

# HEROES AND PRETENDERS: ATHLETIC CELEBRITY AND THE COMMERCIALIZATION OF SPORTS. pdf

## 1: Sports and the Changing Tides of American Culture in the s | [www.enganchecubano.com](http://www.enganchecubano.com)

*In chapters devoted to celebrities from the realms of business, politics, entertainment, and sports, he shows how authors of celebrity journalism used their writings to weigh in on subjects as wide-ranging as social class, race relations, gender roles, democracy, political reform, self-expression, material success, competition, and the work.*

New York Mets Sports celebrities Even before the s, media coverage of athletes had the effect of making heroes, but the nature of the sports hero changed in important ways in the s and s. In the early parts of the century, sports heroes tended to be presented in a positive, one-dimensional light. Fans did not learn about the personal troubles or political opinions of their idols; in fact, nobody even dreamed that sports figures had political opinions. Such coverage allowed athletes with very troubled lives—such as baseball players Babe Ruth, who drank heavily, and Ty Cobb, who got into vicious fist fights—to be widely perceived as both champions and role models. But the growth of feature-length magazine articles about sports figures in magazines such as *Sports Illustrated* launched in and the popularity of televised sports began to change the way Americans came to know their heroes. These new media gave fans an intimate look into the lives of famous athletes, oftentimes exposing their failings and problems. Media coverage of sports heroes in the s did not go as far as it did in the early s—when practically every misstep of athletes was reported—but it did remove from athletes the image of perfection they once enjoyed. Increased television coverage of sports gave athletes a platform on which they could announce their views and opinions. Several of the most famous athletes of the era took advantage of the presence of microphones in pre-event or post-event media coverage. Boxer Cassius Clay—, for example, used the media to intimidate his opponents. Sting like a bee. The day after the fight, Clay announced that he was dropping his last name in favor of the letter X, thereby renouncing the name he had inherited from those who had once owned his slave ancestors. Soon after, he changed his name to Muhammad Ali, in recognition of his acceptance of the Muslim religion. He proclaimed to reporters: Black, confident, cocky—my name, not yours. My religion, not yours. My goals, my own. Get used to me. Vince Lombardi—, who coached the Green Bay Packers for most of the decade, led his football team to National Football Conference championships in , , , and ; in they won the first-ever Super Bowl. Lombardi was a throwback to the old school of coaching: Sportswriters liked reprinting his many pronouncements about winning football and building men, but he disclaimed credit for the most famous quote attributed to him: Namath defined the brash, devil-may-care attitude that typified a new generation of sports stars. He achieved his greatest fame in when he predicted that his Jets would upset the Baltimore Colts in the Super Bowl and then followed through by leading his team to a stunning victory. Thanks to TV and magazines, fans came to know these people who gained the status of movie stars. This publicity brought media-savvy stars great wealth, but it also subjected them to great pressures. Politics, race, and sports Some of the most pressing political issues of the s affected the world of sports. Perhaps most pressing was the influence of the civil rights movement. African Americans had long asserted their equality with whites, and in many cases athletic contests provided an even playing field on which African Americans could prove their case. By the s all of professional and most of college sports were integrated, which meant that black players played on the same teams along with whites. That integration was not yet complete, however. For example, until the late s, racist attitudes kept African American athletes from playing the key positions in football—quarterback and middle linebacker. In when Bill Russell of the Boston Celtics became the first African American to coach a pro basketball team, few blacks occupied coaching positions and none owned a professional team. In college basketball, the Southeastern Conference SEC remained rigidly segregated through the mids. SEC teams even refused to play opponents with black players until In the whites-only policy was given a decisive test. The undefeated and all-white University of Kentucky basketball team played in the national championship game against the mostly black Texas Western University. The smaller, younger TWU team defeated the powerful Kentucky team with a final score of 72 to Within a few years Kentucky had recruited its first black player,

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which ended segregation on the Kentucky basketball team. National Basketball Association Champions of the  
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### 2: Inverness 0 - 1 Aberdeen: Dons close gap on Celts - The Scotsman

*Sports Journalism is a sub-division of journalism that covers sports events, figures and related issues. Its importance steadily grew in the 20th and 21st centuries, partly due to the commercialization of sports and the accessibility to sports television channels, Internet websites, and newspaper and magazine online editions.*

