underlying social conditions that resulted in the growth of professionalism.
4. Select a sport (for example, golf, tennis or surfing) and carry out research to locate the rules that apply currently to its participants. Use this information to determine whether the sport has amateur or professional status. You may wish to use the Golf Australia weblink in your Resources tab or investigate a sport of your choice. Report your findings to the class.

Resources
Weblink: Golf Australia

Women's historical participation in sport
Few records of women’s sport were kept in nineteenth-century England. It was a time when men dominated sport and traditionally kept the official accounts. Women’s sport was deemed to be less important and was even trivialised in the media. Women of the Victorian era were expected to be fragile, pale, feminine and sedentary. Their ultimate role in society was motherhood, and it was important for them to be decorative, not strong and sporty.

Those women who showed an interest in physical activities were discouraged from participating further in sport because of medical opinions, which arose from a male-dominated medical profession. Listed below are some examples of the myths endorsed by the doctors of that era.

• Women’s reproductive systems can be irrevocably damaged by strenuous activity.
• Women who participate in sports will become coarse and be degraded and defiled.
• Women’s bone structure is too fragile for contact sports.
• Women develop unattractive muscle bulk through training.
• Women are unable to handle the stress of competition.
• Women’s bodies are unsuitable for long-distance running.

The perpetuation of these myths hampered the development of women’s sport for a long time.

Inquiry
Perpetuation of myths
Identify who might have benefited from the perpetuation of medical myths about women’s involvement in sport and in what ways.
In nineteenth-century Victorian England, women of the wealthy classes were expected to be good wives and mothers who supported their husband’s career. Their education was essentially limited to being able to run the household and their main physical activity was dancing at social events with their husband or, if unmarried, with potential husbands. To actively compete against men was frowned upon. If women wished to participate in a more active sport or more physical activity, society dictated how they should be dressed. In that era they were generally required to wear corsets, and heavy, long skirts which hindered any efforts to participate actively.

In the 1880s, women in England campaigned strongly to have physical education included for girls in schools. This led to the introduction of sports mistresses, but they had little experience in developing women’s sport. One of the first activities that was developed involved girls moving heavy skittles in patterns. This form of exercise evolved into modern gymnastics and physical culture.

At the beginning of the early twentieth century, swimming was a popular activity for many. Women’s swimming costumes were designed to conceal the body, but were also heavy and impractical. Separate bathing was common, which meant that women were not allowed to participate in swimming races in the company of men and were required to perform behind closed doors. It was not until 1912 in the Stockholm Olympics that women were allowed to participate in two swimming events, and then only in the company of chaperones. (The longest swimming race for women in the modern Olympics is 800 metres freestyle compared to the 1500 metres freestyle for men.)

**FIGURE 10.2** A group of Australian women dressed for a day of golf in 1900
Australians star in Olympic pool

MONDAY, 22 JULY Australia has emphatically shown the world its strength in swimming at the Olympic Games in Stockholm, Sweden. The Australians won six medals at the games — all in the pool.

Swimming pin-up girl Fanny Durack won gold in the first swimming event ever contested by women at the Olympics — the 100 metres freestyle held on 12 July. Our other gold was won by the Australasian relay team in the 4 × 200 metres freestyle event.

Mina Wylie finished just behind Durack to win a silver in the women’s 100 metres, while Cecil Healy also collected a silver in the men’s 100 metres freestyle. Classy distance swimmer Harold Hardwick rounded off our medal hunt with two bronze medals — in the 400 and 1500 metres events.

The Olympics were well organised by the Swedes and saw the first use of public address systems and electronic timing devices, with the crowds clearly approving of both innovations.

As a result of World War I and the Roaring Twenties, society’s views of acceptable female physical activities began to change. In 1928, women were finally allowed to compete in a limited number of athletic events, although no greater distance than 800 metres was allowed for females. It was not until the 1970s — and at Olympic level not until 1984 — that women were allowed to compete in marathons.

**CASE STUDY**

**Attitudes to women’s sport in the early twentieth century**

In 1918, sport for women was really a school girl and varsity [university] affair, and a relatively elite affair at that. The opportunities available for young women to be involved in organised sport were limited . . .

[Margaret] Watts and [Eleanor] Hinder were welfare workers with a particular concern about the needs of women in a rapidly industrialising and urbanising Australia. Much had been said about the problems of ‘the city boy’ in modern times, less regard was paid to the problems of the city girl, especially in relation to vocational training and recreation. ‘The girl is regarded as a temporary unit in Industry,’ observed Watts, ‘her work an incident before marriage. The boy’s education, recreation and leisure time pursuits have first place.

The implications of this attitude for the resourcing of women’s sport were obvious. ‘Sports Grounds for the youngest girls in Industry are rare facts, every available piece of ground being allocated for boys’ cricket or football.’

Furthermore, statistical evidence collated by Watts demonstrated that the period between leaving school and marriage, for most Australian women, was a long ‘incident’. ‘The average girl in Australia marries at twenty-five years of age, which means that she is at work some ten years,’ Watts argued. ‘When she leaves school and begins to earn her living, what she misses most in her new sphere are the organized games and the team spirit of her school.’ Put simply, urban working girls missed companionship . . . ‘When one reflects upon how unselfishness, team spirit and other fine qualities are bound up in games, one realizes that sport is a foundation in character,’ she observed. Therefore, what the women of Sydney needed was an organisation ‘of national purpose for the promotion of health and sport, comradeship and good citizenship’.

[The City Girls’ Amateur Sports Association] began in 1918 as a meeting of representatives of twelve affiliated business houses and doubled its membership in the space of five years. Annual fees for clubs and members were kept as low as possible, to make the association as inclusive as possible. Apart from organising competitions in the existing sports of hockey, cricket, tennis, rowing, swimming and athletics, the association was instrumental in establishing netball (then basketball) as an organised sport in New South Wales. A health clinic ran out of their offices and members organised an active social program with regular excursions into the country arranged . . .

Apart from the opportunity to be active and make friends, involvement in the CGASA taught women valuable life skills. ‘Consequent training in group leadership is of fundamental value,’ Watts observed, not only to the individual but to the nation. ‘Women’s Health is the Nation’s Wealth’ was the CGASA motto . . .

The matter of a dedicated sports ground for the women of Sydney was, quite literally, a never-ending concern for the CGASA. Men’s and boys’ sport was always given priority access to the available playing fields and the high demand for the venues controlled by the Sydney University Women’s Sports Association meant that waiting periods, especially on the weekends, were lengthy. Of course, the more women who became involved in sport, the more acute the shortage became . . .

In its short but active life, the CGASA played a vital role in establishing organised sport for women and girls outside the school system, and in so doing contributing significantly to the development of sport as a ‘democratic’ activity in Australian culture. Factory girls played hockey against the students at the University of Sydney; Farmer’s [department store] office girls joined the cleaners in the basketball team. If an interest in sport is regarded as ‘the great leveller’ in Australia, then the CGASA clearly had a place in the development of that tradition.


**Inquiry**

**The effect of attitudes to women and sport**

Read the case study and explain how attitudes towards women affected their participation rates in sport and physical activity during the early twentieth century.
In the past, the lack of participation by women in sport or physical activity was due mainly to:

- **sexism**, which limited the number of sports available to women
- society’s concept of femininity, which restricted women’s freedom
- fewer female sporting role models presented in the media
- a lower level of parental encouragement or involvement
- society’s expectations regarding marriage and the raising of a family
- past school experiences, which tended to be negative
- peer influence, resulting in girls conforming to non-participation patterns of behaviour
- the development by males of sports which suited males.

Today, few of these traditional attitudes and beliefs still exist. Society now views sport and physical activity as essential to promoting good health and longevity for both sexes.

### 10.1.2 Sport as a commodity

The modern era has witnessed a change in sport. Sport is no longer simply for those people who participate or spectate for the sheer enjoyment of the sport. Increased professionalism, sponsorship and interest by big business has caused some sports and athletes to become commodities that can be bought, sold or traded by franchise agreements or player contracts. Furthermore, they are then ‘packaged’ by image consultants or management companies to make them a marketable ‘product’. This product — the player — then participates in events carefully scheduled throughout the year, with the viewing rights sold at home or to interested overseas countries.

#### The development of professional sport

There have always been professional athletes or sportspeople. Our earliest records reveal that athletes or players in competitions often received symbolic rewards, such as the olive wreath in the ancient Olympics, or material rewards such as land, livestock or money. Entrepreneurs who staged the events realised that, besides profiting from the spectators, if they developed their own athletes or players then they could share in the prize money and gamble on the outcome as well. For many of the athletes and players, the payment for their services and the opportunity to improve their life was important.

In the latter half of the twentieth century, the business world soon realised that it could exploit the rivalry that existed between towns, districts and cities. Workers were given time off from work on the weekends to play sport for a local team. These players then became semi-professional. Astute businesspeople soon began to buy teams of players and develop competitions so that they had more control and could therefore profit more. Players and athletes remained semi-professional for a long time until, eventually, payments became more than their wages and they were able to give up full-time work.

Since the 1980s, many players have been paid six figure sums and above annually. These salaries may be justified when the professional careers in some sports are relatively brief, as in rugby league or basketball. The possibility of sustaining an injury that cuts short a brilliant career is a factor to be considered in negotiating these salaries. High salaries are also paid to particular players because they attract the crowds and major sponsors, and because their performances will contribute to winning competitions for the club and owners.

Golf is one sport in which careers can be quite long by comparison, but rather than being tied to a salary, players earn money from sponsorships, endorsements and prize money. The general effect of professionalism has been to improve the standard of sport everywhere.

In some sports it is difficult to determine the professional and amateur status of players, as earnings may be held in trust funds, taken as educational scholarships or declined.
The Olympic Movement resisted professionalism for a long time, keeping the competition for amateurs only and upholding the ideals on which it was founded. Eventually it too gave in to pressure, particularly from the United States and the changing attitudes in the world, and allowed professional athletes to participate. In 1992, the ‘Dream Team’ in basketball was the first US Olympic team to include NBA star players, and a worldwide interest in the sport exploded. Likewise, the best professional tennis players from around the world could compete for the honour of representing their country. The financial benefits of winning a gold medal are generally not the reason these players participate.

The need for greater professionalism in sport is driven by financial reasons, such as:
- the rising costs of training — hire of facilities, equipment, coaching
- the need to travel within the country and overseas for competitions
- the need for accommodation if an event is scheduled over an extended period
- medical costs such as physiotherapy, rehabilitation, dietitians and sports psychologists
- the demands of training, which do not allow full-time work
- audiences that have much higher expectations of players and athletes
- greater media attention, which requires a polished performance from players and athletes
- sponsors of major competitions who expect top-level performances constantly
- the need to be competitive internationally
- the fact that sport is now big business and highly marketable.

**Inquiry**

**Professionalism in sport**

Read the following quotes from the ABC TV series *Timeframe*, then write a one page synopsis explaining your own view of professionalism in sport, outlining what you see as the positive and negative consequences.

David Hill: I think that whatever a sportsman is being paid now, he or she is worth whatever the market will stand because they are entertaining huge audiences, in many cases worldwide.

Raelene Boyle: I think money has partially destroyed [sport] . . . because the whole motivation to get out there and be good . . . is money motivated. Whereas we didn’t really think like that. We did it because we had a passion and we gave up our personal time to do that.

**Sport as big business**

Big business is an integral part of modern sport. According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics, Australian households spent an average of $172 every week on recreation products in general in 2015–16 — approximately 11.6 per cent of their spending on goods and services, which encompasses most costs (except housing,
rent or mortgage, payments and tax). This continues to increase because our climate, the availability of sporting venues and the Australian people’s interest in sport and recreational activities promote this growth.

The participation rates of Australian men and women in sport and physical activities are considered to be quite high for our population. This results in a high turnover in the sporting goods industries. Business uses the various media to advertise sports goods and products. Well-directed advertising influences individuals to make decisions that inevitably make them consumers. Sporting heroes such as LeBron James, Serena Williams or Cristiano Ronaldo are used to convince these consumers that, as players, they need to wear the appropriate clothes and shoes (different shoes for different surfaces) and purchase the appropriate equipment so that they can have a better chance of winning. The latest technology is used to enable players to hit the ball further, gain greater control or develop the ‘edge’ on the competition.

To ensure future sales, businesses constantly market new fashions or products. The golf clubs a person bought last year will be quickly superseded by ‘NASA-type’ technology or a ‘dramatic design breakthrough’ that has produced an even better set of clubs. This cycle continues for as long as there is a market to satisfy. The large sporting goods manufacturers such as Nike, Dunlop, Spalding and Reebok compete fiercely to increase their profiles and sales.

