

TRENDS OF RESEARCH IN SOCIAL SCIENCES OF SPORT
Content analysis of the Sociology of Sport Journal

Master of Science thesis research
in Sociology of Sport
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Abstract:

The focus of this study was concerned research trends in the social sciences of sport which is based on a content analysis of all 299 articles which have convened in the *SOCIOLOGY OF SPORT JOURNAL* since 1984 to 1994 which is published quarterly by Human Kinetics Publishers. This journal publishes empirical, theoretical, and position papers as well as reviews and critical essays. After a compendious description of the conception of the content analysis, it confers as overview of the international research into sport sociology and trends in sport sociological research. The variables have embarked in this study included: a focus upon contributors, type of article, level of performance, and the classification of the sport. Content analysis of this study is not based on the articles themselves but on the respective summaries which commence and conclude each article distributed. As a result, a content analysis of the *Sociology of Sport Journal* was conducted to major trends in the sport sociological realm in social sciences of sport. The analysis has evaluated those articles which appeared between 1984 and 1994, however it is not based on the articles themselves but on the respective abstracts. The main topic is a cogent analysis of all 299 articles which have appeared in the *Sociology of Sport Journal* in the last decade. Therefore, after reviewing the journals, a content analysis gives an over-view of the structural peculiarities of international research into sport sociology, the object of research into the sociology of sport, the issues in sports sociological research and theoretical and non theoretical approaches and trend in sport sociological research. The *Sociology of Sport Journal* can reveal back on a decade history's contributions. During this interval, 299 articles have emerged, 431 authors from 18 countries having implemented contributions. During this time about 65% of these have provided from the U.S.A. ,18% from Canada, 12.4% from Europe and another 4% from the rest of the world. Thereafter, a aforementioned studies about 25 years content analysis of *International Review for Sociology of Sport*, it is appeared that every fifth article is written by a US national which is meant a cogent representation. Whereas Western Europe have provided 30% of the published contributions and the rest of the world were obviously underrepresented. Sport is embodied male values and over the years there has been an increasing tendency of male contributors to contribute articles. Though restricted to a limited number of data collection methods established, a clear picture of sport sociological research has emerged to be non theoretical

research in the respective period. Competitive sports have received better priority than non-competitive sports because most of articles were palaver of it and leisure- time sports have experienced a significant increase in interest comparing with school sports and high performance sports.

INTRODUCTION

Two recent developments in the social sciences may be of interest to the social sciences of sport in general and the sociology of sports in particular; this means Social Sciences research in sport will be able to pursue evaluative research in a refined manner (Sage & Lüschen, 1981, 16). Conventionally in sport science in general, and in the sociology of sport in particular research has been focused mostly on sporting activities in the social institution of sport (Heinilä, 1990, 7). So, it must identify areas that need to be explored in the future of sport sociology is to be neither overspecialised nor unrelated to empirical and theoretical work in the social sciences (Coackley, 1983, 21). The sociology of sport in a extensive sense is the application of all kinds of research questions and terms from sociology to sport, which in turn can make many things as commonly understood and create common overview for the future. In attempting to identify factors which will influence the future of the social sciences of sport, one must realise that future developments are bound up with past circumstances and present practices. To achieve this and in seeking to outline and analysis trends in the social sciences of sport and in order to gain a picture of the current state of the subject and identify its future, one has taken the social sciences of sport as the principal focus. However one must always understand that forecasting the future, is the best prepared predictions require continuous reassessment and revision. A number of attempts have been made to analyse the contents of sport-related trends in the journals. As instance, Heinemann and Preuss (1990) had made a research of 25 years of international review for the sociology of sport- a content analysis. The authors' contention was the trends in sport sociological research where it serves a prescience of the structural peculiarities of international research into sport sociology. This type of review will serve to give perspective to current program and competition development as it related to future research needs and a basic on which to make decisions (Holsti, 1979). So, the focus of this study was to find out what are the main sociological trends of research in the social sciences of sport during the last decade.

Sport frequently asserted to be a useful tool for cultivating national pride and a sense of national identity. Whereon, now a days the sociology of sport is reputed in most

countries as an independent discipline both in teaching and research. North American contributors have emphasised in the level of activity pertaining to the investigation of certain types of sport and athletes. Whereas European authors have opined stronger representation in the *Sociology of Sport Journal* did the discussions on the theoretical basis, fields of investigation increase in importance. So, this rest of world have pursued in non-theoretical investigations and in a fundamental discussion on "sport and society". Over these time collective contributions' tendency has increased which has submitted by joint authorship and the co-operation and co-authorship between men have increased satisfactory than women authors.

1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Sport sociology is special sport science dealing with special problems of sport and by striving to find solutions for current problems (Haag, 1994). By collecting information for answering a questions from the point of view of different countries the variety of aspects, idea and solutions can increase tremendously (Haag, 1994, 23-24). And trend analysis has emerged as a substantial management tool in its own right (Celente, & Milton, 1990; Heath, & Nelson, 1989; Merrian, & Makower, 1988). The sociology of sport in a wider sense is the application of all kinds of research questions and terms from the sociology of sport, aimed at finding a common ground for answer and practice in the future. Therefore, in seeking to outline and analyse recent trends and in order to gain a picture of the current state of the subject and identify its possible future, the social sciences of sport have been taken as the principle focus.

If no technique of data collection is available for a certain research topic, it is necessary to developed such a technique by standardised procedure (Darst, Zakrajsek & Mancini, 1989, Safrit, 1990). For this, content analysis of the Sociology of Sport Journal has been marked by a diversity of purpose to spell out finding out its present status and possible future through an examination of all articles during contributed the last decade in this research. Actually, content analysis consists of choosing the choice of categories where the categories represent the idea or concepts that are measured. After reviewing the journals from 1984 to 1994, an over-view of the structural peculiarities of international research into sport sociology, of the object of research into the sociology of sport, of the issues in sport sociological research and of the theoretical and non theoretical approaches and trend in sport sociological research was carried out. Therefore, content analysis of this journal was conducted to isolate the major trends in the sociological realm of sport and to provide valid information about these trends. As a result, the purpose of the study was to find out, *what are the main sociological trends of research in the social sciences of sport during the last decade.*

2. ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SPORT SCIENCES AND SOCIETY

Sport is defined as a social activities which is made up a part of ones regular lives and allures ones to set out social relationships. Sport science takes place in social settings and has a profound influence on the social life of large numbers of people of all ages. Sport involves different types of social organizations, such as schools, communities, international associations, and society. Whereas, society is expounded as a collection of social relationships which is made up of all the families, clubs, cooperation, and other groups in which its members participate. Sport science enforces many of societies' values, norms and beliefs and influences its the major institutional sectors. In turn, in society the purpose and meaning of sport may emphasize the values of competition, goal-orientation, and violence. Moreover, the relationship between sport science and society, is that sport is a socio-cultural product which is reflected in society and is an integral part of the society. On the contrary, the meaning of sport science in a particular society is greatly influenced by the evolving economic and political organizations and the values of that society and, in part, has become embedded in the social life of nations.

2.1 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF SPORT IN SOCIETY

Sport is a significant and enduring element in the social and culture life of most modern societies. Just as social institutions are woven into the social fabric, so is sport an integral part of a society (Loy, 1989, 35). Sport is not simply a microcount of society but also an extension of human beings, which satisfies need particularly for communication and acknowledgement and thus contributes to the identity of a person (Weiss, 1990). Some people participates in sports to compensate the negative feelings they have during their everyday life (Vanreusel & Bulcaen, 1992). Because sport as a socially acceptable channel by means of which people can express their natural infrinsic aggression too (Smith & Theberge, 1987). It makes possible a valuable exchange of information concerning health

care and the physical perfection of people. It acquaints everybody with the ideological and moral climate of the historical periods of people's development, being an activity with the aim of realising the main purpose of physical culture in society (Petrove, 1984, 78). With such involvement on the part of so many people, an understanding of sport becomes important in the development of an overall understanding of everyday life (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1974, 398-406).

The sociological significance of sport is characterized by relative persistent patterns of social organization; it occurs within a formal organization of time, leagues, division, coaches, commissioners, sponsors, formalized recruitment and personal replacement, rule book, and regulatory agencies, it is serious competition (Edwards, 1973). Whereon, sociology is connected with understanding the everyday lives of people, it would be very hard to ignore sport. Since sport is one of the things that people are doing, and thinking about, it should automatically become a concern of sociology (Snyder & Spreitzer, 1974, 389). Therefore, sport plays a role in the preservation of society (socialisation) and in the social integration. It provides people with opportunities to experience feelings of competence which in turn will increase one's self-esteem and wellbeings (DeKnop & Oja, 1996, 26). Moreover, Sport reflects society and culture, its social patterns, and its values. Sport is an area where social inequalities, abundant elsewhere in society, are reinforced. Sport not only reflects and reinforces social inequalities but is a setting in which disadvantaged groups will sometimes resist those with power and social advantage (McPerson, 1989, 31) and here culture is a way of thinking, believing and acting. It includes ideas, techniques and habits which are passed on by one generation to another-in a sequence, a social heritage, which is virtually a set of solutions to problems (Brilton, 1981, 10). So, It is a branch of physical culture, which in its turn is a part of common culture. Sport is a specific kind of activity with an influence over man's biocycle nature (Savranski, 1979).

Sport is a consequential element in the social and cultural life of the modern societies. This is because sport implicates in society to understand how people live, work, and think; and the activities that influence everybody's idea about social life including our expectation

about how social life should be organized. Therefore, sport is a cultural, universal and basic institution in society which is reflected in social life. Actually, it is functionally involve with religion, politics, business and industry, education and everyday tasks where it regulates human action in sporting situations. Because of this, the significance of sport permeates any number of levels of contemporary society. Sport deeply influences such varied elements as status, race relations, automotive design, the concept of 'the best', language, and ethical values. Moreover, as a significant form of social activity, sport affects the education system, business life, economy, and the values of citizens. Thereafter the significance of sport in society serve as backbone for a national pride in civilization.

2.2 SPORT AS SOCIAL PHENOMENON

Sport is cultural social phenomenon which is shaped by socio-cultural factors (Haag, 1994, 57). Actually, a collection of social relationships represents a society and society is made up al the survival of society, the the complex of sport or sport system is yet an essence of modern society (Seppänen, 1984, 120). So then, sport can be an idea means for the development of underdevelopment societies if these societies have the objective of transforming themselves into modern societies (Digel 1995). Sport is a social institution which denotes an aspect of social life in which distinctive value-orientations and interests, catering for large and important social concerns (Schneider, 1974). Sport like other social institutions, constitutes a distinctive kind of social organization, represents a unique form of social activity, provides a basis of social identity, serves as a model to other social structures, and act as an agent of social control (Loy, 1989, 18). So, sport plays a role in the preservation of society (socialization) and in the social integration. It provides people with opportunities to experience feelings of competence which in turn with increase one's self-esteem and well being (DeKnop, 1996). Anyhow, it has most always been a part of the education system, and therefore an important factors (Haag, 1994, 57).

Sport is a phenomenon of modernity. Promoting sport consequently means promoting the modernization of society (Digel, 1995, 126). The magnitude and importance of sport in modern society justifies considering it as a social institution. Sport is an interrelated system of special roles and norms organized to satisfy some social need or function (Seppänen, 1984, 191). As sport becomes an objective of the whole of society, its potential and possibilities become important for that society, i.e. for the personality in a concrete social environment and for the way of life of a nation in the corresponding social order (Erbach, 1984, 34). For this, the question of social thought about a sport analyses how sport is perceived by different segment of the public and tries to determine its degree of legitimation (Loy, 1989). So then, sport influences specific sociological areas such as family, work, politics, church, education and social classes as well as our system of society as a whole and to some extent sport helps to solve some social problems (c.f. Klein, 1989). Sport has its own norms, sets of rules and sections. The different types of sport have their own social structure, and individual groups of people practicing sport have specific communication structures (Digel, 1976). That's why sport is central social phenomenon which is shaped by main socio-cultural factors (Haag, 1994, 57).

Sport is a highly complex and pervasive social phenomenon with many interconnected dimensions and expression where can comprehend various social factors offering contemporary process at different levels. Because sport constellates cultural, social, economical, psychological, institutional and political ramifications in the modern societies so that it reflects its social patterns and its values. As a significant form of social activities, sport is to be enjoyed more for the opportunity it confers to engage in social interaction than discovering winners. As a enduring element in the social life, sport can be considered as an alienating activity which affect the values of citizens in the modern societies.

2.3 SPORT AND SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

The task of development a sport internationally and promoting its practices in diverse cultural settings requires more than the creation of organizational infrastructures and distribution of promotional materials (Thomas & Chalip 1996, 54). It goes beyond the different cultures, because it has an international character and is practised according to international rules (Harms, 1982). Whereas, social development is connected with the industrialization processes which has created new social classes, and changed the life of millions of people, their behaviour, attitudes, social status, aspirations and opinions (McPherson, 1989). The development is characterized by the exclusion of individual manifestations of sport that have their own sport conception, sport ideology, and special way of practicing and organizing sports (Heinemann, 1989, 68). Sport in its true sense is the competition of the best with the best. Only in this way can its global significance be developed (Wohle, 1977, 46-50). Sport development is mainly in industrial societies. It was first organized wherever industry with all its advantage and disadvantages spread (Digel, 1995, 24).