Bring fact-checked results to the top of your browser search. Since then, many universities have established centres for research into the sociology of sports. Prominent among the topics investigated by sports sociologists are socialization into and through sports; sports and national identity; globalization and sports processes; elite sports systems; labour migration and elite sports; mass media and the rise of professional sports; commercialization of sports; violence and sports; gender and sports; race, ethnicity, and sports; and human performance and the use of drugs. Socialization into and through sports Several questions are central to understanding the socialization into sports. How exactly are young people socialized to become involved in sports and to stay involved in them? Why do some continue to participate actively in sports throughout their lives while others are content to watch? Different questions arise when one asks how people are changed as a result of their socialization into sports. Why do some people find their primary identity as athletes, and what happens when injury, age, or loss of motivation brings their athletic careers to an end? The socialization process Socialization is the process by which people become familiar with and adapt themselves to the interpersonal relationships of their social world. Through socialization, people develop ideas about themselves and about those with whom they interact. Inevitably, socialization is a two-way process that affects everyone to a greater or lesser degree. Play, games, contests, and sports have crucial and quite specific roles in the general socialization process. The sense of self is not natural; it develops through childhood socialization as a result of role-playing. Influenced by George Herbert Mead and Jean Piaget among others, sociologists have identified two stages in childhood socialization: Children learn the difference between their real selves and the parts they are playing. As they grow older, children shift from noncompetitive games such as peekaboo and playing house to contests such as footraces and ball games. In the game stage more accurately, the stage of competitive games, children encounter stricter rules and regulations. They develop a reflexive conception of the self and its position in relation to others, and they learn to see themselves as others see them. They become self-conscious social actors. In most premodern societies, boys were encouraged by their families to compete in sports, which were presumed to prepare them for their adult roles as warriors and workers, while girls were encouraged to continue to play noncompetitive games that prepared them for motherhood. In modern societies, boys and young men continue to outnumber girls and young women involved in sports competition, but the gender gap has narrowed considerably. This has been true for the private clubs that organize European sports as well as for the interscholastic and intercollegiate teams that are a prominent feature of the North American sports landscape. The role of socializer into sports has been played by many actors, among them parents, older siblings, peers, teachers, coaches, and elite athletes appearing in the mass media. In the course of the 20th century, parents and older siblings became relatively less influential while coaches and elite athletes became more influential. In modern as in premodern societies, there is a tendency for sports participation to decline with age because of both the added responsibilities and time demands of paid employment and of parenthood and the physical decline of the body. Early socialization into sports is the best predictor of lifelong involvement in sports. Those who disliked sports as children are unlikely to become involved as adults, while those who loved sports are likely to participate throughout their lives. Elite athletes may be an exception to this rule. If pushed as children to compete nationally and internationally, they are liable to experience burnout and to abandon their sports careers before reaching adulthood. The effects of sports socialization, however, are not always what the socializers expect. They are in fact quite controversial. From the mid-20th to the early 21st century, sports were alleged to train young athletes in self-discipline, teamwork, leadership, and other highly prized traits and behaviours. Empirical research has shown that

