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The SMART Journal

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GENDER IN SPORTS WRITING BY THE PRINT MEDIA: AN EXPLORATORY EXAMINATION OF WRITERS' EXPERIENCES AND ATTITUDES

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INTRODUCTION

Mass media portray the dominant images in societies of the industrialized world and depict life in our society (Creedon, 1998). Media have the potential to shape, change, and re-enforce values and attitudes (Bandura, 1986; Fink, 1998; Kane, Taub, & Hayes, 2000). Many authors have argued sport helped create and now helps uphold a masculine hegemonic order in society, where men occupy positions of power and masculinity is more cherished than femininity (e.g., Dworkin & Messner, 2002; Sabo & Jansen, 1992; Trujillo, 1991). Several researchers contended mass media assist in maintaining sport as a masculine hegemonic domain (Davis, 1997; Duncan & Messner, 1998; Hardin, Dodd, & Chance, 2005; Pirinen, 1997).

Numerous studies have shown sport media provide considerably less and different types of coverage to female athletes and women's sports than to male athletes and men's sports (e.g., Bishop, 2003; Elueze & Jones, 1998; Vincent, Imwold, Masemann, & Johnson, 2002). However, few researchers have examined the individuals who produce media content to determine their attitudes toward gender, as well as their gender-related experiences, both of which could affect their writing styles and decisions on what to cover.

Understanding that sport and the sport media are masculine hegemonic domains, in-depth interviews were conducted with both female and male sportswriters representing varying experience levels and employed by different newspapers across the country. Data from the interviews were coded. In the search for primary themes, theoretical and definitional memos were written on reoccurring concepts, and the constant comparative method was employed. Three primary themes emerged from the interviews.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

HEGEMONIC MASCULINITY AND SPORT MEDIA

Italian revolutionary Antonio Gramsci coined the term hegemony to describe the dominance of one social class over others (Gramsci, 1971). Pedersen (2002) defined hegemonic masculinity as the general acceptance of masculinity as the primary characteristic of Western society that places women in positions below men. In hegemonic masculine societies, masculinity is the standard from which everything else is measured, and masculine traits are the most desired and valued in society (Connell, 1995). Numerous scholars have contended sport serves as a hegemonic institution to preserve the power of men over women (e.g., Bryson, 1990; Hargreaves, 1994).

Elueze and Jones (1998) wrote mass media have reinforced the differences between the sexes by presenting a masculine sports hegemony. This has been accomplished in at least four different ways. First, media serve to perpetuate a male-dominated sports hegemony by simply refusing to cover, or very minimally providing coverage to female athletes and women's sports. Second, the limited overall coverage of female athletes, in turn, results in the general public under-estimating the number of women participating in competitive athletics. Furthermore, sport media often only cover sporting events that help reinforce stereotypical feminine images

and portrayals of women athletes. Finally, when sport media professionals do cover female sporting events, they often minimize or trivialize women's athletic accomplishments through their use of language or commentaries (Duncan & Messner, 2000; Kane, 1996; Theberge & Cronk, 1986; Vincent, Pedersen, Whisenant, & Massey, 2007).

Since media members are alleged to help uphold masculine hegemony in sport, it is important to examine female representation in the sport media profession, as well as research on sport media members' attitudes and experiences.

GENDER OF SPORTSWRITERS: FEMALE REPRESENTATION

The lack of women in the sport media profession, particularly in positions of power (i.e., editors, producers, managers), supports the notion the sport media is a masculine hegemonic institution (Hardin, 2005; Pedersen, Whisenant, & Schneider, 2003; Trujillo, 1991). Back in the early 1970s, the Associated Press estimated only about 25 women were employed as full-time sportswriters at American daily newspapers (Creedon, 1994). The Association for Women in Sports Media (AWSM), which represents female sports journalists from a variety of fields, estimated in the early 1990s that women comprised just 3% of the United States' roughly 10,000 professional print and broadcast sports journalists (Creedon, 1994).

A 1998 survey of the top-rated newspaper sports sections by the Associated Press Sports Editors (APSE) showed papers with larger circulations generally had a higher percentage of females on staff in their sports departments. For the top-10 rated papers with daily circulations under 50,000, 9.2% of sports employees were women (Etling, 2002). Those figures increased to 13.5% for circulations between 50,000-175,000 and 18.5% for the top-10 highest rated papers with circulations of more than 175,000 (Etling, 2002).

In the most recent and most thorough study on female representation in newspaper sports departments, Lapchick, Brenden, and Wright (2006) surveyed more than 300 daily newspapers, finding women comprised 12.6% of newspaper sport staff employees. However, women were most represented in lesser positions. Women made up 24% of the support staff and clerks, while men accounted for 95% of sports editors, 87% of assistant sports editors, 93% of columnists, 93% of reporters, and 87% of copy editors/designers in U.S. newspaper sports departments (Lapchick et al., 2006).

In recent years major newspaper corporations have made attempts to diversify their staffs, which include the hiring of women in sports departments. However, there is a small talent pool being developed to choose from even when newspapers do make a conscientious effort to hire female sportswriters. Wann, Schrader, Allison, and McGeorge (1998) discovered females wrote only 3% of sports articles in selected college newspapers. When they learn that sports sections of college newspapers are almost entirely comprised of males, the authors contended potential female sports journalists may be swayed to work for another section of the student newspaper or simply lose interest in sport journalism (Wann et al., 1998).

GENDER OF SPORTSWRITERS: ATTITUDES AND EXPERIENCES

Some authors have placed the blame for the disparities in coverage directly upon members of the sport media (Coakley, 2004; Cohen, 1993). However, few researchers have examined media members' attitudes toward women's sports. Most of these studies have either focused entirely on the attitudes and responses of female sport journalists, or on media members in positions of power, such as newspaper editors.

Until recently, Cramer (1994) was the only known researcher to explore female sport journalists' beliefs and attitudes toward media coverage of women's sports. Cramer (1994) found carrying a women's sports beat drastically hinders opportunities for professional advancement. Therefore, many female sport journalists do not seek to cover women's sports, in large part due to a lack of career enhancement opportunities and a perceived lack of interest in women's sports from newspaper readers (Miloch, Pedersen, Smucker, & Whisenant, 2005).

Hardin and Shain (2005a) found similar results in recent interviews with female sport journalists. This implies female sportswriters may help uphold masculine hegemony in sport. Pedersen et al. (2003) concluded, "...hegemonic masculinity is entrenched in the sports media regardless of the gender of the persons making the decisions, writing the stories, or taking the photographs" (p. 388).

Researchers (Hardin & Shain, 2005a; Smucker, Whisenant, & Pedersen, 2003) found female sport journalists expressed a high amount of overall job satisfaction but were frustrated by a lack of promotion opportunities. Women may also be less likely to try to alter the norms of a newspaper sports staff, since a high number of women believe their gender helps them initially get hired at some newspapers (Hardin & Shain, 2005a).

Hardin and Shain (2005b) noted most female sport journalists described a lack of respect directly related to their gender from male colleagues and fans as a regular part of their work experience. In addition, most female journalists feel they have to prove themselves as competent more than their male colleagues. This would be difficult to do through primarily covering women's sports, which are not generally held in high esteem by most employees in newspaper sports departments (Hardin & Shain, 2005a).

Female sportswriters also believe they are more likely to be pigeonholed into covering women's sports or writing human-interest stories (Miloch et al., 2005). Hardin and Shain (2005b) found 58% of surveyed female sport journalists disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement, "If more women worked in the sports media, women's sports would get more coverage" (p. 813).

It is difficult and unjustified to blame exclusively sportswriters for the lack of coverage of women's sports in daily newspapers because those in managerial positions often make decisions regarding which sports receive coverage. Salwen and Garrison (1998) learned participating sports editors ranked diversity issues last among the nine major problems facing the field of sports journalism, while Hardin (2005) discovered only 59% of surveyed sport editors felt they had any obligation to have female representation on their staffs.

Hardin (2005) did find, though, female sports editors may be slightly more likely to include coverage of women's sports in daily newspapers, although the sample size of five female editors out of 283 responding sports editors was too low to generalize. Pedersen et al. (2003) found female editors did not provide more equitable coverage of women's sports than male editors in a study on the 43 largest daily newspapers in Florida.

Many of these cited studies examined the statistical representation, attitudes or experiences of female sportswriters, or sports editors in general. However, no known academic study has included interviews with both female and male sportswriters. Since males make up 93% of both sports columnists and sportswriters at daily newspapers, it would seem logical to find out their gender-related attitudes and experiences, in addition to those of female sportswriters (Lapchick et al., 2006).

GUIDING QUESTIONS AND RATIONALE

No researchers have attempted to examine the experiences and attitudes of both female and male sportswriters to discern similarities and differences. This is important since the gender-related experiences of sportswriters, as well as their attitudes towards men's and women's sports, likely impact the quality and possibly the quantity of coverage given to various men's and women's sports. Therefore, there are two guiding research questions for this exploratory study:

RQ1: What are the gender-related experiences of sportswriters pre- and post-entrance to the profession?

RQ2: Are there attitudinal differences between female and male writers with regards to women's sports?

METHODOLOGY

This research drew principally from hegemony theory (Bocock, 1986; Gramsci, 1971), recognizing that sport serves as a hegemonic institution to preserve the power of men over women (Duncan, 2006; Hargreaves, 1994). Semi-structured interviews were conducted with six sportswriters from across the United States. These semi-structured interviews followed oral history protocol as described by Sommer and Quinlan (2002). This meant that all interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed in full, and then the sportswriters interviewed were given copies of the transcription to check for accuracy.

An interview guide was created to gauge the experiences and gender-related attitudes of these sportswriters. During the construction of the interview guide, the researcher recognized that masculine hegemony is prevalent in sport and sport media. However, questions were left open-ended and were not slanted in an attempt to reinforce the notion that the sport media industry is a masculine hegemonic domain (Hardin & Shain, 2005b).

These six sportswriters were purposefully selected to represent a diverse sample in terms of experience, gender, and geographic location. It should be noted the author of this study worked as a professional sports journalist for nearly 10 years, primarily in newspapers. However, the researcher attempted to employ more of an etic perspective for this study, meaning that he attempted to discard any attitudes formed during his experiences as a member of the sport media.

Furthermore, he employed the qualitative technique of bracketing, listing any pre-conceived assumptions he had before the interviews and then setting them aside, only mentioning them in this study if they emerged from the data (Husserl, 1964; Patton, 2002). Ironically, of the five pre-conceived major assumptions, only one emerged after coding as a theme. Three were actually refuted.

However, the researcher did use some of the contacts he had formed from his professional experiences as a sportswriter working at newspapers and in magazines in four different states across the country to approach each of these writers about participating in the study. All six interviewees were employed in the United States during the interview process. Two were employed in the South, one lived on the East Coast, another in the Midwest and two more resided on the West Coast.

Among the interviewees, three are males and three are females. One male and one female are relatively inexperienced, having served as staff writers and editors at college newspapers, with one of the two also having a minimal amount of professional experience through internships

and freelance work. One male and one female are veteran writers who worked for several newspapers, although both eventually left the newspaper industry to take other positions in sport media. The other two are both highly successful in the sport media profession by most standards. The male serves as an editor at a prominent national sports magazine. He has also held positions of staff writer and editor at several newspapers representing a variety of circulation sizes. The female is a general assignment reporter at a major metropolitan daily newspaper. She has also worked at multiple newspapers.

Both of the two highly successful writers have covered such prestigious events as the Bowl Championship Series national championship college football game, the National Collegiate Athletic Association men's basketball tournament, the Super Bowl, and the World Series. All six journalists were given aliases and assured that attempts would be made to keep their identities confidential. Two interviews were conducted in person, while four were completed over the phone. Interviews lasted between 45-95 minutes each.

In an attempt to search for key concepts, data from the interviews were coded following qualitative research guidelines set by Miles and Huberman (1994). Theoretical memos and eventually definitional memos were written on reoccurring concepts (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995). The constant comparative method was employed to decipher and define key concepts by unifying their supporting data (Glasser & Strauss, 1967; Turner, 1981).

A CONCEPTUAL MODEL OF GENDER IN SPORTSWRITING

From reoccurring trends and patterns in the codes and theoretical memos, three primary themes emerged, all of which had several reoccurring themes fall under each theme. These themes reinforced the notion that female and male sportswriters grow up in a masculine hegemonic sports world and that masculine hegemony remains prevalent after their entrance into sports journalism.

PRIMARY THEME 1: The socialization process of attitudinal formation toward men's and women's sports is similar for all sportswriters, but some of the gender-related personal experiences leading up to sports writing careers differ between men and women.

Three reoccurring themes supported this primary theme. First, society is structured so that males are steered into sports writing, while women are not. Second, all six reporters grew up fans of men's sports far more than women's sports, including the females, even though all three participated in organized sports through high school. Third, there is a general perception among the writers that attitudes favoring men's sports are ingrained into the general culture.

Research in sport gender issues has shown young boys are more likely to be socialized by their families and peer groups to participate in and follow sports (Adler & Adler, 1998). This pattern of socialization also appears to hold true for steering young boys into the male-dominated profession of sport journalism. All of the men interviewed in this study had aspirations of becoming sportswriters at early ages and they all started pursuing that career while in high school. More importantly, all three male reporters also cited external encouragement to pursue careers as sportswriters.

Sam Thomas, the most experienced of all the writers interviewed, started covering high school football for his local weekly newspaper when he was 14. Thomas, though, said he might have not been given that opportunity if he were female.

If I would have shown up as a ninth-grade student who is a girl and said I want to cover football at a really small paper with an old-time sports editor, I think there would have been some reluctance to hire me; or I think there would have been a greater desire to have me prove that I actually knew what I was talking about. I think as a ninth-grade boy, they kind of expected that I knew football and were okay with sending me out.

John Cox, one of the two college students interviewed in this study, actually started doing freelance work for a fairly large daily newspaper while still in high school. "It was sort of my way of being around sports even more and getting a profession out of it in a way," he said. Bill Jones only worked for his school newspaper while in high school, but all of his educational and career moves in subsequent years were made to improve his chances at a career in sports writing.

In contrast, none of the three women interviewed dreamt about a career in sports journalism as teenagers. Maybe this is because they saw few female role models in the profession or because no one ever discussed sports writing with them as a career option when they were younger. Moreover, two of the three dubbed their eventual entrance into the profession an "accident." Shelly Smith, one of the two more experienced of the women interviewed, was interested in pursuing a career in journalism but had never considered one in sports. She was working for her college newspaper when her school set up a career-day lunch for her with one of its alumni, a man who happened to be the sports editor at the major newspaper in her hometown.

At that time I thought I wanted to go into news or features, and then all the sudden I got a call probably about three or four months after the lunch saying they had an opening in the sports department. I thought well this might be a good way to get my foot at the door, or at least at the paper; so I started working there as kind of an editorial assistant/clerk in the sports department.

Kathy Jones, the female college writer interviewed, had a unique entrance into sports writing. She went to her campus newspaper to apply for a job in photography, but ended up a sportswriter even though she had never done any kind of professional or student newspaper reporting. In fact, she had never thought about doing such work. "The sports editor and the photography editor shared an office, and the photo editor was out," said Jones, who had only worked in the industry for 10 months at the time of this interview and thus was by far the most inexperienced writer among the six individuals interviewed. "The sports editor asked if I would be interested in writing for him and eventually he would - when the photo editor got back - he would talk to him and I could go over and work for him."

Pam Franklin, in contrast, was interested in writing, so she went to the campus-sponsored student newspaper at her university. They had her fill out a questionnaire on what she would be interested in covering and she listed sports as one of her top choices. "Sports was on the list and I've always liked sports, so I chose that," Franklin said. "But it's not like I always wanted to be a sportswriter."

However, these results should not be generalized to all female and male sportswriters. Obviously, some women dream of becoming sportswriters from a young age, while some men probably stumble into the profession by accident as well later in life. Cramer (1994) interviewed 19 female sport journalists, including 11 from newspapers. The author found several of these women discovered at a young age that they loved both sports and writing, and found the profession of sports writing as a way to combine the two. However, it should be

noted that these 19 women included some of the most successful and recognizable women sport journalists in the country. Therefore, their experiences may be significantly different than women sport journalists who work for lower-profile media outlets, such as the three interviewed for this study.

Despite the differences in how they entered the industry, all six reporters claimed to have grown up sports fans. But when asked to specifically name their favorite sports to follow as fans or to report on, all six also named primarily men's sports, supporting the notion of a masculine hegemonic sports world (Schell & Rodriguez, 2000). When a sport is played by both genders, such as basketball, writers always clarified after asked that they were referring only to men playing that sport. In fact, only three writers mentioned any women's sports among their favorites, with one male saying he likes to cover women's tennis, a female who enjoys women's swimming, and the most experienced female writer listing women's track among her favorites. None of the three listed a women's sport as their top choice to cover or follow as a fan.

These findings are particularly relevant in light of the quantitative differences that previous researchers have found exist in the amount of coverage given to women's and men's sports by daily newspapers, particularly since one constant trend in this study was that five of the journalists claimed a great deal of autonomy in deciding what events and athletes they wrote about (Duncan, Messner, & Williams, 1991; Lee, 1992; Vincent, Imwold, Johnson, & Massey, 2003). In fact, five of the six writers said they choose or chose their own assignments at least 60% of the time over their careers. The one exception was the most experienced female who said she was assigned stories 95% of the time over her career. This contrasted findings by Miloch et al. (2005) who found female sportswriters expressed frustration and a lack of control over the assignments they had received. However, findings from this research supported those by Hardin and Shain (2005b), who concluded scholars cannot simply blame the lack of coverage given to women's sports on newspaper management or on the mostly male writers who permeate the industry, since women are just as likely to aspire to cover men's sports as male writers.

Instead, this implies there is a societal difference in views on women's and men's sports that appears to be ingrained into attitude formation at an early age. Veteran reporter Shelly Smith elaborated, "It may still have something to do with some in society being sexist and thinking that a woman's place is in the kitchen, which is sad and horrible to even say those words, because I obviously don't believe that."

PRIMARY THEME 2: Once they enter the profession, female and male sportswriters have many different gender-specific experiences, which lead to different attitudes and views toward women in the profession. In general, men are treated as the "standard" in sports writing, while women are considered "the other" in the profession.

This primary theme was supported by seven underlying themes. First, male reporters believe that female sportswriters receive preferential hiring and treatment from management due to their sex. This, in turn, leads to some animosity toward female journalists amongst the mostly male sports staff members. Third, women reporters perceive they are treated well by co-workers so long as they act like one of the boys. Fourth, management gives different types of writing assignments to female staffers and these assignments appear to be based on psychological stereotypes. Fifth, women reporters are likely to receive different and often negative treatment from the subjects they interview, such as athletes, coaches, and team officials. Overall, there appears to be a general perception and expectation that readers and subscribers prefer to see copy from and interact with male sportswriters. Finally, despite their

claims that women have some advantages in the profession, all of the men interviewed said that from an overall standpoint women are disadvantaged in the profession. All of these reoccurring themes seem to imply that males represent the standard in sports writing, while women are considered the other, which was alluded to by several reporters in this study and had been discovered by previous researchers (e.g., Duncan, 2006; Staurowsky & DiManno, 2002).

The two veteran male reporters contended that some female sportswriters are hired and promoted strictly because of their gender. One of the veteran females, however, believed the opposite was true. Both of the veteran males claimed they had been passed over for jobs or promotions by newspapers that hired what they perceived as less-qualified female applicants. "I've seen it hurt some particular papers, where males have been passed over, basically because the job was mandated for a woman," Bill Jones said. "It was not advertised for a woman, but the position was created with a woman in mind." Sam Thomas, who as an editor is responsible for hiring writers, offered a similar account when he said, "There have been times I've known where in the push to make sure a staff has diversity, there have been female sports writers who have been hired probably beyond where they were really ready to be at that point."

Shelly Smith, who last worked in a 35-person sports department where she was often the only female on staff, has heard these claims before. However, she vehemently disagreed with the notion that women sportswriters have an overall advantage due to their minority status within the profession.

I have female friends who work at other papers and they are sometimes in the same situation where there are only one or two in a 30-plus sports department. We have all sort of talked about how we imagine there's a glass ceiling as far as getting promoted. A lot of people I remember would say, 'oh, you're a woman in sports. That's considered a minority and that's really cool, because you're going to end up getting whatever you want.' Well, actually for the most part at least in the last five or six years from what I've seen it hasn't worked that way at all. In fact, I feel that it has worked against women.

Smith's contentions of a lack of promotional opportunities or a glass ceiling for women in sport media have been supported by several studies (Hardin, 2005; Lapchick et al., 2006). However, Pam Franklin, the most experienced of the female writers interviewed, alluded to her gender possibly helping her attain one of the four full-time jobs she has held in the industry.

I've had people say that there are probably a lot of people who just get opportunities because they are female. In fact, my third job, I was with a friend (in that city) who knew the business and he said the paper is looking for a sportswriter, and a female in particular. Well, I said that doesn't seem right, but I am going to apply and I did thinking if they hired me just because I am female, I'll show them I can do the job by virtue of my work here. I guess it's like a minority hiring, where people feel that they have a quota or that we need to get minorities in here.

Both veteran men interviewed also spoke of perceived favoritism exhibited by management toward women reporters, which they claimed include better opportunities to cover marquee events and a tendency to let mistakes by younger female reporters go unpunished. These contentions were best summed up in one example from Bill Jones.

Well, I remember the first night a girl actually came onto the staff one time. She got stuck with a triple-overtime (football) game of all things. It was a nice introduction for her. But she felt that she needed a cup of tea when she got back. She had to go make her hot tea, keeping in mind that this game was a triple-overtime football game in high school on a Friday night when the deadline was pretty pressing. They pretty much kind of bent the deadline for the girl. That was the first night and I guess she kind of had some other incidents where she was kind of allowed a get-out-of-jail card or a free pass on something that probably a male would have been ripped for right way. I can't say that for sure, but I felt like she was definitely given preferential treatment for that reason. It was a difficult thing to watch, knowing that if you had done the same exact same thing, there would have been no mercy given to you.

The perception that women are often hired due to their sex and are given preferential treatment by management created animosity and resentment toward female writers on many sports staffs, according to the two veteran men reporters, including this one account by editor Sam Thomas:

To be honest, and this sounds sexist, but I've read when I've picked up another paper - and this could have happened with a guy too - but it was a female sportswriter who I had heard disparaging comments about how she doesn't really know sports and she was being sent out to cover stuff that was over her head. Then, I read a game story where it was clear that she didn't have a comprehension of the basic rules of the sport and I don't even know how that actually even got in the newspaper. It should have been caught at the editing stage. But it's something where I've heard those kind of disparaging comments at times, where it's like, 'well, she got that job, because they needed a woman sports writer.'