The growth of modern sport has been paralleled by a growth in costs. Once it was common for spectators to sit around a field, consume their own food from a picnic hamper and watch a game of cricket or football. Today, major sports now need large venues such as the Sydney Cricket Ground (SCG). The SCG comes complete with ticket collectors, tiered seating, grandstands, toilets, food outlets, souvenirs, security guards, technicians and cleaners. It also has an international-standard cricket pitch maintained by a team of ground staff around the clock during the cricket season. During autumn and winter, fans of the Sydney Swans AFL team flock to the SCG for the home games.

Teams in major competitions, such as the National Rugby League competition, are supported by fitness trainers, physiotherapists, dietitians, managers, coaches, skills coaches, administrators, public relations officers and their own field ground staff. While some money is received from local councils and the government for the upkeep of some sporting facilities, the gate receipts from spectators and club membership fees do not cover all the costs. Additional revenue can be gained by running social clubs associated with the sport, as various rugby league and soccer clubs do, but the answer to most financial problems in sport is major sponsorship.

Sponsorship, advertising and sport

Sponsorship involves an organisation covering all or part of the costs of the competition or activity in return for advertisement of their product and other rights. The level of sponsorship an athlete, sport or team will achieve is usually equal to the amount of publicity that he, she or it receives or the profile of a team’s players. Small clubs such as the local football or netball club may attract only local businesses as sponsors. In return for sponsoring teams or competitions, businesses are able to advertise in newsletters, on uniforms and sometimes at the grounds. Often businesses are approached to donate prizes at fundraising events for sports, which becomes another opportunity for them to promote their company or products. Because the exposure of such companies will be limited, their financial contribution is not expected to be substantial.

The higher profile sports and athletes cannot exist without major sponsorship because of the huge overheads involved in running their large organisations. Large companies or organisations will only provide major corporate sponsorship to sports or athletes in relation to the amount of television coverage or newspaper space that can be attracted. This means that, unfortunately, the smaller, lesser known sports usually struggle to find sponsors. Without sponsors, their sport’s potential for growth is limited and so the sport becomes trapped in a cycle. The administrators of these lesser known sports then have to work hard on the media to get any publicity, or they resort to paying the media to cover events or do profiles on players. This can become very expensive.

The importance of major sponsors in high-profile sporting codes is also highlighted when a controversy arises; for example, if inappropriate behaviour by players receives media attention. Major sponsors may withdraw their support rather than align their brand with an organisation or players whose reputation is damaged.
Many sports and events rely on the merchandising of products to provide additional income. Each rugby league, basketball or AFL club sells club memorabilia. These may be mugs, scarves, beanies, jackets, or the club jersey, which is changed each year to promote more sales, or indeed any product that can have a logo printed on it. Limited edition, autographed, framed photographs of special games, can be purchased and are often advertised as being an investment for the future. The world’s largest sporting event, the Olympics, generates substantial revenue from the sale of merchandising rights to companies. This merchandise is available a year before the official opening of each Games. Special Olympic pins celebrating the number of ‘days to go’ are promoted as collector’s items.

What are the benefits of sponsorship for sport?
• Economic growth for a city or state, especially in tourism, associated business and employment. There was rivalry between the states for the right to stage the Australian Grand Prix, for example. This premier event draws an international audience and thousands of cashed-up visitors. The costs of setting up the event are soon returned through an increase in business activity.
• Improved administration of the sport is possible because jobs that were previously done on a part-time voluntary basis become paid, full-time jobs for highly skilled professionals with management experience.
• Athletes have the opportunity to compete overseas because the expenses are covered by the sponsors in return for exposure. Some lesser known athletes may need several sponsors to cover the costs.
• There is greater recognition of the sport through increased media coverage because sponsors push to have events publicised in the different segments of the media.
• Many large sponsorship deals for clubs include money being put towards supporting the development of juniors. Some companies develop long-standing associations, which promotes club development.

What are the disadvantages of the sponsorship of sport?
• Media coverage is dominated by high-profile sports and these tend to be the traditional male sports. The lesser known sports struggle to survive because they don’t have the exposure needed to encourage new members. Australia has many highly successful individuals or teams, such as the women’s water polo team, which, until recently, received little recognition of their achievements.
• Inappropriate sponsorship occurs, such as brewing companies sponsoring cricket. Alcohol is often a contributing factor leading to the death or injury of young people involved in motor vehicle accidents. It is also linked to lifestyle diseases and many social problems such as domestic violence.
• Sponsors can force changes in rules; for example the need for ‘time-outs’ for advertisements. The ball used in the game may carry a sponsor’s logo and jerseys are often redesigned to suit the sponsor.
• Sponsors can ignore decades of tradition and rename sporting events to suit themselves. For example, from 1999 until 2008, the Sheffield Shield was changed to the Pura Cup after the competition’s sponsor. The names of much-loved sporting fields can be changed; for example, Cronulla’s home ground has been renamed approximately ten times because of naming deals since it was built in 1960. It was initially Endeavour Field, it was renamed to Ronson Park, Caltex Park, Shark Park, Toyota Park, LG Park, Shark Stadium, Remondis Stadium and from March 2016 was known as Southern Cross Group Stadium, after a three-year naming rights deal was settled.
• Some clubs are likely to lose their identity as traditions are bypassed to make clubs attractive to new sponsors. The power then rests with the sponsors rather than the club.

Inquiry
Sponsorship, advertising and sport
1. Identify some inappropriate sponsorships such as those by alcohol companies, fast-food companies or soft-drink companies.
   (a) Explain why you believe the sponsorship is inappropriate.
   (b) Account for the reasons why some sports may seek such sponsorship.
   (c) Discuss the effect that inappropriate sponsorship may have on health promotion initiatives.
2. Despite international success by many Australian teams, some teams have not attracted high levels of sponsorship. With reference to particular individuals and teams, suggest why some have not been as successful as others and explain the effect a lack of sponsorship has had.

Athletes and advertising
Athletes require funds to cover the costs of competing in their sport. These costs include travel to the various competitions, accommodation, equipment, clothing, coaching and having the free time to train. They therefore need to secure sponsorships and, in return for these sponsorships, they advertise for that company or organisation or endorse its products or services.

Athletes advertise for their sponsors by:
• wearing a particular brand of clothing, shoes or cap with the company’s logo
• using only a particular brand of equipment
• appearing in television commercials or print advertisements to promote the product or service
• mentioning sponsors’ names during interviews
• thanking the sponsors after major wins
• running coaching clinics for juniors
• eating certain types of food in public
• driving certain types of motor vehicle
• wearing particular brands of sunglasses.

While athletes have obligations to their sponsors, they are also required during competitions to abide by the restrictions imposed by their governing body on the amount of advertising space that is allowed on their uniform or equipment. In tennis, logos are discreetly placed on sleeves, skirts and shorts. Occasionally conflicts develop in the sponsorship between an athlete and an event sponsor, as happened between Kellogg’s and Uncle Toby’s during the development of the Ironman series.

Inquiry
Advertising and sponsorship of sportspeople
1. In groups, discuss current examples of athletes who endorse particular products.
2. Outline the reasons why sponsors select particular athletes to advertise their products.
Economics of hosting major sporting events

To host any major sporting event such as the Olympics or the World Cup of soccer, rugby union, cricket, netball or rugby league requires considerable organisation before, during and after the event, but also a high level of government support and financial resources.

Several years before a sporting event is due to take place, countries make a bid to the governing body of the sport to host the event. This bid must outline their overall vision, plans and budgets for staging the event. Special consideration must be given to environmental issues, infrastructure development (stadiums), transport systems, security, telecommunications/broadcasting, medical treatment, merchandising, advertising, ticketing and accommodation for participants, spectators and officials. The bidding process is highly competitive with no absolute guarantees of success and a return on investment. Some countries make bids for events 10 to 15 years in advance. However, when a country’s bid is successful it focuses international attention on that country, intensifies feelings of national pride in its people and has the potential for stimulating economic growth, if the costs are managed effectively.

This economic growth is achieved through attracting world media attention, infrastructure development, increases in employment, investments from overseas businesses and an influx of tourists. Governments are generally interested in financially supporting these events as it is hoped that a legacy of world-class sporting facilities and services is left for future generations. The costs of providing these resources may not be possible through normal government funding and allows money to be reallocated into other areas.

The cost of hosting a major sporting event can be divided into direct costs and indirect costs (see the case study below for examples). Direct costs relate to expenditure for construction of venues, wages for workers, technology etc. Indirect costs are secondary expenditures on transport systems, medical treatment, drug testing etc. These costs vary according to the existing facilities of the host country, the sport involved, the number of participants/spectators and the fact that all costs continue to rise because of inflation.

CASE STUDY

The economics of hosting the Olympics

When the International Olympic Committee (IOC) declares that a city is to be the venue for an Olympic Games, that city knows it is responsible for staging the world’s largest and most popular event. Besides being the host country for athletes from around the world, the Games showcase the city as a tourist destination. Other benefits include the prospect of job creation, increased business activity and a boost to the economy as a whole.

Staging the Olympics involves a major financial commitment for the host city. When the first modern Olympic Games were held in Athens in 1896, the funding was obtained through:
- private donations (67 per cent)
- stamps (22 per cent)
- tickets, coins and medals (11 per cent).

Over 100 years later, the Olympic Movement’s revenue in the four-year games cycle 2010–12 amounted to $8 billion. The breakdown of revenue sources for this period is shown in figure 10.7.

The cost of the Olympics can be divided into:
- Direct costs, for example:
  - the construction of permanent and temporary sporting facilities
  - the opening and closing ceremonies, and medals for all the events
  - transport for all Olympic officials and delegates before and after the competition. Teams need to be moved between venues and the village. Visiting athletes’ airfares are also absorbed into the transport costs.

FIGURE 10.7 Revenue sources for the Olympic Games cycle 2010–12, including the 2010 Winter Olympics in Vancouver and the 2012 Games in London.

Source: Sportcal, issue 26, July 2012.
– the wages for administrators and officials from the time of staging a bid
– accommodation and meals in the Olympic Village for athletes and officials
– the high level of security with trained personnel on standby before and during the games, 24 hours a day
– the cost of communications and of setting up the special broadcasting facilities to accommodate the world’s media
– computer technology at the venues
– specialised ticketing
– laboratories and drug-testing facilities.

• Indirect costs, for example:
– for the Olympics to be successful requires a great deal of infrastructure to be in place prior to the Games (roads, railways, other transport services)
– the increase in the wages of essential services such as bus and rail employees
– the Olympics must be marketed and publicised to make it a success
– there are the logistical costs, such as staging the torch relay
– medical treatment must be provided for Olympic athletes and officials during the Games
– laboratories and drug-testing procedures need to be developed.

FIGURE 10.8 Merchandise at the London 2012 Olympic Games

SNAPSHOT

Olympic Games sponsorship

The Olympic Games are one of the most effective international marketing platforms in the world, reaching billions of people in over 200 countries and territories throughout the world.

Support from the business community is crucial to the staging of the Games and the operations of every organisation within the Olympic Movement.

Revenue generated by commercial partnerships accounts for more than 40 per cent of Olympic revenues and partners provide vital technical services and product support to the whole of the Olympic Family.
Each level of sponsorship entitles companies to different marketing rights in various regions, category exclusivity and the use of designated Olympic images and marks.

**Source:** International Olympic Committee website, http://www.olympic.org/sponsors.

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**Inquiry**

**Economics and the driving force of the Olympic Movement**

Read the case study ‘The economics of hosting the Olympics’ and the snapshot above.

1. Discuss the changes in the sources of revenue for the Olympic Movement between 1896 and the present day.
2. In what ways could the Olympic Games be seen as a sporting commodity?
3. Conduct your own research into the economics that were involved in hosting any one of the following major sporting events: 2012 London Olympics; 2016 Rio de Janeiro Olympics; World Cups — soccer, rugby union, cricket, netball or rugby league. Present your findings as a table with the direct costs and indirect costs indicated.
4. Write a brief report on the personal and environmental costs of hosting this major sporting event and justify why it should continue to be staged.

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**Consequences for spectators and participants**

The emergence of sport as a commodity has both positive and negative consequences for the participants (players) and the spectators. Tables 10.1 and 10.2 provide a summary.