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involvement in sports can also inculcate a socially destructive desire to win at all costs. Depending on the values of the socializing agents, sports can encourage young people to play fairly or to cheat. The evidence suggests that the propensity to cheat increases with age and the level of competition. Some of the feelings expressed are anticipatory, prior to performing. Other feelings occur during and after the performance. Norms for the display of emotions vary widely among sports. Rugby players and boxers are permitted to express their feelings with ostentatious displays that are impermissible for golfers and sumo wrestlers. The importance of the contest is another variable influencing the emotions involved. The orchestration of emotions in sports begins with the arousal of expectations, provoking a diffuse emotional state that is then directed into a series of discrete and identifiable emotional displays. It is not, however, just the players who experience this scripting. Cues provided by the stage setters prompt fans to express a variety of emotions throughout a game. Fans feel despair when an idolized player is injured; they feel ecstasy when a last-minute goal transforms humiliating defeat into triumphant victory. While there may be a scripting or an orchestration of the emotions, individuals vary in the degree to which they internalize and follow scripts. Despite such individual variations, rules do structure the emotional experience of sports subcultures. These emotional processes, which help define roles of players, coaches, and fans, also help forge the link between sports and national identity. These discourses often take the form of stories that are told about the nation in history books, novels, plays, poems, the mass media, and popular culture. The construction of a national identity in large part involves reference to an imagined community based on a range of characteristics thought to be shared by and specific to a set of people. Stories and memories held in common contribute to the description of those characteristics and give meaning to the notion of nation and national identity. Presented in this way, nationalism can be used to legitimize, or justify, the existence and activities of modern territorial states. Sports, which offer influential representations of individuals and communities, are especially well placed to contribute to this process of identity formation and to the invention of traditions. Ordinary citizens who are indifferent to national literary classics can become emotionally engaged in the discourses promoted in and through sports. Sometimes the nationhood of countries is viewed as indivisible from the fortunes of the national teams of specific sports. Uruguay, which hosted and won the first World Cup football championship in 1930, and Wales, where rugby union is closely woven with religion and community to reflect Welsh values, are prime examples. These examples highlight the fact that a sport can be used to support, or undermine, a sense of national identity. Notes on the Balinese Cockfight, illustrates another case in point. Both established and outsider groups used and continue to use sports to represent, maintain, and challenge identities. In this way sports can either support or undermine hegemonic social relations. The interweaving of sports and national identity politics can be illustrated with several telling examples. In a team of Japanese schoolboys soundly defeated a team of Americans from the Yokohama Athletic Club in a series of highly publicized baseball games. At issue were the violent tactics employed by the English bowlers, who deliberately threw at the bodies of the Australian batsmen in order to injure or intimidate them. So great was the resulting controversy that the Australian and British governments became involved. National character In each of these examples, a historical legacy was invoked, past glories or travesties were emphasized, and the players were faced with maintaining or challenging a set of invented traditions. This link between sports, national culture, and identity can be extended further. Some sports are seen to encompass all the qualities of national character. In the value system of upper-class Englishmen, for example, cricket embodies the qualities of fair play, valour, graceful conduct, and steadfastness in the face of adversity. Seen to represent the essence of England, the game is a focus of national identification in the emotions of upper-class males. Moreover, just as Englishness is represented as an indefinable essence too subtle for foreigners to comprehend, so too are the mysteries of cricket deemed to be inscrutable to the outsider. Traditions and myths National culture and identity are also represented by an emphasis on origins, continuity, tradition, and timelessness. For most English people, for example, the origins of their culture and national identity seem to be lost in antiquity. Englishness is taken for granted as the result of centuries of uninterrupted tradition. This emphasis on continuity is strikingly evident in sports contests

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between nations. Yet the traditions associated with both the monarchy and sports are not as old as claimed. Indeed, both appear to be based on foundational myths – that is, on myths that seek to locate the origins of a nation, a people, or a national character much earlier in time and place than the evidence supports. Baseball, which for a century was considered to be the "national game" of the United States, is a case in point. The use of calcio implies that the origins of modern football can be traced to Renaissance Italy. Sumo provides another striking example of invented tradition. The colourful traditional costume worn by sumo officials suggests that the sport has evolved almost unchanged since the 11th century, but the costume was actually devised in during a period of intense nationalism. The role sports play in the interaction of culture and national identity is sometimes viewed as inherently conservative. Some believe that the association of sports with nationalism goes beyond mere patriotism and becomes chauvinistic and xenophobic. The behaviour of football hooligans at international matches lends support to the argument. On the other hand, sports also have contributed to liberal nationalist political struggles. Gymnastic clubs in what is now the Czech Republic, Slovakia, and Poland were in the forefront of the struggle for national liberation from Austrian and Russian rule. A similar role was played by Algerian football clubs when they became centres of resistance to French colonialism. Sports – through the use of nostalgia, mythology, invented traditions, flags, anthems, and ceremonies – contribute greatly to the quest for national identity. Sports serve to nurture, refine, and develop the sense that nations have of themselves. Yet, in the context of global sports, this role has become increasingly contradictory. In introducing people to other societies, global sports strengthen cosmopolitanism even as they feed ethnic defensiveness and exclusiveness. Globalization and sports processes

The globalization of sports is part of a much larger – and much more controversial – globalization process. Examined historically and analytically, this larger globalization process can be understood as the development of a worldwide network of interdependencies. The 20th century witnessed the advent of a global economy, a transnational cosmopolitan culture, and a variety of international social movements. As a result of modern technology, people, money, images, and ideas are able to traverse the globe with tremendous speed. The development of modern sports was influenced by the interwoven economic, political, social, and cultural patterns of globalization. Western domination

The emergence and diffusion of modern sports in the 19th and 20th centuries are clearly part of the larger process of globalization. The globalization of sports has been characterized by the creation of national and international sports organizations, the standardization and worldwide acceptance of the rules and regulations for individual and team sports, the development of regularly scheduled international competitions, and the establishment of special competitions, such as the Olympic Games and the various world championships, that aspire to involve athletes from nations in all corners of the globe. The emergence and diffusion of modern sports is bound up in complex networks and interdependency chains that are marked by unequal power relations. The world can be understood as an interdependent whole, where groups constantly compete for dominant or less-subordinate positions. In sports as in other social realms, Europe and North America have been hegemonic.