Ironically, despite such claims, all three of the men interviewed said they believe that women are disadvantaged in sports writing, supporting previous researchers who concluded the sport media is a masculine hegemonic domain, where women are not welcomed (e.g., Hardin & Shain, 2005a; Pedersen et al., 2003). In fact, all three male writers in this study said they would probably or definitely not be in newspaper sports journalism if they were the other gender. John Cox cited a simple binary contrast based on appearances and stereotypes as to his gender's advantage.

When a boss has a male come in and says, 'I know a lot about sports and this is what I want to do;' Unfortunately that's different then if a woman walked in and said, 'I know a lot about sports.'

Somewhat surprisingly, all three of the women interviewed said they have always been treated well by their mostly male co-workers. This mirrored findings by Miloch et al. (2005), but contradicted other researchers (Hardin & Shain, 2005a; Staurowsky & DiManno, 2002). However, Shelly Smith and Pam Franklin did allude to occasional mistreatment from superiors, as did the veteran male reporter, Bill Jones. Both women, though, mentioned that they are not easily offended by raunchy male humor, which they claim is prevalent among newspaper sports department employees.

Therefore, based on these interviews, it appears women are more likely to be treated well by their colleagues so long as they act like one of the guys, assimilate into a masculine hegemonic social structure, and, apparently, do not drink hot tea near deadline. "I went out with the guys," Shelly Smith said of her male colleagues. "We'd go out after football games, and hang

out and drink. They would still tell dirty jokes around me. It wasn't like they acted like, 'Oh, there's a woman, we can't say that.' They pretty much treated me on an equal basis."

Shelly Smith believes the problems she had in dealing with management at her last newspaper would have been mitigated if she were male. Similarly, Franklin said she has been treated well by her superiors at three newspapers. But her sex made her very uncomfortable at one of her first papers, where she was the target of sexual jokes, treated differently by her sports editor due to her gender, and was the brunt of a lewd joke by the male assistant sports editor. "I want to make clear that there was only one paper where I heard a ton of (sexist comments)," Franklin said. "I certainly could have sued that paper for sexual harassment and probably not had to work again."

Franklin said the sports editor at that paper once sent another writer to a football coaches meeting, telling her that if she went to the meeting "then the coaches won't be able to fart, burp, or cuss, and you'll make them feel uncomfortable." But her most negative experience at this paper came when the assistant sports editor sent her an electronic message on a shared server used by all employees in the sports department, informing her that he had placed a story in her electronic folder that she needed to read.

He sent a story to my basket on breast implants and he titled it 'help for you.' I remember that I was pissed. I remember slamming my hand on the table and saying 'take that out of my basket now or I'm going to the main editor,' and he took it out.

Based on these interviews it appears management is also more likely to assign different types of stories to female reporters, often having them do heart-felt features or cover predominantly women's sports. "I've seen some female sportswriters who essentially get tagged to the female sports writing ghetto essentially of covering women's sports," Thomas said. "I've seen some who kind of get pegged to do features. They're not going to be a beat writer." Without getting the opportunity to serve as a beat writer and thus having better opportunities to break news, writers have fewer chances at promotion (Hardin & Shain, 2005a; Lowes, 1997; Theberge & Cronk, 1986). Shelly Smith's experiences substantiated Thomas' assessment.

I think women's sports reporters are treated differently. Sometimes editors want someone who is sympathetic and sensitive. Sometimes I think that others think that because I am a woman that I am more geared to cover the women's sports, which is kind of narrow-minded. I can't say this about every paper, but just from my experience at the last paper I was at, it's almost like the male management wanted to make you prove that you belong in the sports department at all, just giving, I'd say crap assignments. Assignments they know that other guys wouldn't want to do or would complain about, but I would take it and do it. For example, a lot of the local writers during the summer would get to do back-up on (name of a Major League Baseball team) games. All of them got to do it except for me, because I was the only female. These were the sort of things that were frustrating, because I saw the men were getting opportunities that I wasn't. It seemed like I was constantly having to bring that to their attention, but yet nothing was ever done about it.

Franklin said she has been fortunate to be assigned a wide variety of women's and men's sports to cover, but that Smith's assessment often holds true for many female sportswriters she knows. "One thing I hate and can't stand is that at some papers some of the women are pigeon holed into covering the women's sports beat or minor sports," she said. These claims support the findings of Cramer (1994), who after interviewing a variety of female sports journalists concluded, "Because women's sports on the whole receive the least amount of coverage, being

deemed not newsworthy, having a women's sports beat carries almost no weight for professional advancement" (p. 168).

Historically, the few women sport journalists were not allowed in male team sport locker rooms until Melissa Ludke of *Sports Illustrated* filed a successful sexual discrimination lawsuit against the New York Yankees baseball club, which had denied her the same locker room access that male reporters received at the 1977 World Series (Creedon, 1994). Over the next 15 years, there were several high-profile incidents of female reporters being mistreated by male athletes or coaches, most notably the mistreatment of *Boston Herald* reporter Lisa Olsen, who was sexually harassed in a locker room by players on the New England Patriots.

However, through her interviews with 33 female sports journalists, Bruce (2002) found that most women sport reporters judged the vast majority of their male-female locker room interactions to be positive or at least unproblematic. Miloch et al. (2005) discovered similar results. Therefore, these findings implied that a reporter's gender is no longer a major issue in professional male sport team locker rooms or at least not near the major issue it was up until the early 1990s.

Supporting that notion, the three women in this study generally said they encountered few problems in male team sports locker rooms. However, some of the most eye-popping quotes and anecdotes offered by writers from both genders had to deal with treatment women sports reporters receive from the subjects they interviewed. One may have surmised that athletes and coaches at the highest levels of sport would be less likely to offer sexist comments or direct lewd acts toward female journalists, particularly due to the negative media treatment given to athletes who had done so in the past. But Franklin said her experiences led her to believe that high-profile athletes were more likely to be sexist, possibly due to their egos or because they feel they have less to lose.

Franklin, who has covered Major League Baseball extensively, was once called a "pecker checker" after entering a clubhouse locker room. "One player was in (name of a MLB team's) locker room a few years ago," she said. "I don't know who that one was. I walked in and he yelled it." A year later, a well known pitcher uttered the same phrase as she and another female reporter approached his locker area. "There was a woman standing close to (name of player's) locker room and (name of companion sportswriter) and I both walked in while he was changing. He said, 'great, more pecker checkers.'" Franklin said that she has discussed these incidents with other members of the Association of Women in the Sport Media (AWSM) and found out that many experienced women at high levels of sport journalism have also had the phrase "pecker checker" directed toward them by athletes.

That's the term for male athletes who believe that female reporters are in there for one particular reason: to check them out. I've been (working) in (a major American city) for five years now and that's one of the few negative things that has been said to me. But that's nothing compared to what female sports journalists went through 20 or 30 years ago when they were fighting for the right just to get into locker rooms.

Franklin and Smith said such experiences impact their work styles. "I make sure I am always looking up and making sure I get my interviews done and then get out of there," Franklin said. "I definitely like to make sure that no one would ever be able to accuse me of looking at them." The male team sports locker room is a place for bonding, camaraderie, and rituals, but it appears from these anecdotes the locker room remains unwelcomed terrain for female reporters.

Shelly Smith said she encountered one incident where she felt that a minor-league hockey coach purposely made sexist comments in her presence. She said that was an extreme example, but that is common for male coaches to act as if she is a novice sports follower.

There have been a few instances where they don't think you understand the game or they'll try to break it down (laughs), which sometimes can almost seem condescending. They don't think I understand. I try to be like polite and say, 'oh, I know. I've been following the games for years. No worries. I totally understand.' I try to politely let them know they don't have to break this down for me.

Sam Thomas, who claims to have worked with or along side more than 100 women sport journalists, offered a similar perspective. But both Thomas and Bill Jones mentioned that they have personally seen incidents when male athletes appear to make sexual overtures at female reporters. "I've known some instances where a female sportswriter has to prove herself more that she understands the game," Thomas said. "I've also seen a female sportswriter who the athletes were more interested in hitting on her than they are in answering questions."

Interestingly, both of the veteran male writers claim to conduct their best interviews with female athletes, while the two veteran female reporters noticed no gender differences in their interviews with athletes. "(Women) are more professional even if it's at the high school level when you are interviewing them," Bill Jones said. "You're not as impressed by their physical skills, but in a lot of ways they make up for it in terms of drama or like I said, professionalism."

The female reporters in this study undoubtedly received more negative comments and innuendo from newspaper readers and subscribers than their male writing counterparts. Shelly Smith learned early in her career that individuals who phone newspaper sports departments are often surprised to hear a female voice.

I had to take calls from readers and they'd be like, 'oh, I'm trying to reach sports,' and I'm like, 'you are, this is sports.' Then, they'd be like, 'oh, but you're a woman,' and I'd be like 'yeah, but I work in sports.' There were actually a few people who refused to talk to me, because I was a woman and they wanted to talk to a male sports reporter.

Thomas said that women with non-gender specific first names receive fewer calls from readers who want to complain than writers with traditional feminine names. The opposite effect holds true for men, he said.

If readers see a name and it's Kathy, it's different than if it's John. I've actually known some female sportswriters who had gender-neutral names and they would not get as many of those negative comments. I've also known a couple of male sportswriters with gender-neutral names who would get those comments a little bit. Someone would call in to complain and say, 'I want to talk to so and so,' and you're like, 'well, you're talking to him,' and they say, 'I thought that was a woman.' So I do think from the public - especially depending on from what area you're from, especially in a smaller-town area - there is kind of an attitude that a female sportswriter has to prove something more than the male sportswriter does.

If experiences of these writers are similar for many other sportswriters, this indicates that some views toward women sportswriters have not changed much since the late 19th century when Sadie Kneller Miller - who covered the Baltimore Orioles for the now defunct Baltimore Telegram and may have been the first female sports beat writer in the country - published

under the byline SKM to disguise her gender from readers (Creedon, 1994). All of these themes combined indicate that males are the standard in newspaper sports reporting, while women are considered the other; both of which support the contention that masculine hegemony is prevalent within sport media (Duncan, 2006; Schell & Rodriguez, 2000). According to John Cox - in a theme that was echoed by three other writers in this study - this perception exists among most people in the sports world.

I think in this business it's hard for you to be treated differently as a male, because I think the male is sort of the standard. I don't think I've ever been treated any differently because of my gender. I'd be lying if I said it would not be harder for a woman to do exactly what I've done in the last five years. It's just something that comes natural. It's just that the hypothetical fan is a male, the hypothetical athlete is a male, and because of that I think the hypothetical sportswriter is a male.

PRIMARY THEME 3: Once they enter the media profession, female and male sportswriters generally exhibit and convey similar overall attitudes toward women's and men's sports.

This primary theme was supported by four reoccurring themes: First, an overall negative attitude toward women's sports and female athletes permeates through most newspaper sports departments. Next, a perception exists among writers and editors that readers want to see mostly coverage of male sports, because they are deemed more important to the masses. However, additional coverage is given to female athletes who offer a wide stream sex appeal. Third, newspaper sport journalism is a competitive industry. Thus, sports staff members at these newspapers feel the need to publish mostly stories on men's sports, because that is what their primary competitor newspapers usually do. Finally, few writers from either gender seek women's sports beats because they believe that would hinder opportunities for career advancement and peer recognition.

Only the young college male writer interviewed in this study believes his staff exhibits a decent attitude toward women's sports. Kathy Jones, the college female writer, said, "Men's sports' get the better writers and (we) consistently send people to their games. The women's sports tend to be a little bit of joke when it comes to like who is going to cover it." Those negative attitudes toward women's sports appear to only become more pronounced in the professional ranks, although writers may not be so overt in expressing their views. "They were pretty down on it, I would say," Bill Jones said of his colleagues' overall views toward women's sports at his last newspaper, which incidentally did not employ a woman in the sports department and had not done so in at least 10 years.

There were a lot of Waspy type of guys, you know what I mean: old school, never had really been brought up with women's sports as viable entertainment, and I guess, as a media event. So I think they all kind of laughed and looked down upon their efforts, and found pretty much no news values in their stories; and I think that reflected pretty much in their coverage as well.

Both Jones and Shelly Smith said that male reporters were more inclined to cover women's professional sports if they found the athletes physically attractive. Jones admitted that he felt the same way when asked which gender of athletes he preferred covering. "Oh yeah, men's sports, unless maybe Anna Kournikova is playing or something than I would definitely say women's sports," Jones said before bursting into laughter.

Franklin said that as she moved into larger papers she heard less sexist language from her colleagues but also saw less coverage of women's sports in her newspaper. "You really - especially at my paper - have to struggle to get women's sports covered in the paper," she said. "At the beginning, you really push for it. But at this point, I don't even push for it anymore."

While admitting that as an editor he has assigned many more writers to cover men's sports than women's sports, Sam Thomas contends that he is just fulfilling the wishes of his readers. To put in bluntly, it's an interesting debate," he said about his last paper's coverage of women's sports.

You will hear people say that these sports are covered not as well as they should and if they were there would be more interest in them. I do understand at the same time from when I was a sports editor, I don't look at what sports I can get people interested in. When I am making out the budget for the day, I am looking at what stories do I have that people are most interested in.

Thomas has a wealth of experience in the industry, working at three daily newspapers as an intern, prep writer, college beat reporter, pro beat writer, assistant sports editor, and sports editor before moving over to magazines. He said all of his experiences have indicated to him that the vast majority of readers prefer seeing copy of men's sports more so than articles on women's sports.

In general, the places I've been, if I put a college football story on the front as a centerpiece 40 days in a row during college football season, I'm not going to hear many complaints. When (auto racer) Dale Earnhardt died at Daytona, we sold 20,000 more papers over the next five days, because we had Earnhardt on front. We had one of the (NCAA) Division I-A women's college basketball teams that we covered go the Final Four and we put it in on front, and we didn't sell more papers. When the local NFL team made the Super Bowl, we sold more papers. It comes down to that. I do think it is true that if we put the WNBA out on the front more often, more people would probably be interested in the WNBA. But the question becomes should you put it on the front in a prominent place on a daily basis to build interest if that means that other people are going to call you and complain, because you are putting something else inside or cutting space from what they already are interested in.

All of the writers cited various evidence that men's sports are more popular among their readers, including attendance figures, television ratings, and phone calls to the office from readers. Cox said that men's sports always receive precedent over women's sports at his newspaper.

When there's a men's basketball story and a women's basketball story and only one can fit, the men's is getting it. I don't think that has anything to do with the fact that I like men's sports better. But it's what the people want. What will we catch more flack for not having in, a men's basketball story or a women's basketball story? Since there is more demand for the men's sports that would get in first. It's definitely happened before where we've had to choose and we always choose the men's.

Cox and Thomas both noted their direct competitors cover predominantly men's sports, so they feel the need to do likewise or risk losing readership. But Bill Jones took more of a national perspective in his outlook. "It's just kind of the nature of the game," Jones said. "You look at

ESPN or any show like that, and they show 55 minutes of men's sports and five minutes of women's sports, maybe."

Finally, all the writers interviewed except for Cox said that covering mainly women's sports would significantly diminish or at least hinder a writer's chance of advancing their career.

Shelly Smith pointed out that there are no major beats covering women's sports at her paper, which does cover the local WNBA team but only sporadically. The general perception among these writers was that covering women's sports means fewer people read your stories, which Sam Thomas alludes to in this quote:

Say you're the women's college basketball writer at a major metro, your average story is probably going on an inside page, in general. Say you do a really good feature, it's less likely to get kicked to the front of the paper than if you did it on a Major League baseball player, or a major college men's basketball or a football player. I covered women's basketball and I enjoyed it almost as much as men's basketball. The reason why men's basketball is more enjoyable is the simple fact that more people care about it. Writing always is somewhat of an ego standpoint. With that being the case, if more people are interested in it, then you like writing about it more usually.

DISCUSSION

Prior to data collection, two guiding research questions were postulated for this study: (a) What are the gender-related experiences of sportswriters pre- and post-entrance to the profession? (b) Are there attitudinal differences between female and male writers on women's sport? From the data gathered, it seemed fairly clear that female and male reporters in this study had numerous different gender-related experiences prior to entering professional sports writing.

The men in this study were socialized into sport and sports writing more so and at a much younger age than the participating women, although all of the interviewees grew up more as fans of men's sports much more than women's sports. Those differences between men and women sportswriters become even more pronounced after entering the profession. Women reportedly received differential treatment from management, co-workers, the subjects they interviewed, and newspaper readers, many seemingly just because of their binary classification as female. These findings certainly reinforce the notion of both sport and the sport media as masculine hegemonic domains (Bryson, 1987; Connell, 1990; Schell & Rodriguez, 2000).

However, there was virtually no evidence in this study to support any notion that there are attitudinal differences toward women's sports between female and male sportswriters. This indicates that the structure and foundation of these attitudes must be altered among editors and writers before women's sports start receiving substantially more coverage and better quality coverage in daily newspapers. However, like most qualitative research, results from this study should not be generalized, particularly since a major limitation of this exploratory study was that only six journalists were interviewed, including no female managers at daily newspapers.

Future research on media members' attitudes and experiences should include interviews and surveys of more female and male sport journalists, representing different segments of the media industry (i.e., Internet, magazines, newspapers, radio, television). Moreover, studies should also be completed on the attitudes and experiences of sport media gatekeepers, such as television producers and newspaper sports editors.

Numerous content analyses have shown men's sports generally receive substantially more media coverage than women's sports (e.g., Eastman & Billings, 2000; Jones, Murrell, & Jackson, 1999), while qualitative analyses have revealed media content often portray female athletes differently through sexualizing their bodies, comparing their abilities and athleticism to men, and casting them in stereotypical gender roles (Christopherson, Janning, & McConnell, 2002; Vincent, 2004). However, there is a clear need for more research to see if quantitative and qualitative differences exist in media content based on the gender of sport journalists, since few studies have analyzed this area (Pedersen et al., 2003; Urquhart & Crossman, 1999; Vincent, 2004). Differences in gender-specific experiences and attitudes toward women's sports may affect the quality of coverage given to female athletes by sport reporters.

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APPENDIX 1**DATA SOURCES**

1. Interview with “Kathy Jones” (alias for a young rising female from a college student newspaper).
2. Interview with “John Cox” (alias for a young rising male from a college student newspaper).
3. Interview with “Bill Jones” (alias for a male who recently left the industry after a fairly successful career working for several different newspapers).
4. Interview with “Shelly Smith” (alias for a female who left the industry after a fairly successful career working for several different newspapers).
5. Interview with “Sam Thomas” (alias for a highly successful male who has been a sportswriter and editor at several newspapers, and is now an editor at a national magazine).
6. Interview with “Pam Franklin” (alias for a highly successful female who has been a sportswriters at several newspapers and works as a staff writer at a major metropolitan daily newspaper).

APPENDIX 2**INTERVIEW GUIDE**

NOTE: This was used as a guide to follow during interviews for sample questions. Not all questions were asked and additional ones were added as the interviewer probed for experiences and attitudes related to gender. Demographic characteristics and a moderate amount of career information were attained from each interviewee while setting up a date for the official interview.

1. How long have you been at your current paper?
2. Please tell me about your job duties?
3. What is that like?
4. What other positions have you held at your current paper?
5. Tell me about how you became a sportswriter?
6. Without providing any specific names or papers, what were some of the most encouraging experiences you had in your first few months in the profession?
7. Without providing any specific names or papers, what were some of the discouraging experiences you had over your first few months in the profession?
8. What were some of your most positive experiences as a sports reporter?
9. And your most negative experiences as a sports reporter?
10. What are your long-term plans in this profession?
11. Why do you want to stay/leave/unsure sports writing?
12. Overall, how satisfied are you as a sports journalist?
13. Has there ever been a time when you seriously considered leaving the industry?
14. What are your favorite sports to cover (Why)?
15. Have you ever been assigned to cover a sport that you didn't want to?
16. Tell me about that experience and your feelings?
17. How much individual choice do you have in what events/athletes you'll cover?
18. Overall, do you prefer covering men's sports or women's sports?
19. Has that always been your preference?
20. Tell me about your experiences covering women's sports?
21. Over your career, how much time have you spent covering women's sports?
22. What are the differences in covering men's and women's sports?
23. If you were to cover predominately women's sports, how would that affect your career advancement?
24. As far as you know, is sports writing helped or hurt by having women reporters?
25. Why?
26. In your experiences or things you've seen, do editors treat women and men sports reporters the same or different?
27. How about your co-workers, what differences do you notice in how they treat male and female sports reporters?
28. What about the athletes, coaches or other people being interviewed, what are the differences between how they treat male and female sports reporters?
29. When you do interviews, what do you differently when talking to women versus men athletes?
30. In your department, how would you describe the overall attitude toward women's sports?
31. Have you ever heard negative comments from your boss or higher-ups about women in sports journalism?
32. How about from your colleagues or reporters from other papers?
33. How has your gender impacted your career in this profession?
34. If you were the other gender, would your career in sports writing be different?
35. Is there anything I have not asked you about sports writing or sports reporters that you would like to add?

AN EXPLORATORY STUDY OF THE COLLEGE TRANSPLANT FAN

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INTRODUCTION

A recent research study focused on the special challenges facing professional sports organizations in attracting fans to games in markets with high percentages of transplants in the population (Clark, Schimmel, & Synowka, 2002). Individuals who have relocated, but still support sports teams outside their new local geographic area are referred to as “transplant fans” for the purposes of this study. However, the challenge of marketing to transplant fans is not limited to professional franchises. Many college athletic departments must contend with student bodies comprised of a high percentage of students who relocate when they attend college. For the purpose of this study they will be referred to as transplant students. There are two types of transplant students. The first type has typically grown up as a devoted fan of college athletic teams different from the institution they attend and have maintained that affiliation. Essentially, these transplant students are much more avid fans of this other institution than where they currently attend. The second type of transplant student originally was a devoted fan of the institution they attend or has developed into a devoted fan of their school. These transplant students are much more avid fans of the institution they currently attend than other collegiate teams. With the advent of the Internet and an increasing number of college football and basketball games on television each week, it is easier for fans to follow their teams and maintain their loyalty and interest. Many students are choosing to stay at home to watch their favorite team play rather than walking across campus to watch their institution’s teams play.

Even if students at a particular university gain admission to football or basketball games for free, attracting transplant students to games is just as important to college athletic departments as professional sports organizations. Increased student attendance at college sporting events drives merchandise, concessions, and parking revenue and can indirectly increase attendance by paying customers (university employees and local residents) by helping to create a more attractive, energetic, and winning atmosphere at games. Without question, finding methods of attracting more students who are lifelong fans of other schools is an important challenge facing many athletic departments across the country.

When looking at the sport marketing literature, little guidance for athletic departments on overcoming the challenges presented by transplanted student fans can be found. Two main streams of research have emerged in sports marketing - one on sports fans and another on the reasons for watching and following sports (Quick, 2000; James & Ridinger, 2002). While this research has helped develop profiles of fans and explain more about the motives for being fans (James & Ridinger, 2002), empirical research on transplanted student fans does not exist.