---

**TABLE 10.1** Sport as a commodity — consequences for players/participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• very skilled players can earn high incomes in a short period of time</td>
<td>• beginning players earn very little until they are placed on a contract that may be for a short period</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• a higher public profile can allow some players to supplement income with endorsement contracts</td>
<td>• players’ private lives come under great media scrutiny and are subject to codes of conduct that can enforce financial penalties or deregistration for bringing the game into disrepute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• players are exposed to a higher level of competition, including national and international competition</td>
<td>• extended playing seasons cause players to be away from families for longer periods or to play earlier in the year when it is much hotter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• players travel the world, being paid to play a sport they love</td>
<td>• players are expected to continually adapt to changes in conditions; for example, day and night games, different countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• some clubs opt to offer players the security of four-year contracts to ensure their skills are kept within the club</td>
<td>• a higher standard of competition and higher frequency of games can result in more injuries or players becoming burnt out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• players can receive bonuses for winning performances</td>
<td>• salary caps eventually force the higher earning players overseas or to take large cuts in earnings to remain within the country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• as professional athletes, players have time to train and so improve their skills</td>
<td>• club loyalty is difficult for players as they are traded between clubs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• players have opportunities to become commentators or to remain as trainers, passing on their knowledge and skills to younger players</td>
<td>• players are expected to attend sponsors’ functions and use particular brands</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE 10.2 Sport as a commodity — consequences for spectators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• higher quality games are viewed because competitions are national or international</td>
<td>• some sporting telecasts are delayed due to clashes in programming and so spectators are at risk of hearing a result before they have watched the game</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• international players are used as drawcards for teams wishing to build their fan base</td>
<td>• the spectators’ favourite players may be forced to move to other clubs because of salary cap issues or be frequently injured because of an exhaustive game schedule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• changes to uniforms and the rules of some games have made them more exciting; for example, rugby sevens and Twenty20 cricket</td>
<td>• the nature of the game can change when the sport is altered to suit the advertisers, such as the use of white cricket balls for night games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• changes to times of games have made sport more accessible for spectators, such as cricket day–night games</td>
<td>• traditional uniforms are changed to suit sponsor logos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• more sports are available for viewing through pay-for-view stations and sport-only channels that run 24 hours a day</td>
<td>• cost of tickets precludes some spectators and family groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• merchandising allows spectators to support their team by wearing the club colours or jerseys</td>
<td>• demand for tickets — some fans miss out on big games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• pre-game and half-time entertainment is included in many big events</td>
<td>• cost to install pay TV and monthly charges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• spectators have benefited by a large array of technology that allows them to be part of the action; for example, replays, hawk eye, hot spot or player cam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• spectators also have access to the latest statistics and comparisons of past performances</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### CASE STUDY

**Growth of women’s football has been a 100-year revolution — it didn’t happen overnight**

Rob Hess, Associate Professor, College of Sport and Exercise Science, Victoria University

Tonight, when Collingwood ruck Emma King jumps to tap the ball against her Carlton opponent, the spirits of thousands of women who have played Australia’s national game will be leaping with her.

The game is the first in the Australian Football League Women’s (AFLW) competition, which kicks off with eight teams in a condensed season. It is an initiative the AFL describes as a ‘revolution’ that will change the game ‘forever’.

However, there has so far been scant understanding of — or credit given to — the historical background to the AFLW’s creation.

**AFLW: why now?**

AFLW’s sceptics have questioned everything: the fast-tracked implementation of the competition, the extent of public support, the depth of the player talent pool, and the potential quality and appeal of the female game, which will be 16-a-side and played with slightly modified rules and a smaller ball.

However, the women’s code has been part of a remarkable transformation in Australian sport. There is a new appreciation of female achievements, including in horse racing, cricket, soccer and netball. Increasingly attractive financial and sponsorship arrangements and broadcast deals are also being put in place.

Due to swelling interest, the inaugural AFLW match has been shifted from Olympic Park to [the larger] Princes Park, so more fans and curious onlookers can attend. Public awareness continues to build on the back of savvy AFL marketing and branding and helpful mainstream media coverage.

Also, a deluge of supportive social media campaigns have been driven by clubs, teams and players and independent enthusiasts keen to encourage an exciting venture in women’s sport.

**A long history**

But the AFL hierarchy has only reluctantly trumpeted that women first played a series of competitive matches in Perth more than 100 years ago. They have played thousands of matches around Australia since.

Primary sources have thrown up remarkable stories and statistics; these create a rich and fascinating picture of the women’s game.
More than 41,000 people turned out to watch a women’s football match on Adelaide Oval in 1929. Women working in munitions factories, steel mills and on farms during the Second World War also played football fundraisers, with teams in Broken Hill being dubbed the ‘Spitfires’ and the ‘Bombers’.

By 1950, the women’s game had been played in more than 20 towns around Tasmania. A four-team competition was even run in Brisbane in the 1950s, when sides also emerged in Darwin and Alice Springs.

The tribalism of football in Victoria extended to the female game. Where women’s teams in other states grew from workplaces and rural populations, from almost the beginning in Victoria, female teams were linked to established clubs.

In the first game in Melbourne, in 1921, one team was kitted out in St Kilda uniforms — also breaking the tradition of women playing in skirts or dresses.

In 1923, the Richmond ladies football team played in a match against male counterparts to raise funds for the junior team.

In 1933, while Melbourne was still in the grip of the Great Depression, the Carlton and Richmond football clubs hosted a women’s football match at Princes Park for charity. Carlton recruiters were over-run by young girls, older women and those in between, who were eager to wear the Blues’ guernsey.

Administrators from other sports voiced disapproval as elite netballers and track-and-field athletes flocked to train with the Carlton squad, who were coached by senior player Micky Crisp. Thousands of spectators attended and footage of the game was shown on a Cinesound newsreel.

Immediately following the Second World War, women kept playing and helped raise funds for the Red Cross Food for Britain appeal.

The South Melbourne, Footscray, Hawthorn and St Kilda clubs formed a round-robin female competition. The games generated significant media coverage, especially when South Melbourne prodigies like 15-year-old Gladys Phillips, who later represented Australia in cricket and softball, were lauded by the Sporting Globe.

Even renowned hard-man Jack Dyer, then captain-coach of Richmond, agreed to umpire a women’s match between North Melbourne and South Melbourne, which was played in front of a crowd of 9000 people.

Other VFL celebrities also umpired or coached women’s matches. Eminent players like Essendon’s John Coleman and Collingwood’s Ron Todd featured in pre-match or half-time goal-kicking contests. Geelong included a women’s match as part of a past players’ day at Kardinia Park in 1954.

But it was Footscray Football Club that kept the women’s code alive and in the public eye during the 1950s. The impetus seemed to come from high-profile players like premiership captain-coach Charlie Sutton and rising stars Ted Whitten and Jack Collins, who tapped into the ever-present desire of women to play football.

Over several years, interclub games were often played. Whitten’s Wonders competed against Collins’ Cuties, for instance, to raise funds for the local hospital. Or sometimes a combined Footscray team travelled to play an outer suburban or country rival.

A Victorian squad that played the first interstate women’s game and was defeated by a Tasmanian northwest coast team in 1959 was comprised mostly of Footscray players.

Women belonged in the past, too

No biographical profile of Sutton, Whitten or Collins, nor the club’s official history, make any mention of the role they had in fostering women’s football.

The same is true of other VFL clubs. The exception is Carlton, where Myra MacKenzie, who played for the club in 1933, was feted in a number of press articles and features on the club’s website, and was interviewed by academics before her death in 2016.

With the AFL’s seeming indifference to what had gone before, few clubs pitching for a women’s team in the new competition included any substantive historical links to bolster their bids.
However the AFL presents the AFLW, women’s football is not a ‘revolution’ that starts with the first whistle on Friday. Nor did it begin with the advent of the modern women’s leagues in the 1980s. It began in 1915, when 36 pioneering young women in modest and cumbersome outfits took to the field and showed that women belonged there, too.

**Inquiry**

**Case study — Growth of women’s football has been a 100-year revolution**

Read the case study on the history of women’s Australian Rules Football and answer the following questions.

1. Why might someone describe an Australian Rules competition for women as ‘a revolution’?
2. What factors does the author credit with interest in the women’s competition?
3. Describe the impact that TV coverage might have on the popularity of the sport.
4. Draw up a table of two columns and, in each column, list:
   (a) the problems that the AFLW faces.
   (b) the possible solutions to the problems.
5. What social expectations or tensions with other sports are raised in the article that might have provided a barrier to the AFLW starting earlier?

**10.2 What is the relationship between sport and national and cultural identity?**

**CRITICAL QUESTION**

What is the relationship between sport and national and cultural identity?

**10.2.1 Australian sporting identity**

Australia’s sporting identity has for a long time been a significant part of our national identity. Australia has always measured itself against other countries, particularly England, and now against the United States. Australia’s sporting achievements have accompanied its growing independence and sense of national pride. In Australia, regions take great pride in being the birthplace and training ground for the nation’s future champions. These champions are provided with support from the government through the Australian Sports Commission and its main body, the Australian Institute of Sport.

**National and regional identity through sporting achievements**

Australia’s national identity is based on the fact that the majority of Australians love sport. Australians generally like to be seen as outdoor types, athletic and adaptable. Sport has given Australians confidence to take on the rest of the world. The first victory in the Ashes cricket series was an important symbolic event for many Australians. It meant that England had been beaten at its traditional game by the so-called outcasts of their society. Even today, Australians get particular enjoyment from a win in this series.

Likewise, the medal tally of each Olympics is used to rate our performance on the international stage. The type of event in which the medal is won does not matter as much as the fact that it was won by an Australian citizen. Even when overseas athletes such as weight-lifters migrate to Australia and compete as our national champions, we take great pride in their achievements, regardless of their recent arrival. The pressure to win medals at the Games is intense. The media profiles prospective champions and scrutinises their pre-Games performances in the lead-up to the Olympics. All of the country’s nationalistic dreams are then placed on the
shoulders of usually very young athletes. At the 2000 Olympics, Cathy Freeman ran the 400 metres knowing she bore the expectations of all Australians. At the finish, she was physically, mentally and emotionally exhausted. As a nation we also like to celebrate the achievements of long-standing sporting heroes such as rower James Tomkins.

FIGURE 10.9 When cyclist Anna Meares led the Australian team into the Maracana Stadium at Rio in August 2016, Australians felt a pride in the team representing the nation.

Part of our national identity is tied up with Australians’ perception that we are the ‘underdog’, a concept perpetuated through the media and in Australian literature. A prime example of this occurred in 1983 when Australians competed in the America’s Cup. Despite yachting being considered a ‘rich man’s sport’, all Australians celebrated when the United States’ 132-year-old winning streak was broken by the yacht Australia II. The financial backer for the challenge was a signwriter turned self-made millionaire named Alan Bond. The symbol of the nation’s fighting spirit became the boxing kangaroo, which was used to encourage nationalistic feelings. Such was the emotion aroused by the event that the then Prime Minister, Bob Hawke, virtually declared a national holiday so that all Australians could celebrate the victory.

In 2006, Australia stopped again to watch the progress of the national soccer team in the World Cup. This was the first time in 32 years that the national team had made the finals tournament of the World Cup. The Socceroos earned the admiration of the country for their spirit and determination against their often higher profile opponents.

Inquiry

National identity
1. Less attention has been given to the America’s Cup since Australia has been unsuccessful at regaining the trophy. As a class discuss why this may be so.
2. Identify other instances when sport has been used to promote Australia’s national identity. Create a list on the board and discuss it.
3. As a class, discuss the effect that Australia’s achievements in the Soccer World Cup since 2006 has had on you and on the national identity.
Regional identity — state versus state

Several sports in Australia feature a ‘state of origin’ game or competition, in which players are selected according to the state in which they played their first club game. Such games attract support and interest through interstate rivalries. States are often characterised with a certain identity; for example, in the rugby league State of Origin series, the New South Wales Blues are known as the ‘cockroaches’ and the Queensland Maroons are the ‘cane toads’. Promotional posters and television advertisements dramatise the sporting contest as a ‘battle’ with pride at stake and players compete for selection for the honour of wearing the state colours.

**FIGURE 10.10** The annual State of Origin match pits Queensland vs NSW

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**CASE STUDY**

**Rugby League State of Origin**

Interstate contests in rugby league in 1979 held diminishing relevance for the average rugby league supporter in NSWRL, if not Australia.

The financial power of Sydney clubs, sustained by poker machines in leagues clubs, sucked the best footballers out of Queensland and made the Sydney premiership — now expanded into the NRL — the benchmark of rugby league excellence for evermore.