The development can be explained by differentiating between "expressive" and a "competition-oriented" model sport, between "commercial" and an "instrumental" model (Heinemann, 1983), by a differentiation between "circus sport", "competitive sports as leisure-time activities", "alternative sport culture", "instrumental sport" (Digel, 1984) or by a polarizing development of high-performance and popular sport (Rittner, 1984). The difficulties attached to prognosis of future development are not unknown; increasing affluence makes our decisions more and more free and arbitrary; our interests and needs more differentiated, with a greater range of possibilities for satisfying them available (Heinemann, 1989). On the contrary, social development is connected with education and science, with the collection of information, with the methods of its transmission and mutual exchange, which has affected the methods of education and the very content of teaching (McPherson, 1984). Future development will presumably be characterized by increasing internal differentiation, accompanied by a simultaneous process of dedifferentiation (Heinemann, 1986). Moreover, as a social and educational phenomenon, sport can not stand

aside from this issue: millions of people from all countries united in the sports movement are active fighters for the cause of peace, for by its very nature sport is possible only in circumstances of peaceful development (Ponomarev, 1981, 233).

The development of sport depends on the goals and objectives set for social policy, because sport has a strong influence on the social life. Sport development is related with social development because sport is a social institution which has a primary function in reinforcing values, regulating behaviour and goal efficacy. Whereas social development is connected with the development of communication network where people gets opportunities to express feeling of competence which increase one's self-esteem and well being in turn. Since social contact is one of the most important reasons to participate in sport, that's why development of social policy is related with the attainment of the fulfilment of individuals and within the criteria of the satisfaction of need within society.

3. THE SCIENTIFIC BASES OF SPORT

Science is an international and a fundamental phenomenon in everyday life and sport is a generally acknowledged science, recognized by the 'Scientific world', which consists of research institutions, scientific publication, scientific societies etc. Science and sport have become increasingly interrelated and there is no doubt that sport represents a dominant and important form of expression in today's world where sport provides scientific observers with a convenient laboratory within which to examine values, socialization, stratification, bureaucracy –to name a few structures and processes –that also exist at the societal level. Sport represents an independent science developing to such an extent that it becomes more and more necessary to inform the international community about all recent progress. As a cultural element at everyday life, sport science goes beyond the different cultures whereon it has an international character and is pursued according to international rules. Moreover,

sport science, like science in general, possesses a fundamental element where it represents a dominant and important form of expression in today's world. Sport science has also received attention from public life. Public relations by means of a comprehensible presentation of the achievements of sport science in the world. For this, there can apparently be no doubt that sport science represents an independent science which does not need to justify its existence or status. From the physicians' point of view it represents a biological necessity in a mechanized world characterized by a lack of movement. For this reason, sport and sport science, which complement it, have developed to such an extent that it becomes more and more necessary to inform the international community about all recent progress.

3.1 SCIENTIFIC PROSPECTIVE OF SPORT

Science as a societal enterprise is also becoming more and more affiliated with the development of sport. Especially in countries which pursue success in international sport (Heinilä, 1990, 36). Sport science represents a system of scientific research, teaching, and practice to which knowledge from other disciplines is integrated (Haag, 1994). So, functions of sport science are seen to a greater extent under criteria like flexibility, proximity to reality, holistic and not too specific approaches, social relevance, long term effects, social responsibility, and contributions to promote humanity (Haag, 1994). One has to address the suggestion that sport sociology ultimately aims to develop sociology 'through' sport by looking at sport in ways that contribute more generally to the understanding of the social world beyond sport (Hadden, Degher & Fernandez, 1989, 9-19). Sport receives support from important groups. In connection with sport, markets are developed which promise profit. Sport is connected more and more with economical and political interests. Due to the increasing importance of the new media, sport will also be an important part of entertainment programming (Heinemann, 1983, 8).

Sport science is mainly visible through its body of knowledge, which is the result of the scientific endeavour in regard to sport (Haag, 1994). So, sport science, by promoting people's physical and psychological development, helps create balanced human beings; by exposing them daily to the experience of democracy (Tarschys, 1995). Rodichenko (1978) has written on certain aspects of the effect of the scientific and technological revolution on physical culture and sport: the first is connected with the fact that the world's population is now better off and there are more material possibilities for promoting sport; the second is concerned with the use of the attainments of technical progress in sport and practice; and the third is concerned with the development of a science of a science of sport and with its use in sports practices.

The science of sport is a type of science that has various layers and is of a most complex nature; its nature makes it necessary to give up dividing lines and to adopt the principle of unity of the science. Thereafter, sport science is the application of the scientific idea of sporting activities where it covers a great number of research fields. It provides for the expression of many physical actions stimulated by culture yet precluded from everyday life. In a culture filled with ambiguous role functions sport provides an opportunity for continual interest. Anyhow, sport is a social process, which in a purposeful and systematic way brings about the perfection of physical qualities and people's efficiency as an integral part of the rising of the cultural level of society.

3.2 DEVELOPMENT OF SPORT SCIENCE

The development can be explained by differentiating between an 'expressive' and a 'competitive-oriented' model of sport, between a 'commercial' and 'instrumental' model activities', alternative sport culture, 'instrumental sport (Digel, 1984), or by a polarizing development of high-performance and popular sport (Rittner, 1984). The development of the science of sport, i.e. the requirement and expectation involved in its development, has corresponded to the status of sport as a closed system (Heinemann, 1983, 275). Thereafter,

the first phase in the development of the science of sport is characterized by sport research becoming an independent branch within the individuals fundamental sciences, the second phase by an additive combination of the results of the individuals fields of sport research and the third phase by the creation of an integrate science of sport oriented on the specific problems of sport (Heinemann, 1983). So, in the scientific sport literature, it has often been documented with extensive material that the development of sport in modern society has taken place as a process of differentiation in which sport has been established as an individual and autonomous entity (Dunning & Ellas, 1975). Whereon, the development of sport science is viewed as differentiation between an 'expressive model of sport', 'competitive model of sport', a 'commercial model of sport', and a 'functional model of sport', and between a 'circus sport', 'competitive sport as leisure-time sport' or between the development of two polar dimensions of sport: popular sport and high-achievement sport (Herms, 1986).

The development of sport science or more exactly, its requirements and expectations combined with this development, is going along with the status of sport as a close system. This means, that the first phase of sport sciences development is characterized by a fact, that sport research has to become independent within certain basic sciences; the second phase is characterized by the additive connection of the results of several theory fields of sport research and the third phase is characterized by the origination of an integrated sport science, which is oriented to the specific problems of sport (Dunning, 1973, 215). Sport science will have an important status in the future in relation its possible development from an independent (interdisciplinary) scientific discipline to an open, innovative and planning science (Heinemann, 1987, 9).

A favourable prognosis for the future in regard to sport science and an increasing demand for scientific knowledge will allow in principle the positive development of sport science. In principle it means that a small but important restriction has to be seen, thus restriction is related to the changes in the dependencies, which are existing between the personal and the research means, which are available for a scientific field, and the problems, with which this field is dealing (Bell, 1974). In turn, research on the subject of sports areas developed in

connection with a political strategy for town and country planning and for living spaces (sports facilities, open-air playgrounds, mountain development) (Bouet, 1987). Whereon, the future development of sport science within the aspect of sociology will be characterized by a process of increasing inner differentiation with dedifferentiation taking place at the same time (Cachay, 1986). A more recent development is the appearance of scientists dedicated to the study of sports performance and the improvement in conditioning and competitive procedures. Emanating from such sub disciplines as sports biomechanics, sports physiology, sport psychology, and sports nutrition, professionally trained personnel have brought expertise and experience to the sports venues to enable the athlete to perform faster, higher and stronger (Komi & Knuttgen, 1994, 59).

Science is supposed to inevitably contribute to the progress of life. So, the development of sport sciences is in those spheres of life where true activity and expressions of life of human beings actually take place, such as the economy, politics, science and culture. These forms of activity exert an influence in every sphere in the shaping of the life of an individual in a society as a whole. This objective connection, which can be understood only from the dialectical point of view, is of basic significance for the determination of the social functions of sport and physical culture. In the broader sense, culture is the expression and measure of the human aspect of life, the mastering of nature and society, order and the conscious shaping of social relations. For example, as a social phenomena and as a social process, physical culture and sport are an integral part of culture. They reflect the achievement of physical perfection and the development of the physical prowess of people, which in the practical process of life find everyday expression in the aspirations to lead a life in which there is place for health culture and sporting activity. For this, development in the field of sport is in great need of a careful prognosis. The emergence of new models of sport indicate certain directions in which development will probably go and a reliable prognosis on the assessment of the actual momentum.

5. MAIN AREAS OF RESEARCH IN SOCIAL SCIENCES OF SPORT

The social sciences of sport has emerged as a young sciences among the basic sciences as internationally. The main areas' dimension of every scientific discipline is a very fundamental question and therefore there are different ways of presenting the main areas of social sciences of sport in a logically structures was, e.g. proposes to classify the areas according to the framework where sport is discussed its' certain degree of multicultural character. In the system of sciences the social sciences of sport can be located primarily in the area of social sciences and secondly in the humanities. In the area of social sciences the fundamental of the social sciences of sport consists of sport sociology (Vuolle, 1992). Anyhow, from the point of view of "Finnish model as a umbrella" has interlaced with this research for the main areas of social sciences of sport. The umbrella is conducted the main areas of social sciences of sport which is comprehended in the Department of Social Sciences of Sport at the University of Jyväskylä.

Social sciences of sport are a very recent phenomenon pursuing the largest developments having emerged at geometrically fleeting step. The deep evolution of the sport phenomenon has led to a kind of 'trend' of research in the various sectors of social, economical, media, hence political life which forecasts the development of research areas. Since social science of sport is special science by dealing with problems of sport and strives to find trends for current situations pertaining the main areas of sports. Even though the description of the research areas in the social science of sport are similar but not identical in every country. So, a review of the past helps to explain current situations and may even provide a basis for the prediction of the trends.

5.1 SPORT SOCIOLOGY

Sociology is a science dealing with societies and their known or unknown properties. Therefore, sociologists have not become used to directly observing societies or actions of social groups as such (Allardt, 1983, 11-12). Conventionally in sport sciences in general and in the sociology of sport in particular, research has been focused mostly upon sporting activities in the social institution of sport-e.g. on elite sport, Olympic Games, competitive sport, recreation sport etc.,-with their distinctive identities and relative autonomies in society (Heinilä, 1990, 37). Sport sociology is special sociology as well as special sport science. Therefore, sport sociology deals with this action field sport in the following direction: internal structure; position within different forms of society; its functions and symbolic meaning etc (Heinemann, 1993, 358). The sociology of sport has mainly pursued the analysis of sport among lines of standard sociological concepts, from stratification and organizations to power. It has only recently started to seek an understanding of the sociology of the body mainly in qualitative conceptual terms and approaches (e.g. Betle, 1988; Kamper, & Rittner, 1979; Loy, Andrews & Rinehart, 1993). It is on the one side special and applied sociology and on the other side theory field of sport science. It is the aim of sport sociology to investigate the action field sport in regard to its internal structure and position in society (external structure) (Haag, 1994). Thus, sport sociology has gained a stable position in the international scientific community of today, there is a great deal of fluctuation in its theoretical and philosophical foundation and its practical applications (Vuolle, 1981, 21-30).

Sport sociology is derived from the three factors that determine the conceptualization of sport sociology: sociology in general, society as a whole, and sport culture in society (Heinilä, 1990, 33-37). Actually, The sociology of sport is supposed to make a contribution to sociology proper and to such crucial questions as non-utilitarian action, patterns of life-style, social conflict, social stratification and hierarchies and may be a better understanding of the substance and meaning of those ideologically biased concept dialectics (Lüschen, 1990, 49). It has efficiently cooperated in solving specific tasks in the social areas of physical culture and sport, as part of the unit of social sciences in

sport sciences. Its contribution can be seen particularly well in the social laws, motives, conditions, and value to spread physical culture and sport in the society (Gras & Reihardt, 1987, 39). That's why, sport sociology is regarded as its name indicates, as a so-called one-issue or special sociology by its name. The more narrowly it is defined, the name it is influenced by outside factors of the fields (Kämäräinen, 1978, 16).

Sport sociology is a science which takes the phenomenon of physical culture as a continuously developing, integrated whole. Externally, it takes the relationship between sport and other social phenomena as its object of study; internally, it takes the interrelationship between sport and man's social concepts as its objects of study, then it studies the rules of their mutual influence (Liu, 1983, 96). Sociology of sport within sport science as a whole is the transformation of sport as an object of social concern into an object of scientific study (Estruch, 1992). In turn the socialization process may occur in a variety of social institutions throughout the life cycle, it can vary by gender, age social class, ethnic background, and nationality (Curtis, 1989, 48). So sociology, one of several social sciences, is the study of human social life. Social life is very broad; so is the discipline of sociology 'sociology's subject matter ranges from the intimate family to the hostile mob, from crime to the sociology of work the sociology of sport (Eldon & Elmer, 1978, 181). Now a days, the sociology of sport becomes the study of regularity, and departures from it, of human social behaviour in a sports context (Kenyon & Loy, 1971, 37). It refers to the process of transmitting social and norms to the individuals members and the resulting changes that occurs within the individual (Burdge, 1986).