The main goal of this exploratory research is to identify the similarities and differences in characteristics and motives between college students whose favorite team is their university’s sports team and those who are fans of another team. This research should provide insights for athletic departments to use in developing promotional and marketing strategies to increase satisfaction among loyal fans and attract transplants to more games.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This section will begin with a brief overview of the two streams of sport marketing research identified by James and Ridinger (2002). It will conclude with a discussion of previous research on transplant fans and on other studies with comparisons made by fan characteristics.

RESEARCH ON SPORT FANS

Early research in the sports marketing literature focused on fans and tried to identify the economic and business factors that were positively related to sports attendance (Graham, 1992; Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Zhang, Smith, Pease, & Jambor, 1997) and the relationship between demographic variables and attendance or following of sports (Baade & Tiehan, 1990; Randl & Cuneen, 1994; Stotlar, 1995). The impact of winning and team performance on attendance also received considerable attention in this track (Greenstein & Marcum, 1981; Lapidus & Schibrowsky, 1996). Because much of this early research treated fans homogeneously, recent research has suggested categorizing fans into different typologies and then identifying the differences in the economic, business, demographic, and other factors among the fan categories (Quick, 2000). This type of research should provide sports marketers with a more detailed analysis of different market segments.

Another popular thread in this area has been on the effect of team or sport identification on fan behaviors or attitudes. Research in this area has shown that fans with strong team or sport identification attend more games (Murrell & Dietz, 1992), attribute a higher likelihood of future success for their favorite team (Wann & Dolan, 1994), have more enduring commitment to their team (Dietz-Uhler & Murrell, 1999), and that college students with a strong identification to the university's teams report higher levels of satisfaction, enjoyment, and involvement with the university (Wann & Robinson, 2002). A recent study by Wann and Waddill (2007) used disposition theory, which predicts fans enjoy watching their team perform well and watching a rival perform poorly, to evaluate fan reactions to events in individual sports.

RESEARCH ON MOTIVES FOR WATCHING AND FOLLOWING SPORTS

While research on sports fans has provided valuable insights into the who, what, and when of sports fan behaviors and the impact of sports marketing on fan behaviors, it has contributed very little to understanding why fans watch or follow particular sports or teams (James & Ridinger, 2002). Consequently, another research stream has emerged that examines the reasons, or motives, behind fan behaviors and consumption. Research in this area has examined the motives and influences for becoming a sports fan (Kahle, Kambara, & Rose, 1996; Kolbe & James, 2000; Wann, 1995) and which motives explain the most variance in team identification (Fink, Trail, & Anderson, 2002). Recently, Funk, Ridinger, and Moorman (2004) developed the Sport Interest Inventory, which examines the antecedents of involvement and motives for professional sports teams. Eighteen antecedents were identified that explained the four central tenets of involvement in sports teams: attraction (basketball interest, wholesome environment, style of play, excitement, entertainment value, family bonding, basketball knowledge, and customer service), self-expression (interest in player, interest in team, supporting women's opportunity in sport, players serving as role models, community pride, and drama), risk (vicarious achievement and escape), and centrality to lifestyle (bonding with friends and interacting with other spectators).

Importantly, much of the research in this stream has tried to identify the motives that explain fan behaviors and choices for watching and following sports and to develop multi-item scales to measure these motives (Kahle et al., 1996; Wann, 1995). Recently, Trail and James (2001) developed the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC), which appears to overcome some of the weaknesses in earlier motivation scales and demonstrates stronger reliability and validity. The nine motives for following sports assessed in the MSSC are achievement,

acquisition of knowledge, aesthetics, drama, escape, family, physical attractiveness of participants, quality of the physical skills of participants, and social interaction.

RESEARCH ON TRANSPLANTED FANS

The challenge of the transplanted fan is extremely important to sports franchises in popular cities experiencing tremendous population growth, such as Atlanta, Charlotte, or Phoenix, and at many universities without a strong regional or national fan base but many students who arrive on campus with strong fan loyalties to other college teams. Recently, Clark et al. (2002) examined the challenges facing the Atlanta Hawks because of the high number of transplants in Atlanta. They used image theory to explain the barriers facing the Hawks and recommended the use of strong loyalty programs to overcome the barriers inherent in a fan base with long relationships to other teams. While this study presents a good theoretical beginning for examining transplant fans, it did not empirically measure the attitudes, characteristics, behaviors, or motives of transplant fans.

Other related research, although not specifically focused on transplant fans, has studied sport consumption and behavior in group settings. Previous research has examined the similarities and differences between groups of fans based on several grouping variables, including gender (Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, End, & Jacquemotte, 2000; James & Ridinger, 2002; Swanson, Gwinner, Larson, & Janda, 2003), level of sport team identification (Wann & Robinson, 2002; Wann & Schrader, 1996), and preferences for types of sports (Wann, Schrader, & Wilson, 1999). To date, no research has used transplants as a grouping variable or extensively examined the characteristics, behaviors, and motives of transplants. This research provides a first step at uncovering more information about transplant fans by comparing transplant students that identify with their university's sports teams and those that do not.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Due to the exploratory nature of this study, research questions will be used instead of hypotheses. This research will try to identify differences among student transplant fans on a relatively thorough list of variables that have been examined in the sport marketing literature in the past 20 years.

Research Question #1: Do transplant students who are fans of their school's teams attend more sporting events than transplant students who are fans of another school?

It makes sense that students who are fans of their own school's teams would attend more games than other students. In fact, previous research has indicated that higher levels of team sport identification are positively related to attendance at sporting events and willingness to spend more on tickets to events (Wakefield, 1995; Wann & Branscombe 1993). It is also important to confirm whether the findings of this previous research applies to the attendance at university sporting events based on the types of transplant students under study in this research.

Research Question #2: Are transplant students who are fans of their own school's sports teams stronger fans of sports (in general) than transplant students who are fans of another institution?

Again, prior research offers little evidence on this question. On one hand, it could be argued that no difference in sport fandom would exist between the two transplant groups just because one group chose their home school as their favorite sports team. On the other hand, it is conceivable that students who arrive at college as fans of another team may consider

themselves stronger fans of sports than transplants that adopt their home university as their favorite team.

Research Question #3: Do transplant students who are fans of their school's teams report higher levels of satisfaction, enjoyment, and involvement in their university than transplant students who are fans of another school?

This research question builds on the research of Wann and Robinson (2002) who found that student identification with the team was correlated with higher levels of satisfaction, enjoyment, and involvement with their university. Based on these results, the transplant students who identify their home university as their favorite team should report significantly higher levels of satisfaction, enjoyment, and involvement with their university than other transplant students.

Research Question #4: Do transplant students who are fans of their school's teams report higher levels of identification with the school's teams than transplant students who are fans of another school?

Again, the natural assumption would be that students whose favorite team is their home university would report significantly higher levels of team identification, but this natural assumption should be tested to ensure that this perception is accurate.

Research Question #5: Do transplant students who are fans of their school's teams demonstrate different motives for following sports than transplant students who are fans of another school?

Motives for following sports have been receiving more attention in the literature. Recently, Fink et al. (2002) examined which motives were most salient in sport team identification, while James and Ridinger (2002) compared differences in motives between male and female sports fan. However, recent research on motives has not examined similarities and differences in motives among types of transplants. The results of this research question, whether there are significant differences or not, will provide guidance for marketing personnel in athletic departments.

METHOD

QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

A three-page questionnaire was developed to examine the research questions. In the first section of the questionnaire, respondents were asked to identify their favorite college basketball and college football team. Level of sport fandom in general, of college football, and of college basketball were measured with a 9-point item (1 = Not a Fan at All and 9 = Extremely Loyal Fan) used by James and Ridinger (2002). Surveys were distributed in the spring quarter, so students were asked how many of the university's home football and basketball games they had attended in the previous school year. They were also asked how many college basketball and football games they attended in the previous year at other schools. The final set of questions in the first section asked students their level of enjoyment and satisfaction with the university, whether the university has met their expectations, and whether they have been extremely involved in the university. The four items were asked with a 7-point Likert scale used by Wann and Robinson (2002).

The second section of the questionnaire contained three versions of the Sport Spectator Identification Scale (SSIS) first developed by Wann and Branscombe (1993). The SSIS is a tested and reliable instrument that uses seven items to measure the cognitive, affective, and

behavioral response of fans to sports teams. Respondents were asked to complete the SSIS for the university's football team, basketball team, and for all other sports at the school.

The third section of the questionnaire contained a modified version of the Motivation Scale for Sport Consumption (MSSC) developed by Trail and James (2001). The MSSC measures motivations behind sport spectator consumption behavior. As previously mentioned, the nine motives for following sports assessed in the MSSC are achievement, acquisition of knowledge, aesthetics, drama, escape, family, physical attractiveness of participants, quality of the physical skills of participants, and social interaction. Because the questionnaire was being distributed by college professors to college students in classes, it was decided that the physical attractiveness items should be excluded from the survey. This step has been taken by other researchers when deemed appropriate (Fink et al., 2002). In addition, the third item on the escape motive was eliminated because it referenced only attending events in the summer. Two of the items for the family motive section were also eliminated because they asked about going to games with a spouse and children. They were replaced by an item about going to games with friends.

The final section of the questionnaire contained demographic questions, including age, gender, hometown, ethnicity, grade point average, and whether they played varsity sports in high school and college.

DATA COLLECTION

Questionnaires were distributed in fifteen different classes at a medium-sized public university in a traditional small college town and relatively isolated from any major media market or population base. Although approximately 90% of the students are from the state, few are from the county where the university resides. Although non-probability sampling was used, attempts were made to collect data from students in multiple colleges within the university. A total of 284 questionnaires were collected. Because the purpose of this research was to make comparisons by type of transplants, seven surveys were eliminated because the respondents' hometown was in the same county as the university. Another four surveys were deemed unusable because of excessive missing information, leaving an analysis sample of 273.

DESCRIPTION OF THE SAMPLE

The analysis sample was largely representative of the population of students at the university. Approximately 56% of the respondents were female and the average age of the respondents was 20.68 years of age. Ethnicity was representative as well with 94.4% of the respondents listing Caucasian as their ethnicity and only 5.6% from one of several minority groups. Just fewer than 90% of the respondents were from the home state of the university, with an average grade point average of 3.23.

A few of the demographic characteristics of the sample were slightly non-representative. Breakdown by year in school was 12.1% freshman, 32.0% sophomore, 25.7% junior, 25.7% senior, and 4.4% graduate students, leaving freshmen underrepresented in the sample. Also, 27.7% of the students reported membership in a sorority or fraternity, which is slightly higher than the approximate 20% of the overall student population. Finally, students from the College of Business represented the majority of respondents (37.6%), with Communications (18.1%), Arts and Sciences (15.9%), and Education (14.4%) next. Although these are the four largest colleges on campus, business majors represent approximately 10% of the student population and Arts and Sciences about 25%.

While a few of the sample's characteristics are slightly non-representative of the population, the average respondent in this study is largely representative of the typical student that attends the university.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE MEASURES

Before examining the research questions, the validity and reliability of the multi-item measures used in the questionnaire was assessed. First, each of the SSIS scales was evaluated - the results can be found in Table 1. All three scales demonstrated strong validity and internal reliability. The seven items for the football SSIS had factor loadings ranging from .705 to .926 and loaded on the first factor that explained 68.94% of the total variance. The basketball SSIS had factor loadings ranging from .651 to .935, with a first factor that explained 71.49% of the total variance. The SSIS for other sports at the university had factor loadings ranging from .642 to .914, with 67.03% of the total variance explained by the first factor. Each of the scales demonstrated strong internal consistency and the ability to be summed for one overall measure with coefficient alphas of .9207, .9310, and .9136 respectively (Table 1).

Because the MSSC was modified to accommodate the nature of the sample in this study, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted on the 22 MSSC items used in this questionnaire. As Table 2 indicates, the MSSC demonstrated strong validity. Each of the variables loaded on the appropriate factor and the 8 factors explained 88.05% of the total variance.

The only problem was that one of the drama items had a factor loading below .40 (.362). In addition, when a reliability analysis was conducted on the drama scale, the results indicated that the coefficient alpha for the sub-scale would improve to .8558 from .8026 if this item were deleted, so it was removed from the scale when calculating the importance of drama to each respondent. Reliability analysis on the other seven sub-scales of the MSSC revealed no other problems with specific items. In fact, the internal consistency of the 8 sub-scales was quite strong as the coefficient alphas in Table 2 range from .8514 to .9478 (Table 2).

RESULTS

Respondents were asked two open-ended questions, one for their favorite college basketball team and the other for their favorite college football team. Respondents were placed into two groups based on their answers to each of these questions. For basketball, those students who indicated that the home university was their favorite team were placed in one group, with all other students placed in the other group. Comparisons between these two groups using t-tests on all the variables under consideration in the research questions were conducted. This process was repeated based on the answers to the football question. Therefore, two sets of t-tests, or means comparisons, were conducted for each research question, one for basketball and another for football. For the football t-tests, there were 21 respondents who identified the university as their favorite team and 213 another school. For basketball, the sample sizes were 33 for the home team fans and 183 for other teams.

Research Question #1: *Do transplant students who are fans of their school's teams attend more sporting events than transplant students who are fans of another school?*

Students were asked six questions related to attendance at sporting events. They were asked the number of basketball, football, and all other sporting events they attended in the past year at their home school. They were also asked the number of basketball, football, and other sporting events they attended in the past year at other universities.

According to the results in Table 3, there is no significant difference in the number of home basketball, football, or other home games/events attended by type of transplant fan.

However, those students whose favorite college basketball team was not their home school attended significantly more basketball and football games at other universities, and students who are fans of another football team reported attendance of significantly more football games at other universities (Table 3).

Research Question #2: *Are transplant students who are fans of their own school's sports teams stronger fans of sports (in general) than transplant students who are fans of another institution?*

Students were asked three questions about their perceptions of their level of fandom. They were asked for their level of fan loyalty for college football, college basketball, and for sports in general (Table 4).

The results in Table 4 clearly demonstrate that those students who are fans of college basketball and football teams at other universities rate their level of fandom as significantly higher on all three fandom questions than those students who are fans of the home school's teams. These results indicate that transplant students who are fans of their home school's teams are weaker fans than other transplant students, not stronger.

Research Question #3: *Do transplant students who are fans of their school's teams report higher levels of satisfaction, enjoyment, and involvement in their university than transplant students who are fans of another school?*

Students who are fans of the home basketball team report a significantly higher level of enjoyment with the university. There were no significant differences between the groups of basketball fans on satisfaction, expectations, or involvement. However, there were significant differences on all four questions between the two groups of football fans. Students who are fans of the home football team report significantly higher levels of satisfaction, involvement, and enjoyment with the university, and are more likely to agree that the university has met their expectations (Table 5).

Research Question #4: *Do transplant students who are fans of their school's teams report higher levels of identification with the school's teams than transplant students who are fans of another school?*

Respondents were given three versions of the SSIS, one each for basketball, football, and all other sports at the university. The results in Table 6 demonstrate that no significant differences in level of sport identification between types of transplant fans were found on any of the three SSIS measures (Table 6).

Research Question #5: *Do transplant students who are fans of their school's teams demonstrate different motives for following sports than transplant students who are fans of another school?*

Results in Table 7 indicate that motives for following sports are consistently more salient for those students whose favorite basketball and football teams are from another university. In the comparison of basketball fans, there was a significant difference on all of the motives except for the social motive. For achievement, knowledge, aesthetics, drama, escape, family, and physical skills, basketball fans of another school reported significantly higher levels of motives than fans of the home school.

In the football fan comparison, four of the motives were significantly different between types of football fans (aesthetics, drama, escape, and family). However, the results were consistent with the basketball fan comparisons. In each case, the football fans of another school reported significantly higher levels of motives than fans of the home school.

LIMITATIONS OF RESEARCH

Clearly, the results of this research have limited external validity. The athletic teams for the university under study in this research all compete at the Division I level for a mid-major conference in a state with one predominant school in a major conference and an extremely large fan base. While this presents a perfect environment to examine the nature of transplant student fans, it certainly does not represent the characteristics of other universities across the country facing similar challenges regarding transplants. This study should be replicated at other Division I schools, including major conferences, and at Division II, III, and NAIA schools to determine if these findings accurately reflect the nature of transplanted fans at other universities and colleges.

One limitation of this research is the relatively small size of the home university fan groups ($n = 21, 33$), particularly the football group with its sample under 30. While the total sample size of 273 is relatively large and produced Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin scores of sampling adequacy over .9 for each factor analysis conducted, the low percentage of students at the university who list their school as their favorite team made it challenging to reach sample sizes of 30. However, even though the results of the football t-tests should be considered with caution, it should be noted that significant differences were still found on several football t-tests.

Another possible limitation is the question that was used to measure a respondent's favorite team. It is possible that many of the respondents that identified another school as their favorite team would have rated the home school equally high as the school listed, or at least a close second. Using an interval measure would have improved the research. However, for this exploratory study on transplant fans, it was decided to simply identify their favorite team so that it could be used as a grouping variable to compare types of college student transplant fans.

IMPLICATIONS

The results of this study provide some interesting information on college transplant fans, some expected and some not. The results of the first two research questions, when viewed together, are compelling. First, there was no difference in the number of home athletic events or games attended by the two types of transplant students, which is surprising. It was not surprising to find that those students that listed another school as their favorite team generally attended more basketball and football games at another university during the year. With the high number of schools in the state with Division I sports and the popular state university less than two hours away, these results make sense.

An explanation for the results in the first research question may be found in the results for the second. On all six t-tests comparing the level of sport fandom, students that identified another school as their favorite team rated their level of fandom as significantly higher than those that cheer for their home university. Even though they do not list the home school as their favorite team, they attend the same number of home events and games as the fans of the university's team, even as they attend a significantly higher number of games away from the university. Clearly, this could be explained by their higher fan ratings, indicating that many may still enjoy attending home events and games because they are bigger fans of college basketball, football, and sports in general than those fans that list the home school as their favorite team.

The results of the third research question in Table 5 generally support the findings of Wann and Robinson (2002). Wann and Robinson found positive and significant correlations among sport team identification ratings and satisfaction, enjoyment, and involvement with the university. Although this research used the respondent's favorite team as a grouping variable, the results indicate that cheering for your university's teams is related to significantly higher levels of satisfaction, enjoyment, involvement, and met expectations than those students who list another school as their favorite. While the results generally support Wann and Robinson's research, one could argue that these results are surprising given the lack of difference in attendance found in the first research question.

Another interesting finding was that there were no significant differences between types of transplant fans and their sport team identification scores for basketball, football, and other sports. It would be natural to assume that students whose favorite team is the home university would naturally have a higher SSIS score for the home team.

Finally, the results of the fifth research question are interesting and seem to support the findings of the second research question on level of fandom. It appears that the salience of several motives is higher for fans of other schools, as a significant difference was found on 11 of 16 t-tests on the eight motives. These results, when combined with the significantly higher ratings of sport fandom, indicate that transplant fans of other schools care more about sports than the fans of the home school.

When examining the results of this research, profiles of the two types of transplant fans can be developed. A general description of the transplant fan with a favorite team at another university is that they attend the same number of home games and identify with the university's home teams as strongly as fans of the home school. They also describe themselves as much stronger fans of basketball, football, and other sports, and have stronger motives for following and watching sports. On the other hand, fans of the home university are not strong fans of sports and attend the same number of home events as other transplant fans. But, they do report higher levels of met expectations, satisfaction, involvement, and enjoyment with the university.

The real value to these profiles is how, and whether, they can be utilized by universities and athletic departments. Because higher levels of satisfaction, enjoyment, and involvement with the university increase the likelihood that alumni will return to campus, become involved in classes, recruit a university's students, and make donations, these results support the need for the central administration to support athletic programs on campus. While it is clear that this support should be kept in perspective relative to the university's broader mission, the results offer support that intercollegiate sports add value to the rich university experience and appear to be positively related to a student's enjoyment and satisfaction with the school.

As for the athletic department, it is less clear how these results can be used. One important conclusion is that athletic departments should not ignore those students that arrive on campus as devout fans of another school. In fact, it appears that any efforts spent trying to change their loyalties to the home school may be unwise because these fans are attending the same number of games as other fans. It appears they are willing to attend home sporting events because of their higher level of sport fandom and the motives they have for following sports. Therefore, athletic departments should focus their attention on creating an environment around home events and games that maximize the ability of students to savor or enjoy sporting events because of the motives that are important to them. In particular, athletic departments should focus on the four motives that were significantly higher in both sets of means tests in Table 7 - aesthetics of sporting events, drama, escape, and time spent with family and friends.

While the athletic department has less influence over the drama of “close” games, it can market and promote athletic events by emphasizing the aesthetics, escape from stress and every day worries, and the time spent with family and friends.

It appears that the typical student that identifies the home university as their favorite team is not a big fan of sports and does not derive the same value from following or watching sports as other transplant fans. Thus, it is possible that they identify with the home school as their favorite team because either they arrive on campus with no favorite team or they quickly replace their favorite team when they arrive on campus with the home school because their level of fandom and interest is weak. While the athletic department can certainly develop programs to reach students as they arrive on campus to get them interested in the university’s sports teams, their time and resources may be more efficiently and effectively utilized by focusing on students who consider themselves strong fans of sports and derive higher levels of benefits for following and watching sports, regardless of which team they identify as their favorite team while they are on campus.

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TABLE 1

Factor Loadings for Three SSIS Scales

Measure and Variable	Football loadings	Basketball loadings	Sports loadings
Importance that team wins	.842	.891	.827
Importance of being a fan	.898	.921	.906
How strongly do you see yourself as a fan	.926	.935	.914
How strongly do your friends see you as a fan	.865	.868	.865
How closely do you follow the team	.822	.858	.813
Display the team's name or insignia	.705	.651	.642
Dislike of greatest rivals	.728	.759	.729

TABLE 2

Analysis of MSSC Scale		
Measure and Variable	Factor loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Achievement		
I feel like I have won when my favorite team wins	.814	.9248
I feel a personal sense of achievement when my team does well	.856	
I feel proud when my team plays well	.714	
Knowledge		
I regularly track statistics of specific players	.834	.9283
I usually know my favorite team's win/loss record	.763	
I read the box scores and team statistics regularly	.850	
Aesthetics		
I appreciate the beauty inherent in the game	.768	.9478
There is a certain natural beauty to sporting events	.824	
I enjoy the gracefulness associated with sporting events	.730	
Drama		
I enjoy the drama of a "one-run" game	.362	.8026a
I prefer a "close" game rather than a one-sided game	.805	
A game is more enjoyable when outcome decided at very end	.859	

Table 2 (Continued)
Analysis of MSSC Scale

Measure and Variable	Factor loading	Cronbach's Alpha
Sports represent an escape from day-to-day activities	.664	.8808
Sports are a great change of pace from what I normally do	.823	
Family		
I like going to sporting events with family	.829	.8514
I like going to sporting events with friends	.618	
Physical Skills		
The physical skills of athletes is something I appreciate	.522	.9294
Watching a well-executed performance is something I enjoy	.523	
I enjoy a skillful performance by my favorite team	.453	
Social		
Interacting with other fans is very important	.690	.9009
I like to talk to other people near me at sporting events	.881	
Sporting events are great opportunities to socialize	.830	

^aCronbach's Alpha was .8558 after first item was eliminated.