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3: Sports | [www.enganchecubano.com](http://www.enganchecubano.com)

*Sensationalism in journalism Ponce de Leon Charles L. Charles Leonard Charles Leonard Ponce de Leon*  
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Does the Media Impact Athletic Performance? The credit belongs to the man who is actually in the arena, whose face is marred by dust and sweat and blood, who strives valiantly, who errs and comes up short again and again because there is no effort without error and shortcomings, who knows the great devotion, who spends himself in a worthy cause, who at best knows in the end the high achievement of triumph and who at worst, if he fails while daring greatly, knows his place shall never be with those timid and cold souls who know neither victory or defeat. A point of consensus clearly stated in these sources is that athletic performance efficiency is reduced by distraction. Distractions evoke negative mood responses, detrimental arousal and anxiety levels, and stress, thus resulting in the consumption of mental energy. By concentrating effectively, an athlete can conserve physical energy by maintaining good technique and focus, executing skills properly, and pushing the body through pain and fatigue barriers. Time spent fretting over distractions drains mental energy so that performance suffers Manktelow, As Haverstraw noted, distractions may arise from various sources including: The purpose of this paper is to initiate an examination of the influence of the media as a distraction and its impact on athletic performance. For the purposes of this paper it is important to have a common definition and understanding of media, arousal, stress, anxiety, and mood. In this context, media can be newspaper reporters, paparazzi, television newscasters, or fans and critics who publicize their critiques of athletic performance through the use of public forums and blogs. In order to differentiate between arousal, anxiety, and stress in this text, specific definitions will be used. Arousal will refer to a state of alertness as the body prepares itself for action. It is associated with increases in physiological and psychological activity, such as heart rate and attention Landers, Stress is defined as a state that results from the demands that are placed on the individual which require that person to engage in some coping behavior Jones, Anxiety results when one doubts his or her ability to cope with the situation that causes him or her stress Hardy et al. Additionally, for this text, mood is defined as a group of persistent feelings associated with evaluative and cognitive states which influence all the future evaluations, feelings, and actions Amado-Boccaro et al. Now that there is a common understanding of these terms, it is important to understand their relationship to athletic performance. Arousal and Anxiety In the field of Sport Psychology, many models have been created to explore arousal and anxiety levels as they relate to athletic performance. Following criticisms of lack of support, popular unidimensional models such as the Inverted U-Theory and the Catastrophe Theory are being replaced with multidimensional-type models Weinberg, The Multidimensional Anxiety Theory by Martens et al. It takes into consideration two different elements: Cognitive anxiety signifies distractions which involve inability to concentrate, disruptions in attention, and negative performance expectations Martens et al. Additionally, the somatic anxiety element signifies perceived physiological arousal such as elevated heart rate and increased perspiration Martens et al. In general, The Multidimensional Anxiety Theory hypothesizes that as cognitive anxiety increases, athletic performance decreases. Also, it concludes that an inverted-U relationship explains the correlation between somatic anxiety and athletic performance. This inverted-U relationship illustrates that as somatic anxiety increases from low to moderate levels, there is an associated improvement in performance. Arousal and Stress In sport competition, athletes must often think fast and make sharp decisions regarding the task at hand. For example, when a basketball player is receiving a pass from a teammate, he or she must complete necessary cognitive functions quickly in order to catch the pass. According to a model created by A. If the basketball player exhibits a low level of arousal, his or her perception declines. When the arousal level is too high, though, perception becomes less efficient. Moreover, high levels of stress accompany increased anxiety Sanders, Mood Sport psychologists, coaches, and others are eager to learn how to tailor athletes to