Sport sociology utilises a wide range of ways to gain knowledge from theoretical-hermeneutical up to empirical-analytical (Haag, 1994). As from the mid eighties, the sociology of sport began to acquire its own identity in Sport Sciences as a whole, themes become progressively diversified and methodological rigour and theoretical reflection increased. It is now examining the factors which made the activation of the field possible (Puig, 1995). The tendency towards further progress is in line with the

trend describe by Krawczyk with regard to sociology in the East European countries: 'Here, from the beginning of the 1960's empiric sociology and its rapid quantitative development came to the forefront, However, historical and analytical sociology, studying sport as a social phenomenon did not disappear completely... as far as quantitative trends are concerned, the preponderance of the empiric form can be recorded up to this day' (Krawczyk, 1988). The description of the situation in the sociology of sport (and within the circles of sport sociologists) was similar but not identical in every Eastern European country. It seems that the situation was recognized as critical first in Poland and in Hungary, and later in former German Democratic Republic (GDR), Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, and Rumania (Krawczyk, 1992, 92). On the contrary, sport sociology in developing countries grows in a very distinct way, due to the fact that the people belong to a different culture, live in a different environment and a different society (Digel, 1995, 140).

Sport sociology perpetrates on one part applied sociology and another part theory field of sport science. So, sport sociology is defined as a science with as a number of sociology and of other social group as well. Thus sport sociology is a particular kind of sociology as well as special sport science. Since, sport sociology is special sport science revealing to certain problems of sport and striving to find solutions for present problems in the action field sport cooperating with other sciences. Sport sociology utilises a wide range of ways to gain knowledge from, sport and society; sport and social fields; sport and socialisation; sport and major activities of human life; sport and social problems; sport in the context of individual sociology; sport intercultural comparison; sport under the aspect of institutions/ organizations. Anyhow, sport sociology is a sociology of social systems which influences of sport from cultural values systems and socio-structural condition in a society. It also influences to sport on individuals, on social areas like family, politics, educational system, and on the social structure in total and nurtures sociology of 'social figures'.

4.1.1 PAST AND PRESENT STATE OF SPORT SOCIOLOGY

Sport sociology has emerged itself as an independent field of research and teaching, partially with its own scientific journals, publication series and scientific organization. Thus there are more and more countries convening on research in the field of sport sociology. The *Sociology of Sport Journal* is a forum for articles from all countries reflecting the situation of social science of sport concerning about trends. In sooth, every country has its own tradition of scientific thought and method which is prevailed in the international journal and it is therefore the task of an international journal to systematically inform about the current research situation to the readers, a goal that the journal will opine about trend in the field of sport sociology. Actually, within the last decade the volume of scientific literature has published in the field of sport has increased tremendously. The overview presented in this research reveals on the past and present state of sociology adopted in the various countries and thus confers the trends in the social sciences of sport sociology.

American sociology of sport was heavily influenced by the extent to which sport was related to the social issues attracting the attention of liberal reformers (Coakley, 1987). American authors show that sociology of sport research in United States emphasizes descriptive and "issues-related" quantitative studies rather than qualitative or theory-based studies (Coakley, 1987). A review of the conditions and event of the turn of the century indicates that the emergence and early growth of American sociology went hand-in-hand with journalistic muckraking and progressive reformism (Coakley, 1987, 66). The future of the sociology of sport in North America depends on the formation of a new organization through which those in the field could receive relevant information and regularly communicate with one another (Coakley, 1987).

During the last decade in former German Democratic Republic (GDR) sport sociological research was increasingly concentrated upon the analysis of sport related needs, value orientations and motives of children and adolescents regarding their conditions and attitudes and many research projects in GDR included objectives whereas new and differentiate demands towards the efficiency of states and societal

organs responsible for physical culture and sport in the territories concerned are growing with the concept of live-long sport activities and the increasing versatility of the citizens' interests in leisure-time activities (Reinhardt, & Gras, 1987). The sport sociology research projects including the theoretical main directions of marxist-leninist sociology in the GDR was quite an effective method in contributing to better profiling and improving the contents of the sub discipline (Weiding, 1986). The institutionalization of sport sociology in the former GDR has been strongly supported by a continuous internal dynamic development, as well as by a large number of connections and activities at the international level (Gras, & Reinhardt, 1987). Overall the major contribution of West German sociologists of sport have been in the theory and study of social organizations. There has been a strong latent interest suggested by the formal organization of differential sport system. This has now come full-scale in studies (Mücke, 1986), membership structure (Schlagenhauf, 1981), associations (Winkler, 1984), voluntary (Lüschen, 1981) and economics (Heineman, 1984). The Finnish sociology of sport has shown similar interest (Heinilä, 1974), but has extended into other areas, such as conflict research (Heinilä, 1986; Seppänen, 1984; Ilmarinen, 1984), elite sports (Seppänen, 1981; Olin, 1982), sport and work, plus, it has a strong and original bent toward applied research and sport policy (Olin, 1979).

Today appears as a triple rupture in France sociology of sport at the end of the 1970's a triple rupture resembling a founding process, which must be defined in order to understand the present dynamics in the field. First, there was an institution rupture. Second, this rupture stems from decisions regarding methodologies that strongly favored and promoted an empirical type of sociology. Third, it is a theoretical rupture and not a methodological one (Vigarello, 1995, 225). France sociology of sport has developed. For example, there have been investigations of the media and advertisements to better assess the presence of sport references in people's daily attitudes (Vigarello, 1995). According to Bouet (1987), in France more attention paid to social processes than to social structures.

The sociology of sport in Spain has been analysed mainly three sections, the first of which deals with beginnings of something fundamental to the constitution of an area of

sociological knowledge: the transformation of social questions into sociological themes, the second section examines those factors which have been instrumental in creating the present situation and the third presents a detailed analysis of the themes currently predominating in Spanish sport sociology (Puig, 1995). Thereafter, study themes predominating in Spanish Sociology of Sport today can be grouped in three main areas: the evolution and significance of sport; the organization of sport and social attitude of sport (Puig, 1995, 127). Actually, Spanish sociology of sport, the genesis of which is closer to the political concerns of the time of the period of transition than to the academic world, has finally embraced the scientific and university tradition of contemporary sociology. As a discipline it has entered a new phase, hopefully one of maturity (Puig, 1995, 33).

The Danish sociology of sport is a part of the Scandinavian scientific system, i.e. it reflects in part the corporate tendencies of Scandinavian societies. But it has simultaneously and historical background in the 'folk ling', popular movements with their decentralising traditions of the Folk Academies, grassroots orientation and cultural criticism (Eichberg, 1989). The research into sport in Denmark has for many decades been characterized by the absolute dominance of natural science approaches. Danish sports science was exclusively focusing on anatomy and physiology (Eichberg, 1989). The contribution of the Danish sociology of sport has focused on the social ecology of sports, on the relations between the body and social space, between sport facilities, nature, planning, and culture. This has led to studies of the 'green waves' in sport, that is to say of sport in relation to nature in the open air (Eichberg/Jespersen, 1986; Jespersen/Olwing 1986).

Apart from some national particularities, the situation of Hungarian sport sociology is essentially similar to that of other central and East European countries and especially to that of Poland (Földesi, 1989, 12). Accordingly, sport sociological research in Hungary can be grouped around the following subjects; sport and society, social institutions and social process; sport as a system sui generis; deviance and social problems (Földesi, 1989). Sport science in Hungary developed unevenly in the various spheres of sport. In harmony with social expectation, progress was most rapid the competitive sport,

especially in elite competitive sport. The development in science primarily involved natural science studies, however, with a view to the favoured social position of top sport, the attention of sport sociologists increasingly turned towards top level performances in sport (Belyi-Heleszta, 1973; Laki-Nyerges, 1980; Nyerges, 1982).

At any rate, it may be said that the study of sport sociology in Japan has now reached the stage in its development where attention is being paid to quality and not just quantity (Rogers & Morikawa, 1987). In Japanese academic tradition, sports studies were not perceived as 'proper' object of social sciences research (Morikawa, 1989). So, Yamaguchi (1989) criticized the past research done in the field of sociology of sport in Japan: "Although a number of survey data have been reported, the status of sociology of sport in sport science as well as sociology in Japan has been relatively low". The future direction of sociology of sport in Japan was also discussionable along with drastic social changes such as the increase of the aged population, international relation, and information net work (Yamaguchi, 1989).

The international literature and the burgeoning number of publications show that in the Western world the sociology of sport became an autonomous discipline in 1950s. However, the same period did not favour the development of sociology in former socialist states of Eastern Europe (Földesi, 1989). Actually, the sports movement in most western countries becomes influenced by commercialism, politicisation and mass entertainment (Heinilä, 1990, 36). During the last ten years sport sociology research was increasingly concentrated upon the analysis of sport related needs, value orientations and motives of children and adolescents regarding their actual living conditions and attitudes (Gras, & Reinhardt, 1987). In the future, sport sociological considerations related to social changes in profession and everyday-life will take an important place in educational activities (Gras, & Reinhardt, 1987).

Internationally the situation shows considerable variance with East European sociologists of sport stressing application, when Western sociologists focus rather on theoretical analysis. There is a comparative strong involvement of sociologists and sport

scientists alike in such countries Finland, England, Germany, France, Japan, Canada, U.S.A. and some socialistic countries. In these countries there are normally several introductions into the sociology of sport available as well as readers, monographs, and larger – scale overviews, and the low status and limited acceptance that sport sociology was faced with over a long period of time appears to have been largely overcome. There are more and more countries engaging on research in the field of sport sociology , example Australia, Spain and various countries in the South America. Sport sociology constitutes a 'microcosm' in the respective countries, a kind of subculture, the aspects of which have showed from the significance of scientific contributions of the various countries which have assessed and classified. Actually, sport sociology in most Western countries becomes influenced by commercialism, polarization, and mass – entertainment. Sport has been used as a tool for national building and diplomacy. It also can affect public health and the environment. As palatogram, locally administered school systems has been pivotal components of the U.S. sport system but far less significant in Europe. Conversely, most European countries have developed a more extensive system of sports clubs than is found in the United States. Potential pitfalls extent beyond the comparison of structural elements. As instance, Canada cancers for nation building generated a focus on Olympic sports and the development of elite competitors. On the other side, several European countries have sought to promote health through physical activity that sports generates. National pride associated with successful international sport sociological performance by national athletes and terms has, in fact been one of the most potent driving forces for sport sociological development. Sometimes, sport sociology's policies conflict with other policy goals. For instance, in some countries sports impact on the environment has been a matter of intense policy concern. So, opportunities for socialization would have to be structured into programs, and the levels of physical activity would have to be sufficient to promote fitness while minimizing the risk of injury. So, the effects of sport socialization will of course be stronger when persons are involved over a longer of time and when involvement is more intense. Anyhow, sport sociology and modernity are connected and inscribed in the industrial change and economical evolution of the age in the most Western countries. Further more in countries where the State had direct control over sport – the 'authoritarian' states of the former soviet Union, former German Democratic

Republic (GDR) as example – sport grew to be an adjunct of foreign policy.

4.1.2 SOCIOLOGY OF LEISURE

Leisure pursuits like other consumption practices (tests in food, drink, newspapers, films, cars etc) can therefore be mapped into the social space and related to class, occupation, gender and age-division. From this perspective leisure is merely one indicator of a more general class-, gender-, generation- or age related orientation towards life which is manifest in the adoption of a particular way of life, a life style (David, 1993, 114). So, leisure is games, sports, culture, social interaction, and some activity that looks like works but is not (Kelly, 1984, 21). The epistemological conception of leisure relates active and meanings to the assumptive, analytic and aesthetic views of the world: that is, those that repeat and confirm the world, like playing a familiar game; those that examine the world like a political book, and those that transformation the world, like painting a picture on marching in protest (Kaplan, 1975, 19).

The term leisure suggests fun, distraction, pleasure, but non-work time can include rottenest maintained pursuits, do-it-yourself, housework etc and the fact that such activities themselves are sometimes regarded as a source of pleasure and personal transformation should not be ignored (Martin, 1984, 2). Sport participation may be leisure when either engaging in sport or watching others do it (Kelly, 1981). So sport is a possible content of leisure pursuits. The origin of the word sport (from Latin "disportate" to English "to disport" = to take away, to have fun, to recreate) indicates the leisure perspectives (Haag, 1994). Leisure, might say, consists of relatively self-determined activity-experience that falls into ones economically free-time roles, that is seen as leisure by participants, that psychologically pleasant in anticipation and recollection, that potentially covers the whole range of commitment and intensity, that contains characteristic norms and constraints, and that provides opportunities for recreation, personal growth and service to others (Kaplan, 1975, 26).

Leisure has been categorized according to meaning to the participant and social context. Sport may be categorized socially by participation forms rather than motivations and goals (Sage, & Lüschen, 1981). So, leisure in general may be defined simply as "active that is chosen primarily for its own sake" (Kelly, 1980). Actually participation in leisure activities provides an additional criterion for social prestige (Aventi, 1986). In most communist states, sport has had the revolutionary role of being an agent of social change, with the state as pilot. In any case, after revolution or liberation there was rarely a leisure class around to promote sport for its own disport (Riordan, 1995). Under the certain of time leisure time sport means engaging in sport of the work time and time used for daily necessities like sleeping, getting to work, eating, hygienic pursuits (Dieckert, 1993).