TABLE 3

Mean Comparisons of Attendance Behaviors

Attendance Variable	Football			Basketball		
	Favorite Home School	Favorite Other School	Prob.	Favorite Home School	Favorite Other School	Prob.
Home football games	2.28	1.45	.112	1.88	1.52	.288
Home basketball games	3.19	2.10	.247	2.79	2.33	.445
Home other events	1.76	1.64	.883	1.45	1.77	.656
Other football	.143	.958	.000**	.485	.940	.062*
Other basketball	.523	.714	.597	.364	.842	.087*
Other sporting events	.238	.991	.350	.424	1.12	.315

*p < .10. **p < .05.

TABLE 4

Mean Comparisons of Sports Fandom Perceptions

Sport Fandom Variable	Football			Basketball		
	Favorite Home School	Favorite Other School	Prob.	Favorite Home School	Favorite Other School	Prob.
College football	3.71	6.18	.000*	4.09	6.36	.000*
College basketball	3.57	5.41	.002*	3.61	5.86	.000*
Sports in general	4.71	6.45	.010*	4.42	6.71	.000*

*p < .05.

TABLE 5

Mean Comparisons of University Perceptions

University Variable	Football			Basketball		
	Favorite Home School	Favorite Other School	Prob.	Favorite Home School	Favorite Other School	Prob.
Satisfaction with university	6.05	5.41	.030**	5.67	5.46	.388
Enjoy attending university	6.43	5.97	.096*	6.33	5.96	.094*
University met expectations	5.95	5.37	.065*	5.67	5.38	.284
Overall involvement is high	5.38	4.59	.066*	.482	4.66	.570

*p < .10. **p < .05.

TABLE 6

 Mean Comparisons of SSIS Ratings

SSIS Variable	Football			Basketball		
	Favorite Home School	Favorite Other School	Prob.	Favorite Home School	Favorite Other School	Prob.
Football	26.67	23.37	.375	25.24	23.78	.515
Basketball	26.67	24.31	.407	26.22	25.51	.921
Other sports	23.29	22.02	.616	19.64	22.99	.105

TABLE 7

Mean Comparisons of Motives

Motive Variable	Football			Basketball		
	Favorite Home School	Favorite Other School	Prob.	Favorite Home School	Favorite Other School	Prob.
Achievement	12.71	14.33	.158	12.27	14.60	.033**
Knowledge	9.90	11.47	.249	8.06	12.23	.000**
Aesthetics	10.52	14.12	.003**	10.55	14.50	.002**
Drama	9.57	11.62	.057*	9.42	11.75	.006**
Escape	6.90	9.29	.005**	6.85	9.60	.001**
Family	8.95	10.70	.054*	8.70	10.88	.003**
Physical Skills	14.67	16.45	.196	13.58	16.76	.006**
Social	14.00	14.75	.577	14.06	14.92	.423

*p < .10. **p < .05.

COMPETITIVE BALANCE AND THE BIG 12

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INTRODUCTION

One of the differences between sports teams and other enterprises is the issue of competitive balance. While competition in any endeavor leads to overall efficiency, from the perspective of the individual enterprise, there is rarely a preference for increased competition. On the other hand, in the case of sports, a lack of competition would make the playing of games extremely boring. It is likely that aside from those teams with a long-time tradition in a given sport, even some fans of a guaranteed winner would no doubt eventually lose interest, to say nothing about the interest of those fans for the losing team. In other words, unless there is some degree of uncertainty concerning the games' outcome, there would be minimal fan interest and significantly lower revenues (Fort, 2006).

One of the causes of competitive imbalance is revenue imbalance. In professional sports, some teams, frequently those in large markets, normally receive more revenue and can thus sign the better players and win more frequently. Efforts to alleviate this problem have included salary caps, luxury taxes, revenue sharing and reverse order of finish drafts.

Similarly in intercollegiate sports some institutions tend to have larger revenue sources, or other advantages, and thus, all things being equal, are more likely to have an advantage in recruiting better student-athletes. Efforts in this case to alleviate potential competitive imbalance often are undertaken by the NCAA or the various intercollegiate athletic conferences. While the NCAA attempts to create a "level playing field" through its various rules and regulations (NCAA, 2006), the very large and varied financial resources of its membership make overall competitive balance difficult. On the other hand, the organization of teams into individual conferences can alleviate some this imbalance by including only teams with similar resources and athletic commitments. Indeed, one reason for conference realignment is potential disparity among institutions that can take place over time and thus create problems of competitive imbalance (Rhoads, 2004).

The purpose of this paper is to attempt to measure the change in competitive balance as a conference changes its membership. Does the change in membership bring about the desired increase in competitive balance? In order to answer this question the researchers surveyed the changes in competitive balance as the Big 8 Conference merged with four members of the Southwest Conference to become the Big 12. More specifically, the researchers compared levels of competitive balance in men's basketball in the ten years before the merger with the ten years after. While other sports could have been surveyed, the fact that from 2000-1 through 2004-5 the Big 12 received nearly \$46 million just from its participation in the NCAA postseason men's basketball tournament (National Collegiate Athletics Association, 2005) would appear to make competitive balance in men's basketball a particularly important reason for conference realignment. Further, unlike football the other high revenue sport, basketball was not broken into divisions within the Big 12, which made it a bit more straightforward to measure.

THE BIG 12 CONFERENCE

Established in 1995, the Big 12 Conference administers ten men's and 11 women's sports championships (Big 12, 2006). Conference members are Baylor University, University of

Colorado, Iowa State University, University of Kansas, Kansas State University, University of Missouri, University of Nebraska, University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma State University, University of Texas, Texas A&M University, and Texas Tech University. Member institutions compete at the level of NCAA Division I-A. Depending on the sport, the teams may be split into two six-team divisions—the North and the South.

The 12 institutions comprising the conference are formerly members of the Big 8 or the Southwest Conference. These institutions merged into a single conference in response to market developments primarily relating to the packaging of television distribution agreements (Michaelis, 1996; Thompson, 2000). For many years, the NCAA assumed responsibility for negotiating television deals for its member institutions. However, in the early 1980s the University of Georgia and the University of Oklahoma filed suit in an effort to gain the right to negotiate their own television deals (*NCAA v. Board of Regents of Univ. of Okla.*, 1984). The Supreme Court ruled in favor of the plaintiffs. By 1994, the University of Notre Dame as well as the Southeastern Conference and the Atlantic Coast Conference had negotiated their own television agreements. University officials at Big 8 and Southwest Conference schools realized that by merging, their geographic coverage area would represent 16 percent of the nation's television households, thus increasing the value of their television packages (Michaelis, 1996; Thompson, 2000; Waldman, 1995). The new conference included all the members of the Big 8 and four of the final eight members of the Southwest Conference.

Since that time, more than 24 Big 12 teams and 200 Big 12 student-athletes have won NCAA titles (Big 12, 2006). The conference has excelled in marquee sports such as football (nine teams have advanced to Bowl Championship Series games), and men's and women's basketball (eight teams respectively have qualified for the Final Four since 2000). The league has also demonstrated considerable economic clout, distributing more than \$105 million in revenue to its member institutions in 2005 (Barfknecht, 2005).

Accordingly, the Big 12 is commonly described as a “super conference,” and as such, the league is sometimes considered to be part of the problem relating to competitive balance in college athletics. Sanderson and Siegfried (2003) have observed that competitive balance has been lacking in college football and men's basketball at least as far back as 1981. And a recent Knight Commission report (2001) decried the financial “arms race” at the highest levels of college athletics. It noted that “competitive balance is crumbling as the gap between the haves and the have-nots widens” (p. 17).

Concerns regarding competitive balance within the Big 12 Conference have also been expressed. Football teams from the North have struggled to compete with teams in the South—particularly Oklahoma and Texas—in recent years. One coach has argued that those two programs, along with Nebraska and Texas A&M, outspend others in the conference (Barfknecht, 2005). And at least one media commentator has argued that South Division programs enjoy significant competitive advantages in spring sports such as baseball and softball as a result of reputations as perennial powers and their warmer climates (Woodling, 2004). The validity of that claim has not been systematically tested, however.

The ultimate value of competitive balance is somewhat elusive. As Sanderson and Siegfried (2003) note, people are often conflicted on the subject. On the one hand, many advocate the underdog, but fan interest in perennial powers at the professional and collegiate levels is usually significant. However, evidence indicates that competitive balance or the lack thereof, impacts the financial health and organizational structure of college athletics. For example, one analysis has indicated that, at least in regard to college football, competitive balance may positively impact attendance (Depken & Wilson, under review). Another analysis has

demonstrated that competitive imbalance in football can lead to churning in conference memberships (Fort & Quirk, 1999). Conversely, an analysis of the Western Athletic Conference has found that churning among members has not significantly impacted competitive balance in men's basketball (Rhoads, 2004).

MEASURING COMPETITIVE BALANCE

There are several methods used in measuring competitive balance. The most appropriate of these methods often depends on what the researcher is attempting to specifically measure (Humphreys, 2002). Among the more popular measures are the standard deviations of winning percentages of the various teams in the conference or league, the Hirfindahl-Hirschman Index to measure the number of teams that achieve championship status over a given period of time, and the range of winning percentages.

Winning Percentage Imbalance-The Standard Deviation

One popular measure of competitive balance is to calculate each team's winning percentage in the conference in a given season. Since there will, outside of a tie, always be one winner and one loser for each game, the average winning percentage for the conference will, of course, be .500.

In order to get some idea of competitive balance it is necessary to measure the dispersion of winning percentages around this average. To do this the standard deviation can be measured. This statistic measures the average distance that observations lie from the mean of the observations in the data set.

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (WPCT - .500)^2}{N}}$$

The larger the standard deviation, the greater is the dispersion of winning percentages around the mean, and thus the less the competitive balance. (If all teams had a winning percentage of .500 there would be a standard deviation of zero and there would be perfect competitive balance.)

Using the actual standard deviation in our case does present a potential problem. This occurs because all things being equal, there is a likelihood that the larger the number of conference games played, the more likely there will be less deviation of winning percentages, since various lucky breaks, injuries, etc. will, over time, even out. Since the number of league games played in the Big 8 was 14 and the number of league games played in the Big 12 was 16, there is a need to adjust for these differences. This adjustment entails finding the ideal competitive balance in which each team has a 50 percent chance of winning each game. This ideal can be measured as

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{.5}{n}}$$

where .5 indicates the .5 probability of winning and the n is the number of games each team plays in the season.

In the Big 8 the ideal standard deviation ratio would be

$$\sqrt{\frac{.5}{14}} = .1336,$$

and for the Big 12 it would be

$$\sqrt{\frac{.5}{16}} = .125.$$

To then measure competitive balance within a given season it is necessary to find the ratio of the actual standard deviation to the ideal standard deviation.

$$R = \sigma_A / \sigma_I$$

The closer the measure is to one, the more competitive balance there is.

Champion Imbalance-The Hirfindahl-Hirschman Index

While using the standard deviation as a measure of competitive balance provides a good picture of the variation within a given season, it really doesn't indicate whether it is the same teams winning every season, or if there is considerable "churning" among the winners (i.e., whether there is between season variation).

Therefore, another method economists have used to measure imbalance is the Hirfindahl-Hirschman Index (HHI) which was originally used to measure concentration among firms within an industry (Leeds and von Allmen, 2005). Whereas the standard deviation was used to measure winning percentage imbalance, the HHI is used to measure champion imbalance---how the championship is spread amongst the various teams. Using the first place finish as the champion, the HHI can be calculated by measuring the time each team finished first, squaring that number, adding the numbers together, and dividing by the number of years under consideration. Using this measure it can be concluded that the lower the HHI, the more competitive balance among the teams (Leeds & VonAllmen, 2005).

Range of Winning Percentage Imbalance-Winning Percentages

While the standard deviation can tell us about variation around the mean, it does not specifically reveal if it is the same teams winning or losing from season to season. Likewise, although the HHI gives us some perspective on the number of teams that finish first over a period of time, it does not tell us what is happening to the other teams in the conference. It is quite possible that a few teams could always finish first, but that the other teams could be moving up or down in the standings from one year to another.

One way of gaining some insight into the movement in the standings of all teams over time is to get the mean percentage wins for each team over the ten-year period. The closer each team is to .500 the greater would be the competitive balance over this period. If several teams had very high winning percentages, and others had very low winning percentages, it would suggest that over time there was not strong competitive balance, but that it was the same teams winning and the same teams losing, year after year.

RESULTS

The researchers employed each of three measures of competitive balance in our analysis of men's basketball results for the Big 8 and Big 12 conferences. Findings are offered in the following sections.

Winning Percentage Imbalance-The Standard Deviation

Tables 1 and 2 display the annual winning percentages for men's basketball teams in the Big 8 and Big 12 conferences respectively. Tables 3 and 4 display the annual standard deviations and standard deviation ratios as well as the mean for the 10 years of data for the Big 8 and Big 12 conferences respectively.

The data indicate that overall competitive balance decreased with the merger of the Big 8 into the Big 12. After adjusting, the mean of the standard deviation ratio was 1.625 for the Big 8 (see Table 3 - mean of standard deviation ratio) and 1.843 (see Table 4 - mean of standard deviation ratio) for the Big 12. This is a 13.5% difference. Not only was the overall competitive balance lessened with the addition of the four institutions to the Big 8, but in eight out of the ten years studied the standard deviation ratio was higher for the Big 12 than for the Big 8.

This overall decrease in competitive balance could also be seen in the range of statistics of the ten-year periods studied. In the case of the Big 8 the lowest standard deviation ratio (most competitive balance) was 1.213 (see Table 3 standard deviation ratio for 1991-92) and the highest was 2.100 (see Table 3 standard deviation ratio for 1989-90). Both of these ratios were higher for the Big 12--the lowest standard ratio for the Big 12 being 1.554 (see Table 4 standard deviation ratio for 2005-06) and the highest being 2.216 (see Table 4 standard deviation ratio for 1999-2000). In percentage terms over the ten-year period the lowest ratio for the Big 8 was 28.1% lower than for the Big 12, and the highest ratio for the Big 8 was 5.5% lower than for the Big 12. [Interestingly enough, over the last two years the Big 12 registered its lowest standard deviation ratio for the ten-year period. Whether this is a trend or just a “blip” remains to be seen.]

The decrease in competitive balance with the advent of the Big 12 can also be seen by the fact that over the ten years since the merger, the former members of the SWC, on average, finished in the bottom of the Big 12, 63% of the time. Indeed, if one excluded the University of Texas, the one former SWC school that was frequently a contender for the top spot, the additions to the Big 8 consisting of the other three schools, Texas A&M, Texas Tech, and Baylor finished in the bottom half of the conference 80% of the time, and in the bottom quarter, 57% of the time.

Champion Imbalance-The Hirfindahl-Hirschman Index

Using the HHI to measure competitive balance in the Big 8 the researchers find that over the ten-year period, three teams achieved an outright first place finish (Kansas 4, Missouri 3, and Oklahoma 2). In one year there was a tie for first place (Oklahoma State and Kansas in 1990-91). If one point is given for each outright first-place finish and .5 point for each two-way tie, the following results:

$$\text{HHI} = 4.5^2 + 3^2 + 2^2 + .5^2 = 33.5/10 = 3.35$$

For the Big 12 the researchers find that over the ten-year period four teams achieved an outright first place finish (Kansas 4, Iowa State 2, Texas 1, and Oklahoma State 1). In two years there was a tie for first place (2004-05 Oklahoma and Kansas, and 2005-06 Texas and Kansas). Using the same point distribution as above the finding is:

$$\text{HHI} = 5^2 + 2^2 + 1.5^2 + 1^2 + .5^2 = 32.5/10 = 3.25$$

From the numbers alone the HHI would suggest that there is slightly more competitive balance in the Big 12 than in the Big 8. However, the HHI will decrease as the number of teams involved increases (Depkin, 1999). This follows since there is a greater likelihood that more teams will be champions if there are twelve teams competing, than if there are only eight competitors. Consequently the slightly lower HHI for the Big 12 may be misleading. Indeed, if adjustments are made for the number of teams in the league the finding is that 3.5 (.5 for a team that tied for first place) different teams achieved a first place finish in the Big 8 which is 43.8% of the teams participating. In the case of the Big 12, 4.5 different teams participated as first place finishers, which is 37.5% of those possible. Given the increased number of teams eligible to win the conference title it seems reasonable to conclude that there appeared to be a greater

degree of competitive balance before the merger than after. The fact that Kansas, the most successful team, was more dominant with twelve teams than with eight lends weight to this conclusion.

Range of Winning Percentage Imbalance-Winning Percentages

If .500 plus or minus .100 is arbitrarily set as a range which would suggest a high degree of competitive balance over the ten-year period, the researchers find considerably more competitive balance in the Big 8 than in the Big 12.

Table 1 (Big 8) suggests that using this approach, four teams (50%) fit this range. Those teams are Kansas State, Nebraska, Iowa State, and Oklahoma State. Among the others Kansas, Missouri, and Oklahoma appeared to be the more consistently strong winners, with Kansas being the leader with a winning percentage of .707. In fact, in the ten-year period it had only one losing season. The only team falling below this range was Colorado which tended to be a consistent loser, never achieving a winning season over the period studied. The range of winning percentages over the period varied from .707 (Kansas) to .221 (Colorado). This was a range of .486. If one viewed Colorado as an outlier the range would be .707 (Kansas) to .407 (Nebraska) a range of .300.

On the other hand Table 2 (Big 12) indicates that five teams (42%) fit in this range. These would include Colorado, Iowa State, Texas Tech, Nebraska, and Missouri. Among the others Kansas, Texas, Oklahoma, and Oklahoma State appeared to be the more consistent winners, while Baylor, Texas A and M, and Kansas State brought up the rear, with Baylor having the lowest winning percentage with only a .256. Of these three teams, Baylor and Kansas State had no winning seasons, and Texas A&M only one winning season, 2005-06. On the other hand Kansas and Oklahoma never had a losing season, with Texas having only one losing season, and Oklahoma State two losing seasons. The overall range for the ten-year period was a high of .819 (Kansas) and a low of .256 (Baylor) for a range of .563. This range is 15.8% higher than for the Big 8, and if one were to exclude Colorado from the calculations it is 87.6% higher.

By utilizing the overall win percentage as the measure of competitive balance, it can be concluded that there exists considerably less competitive balance in the Big 12 than in the Big 8.

CONCLUSIONS

Previous research (Rhoads, 2004) had suggested that one reason for conference realignment was to achieve greater competitive balance among the various member institutions. With this in mind, the purpose of this study was to investigate whether there was an increase in competitive balance after the Big 8 Conference merged with four members of the Southwest Conference to form the Big 12 Conference. The data for this study came from the conference standing in men's basketball for the Big 8 for ten years prior to the merger, and the standings for the Big 12 ten years subsequent to the merger. Men's basketball was specifically chosen since it is a major source of revenue for most institutions.

Using the standard deviation to measure the winning percentage imbalance, the Hirfindahl-Hirschman Index to measure champion imbalance, and the range of winning percentages to measure the range of winning percentage imbalance, it was concluded that each of the above measures indicated a decrease in competitive balance after the merger. Given the fact that conferences often realign to achieve greater competitive balance, these findings were somewhat unexpected.

Of course there are reasons for conferences to realign their membership other than competitive balance in men's basketball. Certainly there are other sports for which a conference would be interested in competitive balance. This might be particularly true of football, the other high revenue sport. Indeed there could be reasons for the specific realignment besides attempts to achieve greater competitive balance in any sport. This may have been particularly true with the merger which created the Big 12, as many believe that the inclusion of both Baylor and Texas Tech was based on the political influence of alumni in key offices within Texas state government (Thompson, 2000; Waldman, 1995).

Nevertheless, given the large amount of revenue received from men's basketball, one would have expected competitive balance in this sport to be a major consideration in conference realignment. The fact that these results were the opposite of such expectations was indeed surprising.

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TABLE 1

Winning Percentages Big 8 Conference

Year	MO	KU	OU	KSU	NU	ISU	OSU	CU	
1986-87	.786	.643	.643	.571	.500	.357	.286	.214	
1987-88	.500	.643	.857	.786	.286	.429	.286	.214	
1988-89	.714	.429	.857	.571	.286	.500	.500	.143	
1989-90	.857	.786	.786	.500	.214	.286	.429	.143	
1990-91	.571	.714	.357	.214	.643	.429	.714	.357	
1991-92	.571	.786	.571	.357	.500	.357	.571	.286	
1992-93	.357	.786	.500	.500	.571	.571	.571	.143	
1993-94	1.000	.643	.429	.286	.500	.286	.714	.143	
1994-95	.571	.786	.643	.214	.286	.429	.714	.357	
1995-96	.429	.857	.571	.500	.286	.643	.500	.214	
Mean	.636	.707	.621	.450	.407	.429	.529	.221	.500

Source: Information provided by Big 12 Conference office.

TABLE 2

Year	Winning Percentages Big 12 Conference											
	KU	CU	UT	ISU	TTU	OU	NU	OSU	BU	MU	TAMU	KSU
1996-97	.938	.688	.625	.625	.625	.563	.438	.438	.375	.313	.188	.188
1997-98	.938	.438	.375	.313	.438	.688	.625	.618	.500	.500	.063	.438
1998-99	.688	.438	.813	.375	.313	.688	.625	.625	.000	.688	.313	.438
1999-00	.688	.438	.813	.875	.188	.750	.250	.750	.250	.625	.250	.125
2000-01	.750	.313	.750	.813	.188	.750	.438	.625	.375	.563	.188	.250
2001-02	1.000	.313	.625	.250	.625	.813	.375	.625	.250	.563	.188	.375
2002-03	.875	.563	.813	.313	.375	.750	.187	.625	.313	.563	.375	.250
2003-04	.750	.625	.750	.438	.563	.500	.375	.875	.188	.563	.000	.375
2004-05	.750	.250	.563	.563	.625	.750	.438	.688	.063	.438	.500	.375
2005-06	.813	.563	.813	.313	.375	.688	.438	.375	.250	.313	.625	.375
Mean	.819	.462	.694	.488	.431	.694	.419	.631	.256	.513	.269	.319

Source: 2005-06 Big 12 Men's Basketball Media Guide contained data for 1996-97-2004-05, Big 12 Conference Website contained data for 2005-06.

TABLE 3

Standard Deviations and Standard Deviation Ratios of
Winning Percentage Imbalance in Big 8 Conference

Year	Standard Deviation	Standard Deviation Ratio
1986-87	.1985	1.486
1987-88	.2415	1.808
1988-89	.2257	1.689
1989-90	.2806	2.100
1990-91	.1870	1.400
1991-92	.1620	1.213
1992-93	.1870	1.400
1993-94	.2779	2.080
1994-95	.2092	1.566
1995-96	.2020	1.512
Mean	.2171	1.625

Source: Authors calculations according to formula in text from data in Table 1.

