Original Article

How mass media frames the mega sporting event:the case of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014

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Abstract:
The study examined how newspaper articles have framed the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014, in regard to the different issues covered, sources cited, positive and/or negative externalities frames, and the relationship between issues and sources. A total of 625 Korean nationwide and local newspaper articles covering the Asian Games during the 9-year period between April 7, 2005 and September 18, 2014 was analyzed in terms of three aspects of framing: (1) the types of issues highlighted, (2) the sources of information cited, and (3) the ways in which either possibilities of positive or negative externalities depiction were used. The results of the current study reveal that "political issues" (e.g., administrative and/or political conflict among central government, host city, and local residents, participation of North Korea national team) except "factual information of the event" (e.g., schedules, results, athlete performance, history) were the most commonly highlighted, "administrators" who are the government agencies preparing the Asian Games were the most frequently cited sources of information and the frame of "negative externalities" was more employed than the frame of "positive externalities" in newspapers of the Asian Games. This study regarding media coverage of the mega sporting event identifies how mass media agencies influence their target audience using framing theory and especially provide extensive analysis of media coverage of the Asian Games to date, which could serve as a groundwork for further studies of media framing theory.
Key Words: Asian Games, media framing theory, positive and negative externalities, media coverage

Introduction

The Asian Games, also known as Asiad, is the second biggest multi-sports event following the Olympic Games. According to the China Central Television (CCTV) (2011), more than 847 million audience watched the 16th Guangzhou Asian Games 2010 (China) on television and more recently, the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 (S. Korea) brought more than 20,000 participants, comprised of 13,000 athletes and team officials from 45 Asian nations (Olympic Council of Asia, 2014). In addition, with enormous public's interest and attention on mega sporting events and their possibility of generating tangible and intangible externalities (i.e., impacts), governmental and public authorities often discuss to seek hosting mega sporting events like the Olympic Games, the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) World Cup, or the Asian Games (Lee & Krohn, 2013). Within this context that hosting a mega sporting event possibly confer positive or negative externalities to the host city and/or nation which is a contentious issue among many parties including public, the role of mass media becomes a platform which might influence public's opinion because mass media tends to exert certain beliefs and values over people by applying structured media framing (Croteau & Hoynes, 2000; Holtzman, 2000; Lee, Kim, & Love, 2014). As Delaney and Eckstein (2008) stated, media has influential power to magnify certain important social issues. In fact, while the issue of hosting mega sporting events has become a popular research topic which tends to focus on only economic or other social and psychological impacts (e.g., Bob & Swart, 2009; Crompton, 2004), there has been a dearth of research on the framing of hosting mega sporting events in media coverage. Thus, given the controversial issues of hosting mega sporting events and the importance of media framing, the current study was to build the knowledge by examining how the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 has been framed in newspaper coverage.

Media's role of hosting mega sporting events

Hosting mega sporting events can bring some positive externalities to the host country; thus, many countries, especially nations under a developing process, chose to host mega sporting events (Matheson & Baade, 2004). To win a bid to host the event, media plays a critical role, and it has three major roles. First, media can affects residents' perceptions of hosting a mega sporting event (Ritchie, Shipway, & Cleeve, 2009). The

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general public's perception in regards to hosting a mega sporting event is highly related with success or failure of the event. For this reason, many political strategies are employed to create positive perceptions in general public to host mega sporting events (Lockstone & Baum, 2009). On the other hand, media can also create negative perceptions toward hosting mega sporting events. For example, the limited media coverage has enough power to create a stereotype or negative image of event (Mishra, 2012). For this reason, fostering general public's positive perception of hosting a mega sporting event through media coverage is one of the most important roles of media.

Second, media can be used as a tool for promoting the host city of a mega sporting event (Jago, Dwyer, Lipman, &Vorster, 2010). For the host countries of mega sporting events, promoting their countries as a tourism destination is a significant objective of hosting mega sporting events. Therefore, these host countries or cities make a huge effort to promote themselves, and media is being utilized as a significant tool for promotion. This promotion effort through media might generate positive economic benefits because media attracts tourists to the host country of the mega sporting event (Kavetsos & Szymanski, 2010). In addition, media provides opportunities to the host country for changing its negative or stereotypical image (Pillay & Bass, 2008). Countries under the developing process are usually exposed in media because of wars, national disasters, and social injustices (Mishra, 2012). Thus, media plays a great role in changing negative images of developing countries by promoting them as the hosts of mega sporting events. Lastly, media can be helpful in attracting corporate sponsorship interest in regards to mega sporting events (Dollesa & Söderman, 2008). Attracting corporate sponsorship is one of the important ways to host mega sporting events successfully. If there is poor media coverage of a particular mega sporting event, it would result in lack of associated corporate sponsorship and create a debt for the host country. For example, the 1991 World Student Games in Sheffield had poor media coverage, and it resulted in the lack of corporate sponsorship and created a major debt to the event organization and city government. (Malfas, Theodoraki, & Houlihan, 2004). For this reason, creating and developing enough media contents about host mega sporting events is a significant factor in attracting corporate sponsorship to the events, and it might lead to a positive economic outcome to the host country or city of the mega sporting event.