Leisure, conventional defined as time free of obligation, may be an apt illustration of a supposedly general term which denotes a predominantly male experience (Griffin, . 1982). Women have been less likely to get involved in sports, allowing for the qualification that this observation refers to the different strata (Heinemann, (1989). Step by step sport become an important factor of social life. Today sport in connection with recreation and leisure time is becoming a more and more accepted aspect of the total social phenomenon of sport (Haag, 1994). The importance of sport in regard to active recreation pursuits is related to the reduction of work time and to the shift of life fulfilment towards recreation and away from work (Jütting, & Scherer, 1989). Considering the increase in leisure time and the expected reduction in working hours in the future, we estimate that sport-related industries will be greatly expand (Nakamura, 1996). So, the leisure time at our disposal has increased significantly. The leisure-time industry is the fastest growing industry in Europe (Marchand, 1990).

However, the institutional conception of leisure seeks to distinguish it from such behaviour and value patterns as the religious, marital, education, or political. And leisure that provides movement or rest, freedom or discipline, isolation or sociability, recreation or self-growth (Kaplan, 1975, 18). Leisure is activity chosen in relative

freedom for its qualities of satisfaction (Kelly, 1982, 7). Leisure and recreation are indeed to a larger extent coming to be regarded as commodities to be purchased, rather than experiences to be lived (Alt, 1976, 75). So, sporting activity is becoming increasingly less dependent on social criteria, because the process of individualization is typical of leisure behaviour and in particular also of sport (Bachleither, 1988, 237-253).

Leisure is defined as the classical condition of freedom view, a class-determination view, leisure as a form of activity and free time. Free time after the practical necessities of life have been attended to the objective leisure means being unoccupied by the practical necessities, as leisure hours. So, leisure is an active-apart from obligations of work-to which the individual turns at will, for either relaxation, diversion, or broadening ones knowledge and spontaneous social participation, the free exercise of ones creative capacity. Sport is possible content of leisure pursuits. Now a days, sport in connection with leisure is becoming a more and more accepted aspect at the total social phenomenon of sport. In turn for many people sport is meaningful because of its festive and theatrical characteristics. It also provides as elements of excitement and escape from the routines of daily living. Several theories were described that attempt to explain the dramatic increase in sport interest since World War II.

4.2 SPORT HISTORY

Sport history is part of sport science, but in principle also of general historical science, it deals with research and presentation of historical forms of physical activities, of historical systems of physical education (of all people and times), of their ideological, organisational, and institutional development (Becker & Langenfeld, 1989). The most obvious and direct sense in which sport and history merge is through record-keeping-the computation and collection of statistics. Every sport develops its own significant records and statistics (Fine, 1985, 299). Sport born of truly popular games, i.e. games produced by the people, returns to the people, like 'folk music' in the form of spectacles produced for the people (Bourdieu, 1978, 828). So, the Danish sociology of sport is part

of Scandinavian system, i.e. it reflects in part the corporate tendencies of Scandinavian societies. The positivistic orientation of the Swedish and Norwegian mainstream sociology of sport has brought about a rather deep gap between sociology and history. The Swedish interest in popular movements, "folkrörelser", especially, could bridge the gap between static sociology and structure less history (bibliography: Solberg, 1981) (Thompson, 1987, 47). When studies in the sociology of sports started in Denmark in the seventies, one looked for an orientation in foreign countries: at first in other Scandinavian countries and- what – was nearly the same – in the American type of sociology (Eichberg, 1989, 46).

Sport history attempts to analyse and explain the past; based on this it develops an objective and rational presentation, explanation and interpretation of the present situation of movement, play and sport (Langenfeld, 1992). So, the history of Australian sport has been refashioned in its own image and for its own purposes. Games were imported principally from Britain and Ireland (Farmer & Arnaudon, 1996). Australia is a product of its unique history and heritage, diverse, citizenry, and social democratic political system. Australia was a country whose pastimes were "gambling, rough sport and the drinking that usually accompanied them" (Arnaudon & Farmer, 1996). Apart from formal competition, Brazilian sport history indicates a preference for participation in nonformal sport activities popular sports promotions in streets, beach, and parks were launched in the early 1920's (DaCosta, 1996). The sociology of sport emerged in the United States during the late 1960's and early 1970's when there was widespread awareness of social and political issues and calls for reform in all major institutional spheres of American society (Coakley, 1987).

Sport is a social phenomenon which is historically developed and changes constantly. In its present form, as a total unit or in aspects like callisthenics, gymnastics, play, dance etc.; it can be understood better on the basis of its historical development (Haag, 1994). In the 1970s the sociology of sport in Poland entered a new, much more advanced stage of development and dealt with social engineering, professionalism, the sociology of education through and for sport, the sociology of organization, and the role of sport in culture (Krawczyk & Krawczyk, 1989). In the beginning of the 1970s, the sociology of

sport in Poland had already entered into a new, qualitatively higher stage of development (Krawczyk, & Krawczyk, 1989, 26). On the contrary, in the beginning of the 1970s, the sociology of sport in Poland had already entered into a new, qualitatively higher stage of development (Krawczyk, & Krawczyk, 1989, 26). The historical study of Danish gymnastics; social patterns in old Danish village games; workers sport and workers' culture. But whether they were locally or globally oriented, historical or concerned with the present they cantered around the terms 'body' movement; 'culture' and 'society' seen in a critical perspective (Eichberg, 1989, 43). Historical and comparative works constituted the most stringy developed and extensive research trend in the achievements of the Polish sociology of sport. The feature they had in common was the approach to physical culture viewed from a historical perspective as a system of autonomic phonemic which, however, were an integral component of the entire economic, social and political relations (Krawczyk, 1989, 21).

In the European middle ages, there were three principal types of 'Sport': tournaments, archery contests and folk games (Guttman, 1986, 36). The international literature and the burgeoning number of publications show that in the Western world the sociology of sport became an autonomous discipline in the 1950's. However, the same period did not favour the development of sociology in the socialist states of Eastern Europe (Földesi, 1989). In the past ten years, a significant number of commercial sports enterprises (fitness centre, body-building studios, sport school etc.), as for-profit organization, have set up business in German (Dietrich, Heinemann, & Schubert, 1990). While in the 1970s, Finlannish sport culture was dominated by competitive sport of international origin. The most impetus and even the standards for development care from abroad (Heinilä, 1979, 18). In Japan, sociology of sport is a new branch of learning (started after World War II) and it has been studied as a part of sociological research in physical education (Rogers, & Morikawa, 1987, 51).

Sport history attempts to analyse and explain the past; based on this it develops an objective and rational presentation, explanation, and interpretation of the present situation of movement, play and sport, So, historical knowledge may contribute to influence the future development of sport in a reasonable way. For instance, some

countries movements of pastimes were gambling, rough sports and the drinking that usually accompanied them. So, historical and comparative works constitute them developed and extensive research trends in the achievements of the sociology of sport. Actually, the root of sporting heritage lie in the horse racing, fox hunting and folk games of the colonial era, but the main features of modern sport appeared only in the middle years of the nineteenth century and there was some initial across class boundaries and variation from country to country in the regard. The issue of sport, as is well known is interrelated to economics and politics and further, it is necessary to consider historical background. Sport history deals with the presentation and explanation of development of sport, with physical activity and physical education in a broad sense. So, the sport sociology of North America has most recently has concerned with children" sport and the separate worker" sport movement was integrated in the mainstream in the most European countries.

4.3 SOCIAL PHILOSOPHY AND SPORT

Philosophy play an extremely important role in the development of personal beliefs, values and actions. The reflective, analytical, and speculative features of the philosophic process offer individuals mechanisms for problem solving as well as contemplation (Jennet, 1990, 224). So, philosophy can help ones to integrate ideas and seek answers to such problems as value judgments, administrative decisions, and problems plaguing the sport world (Parks, 1990, 226). Hence, norms and values are always to a certain degree an expression of the division of work, knowledge and power in society. Ideas and norms must however be shaped and reshaped in different social setting as the family, the working group and the sporting group (Patriksson, 1994). Actually, the social and cultural creation and recreation of norms and values in different social fields always are dependent on conditions outside the field of the surrounding development of society (Patriksson, 1994). In the context of sport, the deep ethical question is the value of the unquestionable subjection to the rational of competing. Self-discipline in sport is a prerequisite for achievement and performance enhancement (Heikkala, 1993, 411).

Sport philosophy can be considered as applied philosophy, dealing with central phenomena of society, e.g. ; as is done in religious, art, economic and state philosophy (Haag, 1994). Philosophy is interpreting sport as individual and social phenomenon as well as educational field coming from different philosophical, life- philosophy, phenomenology, social philosophy, and cultural philosophy (Lenk, 1993). So, the process of philosophy is the 'effect to trans from the obscure, the ambiguous and the indeterminate into the evident, the explicit and the understandable' (Bressen & Peiter, 1985, 1). According in sport, philosophy teaches and reinforces esteemed societal values, thereby contributing to socializing participants into major culture, social and behavioural patterns of the society in which they live (Nixon & Jewett, 1980, 125). Here, values are the cultural prescribed criteria by which individuals evaluate persons, behaviours, objects, and ideas as to their relative morality, desirability, merit, or correctness (Eitzen & Sage, 1993).

Social responsibility involves a moral, legal, or accountability on the part of individuals for the self and others. It denotes reliability and trustworthiness and is reflected in ones behaviour (DeSensi, 1987). So in sport, competition in its pure form neutralizes the necessity of assessing victory or defeat in moral terms and helps to establish the assumption that sportsman and woman are rational, ethical beings who will not cheat (Eisenberg, 1990, 269). Hence, sport is not forced labour; it must and does include a strong voluntary flavour. Significantly, the will to do better must also carry a strong internalized faceting to a 'need' of discipline and conformity to the practices necessary for achieving the desired goal (Nietzsche, 1990, 189). Sport should foster power of initiative and self confidence as well as loyalty and obedience (Nilsson, 1993). In sport, the 'visible' practices of sport, certain types of movements and exercises, are a manifestation of the structural logic of competing (Heikkala, 1993, 397). And fairness exemplifies an attitude of procedural prospect, i.e. the readiness of any party not force the opponent into its own truth (which is violence), but to confront ones according to contractual procedures mutually agreed upon (which is pacific coexistence (Wachter, 1984, 111). The principal philosophy of sport for all, a sound for all policy is one which brings about the optimum conditions in which the broadcast possible sections of the

population can engage in sport, regularly and in accordance with each individuals aptitudes and interests (Knop & Oja, 1996, 35).

Sport is a means of highlighting and mirroring social values. These values express beliefs about the functions of sport in society. Since sport represents a microcosm of society, the nature of the dominant sports will vary from one society to another. With social change one can find shifts in value orientations. Yet, in a changing society, each is a lens that allows ones to observe various facts of social reality. The social values and the specific norms applicable to the situation are transmitted to individuals through the socialization process within the various social institutions including sport. The emphasis in sport on achievement and success through competition, hard work, and discipline is isomorphic to the traditional value orientations of the larger society. In sort, the institutional configuration of sport seems to be particularly suited for the expression and transmission of social values, norms and ideologies.

4.4 SPORT ADMINISTRATION, POLITICS AND PLANNING

The sociology of sport is distribute to the emergence, which sport studies, of an area generally referred to as sport administration, or more recently sport management. The growth of sport management, like the growth of the sociology of sport, has occurred primarily, and most rapidly, over the past two decades (Stack & Kikuls, 1989,180). Management is concerned with directing the resources of an organization toward the attainment of its goals. The major responsibility of management lies in setting goals, motivating members of the organization toward those goals, and coordinating their activities (Parkhouse, 1991,136). Management is limited to subject mater that focuses on the functions of planning, organizing, direction and controlling (Bonnie, 1991,4). So, A critical task of management is to identify and specify the goals for the organization, and to select the activities or programs that will efficiently achieve the organization activities (Parkhouse, 1991, 137). Actually, A critical task of management is to identify and specify the goals for the organization, and to select the activities or

programs that will efficiently achieve the organization activities (Parkhouse, 1991, 137). Where, the administrator monitors allocated resources that are budgeted toward the facilities, staff, equipment and other expenses of the on going organization. In contrast, the manager deals not only with expenditures but also marketing and sales, and managers performance is appraised by the organizations' return on investment, market penetration, and growth (Mullin, 1980).

Sport politics is planning and deciding in regard to domestic and foreign politics, which are related to sport in a broader sense. These are actions of the federal, state, and local level (public sport administration) as well as of social groups and institutions (self-administration of sport), which comprise tasks (Haag, 1994, 65). Willingly or unwillingly, sport is becoming a tool for politics (Heinemann, 1977, 26). Political decisions become laws, and laws are invoked to condemn behaviour within a sport setting (e.g. an assault against another player during a game) (McPherson 1989, 93). Sports events and political situations have reciprocal effects on each other and provide another basis for the close relationship between sports and politics (Stanly, 1979, 143-144). So, sport into politics might reduce the most serious of human activities to puerilism, while the seriousness of politics, if carried into sport too great measure, could destroy its playfulness and so change its very nature (McIntosh, 1983, 15). So, sport is political in character, and persons connected with sport in almost any capacity tend to be conservative (Sage, 1993). Many political figures have aligned themselves with sport and with good reason. Because the average person can easily identify with the tugs of war that take place on a local or national level, politicians have found it useful to make frequent comparison between political life- as well as to initiate changes in sport institution (Lionard, 1980, 3). So then, sport can be exploited by politicians is related to the manipulation of sports system and politicians capitalize on the popularity of athletes by using them to support the system (Eitzen & Sage, 1993, 224).