TABLE 4

**Standard Deviations and Standard Deviation Ratios of
Winning Percentage Imbalance in Big 12 Conference**

Year	Standard Deviation	Standard Deviation Ratio
1996-97	.2198	1.758
1997-98	.2198	1.758
1998-99	.2295	1.836
1999-00	.2770	2.216
2000-01	.2368	1.894
2001-02	.2500	2.000
2002-03	.2310	1.848
2003-04	.2417	1.934
2004-05	.2046	1.637
2005-06	.1942	1.554
Mean	.2304	1.843

Source: Authors calculations according to formula in text from data in Table 2.

FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE OF NCAA DIVISION I ATHLETES

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INTRODUCTION

Several academic and non-academic factors can influence the academic performance of National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I athletes. Researchers have attempted to determine what non-academic variables might help to explain the college academic performance of college athletes. The non-cognitive variables of a strong support person or role model, involvement in the community, and positive self-concept positively predicted college academic performance (Tinto, 1987; Vroom, 1964). If influential role models do not care how the college athlete performs academically, the college athlete's academics will suffer (Broadhead, 1992; Petrie & Russell, 1995; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992; Sellers, Kuperminc & Waddell, 1991; Young & Sowa, 1992).

Previous research has suggested several factors that may significantly influence the academic performance and potential for graduation of NCAA Division I athletes (Adler & Adler, 1985; Briggs, 1996; Grimes & Chressanths, 1994; Hanford, 1974; Pascarella, Bohr, Nora & Terenzini, 1995). This study is relevant to revenue and non-revenue sports in intercollegiate athletics. A revenue sport is defined as a team sport that can generate revenue to help support itself. The two most common revenue sports are men's basketball and football, which in turn carry immense pressure for coaches to win. The less pressure to win, the more focus a coach can put on the academic well being of the college athlete. Conversely, it appears that non-revenue sports do not generate the revenue or marketing exposure, thus there is less pressure on the coaching staff to produce wins (Sperber, 1990). However, the findings in this study do support that all sports, revenue and non-revenue alike, have significant time demands and other distractions that may inhibit persistence and graduation. The intent of this study is to determine what motivates NCAA Division I college athletes academically and athletically to achieve successful academic progress and graduation from college.

An evaluation of the academic success of NCAA Division I college athletes must address predictors of academic progress and graduation for college athletes. Sub-standard graduation rates for college athletes that are below that of an institution's general student body can demonstrate the lack of academic commitment toward college athletes on part of a specific institution or the lack of academic preparation on part of the individual college athletes (McMillen, 1991). Most college athletes ultimately become disillusioned with and detached from academics. Some college athletes begin their college careers idealistically, caring about academics and intending to graduate, but graduation may not end up being the end result due to the inherent pressures of intercollegiate athletics (Adler & Adler, 1985).

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The phenomenon of intercollegiate athletes' academic success and probability of persistence and graduation has been a cause for concern and significant inquiry by university and intercollegiate athletic administrators (Adler & Adler, 1985; 1991; Briggs, 1996; Grimes &

Chressanths, 1994; Hanford, 1974; Pascarella, Bohr, Nora & Terenzini, 1995). This exploratory study analyzes the ongoing problem with academic integrity and NCAA Division I athletics. The study also presents results of the empirical data analysis derived from a specialized survey instrument and makes research based conclusions.

THEORETICAL BASIS FOR STUDY

This study draws on Vroom's expectancy theory on human motivation (Vroom, 1964). The theory is applied to examine the relationship and motivation of predetermined predictors for academic progress and graduation of college athletes and the effect those predictors have on the persistence and potential for graduation of Division I college athletes in a mid-major NCAA intercollegiate athletic conference.

The expectancy theory is separated into two parts of a cognitive model, which happens in three stages. The two parts are the concept of valence and the concept of force. The three-stage process of the theory of accomplishing or working toward accomplishing a goal consists of Expectancy (E), Instrumentality (I), and Valence (V). The concept of expectancy refers to the strength of a person's belief about whether or not a particular performance is attainable. In layman's terms, a person will be motivated to try a task, if he or she believes it can be done. The concept of instrumentality is a probability belief linking one outcome to another outcome. This can be applied as a high level of academic performance to graduation, better job prospects, and money; in a sense, a reward. In the concept of valence, it is assumed that that a person has preference among outcomes or states of nature. Preference is defined as a relationship between the strength of a person's desire for or attraction toward two outcomes. In other words, an outcome is positively valent when a person prefers attaining a goal to not attaining that goal. A zero valence is when the person is indifferent to attaining the goal, while it is negatively valent when he prefers not attaining the goal.

In general, college athletes overall come to college less prepared than other non-athletic students (American Institutes for Research, 1989; Sellers & Chavous, 1997; Sellers, Kuperminc, & Waddell, 1991). The expectancy theory is a feasible framework for this study considering the argument of lack of desire would suggest that these differences in academic preparation are, in part, a function of differences in motivation (Sellers & Chavous, 1997). There is evidence in the research indicating that athletic participation is linked with satisfaction with the overall college experience and may also increase motivation to complete one's degree, persistence in college, and actual degree completion (Pascarella, Bohr, Nora & Terenzini, 1995). The NCAA's focus on increasing and/or changing initial and continuing eligibility standards has been based on the assumption that the academic problems of college athletes are motivational in nature.

In a 1990 survey in the *Journal of Higher Education*, most college head coaches believed that a lack of motivation and interest in school is the primary reason for college athletes not graduating (Cullen, Latessa, & Byrne, 1990). The focus of recent NCAA reform movements has been toward making incoming college athletes as similar academically to the rest of the student body as possible by increasing the pre-college academic requirements for the initial eligibility of prospective college athletes (Sellers & Chavous, 1997).

The expectancy theory supports the predictors and empirical data found in the literature and previous research in that it measures how motivation, or lack thereof, may affect the expectancy of college athletes to academically progress and graduate. A college coach's emphasis on academics can significantly affect the motivation or expectancy of college athletes to graduate if the emphasis and importance of graduation is not discussed or in turn, if it is held in high importance. A coach is the most prominent role model for the college athletes

in college (Adler & Adler, 1985; 1991). If that role model does not stress academic progress and graduation, the motivation and expectancy of the college athletes to graduate may be reduced. Using specialized academic support services may increase the expectancy to graduate if the programs available are viewed as helpful or as a necessity to graduate to the college athletes. The characteristics of the specific sport played in college may also increase or decrease motivation and expectancy to graduate from college. Existing literature indicates that revenue sports are primarily focused on winning, while non-revenue sports by and large place more emphasis on academics and graduation (Lopiano, 1994; Maloney & McCormack, 1992; Purdy, Eitzen & Hufnagel, 1982; Thelin, 2000; Toma, 2003). The academic atmosphere created by the sport played can influence the desire and ability of the college athletes to graduate within time frames established by the NCAA and individual colleges and universities (Ridpath, 2002).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

For the purposes of this study, the researchers analyze and discuss six research questions derived from the survey instrument used to obtain the data. The research questions were formulated by the grouping of specific questions from the instrument into six factors for the statistical analysis (see Tables III & IV). The survey instrument is a self-developed, 56-question survey covering many different aspects of a college athletes' academic and athletic life. The six research questions analyzed for this study are:

1. Does the influence of a college coach(es) affect the perception of the athlete on the importance of academic progress and graduation?
2. What is the perception of college athletes on the importance of academics vs. athletics?
3. What is the athletes' perception of the need for specialized academic support services?
4. Is a coach the primary reason an athlete will choose a specific college or university?
5. Does a college athlete perceive an education as the most important goal during enrollment?
6. Do coaches emphasize academics or athletics more during the recruiting process?

Question 1

Does the influence of a college coach(es) affect the perception of the athlete on the importance of academic progress and graduation?

Coaches, in particular head coaches of specific college athletic teams, can have a major impact on the academic success of the college athlete (Adler & Adler, 1985; 1991; Briggs, 1996; Petrie & Russell, 1995). A coach and/or coaches involved in the academic well-being of their college athletes and emphasizing the importance of academics can greatly increase the chance of a college athletes succeeding academically and graduating (Adler & Adler, 1985). The level of the coach's involvement and whether that coach wants his or her students to graduate, or just stay eligible to compete is an indicator as to whether a college athletes will graduate from college (Adler & Adler, 1985).

According to Adler and Adler (1991) and Briggs (1996), the goal toward which a coach rallies the athletes, and around which he/she forges their role identity until it becomes their central life interest, is extremely short term. As one ball player explained, "Coach's main goal is to keep producing quality basketball teams...His job is not to produce accountants or NBA athletes, it's to have a winning program" (Briggs, 1996, p. 412). A coach can be the strongest support person in the life of a college athlete (Petrie & Russell, 1995).

In revenue sports, coaches are typically hired and fired based on won-loss records, not for achieving high graduation rates. The pressure to succeed can deter a revenue producing sport coach from being involved in the academic success of their college athletes. However, there is evidence in the literature that these pressures exist in most if not all-intercollegiate sports (Ridpath, 2002; Sperber, 1990). Still, revenue sport coaches as a whole are likely to be excessive in their demands on the time of their athletes for athletic purposes and not for academic purposes (Purdy, Eitzen, & Hufnagel, 1982; Ridpath; Sperber, 1990).

Question 2

What is the perception of college athletes on the importance of academics vs. athletics?

Studies done over the years conclude that athletes are unprepared for and uninterested in academics and come to college primarily to advance their athletic careers rather than their future vocational careers; therefore, they have lower grade point averages, higher attrition rates, and lower chances of graduating than other students (Adler & Adler, 1985; Cross, 1973; Edwards, 1984; Harrison, 1976; Nyquist, 1979; Purdy et. al., 1982; Sack & Thiel, 1979). For many years, colleges and universities turned away from academic requirements to allow under-prepared students who are blessed with athletic ability on campus just to participate in athletics while academics became a forgotten entity (Sperber, 1990).

Due to the high pressure put on coaches in revenue sports to win games, often the focus on academics becomes less (Adler & Adler, 1985; 1991; Briggs, 1996; Broadhead, 1992; Purdy, 1981). Many college athletes have been counseled by coaches to major in eligibility (Purdy, 1981), thus giving the perception that athletic endeavors supersede academic requirements and progress. These athletes are shuttled by their coaches into “professor friendly” classes and easy majors so academics will not interfere with their athletic responsibilities. If coaches are threatened with their employment, an unintended consequence may be the athletic success of the team will almost always take priority over the academic success of the college athlete (Bowen & Levin, 2003; Schulman & Bowen, 2001; Sperber, 1990). A college athlete’s academic performance is significantly affected by coaches’ intervention in their academic lives (Adler & Adler, 1985; 1991).

Several former college athletes at California State universities and colleges claimed that coaches advised them to enroll in courses like physical education courses to protect their athletic eligibility. In some cases, students were instructed to re-enroll in courses they have already passed and coaches became upset when players took courses that were required for graduation instead of courses that helped maintain eligibility (Broadhead, 1992). Revenue sport college athletes often take a downgraded curriculum at the insistence of their coaches and designed specifically for them. This practice significantly reduces the educational value of their time in college (Adelman, 1990; Adler & Adler, 1991; Briggs, 1996; Purdy, 1981).

College athletes, mostly in revenue sports, will often decide in favor of athletics when a conflict exists with academics (Adler & Adler, 1991) to please their coaches who possess the power to decide who starts in games and who is put on scholarship (Simons, Van Rheenen & Covington, 1999). In non-revenue sports, coaches typically do not put much pressure on non-revenue athletes to perform. Since winning in revenue sports appears to have a larger monetary effect, it is believable that those athletes are forced by coaches to accept a more severe tradeoff between academic performances relative to athletic achievements (Maloney & McCormick, 1992; Toma, 2003).

Question 3

What is the Athletes' Perception of the need for Specialized Academic Support Services for College Athletes?

Virtually all institutions in NCAA Division I athletics provide an array of advisors, tutors, and mentors to help athletes learn how to balance the demands of the classroom and the playing field (Naughton, 1996; Suggs, 1999a & b). Effective models of college athletes support programs share several essential components to meet the aforementioned special needs (Carodine, Almond, & Gratto, 2001). College athletes at virtually all NCAA institutions receive specialized compensatory academic assistance (Naughton, 1996).

Services available are usually in the form of a dedicated academic service center solely for use by the athletes at the institution. These centers are sometimes located within athletic departments, and offer equipment and services that in many cases are superior to what the institution offers the rest of the student body. The administrative oversight, while mostly performed by the athletic department, can fall under an academic entity. Many recent academic scandals have prompted more universities to bring all academic advising for college athletes under the control of an outside academic department to insure better administrative oversight (Suggs, 1999a). Many higher education administrators believe that it is less likely for academic integrity to be questioned if a college athlete's academic center reports to an academic department (Suggs, 1999a; 1999b).

Figler and Figler (1984) indicated that, in addition to personal and career counseling, academic advisors and counselors for athletes provide eligibility monitoring, course selection, assessment of skills deficiencies, tutorial assistance, study hall, etc. The goal is to assist all college athletes in the department with their academic, athletic, and social development (Reyes, 1997; Stier, 1992). Specifically, the ideal program should include academic support, career counseling, and personal development for college athletes. Services provided for college athletes by institutions have assisted the college athletes in balancing these three areas of their college experience (Carodine, Almond, & Grotto, 2001; Reyes). Some studies argue that although some college athletes had poor academic records in high school, they have higher GPAs, lower attrition rates, and a greater likelihood of graduating than non-athletes because they receive extra tutoring and more specialized academic attention (Henschen & Fry, 1984; Michener, 1976; Shapiro, 1984).

These centers provide, in addition to academic counseling, a counselor-to-student ratio much higher than for the general student body, as they provide tutoring, advance scheduling, drug and alcohol counseling, study and academic skill sessions, and life skills classes (Naughton, 1996). Critics of these types of arrangements argue that the necessity of these support services suggest many athletes, especially those in football and men's basketball would not succeed without an inordinate amount of help. Those who support special services for college athletes say all college students in general need these programs and athletic academic assistance programs are available for other students throughout campus (Naughton). These services are more concentrated in athletics, with the main reason being because the college athlete's time is so limited due to complex demands that result from participating in competitive sport (Naughton, 1996).

Increased compensatory academic assistance for college athletes has been cited as a reason, along with better pre-college preparation, for increased graduation rates for college athletes since 1991 (Benson, 1997a & b). Fred Strook, a former president of the National Association of Academic Advisors for Athletes, attributed the relative success of college athletes in the classroom to an increased commitment to academics at Division I institutions. He also believed

that most college athletes have a lower academic profile than the typical student, but in the last 15 years almost every Division I school has put in athletic academic programs in academic counseling, tutoring, mentoring, and programs in career and life skills to assist in providing the opportunity for an athlete to be successful athletically and academically (Naughton, 1996). Surveys done by the NCAA since 1991 show that the increased initial eligibility standards combined with a long list of academic services for Division I athletes have contributed to the overall increase in the graduation rates of college athletes (Benson, 1997a; 1997b).

Question 4

Is a coach the primary reason an athlete will choose a specific college or university?

Adler and Adler (1985; 1991) found that the varied sets of educational and life goals with which players entered college rapidly shrank to the single goal of winning games by a process called "role engulfment." They noted many factors contributed to this narrowing of aspirations, but found that the coach was the main influence in intentionally orchestrating the process of role engulfment away from academics in order to obtain the extreme loyalty from players in order to meet high performance athletic goals. Coaches can be an intended or unintended source of intense reinforcement for the role of a winning athlete but a lack of reinforcement for the academic role (Briggs, 1996).

Researchers have attempted to determine what non-academic variables might help to explain the college academic performance of student athletes. The non-cognitive variables of a strong support person, involvement in the community, and positive self-concept positively predicted college academic performance. If influential role models do not care how the student athlete performs academically, the student athlete's academics will suffer (Broadhead, 1992; Petrie & Russell, 1995; Sedlacek & Adams-Gaston, 1992; Young & Sowa, 1992). If a prospective athlete is recruited, their main identification with the university is most likely with the coach since he/she is the person they come into contact with most often during the pre-college process (Ridpath, 2002).

Question 5

Does a College Athlete perceive an education as the most important goal during enrollment?

Many researchers (Ervin, Saunders, Gillis, & Hoglebe, 1985; Kennedy & Dimick, 1987; Petrie & Russell, 1995; Watt & Moore, 2001; Young & Sowa, 1992) have suggested that college athletes face a unique set of challenges that they are not ready to meet without assistance. In turn, these challenges may turn an athlete away from academics as a priority. College athletes are a diverse special population because of their roles on campus, their atypical lifestyles, and their special needs (Ferrante, Etzel, & Lantz, 1996).

Many prospective college athletes, who meet NCAA Clearinghouse standards for competitive eligibility, still do not meet admission standards for a particular university. This sub-group may be admitted to a university under a special exception and typically may need specialized academic services available only to college athletes to attain graduation (Benson, 1997). Most Division I universities offer admission exceptions to get athletes into school, even if the college athlete is under prepared and not ready for the academic rigors of college work. With the exception of true scholar athletes, academic averages and test scores of recruited athletes are well below those of students admitted into the general student body (Greene & Greene, 2001).

The sheer competitive nature of athletics and the desire to get the best athletes can persuade coaches to look for the best athletes and not those that are academically oriented, thus that priority can be transferred to the athlete (Zimbalist, 2001). Looking for loopholes in admission requirements to get non-qualified athletes admitted happens regularly at institutions of higher learning (Blum, 1994; Naughton, 1996; Sperber 1990). Scenarios such as these can amplify that athletic prowess and not academic ability are more important, thus leading the athlete to perceive athletics as more important (Ridpath, 2002; Sperber, 1990).

Prospective college athletes have almost twice the chance of being accepted to the college of their dreams, although this dream may be based solely on their athletic skills and a persuasive coach (Greene & Greene, 2001). Several college admissions directors advocate the opportunity given to all students in college and the risk that goes with admitting any student who does not meet the institutional requirements. They also weigh that opportunity with the risk and the reward of knowing not all will succeed (Blum, 1994). These efforts by decision makers in campus administration can clearly set the standard of what is the priority for incoming college athletes (Sperber, 1990).

Even with college athletes meeting initial academic standards and getting admitted, practice, competition, and the rigors of academic and athletic life in college can also present difficult challenges for even the academically gifted college athletes and make athletics a greater emphasis than academics (Naughton, 1996; Sperber, 1990). College athletes at the intercollegiate level must abide by an abundance of NCAA rules, be treated as any other student, and, in general, receive the same benefits that are available to the institution's students or their relatives or friends (NCAA, 2001). The reality is that college athletes are treated differently from the rest of the student body at most higher education institutions so that the level of competition will not abate, but often at the expense of academic integrity.

Question 6

Do coaches emphasize academics more than athletics during the recruiting process?

College athletes are selected and recruited by coaches. These same coaches work with them and get to know them well while they are enrolled in college. If a college athlete runs into personal or academic trouble, coaches are usually nearby, ready and motivated to help. In helping to advance their own careers, the coaches must recruit good athletic material and then guide these students through successful academic and athletic careers. This corresponds with the literature in that most coaches do sell the academic importance of college and graduation to prospective college athletes during recruiting but then that emphasis significantly reduces, primarily in revenue sports (Maloney & McCormick, 1992; Ridpath, 2002).

The goal of academic progress appears to change to one of eligibility maintenance solely for competitive eligibility when a revenue sports prospect, and to a lesser extent, non-revenue prospects enroll in college (Adler & Adler, 1985; Sperber, 1990). This can be attributed that due to the high pressure that revenue sports coaches are put under to win games and fill stadiums, the focus on academics becomes less and less (Adler & Adler, 1985; 1991; Briggs, 1996; Broadhead, 1992; Purdy, 1981).

METHODOLOGY

INSTRUMENTATION

The instrument for this study was a self developed questionnaire containing 56 questions to ascertain factors that are potentially motivating predictors of academic progress and graduation from college according to existing literature and empirical data. The instrument is divided into

three sections of demographic information, general issues which cover perceptions of academics and influence of coaches, and the extent of use/importance of specialized academic support services for college athletes. The specific issues covered in the survey are: (a) influence of coach(es) on college choice, (b) coach's emphasis on academics during recruiting, (c) coach's emphasis on academics after enrollment, (d) frequency of use of specialized academic support services for athletes, (e) athletes' perception of the need for specialized academic support services (f) academic influence of athletic academic advisors, (g) institutional priority of competitive eligibility versus academics and graduation, (h) athletes' perception of the importance of academics and graduation versus athletics success, (i) athletes' perception of the influence of college coach on academics v. athletics, and (j) athletes' perception of the importance of academics v. athletics. The instrument contained a Likert scale consisting of three items (agree, neutral, disagree). The instrument also contains numerous exploratory and descriptive items such as gender, ethnicity, and year in college, based on previous research, related studies, and related instruments (Adler & Adler, 1985; American Institutes for Research Study of Intercollegiate Athletics, 1981; Briggs, 1996; Grimes & Chressanthos, 1994; Hanford, 1974; Pascarella, Bohr, Nora & Terenzini, 1995).

To minimize issues of content validity, the self-reported survey instrument was developed through an extensive review of past and present literature, surveys, and questionnaires; approved by a jury of experts; and trial tested through a pilot test of a like population. Of particular value to the development of the instrument were the American Institutes for Research Study of Intercollegiate Athletics (1981), The Reports of the Knight Commission on the Conduct of Intercollegiate Athletics (1991; 1993; 2001), and NCAA Research Reports 91-04 (1991), 92-02 (1993), 96-02 (1997), 97-02 (1997), 97-04 (1999). While many instruments exist that possess similar goals in obtaining data, a more specific, self-developed instrument, tailored for the researchers was desired for this particular study. Previous research (Kuh, 2001; Umbach, Palmer, Kuh & Hannah, 2004) has shown that self-reports are likely to be valid if (1) the information requested is known to the respondents, (2) the questions are phrased clearly and unambiguously, (3) the questions refer to recent activities, (4) the respondents think the questions merit a serious and thoughtful response, and (5) answering the questions does not threaten, embarrass, or violate the privacy of the respondent or encourage the respondent to respond in socially desirable ways (Kuh, 2001; Umbach et al., 2004). This particular survey instrument meets these standards for self-reported data.

VALIDITY

The nature of this study dictates the type and level of validity issues that require some level of justification. This research study attempts to overcome areas of concern relative to face validity and content validity in relation to predictors of graduation for NCAA Division I college athletes described in the literature. Concerns relating to face validity in this study arise from the choice of the predictors of college athlete's graduation. The college athlete's predictors of graduation and descriptive data are clearly recognized in the literature as predictors of college athlete's graduation. Some literature indicates that these predictors also apply for populations of non-college athletes with regard to graduation from college (Adler & Adler, 1985; 1991; Benson, 1991; 1994; 1997a; 1997b; Purdy, et. al., 1982; Richards, Hollands, & Lutz, 1966; Summers, 1991).