Theoretical framework: Media framing

Media framing has been considerably employed as a theoretical framework within the field of mass media and communication research and also applied to various academic disciplines (Bryant & Miron, 2004, Lee, Kim, & Love, 2014; Van Gorp, 2007). Framing in mass media is an influential and active method for conceptualizing certain packages of story that media adopts to characterize particular issues. These packages of story encompass arguments, information, symbols, metaphors, and images (Gamson & Modigliani, 1987). In detail, utilizing framing strategies, mass media often pursues to dominate certain controversial issues into topics that are more easily intelligible and persuadable for the audience and has relevantly significant power to influence how audience understand, interpret, and react to the issues (Entman, 2007; Lee, Kim, & Love, 2014; Tewksbury & Scheufele, 2009; De Vreese, 2005). For example, if any topic is frequently and distinctly mentioned and covered in mass media, the audience possibly may understand the issues as more important way (Golan & Wanta, 2001). Gamson and Modigliana (1989) and Reese (2001) also stated that media framing is a strategic way to organize complex principles that are meaningfully shared and persistent among the public, therefore, provides contextual meaning with framed interpretation for the audience. Eventually, mass media exerts how to frame the stories and plays a pivotal role in arrangement, interpretation, and evaluation of certain issues (Kang, Gearhart, & Bae, 2010; Papacharissi & Fatima Oliveira, 2008). As framing in mass media may have influential implications to shape public opinion formation, it is also important in the context of hosting mega sporting events, like the Asian Games where public opinion can be manifested through supporting or inversing of the issue. For example, similar to the current study, Ritchie, Shipway, and Chien (2010) found in their study regarding the Olympic Games and media role that local residents were supportive of hosting the games and its overall support was influenced by media coverage. In addition, many previous studies examined media framing in the context of, for examples, such as "gender" (Billings & Angelini, 2007; Billings, Angelini, & Duke, 2010; Billings & Eastman, 2003; Greer, Hardin, & Homan, 2009; Wensing & Bruce, 2003), "ethnicity" (Davis & Harris, 1998; Hardin, Dodd, Chance, & Walsdorf, 2004; Sabo, Jansen, Tate, Duncan, & Leggett, 1996; Van Sterkenburg & Knoppers, 2004), and "nationalism" (Billings, Angelini, & Wu, 2011; Bishop & Jaworski, 2003; Elder, Pratt, & Ellis, 2006; Lee & Maguire, 2009). Newspapers were chosen as the medium for examination in the current study because they have been widely utilized as a data resource for content analysis to study social and collective issues and are still regarded as a high level of credibility compared to television or online resources (Armstrong, 2009; Earl, Martin, McCarthy, & Soule, 2004; Kiousis, 2001). Specifically, the current study conducted a content analysis regarding the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 using Korean nationwide and local newspapers published between April 7, 2005 (the date when the Korean Olympic Committee (KOC) made a decision the city of Incheon would be the candidate city to participate the bidding process for the 17th Asian Games) and September 18, 2014 (the date just before the opening ceremony of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014) (Chung, 2005). The current study was to examine three dimensions of framing; (1) the types of issues highlighted for the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014, (2) the sources of information cited for the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014, and (3) the ways in which either positive or negative externality depiction were used for the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014.

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Framing issues used in newspapers for hosting mega sporting events

Media often intentionally chooses what specific aspects of story are relatively more focused or neglected. Within the context of selecting news issues, the ways of media portraying certain topics considerably relates to establishing framing issues. This is a notable mechanism how media selectively emphasizes on certain issues and how the issues can be framed (Binder, 1993; Gamson & Modigliani, 1989). Specifically, how newspapers delineate the topics of hosting mega sporting events significantly relates to framing issues. For example, a volume of previous studies strived to identify media framing structures by supplying interpretative accounts of media coverage with social and cultural aspects (Benford & Snow, 2000; Downs, 2002; Entman, 1993; Matthes & Kohring, 2008; Reese, 2007; Scheufele & Tewksbury, 2007). The research topic of hosting mega sporting events has many important but contentious issue so has become a popular research topic such as positive and/or negative economic impacts (e.g., Daniels & Norman, 2003; Kim, Gursoy, & Lee, 2006; Matheson & Baade, 2004; Preuss, 2007; Whitson, Horne, & Manzenreiter, 2006), intangible social and cultural impacts (e.g., Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Horne, 2007; Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006), political issues (e.g., Andranovich, Burbank, & Heying, 2001; Black, 2007; Giulianotti & Klauser, 2010; Jones; 2001), and environmental impacts (e.g., Collins, Flynn, Munday, & Roberts, 2007; Collins, Jones, & Munday, 2009; Dolles & Söderman, 2010; Ritchie, Shipway, & Cleeve, 2009). Media framing regarding the topic of hosting the Asian Games can be analyzed through scrutinizing issues covered in newspaper articles. For example, Carey, Mason, and Misener (2011) investigated how media has framed mega sporting event bids from non-traditional cities, and the social and economic benefits event proponents argue can be accrued from hosting. Despite of many previous research regarding the topics of hosting mega sporting events and its positive and/or negative externalities, there is currently very little study with a sole purpose of examining the relationship between media framing and hosting the Asian Games. Specifically, little is known how newspapers in the hosting county portray the issues of hosting the Asian Games. Identifying and grounding, therefore, an array of certain issues can provide a perceptible format of the specific issues. The first research question regarding this is as follows:

RQ1: *What types of issue have been highlighted in newspaper coverage of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014?*

Sources of information cited in newspapers for hosting mega sporting events

In order to keep and improve the level of fidelity in the contents of media coverage, media reporters often include comments and types of supportive thoughts from credible sources who are experts, public figures, or related people regarding the coverage subject. As previous research about importance of source indicates, characteristics of source in news contents can influence people's willingness to revive attitude and opinion (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953; Hovland, Lumsdaine, & Sheffield, 1949; Hovland & Weiss, 1951). In other words, media can better influence people's perceptions and beliefs by establishing and presenting credibility of sources who are perceived as reliable (Durham, 2007; Kang, Gearhart, & Bae, 2010; Lee, Kim, & Love, 2014). Given the significant relationship between framing certain issues and its inducement by adopting reliable sources, it is important to examine the types of source that are cited in newspaper articles regarding the topics of hosting the Asian Games.

Because the sources of information cited in news reports of the Asian Games had not been previously developed and categorized in research, the current study drew upon research from the broader context of hosting mega sporting events. Specifically, newspaper reports regarding the topics of hosting mega sporting events have often relied upon information from such sources as politicians (e.g., Andranovich, Burbank, & Heying, 2001; Hall, 2006; Horne & Manzenreiter, 2006), administrators (e.g., Burbank, Andranovich, & Heying, 2002; Emery, 2002; Higham & Hinch, 2002), economists (e.g., Coates & Humphreys, 2008; Shoval, 2002; Siegfried & Zimbalist, 2006), celebrities (e.g., Ashton, Gerrard, & Hudson, 2003; Preuss & Alfs, 2011; Xing & Chalip, 2006), volunteers (e.g., Baum & Lockstone, 2007; Giannoulakis, Wang, & Gray, 2007; Solberg, 2003), and researchers with expertise in the areas of sporting events (e.g., Gursoy & Kendall, 2006; Lee & Taylor, 2005; Matheson & Baade, 2004; Ritchie, Shipwat, & Cleeve, 2009). In addition to such "professional" sources, the actual voices of local residents and others closely related to sporting events also provide an important perspective. The importance of news sources in framing provides the context for second research question:

RQ2: *What types of sources have been cited in newspaper coverage of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014?*

Positive and negative externalities framing of hosting mega sporting events

Externalities can be defined as any tangible or intangible benefit or cost as a result of economic activity that affects third party (e.g., public) other than those directly involved in a market transaction (Preuss & Solberg, 2006; Santo, 2010). In the current study, specifically, positive externalities can be the benefits to the public by hosting mega sporting events (Leed & Allemen, 2005). For example, there are many possible positive outcomes by hosting mega sporting events that include positive economic impact, infrastructure development, image enhancement, tourism impact through media exposure, and others (Allmers & Maennig, 2009; Crompton, 2004; Dolles & Söderman, 2008; Lee, Shin, & Park, 2009; O'Reilly, Lyberger, McCarthy, Séguin, & Nadeau, 2008).

The intensive and supportive publicity for the host city or country from mass media is considered as one of the positive externalities for hosting mega sporting events. For example, media exposure before, during, and after mega sporting events offers considerable promotion value and effort to the host city or country (O'Reilly et

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al., 2008; Dolles & Söderman, 2008). Hence, through the pervasive power of media coverage, hosting mega sporting events has become one of the most effective ways to enhance positive image for the host city or country (Whitson & Macintosh, 1996). In other words, concentrated and numerous media coverages of mega sporting events provide opportunities to promote a distinctive image for the city or nation to the world (Boyle & Haggerty, 2009; Hiller, 2006). In addition, throughout effective and repeated media exposure of the host city or country, mega sporting events may be recognized as a strong component of tourism that can draw more visitors which can generate economic benefits and improving host city or country visibility and image (Kavetsos & Szymanski, 2010; Lee, Shin, & Park, 2009; Ntloko & Swart, 2008). For instance, Preuss (2005) stated that hosting mega sporting events may be a vigorous tool to enhance the host community image that may produce long-term positive effects on tourism and its economic impact.

Developing an opportunity to renovate or develop leisure and recreational resources is another positive externalities for hosting mega sporting events because event related facilities can be used for local residents' leisure and recreational activities after the events. For instance, there was a significant increment in physical activity participation using the renovated World Cup facilities after the 2006 FIFA World Cup in Germany (Buss, 2007). Another example is that in Manchester, England, most sport facilities after the 2002 Commonwealth Games became an important part of recreational infrastructure not only for visitors, but also for local residents (Zagnoli & Radicchi, 2009). In addition, there is an opportunity that hosting mega sporting events may stimulate growth of existing businesses and establishment of new ones (Lee & Krohn, 2013). For example, constructing or renovating sport facilities to host mega sporting events is likely to capture much of the investment that used to occur in nearby businesses like restaurants, bars, hotels, and merchandise stores (Saayman & Rossouw, 2010; Siegfried & Zimbalist, 2000). Hosting mega sporting events also may generate other business development opportunities for local businesses in supplying products and services and making export opportunities for some manufactured products, which result in additional spending by non-residents associated with the events (Lee, Shin, & Park, 2009; Lee & Krohn, 2013).

As the 1996 Summer Olympic Games in Atlanta, Georgia brought 17% increment of employment rate after the event to the host city (Hotchkiss, Moore, & Zobay, 2003), mega sporting events might provide new employment opportunities that are created through direct and indirect consequences. These new jobs could be categorized as long term and permanent ones (e.g., engineers for new infrastructures, restaurant labors), while others are short term and intensive opportunities (e.g., construction workers, event securities) (Baum & Lockstone, 2007; Kavetsos & Szymanski, 2010; Li & McCabe, 2013).

Negative externalities can be defined as the costs that are imposed on third parties by hosting mega sporting events. There is an extensive body of literatures that demonstrate mega sporting events were short-term, but had long-term consequences with negative aspects to the host city or nation in many cases (Dwyer, Mellor, Mistilis, & Mules, 2000; Preuss & Solberg, 2006; Rascher, 2002; Roche, 1994). Examples of negative externalities of hosting mega sporting events are negative economic impacts, societal and cultural issues, traffic and crowding problems, environmental destruction, unfair relocation of local residents, and others.

Mega sporting events may provide an opportunity to generate revenue that covers only operational costs but not the entire investment costs which can result in a massive deficit to the host city or nation. For example, the 1994 FIFA World Cup in the U.S. experienced cumulative losses of $5.5 to $9.3 billion as opposed to ex ante estimates of a $4 billion gain touted by event boosters (Baade & Matheson, 2004). Another example estimated that the 2010 Vancouver Winter Olympic Organizing Committee invested more than it made to prepare for the event and ran a deficit of C$48.1 million in 2008 ("Olympics," 2008). In addition to the negative economic impacts, additional costs such as security issue of hosting mega sporting events have enormously increased in recent years after the event of September 11, 2001 and the consequences of such possible problems also caused physical protection programs in event facilities to become a critical infrastructure issue (Appelbaum, Adeland, & Harris, 2005; Atkinson & Young, 2002; Jago, Dwyer, Lipman, van Lill, & Vorster, 2010; Taylor & Toohey, 2007).