Realising the implications of these increasingly one-sided contests, Queensland supremo Senator Ron Macauliffe devised the audacious plan of having players represent the state with which they had first played senior football.

Despite Kevin Humphreys’s support, the NSWRL clubs and media were lukewarm on the idea at best, and the only way they would agree to the plan was if the first two matches had seen one state secure the series.

The return of Arthur Beetson to Queensland as captain of the Maroons in the first encounter inspired them to a magnificent 20–10 win, and since then State of Origin has never looked back.

Since 1982, the interstate series has been based purely on the lines set down by Senator Macauliffe and Kevin Humphreys and is one of the greatest sporting events on the sporting calendar for all Australians each year.

The television ratings continue to set new records, the interest flows to wherever league fans congregate throughout the world and the quality of the football never ceases to amaze.

Among the heroics performed on both sides of the Tweed River, two can be selected to highlight the experience. In 1987 Mark MacGaw pounced on a wobbling kick in the dying seconds at Lang Park in Game One of that year to steal a win that still sends shivers down the spine.

Queenslanders can look back with equal pleasure on Mark Coyne’s try in the final moments of Game Two in 1994, when the ball went through nearly every player’s hands in the lead up to a try that is still talked about in Brisbane bars.

State against state, mate against mate — the interstate contests in other sports pale into comparison when placed next to the magic that is State of Origin football. Even the elite players admit Origin matches are a step up for them and it is this quality which, year after year, continues to astound and captivate rugby league fans.

Inquiry
State of Origin
1. Read the case study ‘Rugby League State of Origin’ and identify the reasons given for the popularity of the series.
2. What role do you think the media plays in intensifying the rivalries between the states?
3. Outline the benefits of a successful State of Origin competition for:
   (a) the NSW Rugby League organisation
   (b) the media
   (c) the players
   (d) the spectators.
4. Identify the words and phrases in the extract that highlight the rivalries and the passion in the sport.

Rural areas and regional identity
Many regions of Australia can boast champions of their own — that is, athletes who have progressed from district level to higher sporting achievements. Depending on the player’s level of success, ovals, parks, courts, streets or even small grandstands may be named in his or her honour. For example, the town of Bowral dedicated an entire museum to Sir Donald Bradman for his contributions to the game of cricket.

Sometimes entire regions associate themselves with particular sporting traditions. In country areas, being involved in sport is seen as important in promoting social interaction, providing entertainment, and developing toughness and resilience. The Riverina region, for example, prides itself on producing ‘tough and hardy’ footballers for the national competition.

CASE STUDY
Wagga Wagga — a regional sporting centre
Wagga Wagga . . . is the largest inland city in New South Wales [480 km west of Sydney] and is considered the capital of the Riverina area. It has fine buildings, tree-lined streets, parks and gardens. The surrounding area is made up of properties growing wheat, dairying and mixed farming.

The city’s claim to fame is that it has produced so many world-class sporting greats. An often asked question about Wagga Wagga is ‘what’s in the water?’

There are many theories as to why it is such a breeding ground for athletes. Some of the greats who achieved their prowess there have become household names in Australia. Tony Roche, Steve Elkingston, Arthur Summons, Peter Sterling, the footballing Mortimer and Daniher brothers, Mark Taylor, Michael Slater, Geoff Lawson, Pat Dwyer, Scobie Breasley, Paul Kelly — and the list goes on. Here are a few of the theories — you be the judge.

1. Some believe it is simply a communal willingness to ‘have a go’. As an example, three per cent of the population run in the annual city-to-lake run, compared to one per cent of Sydney’s population running in the annual City to Surf run.
2. Others believe it is because there is not much else to do but play and compete in sporting events.
3. The city has six rugby league venues, eight Australian rules fields, 51 tennis courts and loads of other sporting facilities for water sports, basketball, clay target shooting, cricket grounds, hockey grounds, equestrian facilities, netball courts and a horse racing track.

Wagga Wagga City Council established a Sporting Hall of Fame to recognise the achievements of its athletes. It shows why the city is known as the City of Good Sports.
Inquiry
Regional identity through sporting achievements
1. How has Wagga Wagga achieved its reputation as a ‘city of good sports’?
2. What effect does Wagga Wagga’s reputation have on its regional identity?

CASE STUDY
City versus Country rugby league
It seemed like a good idea built on previous successes in other regional centres. When it was announced that Coffs Harbour would host the 2013 AAMI Country V City Origin Clash, there was excitement all round. The idea was that mid-north coast crowds would surge into BCU International Stadium to see a showcase of some of rugby league’s top NSW talent. There would have been considerable financial benefits for both NRL and the Coffs Harbour business community, and locals would see a great game of footy as the NRL promoted the ‘greatest game of all’ in regional areas.

Instead, the state’s best players didn’t turn up to play, citing injury, and locals baulked at ticket prices of $50. The result was the lowest turnout (4635) for the event in 25 years. Given 2012’s success in Mudgee, NRL officials now believe that Coffs Harbour was the wrong choice of venue, suggesting that the heartland of rugby league lies more properly in the bush.

Coffs Harbour officials said the region had done its best to promote the game but blamed player withdrawals for the poor attendance. The future of the clash, which had been an annual event since 1928, was placed in doubt.

The NRL continued the fixture until 2017, when the NRL announced that the last country-city clash would be held, again in Mudgee, on 7 May 2017.

Inquiry
City versus Country competitions
Read the case study ‘City versus Country rugby league’. What reasons are given for the poor turnout at the 2013 event? Why might the NRL have decided to discontinue the competition?

Application
Recognition of local sportspeople
1. With the aid of your local street directory or online maps, examine the names of local parks and ovals. Identify any examples that recognise sporting personalities in your area. Did you find any female sportspeople or Indigenous sportspeople honoured?
2. Discuss the implications of your findings with the class.

Government funding
The Commonwealth Government provides funding to sport in Australia through the Australian Sports Commission (ASC). Funding levels for 2017–18 were budgeted at approximately $300 million, which suggests sports’ significance to the Australian way of life and cultural identity.

The ASC allocates funds to a wide range of facilities, services and programs, at both the elite athlete level, which includes the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS), and the local community level.
Inquiry
The Australian Sports Commission
Read the case study on the objectives of the Australian Sports Commission (ASC).
1. How do the priorities of the ASC demonstrate the importance of sport to the Australian way of life?
2. Discuss how you would allocate the annual budget (of approximately $300 million) between these priorities: should they be equally funded? Would one require more funding to achieve than the others?

CASE STUDY
Corporate Plan: 2017–21
Who are we?
The Australian Sports Commission (ASC) is the Australian Government’s leading sport agency that develops, supports and invests in sport at all levels. It was established in 1985 and operates under the Australian Sports Commission Act 1989.

The ASC is governed by a board of commissioners appointed by the Minister for Sport. The Board determines the ASC’s overall direction, decides on allocation of resources and policy for delegated decisions, and is accountable to the Minister for Sport.

Our purpose
The ASC aims to strengthen Australian sport — to enable more people to play sport and Australian athletes to succeed on the world stage.

Our work is built around three interconnected pillars.

High performance
We are focused on leading and enabling a united high performance sector that supports Australian athletes to achieve podium success. We will work with sports and the high performance sector to achieve sustainable and ethical international success through leadership, expertise, world class service delivery and research and investment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What are we going to do?</th>
<th>Our performance criteria</th>
<th>2017–18 target</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provide targeted investment to NSOs to enable them to deliver high performance programs that achieve international success</td>
<td>Australia’s performance at major international events</td>
<td>Number 1 ranked country at 2018 Commonwealth Games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide support and advice that assists sports with high performance strategy, planning and program delivery</td>
<td></td>
<td>Maintain top 15 at Pyeongchang 2018 Winter Olympic Games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop and deliver customised athlete, coach and leader talent initiatives to optimise high performance outcomes</td>
<td></td>
<td>Maintain top 15 at Pyeongchang 2018 Winter Paralympic Games</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plan, coordinate and deliver sports science and sports medicine expertise to ensure Australia’s athletes get the right support at the right time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support innovative solutions for prioritised sports and promote the growth of new knowledge and expertise for high performance sport</td>
<td>Improved capability of NSOs to deliver effective high performance programs</td>
<td>The Annual Sports Performance Review shows improvement in the high performance capability of NSOs, compared to previous year’s results</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lead a more streamlined performance network that supports identified athletes and teams across jurisdictions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Participation
We want more Australians — particularly young Australians — participating more often.
To achieve this, we will drive lifelong participation with a focus on physical literacy and our national participation program — Sporting Schools. We will work to better understand the changing sport environment, and support the network that supplies sport — our sporting organisations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What are we going to do?</th>
<th>Our performance criteria</th>
<th>2017–18 target</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provide targeted investment to NSOs to help them grow their participation base</td>
<td>Increase in the percentage of Australians participating in organised sport (traditional or social)</td>
<td>AusPlay survey results show an increase in sport participation compared to previous year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide leadership that assists NSOs with participation strategies, planning and operations</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop and share high-quality information, research and data to enable better decision making concerning participation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drive demand for lifelong participation in sport and physical activity by focusing on younger Australians through the Sporting Schools program and a focus on physical literacy.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sport industry growth
We want more sports to have the structure, workforce and leadership capacity to develop and run successful sport programs.
To achieve this, we will work across the sector to build capability in the areas of governance, product development and commercial sustainability, workforce development, coaching and officiating, digital capability, and member and child protection in sport.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What are we going to do?</th>
<th>Our performance criteria</th>
<th>2017–18 target</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continue to help sporting organisations improve their governance and drive united behaviours through national, state and territory levels</td>
<td>Improved organisational capability of NSOs</td>
<td>The organisational development assessment shows improvement in the organisational capability of targeted NSOs, compared to the previous year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develop and deliver sector initiatives to optimise coach, official and leader talent and support the development of workforce strategies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assist sports to identify commercial opportunities to improve their financial sustainability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help sports develop their digital capability to ensure they are connecting with their customers effectively and utilising technology to support growth and innovation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evolve member and child protection to better support those who participate in and deliver Australian sport for children.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Australian Institute of Sport
The Australian Sports Commission provides funds to the Australian Institute of Sport (AIS), which in turn uses these funds to develop elite sport at a national level. The AIS assists elite sportspeople in a range of ways, including providing training centres; pathways for skills and performance development, with online support; programs to help manage the personal aspects of an elite sporting career, such as their resilience and decision-making abilities; and collaborations with research and innovation organisations. The AIS also administers a range of grant and funding programs, including:

- the dAIS scheme, which provides grants to Olympic, Paralympic and Commonwealth Games sports and athletes
• the National Officiating Scholarship program for the development of elite sports officials
• the Elite Indigenous Travel and Accommodation Assistance program to help Indigenous Australians who have been selected to compete for a state or national team
• grants for young sportspeople to participate in state or national championships and competitions
• the Women Leaders in Sport program, which provides grants for training in coaching, officiating, media and marketing skills, sports governance and management.

The AIS allocates funds in areas such as:
• international competition
• elite coaching and talent identification
• training camps
• training centres
• sports science/sports medicine support
• direct athlete support, management, education and development
• high-performance management
• sports research and information services.

The ASC also provides grants and funding for athletes and sports organisations. For example: financing the management of sport — the officials to run events, the general support and development of individual athletes, the costs of competition at international events, improvements in coaching and the encouragement of participation at all levels in sports.

**Application**

**The Australian Sports Commission**

Using information from the Australian Sports Commission investigate the following.

1. Outline how government funding has changed in the last two decades. In particular, find out what happened when Australia won the bid for the 2000 Olympics.
2. Compare the funding given for the 2016 Rio Olympics with the 2000 Sydney Olympics. Discuss the implications as regards the importance of Australia’s sporting identity.
3. Discuss the changes and trends in funding of Australian sports since the 2000 Sydney Olympics. The weblink Australian Sports Commission may assist.

**Politics and sports**

Athletes can use their profile in sport to convey political messages, such as when Cathy Freeman, at the 1994 Commonwealth Games in Canada, did her victory lap holding both the Aboriginal flag and the Australian flag as a symbolic gesture. Sport can also be used by politicians to enhance their individual image or their party’s popularity. By sending messages, presenting trophies, having themselves photographed with winning teams or attending major sporting events, politicians hope to make an association with people who are winners. Sport can also be useful for deflecting attention from political problems or issues. Don Bradman’s success at cricket during the Depression of the 1930s gave many Australians relief from their impoverished circumstances, and drew attention away from politicians’ ineffectiveness. The USA NFL players’ protests, kneeling during the National Anthem during the 2017 season, drew attention to political issues, specifically racism in America.
Politics are involved at all levels of sport. At club level, there can be competing interests in deciding how to allocate funding, develop resources and plan for the future. Moreover, club presidencies or positions on committees may be decided by a vote on the part of members, who can be biased. At a national level, politics are often involved, as the following examples show.