The survey instrument was presented to a jury of experts (Table I) for professional review and assessment. The jury of experts conducted a readability analysis and approved the questionnaire for use in the data collection. These individuals were in the best position to critique and assess the potential of the instrument due to their knowledge of the subject, knowledge of research methods, and experience in higher education administration.

The survey was also trial tested through a pilot study with a like population to determine if any modifications need to be made. The survey was given to several college athletes at a selected Mid American Conference institution who were not in the population selected for the study. The researchers selected junior, by NCAA competitive eligibility standards, college athletes (N = 20) to complete the instrument. This group was chosen because of its similarities to the sample frame and it presented an acceptable cross section of ethnicity, gender, sport played, and academic profile. The purpose of the pilot study was to determine if the data gathered presented an accurate assessment of the answers (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). It is the assessment of the researchers that the pilot study validated the instrument as acceptable for this particular study and for further research into this topic. No reliability analysis was conducted on the pilot study data because initially the statistical analysis was not intended to be a factor analysis. However, after further review, it was determined that a factor analysis would be the best statistical measurement for this particular study.

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

Data were obtained from college athletes at the 13 schools in the Mid-American Conference. The Mid-American Conference, headquartered in Cleveland, Ohio, was established in 1946 as a five-team league. It is the sixth oldest and fourth largest intercollegiate athletic conference in the NCAA. There are currently 13 member institutions split into an Eastern and Western division with a total student enrollment of more than 275,000, including more than 5200 college athletes competing in 23 sports (Hazel, 2001). Many of these institutions are listed on the same Southern Regional Educational Board (SREB) peer institution survey. Some institutions may not be peers by SREB standards, but the Mid-American Conference institutions are peers athletically due to competitive equity, number of sports sponsored, athletic budgets, academic profile of prospective college athletes, and many other areas. Like others in mid-major conferences, these institutions are more likely than The Bowl Championship Series (BCS) conferences to admit academic at-risk college athletes. The Mid-American Conference is one of the few Division I-A conferences that allow admission of college athletes not academically eligible for competition during the initial year of enrollment (non-qualifiers, commonly referred to as "Prop 48's" in deference to the original NCAA legislative proposal that created the new standards), and admission exceptions for those college athletes who do not meet established institutional academic standards and are considered at risk academically (Messer & Cherry, 2000). Table 2 presents a breakdown of what sports are represented in the survey population. The surveyed population also represents full scholarship athletes, partial scholarship athletes, and walk-on athletes

Academic at-risk college athletes are defined as those who do not meet the requirements for initial athletic eligibility as freshman (NCAA, 2002; Ridpath, 2002). The NCAA Initial Eligibility Clearinghouse reviews and issues initial eligibility decisions based on NCAA standards. The two categories of academic at-risk athlete are non-qualifier and partial qualifier. Non-qualifier means a prospective college athlete may not practice, compete, or receive an athletic scholarship during their freshman year due to not meeting the required academic standards. Partial qualifier means they meet the requirements for practice and athletic aid, but still cannot compete during the freshman year¹ (NCAA).

¹ The NCAA has recently adopted a full sliding scale in determining initial eligibility. This evaluation of core course GPA and entrance exam score has officially ended the designation of Partial Qualifier. Other recent changes include allowing a non-qualifier who graduates in four years an additional year of eligibility, and allowing athletes with a certified learning disability special considerations in regaining the lost year of competitive eligibility.

Non-BCS conferences, like the Mid-American Conference, are more likely to admit academic at risk college athletes because the top-tier conferences have first choice of the prospective college athletes who do meet the standards (Messer & Cherry, 2000). The remaining college athletes may be many who were not admitted to the BCS schools due to academic deficiencies. Typically, the mid-major conferences will take the chance of admitting academic at-risk college athletes on the basis of athletic accomplishments and potential so that they may be better equipped to compete, especially in the revenue sports (Messer & Cherry, 2000). Due to this phenomenon, college athletes in a mid-major conference, like the Mid-American Conference, can present a diverse population along the academic spectrum to adequately assess the characteristics for graduation of Division I college athletes (Ridpath, 2002).

POPULATION CHARACTERISTICS

The survey instrument was distributed to senior class athletes, as determined by eligibility status, at the 13 Mid-American Conference schools during the 2001-02 academic year. The population for this study included undergraduate college athletes in their senior year of NCAA eligibility, or in their fifth year of enrollment after expiration of their eligibility (N = 1238). For purposes of this population, a senior athlete might not have been a senior academically, but was competing in the last year of competitive NCAA eligibility. College athletes at NCAA Division I institutions are allowed four years of competitive eligibility within five years of enrollment (NCAA, 2001). A fifth year college athlete is still enrolled at the institution and has not yet graduated, but has exhausted the four allowable years of NCAA competitive eligibility.

At the time the survey instrument was administered, all members of the population had yet to graduate from college. The factors are assessed on the expectancy and predictability of graduation within a maximum of one academic year from the administration date of the survey instrument, based on analysis of responses completed on the survey and the percentage of degree completed by each individual. Percentage of degree completed is used as an NCAA standard to determine academic, not athletic standing of a particular college athlete (NCAA, 2001). For example, to be classified as a senior athlete by NCAA eligibility standards in 2001, a college athlete must have completed 75% of their major degree requirements and only have one year of remaining competitive eligibility (NCAA, 2001). These standards will change to an 80% rule during academic year 2005-06 (NCAA, 2005).

The study used a proportional stratified sample of the population to complete the survey instrument. In proportional stratified sampling, the proportions in the sample on the stratification variable will be perfectly or almost perfectly representative of the proportions on that same stratification variable in the population (Hinkle, Weirsma & Jurs, 1998; Johnson & Christensen, 2000). The study examined 25% of the selected population (n = 310), and then a random set of computer-generated numbers was used to select the individuals who received the survey instrument. For example, one particular university represented 173 students in the total population, or 14%. For the purposes of this study, using proportional stratified sampling, the institution received 44 surveys to distribute to selected college athletes to meet their specific proportion.

DATA ANALYSIS

In keeping with the model of exploratory descriptive research, it was determined to conduct principal components analysis (PCA) using orthogonal rotation (varimax) for factor analysis, PCA is a method for exploratory factor analysis, and varimax rotation aims to produce as few items loading high on a factor as possible, resulting in a parsimonious and highly interpretable solution. Both the Bartlett's test for sphericity (2175.59 with significance level of 0.000) and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (.636) justified the appropriateness of using factor analysis for this study. A total of 43 items were used for the factor analysis. The

remaining items on the questionnaire were not relevant to this specific analysis. Unrestricted PCA delivered 15 factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1. However, only 6 out of 15 factors with alpha higher than .60. The six factors and constituting items are presented in Table 4. Eigenvalues, percent of variance per factor, cumulative percentage factor loadings, and Cronbach alphas are presented as well. It can be observed that all factor loadings are higher than .4, indicating high significance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989) The quality of the research instrument (internal consistency) is evidenced by high Cronbach alphas ranging from .64 to .79. Nunnally (1978) has indicated 0.7 to be an acceptable reliability coefficient, but lower thresholds are sometimes used in the literature.

In developing a factor analysis, it is important to note that the questions are structured to yield perceptions of the athlete with regards to the affect of different variables on the dependant variable of graduation from college. The survey questions are broken down into the areas of college coach's emphasis on academics, the extent of the use of specialized academic support services, sport played in college, ethnicity, gender, ACT/SAT score, High school core course (college preparatory) grade point average, and current college grade point average. To create the factors from the data, the questions were grouped according to the survey questions that exhibited an alpha of .60 or higher (See Table 4).

Data were analyzed using SPSS version 11.1. The results of this study were gleaned by analyzing the factors to ascertain if significantly affects on the dependant variable, academic progress (GPA) and graduation from college, in all sports surveyed. Then, all of the factors were analyzed to determine which factors are significant in the academic progress and potential for graduation of revenues sport athletes v. non-revenue sport athletes.

RESULTS

The answers on the survey instrument provided some interesting insight into perceptions and motivations for academic success and graduation. The sample population contained 191 athletes in 27 sports. Fifty-nine of the athletes surveyed represented almost one third of the sample (n = 59). 90 females and 101 males participated. Of that, 39 were African American, 143 Caucasian, and 9 from other ethnic backgrounds. All participants were in their last year of competitive NCAA eligibility and were represented class-standing wise by 26 juniors, 153 seniors, and 12 graduate students.

It is interesting to see that females consistently displayed higher performance on the academic indicators of ACT score, SAT score, core course GPA, and current college GPA as the sample on Table III demonstrates. The contrasts here are important given the specific conference surveyed. None of the female sports in the Mid-American Conference are considered revenue sports, in fact only football and men's basketball meet that criteria. It can be inferred that female athletes, at least in the MAC, personally view academics as more important than athletics and/or coaches of these teams view academic persistence and graduation as important. It was consistent that the revenue sports performed worse on the specific academic indicators than female and other non-revenue sports. This is consistent with the literature in that it appears academics suffer at the higher levels of competition.

The main end result is the factors present interesting areas that may be explored through future research to provide more comprehensive, valid results, along with exploring a larger sample using more athletic conferences or the NCAA as a whole. Typically six factors would be considered too many in empirical research, however in exploratory research the number of factors is not limited to allow modification and changes through future research and instrument development (Johnson & Christensen, 2000).

Regarding factor 1 (coach's influence on the perception of the athlete with regard to academics and athletics), the answers convey there is no significant difference between revenue sport athletes and non-revenue athletes in their perception of the influence of a college coach on academics after enrollment. This finding differs from the literature in that previous research implies that coaches are the most influential in the academic progress of a college athlete specifically in revenue sports. The results of this study suggest that individual motivation and others outside of the coaching staff have more influence, at least in the area of grade point average and the findings here present further potential areas of research.

Concerning factor 2 (the perception of the athlete as to the importance of academics v. athletics), previous research indicates that many athletes in revenue sports will focus on athletic, rather than academic endeavors. The answers for this study conflict with that data. Over 70% (n = 132) of the participants in all sports responded that they regarded themselves as a serious student and academics, not athletics, are their first priority. Only 26% (n = 49) of the respondents in revenue sports said they chose their institution for athletic advancement and not for an education.

Results of the survey confirmed the trends in the literature of revenue sport athletes needing and using specialized academic support services as compared to those in non-revenue sports in factor 3. This was especially acute in ethnic minority male revenue sport athletes. Over two-thirds of the ethnic minority male athletes surveyed stated they needed these services to progress academically and potentially graduate. There is also a significant difference by gender with male athletes using these services more than female athletes.

Factor 4 covered the personal goal of the athlete with regard to academics and graduation. Almost all of the respondents stated that achieving academically and graduating was of major importance to them. Since the surveyed sample was within one year of graduation the answer ratio can be attributed to this. However, while many alluded to the importance of coach's involvement and support, the benefit of tailored academic services, many of the respondents added that academic progress and graduation were an individual responsibility and they alone must have the motivation to accomplish the goal.

The changes in emphasizing academics versus eligibility during recruitment with regard to the direct influence of the coach in Factors 5 and 6 were also found in this study with athletes from the Mid-American Conference. While overall, almost 50% of the college athletes (revenue and non-revenue sports) in the Mid-American Conference said their coaches maintained the priority emphasis on academics and not athletics during recruitment (n = 85), only 31% (n = 18) of men's basketball and football athletes believed that their coach was more interested in them graduating from college than their competitive eligibility after enrollment. Overall only 10% (n = 19) of the respondents stated that the coach was a primary factor in choosing which institution to attend.

DISCUSSION

Previous research indicated that the influence and academic philosophy of the coaching staff is one of the most significant factors in predicting academic success and potential for graduation of a college athlete (Cullen, Latessa & Byrne, 1990; Ridpath, 2002). This study does not support that premise, instead giving individual goals and motivation along with the influence of others outside the coaching staff, specifically athletic academic advisors higher importance, at least in the perception of the athlete. The literature implies that a coach(es) is more of an influence for revenue sports, but this study and this particular population put more significance on individual motivation and desires along with the influence of athletic academic advisors. Athletes in

revenue and non-revenue sports were given the opportunity to comment on the contents of the survey and their own personal feelings and experiences in college athletics.

The results validated Vroom's Expectancy Theory in that overall, most of the responses and individual written commentaries referred to individual responsibility and motivation, not relying on someone else to motivate them or insure academic progress and graduation. Since student motivation for all college students in general is considered to be a determining factor in academic performance, persistence, and graduation (Geiger & Cooper, 1996), the results from this study confirmed the importance of individual wants, needs, and desires. The following is a sample of qualitative responses from some of the respondents that lend validity to the theory and effect of individual motivation and quantitative findings:

QUOTES:

Female, Track and Field

"I have been very lucky to have a coach that really encourages academic success, but I know many people who have not been that lucky."

Female, Volleyball

"The academic services at my university have been excellent. My coach has put the correct emphasis on both academics and athletics."

Female, Soccer

"I feel that coaches do not put academics before athletics during the season."

Male, Football

"Being a college athlete has been a great challenge for me and is an experience that will prepare me for the rest of my life. I realized quickly that academics are of the utmost importance if I am to achieve the things I desire in life."

The results of this study can be used by university and college athletic administrators to improve academic support services, philosophies of athletes and coaches, and priorities within the mission of the university. This study shows that many college athletes want an education and are putting the responsibility of getting an education on their own shoulders. However, the importance of all involved in the academic/athletic process (coaches, administrators, academic advisors, and athletes) must recognize that while individual motivation has proven to be paramount in this study, the influence and priorities set by others still are very important and can influence whether a college athlete persists and graduates from college.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

There are several implications that can be derived from this study for coaches and intercollegiate athletic administrators. As stated in the literature and previous research, academic achievement of and the graduation of intercollegiate college athletes is of significant concern to those in charge with running intercollegiate athletic programs (Adler & Adler, 1985; Briggs, 1996; Grimes & Chressanthos, 1994; Hanford, 1974; Pascarella, Bohr, Nora & Terenzini, 1995). This study attempted to confirm or refute existing literature and previous research on a certain characteristic that may enhance or inhibit graduation from college for an NCAA Division I college athletes.

The researchers believe that this study validated some of the data presented in the literature with some interesting revelations. The implications of this study apply primarily and are limited to only the Mid-American Conference, but the results can be generalized to college athletes in

other conferences since the data presented in this study show that the affect of the perception of coach (es) involvement in the academic life is important, but the perception is not as significant as individual goals and motivation, as per Vroom's theory. However, when grouped together with a factor analysis, the populations in this study revealed that individual motivation to succeed academically and direct involvement of athletic academic advisors have a greater impact on potential than influence of a coach. Still many of the respondents confirmed that a coach is an important force toward them achieving academically. Further research will include additional development and validity enhancement of the instrument, updating the existing literature, and more reliable and valid statistical analysis that contains fewer factors for analysis.

The results of this study can assist intercollegiate athletic administrators in designing and applying programs and strategies to enhance the academic progress and graduation rates of NCAA Division I college athletes. The graduation rates of intercollegiate athletes at a particular institution have long been used as a measurement of the academic emphasis concerning intercollegiate athletics. These findings suggest that college presidents, athletic directors, coaches, and other higher education administrators must be aware of factors concerning coaches involvement, individual athletes motivations and goals, and positive or negative influences of athletic academic advisors that can improve the academic achievement and graduation rate of college athletes. Most notably, higher education institutions must be courageous enough to admit only prospective college athletes who are capable of academically succeeding while in turn realizing the power that administrators and coaches have over that success. Future research could include a qualitative study of several athletes, academic at-risk and others, which consists of analyzing them through several years of enrollment to better assess the factors and predictors in revenue and non-revenue sports. It is important to expand the body of knowledge on this topic considering the future changes regarding intercollegiate athletic eligibility that are forthcoming.

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TABLE 1

Jury of Experts for Review of Survey Instrument

Michelle Duncan, Director of the Buck Harless Student Athlete Program, Marshall University.

Karen Kirtley, Director of Auxiliary Operations, Marshall University

Paul Leary, Ed.D., Professor, Leadership Studies, Marshall University

Robin Walton, Associate Professor, College of Nursing and Health Professions, Marshall University

Rhonda Shepherd, Director of the Testing and Tutoring Center, Mountain State University, Beckley, West Virginia

Jim Hodge, Math Faculty, Mountain State University, Beckley, West Virginia

Doug Sturgeon, Director of Student Teaching, Rio Grande College, Gallipolis, Ohio

Darrell Taylor, Director of Upward Bound, Concord College, Concord, West Virginia

TABLE 2

Frequency Statistics on Completion of Survey by Sport

Sport	Frequency	Percentage
Football	48	25.1
Men's Basketball	11	5.8
Women's Basketball	6	3.1
Baseball	16	8.4
Men's Volleyball	3	1.6
Women's Volleyball	12	6.3
Track and Field M&W includes Indoor /Outdoor/Cross Country	22	11.5
Men's Wrestling	3	1.6
Tennis (M&W)	6	3.1
Swimming (M&W)	15	7.9
Soccer (M&W)	15	7.9
Men's Ice Hockey	4	2.1

TABLE 2 (CONTINUED)

Frequency Statistics on Completion of Survey by Sport

Sport	Frequency	Percentage
Women's Field Hockey	2	1.0
Women's Softball	15	7.6
Women's Gymnastics	6	3.1
Golf (M&W)	2	1.0
Women's Lacrosse	2	1.0
Total	191	100.0

TABLE 3

Descriptive Statistics on Contrasts Between Selected Sports, Male and Female.

Main Sport		ACT Test Score	SAT Test Score	Core Course GPA	Current College GPA
Football	Mean	20.87	1022.11	3.016	2.809
	N	31	19	44	47
	Std. Deviation	3.085	112.821	.5570	.4973
Men's Basketball	Mean	21.33	1140.00	3.230	2.936
	N	6	1	10	11
	Std. Deviation	4.367	.	.5982	.6313
Women's Basketball	Mean	21.67	990.00	3.100	2.883
	N	3	1	6	6
	Std. Deviation	2.309	.	.4382	.4401
Synchronized Skating Female	Mean	26.00	1220.00	3.650	3.067
	N	3	1	2	3
	Std. Deviation	2.646	.	.2121	.1155
Field Hockey Female	Mean	28.00	1230.00	3.500	3.250
	N	1	2	2	2
	Std. Deviation	.	42.426	.4243	.4950

TABLE 4

Factor, Constituting Items (Factor Loading)	Eigenvalue Explained per Factor	Variance Explained	Cumulative alpha	Cronbach
Factor 1. Does the influence of a college coach(es) affect the perception of the athlete on the importance of academic progress and graduation? 1. I feel I have control over my academic and athletic life (.428) 2. It is important to me for my coach to encourage and require good performance in class (.446) 3. During college, my coaches placed academic success above athletic success (.634) 4. My coach stresses the importance of getting a college degree (.649) 5. I believe my coach will be interested in my academic success when my eligibility expires (.656) 6. My coach cares that I succeed academically and graduate (.785) 7. It is important to my coach for me to graduate (.783)	4.962	11.54	11.54	.79
Factor 2. What is the perception of the athlete on the importance of academics v. athletics? 8. When I entered college, getting a degree was more important than being a professional (.594) 9. I spend at least 10 hours studying per week (.663) 10. Academics are my top priority in college (.632) 11. I chose this school to meet my academic goals (.698)	3.390	7.88	19.42	.64
Factor 3. What is the athletes' perception of the need for specialized academic support services? 12. I use special academic support services for college athletes on a regular basis (.414) 13. I could not graduate without having used these services (.838) 14. I use these services voluntarily (.454) 15. I do not need these services to graduate (.777)	2.602	6.05	25.47	.64
Factor 4. Is the coach the primary reason an athlete chooses a specific college? 16. I chose this school because of the coach (.755) 17. My coach is the person who has the most academic influence on me (.704)	2.092	4.87	30.34	.68
Factor 5. Does the athlete perceive education as the most important goal during enrollment? 18. It is of great importance to me to get a college degree (.902) 19. I feel academics are important and a degree is needed for me to be a success (.879)	1.900	4.42	34.76	.78
Factor 6. Do coaches emphasize academics or athletics during the recruiting process? 20. My coach emphasized academics more than athletics during the recruiting process (.805) 21. The coach made it clear to me about academics being more important than athletics during the recruiting process (.799)	1.759	4.09	38.85	.78

TABLE 5

Number of Athletes Represented per Factor

Factor	N	Mean	Std. Dev
Factor 1	191	1.38	.37
Factor 2	189	1.63	.45
Factor 3	189	1.99	.56
Factor 4	190	2.28	.65
Factor 5	191	1.05	.25
Factor 6	185	1.54	.57

A STRATEGY FOR INTERNSHIP-SEEKING SPORT MANAGEMENT STUDENTS

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INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to describe a strategy for undergraduate sport management students to obtain an internship. Many universities require students to complete full-time internships in order to graduate. The benefits of the internship experience for sport management students have been well-documented (Hager, 1984; Parkhouse, 1978; 1984; 1987; Parks, 1991; VanderZwaag, 1980). Obtaining an internship can be a difficult and stressful prospect especially when the institution does not engage in placement. One philosophy is to allow students to engage in self-search when it comes to securing an internship. Cuneen and Sidwell (1994) addressed the benefits and shortcomings of the student self-search versus the student placement process of obtaining internships in the text *Sport Management Field Experiences*. Recently, many authors have written about the internship experience (Cuneen, 2004; Cuneen & Sidwell, 1993b; Kelly 2004; Moorman, 2004; Verner 1993, 2004; Williams, 2004; Young & Baker 2004). Others have concentrated on the importance and usefulness of the internship experience (Cuneen, 2004; Young & Baker 2004). Some have written about the legal aspects of the sport management internship (Anderson & Ayres, 2002; Miller 2002; Moorman, 2004) while others have written about the sponsoring agencies' perspective with sport management internships (Williams, 2004). Peretto Stratta (2004) analyzed the concerns of the sport management students with regards to the internship experience. Few have written about specific strategies used to attain the sport management internship (Cuneen and Sidwell, 1994; Verner, 2004). This paper discusses one strategy students engage in during a course, Sport Management Seminar, during their last semester of coursework and prior to their internship experience. This strategy could prove useful to sport management faculty that employs the student self-search process in obtaining internships.

REQUIREMENTS FOR STUDENT INTERNSHIP

Students are required to complete all coursework prior to undergoing internship at our university for two primary reasons. First, the student is expected to have a general body of knowledge and a strong theoretical foundation that will enable him to be successful when entering the sport industry workforce. Second, the old adage, "It is easier to get a job while you have a job," comes into play. Often students are offered full-time employment from their internship site or from a company they have networked with while performing their internship. If the students have completed all coursework and will graduate upon completion of the internship experience, then they are free to accept such a position. If they take internship prior to the completion of all their required coursework, the students must turn down such offers in order to finish their degree requirements. This can make finding a job more challenging. Having a job or internship creates value in the minds of prospective employers. As the reader will read later, the process for finding and securing an internship is similar to finding full-time employment and can make finding such employment easier while actually completing their internship.