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perform at the highest level possible. In their attempts to accomplish this, mood in relationship to performance is being studied. Lane and Terry created a conceptual model of mood and performance. In this model, the authors focus on mood during pre-competition and its effects on subsequent performance. It is suggested that pre-competitive mood influences athletic behavior. Depressed mood, specifically, acts as a catalyst for reduced vigor, increased anger, confusion, fatigue, and tension, thereby debilitating performance Mellalieu, These depressive symptoms involve negative cognitive views individuals have of themselves in relation to their past, present, and future social experiences. To examine influences on elite athlete performance, Greenleaf et al. Although positive factors existed, the Olympians cited many negative factors influencing performance. One such factor noted was media distractions. It was found that factors, such as media distraction, are psychological in nature, thus, demonstrating the importance that mental factors play in elite sport performance Greenleaf et al. The theoretical and empirical data regarding arousal, anxiety, stress, and mood will be used to explore the influence media may have on athletic performance. In order to apply this information, it is necessary to first provide the following individual examples where media may have impacted athletic performance. Win or lose, their performance and life is publicly dissected by the media. Losing brings forth negative judgment and more criticism. Mediocre people play it safe and avoid criticism at all costs. Champions risk criticism every time they perform. Miki Ando was a two-time Japanese national figure skating champion and Junior World champion. She also became the first female skater to successfully complete a quadruple jump in competition. Ando is very popular in Japan and receives a lot of attention from gossip magazines and other Japanese media. They also frowned on her for wearing mini skirts. The JSF was so concerned media coverage would negatively affect Ando as she prepared for the Olympics, they sent formal written requests to several magazine publishers asking them to cut back on their coverage NBC, The JSF was not the only organization concerned with media impact on their Olympic athletes. The Canadian Olympic Committee recognized the potential of the media as a distraction to their athletes as well. In an effort to divert any negative media influence, the Committee publicly announced the following communications objective in their victory management plan: A media training section emphasizing the notion to support athletic performance by removing media as a distraction Canadian Olympic Committee, Were these concerns founded? Some in the Republic of China believe so. After China won the first gold medal in the Olympic Games and had some major unexpected wins during the first few days of Olympic competition, Chinese newspaper and television stations touted predictions of gold medals their athletes would claim. The predictions, however, did not come to fruition. Athletes the media advertised would take first, such as the Chinese male gymnasts, did not even make it to the award stand. On August 19, , China Daily blamed the losses on exaggerated hypes of gold made by the media. The editorial claimed the hype caused the athletes to become overconfident and resulted in athletic incompetence. Chinese diver Peng Bo agreed. At the Torino Olympics, Ando did not quite meet the gold medal goal coveted by all Olympian athletes. She placed eighth in the Ladies figure skating short program and 15th in the freestyle competition. Because there have been no empirical examinations on the influence of the media on athletic performance, the following will provide examples of some famous athletes who have been subjected to intense media scrutiny, provide their reaction to the media attention, and present the impact, if any, the media had on their athletic performance. During the season, Rogers refused to talk to media after they published a report saying he would retire if the Rangers did not give him a contract extension. Then on June 29, , while walking onto the field for a pre-game warm-up, he had an altercation with two cameramen. Rogers first shoved Fox Sports Net Southwest photographer David Mammeli, yelling at him to get the cameras out of his face. Next, Rogers charged cameraman Larry Rodriguez, wrestled the camera from him, threw it to the ground, and kicked it. As a result of the tirade, Rodgers was suspended and fined. Before all of his run-ins with the media, Rogers was having a career best season. However, following the suspension, in his August 11, return to the mound, Rogers allowed five runs and seven hits in five innings, on the way to a 16 to 5 loss. He also gave up a two-run homer in the all star game where he was booed by the crowd. This indicates a possible causal relationship between stress and the

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media influence on Rogers. His adversarial relationship with the press caused him to publicly lose his temper and become violent, which cost him playing time, salary, and the respect of the fans. According to Swerdlick, Ricky Williams suffered with a debilitating social anxiety disorder and extreme shyness. The aggressive media attention was uncomfortable and frightening for him. In his early pro years he dreaded doing interviews so much he wore his helmet and an eye shade inside his face mask. The article claims that in order to cope with all the unwanted media attention Williams smoked marijuana. As a result, he failed three NFL drug tests and experienced further embarrassing press. Swerlick asserts that the media negatively impacted this athlete. Ricky Williams walked out on the Miami Dolphins; lost millions of dollars; lost the respect of his teammates and fans; and still finds himself as media fodder Swerdlick. Many disagree with this conclusion, however, as is indicated on numerous blogs. His personal turmoil, however, such as being convicted of raping Miss Black America and his volatile escapades such as biting off the ear of opponent, Evander Holyfield, made him one of the most media criticized boxers of all times. Up until the early s, Tyson, to many boxing enthusiasts, seemed unbeatable. He earned numerous championship titles such as: However, as his personal life became mired in legal difficulties, the media had an increased negative focus when reporting about him, and concurrently, Tyson lost all of his previously earned professional boxing titles. His sudden decline in performance may be tied to negative and excessive media attention, effecting his training and mental state. Days prior to a comeback fight, in an interview by writer John Raygoza, Tyson was asked if it bothers him when the media writes negative things about him. One has to wonder, though, as Tyson was knocked out in the fourth round of that fight, and his boxing career ended on that night Raygoza, Only the Mentally Strong Survive The above were examples of athletes whose performance was negatively impacted by media. Tony Dorsett, legendary NFL halfback, said: Like Dorsett, some athletes are able to strive under intense media scrutiny by using it as motivation to achieve success. The following are several reports of athletes who have been able to survive and thrive in spite of the media. Venus And Serena In the world of tennis, two standout sisters have received more than their share of negative press.