- When selecting members for Australian teams, players from all states must be considered and given an equal opportunity.
- Athletes and the administration can often come into conflict. For example, in 1994, Olympic athlete Jane Flemming was criticised by athletics administrators for appearing naked, but covered in gold body paint, in the Golden Girls Calendar, which aimed to obtain a better sponsorship deal for female athletes.
- Laws have been put in place regarding racial discrimination in sport and any form of racial abuse is punished.
- The Australian Institute of Sport (AIS) was created as a result of Australia’s declining sporting efforts in the 1970s to 1980s — especially at the Montreal Olympics. The country and sporting organisations demanded that the government support its athletes better. This resulted in centralising (in Canberra) the coaching of many sports. This did not please all the states, as it meant that any athlete showing ability was then encouraged to attend the AIS in Canberra, which depleted many of the regional competitions and talent in the states.

At an international level, the politics of sport becomes more serious, as the following examples show.

- **Boycotts** result when a person, organisation or country refuses to deal with another country as a means of protest. Sporting boycotts can arise as a consequence of unresolved political conflicts. Although the action is directed at a country, it is usually the athletes who suffer. Some athletes may even find it necessary to take up citizenship of another country in order to compete.
- International Olympic Committee delegates may be courted for their votes by potential host countries during the bidding process.
- In each sport there is usually an international federation that helps to control the game and that has ultimate power. In boxing, for example, boxers must compete against approved opponents only, or they risk losing their titles.
- Governments have cooperated with federations to speed up the processing of entry visas of officials responsible for catching drug cheats in sports.

Sport and politics can be used in a positive way. Trade negotiations between countries may be made easier by friendly competitions. An example of this occurred between China and the United States in the early 1970s when their relations were improved as a result of games of table tennis and basketball between teams from their two countries. To ensure the success of this political event, each country picked a sport that they were guaranteed to win, so neither country could ‘lose face’. This came to be known as ‘ping pong diplomacy’. In more recent times, world leaders may play a game of golf before settling into the business of tough trade negotiations.

**Politics and the Olympics**

The Olympics is considered to be the ultimate sporting event. It attracts a lot of media coverage and is therefore extremely vulnerable to political intrusion. During the Olympics held at the time of the Cold War, the United States and the USSR struggled with each other to prove which ideological system was superior — communism or capitalism. This tension spilled over onto the sporting fields and each victory was used as propaganda against the other country. In 1936, Adolf Hitler tried to use the Berlin Olympics to display the superiority of the so-called Aryan race (non-Jewish Caucasians) to all other nations. Black athletes were discriminated against and he tried unsuccessfully to ban Jewish athletes from participating, but international pressure prevented this from happening. The 1968 Mexico Olympics was the birthplace of a symbolic gesture for African-American athletes. On the victory dais, the African-American athletes raised clenched fists in protest at America’s treatment of African-Americans. The darkest political protest of all occurred at the 1972 Munich Olympics,
when Palestinian terrorists took Israeli athletes and officials hostage and killed many of them. The rescue attempt resulted in the deaths of the terrorists. The 1996 Atlanta Olympics was scarred by a bomb attack.

**Application**

**Olympic politics**

1. Research the political consequences of the Munich or Mexico Olympics. Write a brief report of your findings.
2. Find out why the athlete Jesse Owens became famous at the Berlin Olympics.

**FIGURE 10.12** The Olympic Oath

In the name of all competitors, I promise that we shall take part in these Olympic Games, respecting and abiding by the rules that govern them, in the true spirit of sportsmanship, for the glory of sport and the honour of our teams.

**Inquiry**

**Olympic ideals versus reality**

From reading the Olympic Oath, define the ideals that underlie the Olympic Games. Compare these ideals to the political reality of the Games and write a brief report.

**Sport used for political purposes**

Sporting boycotts have been used to express disapproval of other nations for many years, and have the benefit of avoiding the repercussions of a full-scale conflict. When the USSR moved into areas of Afghanistan, nearly 50 countries, led by the United States and including Australia, took action to boycott the 1980 Moscow Olympics. This political action was not supported by all Australian athletes, so a depleted Australian team defied the Australian government and participated. In retaliation, the USSR and their allies boycotted the 1984 Los Angeles Olympics.

South Africa was subject to a sporting boycott from 1970 to 1992. It was excluded from most international sporting competitions by countries, such as Australia, who were protesting against its apartheid policy. Apartheid (meaning ‘separation’) was a policy of discrimination by white South Africans against black and
coloured African people that was enforced in South Africa from 1948 to 1994. Cricket and rugby were the two main sports affected. During the period of the boycott, a ‘rebel cricket tour’ was organised by Australian media owner, the late Kerry Packer.

CASE STUDY

Metzker still feeling the pain of Moscow 1980

Mike Tancred, Australian Olympic Committee

AOC: Time heals old wounds but leaves the scars. That is certainly the case for Olympic swimmer Max Metzker who competed for Australia at the Moscow Games in 1980.

Metzker and other athletes and officials were caught up in probably the most bitter dispute in the history of Australian sport when the Prime Minister of the day, Malcolm Fraser, pressured them to boycott the Moscow Games.

35 years on and Metzker compares his feelings with those of the Vietnam veterans who were shunned when they returned home.

‘Moscow seems to be the Olympics no one wants to talk about, or it is mentioned in hushed tones. It seems to be that particular embarrassing family member no one wants to be associated with,’ says Metzker.

Three decades have passed but Metzker is still feeling the pain. ‘No other team in the history of the Games has ever had a gun held to their head to not attend the Games.’

The USA called for a boycott of Moscow in retaliation for the Soviet invasion of Afghanistan in 1979. Prime Minister Fraser supported his American allies.

The row split the nation, it split the Australian Olympic Federation (later to become the Australian Olympic Committee).

Champion athletes including swimmer Tracey Wickham and sprinter Raelene Boyle, withdrew from the Team and yachting, men’s and women’s hockey, equestrian sports, volleyball and shooting all withdrew their Teams.

In the end Australia sent a Team of 124 athletes. Metzker carried the flag in the Opening Ceremony with Denise Robertson (nee Boyd).

He won a bronze medal in the 1500 metres freestyle and remains extremely proud of what his Team achieved.

‘The Moscow Olympic team, meaning every athlete and staff member should be honoured for the legacy they left. Every person on that Team showed that we believed in the Olympic ideal we were all put to the acid test and some failed because cash came first.’

The boy from Maroubra is not bitter. Metzker wants present day athletes to understand what the word struggle is all about. He wants them to understand the need to stick close to your mates in the face of adversity.

‘There is something I’ve been wanting to get off my chest for a long time. The AOC has been celebrating various successful Olympics over the years. The success being medal totals. It is easy to be successful when you are supported by 25 million people, the Government and corporations throwing around the cash. The new Olympians wouldn’t even know about Moscow or realise that the reason Australia has kept the record of being at every Games, is because of the brave staff and athletes that suffered horrid verbal abuse and threats.’

‘I just believe that every athlete and staff member of that team should be proudly held up to all the new breed of athletes to illustrate personification of pride, courage and 100% commitment to the Olympic ideal.

‘This is not about me, but about us as a Team that created a history that hopefully no Australian team will ever be subjected to again.’


Inquiry

Metzker still feeling the pain of Moscow 1980

Read the case study on Max Metzker's experience in 1980.

1. Identify the reasons why Metzker believes that the athletes who did not boycott the Moscow Games embody the spirit of the Olympics.

2. In small groups, construct the opposing arguments for and against political boycotts against the Olympic Games.
Inquiry
Politics and sporting boycotts
1. As a class, predict the possible consequences of Australia's rebel cricket tour, which broke the rest of the world's ban on sport with South Africa.
2. Investigate the reasons why some people wanted to boycott the Olympics in Beijing in 2008, or London in 2012, or Rio in 2016 or the Sochi Winter Olympics in 2014. Discuss whether any of the reasons given for a boycott are compelling for you.
3. Interview older members of your family to find out what their perceptions of the boycott of the Moscow Olympics were.

10.2.2 Meaning of physical activity and sport to Indigenous Australians
History reflects that Indigenous Australians have needed to maintain a high level of physical activity to survive. The daily hunting and gathering activities possibly required running, swimming, throwing and the use of teamwork. Besides these daily activities, Indigenous people’s nomadic way of life meant that they may have had to walk long distances in search of seasonal foods and to conserve the natural resources of an area.

In modern times, sport is perhaps a key to Indigenous people's continued growth. There are many talented Indigenous players playing AFL and rugby league. Prominent Indigenous athletes attract media attention. This attention enables them to act as role models for Indigenous youth, to encourage and guide them, and to focus political interest on overcoming many of the social injustices that face Indigenous people as a whole population.

Traditional activities and sports
Traditionally, the games and activities of Indigenous people centred on the development of the skills required for hunting and gathering and the passing on of Aboriginal cultures. Examples of such games and activities include:

- sham fights for children, using smaller, scaled-down weapons
- spear dodging, with lines of boys standing opposite one another then throwing toy spears at the people facing them. Girls would stand in the centre and try to knock down the spears before they hit the intended target.
- bubberah, a game in which players take turns in throwing a boomerang to land close to a target
- boomerang dodge, involving six players standing in a line with their hands on the shoulders of the person in front. The first person then throws the boomerang and, as it returns, they must then jump to avoid it.
- murri murri, which required players to stand in two lines several metres apart facing each other, while a bark disc was rolled between the lines and they tried to spear it
- dancing as part of a corroboree or other symbolic occasion.

Application
Indigenous games
Organise a game of bubberah at school or use tennis balls and a discus to play murri murri. Evaluate the performance of the class.

Links between community and identity
There were many different groups of Indigenous people living throughout Australia prior to Europeans arriving. Each community or language group had its own unique identity and customs. Unfortunately many of
these have been lost. It is generally known that before colonisation, Indigenous people occupied themselves with games and activities that focused on physical and cultural survival. There was little division between play and work, and games and activities were aimed at developing skills in hunting, gathering, tracking, climbing, running, swimming and wrestling. For example, young children played a game where they had to follow a certain type of animal track back home. Boys and girls would have races to see who could climb up and down a tree the fastest. All these activities promoted strength, endurance and accuracy in throwing, qualities necessary for success as a community.

FIGURE 10.13 A game of muri muri

Dance played an important part in the culture of each group. Stories and folklore were incorporated into dance to entertain and teach younger generations what was expected of them. The dances may have consisted of pre-determined steps with specific meanings or may have been a result of spontaneous celebration. Some of these dances may have involved a high level of physical activity. The initiation rites and other spiritual celebrations were included by some groups in a corroboree.

Aboriginal cultures had games that were similar to European games such as hide-and-seek and ducks and drakes. Other recreational pastimes included swinging, mud sliding and forms of top and ball spinning. A popular pastime for both sexes was the creation of string figures, similar to those made in a game of cat’s cradle. With the aid of helpers, it was possible to make over 200 different representations.

The rules to any Indigenous people’s games tended to be very broad and play continued for as long as the enjoyment of the activity was there. Scoring was unimportant and teams were made up from the extended family. This reinforced the concept of kinship, which is important to Indigenous people. There were some inter community competitions, which were played at regular intervals and at specific places. The team was selected from each community or language group with the remainder of the community watching. The activities usually involved ‘fights’ within certain boundaries and using particular weapons that were aimed only at the knees or feet. At these meetings of communities it is generally believed that trade and marriages were an important result.