At our university, students take a three-hour course titled "Sport Management Seminar," that has as its primary objective, to empower the student with the tools that will enable them to obtain an internship. The process by which students work toward obtaining an internship follows the tenet that the student take responsibility for all the activities that increase the probability of succeeding and securing an internship. This philosophical approach has

advantages and disadvantages and is different from other institutions that favor placement of students at predesignated internship sites. Cuneen and Sidwell (1994) list advantages of student self-search for internships as: motivation; preparation; preparation and development of objectives by the sponsoring organization; increased learning of internship opportunities; student interaction about potential internship sites; the ability to evaluate potential internship site, and the ability to negotiate remuneration. Disadvantages include: students may choose a site based solely on convenience; students may not be thorough; students may be unduly influenced by others; remuneration may be the sole criteria ignoring other important factors; expectations may be unrealistic and students may underestimate living expenses. We believe that the advantages outweigh the disadvantages and, with a solid strategy and process for students' self-search, many if not all the disadvantages can be overcome.

THE PLAN OF ACTION (POA)

One challenge for faculty in having the student conduct self-search is the loss of control and potential student failure. Therefore, it is important for a self-search process to be defined, measurable, and easily communicated. The first step in the student-driven self-search process is for the student to develop a plan of action (POA). The POA aids the student in identifying his goals and objectives and specific strategies that he will take to begin the internship hunt process. Within the POA, the student writes down his specific goals and objectives. After the goals and objectives are defined, the students select three potential internship locations to contact. The POA is a document that is reviewed periodically by the faculty to ensure the students' goals are robust, obtainable, and realistic. For example, if the student has specific financial limitations, then an internship site must either compensate the student adequately or the student must choose a site that does not impose an undue financial burden on him.

Students can either submit the document for review by the faculty member or can give classroom oral presentations. An advantage to a short two-minute oral presentation on goals, objectives, strategy and target internship site, is that it allows the student to articulate and explain their decision making and internship site selection process. It also allows the faculty to give feedback directly to the student and allows for other students in the classroom to participate in the conversations. This process should take place within the first two weeks of the semester.

“ACTIVE” SITES AND EVALUATIONS

Once the goals, objectives, strategies, and target internship sites have been selected, the student is then charged with making the internship site “active.” “Active” means that the student has contacted each potential internship site and identified and spoken with the decision maker within the organization and determined if an internship is available for the specified time period. Many students will eliminate potential sites simply by engaging in this activity. If an internship site is eliminated, the student is responsible for replacing a discarded internship site with a new “active” site. Maintaining three active enhances the probability of the student successfully obtaining an internship for the semester in which he desires. This process allows the student to research each targeted firm and pursue or eliminate potential sites that do not fulfill students' goals and objectives. Creating an “active” internship site data-base for each student should take place within the third and fourth week of the semester. Students are encouraged to set up interviews with all “active” sites at this time.

The second two-minute speech should take place in the fifth and sixth weeks of the semester. Faculty should evaluate whether or not each student has three “active” sites within his portfolio. If a student does not have the three required “active,” sites then the student must meet with the faculty member to discuss a strategy to fulfill this requirement. On the POA, the student should also have a “Notes” section about each “active” site. This “notes” section

should contain all contact information for the “active” sites including names; addresses; phone numbers; fax numbers; dates of contacts; information requested and sent to the firms; specific job requirements; certifications required; insurance policies required; and any “tickler” information. “Tickler” information is any information that will aid the student in the networking process. It may include the names of children; weather conditions; personal habits of firm representatives; or any other information the student gathers on the organization or organization’s personnel that may give them an edge when applying for the internship. This can be a crucial element during the interview process and may tip the scales in the individual student’s favor when decisions are being made.

With three “active” sites the students will progress toward securing an internship. This process may include communication between the student and the prospective internship site by a variety of mediums including: email; written correspondence; phone interviews; or face-to-face interviews. As part of the students’ professional preparation they are responsible for creating a variety of documents including: resume; cover letter; and creating a list of references. Most universities have professional career services that can help in this endeavor. The faculty member can also help with in-class instruction, advice, and the evaluating of these documents.

OTHER PREPARATIONS

Students must also be prepared for the interview. Mock interviews can be held as part of a class assignment. Appropriate dress and etiquette, especially for eating interviews or receptions, should also be a part of the instruction. Both dress and eating etiquette for interview setting can be integrated into the course syllabus. A variety of teaching protocols to prepare students for the interview process can be applied. Early in the semester the students can establish professional dress criteria through cooperative learning and norming. With input from the Career Services Center concerning appropriate dress for interviewing, the class selects the dress code for the semester. By dressing business casual and business professional throughout the semester, the students attain a comfort level that will aid them during the interview period. By participating in mock interviews, the students get to practice and observe themselves via videotape and improve upon their interview techniques. All of the above pre-professional activities help to prepare the students and better their odds of securing a quality internship.

BUILDING A DATABASE

As the semester progresses, the students will invariably reject some of their initial internship site selections for a variety of reasons. As internship sites are rejected, the students must replace them with new site selections always maintaining the three “active” sites. Rejected internship sites by one student may be an opportunity for another student in the class and, therefore, the students are encouraged to share with classmates’ information they have gathered on these rejected sites. This process of rejecting internship sites and adding new ones has several benefits. The students get to research further the opportunities available to them within the sports industry. Students practice communicating with professionals and enhance and increase their professional nomenclature. The networking that they do increases their contacts within the industry and lays the foundation for their job hunt which will proceed with the completion of their internship. Students gain confidence in their ability to interview and find opportunities within the sport industry. Students take ownership and responsibility of their own destiny and careers. Their negotiating strategies are improved upon as they compete for quality internships. The interaction with other classmates further strengthens these bonds and may lead to opportunities in the future. Many of the activates of the self-search process for internship may have both short-term and long-term rewards.

When a student accepts an internship they give a final two-minute presentation. Students describe the process by which the internship was secured. This further helps students who may be struggling with the process and have not yet secured an internship. The students who secured internship, describe the duties to be performed for the organization; any remuneration they will receive; and the potential benefit the internship will have on his future choice of career. This is a time to celebrate the achievement of the student and to have the student reflect upon his initial goals and objectives on the written POA. The faculty member should consult with the student prior to the final acceptance to determine if the internship is appropriate and will fulfill the university requirements while meeting the specific needs of the student. Students provide to the faculty advisor the appropriate paperwork and all pertinent internship supervisor information including: name; job title of supervisor; complete mailing address; and work phone number. The faculty member then contacts the internship supervisor and corroborates the details of internship information. Once all paperwork is signed by the appropriate university representatives and internship site representatives, the student is free to begin his internship.

After the student has accepted an internship, his other active contacts and discarded internship site selections should be retained to bolster the internship database for the remainder of the students and for future students. It is not uncommon for a class of approximately 25 students to generate well over 200 potential internship sites for future students. A strong database is a key element in aiding students with the self-search process. The database should be maintained, updated, and made available to students by the faculty member.

CURRENT RESEARCH AND FINDINGS

To date, 225 students have participated in the POA self-search method of obtaining an internship. The average number of active sites obtained before selecting an internship was 5.3. This means that, on average, students will contact more than five sites before finally selecting an internship. Of the 5.3 “active” sites students initially target, a little more than half, 2.8, are new or unique sites to the original internship site database. This tells us that students rely on the existing database for about half of their contacts. This 2.8 number of unique or new sites may also reflect the growing number of opportunities available to students seeking to perform an internships.

This internship self-search selection process was adopted in the fall of 1999 by our sport management program. Table 1 shows the student numbers and the success rate for students seeking an internship. To date, there have been 225 students to seek internship under the self-search process described above. The success rate has been 98.22 percent or, of the 225 students using the POA self-search method, 221 successfully obtained an internship in the semester of their choice. The first semester that students obtained internships under this process was the spring semester of 2000. Success was determined by students successfully securing internships in the semester of their choice. The year, semester, number of students seeking internships, number of students successfully obtaining internships in the semester of their choice, number of students unsuccessfully obtaining internships in the semester of their choice, and the percentage of successful outcomes is highlighted in Table 1.

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The potential benefits of the internship experience for sport management students is clearly documented. The best method for students to obtain the internship is a challenging process for the sport management educator. Incorporating the internship search process into a capstone or seminar course in the student’s final semester of coursework appears to be an effective process. Employing the self-search process where the student incorporates goals and objectives

into a plan of action document gives the student the opportunity to reflect and concentrate his efforts into the particular sport field of his interest. Maintaining three “active” sites throughout the semester helped the student to develop needed networking skills and increases his likelihood of success. As a class assignment to be shared with peers, this effort can have an additive effect on successfully obtaining an internship for the desired semester and within the desired field. By evaluating progress throughout the semester, the sport management faculty member can become a partner in the internship site selection process. By maintaining a database on internship sites the faculty member can help facilitate the selection process. This method of internship site selection has had a great deal of success and could be employed successfully at other universities.

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Table 1

Student Success Rates

Year	# of students	# successfully obtaining internship	# unsuccessfully obtaining internship	% of success
2000	33	32	1	96.96
2001	38	38	0	100
2002	43	43	0	100
2003	40	39	1	97.5
2004	38	37	1	97.37
2005	33	32	1	96.96
Totals	225	221	4	98.22

*Two of the unsuccessful students above have since completed internship.

**Three students who completed internships had additional coursework to complete and two of those students have not yet graduated.

***One student did not successfully complete the internship and has still not graduated.

SMART BOOK REVIEW

CONTEMPORARY SPORT MANAGEMENT (3RD ED.).

By Parks, J.B., Quarterman, J., & Thibault, L. (2007).

Publisher: Human Kinetics

Review By Erin McNary, Indiana University

As the field of sport management continues to evolve and change both as an academic discipline and a professional occupation so do the textbooks and materials used by educators and managers. A few of the more recent and well-received texts that introduce students to this growing field of study include publications such as *The Management of Sport: Its Foundation and Application* (Parkhouse, 2005), *Foundations of Sport Management* (Gillentine & Crow, 2005), and *Principles and Practice of Sport Management* (Masteralexis, Barr & Hums, 2004). While these books all cover important sport management segments, topics, and events, the third edition of *Contemporary Sport Management* serves as the most updated source of information in the field. Janet B. Parks (Bowling Green State University) and Jerome Quarterman (Florida State University) were involved in the first two editions of this textbook. With the 2007 publication, Lucie Thibault (Brock University) joins Parks and Quarterman as editors of this new edition. Some of the leading sport management scholars contribute to the collection of chapters in the book.

The textbook is divided into six major parts which include an Introduction to Sport Management, Selected Sport Management Sites, Selected Sport Management Functions, Organizational and Managerial Foundations of Sport Management, Current Challenges in Sport Management, and The Future of Sport Management. Chapter 1, written by Parks, Quarterman, & Thibault, introduces and defines the term “sport”. The authors focus on three models (e.g., the product type model, the economic impact model, and the sport activity model) that are used to define, “the nature and scope of the sport industry” (p. 10). Highlighted are three unique aspects of sport management: sport marketing, sport enterprise financial structures, and sport industry career paths. In addition to these three unique aspects, the authors of this first chapter propose a fourth aspect of sport - sport as a social institution. In chapter 2, Kathryn S. Hoff (Bowling Green State University), JoAnn Kroll (Bowling Green State University), and Carol Fletcher (St. John’s University) discuss the need for professionalism and the tactics necessary to achieve a well-rounded sport management background; explaining the importance of education, internships, field experiences, values, interests, and skills. The final chapter of this section is written by Stuart M. Keeley (Bowling Green State University), Parks, and Thibault. This chapter, which focuses on critical thinking, informs students that, “Sport managers of the 21st century will have to solve problems that we cannot even conceptualize today” (p. 48). Through the use of critical thinking questions and case studies, the authors challenge the readers to question others’ decision making processes.

The second section of the text aims to inform potential sport managers of career fields they may choose in various sectors of the sport industry. Chapter 4, authored by Ellen J. Staurowsky (Ithaca College) and Robertha Abney (Slippery Rock University), describes governance in intercollegiate athletics. The chapter specifically describes the hierarchy within a college athletics department. Professional sport is the focus of chapter 5, which is written by James M.

Gladden (University of Massachusetts at Amherst) and William A. Sutton (University of Central Florida). This comprehensive chapter discusses topics ranging from the history of sport and media outlets to the five unique circumstances related to the labor-management relationship: baseball's antitrust exemption, collective bargaining, free agency, salary caps, and the player draft. Mark A. McDonald (University of Massachusetts at Amherst) and Sutton cover types and functions of sport marketing and marketing agencies in chapter 6. In chapter 7, Heather Gibson (University of Florida) discusses the growing nature of the sport tourism industry by categorizing three types of sport tourism: active sport tourism, event sport tourism, and nostalgia sport tourism. Gibson concludes the chapter by stressing the socio-cultural, economic, and environmental impacts of sport tourism, which are important to cities, countries, and regions that are becoming more reliant on this industry to boost economic growth. The final chapter of this section, written by SUNY-Cortland's Ted G. Fay and David Snyder, examines international sport from a North American viewpoint. There have been critical changes in international sport especially during the late 20th and early 21st centuries. With these changes has come an increased emphasis on the development of skills and competencies related to international sport and the manager.

Part 3 introduces sport marketing and promotions, consumer behavior, communication and public relations, finance and budgeting, and facility and event management. In chapter 9, F. Wayne Blann (Ithaca College) and Ketra L. Armstrong (California State University at Long Beach) use the definition provided by Pitts and Stotlar (2002) to define sport marketing. The authors also present a ten-step process centered on the four primary elements - the four P's - of a marketing plan. Another often-used important management technique expounded on in this chapter is the SWOT analysis where students can learn about the importance of maximizing the strengths and opportunities while minimizing the sport organization's weaknesses and threats. In chapter 10, co-authored by University of Texas-Austin's B. Christine Green and Carla A. Costa provide an overview on consumer behavior in sport and provide insights into the world of the sport consumer. The authors also identify several group influences on the sport consumer. These influences include direct reference groups, indirect reference groups, and consumer socialization. Chapter 11, written by G. Clayton Stoldt (Wichita State University), Catherine Pratt (Bowling Green State University), and Stephen W. Dittmore (East Stroudsburg University), emphasizes communication processes and models of public relations practice. Because of the symbiotic nature of sport and the mass media, sport managers frequently encounter and interact with members of the mass media. Therefore, much of the chapter is devoted to effectively dealing with these mass media professionals and outlets while the remainder of the chapter provides an overview of community relations. The following chapter covers finance, economics, and budgeting related to the sport industry (Timothy D. DeSchriver, University of Delaware and Daniel F. Mahoney, University of Louisville). This chapter takes a look at the current financial state of professional sport and intercollegiate sport and introduces some basic economic principles. Sport business structures are examined and the reader is made aware of the importance of financial statements in order to manage a successful sport operation. With the increase in the construction of new sport facilities, managers must know the key aspects to setting up and managing a sporting event. In chapter 13, Robin Ammon, Jr. (Slippery Rock University) and David K. Stotlar (University of Northern Colorado) use their expertise in identifying the intricacies of managing an event in relation to such issues as parking protocol, alcohol policies, and customer service.

The next section reviews management theory and illustrates how managers can best evaluate organizational effectiveness. Chapter 14 (Thibault & Quarterman) provides examples of organizational structure and the hierarchy of informal and formal groups that comprise a sport organization. Dimension structures of specialization, formalization, and standardization along with various practical examples are included in this section. Strategy, change, and

organizational culture are also addressed, followed by information pertaining to managerial leadership in sport organizations (Quarterman, Ming Li [Ohio University], & Parks) in chapter 15.

Part 5 of the text expounds on current challenges facing sport managers. Chapter 16 identifies one of these challenges: legal issues in sport (Lori K. Miller, Wichita State University and Anita M. Moorman, University of Louisville). In this chapter, Miller and Moorman provide a brief overview of basic law principles and then discuss laws such as the American with Disabilities Act and Title IX. Another topic relating to sport law is that of ethical challenges in sport management. This aspect of sport management is discussed by Joy T. DeSensi (University of Tennessee at Knoxville) and David Cruise Malloy (University of Regina) in chapter 17. Moral, social, non-moral, and core values are categorized and placed into a hierarchical system based on level of importance. In chapter 18, Mary Jo Kane (University of Minnesota) discusses sociological aspects of sport and concludes this section of the book. Kane's knowledge and research of this area - particularly her examination of women's sport - gives the reader insight into this key aspect of the sport industry.

The final two chapters - chapter 19 written by University of Windsor's Robert Boucher and Jess C. Dixon and chapter 20 written by Wendy Frisby of the University of British Columbia - illustrate field and academic research methodologies and processes as well as research positions in the sport industry. Various academic journals such as the *International Journal of Sport Management*, *Journal of Sport Management*, *European Sport Management Quarterly*, *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, *Sport Management Review*, *Journal of Sports Economics*, and *International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship* are highlighted posing research questions that might appear in the journals if a student or academician were to submit a journal article.

This book is ideal for students in an introductory course because it exposes them to myriad topics related to the sport management field. The textbook provides an excellent foundation for students upon which they can build their sport management program of study and careers in the sport industry. While this new edition is an obvious important contribution to the body of knowledge in this field, there are a couple areas that could be explained in more detail. For example, when the authors define sport in the textbook, they use the Council of Europe (2001) and research by Pitts, Fielding, and Miller (1994). The former definition states that competition at all levels must exist. The latter research was not trying to define sport but rather attempted to analyze segments of the sport industry. While the text states that sport does not have to be competitive, it should be pointed out that there are varying opinions related to the definition of sport. Another area of concern is the focus on specific models such as the product type model, economic impact model, and the sport activity model. Models may be beneficial in defining the nature of sport but to thoroughly grasp and explain these models to students may take several class periods. Furthermore, it should be pointed out that there is not a consensus regarding models as there are numerous scholarly conceptual frameworks related to sport and the sport industry.

Because the sport industry is so massive and diverse, it is difficult for an introductory textbook to provide an in-depth analysis of any segment or topic in the field. Because the textbook is a compilation of chapters by various authors, some of the chapters offer more of an introductory view while other chapters delve into their subjects in greater detail. Although chapters and topics are covered in varying degrees, all of the chapters are important for a full understanding of the field. However, covering the book's 20 chapters in one semester might not be feasible for most sport management professors. Therefore, academicians might need to pick and choose selected chapters.

Sport, the sport industry, and sport management hold a unique place in our culture because of their rich history and evolution as an academic discipline and a professional occupation. If students are familiar with the history of sport, they will be able to contextualize current events and have a better understanding of how to apply theory and have an overall understanding of how sport fits into our culture. It would be of benefit to the students in the field to have a chapter devoted to this history of sport. A timeline is present throughout many of the chapters but the amount of coverage of history varies. Many curricula offer sport history classes and majors, so adding a chapter on history would be beneficial to students and the field.

The insertion of profiles of individuals working in the field throughout the chapters personalizes the text and provides the reader with job ideas. Also, the job opportunities sections particularly in Part 2 of the text (although chapter 8 lacks a job opportunities section) are useful to students as they explore career options. The learning activity sections for students encourage creative problem solving and may foster group work and class interaction. International examples used throughout the chapters bring attention to various sport settings throughout the world and open students' minds to a wider range of possibilities and contexts of sport. Overall, this text is ideal for students in sport management who have never been exposed to concepts in the field and wish to learn about the umbrella of activities and subjects that fall under the field of sport management. This textbook is ideal - and highly recommended - for use in any introductory sport management or sport administration course.

PREDICTING A SENSE OF COMMUNITY AMONGST STUDENTS FROM THE PRESENCE OF INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS: WHAT ROLES DO GENDER AND BCS-AFFILIATION PLAY IN THE RELATIONSHIP?

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The integration of sport and community dates back to ancient Greece, and, most probably, long before (Stone, 1981). Sport existed in America during the early years (Smith, 1988) and, as early as 1830's, American cities' sports produced voluntary associations in teams and clubs; thus, providing one of the first venues for America that would cut across class and ethnic barriers and produce wholesome urban communities to the best of their ability (Dyreson, 2001). Empirically, partial data supports the significant contribution to community by sport (Mitrano & Smith, 1990; Wilkerson & Doddier, 1987). The latter study, explored the collective conscience of a community, examining such constructs as satisfaction and community engagement. They found that communities that win or participate in sport register higher levels of the community collective conscience (Wilkerson & Doddier, 1987). Thus, community studies at various magnitudes of population sizes and over a vast reach of history and space confirm the assertion that sport is a collective representation. Moreover, it is a salient part of their awareness, quite probably, due to the fact that it is a focus of conversation, publicity, and, now, the mass media. Further, it exists as a unifying force for those communities it represents, and this is, simultaneously, a consequence of the inter-community conflict it engenders and the intra-community communication network it establishes (Stone, 1981). Eitzen and Sage (1989) also noted that the enthusiasm generated by sport is a unifying agent for the community and a cohesive force. The purpose of this research endeavor was to explore sport's ability as this unifying agent for community and cohesion at the intercollegiate level on a college campus.

INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS

In a time of scarce resources for higher education, athletics consume large amounts of capital, time, and other resources. Intercollegiate athletics programs must be able to justify their place in higher education, and establish their place in the mission of each institution (Knight Higher Education Collaborative, 2003). The majority of past literature measuring the impact of athletics attempt to utilize alumni donations and pecuniary aspects to validate or invalidate an athletics program. The cumulative results of the following studies are mixed in terms of what a winning athletics program can generate regarding alumni donations and fans' fiscal support. Most, however, do find that highly successful intercollegiate sports and sporting programs elicit a significant increase in alumni donations, with football often having the largest and most significant impact on financial support (e.g. Baade & Sundberg, 1996; Daughtery & Stotlar, 2000; Sigelman & Brookheimer, 1994). A second realm of research with intercollegiate athletics has shown its potential to enact a positive effect on the enrollment and admission rates of the respective college or university (e.g. Chressanthi & Grimes, 1993; McEvoy, 2005; Toma & Cross, 1998).

A third empirical area measuring the impact of intercollegiate athletics on the campus looks at the graduation rates and academic environment. A university's academic thrust into the landscape has been shown to be enhanced by a successful football or basketball team, whether

in terms of advertising effects (Tucker, 1992) or academic perceptions (Lovaglia & Lucas, 2005). This line of research has also noted that the connection between graduation rates of either student-athletes or the general student body and each school's athletics success rates have been found to be tenuous, if present at all (Mangold, Bean & Adams, 2003; Rishe, 2003). However, Mangold et al. (2003) included their thoughts on athletics' influence on the campus community, articulating that:

...one of the benefits attributed to college sports programs is their ability to bring students together and provide them with a sense of pride and identification with the institution...seen from this perspective, it is reasonable to hypothesize that intercollegiate athletic programs would enhance the attainment of institutional goals (acquiring knowledge, making good grades, graduating), since university goals are embedded within the larger community structure of the university. The issue here is that sports build a sense of community among students and, perhaps to a lesser extent, faculty. Since the notion of student community is central to many theories of student performance, we hypothesize that intercollegiate sports facilitate and sustain the development of student communities (p. 543-544).