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## 4: Does the Media Impact Athletic Performance? – The Sport Journal

*Few features of contemporary American culture are as widely lamented as the public's obsession with celebrity--and the trivializing effect this obsession has on what appears as news. Nevertheless, America's "culture of celebrity" remains misunderstood, particularly when critics discuss its.*

Additional Information In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content: Chapter 8 The Commercialization of College Sports Several years ago at a Big Ten Conference meeting, I decided to shake up things by offering a radical if tongue-in-cheek proposal. I proposed that all of the Big Ten universities agree to a five-year moratorium on television broadcasting of our sports events. I argued that this moratorium would provide our universities with the opportunity to determine the purpose and priority of athletics on our campuses, without the glare of media attention or the pressure of the entertainment industry. Our universities could then restructure or realign their intercollegiate athletics programs in a manner consistent with their priorities. During the moratorium, the sports media and the public would be chased out of the locker rooms and the lives of our student-athletes and coaches. With the loss of television revenue, universities would have to learn how to live on a revenue diet by controlling the costs of intercollegiate athletics and scaling back their programs and their aspirations to more realistic levels. We would have to learn to live without athletic dormitories, shoe contracts, and big-time promotion. And we would have to learn how to treat coaches as normal staff and athletes as students. After the five-year moratorium, television, the sports press, and the public would be invited back as spectators rather than producers of college sports, but only on terms set by the university ties, in a manner consistent with their academic priorities. There would no longer be late-night basketball every night of the week, or football games starting in the gathering gloom of the late afternoon, or television commentators shrieking in a fevered pitch to hype the action. Nor would national championship tournaments or bowl games interfere with critical periods of the academic calendar such as examinations. Of course, my proposal, although put forward partly in jest, was also designed to trigger some more serious discussion. Needless to say, my colleagues did not greet my proposal with overwhelming enthusiasm. They immediately returned to their discussions of television contracts, bowl alliances, and conference expansion. It was then my belief that the commercialization of college sports, while bringing new revenue to the enterprise, had seriously undermined the integrity and the credibility of intercollegiate athletics, driving them far away from the values and purpose of the university. Show Business We generally identify intercollegiate athletics as an integral part of college life. The football games in the fall, the NCAA basketball tournament in the spring, the participation of college athletes in the Olympic Games, all seem as naturally a part of the university as student examinations, fraternities and sororities, and campus protests. Yet, while sports at many colleges and universities may indeed be just another extracurricular activity for students, whether as participants or spectators, for the institutions comprising the NCAA Division I, it is something far more. For these institutions, intercollegiate athletics is both big-time entertainment and big business. To a very significant degree this transformation was driven by the broadcast media, particularly television, although there were other pressures on the university from external forces such as alumni interest, the sports press, and community merchants. Although the athletic departments of colleges and universities happily seized opportunities to commercialize intercollegiate athletics with the strong support of university administrations, trustees, and students—although not necessarily the faculty—the primary driving forces were external. Today we find that big-time college sports most closely resembles the entertainment industry. To be sure, intercollegiate athletics still does involve students, albeit with many preparing for professions in athletics rather than the typical career objectives of other students on the campus. Coaches have long since ceased to be governed by the rules You are not currently authenticated. View freely available titles:

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### 5: Project MUSE - Intercollegiate Athletics and the American University

*Get this from a library! Self-exposure: human-interest journalism and the emergence of celebrity in America, [Charles L Ponce de Leon] -- This publication gives a new interpretation of the emergence of celebrity, a key part of contemporary American culture.*