Sport and politics occur as governments impose their wills through laws, regulations, and political acts that encourage or discourage international competition (Stanly, 1979, 248). International competitive sport, in which the political elements are most clearly revealed is, to be sure, not a political force of importance in itself, because the majority

of its administrations seem to be of only moderate intelligence (Loy & Kenyon, 1981). Sport politics in the following way: The two contrary positions "sport as means of politics" and "sport as politically free room" must be organised (Bloss, 1983, 352-353). Political systems are concerned with jurisdiction on the problems of who shall have the right to make important decisions for the group. Power or the ability of one individual or group to realize its will over another, even in the face of resistance (Jonathan, 1982). Due to the expansion of the sports movement the need of or public support is accentuated. As a result, the political role and intervention in sports life has gradually, but steadily, increased. This politicisation of the public administration is clearly seen in the composition of all commission and councils in sport (Heinilä, 1987). For political reasons the period in which sport sociology developed into an autonomous discipline in the Western world did not favour the rising of sociology in the former socialist states of Eastern Europe (Földesi, 1989). So, while political commitment was very strong within sociology, the development of the discipline was below the theoretical and methodological level of its contemporary counterparts in West Europe and in America. This situation continued into the 1920s and the 1930s, and it was mainly a form of journalism and semiography that gathered momentum in Hungarian sociology (Földesi, 1989).

Planning in sport is understood as a practical implementation of sports policy and as the utilization of sports sociological knowledge in practice (Heinilä, 1974, 6). And from the social scientific point of view it is necessary to emphasize that planning in sport has its origins in people, society, sport and nature (Olin, 1991, 487). Planning can be carried out according to the principles of participative and collaborative planning (Suomi, 1989, 10-11). Perspective on sports planning is closely connected with the decision making system of society and emphasize the nature of planning as a guidance mechanism (Vuolle, 1981, 21-30). The bases of planning in sport for all are connected with more general theories and models of planning in society and particularly with the holistic planning in sport and physical culture (Olin, 1991, 487). Anyhow, planning for sport can be pointed that the task area contributes to goal-oriented sports policy with the purpose of unifying the goals, means and facts of reality; from the ecological point of view sports planning can be seen as regional planning with two parts, namely,

community planning and social planning; physical sports planning for land use, sport facilities and equipment and functional sports planning is defined as action planning for sport (Vuolle, 1978, 28-35). In the future sports planning requires that sports services be made regional in the living areas and that also autonomous sports groups outside the sports clubs be supported. These autonomous sports could be for example, free-from sports groups of the residents; associations, housing corporation, students and pensioners (Suomi, 1989).

Sport management is comprehended with planning, organizing, and evaluating with the content of a organization which is provided activities, products and services. So, planning in sport can be regarded as an action and a process in which future models are drafted with the purpose of reaching the goals of sport. On the contrary, movements in sport are the results of goal- oriented self-discipline and a certain kind of learning process. actually, sport is as sub-system of society closely related to strategies for political logic. Sport is influenced by political in regard to its possibilities an also an instrument of politics. Politicians find it useful to identify with teams, to attend sports events and to talk with coaches and athletic heroes, a final way that sport can be exploited by politicians is related to the manipulation of sports audience.

4.4.1 ECONOMICS AND SPORT

Sport economic is an applied sub-discipline of economic science and a theory field of sport science, investigating the relationship between sport and economy (Haag, 1994). According to Heinemann (1989) the following issues are examples for defining the body of knowledge of sport economy: micro- economic topics (e.g. economic object of sport programs offered in commercialised set thing); meso-economic topics (e.g., economy of commercialisation); macro-economic topics (e.g., sport and economic system). So, sport is an enjoyable activity which gives satisfaction to the devote and as such can be viewed as an end itself. On the other hand, sport may improve health, social

skills, and the like and as such can be viewed as a means to some other ends. In economic jargon these views can be called the consumption that investment aspects of sport. Sport can be viewed as consumption that gives direct benefits in the sport run and as investment expected to yield indirect benefit in other fields of life in the long run (Grossman, 1982). Sport success in international competition is increasingly dependent on the economic performance of a country and its readiness and capability to invest part of its economic power in sport (Heinemann, 1991,550).

Sport can promote economic development. In fact, most claims of economic benefited from sport are at best instantiated and at worst inaccurate (Crompton, 1995). Sport economic undergoes two major development. On one side, scientific technical invention of sport equipment make it possible to enlarge offered recreation activities and to produce unexpected advancement of performance in top-level-activities. On the other side the status of the so-called amateur sportsman and sportswoman is in danger due to the influenced and pressure resulting from economic interests (Bloss, 1989). So, sport is a social area which is on the one hand influenced quite strongly by the economy, and which, on the other hand, becomes an important economic factor in different active and passive forms of sport reality (Haag, 1994, 69). Sport has become a major economic factor in modern industrialized societies. Billions of dollar are involved in the production of sport equipment and sport clothes, in trade with sport equipment, in the build of sport facilities, in the advertisement industry as well in professional sport (Haag, 1994).

The economical importance of sport will grow rapidly. It will be marked as a product with great entertainment value and be increasingly utilized as a vehicle for advertising. The sports equipment industry will record high rates of growth; and amateur sport will more and more be superseded by professionalization and commercialisation (Heinemann, 1989, 76). Recent studies emphasize that "Elite sporting events make a contribution to economic development not only the initial expenditure, i.e. the multiplier effect" (Going for Gold, 1989, 12). And also, the general trend was that the private financing exceeded public financing for sport in all the countries of Europe (Weber & Andreff, 1995).

The convention of macroeconomics, final expenditure is divided into consumer's expenditure, government consumption, gross domestic fixed capital formation (referred to as "investment" hereafter) and exports (Lewney, & Rigg, 1987). Consumer's sports expenditure divides into four broad categories: spectating (including related travel expenditure), participating (again including travel), media and gambling (Lewney, & Rigg, 1987). One might refer to the significance of sport to consumers, as measured by the size of consumers' expenditure on sports goods and services compared with spending on other items in total or on other competing leisure activities (Lewney, & Rigg, 1987). Sport today is very often integrated into a consumer set-up and seems to have suited itself well to the consumer habits of modern society (Weiss & Russo, 1987). With regard to sport-related consumer expenses, approximately the same results are shown for Finland, France, Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands, Sweden, Iceland and the United Kingdom (CDDS, 1995). Whereas, the economic foundation of sport in post-socialist countries have so far been based upon state ownership of means and facilities, partly entrusted for use to social subjects. This meant that the state subsidized exclusively such activity, whereas the income of sport institutions themselves was minimum and occurred only in some forms of sport, mainly in spectacular disciplines (Krawczyk, 1992, 93). The State budget in Europe today is a minor source for the financing sport, and the percentage of public financing /State plus local authorities in total financing varies between 5.6% for Switzerland and 46.8% for Hungary, with a concentration of several states at approximately 30% (Finland, Germany, Belgium, Portugal) (Weber & Andreff, 1995, 147).

Sport and modernity are connected and inscribe in the change and economic evolution of the age. Recent studies have further improved understanding of the economic demand resulting from the practice of sport, the sport industry and foreign trade, sport and employment, sport markets and multinational firms develop strategies towards those markets. So, the general trend has found that the private financing exceed public financing of sport in all the countries of Europe. In some Western countries, the trend runs towards in decreasing sports financing by local authorities. The voluntary sector is

very important in all sport developed countries, the value of voluntary work has a cost reducing effect on the practice of sport. The more incomes increase in a country, the greater the number of consumers who are able to spend money for individual sport services offered mainly by profit making organization. Most European countries trade mainly with other developed countries and the international expansion of the sports goods industry also comes through direct foreign investment, including the acquisition of firms by foreign enterprises.

4.4.2 SPORT ECOLOGY

Nature and its ecological appropriation are significantly dependent on the semantic culture of the respective society. The predominating idea of nature is, that nature is considered the sphere that should be left untouched by man and by any human productivity, which must be protected from any human innervation: nature is what has grown on its own without anybody's help and influence (Hans-Ulrich,1991). According to naturism, nature should be respected as having inherent value. If radically restricts the scope of morally acceptable kinds of sport (Pietarinen, 1991, 581). A person's conceptions about nature and ones relationship to nature arise on basis of knowledge about nature and of all the experience that the person has from contacts with nature (Vuolle, 1991, 597). So, nature has thus moved into the background in the value hierarchy of outdoor sport enthusiasts. Partly under the influence of the increasing individualisation which has been identified in the pursuit of sport today (Venreuse, 1992).

Scientific and technological progress has had a very marked effect on the construction of modern sporting amenities and on the production of sports equipment with special qualities (tartan track covering, febre glass poles, etc) (Ponomarev, 1981, 101). Sport policies conflict with other policy goals. For example in some countries, sport's impact on the environment has been a matter of intense policy concern (Back, 1991). Approximately half of Austrian's tourism industry is based on skiing and ski tourists'

concerns about the environmental damage caused by overdeveloping ski resorts means that the industry might kill itself. The ski industry depends on an idealized social representation of mountains, snow landscapes, and alpine villages (Weiss, Gillbert, & Hilscher, 1998, 367). Developing ski slopes lowers the agricultural output and also increase the loss of surface water after rainfall. Clearing-cutting practices also have negative impacts on the environmental role that forests play (Eggers, 1993, 32). Some people are afraid that the natural environment of the Japan Alps area is being destroyed and will be further damaged by the development projects underway for the Nagano winter Olympic games (Nakamura, 1996). Actually, the lack of responsibility among sportsman and sport organizations is also related to another aspect: even if we accept the supposition that dying forests are a results of industrialization, the disputes among experts provide us with suitable justifications for the continuation of our activities (Digel, 1995, 35). Sport activities, especially large-scale ones, can generate considerable wastes, some of which cause little more than dirt or minor disturbances, while other have a harmful and lasting effect on the environment and human health (Wilken & Neuerburg, 1997).

Public attention has been focused on environmental problems generated by large-scale events like the Olympic Games, but little attention is paid to other sports activities and events which are practiced regularly and concern a majority of people (Marti, & Tarradellas, 1995). In Germany thousands of hectares of untouched land will be opened up and developed by uprooting forests, draining brooks and streams, filling small ponds and replacing valuable natural vegetation with the uniform fertilized grass of golf courses (Lobmeyer, & Lutter, 1990). With the intention of changing the life-style of the Japanese people by introduction more leisure activities, the Japanese government has to replace agriculture and forestry based industries with alternative ones backed by private capital which comprise mainly of huge sport facilities have been seen the causes, ski slopes and marinas etc. These facilities have been seen the cause of environmental and political degradation (Matsumura, 1993). Some environment requirements for the sports industry could be to provide information on their production processes, their waste management systems, the use of reduced packaging, the reusability and non-toxicity of their products, etc (Schemel, & Erbguth, 1992). So, environmental measures must also

be applied to reduce effects both during and after a sports event. This means recycling, eliminating and compensating (UNCU, & USJSF, 1994). An environmental action plan, complete with local priorities, objective goals and projects, is a dynamic way to create a substantial strategy which potentially brings positive development returns, goodwill and tools for continuous improvement (Wilken, & Neuerburg, 1997). The solution to the abuse of our environment is environmental education which can eventually raise the environmental awareness of not only athletes but the entire population. The general goals of environmental education are the reduction of environmental damage of the consequence which different actions have upon the environment, preservation of necessary ecological areas, protection of nature from detrimental human encroachment, and others (Lobmeyer, & Lutter, 1990).

Environmental issues are becoming a general concern all over the world which is related to each specific culture and its relationship with nature. So, the concepts of sport environment are fully interdependent and is required to be addressed simultaneously. Sport ecology usually focuses on the relatively simple fact that sport can have a positive influence on the environment, that sport, however may also destroy the environment and that practising sport can be rupture the environment influences. In this case, it can be apparent in continuing to ski, knowing perfectly well that mass skiing has already caused great environmental damage in the Alps. Generally can be discussed argument that the cause of dying forests and erosion in the Alps includes factors other then skiing, toxic industrial fums, long- term climate changes etc. Anyhow actually, one can mediate that requirement of a process of forming political opinions in order to decide which sport is acceptable in a particular location cause of environment damage.

4.4.3 SPORT LAW

Sport is part of the society which is characterized by an increasing influence of laws and regulations depending on the degree of being bound in an organization (Haag, 1994). Sport law defines as, "If people engage together in sport, it is necessary to have rules

and accept which are valid for a game or a comparison of performance (Reschke, 1989, 160-161). The basic issue of sport law is the obligation to the rules, interpretation, application and evaluation of the norms in regard to justice in sport but also relation to general law (Reschke, 1989). Players consent to risks inherent in the specific sport when they sign contracts; the players reacts in self-defence; the is provoked to retaliate for an aggressive act, or the player have agreed among themselves to enforce the informal laws of the sport (Hechter, 1987).