Mega sporting events also are likely to create some intangible social cost problems such as traffic congestion, increasing crime rate, and law enforcement strain (Andersson, Armbrecht, & Lundberg, 2008; Müller, 2012). Mihalik and Cummings (1995) stated that traffic congestion and parking problem may occur during the period of constructing event facilities or during the event, and affect quality of life for local residents. Coates and Humphreys (2002) also found that local residents felt the additional traffic, noise, and increased garbage were too high a price to pay for whatever benefits they may obtain by living near the event facilities. In addition, a body of related literatures have discussed other societal and cultural problems including law enforcement strain (Jennings & Lodge, 2011; Ritchie, Shipway, & Cleeve, 2009), unfair relocation of local residents (Lin, 2012; Smith & Himmelfarb, 2007), antagonism between visitors and local residents because of different standards of living, economic status and purchasing power gaps (Tosun, 2002), and negative image of the host city or nation as a result of inadequate facilities or improper event procedures (Dwyer et al, 2000; Lorde, Greenidge, & Devonish, 2011; Walton, Longo, & Dawson, 2007). Additionally, for example, there is a possibility that hosting mega sporting events may damage the image or reputation of the host city or nation as a result of inadequate and poor quality of event facilities and improper operational procedure (Ritchie, 1984). Another negative concern to host mega sporting events is the problems from construction of sport facilities and

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development of infrastructure which causes environmental damage. These negative environmental impacts include changes of land use, pollution, and deterioration of cultural or historical heritage (Kim, Gursoy, & Lee, 2006; Rascher, 2002). Thus, the potentially differential impacts of positive or negative delineation in newspaper coverage is the third research question for the current study:

RQ3: *How have the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 been framed, either positively or negatively delineation for externalities, in newspaper coverage?*

Further, it is pertinent to scrutinize the interlinked nature of positive and negative externalities framing for the current study, the sources of information cited, and the types of issues covered in the newspaper articles regarding the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014, as reporters may solicit information from certain sources regarding certain issues in order to frame their stories in particular ways (Kang, Gearhart, & Bae, 2010; Lee, Kim, & Love, 2014). Investigating such interlinked relationships may provide what issues and sources better explain positive externalities and/or negative externalities regarding the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014. Thus, two research questions are posed:

RQ4: *How is positive and negative externalities framing related to the types of issues discussed in newspaper coverage of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014?*

RQ5: *How is positive and negative externalities framing related to the types of sources cited in newspaper coverage of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014?*

Material & methods

Sampling Procedure

Newspaper articles from Top 4 nationwide newspapers by circulation (Korea Audit Bureau of Circulation, 2012) (i.e., *Chosun Daily*, *DongA Daily*, *Hankyoreh Daily*, and *Kyunghyang Daily*) were collected using the *MediaGaon* which is a search engine for Korean newspapers like LexisNexis. Online archive system of *Kyeongin Daily* which is the biggest circulated local newspaper in the area of Incheon was also utilized to encompass in-depth discourses from local media regarding the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014. The exact keywords for searching articles were "the 2014 Incheon Asian Games." The investigators collected a total of 2,569 Korean nationwide and local newspaper articles regarding the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 published between April 7, 2005 and September 18, 2014. As briefly mentioned, these dates were selected because they encompassed from the date when the KOC made a decision the city of Incheon would be the candidate city to run the bidding process for the 17th Asian Games and to the date just before the opening ceremony of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 (held September 19-October 4, 2014). Other articles like headline coverage with only pictures, readers' comments, and opinion letters to the editors were not included in the dataset for the current study. After careful screening and discarding of articles unrelated to the 2014 Asian Games and redundant newspaper articles, the sampling process produced a total of 625 newspaper articles for further analysis (i.e., *Chosun Daily* [n=53]; *DongA Daily* [n=90]; *Hankyoreh Daily* [n=47]; *Kyunghyang Daily* [n=67]; and *Kyeongin Daily* [n=368]).

Coding Categories

The current study developed the issue categories relevant for the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 newspaper coverage using a constant comparative method employed in qualitative analysis. A constant comparative method is an effective procedure to discern conceptual similarities and interpret empirical data according to categories (Boeije; 2002; Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006). In this analysis, issue categories become distinct as incidents are coded into as many categories as possible until they become theoretically saturated. The issue categories in this study are continuously reviewed to determine similarities and differences between and within categories. Some given newspaper articles may engage more than one issue category. For example, a story may portray social problem issues related to the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014, while also mentioning an athlete's personal story. Thus, all issues covered in a given article were counted as categories for analysis (Lee, Kim, & Love, 2014).

This study applied newspaper articles as the unit of analysis for the content categories counting issues, sources, and positive or negative externalities depiction frames regarding the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014. Issues, sources, and frames were coded as 1 for presence and 0 for absence. Two investigators for the current study coded all issues that appeared in newspaper articles to identify the types of issues rather than coding one dominant issue. In addition, this study found and developed additional issue categories that emerged during the coding process.

Issue categories regarding the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 encompassed (1) factual information of the event (e.g., schedules, results, athlete performance, history), (2) competition (e.g., previous Games' medal counts for each country, rival relationships among the athletes), (3) positive economic impact (e.g., revenue generation from tourism impact), (4) business development (e.g., new job creation, corporate sponsorship opportunity), (5) infrastructure development (e.g., public transportation system, renovation of local area), (6) quality of life (e.g., sport and leisure events, environmental sustainability of sport related facilities), (7) leisure and recreation resource development (e.g., opportunities of using sport and recreation facilities after the Asian

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Games), (8) positive city image (e.g., promotional events for the host city, eco-friendly city image), (9) political issue (e.g., administrative and/or political conflict among central government, host city, and local residents, participation of North Korea national team), (10) negative economic impact (e.g., possible financial crisis and debts after the Asian Games), (11) security and safety issues (e.g., possible terrorism, unsafe construction process), (12) crowding (e.g., shortage of accommodation), (13) social problems (e.g., local resident relocation, construction workers' compensation), and (14) traffic problems (e.g., traffic jam, lack of shuttle bus for the Asian Games participants).

For the types of sources cited, a source was counted only when a writer included comments from certain people who were interviewed for the story. If the same source appeared several times in the newspaper articles, it was coded as one source. Source categories consisted of (1) politicians (e.g., central and local politicians), (2) supporters (e.g., corporate sponsors of the Asian Games), (3) administrators (e.g., government agencies who prepare the Asian Games), (4) sport organizations (e.g., Korean Olympic Committee), (5) public figures (e.g., celebrities or famous and retired athletes), (6) researchers (e.g., scholars who research about the sporting events), (7) public (e.g., local residents), (8) athletes (e.g., domestic and international athletes who participate the Asian Games), (9) coaches, (10) sports writers, and (11) others such as medical doctors, event volunteers, protesters, and other civic organizations.