**Application**

**Sport and Indigenous people**

1. Create a web diagram that summarises the roles that physical activity plays in the lives of Indigenous people.
2. Contact your local Aboriginal and/or Torres Strait Islander consultative group, and research games and traditions that were particular to the Indigenous people of your local area.
3. Following is a list of some of Australia’s past and present Indigenous sport stars. Use this to investigate how physical activity and sport has influenced their lives and identity. Divide the list among students in the class and make a three-minute presentation of your findings. (Students can also choose to research other Indigenous sport stars not on the list.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Sport</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arthur Beetson</td>
<td>Rugby league</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preston Campbell</td>
<td>Rugby league</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicole Cusack</td>
<td>Netball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark Ella</td>
<td>Rugby union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marcia Ella</td>
<td>Netball</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cathy Freeman</td>
<td>Athletics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jason Gillespie</td>
<td>Cricket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adam Goodes</td>
<td>AFL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evonne Goolagong-Cawley</td>
<td>Tennis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patrick Johnson</td>
<td>Athletics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anthony Mundine</td>
<td>Boxing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nova Peris</td>
<td>Athletics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicky Winmar</td>
<td>AFL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.2.3 Physical activity, sport and cultural identity

Different cultures have different values, beliefs and customs. These form the basis for a culture’s sports and physical activities, which can, in turn, be an identifying feature of that culture. In some cultures, competition through physical activity is perceived as vital in the socialising process of its people, while other cultures emphasise the importance of cooperative activities and the maintenance of health. As each culture varies, so does its perception of health. Some cultures recognise the physical, social, emotional, mental and spiritual dimensions to health, while other cultures recognise only the physical and social dimensions.

The role of competition

Many Western cultures value competitive sport partly because it is thought to prepare people for living and working in a capitalist system that is based on the concept of competition. Other cultures may regard the arts and education as more important; for example, Vietnamese culture values sport and physical activity for recreation, entertainment and for developing a sense of community. Croatian, Greek and Italian cultures value competition as a means of pursuing national or regional pride. With this in mind, they have created in Australia large social sports clubs such as the Apia and Marconi clubs, which further promote their own cultural activities and traditions around the game of soccer. Japanese people have traditionally enjoyed sports that involve ritual and combat, and that instil notions of rank and order. More recently, though, they have adopted games such as baseball and golf.

Links to cultural identity

Most countries have sports that they feel identify them as a people. For instance, soccer is a national sport for Croatia, Greece and Italy. Irish and Pacific Islander cultures consider rugby union to be their national sport. In Australia, many migrant groups have formed sporting social clubs that work to reinforce their own cultural identity and are used for social interaction. Traditional games and pastimes such as bocce (Italy) are played as a means of keeping the links with their home country and of uniting the many fractured parts of their communities in Australia.
Relationships to health

Concepts of health and the importance of physical activity will vary between the different cultures of the world. Many Western cultures and Pacific Islander cultures view sport primarily as entertainment and social interaction rather than for the maintenance of good health. This is in contrast to Asian cultures, which encourage people from an early age to adopt activities such as Tai Chi and the martial arts in order to maintain good health and to find spiritual fulfillment. Yoga is another example of a physical activity that is performed for health and spiritual improvement.

FIGURE 10.14 Yoga and Tai Chi are physical activities that can improve physical and mental well-being.

Ways of thinking about the body

Ancient Greek philosophers believed the body should be regarded as a ‘temple’ and developed sports that enhanced physique and skill.

Asian philosophies maintain that, in order to achieve good health, a balance is needed between the mind, body and soul.

The Western way of thinking tends to regard the body with less reverence, which may account for the high rate of lifestyle diseases, disordered eating patterns and levels of inactivity in Western nations. Western beliefs have also created problems to do with body image. The perpetuation of unrealistic stereotypes for males and females means that many people become dissatisfied with their body’s appearance. This may lead them to seek surgical remedies and muscle-enhancing drugs or to become caught in cyclic dieting and intense weight-loss and exercise programs, rather than engaging in regular physical activities.

Opportunities for physical activity for girls of different cultural backgrounds

In some cultures, a woman’s main priority is her husband, family and household. Physical activity is therefore a very low priority for them. In Australia, many migrant women must work to maintain the socioeconomic standard of the household. This can result in both parents having to work and the girls of the family, in particular, being expected to look after the younger children.
The multicultural nature of Australian society means that there can also be a conflict between what a particular culture feels is appropriate for girls and women and the values they may be exposed to outside the home. For example, some cultures prefer to divide the sexes during physical activities, whereas Australian society, through schools, is moving towards the promotion of mixed-sex competition in sports such as netball and touch football.

Young girls of certain cultural backgrounds are sometimes expected to pursue the traditional sports or activities of their homelands rather than those of the new adopted country. Their culture’s concepts of femininity may also dictate, to a large extent, what activities they will feel comfortable participating in.

Participation in physical activities may also be limited by language difficulties, particularly when learning new sports such as aerobics or cricket. This can restrict their opportunities for developing new skills and maintaining an active lifestyle.

**Application**

**Culture and physical activity**

1. Conduct a survey in your school of students from different cultural backgrounds about their opportunities for physical activity. Try to include a survey of parents.
2. Using the results of your survey, discuss the cultural significance of sports.
3. Identify the barriers to participation for some groups of people and suggest ways in which these barriers might be overcome.

**10.3 How does the mass media contribute to people’s understanding, values and beliefs about sport?**

**CRITICAL QUESTION**

How does the mass media contribute to people’s understanding, values and beliefs about sport?

**10.3.1 Relationship between sport and the mass media**

The term ‘mass media’ describes communication that is directed from one source to a large percentage of the population. Mass media includes television, movies and radio (electronic media) and newspapers and magazines (print media). The mass media is one of the most powerful influences on people’s opinions, beliefs and habits. It can either unite or divide a country on an issue such as drug use in sport.

Between sport and the media a relationship has developed that is inter-dependent. Some high-profile sports such as rugby league and cricket depend for their budgets on media coverage. The media in turn relies on sport to attract businesses who wish to advertise. Without media exposure, the lesser known sports find it difficult to obtain major sponsorship or to develop their sports fully. The media’s relationship with sport has even resulted in changes to games to make them more suitable for television.
Application

The relationship between the media, sponsorship and sport

As a class, discuss the relationship between the media, sport and sponsorship. List your points on the board. Then construct a mind map or a PMI chart (plus, minus, interesting) to represent the main features of this relationship.

Inquiry

The influence of the media

With reference to figure 10.15, explain the effect the media can have on public opinion.

Representation of sport in the media

Australia’s passion for sport is reflected in the representation of sport in the print media. Reporters use metaphors and clichés, such as ‘Gladiators of League’ to create images of players as sporting idols. They describe male players as being mentally tough, fiercely competitive, driven by the passion for the game and totally focused on winning. Special articles that profile players are released to coincide with major sporting events. These articles may depict players as ‘legends of the game’, focus attention on their luxurious lifestyles or even portray them as ‘eligible bachelors’. When important games are played between teams, they are compared to battles, as in ‘the battle for the Ashes’ in cricket, or the State of Origin rugby league matches which are billed as ‘mate against mate’.

The representation of female sport in the print media tends to differ from the representation of male sport in both the language used and in the amount of coverage. A narrow range of women’s sports are reported on and the length of the story tends to reflect the fact that women’s sport is regarded by the media as less interesting to their readership. Some recent developments have started to give women’s sport a bigger public profile, such as televising AFLW and netball matches.

The main sports represented in the newspapers tend to be the traditionally male-dominated sports such as cricket, rugby league, rugby union, AFL and soccer. Recreational magazines focus on specialist sports such as surfing and fishing, which are also male dominated.
Application
Analyzing the depiction of sport

1. Collect one weekend newspaper and cut out articles on sports matches that are exclusively male or exclusively female.
2. In the classroom, attach a large sheet of cardboard to a wall. Divide the cardboard into two columns. Label one column ‘Male sports’ and the other ‘Female sports’. Put the articles in the appropriate columns.
3. Then, as a class, critically analyse the reasons for any differences in the way the matches are depicted.
4. Compare the language used and identify the similarities and differences.

Sport and television

The media can actually be responsible for the growth of new sports. Programs such as *Wide World of Sports* can create an interest in different sports such as snowboarding or mountain biking. The television coverage of each Olympics has introduced millions of people to new sports. This promotes the growth of these sports and improves the standard of international competition. Similarly, following a win by an Australian team in the Davis Cup, there is an increase in young people willing to take up tennis. Australia’s qualification for the Soccer World Cup of 2006 encouraged young soccer players of the future.

Most sports programs are devised by programmers with a very specific group in mind: males aged 25 to 45. When media tycoon the late Kerry Packer instigated the rebel cricket concept called ‘World Series Cricket’, he designed and packaged a sport that was purpose-built for television. The uniforms were more colourful, the rules were changed to make the game faster and more exciting, the times of the games were adjusted to suit peak viewing times and even the ball changed colour. In other sports, changes have been made to attract new audiences by simplifying the game or increasing the scoring opportunities. Some changes to the features of particular sports include:

- the penalty shoot-out in soccer
- scheduled time-outs in gridiron (American football)
- sports such as AFL having matches on Friday nights in order to attract more television viewers
- sudden-death play-offs in soccer
- the skins concept in golf
- the shot clock in basketball and the three-point line
- the tennis tie-breaker
- see-through courts in squash.

Relatively new sports concepts have also been created: survival of the fittest, beach volleyball and the Ironman series.

Inquiry
Media exposure and sport

As a class, discuss how previously low-profile sports, such as netball or beach volleyball, have been altered to attract more media coverage and attention.

How have sport and television changed?

Because sportspeople and spectators alike feel a need to be involved in the action, programmers were encouraged to use developments in technology to produce such innovations as ‘race cam’, ‘stump cam’, slow-motion replays, new sound effects and visual effects such as the animated duck in cricket. To make audiences more interested in sports coverage, it was also felt the viewers needed to be made aware of:

- statistics, such as the number of hit-ups or the amount of time in possession
- player profiles, with information including interests and hobbies
• information such as pitch condition or wind direction
• what the field looks like from above and how the teams are set out (views often supplied by sponsored airships or drones)
• how the players felt after the game
• insights into what is happening on field from ‘umpire mic’
• technological developments such as instant replays for umpires from the ‘hawk-eye’ in tennis and cricket; on-screen computer generated images, such as the moving world-record line in a swimming pool or shot paths and plays drawn on the field in cricket.

Economic considerations of media coverage and sport
Sport is popular with television programmers because it is both entertaining and relatively inexpensive to produce. The events are scheduled throughout the year, they make use of existing facilities and the sporting associations themselves are keen for publicity. Financially, the media also benefits from the relationship. Television stations, for example, can get great mileage out of past footage with a replay of last year’s grand final, plays of the week, plays of the month, legends of the game and with the lead-up commentary to the event. This has led some sports such as the AFL to seek greater control of their own media rights and so profit more from the relationship.

10.3.2 Deconstructing media messages, images and amount of coverage

Demographic data gathered on viewers’ and readers’ opinions will, to a large extent, dictate the types of stories or messages given in the mass media. If target audiences are not satisfied, then they will discontinue viewing certain programs or buying particular newspapers and magazines. Newspapers, magazines and television stations generate income by selling advertising space and time in their papers and programs. It is therefore in media owners’ interests to promote stories that are entertaining, have social impact or report on dramatic events.

To generate interest, heroes and heroines seem to be created almost daily and are sometimes resurrected on ‘slow’ news days. Important stories on social injustices such as homelessness can be quickly replaced with headlines declaring, as a matter of national importance, ‘Australia beats Pakistan 2–0 in cricket’. Australian society tends to value sporting success more than social justice issues.

Difference in coverage of sports across print and electronic media
The intense competition between newspapers and television stations lends itself to sensationalism in stories. Violent images in sports are often promoted, sometimes overshadowing the rest of the game, as when fights in rugby league or AFL are replayed. Tantrums and poor on-court behaviour in tennis are widely reported by the media.

The media’s first responsibility should be to provide a balanced perspective, but often a viewpoint is taken and fixed stereotypes are used to validate a stance and satisfy public opinion. For example, media reports tend to focus on those soccer matches at which violence occurs or flares are set off. People could get the impression that soccer games are attended by hooligans intent on rioting and causing public mischief, when in fact the majority of spectators are law-abiding citizens.

The media’s second responsibility should be to encourage public debate on social issues. The drugs in sport debate is one area that has had extensive media coverage. The future of sport and the Olympics will be affected by how well this issue is publicly examined, so that a feasible solution can be achieved.

The language used in the media to describe sporting events also plays a role in perceptions of physical activity and sport in general. Metaphors that emphasise the violent or combative elements of games are often used to promote them in the media, highlighting the competitive tension of a match as though it was a kind of war. A grand final, for example, might be referred to as a ‘battle’ or a ‘clash’ or a ‘show down’. This
warlike imagery helps to present sport as a high-stakes, violent physical competition with urgent ‘life and death’ consequences.

The language used to describe wins and losses, or weak and strong teams, also relies on a similar kind of physical and combative imagery. Teams who are having a successful season are described as ‘dominating’ or ‘crushing’ their opposition, while teams who are struggling are described as being ‘conquered’ or ‘defeated’ on the field.