Sport law in a narrow sense is related to the norms of sport, this means statutes, orders, and regulations of clubs and associations, which organise sport (Haag, 1994, 67). So, labour law dictates the rules and regulation that govern the relationship between labour and management, defining the rights, privileges, duties, and responsibilities of each. A main component of labour law pertinent to professional sports is the area specifically relating to collective bargaining agreements (Bonnie, 1991, 93). Labour law appears to be the only effective means for professional athletes to gain increased contractual freedom. Conflicts are thus resolved within labour law procedures and through union and management negotiations, strikes, grievances and binding arbitration (Berry, Gould, & Staudohar, 1986). In America, labour laws demands fair treatment to labour by industry and labour relations in the sports leagues are controlled by collective bargaining agreements negotiated between the players and team owners (Johnson & Chalip, 1996).

Sport law has in many instances created new and difficult legal issues for judges, lawyers, and athletic administrators. These legal issues have created the need for-and, in some instances, produced-federal and state legislation specific to athletics (Bonnie, 1991, 75). So, Antitrust law are designed to promote competition in the business sector through regulation 'designed to control the exercise of private economic power. Antitrust law concern have primarily involved professional sports leagues, which are composed of private economic entities operated as a business to make a profit (Gellhorn, 1976). A tort is a private (or civil) wrong or injury, other than a breach of contract, suffered by an individuals as the result of another person's conduct. Civil law provides injured individuals with a cause of action by which they may be compensated,

or 'made whole' through the recovery of damages (Bonniel, 1991, 179).

If people engage together in sport, it is necessary to have rules and accept which are valid for a game or a comparison of performance (Reschke, 1989). Tax laws has been pointed to as a key factor in the economic viability of major league clubs and as a significant impetus to league expansions and franchise seals and movements (Koppett, 1973, 815). According to the European Sport's Charter states: "Encouraging the provision of opportunities to participate in sport at work places shall be regarded as an integral part of a balanced sports policy". Finland and Denmark have carried out work in this area (Chaker, 1999, 66). According to the Finnish Act is that the public-sector sports administration provides the prerequisites for physical activity while other sectors- volunteer sports organizations, universities, research institutions, sport institutes- attend to the actual running of operations (Nieminen, & Palkama, 1997, 16).

Contract law forms the basis for many of the daily activities of an athletic organization. A contract is an agreement between two or more parties that is enforceable under the law. A contract can be either written or oral and it must contain a promise of one or both parties to do something in the future (Bonnie, 1991, 79). Criminal laws are sautes, both on the federal and state level, that are designed to protest society. Criminal laws must be codified-that is written in statutory form-so individual members of society know what constitutes a crime. Criminal law is based on society' need to be free from harmful conduct. It defines criminal conduct and prescribes the punishment to be imposed on a person convicted of engaging in such conduct (Bonniel, 1991, 89).

Sport law has an increasing importance; the more sport is expanding, the large is the role of administration and bureaucracy and the greater is the economic influence on the respective area of sport (Haag, 1994). The sport promotion law enacted by the central and local government of Japan is the most fundamental law related to sports promotion. It consists of twenty- three provisions and prescribes for councils, leaders, events, availability of school facilities, sport safety, subsidies from the central government, and other related sports issues (Nakamura, 1996). Constitutional law regarding the rights or

even human rights are violated there may be requests for liability towards athletes and sport organization; on the other hand, it also possible that athletes and sport organizations have liability requests against others (Haag & Hein, 1990). The Equal Commission, established under the Sex Discrimination Act (1975), is responsible for working toward the elimination of discrimination and providing equality of opportunity between men and women. It can also be applied to the provision of sporting opportunities where, for example, the same standard of service has not been provided for both sexes (Houlihan, 1996).

Regardless of the general sports legislation model adopted, all countries considered in this section encourage a policy of active leadership on the part of non-government sports organizations in the fight against doping. In some countries, a group of government and non-governmental representations take responsibility of sport (Finland, Germany; France, United Kingdom, Cyprus, Spain, Austria, Czech Republic, Lithuania) (Chaker, 1999, 90). Finland, Hungary, and Romania have specific legislation promoting the practice of sport in the context of health promotion. The Finnish Sport Institute Act establishes a duty to organize physical and health education courses intended for the general public (Chaker, 1999). The Finnish Sport Act (1979) assigns a co-ordination role to the central government for state intervention in sport. According to the act general management and control of sports functions is exercised by the national Ministry of Education (Virtala, 1997).

Sport law as the sum of laws, which can be applied to sport and laws related to sport clubs and sport associations. The more sport is developing into a phenomenon related to many parts of society and more the general laws are part of the sport. Sport laws are the essence of total laws which are related to clubs, associations, contracts, liability, insurance, work and social affairs, neighbourhood, competition, state and administration, taxes, criminal acts, and European Community regulations. The function of referees and judos has to embarking rules, because these persons emphasize to abide by the rules and decide on sanctions if the rules are violated which embody disadvantage for the athlete or team who violated the rule(s). So, the basic importance of sport law is the respect ness, nonviolated and the obligation of the rules, and also

evaluation of the norms in regard to justice in sport.

4.5 MASS MEDIA AND SPORT

The term mass media refers to all the technically organized means of communication that reach large numbers of diverse people quickly and efficiently (Eitzen & Sage, 1993). The mass media reflect society and have the potential, value, and attitude. Specially, the media select, construct, and present information that reproduces and legitimates underlying values and assumptions in a region or society (Hughes & Coakey, 1984, 57). It describes a process that allows a relatively small number of people to communicate rapidly and simultaneously with a large percentage of a population (James, 1989,146). Because, the media beings the information function provides knowledge of the game, game results, and statistics on players and teams; the integrative function offers affiliation with a social group and a social experience shared with other spectators; the arousal or affective function provides excitement and the escape function helps release pent-up emotions (Birrell & Loy, 1979,15). The role of mass media as a social integrator is paradoxical; theoretically the mass media provide common information which makes people available to one another and allows then to interact. On the other hand, the form of the mass media (the actual device, i.e. the T.V. set, the radio, and so forth) actually restricts interaction and therefore may reduce prospects for social integration (Stumbo, 1971). Informal social relationships play a significant role in modifying the manner in which individuals will act a massage which comes to their attention via the mass media (De Fleur, 1970, 127).

Mass media collect and spread information, interpret the information, may provide advised as consequence, socialize the audience according to norms and standards of the prevailing system of society, and entertain their recipients (Digel, 1995, 95). So, the mass media and sport are conservation, status quo oriented institutions that serve the public by reaffirming mainstream norms and values (McPherson & Kenyon, 1978). Any large sport event is exposed today via powerful mass media to huge publicity. With the increasing publicity, international sports tend to become more vulnerable not only to a

political innervation ranging from a militant movement to big power policy but also to commercial exploitation (Heinilä, 1987). In most newspapers the sports section is the largest section of the paper devoted to any single subject. Circulation managers say that about 30 percent of the people who buy their papers do it primarily for the sports news (Malette, 1971, 109). Mass communication messages can be to provide individualise with new and seemingly group supported interpretations, and social constructions of reality regarding some phenomenon towards which that are acting (DeFleur and Ball-Rokeach, 1975, 248).

The role of mass media in sport socialization is also of obvious significance. Sports heroes and the whole phenomenon of hero-worship in sports are mainly created by mass media (Heinilä, 1987). It influence normative perception of individual review of sport ways: existing norms and patterns are reinforced; new idea or norms are created; existing norms can be changed, thereby leading to new terms of behaviour (De Fleud, 1970,13). So, modern societies require complex networks of printed and electronic media to keep people informed about other people and events throughout the world (Eitzen, & sage, 1993). The future of the mass media will be characterized by increasing competition from commercial stations: a shift in fundamental values of our society is likely to induce many people to adopt a less materialistic and achievement- oriented attitude leading to a changed assessment and application of leisure time (Heinemann, 1989, 75). In comparing people's activities before and after the games, a decline rather than increasing of activity was noticed. This tendency was particularly noteworthy since the games were keenly followed via mass media (Heinilä, 1987, 9). For this, the home has become the major sit at leisure in post-industrial society, and the main force for this has been the mass production of cheap home entertainments in the shape of television, radio, audio, and video equipment (Eitzen & Sage, 1993).

The mass media providing a means of understanding our social world , i.e. our environment; A warning system in the case of emergencies and significant world events; At the local level the media have the potential for political influence; Educational need may be also be met utilizing the mass media, while formal programming for educational establishment are important (Garry, 1972, 10). The mass

media have after been criticized as being too readily accessible and to require too little skill, or education to appreciate. It has also been suggested that program content involving violence can lead to increased violent acts and a greater tolerance of violence in society (Kaplan & Singer, 1976, vol 32). Violent programming provides a model for aggressive behaviour, but that the probability of a particular violent act being carried out depends on the social reinforcement and family background (DeFleur & Ball, 1975). So then, those people who very actively practice sport seem to be particularly interested in sport media. Girls and women, however, are not so interested in sport during their spare time. They reject presentations of violence on TV more strongly (Digel, 1995, 93). Sometimes the media manipulates visual images of sport and make us believe something that is not real or not fully accurate (McPherson, 1989). Increased media competition for readers or views, has negative stories been pursued. But to maximize profits, the media often accentuate aggressiveness, unfairness, and spectator violence to the point that these occurrences appear normal (Weis, 1986, 239). One of the concerns about the mass media (especially TV) has been their influence on social norms and social behaviour (Cynlhia, 1972, 15).

The term mass media includes all the organized means of communication by which an individual can reach large number of diverse people quickly and efficiently. Since people are virtually inundated with sports via newspapers, magazines, and especially television. Actually the media have the potential to initiate organized social action through exposure. Similarly, a major effect of the media is to reinforce existing norms and to maintain the status quo. So, the rise of sports and the mass media goes hand in hand with the rise of advertising and mass communication. Specifically, the media select, construct, and present information that reproduces and legitimates underlying values and assumptions in a region or society. The media campaigns can indeed influence public values, awareness and involvement.

5. STATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEMS

Sport science is the implication to investigate questions that have been selected for inspection problems and found solutions have to be applied in order to explain. For this, problems have arisen in the research area concerning *what are the main trends of research in social sciences of sport in the Sociology of Sport Journal* during the year 1984-1994. As a more clear statement of aims the main problem was approached into the following way:

- a. *What are the disciplinary orientation of research in the social science of sport during the year 1984-1994 in the Sociology of Sport Journal ?*
- b. *What are the main subject areas of research in the social science of sport during the year 1984-1994 in the Sociology of Sport Journal ?*
- c. *What are the main distributors pertaining trends of social research of sport during the year 1984-1994 in the Sociology of Sport Journal ? How do they differ in social sciences of sport in their selected intervals of time between 1984-1994?*

6. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 Utilization of content analysis

The use of content analysis is part of this research. Content analysis aims to ascertain the value of what is said in articles of various kinds. It is a procedure of research technique for making inferences by systematically and objectively identifying specified characteristics and it is a tool for observing and analysing them over the trends. Therefore as the focus of this study concerns research trends in the social sciences of sport, content analysis of the Sociology of Sport Journal will be undertaken.

The following is given a more detailed the more conspicuous definition of content analysis :

- a. The method of content analysis is based on the assumption that a text, which can be called aspecific form of symbolic behaviour, does not only allow references to the procedure of the analysed text-as it is certainly possible in the traditional text exegesis (Digel, 1995, 83).
- b. Content analysis means to analysis, understand and interprete text with the help of a category-system. The development of a good category-system is most important for getting the relevant data (Haag, 1994, 109).
- c. Content analysis be applied to object (pictures, equipment etc) and actions. The data gained from a content analysis are mostly coded in words and numbers are also possible (Zimmer, & Klimpel, 1987, 151-180).
- d. Content analysis might be envisioned as a methodological rake for gathering relevant data. It involves counting and quantification and can be used to assess themes, words, contexts, characters, interactions, bias or ideas (Morrow, & Waters, 1982, 32).

e. By far the greatest number of studies in the content analysis literature have been undertaken with a view to describing the content of some set or sets of communication (Kadushin 1978).

The following distinguishing characteristics of content analysis have been obtained from these definitions and will form the main thrust of this research :

1. It is 'systematic' so that it has a measure of general application.
2. It is 'objective' so that different analysts can apply the categories to the same content and reach the same result.
3. It is 'quantitative' so that the requirement of quantification does not necessarily call for the assignment of numerical values to the analytic categories.

6.2 Procedure of content analysis

The most important procedure of a content analysis consists of the choice of categories. These categories represent the ideas or concepts that are measured and analysed for the research. Each category is correctly defined so that most observations will fit into one or another category without enough uncertainty in the process. However, an accurately reliable categorization would be one where independent judging would vigorously place for responses, themes, or assertions within the categorization scheme of the real researcher. The categories also should be as close to mutually exclusive as possible.