For the positive and/or negative externalities depiction frame variables, newspaper articles primarily emphasizing positive externalities of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 were coded as having a positive externalities frame. Newspaper coverages primarily focusing on negative externalities related to the Asian Games were coded as having a negative externalities frame. When the coders judged that newspaper articles had included both positive and negative externalities of the Asian Games in equal amounts, they were coded as both. Finally, when the coders determined that newspaper articles did not employ either positive or negative frame, they were coded as not identified (Lee, Kim, & Love, 2014).

Data Analysis

For intercoder reliability, two authors of the current study independently coded the newspaper articles respectively for a six-week period from November 3, 2014 to December 8, 2014 to compare and correct coding discrepancies between them and reach a satisfactory coding agreement. Achieving intercoder reliability in content analysis begins with defining the categories and subcategories that are relevant to the purpose of the current study (Riffe, Lacy, & Fico, 1998; Lee, Kim, & Love, 2014). Intercoder reliability was analyzed using Cohen's Kappa, which is used for categorical data. After the first round of coding, the coders discussed any unacceptable discrepancies regarding categories and reached accordance on those items by clarifying their operational definitions (Kang, Gearhart, & Bae, 2010; Lee, Kim, & Love, 2014).

The coders randomly chose 100 cases from 625 newspaper articles to determine intercoder reliability for issues, sources, and frames of positive and negative externalities. As a result of the process, the intercoder reliabilities were .91 for the issue categories, .89 for the source categories, and .89 for the frames of positive externalities and negative externalities. Because reliability exceeding .85 indicates a sufficiently acceptable level of intercoder reliability (Crano & Brewer, 2002; Riffe, Lacy, & Fico, 20014), the data used for analysis in the current study were deemed to be reliable. For main analysis, Chi-squares tests and Cramer's *V* correlations for categorical variables were incorporated to test research questions (Lee, Kim, & Love, 2014).

Results

This content analysis enables to draw on inference and implication on how newspaper articles described the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 during the periods of time included in the current study.

Table 1 and Fig. 1 show the number of newspaper articles regarding the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014. Notably, the number of newspaper articles covering the Asian Games was greatest during the period 3 (2012-2014), as articles appearing during this period account for approximately 45 percent of all stories published during the 9 years examined in the current study. Additionally, as Table 1 shows, the greatest number of newspaper articles from specific Korean newspaper focusing on the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 was delivered by *Kyeongin Daily* (n=368; 58.9%), followed by *DongA Ilbo* (n=90; 14.4%), *Kyunghyang Daily* (n=67; 10.7%), *Chosun Daily* (n=53; 8.5%), and *Hankyoreh Daily* (n=47; 7.5%).

Table 1 . Number of articles from specific Korean newspapers focusing on the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014

Newspaper	Years / Periods			
	2005-2008 (%) Period 1	2009-2011 (%) Period 2	2012-2014 (%) Period 3	Total (%)
Chosun Daily	15 (2.4%)	16 (2.6%)	22 (3.5%)	53 (8.5%)
DongA Daily	27 (4.3%)	32 (5.1%)	31 (5.0%)	90 (14.4%)
Hankyoreh Daily	12 (1.9%)	6 (1.0%)	29 (4.6%)	47 (7.5%)

Kyunghyang Daily	5 (0.8%)	7 (1.1%)	55 (8.8%)	67 (10.7%)
Kyeongin Daily	87 (13.9%)	135 (21.6%)	146 (23.4%)	368 (58.9%)
Total	146 (23.3%)	196 (31.4%)	283 (45.3%)	625 (100.0%)

Hankyoreh Daily	(χ^2 [df = 2] = 8.73, p < .05)
Kyunghyang Daily	(χ^2 [df = 2] = 41.04, p < .001)
Kyeongin Daily	(χ^2 [df = 2] = 14.33, p < .01)
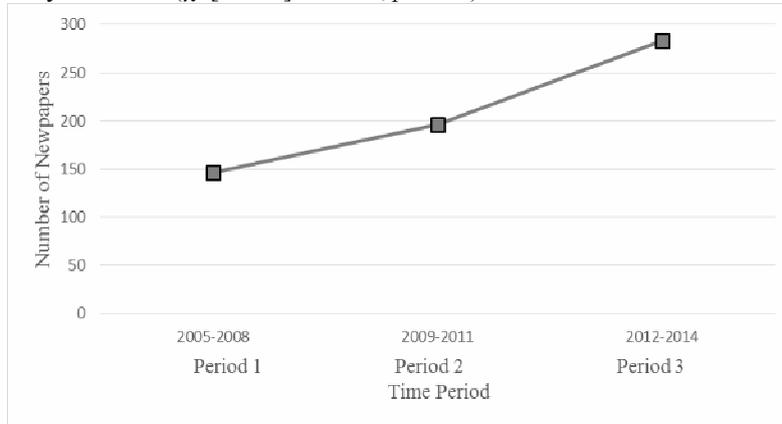
Note: Period 1 (n=146; 23.3%); Period 2 (n=196; 31.4%); Period 3 (n=283; 45.3%)
Fig. 1. Numbers of newspaper articles covering the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 (N=625)

Except the issues of factual and competition information of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014, Table 2 shows the types of issues discussed in newspaper articles about the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014. A total of 864 issues were identified. Overall, newspaper articles have consistently highlighted political issue (n=163; 18.8%), followed by infrastructure development (n=126; 14.6%), negative economic impact (n=83; 9.7%), social problem (n=62; 7.2%), city image (n=55; 6.3%), and other issues in the coverage regarding the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 during the 9 years examined in the study.