**The emergence of extreme sports as entertainment**

Extreme sports, by nature, involve a high element of risk and have been around in various forms for many years. The earliest forms included bareback horse racing, parachuting and mountaineering. In modern times new forms have emerged such as big wave surfing, base jumping, street luge, parkour, and motorcycle/BMX stunt jumping. Regardless of the form of extreme sport it generally satisfies the individual’s need for expanding their skills, seeking out new challenges and releasing adrenaline because of the danger factor. For spectators it satisfies their increasing need to be entertained in new and exciting ways while remaining within their own comfort zones.

![Figure 10.16](image)

**FIGURE 10.16** Big wave surfing is an extreme sport that carries high risk of serious injury.

Television is the most easily accessed source of entertainment for most people. The television stations receive their income by broadcasting programs that will attract audiences for their advertisers. They therefore have a high demand for cost-effective programs. Broadcasting traditional sports requires the purchase of the television rights, large stadiums that need to be filled with spectators and games that are played only at specific times of the year. The advantages of the use by the media of extreme sports are that it requires fewer people to be involved, has lower production costs, can be stored for when needed and it fills the gaps in traditional sport coverage.

However, a problem has developed that is the responsibility of both the audience and the media. The increased coverage of extreme sports to satisfy the high demand for new entertainment by audiences and the media has inadvertently pushed athletes to take increasingly higher risks: to jump higher, go faster or do more complicated manoeuvres. A double somersault just doesn’t impress anyone anymore; it needs to be a triple or quadruple somersault to get the audience’s attention. Furthermore, the audience wants to be part of
the action and the experience, so filming is often done with handheld cameras, helmet-mounted cameras, or by camera operators who also put themselves at risk in the same environment for the close-up of the action.

Adding further to the problem is that many extreme sports are also self-regulatory at best and there is a grey area regarding rules, safety requirements and responsibility. What the audience views in the final edited package may not reflect the high level of skill, training and preparation required to perform that sequence or any evidence of a major injury that may have resulted when things went wrong.

It must be remembered that individuals who engage in extreme sports are often experienced athletes who have practised for years and used safety equipment such as harnesses, trampolines or jumps into dams to perfect their skills. Young people often try to copy their sporting heroes and risk serious injury if they are relatively inexperienced, miscalculate the risk or are unprepared.

**Application**

**The media and athletes in extreme sports**

Debate the topic ‘The media is causing athletes in extreme sports to take excessive risks’.

**CASE STUDY**

**WA’s Mick Corbett wins Ride Of The Year at Oakley Big Wave Awards**

In a gala evening, attended by a star-studded celebratory audience, and the who’s who of the surf industry, four Australian men have been crowned the champions of Big Wave Surfing in Australian waters for 2015/16.

Traditionally, the Big Wave Awards have been granted in three categories — Biggest Paddle-In, Biggest Slab and Biggest Wave — with the latter being granted the $20,000 winners cheque. This year however, after feedback from big wave surfers, photographers and fans alike, the awards were restructured, with winners being chosen in each category, and then put to the judging panel to decide on a 1st, 2nd and 3rd placing in the overall Ride Of The Year category. The Ride Of The Year is granted to the surfer who battles Mother Nature’s elements most successfully, on the largest wave possible, regardless of their means of propulsion or the style of wave being surfed.

First place in the prestigious Ride Of The Year Award, and $20,000, was granted to underground Western Australian charger, Mick Corbett, from a ride at The Right in the state’s south west; a ride he was towed into by his best mate, and last year’s Biggest Wave winner, Jarryd Foster.

Comfortable in these frigid, cold, sharky, dangerous waters, Mick is a consistent stand-out in waves of consequence and is one of a handful of West Australian surfers to charge the notorious break of The Right regularly. Mick would be surfing these death-defying waves whether there was cameras in the water or not and this is well-deserved victory for a man who loves nothing more than tackling huge surf, with or without reward. ‘The high you get from surfing these waves, there’s nothing like it! Just going down there, the adventure of it all, it’s incredible. You start getting nervous because you know it’s going to be big. Then you watch the first wave and you’re still pretty nervous, but then you get one and it’s like, Get me back out there I want another one! After the session, you’re so pumped that you actually feel a bit low in the days following, you’re sort of coming down from it because you’ve been so hyped up for that day. This wave in particular, Jarryd turned around to me form the jet ski with a big grin and said, “Don’t even look at it, it’s big!” So I didn’t really look at the wave as I was being towed in, I just looked down the line and tried to put myself in a perfect position. I didn’t really know what was going on behind me; I was just trying to position myself to get barreled. I didn’t realize how big it was until I got back into the channel and all of the photographers were shaking their heads in disbelief calling it the biggest wave they have ever seen out there.’

Second place in the Ride Of The Year Award, and $7000, was granted to another underground Western Australian charger, Zac Haynes. In recent years, the Biggest Paddle-In category has made resurgence in popularity and competition as more and more surfers return to the pure art of Paddle-In surfing. Zac was the winner of the Biggest Paddle-In Category and his ride was deemed the 2nd best in 2015 due to his successful navigation of a massive wall of water at Western Australia’s Cow Bombie. Zac, who is a regular at big wave sessions in both his home state, on the eastern and southern coasts of Australia, and in big wave locations around the world, has finally received the recognition he deserves that will no doubt spur him onto future finalist positions in future years of the Big Wave Awards.
3rd place in the Ride Of The Year Award, and $3000, was granted to Northern New South Wales surfer, Justin Holland. Putting it all on the line during a swell in June of 2015, Justin rode what was deemed as the Biggest Wave in Australian waters, also at Western Australia’s Cow Bombie, which eventually, and unfortunately, resulted in a broken femur.

‘I had always wanted to surf Cow Bombie, so I was stoked to finally have things fall into place and chase it with my good friend, and fellow finalist, Jamie Mitchell. Jamie towed me into six or eight waves before my entry, which was definitely bigger than any of the others I caught that day. I felt comfortable as I got to the bottom, but I was definitely wondering where the lip was, and knew that I needed to power up and get out of there fast. It was at that moment that the lip hit me. It was this amazing noise, this explosion behind me and instantly I felt my leg snap. The pain hit me so hard and so fast, but at the same time I was under the water getting destroyed. I pulled my Quiksilver inflatable vest, which took me straight up, thankfully. But along the way my leg or hip, I didn’t know what at the time, was clicking up and down and I knew something was seriously wrong. Jamie had no chance of getting me after the first wave, so I had to take another wave of similar size on the head. At that stage I was just trying to grip my leg, keep it straight, and try to stop it flopping around. It was a pretty horrible situation but, at the time, everyone kept their heads and made the calls that had to be made, and I really just want to thank everyone that was out at Cow that assisted with my rescue. Winning a category in the event is just a bonus!’

For the second year in a row, the Viewer’s Choice Award provided surf fans the chance to vote for their favourite Big Wave Awards entry online. Valla Beach surfer, now a resident of South Australia, Heath Joske, was voted the Viewer’s Choice Winner by his peers and fans like for a giant Paddle-In entry from the cold, dark waters of deep Southern Australia. Not only does Heath receive the kudos, respect and admiration from his peers and fans, but an all-expenses-paid trip for two to the perfect-surf-blessed Mentawai Islands of Indonesia awaits him in 2015 — an award he said he was going to ‘hook Mum and Dad up with. because they deserve it!’

Surfing Life’s Oakley Big Wave Awards have come to highlight a side of surfing that’s way beyond both the recreational mainstream and the professional competitive arena — a zone where seemingly normal people take seemingly outlandish risks, with seemingly little concern for fame or renown. No contest singlets, no ratings points, just one really big wave.


Inquiry

Big wave surfing

Read the snapshot on big wave surfing.

1. Describe the awards presented and the prize money for each award.
2. Apart from the competitors, who else gains monetary rewards and increased reputation from the winner’s achievement?
3. List the identified risks that the surfers take in surfing big waves.

Application

The media’s role in giving meanings to sport

The aims of the task are:

• as a class, to analyse the media’s role in giving meanings to sport
• develop skills in gathering, interpreting and communicating information.

As a class, allocate tasks from the list below.

1. To complete your analysis, collect hard copies of The Australian, The Sydney Morning Herald and your local area paper. They do not have to be in any particular order and their dates can be random.
   (a) Examine the amount of space given to the different sports, and to male sports and female sports and calculate these as a percentage of the total.
   (b) Compare where the stories are located in the papers, and check whether photographs are included and what they reflect.
   (c) Critically analyse the type of language used in several of the articles.
10.4 What are the relationships between sport and physical activity and gender?

CRITICAL QUESTION
What are the relationships between sport and physical activity and gender?

10.4.1 Sport as a traditionally male domain
Sport in its earliest forms was created by men for men. It emphasised competition and the development of qualities that represented manliness. As society has changed, so has sport. Society now has to consider the close relationship between sport and gender and the implications of this relationship. The media, in particular, plays a prominent role in constructing meanings of masculinity and femininity through its reporting of events.

Sport and the construction of masculinity and femininity
Images of ‘masculinity’ and what is considered ‘manly’ are socially constructed. Boys as well as girls are taught how to behave from an early age and failure to behave as expected can have consequences. Society can give boys a very narrow view of what it means to be masculine. In general terms, Australian society traditionally equated masculinity with being:
- competitive
- tough
- aggressive
- able to control one’s emotions.

In the playground, boys were therefore expected and encouraged to exhibit these qualities while playing. Similarly, as they moved to the sporting field, much of this learned behaviour was reinforced. The crowds cheered, trophies were awarded and team-mates congratulated each other for aggressive, ‘opposition crushing’ performances. In many ways, these constructed stereotypes of ‘manliness’ still persist.

Limited definitions of what is ‘manly’ or masculine are problematic. There are many young boys whose bodies are simply genetically not suited to contact sports, and their participation could risk serious injury. Others simply do not enjoy contact sport because it is an activity that does not interest them, or they lack the...
skills to perform at a level that is personally satisfying. This can result in a young male’s self-esteem being damaged because he perceives himself to be less masculine.

Some sports have been considered less masculine, such as ballroom dancing or netball. This can lead to these sports receiving a low level of support or promotion.

Some sections of the media and community believe that sport glorifies mental and physical toughness, and that part of being masculine is linked to being dominant. Sport does provide the opportunity to challenge oneself against others, without necessarily resorting to a higher level of violence (the exception being the full-contact sports such as the martial arts). These challenges are conditioned responses that many males have learned to believe are necessary as part of their personal growth and social image, but the need to feel dominant in a sport can quite often see a friendly game such as touch football develop into something a lot more serious. Likewise, basketball, which is supposedly a non-contact sport, contains a great deal of bumping and blocking to intimidate the opponents.

Most males have a mental picture of what society believes a man should look like, so sport and physical activities are sometimes used to develop the muscular physique that resembles that stereotype. This particular body image also seems to require a stereotypical attitude. As a test of masculinity, some males engage in risk-taking sports, which demonstrate their level of courage and ‘prove’ their manhood — for example, base jumping.

The concept of femininity is also learned from society. Many sports that began as ‘women’s sports’ encourage women to participate in sport, while upholding traditional expectations of what is ‘feminine’. These sports and activities involved little body contact and a greater focus on aesthetic or well-coordinated types of movement. For instance, netball is considered by some to be a more feminine sport than women’s basketball, which is very similar in skills but has the potential for more deliberate body contact. Young girls who are self-conscious about their body and uncomfortable in the tight leotards usually worn in the traditionally ‘female’ activities of ballet and gymnastics, or who favour more physically aggressive sports such as AFL or martial arts, for example, maybe be reluctant to participate because they feel they are being judged as ‘less feminine’.

For women to satisfy society’s traditional views of femininity requires considerable effort. The top female athletes and players, who compete under similar conditions to males, are still expected to perform with ‘grace’. Their appearance, which can have no bearing on the performance, can be scrutinised by the media. Recent examples of this have been publicised in tennis reporting, when women have been asked about their outfits in post-match interviews, rather than their on-court performance.