6.3 Collection of data

Data have been cumulated from the Sociology of Sport Journal which is published quarterly by Human Kinetics Publishers. This journal publishes empirical, theoretical, and position papers as well as reviews and critical essays. Consequently the contents of its research inquiry may be quantitative or qualitative, basic or applied, and uses data

gathered through historical analysis, survey, field work, participant observation, content analysis, simulation, and experiments. There are three main possibilities for categorising techniques of data collection; according to the theory field, subject field, and formal criteria of sport science. The last possibilities of data collection content analysis, observation, interview, apparatus oriented techniques of data collection. The study is based on a content analysis of 299 articles which have embodied in the *Sociology of Sport Journal* between 1984 to 1994 and the collection of data are mainly based on the summaries which concluded each contribution published in the *Sociology of Sport Journal*. The data have been gathered the following characteristics of a contribution were included in the analysis; person investigated, the respective sport (status, type, kind of sport), organization investigated and issues dealt with the issues involved. Data were placed on the computer from the population of 299 articles of the *Sociology Sport Journal* inclusive, tallies for each observation were totalled using a handheld calculator.

6.4 Variables

The types of information have collected from all of the articles including topic characterization, authors location and speciality, and type of sport. The variables have considered included a focus upon contributors, type of the article, level of performance, and the classification of the sport (type, level and category). In the connection of analytic way with these variables, one can say that firstly science as a societal enterprise is becoming more and more affiliated with the development of sport, especially in countries which seek to obtain and maintain success in international sport. Therefore firstly it is interesting to know the status of the contributors in the area of sports sociology. Secondly, the theoretical and non theoretical aspects of the scientific development of research have been and are still followed in close connection with practical requirements, therefore it is important to investigate the type of article in order to be able to highlight current interests in the development of sport. Thirdly the changes in sport trends can be integrated into an analysis of broad scale social change, ranging from classical industrial society to a more information based society with its new types of life style and patterns of production and thus it is important to

undertaken a classification of different sports in order to pursue its perspective.

6.5 Research design

Content analysis is a multipurpose research method and a technique for identifying the intentions of communications. It is based on objective, systematic, and qualitative descriptions of the manifest content of communication. Analysis judgements are regarded as the reports of a scientific observation. Moreover, content analysis is a systematic information process in which communication content is transformed through an objective and systematic application of rules into which data can be summarized and compared. A content analysis of the *Sociology of Sport Journal* has been conducted to major trends in the sociological realm of sport between 1984 and 1994. However this content analysis is not based on the articles themselves but on the respective summaries which commence and conclude each article contributed. The data analysed were of nominal measurement and a frequency distribution table was constructed to determine the number and relative percentage of policy statements contained in each category. Analysis of the data was based upon sample size of 439 authors and 299 articles. After coding the content materials all data was analysed using ordinary calculation.

TABLE 1. Distribution of article in the Sociology of Sport Journal according to the nature of their content and the interval of years

ARTICLE DESCRIPTION	1984-1986		1987-1989		1990-1992		1993-1994		TOTAL	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
THEORETICAL	40.5	32	43.2	38	45.6	36	41.5	22	46.5	139
NON THEORETICAL	59.5	57	56.8	50	54.4	43	58.5	31	53.5	160
TOTAL	100	79	100	88	100	79	100	53	100	299

A trend analysis showed that the position hold by theoretical research has changed over the examined interval of years. Between 1984 and 1986, theoretical contributions were 40.5% but between 1990 and 1992 they amounted to 45.6% (table 1). Conversely, between 1984 and 1986, non theoretical contributions were 59.5%. However between 1990 and 1992 they were reduced to 54.4%, Sport sociology is essential articles distributed in the journal tend to remind mostly non theoretical social research together 53.5% of all articles were evaluated data as nontheoretical articles. Actually, the ratio between theoretical and non theoretical topics had remained relatively near over the years.

The theoretical and methodological aspect of scientific developments have been and are followed in close connection with practical requirements. So, non theoretical contributions emerged in the Sociology of Sport between 1984 and 1994 which was 53.5% comparing with 46.5% theoretical contributions. So, the Sociology of Sport Journal percentage is also near about non theoretical contribution when compared with the three largest sociological journals, American Journal of sociology, American Sociological review, and Social Forces, when Sharner (1982), refers to an

investigation which found a share of 59.8% non theoretical contributions. However, in the International Review for the Sociology of Sport (25/1) between 1966 and 1989, almost 75% of all the articles were essentially non theoretical social research which was also able to highlight existing interests, motives and needs. So, comparing with other journals, the Sociology of Sport Journal was also able to highlight existing interests in nontheoretical research.

TABLE 2. Distribution of articles in the Sociology of Sport Journal according to fields of social sciences of sport and the different interval of years.

Sociological contribution related with	1984-1986		1987-1989		1990-1992		1993-1994		TOTAL	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
Planning	16.5	13	15.7	14	15.2	12	15.1	8	15.7	47
Leisure	13.9	11	14.8	13	15.2	12	13.2	7	14.4	43
History	11.4	9	12.5	11	13.9	11	9.4	5	12.1	36
Philosophy	10.1	8	10.2	9	12.7	10	11.3	6	11.0	33
Economics	10.1	8	11.4	10	8.9	7	11.3	6	10.4	31
Mass media	8.9	7	9.1	8	8.9	7	15.2	8	10.0	30
Politics	7.6	6	9.1	8	8.9	7	9.4	5	8.7	26
Unclassified	21.5	17	17.0	15	16.5	13	15.1	8	17.7	53
TOTAL	100	79	100	88	100	79	100	53	100	299

The sociology of sport presents itself as an extremely diffuse subject which can not be describe by determining a limited set of focal issues. So, if one is to described the sociology of sport as that

which is practiced by sport sociologist, by what one oneself regard as the sociology of sport, that is to say, by what sociological related contribution published in the *Sociology of Sport Journal*, so one has to come to terms with embodied description of the task involved. Actually, the *Sociology of Sport Journal* has been prepared to published sociological articles with such marginal areas as planning, leisure, history, philosophy, economics, mass media, politics, etc. So, data have constellate for these areas which were pertained with sociological related research.

Trends have changed for the sociological related topic in the course of the year. By then, sociological related sport planning articles have emerged cogently among the articles and its trends have forged over the years which was 47 articles (table 2). Because, planning in sport is understood as a practical implementation of sports policy and as the utilization of sports sociological knowledge in practice (Heinilä, 1974, 6) and planning in sport has its origins in people, society, sport and nature (Olin, 1991, 487).

The next largest contribution was sociology of leisure with 43 articles during the times. Actually, today sport in connection with recreation and leisure time is becoming a more and more accepted aspect of the total phenomenon of sport (Haag, 1994). Sport history implements to analysis and explain the past; because of develops an objective and rational presentation, explanation and interpretation of the present situation of movement. So, sociological related historical articles, have place third position among the articles during the years providing 36 articles. It was also revealed that social philosophy initially showed a considerable contributed comparing with others. Because, social philosophy teaches and reinforces esteemed society values, thereby contributing to socializing participants into major culture, social and behavioral patterns of the society in which they live (Nixon & Jewett, 1980, 125).

TABLE 3. Distribution of articles in the Sociology of Sport Journal according to level of sports and the different interval of years

LEVEL OF SPORT	1984-1986		1987-1989		1990-1992		1993-1994		TOTAL	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
COMPETITIVE	88.1	37	86.7	39	93.8	45	91.7	22	89.9	143
NON COMPETITIVE	11.9	5	13.3	6	6.2	3	8.3	2	10.1	16
TOTAL	100	42	100	45	100	48	100	24	100	159

Sport is a social system the core of which is playful non-utilitarian action in competition with others. So, in the trend analysis of competitive sport showed that in the initial time interval, competitive sport based articles were 88.1% between 1984 and 1986 and to 93.8% between 1990 and 1992, conversely non-competitive sport articles have diminished during the same period 11.9% to 6.2% (table 3). Sport can be understood as a technological process, the purpose of which is to achieve a maximum of results, which can be measure and compared regarding individuals and groups. Considering two level of sport, competitive and non competitive sports, 89.9% of the articles contributed were about competitive sport and 10.1% articles represented non competitive sports. In view of the many conflicts observable today in competitive sports one could indeed easily come to the conclusion that modern top performance sport has no future that its end is near

and that all efforts to prevent its demise will be in vain (cf. Wolf, quoted by Babst 1984, 185).

According to Heikkala (1993) specifically in top sport the problem is that self-interest is justified within the logic of competing. The rationality of competing does not support the cooperation needed for the proposed solution. During the International Committee for Sociology of Sport (ICSS), Saeki's (1991) opinion that competitive sport in modern society is functioning as a ritual for catharsis and as apparatus for ideological education. Heinilä (1986) states that the basic and purpose in competitive sport is success; a competition itself is a test of supremacy. Science competition in sports is a continuous process, the level of demands in performance trends to constantly increase. For this, the ratio of contribution is far different between competitive and top sport. According to Olin (1982) competitive sports receive a higher priority than popular sports, and likely so because by far the most clubs represent competitive sports and as major reference groups have their interest recognized.

TABLE 4. Distribution of articles on the basis of type of sport in the Sociology of Sport Journal according to gender of contributors and the different interval of years

TYPE OF SPORT	1984-1986		1987-1989		1990-1992		1993-1994		TOTAL	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
MALE SPORT	45.0	18	54.5	24	50.0	26	47.8	11	49.7	79
FEMALE SPORT	12.5	5	9.1	4	13.5	7	13.1	3	11.9	19
BOTH	42.5	17	36.4	16	36.5	19	39.1	9	38.4	61
TOTAL	100	40	100	44	100	52	100	23	100	159

Baseball, basketball, football and ice hockey were defined as major sports for males, and soccer, soft ball and volleyball as major sports for females. All other sports were labelled as minor

(Segrave, 1982, 96). Tennis, curling, badminton, walking, ground hockey, and speed skating are considered working female sports (Young, 1982, 227-231). Moreover, there are a number of sports that are commonly considered to be typical male sports and other that are thought to be more in line with the female nature and character (Lüschen 1963, Heineman/Linde 1973, Artus 1974, Schlegenhauf 1977, Voigt 1978).

Examining the type of sport along with the trend, the tendency of male sports' contribution was increased during the interval of years. During the initial interval of years it was 45% between (1984 and 1986) and increasing to 50% between 1990 and 1992 (table 4). On the other hand, female sport representation between 1984 and 1986 was 12.5% but decreased between 1987 and 1989 to only 9.1% and during the last interval of years increased to 13.5%. For the year 1984 to 1994, comparing the contribution of the ratio of male sport to female sport, the interest in male sport was clearly predominant (79% with 19% of the contribution dealing with female sport). The female sport involvement varies with the degree to which females have achieved change in peoples' values and beliefs in different countries (Labridy, 1983). Somehow both type of sport is significantly satisfactory according to the contribution across in the different yearly intervals. So, both male and female athletes who competed in major sports were significantly more involved in delinquent behaviour than athletes who participated in major sports (Segrave, 1982, 98).

The history of female involvement in sport from ancient civilizations to the present has focused on social, political and organizational barriers discouraging female sport participation (Devenport, 1978). Actually, girls and women, however, are not so interested in sport during their spare time (Digel, 1995, 93). In Japan, the rate of females' primary sport involvement is lower than that of males at any period. This trend is related to tradition of Japanese gender roles and the female' life cycle. The number of female sport participants increased remarkably in the 1960s and that has not changed in the 1980s. Woman are less likely to get involved in sports, allowing for the qualification that this observation refers to different strata (Weiller & Higgs, 1988).

TABLE 5. Distribution of articles in the Sociology of Sport Journal according to the kinds of sports and the interval of years

SPORT CATEGORY	1984-1986		1987-1989		1990-1992		1992-1994		TOTAL	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
LEISURE TIME	40.9	18	48.8	21	48.8	22	48.2	13	46.5	74
SCHOOL SPORT	31.8	14	30.2	13	35.6	16	33.3	9	32.7	52
HIGH PERFORMANCE	27.3	12	21.0	9	15.6	7	18.5	5	20.8	33
TOTAL	100	44	100	43	100	45	100	27	100	159

Parallel to the classification of sport into different types is the classification according to the sport category in the respective sports. Distinction may be made between leisure-time sports, school sports (physical education) and high performance sports. A total of 46.5% of all classifiable investigations dealt with topics from the area of leisure-time sports, 32.7% with physical education and 20% with high performance sports. Leisure-time sports, however, have experienced a significant increase in interest. This corresponds with the development of public interest in sport as leisure-time activity. A trend analysis showed that leisure time sport as a topic has increased progressively during the period 1984 to 1994 as shown by an increased in related articles. The contribution of articles related to leisure time sport was 40.9% between 1984 and 1986, increasing to 48.8% about 1990 and 1992. In the Journal Sport and Science (Liikunta ja tiede), a survey observed between 1977 to 1986 about leisure time sports participation.

European countries, however, were found to deal more frequently with topics from the area of leisure sports and North American countries were found to deal with physical educations to a greater degree. Over the same period (1984 to 1994) interest in physical education has decreased. There has been a pronounced decrease in the influence exerted by sport sociology in competitive sport over the period analysed. Offering suggestions for dealing with this issue: it is argued that all

schools should have a co-ordinator to direct interested children to clubs within the locality, that the cost of 'minority' sport (e.g. badminton, golf) to participants should be reduced and physical education should be separated from competitive sports, as in the United States (Drenkow, 1986). So, the importance of leisure time sports is increasing constantly with the shortening of work time during week and in the entire life (Haag, 1994).