Sport in America began as premodern participatory contests of strength, skill, and speed that were unorganized local competitions with simple rules. However, as the nation modernized, sport became highly organized with formalized rules and national competition. Sport became commercialized with expert athletes entertaining paying spectators. The first sportsmen were Native Americans, who competed for religious, medicinal, and gambling purposes. They had running races, but were best known for team ball sports like lacrosse, which had over forty variations. The colonists defined sports broadly to include all diversions. Colonial amusement reflected their European backgrounds, including social class and religion, and their new surroundings in America. Puritans brought their opposition to pagan and Catholic holidays, Sabbath breaking, and time-wasting amusements. They barred brutal sports, gambling games, and amusements that promoted disorder, but advocated useful activities like wolf hunting, fishing, and training-day military practice contests like wrestling and marksmanship. The more heterogeneous colonies had more options. New York, with its Dutch heritage, had bowling, kolven golf, and boat races, and also horseracing after the English took over the colony in 1674. In Philadelphia, control of the community passed from the Quakers to a secular elite who in 1787 tried to separate themselves from lesser sorts by organizing the Schuylkill Fishing Club, the first sports club in the British Empire. The South had the most expansive sporting culture. The Anglican Church was more tolerant than the Puritans were, and personal ethics did not prohibit gambling or blood sports. An elite planter class emerged in the late seventeenth century, which tried to emulate the English country gentry. The great planters originally raced their own horses in impromptu quarter-mile matches and wagered enormous amounts with their peers. By the mid-eighteenth century, they were starting to import expensive Thoroughbreds that competed in long distance races at urban tracks established by elite jockey clubs. This public entertainment helped demonstrate the supposed superiority of the great planters over the masses. Publicans throughout the colonies were the first sporting entrepreneurs, sponsoring animal baiting, gander pulling, cock fights, skittles, an early form of bowling, shuffleboard, and target shooting to attract thirsty patrons. Moral reformers, particularly evangelical ministers of the Great Awakening, opposed these sports. During the Revolution, many patriots frowned on gambling as unvirtuous and elite sports as aristocratic. The Continental Congress in 1774 recommended that the states suppress racing and "other diversions as are productive of idleness and dissipation. The sporting fraternity encompassed a male bachelor subculture, including segments of the elite, skilled butchers, street thugs, volunteer firefighters, and Irish immigrants. They enjoyed blood sports, combat sports like boxing which was universally banned, and gambling sports. Southern plantation owners employed slaves as cock trainers, jockeys, boxers, and oarsmen. The leading antebellum sportsman was the industrialist John C. Stevens. He restored Thoroughbred racing to New York in 1816; established the Elysian Fields, the preeminent site of antebellum ball sports, in Hoboken, New Jersey, in 1825; promoted the first major pedestrian race in 1826; and organized the New York Yacht Club in 1843. Seven years later, Stevens sponsored America, conqueror of the finest British yachts, promoting pride in American naval architecture, craftsmanship, and seamanship. American sport began a dramatic transformation at midcentury that led to a boom after the Civil War. This was influenced by the processes of urbanization, industrialization, and immigration; by the development of an ideology that created a positive image for sports; and by the rise of new modern games. The ideology of sports was developed by secular Jacksonian reformers—who thought sports could help cope with such negative features of rapid urbanization as soaring crime rates, epidemics, and class conflict—and by religious reformers inspired by the Second Great Awakening, who saw them as a way to fight sin. Both groups believed that participation in exercise and clean sports would improve public health, build character, develop