Table 2. The Asian Games newspaper articles by issue categories

Issue Category	Years/Periods			
	2005-2008 (%) Period 1	2009-2011 (%) Period 2	2012-2014 (%) Period 3	Total (%)
Fact[a]	24 (2.8%)	51 (5.9%)	164 (19.0%)	239 (27.7%)
Competition[b]	45 (5.2%)	1 (0.1%)	0 (0.0%)	46 (5.3%)
Positive Economic Impact[c]	14 (1.6%)	4 (0.5%)	6 (0.7%)	24 (2.8%)
Business Development[d]	10 (1.2%)	6 (0.7%)	2 (0.2%)	18 (2.1%)
Infrastructure Development[e]	36 (4.2%)	60 (6.9%)	30 (3.5%)	126 (14.6%)
Quality of Life[f]	9 (1.0%)	4 (0.5%)	5 (0.6%)	18 (2.1%)
Leisure and Recreation Resource Development	3 (0.3%)	2 (0.2%)	4 (0.5%)	9 (1.0%)
City Image	14 (1.6%)	20 (2.3%)	21 (2.4%)	55 (6.3%)
Political Issues	44 (5.1%)	54 (6.2%)	65 (7.5%)	163 (18.8%)
Negative Economic Impact[g]	13 (1.5%)	35 (4.1%)	35 (4.1%)	83 (9.7%)
Safety[h]	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	7 (0.8%)	7 (0.8%)
Crowding	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.2%)	2 (0.2%)
Social Problems[i]	16 (1.9%)	35 (4.1%)	11 (1.3%)	62 (7.2%)
Traffic Problems	2 (0.2%)	1 (0.1%)	9 (1.0%)	12 (1.4%)
Total	230 (26.6%)	273 (31.6%)	361 (41.8%)	864 (100.0%)

[a] (χ^2 [df = 2] = 88.33, p < .001),   [b] (χ^2 [df = 2] = 53.84, p < .001),   [c] (χ^2 [df = 2] = 17.05, p < .001),
[d] (χ^2 [df = 2] = 13.02, p < .05), [e] (χ^2 [df = 2] = 31.20, p < .001),   [f] (χ^2 [df = 2] = 7.37, p < .05),
[g] (χ^2 [df = 2] = 6.19, p < .05), [h] (χ^2 [df = 2] = 8.55, p < .05),   [i] (χ^2 [df = 2] = 25.52, p < .001)

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From the analysis of the types of sources cited in newspaper articles from the coverage of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014, Table 3 indicates that a total of 900 sources were identified. On the whole, administrators (n=378; 42.0%) were the most interviewed sources, followed by politicians (n=132; 14.7%), sports reporters or writers (n=130; 14.4%), and supporters (n=64; 7.1%).

Table 3. The Asian Games newspaper articles by type of sources cited

Source Type	Years/Periods			
	2005-2008 (%) Period 1	2009-2011 (%) Period 2	2012-2014 (%) Period 3	Total (%)
Politicians[a]	46 (5.1%)	50 (5.6%)	36 (4.0%)	132 (14.7%)
Supporters	10 (1.1%)	16 (1.8%)	38 (4.2%)	64 (7.1%)
Administrators[b]	111 (12.3%)	140 (15.6%)	127 (14.1%)	378 (42.0%)
Sport Organizations	6 (0.7%)	10 (1.1%)	14 (1.5%)	30 (3.3%)
Public Figures	3 (0.3%)	4 (0.5%)	16 (1.8%)	23 (2.6%)
Researchers	6 (0.6%)	8 (0.9%)	4 (0.5%)	18 (2.1%)
General Publics[c]	13 (1.4%)	12 (1.3%)	4 (0.5%)	29 (3.2%)
Athletes[d]	0 (0.0%)	2 (0.2%)	34 (3.8%)	36 (4.0%)
Coaches[e]	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	21 (2.3%)	21 (2.3%)
Sports Reporters or Writers[f]	25 (2.8%)	31 (3.4%)	74 (8.2%)	130 (14.4%)
Others[g]	7 (0.8%)	6 (0.6%)	26 (2.9%)	39 (4.3%)
Total	227 (25.2%)	279 (31.0%)	394 (43.8%)	900 (100.0%)

[a] $(\chi^2 [df = 2] = 23.70, p < .001)$, [b] $(\chi^2 [df = 2] = 53.42, p < .001)$, [c] $(\chi^2 [df = 2] = 13.63, p < .01)$,
[d] $(\chi^2 [df = 2] = 37.42, p < .001)$, [e] $(\chi^2 [df = 2] = 26.20, p < .001)$, [f] $(\chi^2 [df = 2] = 9.06, p < .05)$,
[g] $(\chi^2 [df = 2] = 8.10, p < .05)$

With regard to the question of how Korean newspaper articles have positively and/or negatively framed their coverages of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014, Fig. 2 shows that the proportion of newspaper articles which use negative externalities framing (n=258) is significantly greater than those which use positive externalities framing (n=180).
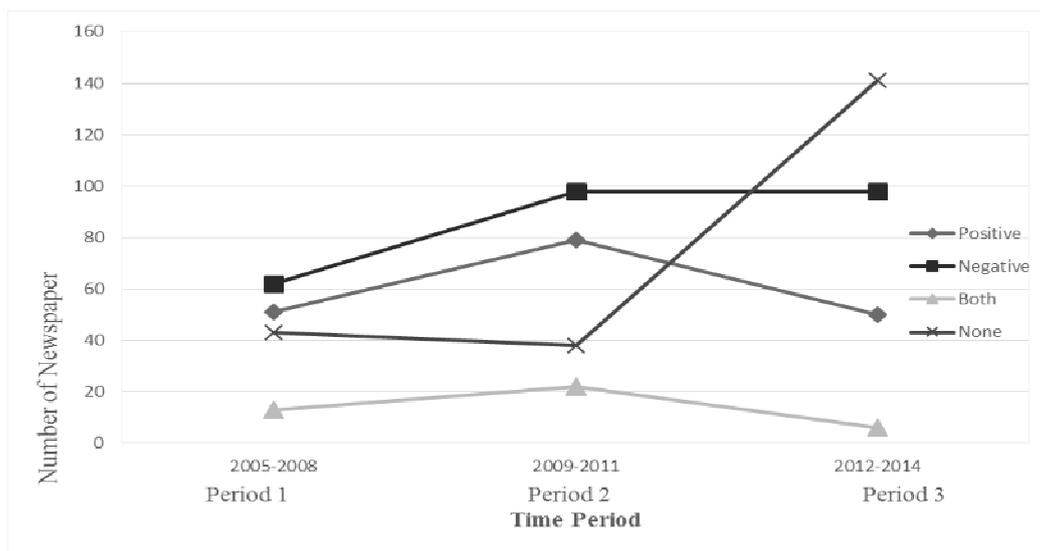
Note: Positive Externalities: Period 1 (n=51, 28.3%); Period 2 (n=79, 43.9%); Period 3 (n=50, 27.8%)
Negative Externalities: Period 1 (n=62, 24.0%); Period 2 (n=98, 38.0%); Period 3 (n=98, 38.0%)
Both: Period 1 (n=13, 31.7%); Period 2 (n=22, 53.7%); Period 3 (n=6, 14.6%)
None: Period 1 (n=43, 19.4%); Period 2 (n=38, 17.1%); Period 3 (n=141, 63.5%)
Fig. 2. Positive/negative framing of newspapers covering the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014

Cramer's *V* correlation analysis revealed significant association between the nature of framing (e.g., positive and negative externalities) and the types of issues covered in existing newspapers.