Many of the traditional female sports such as netball and swimming tend to require a narrow range of body shapes if the participant is to be successful beyond a certain level. Other activities such as dancing and gymnastics don’t necessarily require a particular body shape but girls tend to be discouraged or excluded if they are the ‘wrong’ shape or size. This fact is likely to contribute to the non-participation patterns of many females in such activities.
Implications for participation

An individual’s participation in a physical activity is a result of many factors. Past experiences, family background, genetic potential, geographical location and socioeconomic status all have an impact on the individual. However, it seems the major factor affecting participation in a sport or physical activity is society’s attitudes to gender. This determines what types of activities are deemed suitable and how these activities or games should be played.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group (years)</th>
<th>Males %</th>
<th>Females %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15–17</td>
<td>72.8</td>
<td>74.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18–24</td>
<td>67.7</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25–34</td>
<td>67.3</td>
<td>60.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>35–44</td>
<td>63.3</td>
<td>66.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>45–54</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td>60.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>55–64</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>56.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 and over</td>
<td>48.3</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Estimate ('000)
Total participating 5550.6 5569


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport/activity</th>
<th>Number ('000)</th>
<th>Participation rate (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Boys</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer (outdoor)</td>
<td>309.7</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming/Diving</td>
<td>235.2</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian Rules football</td>
<td>212.7</td>
<td>14.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>131.3</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cricket (outdoor)</td>
<td>123.1</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>119.6</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martial arts</td>
<td>111.2</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rugby league</td>
<td>107.4</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rugby union</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dancing</td>
<td>50.7</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Girls</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dancing</td>
<td>367.4</td>
<td>27.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming/Diving</td>
<td>256.9</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netball</td>
<td>220.4</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gymnastics</td>
<td>109.8</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soccer (outdoor)</td>
<td>87.8</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>85.6</td>
<td>6.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Martial arts</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Athletics/track and field</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>3.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Hockey</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>2.0</td>
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</table>

Source: ABS, Children’s participation in cultural and leisure activities, Australia 2012, cat. no. 4901.0.
### TABLE 10.5

*Adult participation in the top 20 sports and physical activities in 2013–14*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sport</th>
<th>Numbers (‘000)</th>
<th>Whole population</th>
<th>Participation (%)</th>
<th>Whole population</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Walking</td>
<td>35449</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>1233.1</td>
<td>2319.7</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>24.7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fitness / gym</td>
<td>3214</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>1442.7</td>
<td>1769.7</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Jogging</td>
<td>1363.1</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>740.5</td>
<td>624</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swimming</td>
<td>1174.8</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>457.3</td>
<td>716.4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycling</td>
<td>1151.9</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>777.4</td>
<td>378.7</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golf</td>
<td>732</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>603.5</td>
<td>127.4</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tennis</td>
<td>563.1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>255.5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Soccer</td>
<td>563.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>321.3</td>
<td>118.7</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netball</td>
<td>563.1</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>387.1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basketball</td>
<td>406.1</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>281.9</td>
<td>123.5</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Yoga</td>
<td>317.5</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>282.7</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Football sports (excluding AFL, rugby</td>
<td>297.7</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>167.9</td>
<td>124.4</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and soccer)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bush walking</td>
<td>285.6</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>126.3</td>
<td>161.4</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dancing / ballet</td>
<td>237.2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>202.9</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian Rules</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>205.8</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martial arts</td>
<td>220.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>105.6</td>
<td>110.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cricket</td>
<td>219.7</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>205.3</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indoor soccer</td>
<td>218.8</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>178.2</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pilates</td>
<td>197.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>184.9</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surf sports</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>151.4</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### Inquiry

**Differences in male and female participation in sport**

1. Using the information in tables 10.3, 10.4 and 10.5, account for the differences in participation rates for males and females in the various sports.
2. Discuss why some sports have become traditionally associated with men and some with women.

### Application

**How active are young people?**

Arrange to view a group of male and female students participating in an activity. It could be soccer, netball, touch football or aerobics. Then critically analyse:

1. how the boys and girls interact in the space/field/court
2. whether the umpire or instructor treats the males or females differently
3. whether the involvement of both sexes in the activity is equal.

Summarise your findings and discuss as a class.
Sponsorship, policy and resourcing

Sport has traditionally been a male domain. The major sports with the highest profiles are the male sports, so they also receive the highest level of sponsorship by companies, which also tend to be male dominated. The sponsorship of female competitions is steadily rising, but still lags well behind because of its low media profile.

The government has introduced anti-discrimination laws that have helped women in their attempts to achieve equality in sport. The Australian Sports Commission has a Women and Sport Unit that actively promotes a better deal for female athletes. The New South Wales Department of Education and Training has a policy that requires that girls in all schools must be given equal opportunity to develop sporting skills.

Part of creating equal opportunities is the need for adequate resourcing. The greater success of many of the current Australian women’s teams and female athletes has been due to this strategy. Training more female coaches and employing more administrators at higher levels of sporting organisations has ensured women’s issues in sport are being addressed. Recent campaigns by professional player associations have also led to significant rises in some pay rates for female sports stars. In August 2017, for example, the Australia Cricketers’ Association and Cricket Australia agreed on a pay deal that was based on a model of gender equity. The deal meant that Australian representative female cricketers’ minimum retainers will rise between 80.2% and 119%, depending on their experience and responsibilities. The base rate of pay earned by players is calculated in the same way for all players and is determined by factors such as the number of hours they play.

Application

Issues for women in sport

Investigate an issue that affects women in sport and report back to the class. For example, you may consider the different coverage, language and pay rates for male and female international representative teams in Australia, or research the levels of funding provided for sports that are considered traditionally male or female.

The role of the media in constructing meanings around femininity and masculinity in sport

Media organisations make money by satisfying consumer demands and tend to promote socially acceptable role models that support the current constructs of femininity and masculinity. The role the media needs to play is to respond to changes in these constructs as they evolve and to present an unbiased perspective of the importance of each.

Women should be reassured by the media that their ‘femininity’ is not compromised by their participation in sport and that sport should be pursued for the positive health benefits. Similarly, males should be reassured by the media that participation in a sport such as football does not define a person’s degree of masculinity; that they can pursue other less traditional sports that require a high level of skill and fitness, and that these too can be ‘masculine’.

The media could be used as a powerful tool in challenging traditional ideas about gender in sport. Sportspeople could be featured participating in less conventional sporting roles for their gender to expand the notions of femininity and masculinity. The language the media uses in reporting events and the images they use should...
be considered carefully for the implications they convey to young people who are developing a sense of identity. The media, however, relies on ratings to sell advertising space and rarely risks promoting lesser known sports or social issues that challenge our notions of gender.

**Application**

How the media gives meanings of masculinity and femininity through sport

Obtain a copy of a popular sport magazine such as *Inside Sport*. Critically analyse how males and females are portrayed in the magazine, and the effect that these portrayals may have on the meanings of masculinity and femininity in sport. Report your findings back to the class.

**10.4.2 Challenges to the male domain**

Society’s growing acceptance over the twentieth century of women’s right to participate in sport paved the way for many women to enter traditionally male sports. Women have challenged the stereotypes presented in the media and society’s perceptions of femininity and masculinity. Females wanting to play contact sports such as rugby have been criticised and stigmatised, as have males wanting to play netball. Recent coverage of sport, however, is beginning to change; for example, televising women’s national netball competition, women’s AFL football and rugby competitions, high profile mixed martial arts bouts, and the federal government’s ‘Girls Make Your Move’ campaign help to show a less traditional view of women in sport.

**Inquiry**

The traditional nature of sport

1. Critically analyse the effect of more women entering the traditional male sports such as mixed martial arts, horse racing or rugby. In your analysis, give examples of women or women’s teams in sports that were traditionally considered ‘men’s sports’ who have received significant media coverage in recent years.
2. Compare this with males entering traditional female sports such as netball, and find examples of men in traditional women’s sports who receive media coverage.

**10.5 Topic review**

**10.5.1 Summary**

- Sport was traditionally used in nineteenth-century England and colonial Australia to develop manliness, patriotism and character to support the country’s policy of colonisation.
- Women’s sport in the twenty-first century reflects greater levels of participation and involvement by women at higher levels in coaching and administration.
- Modern sport is characterised by an increasing degree of professionalism, the need for sponsorship and a stronger association with business.
- The main sources of revenue for the Olympics are from sponsorship, the sale of television rights and the sale of tickets.
- Australia’s national identity is partly based on an image of a sporting nation.
- Sport is an important part of the process of socialisation.
- In 2017–18, approximately $300 million was budgeted by the Commonwealth Government to the Australian Sports Commission to fund the Australian Institute of Sport and other sports bodies.
- Politics in sport occurs at all levels — club, national and international.
• Sport is used by most countries to develop a sense of nationalism in its people.
• Traditional Aboriginal activities centred on developing skills in hunting, gathering and community survival.
• Sport can give cultures an identity and can unite communities.
• Various cultures view sport and health differently.
• The media strongly influences people’s opinions, beliefs and habits.
• The male-dominated sports tend to receive greater media coverage and sponsorship.
• Women are challenging the male-dominated sports as a result of changes in policy, sponsorship and resourcing.

10.5.2 Questions

Revision
1. How have the meanings of sport and physical activity changed over time? (H12) (5 marks)
2. Identify examples of patriotism, manliness and character building in current Australian sports. (H12) (2 marks)
3. Briefly outline the factors that contributed to the lack of participation of women in sport and physical activity in the past. Suggest strategies to improve women’s participation in sport and physical activity for the future. (H12) (5 marks)
4. Account for the influence of sociocultural factors on the participation patterns in physical activity and sport by Australians. (H12) (5 marks)
5. Account for the increase of professionalism in sports such as rugby league, rugby union, cricket and netball. (H12) (5 marks)
6. What are the benefits of sponsorship for sports? (H12) (5 marks)
7. The value of sport and physical activity is affected by a person’s socioeconomic status, gender and cultural background. Discuss. (H12) (5 marks)
8. Briefly outline examples of negative attitudes or behaviours that can result from participation in sport. (H12) (3 marks)
9. Outline how funds are allocated to sport in Australia. (H12) (3 marks)
10. Identify three examples of how politics has been used in the Olympics. (H12) (2 marks)
11. Identify instances when Australia has used politics in sporting events. (H12) (2 marks)
12. Explain the negative consequences for a nation’s identity if one of its sporting teams is found to be involved in cheating, violence or drug use. Use specific examples. (H12) (5 marks)
13. Critically analyse how success at recent Olympics has affected Australia’s national identity. (H12) (12 marks)
14. Explain the role of competitive sport for various cultures. (H12) (5 marks)
15. Describe the changes to sport as a result of the influence of the media. (H12) (4 marks)
16. Justify the power that the media has over sport. (H12) (8 marks)
17. Critically analyse the role the media plays in constructing meanings around masculinity and femininity in sport. (H12) (12 marks)
18. Evaluate the role of the media in promoting socially acceptable role models in sport. (H12) (8 marks)
19. Suggest strategies to improve the participation in sports for women and girls from different cultural backgrounds. (H12) (3 marks)
20. Predict the possible outcomes from a rapid growth in women’s Australian Rules Football. (H12) (3 marks)

Extension

Conduct a case study on a sport or physical activity that is outside the mainstream of Australian sport; for example, Tai Chi, skating, snowboarding, a martial art, a cultural dance form (such as ballroom or line dancing), or women’s rugby. Research its participation rates, age groups, costs and opportunities for competitions. Present your findings in table or graph form. How do the values and meanings associated with the activity compare with those associated with the more traditional Australian sports? (H16) (10 marks)
10.5.3 Key terms

advertise: to endorse particular brands or products in order to increase the sales for the sponsor company. p. 378

amateur: the term for someone who participates in a sport or activity without being paid for it. p. 369

apartheid: (meaning ‘separation’) a policy of discrimination by white South Africans against black and coloured African people that was enforced in South Africa from 1948 to 1994. p. 393

boycotts: result when a person, organisation or country refuses to deal with another country as a means of protest. p. 392

constructs: concepts that have a shared meaning and understanding. p. 410

demographic data: arise from statistical studies of the population — its size, structure, distribution and habits. p. 402

direct costs: relate to expenditure for construction of venues, wages for workers, technology etc. p. 379

indirect costs: secondary expenditures on transport systems, medical treatment, drug testing etc. p. 379

kinship: a blood relationship. p. 396

manliness: a tendency to show particularly male characteristics. p. 369

muscular Christianity: a concept of a healthy body combined with fine morals including sportsmanship, playing by the rules, and leading an actively Christian life. p. 369

patriotism: a devotion to one’s country and a willingness to defend it. p. 368

professional: describes players who receive payment for playing a sport or make it their livelihood. p. 369

propaganda: the organised release of ideas, information or arguments in order to further a cause or damage an opposing cause. p. 392

sexism: the upholding of attitudes that stereotype people according to their gender, rather than judging them on individual merits. p. 374

sponsorship: involves an organisation covering all or part of the costs of the competition or activity in return for advertisement of their product and other rights. p. 376