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sound morals, and provide an alternative to vile urban amusements. This positive attitude toward sport was supported by the examples of Scottish Caledonian games traditional track and field contests and German turnverein gymnastic societies. Clergymen like Thomas W. It became a model for large urban parks after the Civil War. Team sports aptly fit the sports creed. Cricket, a manly and skillful English game, enjoyed a brief fad in the s, but was quickly surpassed by baseball, which had evolved from the English game of rounders. Baseball was simpler, more dramatic, faster paced, and took less time to play. In , Alexander Cartwright drew up the modern rules for his middle-class Knickerbockers club. Early teams were voluntary associations of middle-income men, principally in metropolitan New York, although the game spread quickly along the Atlantic seaboard. Teams were organized by occupation, neighborhood, or political party. Communication innovations like telegraphy and telephony helped newspapers report events at distant locations. The New York World in the mids introduced the first sports section. The coming of the railroad enabled athletes to journey to distant sites for competition. This potential was demonstrated in , when, to promote rail travel, the Boston, Concord, and Montreal Railroad sponsored the first American intercollegiate athletic contest, the Harvard-Yale crew race at Lake Winnepesaukee, New Hampshire. Railroads enabled baseball leagues to operate and illegal prizefights to take place at out-of-the-way locations. Cheap urban mass transit, especially electrified streetcars, increased access to sporting venues. Technological innovations also helped sport in many other ways. New equipment was created, such as vulcanized rubber for balls and tires, and new machines made possible cheap, mass-produced sporting goods. The English safety bicycle invented in the late s created a cycling fad among men and women. Riders joined clubs, raced, toured, and attended six-day professional races at Madison Square Garden in New York City. Social class heavily determined sporting opportunities in this era. The elite, who emulated the English gentry, had the wealth, time, and self-confidence to indulge themselves. They used expensive sports to gain recognition and improved their status by joining restricted athletic, jockey, country, and yacht clubs. Elite colleges became centers of intercollegiate competition, beginning with rowing , baseball , football , and track and field Participation spread by the s to state and private colleges throughout the nation. Competition promoted manliness, school pride, and the reputation of institutions. Student-run associations ran the teams and recruited gifted athletes through financial aid and easy course loads. The hardworking new middle class finally became involved in sport because of the sports ideology, the creation of clean new sports, and the accessibility of suburban parks where by the mids they played on baseball diamonds and tennis courts. Their participation in sport demonstrated "manliness" and offered a sense of self-worth and accomplishment lost in their increasingly bureaucratized work. Lower class urbanites were most active in sports that were accessible and fit in with their environment, like boxing, billiards, and basketball. Progressive reformers promoted sports at settlement houses to help inner-city youth acculturate. Nineteenth-century sport was virtually an exclusive male sphere. Yet, women, mainly elite daughters whose status protected them from criticism, began to participate after the Civil War. Physicians and female physical educators advocated improved fitness for women to make them more attractive and healthier mothers. Young women partook of sociable coed sports like croquet and ice skating , and individual sports like archery, golf, and tennis, the latter introduced to the United States by Mary Outerbridge in The cycling fad encouraged the development of sports clothes, including bloomers, shorter skirts, and no corsets. The National Association of Professional Baseball Players, the first professional league, was formed in , supplanted by the more business-minded National League NL in In the s, major league baseball largely developed its modern character, including tactics, rules, and equipment. Baseball, dubbed the "national pastime," completely dominated the sporting scene in the early s. Not merely fun, its ideology fit prevailing values and beliefs. It was considered a sport of pastoral American origins that improved health, character, and morality; taught traditional rural values; and promoted social democracy and social integration. Sullivan, the preeminent sports hero of the century. Boxing continued to be permitted in just a few locations until the s, when it was legalized in New York. It then became very popular, with heroes like Jack Dempsey fighting in arenas like Madison Square Garden. Fighters came from the most impoverished backgrounds, hoping to use

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boxing to escape poverty. There were a few black champions in the less prestigious lighter weight divisions. However, heavyweight champion Jack Johnson "was considered a threat to white supremacy, and there was a crusade to get rid of him. Thereafter, no African American got a heavyweight title shot until Joe Louis, who won the title in 1937. He became a national hero one year later by defeating Max Schmeling, symbol of Nazi Germany. After World War II, boxing was a staple of prime time television, but overexposure and widening public recognition of underworld influences curtailed its success. Horseracing was rejuvenated after the Civil War under the aegis of politically connected elites. Their success encouraged the rise of proprietary tracks like those in Brighton Beach, New York, and Guttenberg, New Jersey run by men closely connected to political machines and syndicate crime. By the early 1900s, every state but Maryland and Kentucky had closed their racetracks, if only temporarily, because of the gambling. In the 1920s, Thoroughbred racing revived because of increasing prosperity, looser morals, ethnic political influence, and underworld influences. Racetrack admissions surpassed admissions for all other sports by the early 1930s, and continued to do so until the early 1950s. Every major sport had its great hero, role models who symbolized prowess and traditional and modern values. While women were largely limited to "feminine" sports like tennis, figure skating, and swimming, some female athletes notably tennis player Helen Wills also became widely celebrated. The Great Depression hurt sport, though people still looked to recreation for escape. Commercialized sports declined, but less than most businesses, as companies curtailed industrial sports programs, and colleges cut back on intercollegiate sports, particularly football. On the other hand, the Public Works Administration and Works Progress Administration constructed thousands of sports fields, swimming pools, and other athletic facilities. The United States and the Olympics American athletes at the first Olympics in 1896 came from elite eastern colleges, yet squads in the early 1900s had many working-class ethnic athletes, including Native American Jim Thorpe, gold medalist in the pentathlon and the decathlon at the games. Louis in 1937, but drew only thirteen nations. The summer games featured the first athletic village. Babe Didrikson starred, winning two gold medals and a silver in track. An all-around talent, she was the greatest female American athlete of the century. Before the games at Berlin, there was widespread support for a boycott to protest nazism, but the movement failed. The African American Jesse Owens starred, capturing four gold medals in track, yet returned stateside to a racist society. There were more major sports, the number of franchises rose, and television enabled millions to watch live events.

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*The core dimensions of sports celebrity have inevitably developed within the context of the commercialization of sports over the last few decades, and the specific commercialization and branding of the Olympics has been described above.*

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