Table 4 shows that the positive externalities frame was highly correlated with the issues of fact, competition, positive economic impact, business development, infrastructure development, quality of life,

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political issues, negative economic impact, and social problem; while the negative externalities frame was highly associated with the issues of fact, competition, positive economic impact, political issues, negative economic impact, and social problems.

Table 4. Cramer's *V* correlations between positive/negative framing and issue categories

	Frame			
Issue Category	Positive Externalities	Negative Externalities	Both	None
Fact	.087[a]	.183[b]	.094[a]	.063[a]
Competition	.354[c]	.158[b]	.162[b]	.266[b]
Positive Economic Impact	.182[b]	.266[b]	.544[c]	.368[c]
Business Development	.265[b]	.354	.054	.062
Infrastructure Development	.053[a]	.192	.074	.172
Quality of Life	.293[b]	.056	.026	.041
Leisure & Recreation Resource Development	.035	.062	.069	.047
City Image	.028	.058	.026	.058
Political Issues	.569[c]	.128[b]	.688[c]	.144[b]
Negative Economic Impact	.398[c]	.643[c]	.269[b]	.175
Safety	.068	.096	.162	.297[c]
Crowding	.084	.054	.086	.119
Social Problems	.168[b]	.214[b]	.172	.264[c]
Traffic Problems	.072	.066	.085[a]	.059

Note: [a] $p < .05$, [b] $p < .01$, [c] $p < .001$

In addition to the association between the nature of framing (e.g., positive and negative externalities) and the types of sources, the relationship between the nature of framing and the types of sources cited in newspaper articles about the Asian Games was also significant. Table 5 indicates that both positive and negative externalities frames were related to the source categories of politicians, administrators, sport organizations, public figures, general publics, and others. Moreover, a closer examination of this finding in Table 5 indicates that the positive externalities frame is more closely related to politicians, administrators, sport organizations, public figures, general publics, and others; while the negative externalities frame was more associated with politicians, administrators, sport organizations, public figures, general publics, sports reporters or writers, and others.

Table 5. Cramer's *V* correlations between positive/negative framing and sources cited

	Frame			
Source Type	Positive Externalities	Negative Externalities	Both	None
Politicians	.354[c]	.185[b]	.086[a]	.065
Supporters	.026	.065	.035	.076[a]
Administrators	.128[b]	.266[b]	.167[b]	.368
Sport Organizations	.053[a]	.083[a]	.096	.061
Public Figures	.187[b]	.268[b]	.116	.436
Researchers	.066	.023	.054	.067[a]
General Publics	.326[c]	.486[c]	.243[b]	.369[c]
Athletes	.069	.036	.029	.072
Coaches	.053	.016	.028	.038
Sports Reporters or Writers	.146	.236[b]	.198[b]	.219[b]
Others	.212[b]	.188[b]	.082[a]	.149[b]

Note: [a] $p < .05$, [b] $p < .01$, [c] $p < .001$

Discussion

The current study examined how Korean newspaper articles have framed the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014, in regard to the different issues covered, sources cited, positive and/or negative externalities frames, and the relationship between issues and sources.

In terms of the amount of media coverage, the findings of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 indicate that the event was covered more by the newspapers during time period 3 (2012-2014) than other periods. The

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increase in the media coverage during the period 3 is somewhat natural because it is quite safe to assume that both Korean national and local newspapers aggressively started to promote the event (Ritchie et al., 2009) and host city (Jago et al., 2010) as the event D-day is approaching. Particularly, as the final roster for each participating country and schedules for each sport become finalized, "fact" (27.7%) which can promote the Asian Games became available through newspapers during this period. The 'fact' received the most coverage throughout the all periods of time and it implied the media played a role supporting national desire of hosting successful Asian Games.

Interestingly, in spite of promotion by media, seemingly, media framed, to some degree, the Asian Games from a perspective of negative cost of hosting the event. There was a trend noticed in Table 2 about positive and/or negative economic impact during three different time periods. While the positive economic impact newspaper coverage decreased throughout the time periods (1.6% and 0.5%) except the last time period (0.7%), negative economic impact coverage increased during the same span (1.5%, 4.1%, and 4.1%). Both positive (1.6%) and negative (1.5%) economic impact had about the same media coverage during the period 1; yet the period 3 showed that negative economic impact coverage outweighed positive (4.1.% vs. 0.7%). So it appears that while the Asian Games were successfully promoted by fulfilling cognitive needs for the people by providing "fact", simultaneously harsh economic reality of hosting such a mega event was, too, described.

Another interesting issue category was "city image", which accounts for 6.3% of total newspaper coverage. Historically, Koreans showed a huge interest in the Asian Games as proved previously in the 10th Seoul Asian Games 1986 and 14th Busan Asian Games 2002, and it was a vital driving force for successful host of the Asian Games. Cho (2009) found that media coverage of the Olympics in 1968, 1984, and 2000 by Korean newspapers showed the ideology of nationalism where a central government as well as corporations supported the symbolic event to showcase nation's excellence through sports. While nationalism has been a major theme in media describing sporting events by Korean newspapers, this analysis did not necessarily support the ideology of nationalism.

Like recent media coverage trend, which shows that the form of nationalism has been changed from unitary political nationalism to such as a combination with neoliberalism or sporting nationalism (Cho, 2008; Lee & Maguire, 2011), and the result shows more focus on localization rather than nationalism. To be specific, a host city image enhancement was focused as opposed to promoting or addressing overall national sentiment to the event.