Comparing the three sport category, it was clearly apparent that the contribution of leisure time sport's percentage was the highest among School sport and High performance which was 46.5%. Conversely, at the International Symposium on Research in School Physical Education in Jyväskylä, Finland, Silvennoinen's opinion was that motives for leisure time sport activity most closely resembled the goal of joy and recreation in the curriculum. The trend analysis of the incidence of high performance sport, articles reported a percentage of 27.3% between 1984 and 1986 and after that the percentage was decreased during the next interval of years. So, high performance sport can only develop within limited borders (Hartmann, 1988). Actually, high performance sport is an ideal reflection of capitalistic industrial society (Franke, 1992).

Between 1984 and 1986 School sport was found to be 31.8% and rising to 35.6% between 1990 and 1992. So, 'The future of school sport' that while there is little evidence to suggest a decline in physical education and sports participation during curriculum time, there is a evidence to suggest that there has been a decline in the area of extracurricular physical activity within the school program (Chappell, 1984). Moreover, within school sport one major aim is to educate and motive children for the realisation of sport in leisure time (Haag & Hein, 1990).

TABLE 6. Distribution of different kinds of sports in the Sociology of Sport Journal on the basis of articles according to different sport branches dealt with and the interval of the years

SPORT	1984-1986		1987-1989		1990-1992		1993-1994		TOTAL	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
FOOTBALL	30.9	8	24.4	10	23.3	7	26.3	5	25.8	30
BASEBALL	19.2	5	19.5	8	20.1	6	21.1	4	19.8	23
BASKETBALL	11.5	3	19.5	8	16.7	5	15.8	3	16.4	19
TRACK & FIELD	19.2	5	12.2	5	13.3	4	15.8	3	14.7	17
GYMNASTIC	11.5	3	12.2	5	13.3	4	10.5	2	12.1	14
HOCKEY	7.7	2	12.2	5	13.3	4	10.5	2	11.2	13
TOTAL	100	26	100	30	100	30	100	19	100	116

Sport sociological research, therefore, hardly reflects the great variety of sports practice as a whole nor is there an adequate reflection of the relative significance of individual kinds of sport. Only 29 different types of sport were discussed in the Sociology of Sport Journal during the times; these being restricted to sports commonly practiced world-wide. Considering the kinds of different sports, 30 articles published received the most attention about Football (table 6). Baseball and Basketball had been discussed respectively 23 and 19 times. Principally football, baseball and basketball, so much that one of the most widely studied topics in the sociology of sport (Coakley, 1990, 213). Over twenty years after the Loy and McElvogue study, McPherson, Curtis, and Loy (1989, 201) cite evidence that stacking seems to have declined significantly in basketball (Leonard II, 1987, 407) but continues, throughout football and baseball (Curtis & Loy, 1978, 7). Following from football, baseball and basketball discussed Track and field, and Gymnastic with a contribution respectively 17 and 14 times.

In the *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 8(1), all sports illustrated feature articles between 1954-1987 were examined with reference to sport, gender, length of articles and descriptive characteristics were Baseball 21.6%, basketball 13.1% appeared most frequently, followed by track and field 6.5%. A content analysis of the Chicago Tribunes sports page, 1900-1975 provided that there had been remarkable stability in the coverage of the dominant sports of football and baseball and this expanded role for sport was part of a more general trend to be expected in a leisure oriented society (Lever & Wheeler, 1984).

TABLE 7. Distribution of articles in the *Sociology of Sport Journal* according to the native country of contributors and the interval of years .

CONTRIBUTOR	1984-1986		1987-1989		1990-1992		1993-1994		TOTAL	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
U.S.A	65.8	52	65.9	58	62.0	49	67.9	36	65.2	195
CANADA	17.7	14	18.2	16	22.8	18	13.2	7	18.4	55
EUROPE	12.7	10	12.5	11	12.7	10	11.3	6	12.4	37
REST OF WORLD	3.8	3	3.4	3	2.5	2	7.6	4	4.0	12
TOTAL	100	79	100	88	100	79	100	53	100	299

As shown in the table 7, the United States was most strongly represent about the contribution of articles per country with a total of 299 articles over the years. The next largest contribution was Canada with 55 articles followed by Europe providing 37 articles. That is, comparing with other

two contributors, contribution of Europe has decreased. The revolution of 1989 affected sports in Central and Eastern Europe as well as in the Asian Soviet Republics (Eichberg, 1995, 3). In a representative study of 457 articles which appeared in the *International Review for the Sociology of Sport* (25/1) between 1966 and 1989 it was also revealed that United States' authors initially showed a considerable increase. Heinemann and Wiebke (1990) referred to an investigation where North American authors initially showed a considerable increase (from 13.6% in the first phase to 37.8% however decreased to 27.1%). However, contribution from Europe showed a relatively steady increase during the time. So, consequently, the *Sociology of Sport Journal* percentage was also made similar when compared with the renowned sociological journal, the *International Review for the sociology of sport* (1990).

According to the result the trend analysis showed that the position held by contribution had nearly changed over the years. Between 1987 and 1989, the contributions were nearly high among the contributors. The statement of the *Sociology of Sport Journal* has represented an international forum must therefore be qualified; important countries such as, Germany, Japan and the Scandinavian countries are obviously underrepresented, Third World countries were not being hardly represented at all. Because, sport sociology in developing countries grow in a very distinct way, due to the fact that the people belong to a different culture, live in a different environment and different society (Digel, 1995, 140).

The proportion of articles from former socialist countries has decreased continually over the years. Because sport is being hit by a serious crisis in the former socialist countries; it is supposed to be only a matter of time before this crisis manifest itself on the international scene (Földesi, 1993, 5). For political reasons the period in which sport sociology developed into an autonomous discipline in the Western world did not favour at that time the rising of sociology in the socialist states of Eastern Europe (Földesi, 1989). Anyhow, sport is part of structural and political change.

TABLE 8. Distribution of articles in the Sociology of Sport Journal according to gender of contributors the different interval of years

CONTRIBUTOR	1984-1986		1987-1989		1990-1992		1993-1994		TOTAL	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
MALE	79.8	91	72.4	92	77.7	94	67.5	52	74.9	329
FEMALE	20.2	23	27.6	35	22.3	27	32.5	25	25.1	110
TOTAL	100	114	100	127	100	121	100	77	100	439

A trend analysis showed that the position hold by male contributors had changed little over the period analysed (table 8). In the first interval of the year, it was 79.8% between 1984 and 1986 and after that, it turned to the 77.7% between 1990 and 1992. The tendency of female contributorship obviously raise slightly from 20.2% at the first interval of the years between 1984 and 1986 to 22.3% in the interval of 1990 to 1992. So, the trend displayed was of female contributors increasing from year to year along with the male contributors. For 439 contributions from 1984 to 1994 (74.9%) authors and (25.1%) authorises have been represented in the articles. From this, the psychological consequences seem to be that women and men, due to specific patterns in gender role socialization, develop different values and behaviour patterns, those developed by women differ markedly from describe qualities in masculine, role conflict between the sport role and the female role (Harris, 1981, 274). So, clearly the articles published in the Sociology of Sport Journal were dominated by men. Moreover, in the international Review for the Sociology of Sport, with 605 contributors, 73.6% of the published articles were written by men. So, comparing with the two journals, it is clear that the percentage of male and female authoress distinctly dominated by men in both journals to a similar degree.

During the year, women as the solo author of an article were more active in the United States and Canada than in other countries. In the Sociology of Sport Journal, 8(1), all sports illustrated

feature articles between 1954 to 1987 were examined with reference to sport, gender, length of article and descriptive characteristics. The sporting achievements and lives of males were acclaimed in 90.8% of these 3,723 articles. Male authorship accounted for 91.8% of the articles. Theberge and Cronk (1986) examined the process of newsmaking/and news production in an effort to ascertain why women have been underrepresented in the sporting media. Women are less likely to get involved in sports, allowing for the qualification that the observation refers to the different strata (Lüschen 1963. Lind/Heineman 1973, Artus 1974, Schlagenhaut 1977, Voigt 1978). McGregor (1989) also reported a definite masculine bias in the reporting of sport. This is perhaps exacerbated by the fact that 91.8% of sports writing is done by males (Lumpkin, 1991).

TABLE 9. Distribution of articles in the Sociology of Sport Journal according to by single and multiple contributors and different interval of years

AUTHORSHIP	1984-1986		1987-1989		1990-1992		1993-1994		TOTAL	
	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N		
SINGLE	60.8	48	59.0	49	59.3	51	62.7	32	60.2	180
MULTIPLE	39.2	31	41.0	34	40.7	35	37.3	19	39.8	119
TOTAL	100	79	100	83	100	86	100	51	100	299

A trend analysis showed a change in single contributorship over the years (table 9). In the first interval it was 60.8% between 1984 and 1986 and dropped slightly over the next intervals to 59% and 59.3%. For the interval 1984 to 1994 total number of contributors (N=299), 60.2% were single contributors represented their articles and multiple contributor was 39.8. So, comparing the ratio between single and multiple contributors, single contributors' ratio is greater than multiple contributors. Only in the United States, did more than 3 contributors generated a article together. During 1984 to 1994, there has been an increasing tendency towards collective contributions being submitted by 2, 3 and recently even 4 authors/authoresses. From this trend conclusions may

be drawn regarding changes in the working methods and cooperation and co-authorship between men has increased more significantly than among women.

CONCLUDING REMARKS:

Sport has been always been an important part of social fabric of developed nations. Considering the contributors' countries of origin in the interval of times, it is then expounded that trend change have occurred in every countries. Contribution from North America, trend initially showed a cogent increase and Europe conferred a relatively steady increase. Since the journal has been published in the United States of America, that's why the number of North American contributions have increased significantly, whereas contributions from Europe have decreased dramatically. By then, sport movement is conducted in most Western countries became influenced by commercialism, politicization, and also mass entertainment. On the contrary, East European sport was being hit by a serious crisis in the former socialist countries.

Sport is embodied male values and its practices expressed male identities. Since, over the years there has been an increasing tendency of male contributors to contribute articles. So, the articles published in the Sociology of Sport Journal are dominated by men. However, the co- authorship and the cooperation between men have also increasing tendency more significantly than women.

In the respective period, a clear picture of sport sociological research has emerged to be non theoretical research. Though restricted to a limited number of data collection methods established, North American contributors are more frequently non theoretical oriented tendency than contributors conferred from Europe. Actually European contributors have embarked a greater influence in the basic aspects and delimitation of sport sociology. As non theoretical nature, other contributors foci on the social situation of sport in ones countries.

Sport is a particular kind of leisure with its own forms and function as well as its special context and orientations which are practiced by individuals, only 39% of the contributions are embodied deal with individuals types of sport and 29 different types of sport are constellated in the mantioned journal. Parallel to the classification of sport in to different types is the classification according to the level of performance in the respective sports. So, leisure- time sports have experienced a significant increase

in interest comparing with school sports and high performance sports. North American contributors deal with the topics of school sports (physical education) and European contributors deal more frequently with the topics of leisure time sport.

Through a limited number of data collection method, it is shown that although the sociology of sport became established somewhat later in West Europe, its development was then all the more fruitful. Sport is the most influential part of an everybody mass culture. That's why, competitive sports have received better priority than non- competitive sports because most of articles were palaver of it and the most of clubs are represent competitive sports with one's main interests.

The national pride is associated with successful international sport performances by national terms. Some contributors devoted one's tendency to the currently topical issue of 'race, discrimination, aggression; actually a figure hardly sufficient to provide sport sociology a special advisory capacity. Anyhow, racial matters and ethnic groups in sport is almost exclusively have comprehended by North American contributors and the socialization is predominantly of tendency to European contributors. According to the aforementioned studies from the journals, North American contributors paid attention one's research more on the level of sporting activities, on the contrary European contributors concentrated in the basic aspects of sport sociology.

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APPENDIX 1. Distribution of articles by male and female authors from the different contributors in the Sociology of Sport Journal

CONTRIBUTOR	MALE %	FEMALE %
USA	74.2	25.8
CANADA	77.5	22.5
EUROPE	78.9	21.1
REST OF WORLD	68.8	31.2

APPENDIX 2 . Distribution of articles by single and multiple authors from the defferent contributors in the Sociology of Sport Journal

AUTHORSHIP	USA %	CANADA %	EUROPE %	REST OF WORLD %
SINGLE	53.3	67.3	81.1	74.3
MULTIPLE	46.7	32.7	18.9	24.7

APPENDIX 3. Distribution of articles' describing different contributors in the
Sociology of Sport Journal

CONTRIBUTOR	THEORETICAL %	NON THEORETICAL %
USA	42.2	57.8
CANADA	36.9	63.1
EUROPE	58.2	41.8
REST OF WORLD	48.7	51.3

APPENDIX 4. Distribution of articles from the defferent contributors' speciality in the
Sociology of Sport Journal

CONTRIBUTORS' SPECIALITY	CONTRIBUTION %
Sociology	33.2
Physical Education	22.5
Economics	5.4
Education	2.7
Others	13.7

APPENDIX 5. Distribution of major articles by the contributors in the *Sociology of Sport Journal*

TOPIC	CONTRIBUTION %
Race	35.1
Coaching	18.1
Ethnicity	14.8
Discrimination	13.0
Aggression	11.1
Nostalgia	7.4