Even though the significant increment in news coverage over the 9 years for the current study, there has been relatively lack of national newspaper coverages compared to local newspaper regarding the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 because the central government and the public show less interest of hosting the Asian Games compared to the Olympics (e.g., 1988 Seoul Summer Olympics) and the FIFA World Cup (e.g., 2002 Korea-Japan FIFA World Cup). Issue category that received the second most media coverage throughout the time periods are 'political issue' (5.1%, 6.2%, and 7.5%, overall 18.8%). Such result might be associated with a political situation where South Korea faced the issues like a participation of North Korea national team, which was intertwined South Korea's foreign policy and diplomatic negotiation in many different aspects. In fact, this type of political issue involving two countries and possibly other neighboring countries in the context of sports received some attention. Merkel (2008), for example, viewed sports as a positive social vehicle to bring two divided countries together through sports. So it is not surprising to witness much coverage about the "political issues" consistently throughout three different time periods.

With regard to the analysis of sources cited in newspaper articles, administrators (n=378; 42.0%) were the most interviewed sources, followed by politicians (n=132; 14.7%), and sports reporters or writers (n = 130; 14.4%). It is not surprising that administrators who are central and/or local government agencies preparing the Asian Games were the most common sources from which to get information in the coverage of the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014. The second most quoted sources of information were politicians. It might reflect how political leaders and/or figures expect the significance and impact of hosting the Asian Games before, during, and after the event because mega sporting events in their multiple forms could be used as a political mechanism to divert certain political and societal controversies or legitimize political consequences (Amara, 2005).

The result of second research question is little different from other studies. Researchers who can provide in depth knowledge base about event and its associated matters as source of information cited were underutilized in this study. Previous research found that research information was an influential source of information cited in the case of breast cancer news coverage (Moriarty, Jensen, & Stryker, 2010), library and information science (Blessinger & Hrycaj, 2010). In sport specific, Lee, Kim, and Love (2014) found that the most common sources of information cited for the Gay Games, a global mega sporting event, is lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) community followed by supporters, sport writers, and politicians. It can be assumed that the difference might come from a high involvement of central and/or local governments and politics with the Asian Games, which explains the high reliance of administrators and politicians for information source cited (See Table 3).

For the framing of externalities, newspaper articles using negative externalities framing (n=258) were significantly more numerous than those using positive externalities framing (n=180). Negative externalities framed newspaper articles have been significantly increased over the years from 2005 to 2014, while positive

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externalities framed coverage has fluctuated and slightly decreased (see Fig. 2). The presentation of political issues, infrastructure development, and negative economic impacts of hosting the event were the most commonly presented topics in the Asian Games coverage.

Conclusions

In relation to coupling of framing and issues, positive externalities frame was highly associated with the issues of fact, competition, positive economic impact, business development, infrastructure development, quality of life, political issues, negative economic impact, and social problem; while the negative externalities frame was highly utilized with the issues of fact, competition, positive economic impact, political issues, negative economic impact, and social problems. Furthermore, in relevance to the nature of framing (e.g., positive and negative externalities) and types of sources, positive externalities frame is more closely related to politicians, administrators, sport organizations, public figures, general publics, and others; while the negative externalities frame was more associated with politicians, administrators, sport organizations, public figures, general publics, sports reporters or writers, and others.

Overall, the current study accordingly supports media framing theory, which suggests that media persuade and influence the public's beliefs and opinion (Croteau & Hoynes, 2000). The analysis of newspaper articles during the period of 2005-2014 underscores media's significant impact in stimulating public understanding toward the 17th Incheon Asian Games 2014 by primarily reporting on the issue of political situations such as administrative and/or political conflicts among central government, host city, and local residents. Understanding the nature of media coverage is very meaningful for the parties that wish hosting the Asian Games may provide social and/or political impacts beyond the sporting event itself as a broader context of social redevelopment opportunities.

The current study might contributes to research areas that relate to the sophisticated relationship between how media effects on important societal issues. As the current research has attempted to broaden the understanding of how mass media, particularly newspaper coverage, has framed the Asian Games by analyzing media coverage based on different dimensions of media framing (i.e., issues, sources, and positive and/or negative externalities framing), further studies regarding the relationship between media discourse and coverage and important societal issues may utilize and adapt these dimensions as a conceptual framework to explore how a range of issues are depicted in media coverage. In summary, the current study regarding media coverage of the mega sporting event identifies how mass media agencies influence their target audience using framing theory and especially provide extensive analysis of media coverage of the Asian Games to date, which could serve as a groundwork for further studies of media framing theory.

Limitation and Future Research

This study has a few limitations like other research. This study acknowledges that examining the source cited is somewhat limited in nature in that it is not known how much influence the uncited source affects the content of the story (Moriarty, Jensen, & Stryker, 2010). There might be situations where the journalists use the sources but did not cite the source intentionally or unintentionally. Also, this study examined the newspaper articles only so did not consider photos only, headlines only, and advertising only media coverage, which certainly affect media framing. Methodologically, previously, Neuman, Just, and Crigler (1992) discussed five most common types of framing employed in the newspaper in the U.S.; conflict, economic consequences, human interest, morality, and attribution of responsibility, and many scholars used this typology to study media framing (e.g., An & Gower, 2009; Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000). Given there has been no previous studies examining framing the Asian Games, the current study developed its own issue category but it can be more elaborated further. Therefore, first the results of the current study cannot be postulated to newspapers from other Asian countries with different languages, which may portray the Asian Games in different aspects. Therefore, further studies of newspaper coverage from other Asian countries might provide a different data set from which to determine the issues, sources, and frames of coverage. Second, previous studies compared difference in framing between the newspapers and television in terms of coverage and tendency, (e.g., Semetko & Valkenburg, 2000) so it may be worthwhile to further investigate media framing from different, but impactful media outlets.

Specifically a further study of the Asian Games or other international events issues on more popular forms of media such as social media platforms, online news, and blogging should be employed. Similarly, the difference between local and national media framing should be researched. Third, future research may want to consider the location of the article in the newspaper. For instance, the article in the front page is to gain more attention than other articles in the middle or back of the newspaper (Greenberg & Knight, 2004). Lastly, although the current study focuses on how newspaper articles have framed the Asian Games, a future study could scrutinize impacts of media frames and discussions of the public's attitudes and supports of hosting mega sized international events.

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