At the NCAA Football Bowl Subdivision, institutions and their football teams are often utilized by universities to develop this connection of students to each other, to alumni, and to both the past and future (Toma, 2003). This direct link to the past exists for students and all those who will attend (Beyer & Hannah, 2000; Deshler, 1985; Gladden, Milne, & Sutton, 1998; Toma, 2003). Previous research has also indicated that, in many ways, university athletics provide a sense of communal involvement within the university, the local community, and sometimes within the state or region (Beyer & Hannah, 2000; Melnick, 1993).

CAMPUS AND COMMUNITY

The notion of connection to the community has grown with increasing prominence in society (Putnam, 2000) and in higher education (Boyer, 1990; McDonald & Associates, 2002). It was Boyer (1990), while leading The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, who promoted the six necessary elements to enhancing campus community. Among these, was the notion of a "celebrative community," one that has its own traditions and heritage that cause pride and foster an emotional connection. This includes, among other activities, athletics. The inclusion of this ideal is necessary for a healthy community, one which has a shared culture, distinctiveness, tradition, and affirms itself, in addition to building morale and motivation through ceremonies and celebrations that honor the symbols of shared identity (Gardner, 1989). Strong athletic teams can add to these traditions and celebrations on a campus unless winning at all costs becomes a negative force (Toma, 1999 & 2003; Willimon & Naylor, 1995). Furthermore, all campus activities demonstrate the values of a campus and encourage university support as a method of building community (Gonzalez, 1989; Peck, 1987; Young, 1999).

One need for conducting research on this topic is depicted in each college and university's desire to generate this community amongst their students. The sense of community fostered on residential campuses remains the reason that many students go away to school, despite the convenience of a local institution with lower tuition rates (Toma, 2003). Student affairs administrators have also often anguished over the poor levels of community on their campuses (McDonald & Associates, 2002). This is due, in part, to the evidence supporting the notion that students who perceive a greater sense of community on campus persist longer in school (Mangold, Bean, & Adams, 2003; McCarthy, Pretty, & Catano, 1990; Tinto, 2000). Additionally,

with a greater sense of community comes a higher level of satisfaction with the undergraduate experience and elevated academic production (McDonald et al., 2002). Theoretically, one would hypothesize that the more satisfied one is with their college experience, the higher the probability of that person donating funds back to the university. Thus, a perpetual cycle exists between keeping students satisfied, so they become satisfied and grateful alumni.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The framework of this research draws its impetus from the seminal work in sport and community integration (Stone, 1981). Stone (1981) used two measures of community identification: 1) a measure of *objective* integration with the community, and 2) a measure of *subjective* identification or “felt belongingness.” Subjective identification with the community, under “objectively improbable conditions,” was most frequent among participant fans (67%) than non-fans (25%) (Stone, 1981). Later, these “sports fans” began to be viewed as beneficial to society because an interest in sport promoted personal interaction, something that leads to such social elements as cohesion and a strengthening of major social values (Smith, 1988). Other research echoed these sentiments, showing that identifying with a sports team may replace more traditional and community-based attachments to a larger social structure (Branscombe & Wann, 1991).

Further, Wann and Robinson (2002) examined a similar premise on a college campus, as Stone (1981) did in an urban community. They found that those students who identify as fans of the school sports teams were more likely to identify with, maintain higher perceptions of, and socially integrate into their university. Identification, perceptions, and social integration measures were all appraised with two to three items. The purpose of this study, then, was to integrate the work of Stone (1981) and Wann and Robinson (2002) to explore if a relationship exists between the presence of a school’s athletics department and perceiving a higher sense of community on campus.

Campus community stems from research performed by Lounsbury and DeNeui (1995). Operating under the framework of the psychological sense of community phenomenon (PSC) (Sarason, 1974), they transformed the established Sense of Community Index (Chavis & Newbrough, 1986) into the Campus Atmosphere Scale. The Campus Atmosphere Scale, using the PSC phenomenon, demonstrated that students who experience greater levels of PSC actually persist longer at their institution than those students with lower levels of PSC (Lounsbury & DeNeui, 1995). They found PSC higher among fraternity/sorority members, private school undergraduates, students living on campus, out-of-state residents, on-campus workers, seniors, and females (Lounsbury & DeNeui, 1995, 1996). It was, therefore, necessary to account for these variables in the current study. Similarly, extroversion and the size of an institution have also been found to contain a significant relationship with PSC on campus (DeNeui, 2003; Lounsbury & DeNeui, 1996). Finally, DeNeui (2003) discovered that over the course of one’s freshman year, and after controlling for the student’s level of campus participation, overall PSC does not increase.

The purpose of this research, then, contained multiple levels. First, the foremost intention was to address the relationship between the presence of intercollegiate athletics on campus and the perceived sense of community levels. Further, the mean differences of sense of community levels needed to be assessed and compared across the gender variable, as well as across the indicators of athletics competition level. Second, because much of the aforementioned literature on college sport has viewed the NCAA Division I level, this study sought to thoroughly examine the highest level of intercollegiate athletics, including both the NCAA Football Bowl Subdivision and the NCAA Football Championship Subdivision (Brown, 2006), and what differences it maintains over the remainder of college sport. The tertiary intent of this study

was aimed at observing the presence of the variables of gender and the affiliation with the Bowl Championship Series (BCS) and what impact these variables enacted upon the connection of college sport with the campus community. The BCS consists of schools from the Atlantic Coast Conference, the Big East Conference, the Big 10 Conference, the Big XII Conference, the Pacific-10 Conference, the Southeastern Conference, and the University of Notre Dame (The BCS is..., n.d.).

METHOD

The data for this research were obtained through the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI), a national organization charged with the mission of exploring the landscape of higher education and, specifically, the impact of such higher education elements as service-learning, leadership development, faculty mentoring, as well as assessing a wide variety of instructional practices. These particular data were drawn from a national study of college students through the 2003 College Student Survey (CSS), which assessed students' college experiences and their perceptions of college and was administered to over 700 colleges. A total of 34,087 college students completed the 2003 CSS. Of these responses, 18,681 were deemed usable after selecting out respondents from schools with athletics programs and full-time, undergraduate students aged 18 - 24.

Data here were weighted to adjust the sample to reflect proportions of students attending various types of colleges and universities across the country. Thus, with weights the institutional sample reflects the diversity of baccalaureate institutions nationwide in terms of type (four-year college versus university), control (public versus private) and level of athletics competition. It should be noted that the weight variable was normalized, such that applying it to the sample corrected for the biases indicated, but did not inflate, its size.

DEMOGRAPHICS

Of the total sample in this study (n = 18,681), a large majority, 61.4%, of the respondents were women (n = 11,469). The remaining 38.6% of the respondents were men (n = 7,212). Furthermore, only 22.1% of the students had joined a sorority or fraternity (n = 4,131) and 69.1% of the students spent less than two hours a week participating in a student club or group (n = 12,894). Moreover, 98.3% were 18 or 19 years of age (n = 18,367) and 92.0% of the students lived on campus or in Greek houses (n = 17,188).

SENSE OF COMMUNITY SCALE

The dependent variable in this study, the perceived sense of community, was established by a sense of community scale taken from the 2003 CSS. This was a nine-item scale that assessed each respondent's sense of community with similar questions as seen on the Campus Atmosphere Scale, a previously used instrument for measuring the sense of community in a valid and reliable manner (Lounsbury & DeNeui, 1995). The scale used questions to explore each student's satisfaction with such campus constructs as: sense of community, overall college experience, likelihood to re-enroll, et al. The scale exhibited high internal consistency and reliability with a Cronbach's α of .78.

DIRECTOR'S CUP POINTS

The Director's Cup was developed in 1993 by the National Association of Collegiate Directors of Athletics (NACDA) as the first-ever cross-sectional all-sports national recognition for both men and women (NACDA, 2003). Points are awarded for athletic success across the board of all three NCAA divisions and NAIA athletics. Published annually, points from these totals indicate the overall success rate of each university or college's athletics program. For this study, point totals from the Director's Cup standings were acquired for the years of academic years 2001 - 2002 and 2002 - 2003, both the year the CSS was administered and the year prior.

The remaining independent variables were taken from the CSS instrument. Used to develop greater control, these variables have been empirically linked to community perceptions on campus: gender (Lounsbury & DeNeui, 1996, McDonald et al., 2002), social experiences (George, 2001; Lounsbury & DeNeui, 1996), campus residence (Pascarella, 1983), distance from home (Elliott, 2002), and more.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Data analysis consisted of two phases: comparison of the means and analysis of the relationship between the presence of athletics on campus and the perceived sense of community amongst the student respondents. In the first phase, independent sample t-tests were conducted to examine any significant differences in the perceived sense of community levels between males and females, and BCS institutions and non-BCS institutions. Additionally, a one-way analysis of variance was conducted on perceived sense of community levels across the levels of athletic competition (NCAA Division I,II,III and NAIA).

The second phase analyzed the relationship between athletics presence and sense of community via regression analyses. To examine the overall relationship, a stepwise regression was conducted with the total sample. Further, separate regression analyses were to be conducted after disaggregating the data for both gender and BCS affiliation.

RESULTS

MEAN COMPARISONS

Results from the first phase of data analysis are displayed in Tables 1 and 2. Overall, females ($M = 35.01$) perceived a significantly higher sense of community than the male students ($M = 34.16$; $t_{(18206)} = 11.51$, $p < .0001$). At the level of athletic competition, it was determined that those students attending NCAA Division I institutions ($M = 34.50$), had the lowest of all perceived levels community, although only significantly lower than the NCAA Division II level ($M = 35.08$) and the NAIA level ($M = 35.09$; $F_{(3,18204)} = 12.15$; $p < .001$). Significant differences here were determined by using the Bonferroni adjustment for the four levels of the ANOVA. This post-hoc procedure was also selected because of the unequal distribution of sample sizes at each level (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2002). Furthermore, among the NCAA Division I institutions, those from BCS-affiliated schools had a significantly higher level of perceived community ($M = 35.40$) than those from non-BCS institutions ($M = 33.94$; $t_{(8801)} = -13.80$, $p < .0001$).

PREDICTABILITY OF SENSE OF COMMUNITY

Overall, the data revealed that there was, indeed, a significant, though nominal, relationship between the total number of Director's Cup points and the perceived levels of sense of community across all respondents from all levels of athletic competition ($R^2\Delta = .002$, $F_{(1,17774)} = 42.35$, $p < .0001$). Because of the unique differences between the levels of intercollegiate athletic competition i.e., NAIA, NCAA I, NCAA II etc., it was deemed necessary to examine for the presence of an interaction between athletics level and athletics presence (total Director's Cup points) that might be influencing the results. In other words, the impact of scoring high in the Director's Cup standings might be significantly different at the NCAA Division I level than at the NAIA level. When the regression analysis was conducted with the interaction in place, the interaction between the level of athletics competition and athletics presence did, in fact, demonstrate a significant presence ($\beta = .001$, $p < .0001$). Therefore, because of the unique relationship at each level and for reasons affecting external validity, it was decided that the data should be disaggregated along levels of intercollegiate athletics and the remaining analyses would be examined at the NCAA Division I level only ($N = 8803$). The regression makeup of both the overall sample and the NCAA Division I level only are presented below in Table 3.

GENDER

When the data were analyzed along the gender line with a separate regression analysis for both male students and female students, both analyses exhibited low, although statistically significant, $R^2\Delta$ values of .02 ($F_{(1,3489)} = 51.25, p < .0001$) for males and .01 ($F_{(1,5090)} = 38.00, p < .0001$) for females. However, while the female students at the NCAA Division I level posted a statistically significant larger mean ($M = 34.80$) than the male students ($M = 34.01; t_{(8801)} = -6.89, p < .001$), the presence of athletics had a significantly larger impact on the sense of community of the male students ($B = .002$) than the female students ($B = .001, p < .05$). Stated otherwise, whatever impact the overall athletics success in the Director's Cup standings had on the sense of community on campus, however nominally, it played a significantly larger role for the male sample in the data.

BCS AFFILIATION

Similar to the gender variable, the data were divided along the variable of BCS affiliation. In a more conspicuous contrast, those students from non-BCS institutions showed no significant relationship between total Director's Cup points and perceived sense of community levels. Conversely, the BCS regression revealed a significant predictability with $R^2\Delta = .01$ ($F_{(1, 3333)} = 19.12, p < .0001$). Because of this significant discrepancy in the regression relationships, further exploration seemed merited. Using Sobel's test for mediation ($z = -4.96, p < .001$), it was discovered that BCS affiliation provided a full mediation of the relationship between the total amount of Director's Cup points and the sense of community levels of the responding sample (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Sobel, 1982). This significant finding further illustrates that, not only do the unique characteristics of the NCAA Division I institutions reveal a distinct power allocated for intercollegiate athletics - as demonstrated by the presence of the aforementioned interaction - but, moreover, being a part of the Bowl Championship Series brings with it a significant, positive relationship with the school's overall success in the annual Director's Cup ($r = .64, p < .01$) and with the sense of community on campus ($p < .15, p < .01$). More importantly, though, said affiliation further mediates the relationship between the presence of athletics and the sense of community on campus.

DISCUSSION

Myriad results came about from the data used in this study on college sport and campus community. First, and not surprisingly, female college students in the sample put forth a significantly higher sense of community than their male counterparts, a phenomenon that echoes previous literature (DeNeui, 2003; George, 2001; Lounsbury & DeNeui, 1995, 1996). A similar existence occurs with females as sports spectators, where a higher connection of communal affect is derived as opposed to male sports fans (Ogden, 1999). Another noteworthy finding was the significant differences between levels of athletic affiliation. Students from the NAIA level, here, the lowest of all the levels of athletics competitions, posted the highest of all sense of community scores. Conversely, those respondents from the NCAA Division I level, the highest level of college athletic competition, displayed the lowest of all sense of community levels. These results were both significant and notable. One of the justifications for the commercialization and promotion of big-time athletics is for the enhancement of college sport's ability to draw students together and contribute to the sense of community (Mangold et al., 2003). With the NAIA at the opposite end of the spectrum, this resultant analysis might have been the most surprising of all the results. One explanation, though, exists in the fact that most of the NAIA realm of athletics consists of private, liberal arts universities which have consistently posted the highest levels of community on campus in previous research (Lounsbury & DeNeui, 1995, 1996; McCarthy et al., 1990). Further convoluting the outcome, however, was the revelation that, when comparing the NCAA Division I institutions, those responses coming from BCS-affiliated institutions posted significantly higher levels of perceived community over those students coming from non-BCS-affiliated colleges and universities. This outcome is one

that would have been predicted by the functionalists in college athletics that call for the increase in promotion and commercialization of big-time athletics and why the administrators in both the NCAA Football Championship Subdivision and the Football Bowl Subdivision engage in the spectacle of mimetic isomorphism (Gates, 1997) as has been shown in the dramatic increase in membership levels of the Football Bowl Subdivision over the last 20 years (Wolverton, 2005).

The second stage of data analyses viewed the relationship between the presence of athletics on campus and the subsequent perceived sense of community levels amongst the students. Overall, the data show that the level of athletics success for each institution in the annual Director's Cup standings did significantly predict the perceived sense of community levels. With Director's Cup point totals garnering a B-weight of .001, the presence had a minimal contribution, despite high significance. Because of this particular finding, further research seems necessary to further elucidate this potentially tenuous relationship.

A highly noteworthy finding occurred with the presence of the interaction variable, a presence that clarified that the presence of athletics success in the Director's Cup standings played a significantly different role across the levels of athletic competition in this sample. Because of this, the analyses and generalizability of the findings became restricted to the NCAA Division I level to narrow the focus of the research.

At that NCAA Division I level, male and female respondents displayed significantly different ($p < .05$) impacts upon their perceived sense of community levels by the presence of athletics success. Quite predictably, the impact that athletics success had on the sense of community levels was higher for the male students than for the females. This resonated throughout previous research studies which dictated that the importance of being a fan and of closely following, or being impacted by, their favorite teams was significantly higher for male college students than for female college students (Branscombe & Wann, 1991; End, Dietz-Uhler, Demakakos, Grantz, & Biviano, 2003; End, Dietz-Uhler, Harrick, & Jacquemotte, 2002; Iso - Ahola & Hatfield, 1986). This is one reason why the vastness of marketing for intercollegiate athletics on campus is often aimed at the male student population. What is forgotten, however, is that the female students still maintain a significant relationship between the presence of athletics and sense of community.

Finally, upon the final analysis of the predictability of perceived sense of community by the level of athletics success on campus, it was revealed that the relationship itself was fully mediated by the school's affiliation, or lack thereof, with the Bowl Championship Series. In fact, those students at Division I institutions that are not part of the BCS showed no significant relationship of predictability by athletics success upon their sense of community. Again giving credence to the support of college sports at the highest level, this finding legitimizes many of the anecdotal claims established in the previous literature and that have been used to validate the financial supporting of intercollegiate athletics (e.g. Duderstadt, 2001; Sperber, 2000; Toma, 2003). What was notable was the notion that not only does the Division I level of NCAA competition create a culture that sets it apart from the rest of the amateur sporting world - a world that is taken to an even higher culture of competition by the BCS - but that this was reflected in the data and the subsequent analyses. This finding requires much further insight with additional research and data to aid in clarifying the findings. However, at first glance, it does appear to support the notion of "ratcheting up," or mimetic isomorphism that is characterized by the administrators in the NCAA Football Championship Subdivision, or at the lower levels of the Football Bowl Subdivision, continuing to invest increasing amounts of capital and resources in hopes of producing the perceived benefits that come with the BCS-affiliation. These particular data lend to that notion.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Limiting the research in this study, first and foremost, was the difficulty in being able to effectively assess the direct connection between community and athletics presence. Many variables ultimately exist to confound the relationship and only a finite amount of them could be controlled for in the study. Of those particular variables, this study did not include any element of fandom, as it was unknown to what extent each respondent would classify themselves as a “fan” of the athletics teams on campus. The second limitation occurred in attempting to garner an accurate depiction of the presence of athletics on campus. While the Director’s Cup point standings has often been thought of as a valid and reliable standard for assessing athletics success, it may not provide a direct transfer of “presence” of the athletics program into the campus fabric. Similarly, the inverse is also true.

Another limitation of the study occurred in the sampling of undergraduate students. In this study, over 98% of the respondents were 18 or 19 years of age and 92% lived on campus or in a Greek house. This demography limits some of the generalizability of the study.

Finally, because very little empirical research exists supporting the findings of this study, it became necessary to gain a full depiction of the phenomenon through the quantitative realm of the 2003 CSS.

Based on the preceding limitations, the author recommends, for future research efforts, a number of suggested directives. First, a thorough qualitative investigation into the issue would improve the study’s ability to capture the unique individual connections that each college student creates, or does not create, with the athletics program on campus. Through this avenue, we would gain greater insight into the role that success plays with the sense of community on campus and what potentially negative impacts the athletics presence may possess with the student body community.

Another suggested area of research would be to take the insight acquired from the qualitative exploration and to revise the current study for a re-administration. With the national datasets in line, a longitudinal research effort could be undertaken to clarify the picture of college sport and its impact on the sense of community on campus.

IMPLICATIONS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION AND ATHLETICS ADMINISTRATORS

Because of the magnitude placed on the need for developing campus community in higher education today, administrators in student affairs, higher education governance, and intercollegiate athletics possess a shared ownership over the results of this research. Armed with the knowledge that a successful college athletics program has now been shown to significantly contribute to the university’s sense of community, policy makers in student affairs need to meticulously, and thoroughly, review the level and ideals currently being promoted through the athletics department and whether each of those are at the appropriate degree. These administrators should also conduct surveys to assess, and longitudinally track, the sense of community on campus. Knowing of the relationship of a perceived sense of campus community and the positive academic outcomes for undergraduate students (Mangold et al., 2003; McCarthy et al., 1990; McDonald et al., 2002; Tinto, 2000), the presence of the intercollegiate athletics program, and at least its potential as a community builder, must be thoroughly examined and perpetually appraised. One suggestion would be to utilize more athletics events to correspond with more university-wide student events, such as mixers, club meetings, the beginning of social gatherings, etc. More specifically, because the data confirmed the connection to a sense of community from athletics success across the department, it is recommended that colleges and universities look towards expanding the

presence and promotion of the Olympic sports on campus, rather than solely relying on the traditional higher-profile sports of football and men's basketball. The gatherings at Olympic sporting events are often smaller and more intimate and lend themselves to, perhaps, an environment that is more conducive to fostering levels of community amongst the students.

The second recommendation calls for intercollegiate athletics officials to review their marketing policies and content for gender presence on campus and the traditional avenues that are in place for promoting athletic events on campus. While a narrow, significant difference existed between males and females for the impact athletics success had on sense of community levels, the female college students in the sample still revealed a significant predictability of their perceived sense of community from their institution's success in athletics. College sport marketers need to further explore the potential of the female college student on campus as a target audience and the potential that lies in the presence of successful Olympic sport programs on campus.

CONCLUSION

The overall results from this study do support the anecdotal notions from previous literature that have suggested that big-time college athletics do create a "rallying point" for the students on campus and are able to enhance the sense of community (Boyer, 1987; Mangold, et al., 2003; St. John, 2004; Toma, 2003). Moreover, as the data revealed, the higher the level of athletics competition (i.e., NCAA Division I vs. NAIA/NCAA Divisions II and III or BCS affiliation vs. Non-BCS affiliation), the greater the impact that athletics success in the annual Director's Cup standings had on the perceived sense of community levels on campus. The relationship between athletics success and the sense of community for males and females exhibited a statistically significant difference, with the impact of athletics success upon sense of community greater for the male college students. Notably, however, the relationship was significant for both genders. Finally, one key finding was the fact that a school's status as a member of the Bowl Championship Series proved to fully mediate the relationship between the presence of athletics success and the impact it has upon the sense of community amongst the students on campus.

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TABLE 1

Independent Samples Test for Sense of Community Means for Gender and BCS-affiliation

variable	Mean		Std. Dev.		SEM		t	df	Sig. (2-tld)
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female			
Gender	34.16	35.01	5.10	4.66	0.06	0.04	11.51	18206	<.001
	BCS	Non-BCS	BCS	Non-BCS	BCS	Non-BCS			
BCS-affiliation	35.40	33.94	4.72	4.83	0.08	0.07	13.80	8801	<.001

TABLE 2

Bonferroni Procedure for Differences Among Levels of Athletics Competition

Level of Athletics	Mean	NCAA I	NCAA II	NCAA III	NAIA
NCAA I	34.50	0	-.58*	-0.21	-.59*
NCAA II	35.08	.58*	0	-.37*	-0.01
NCAA III	34.71	0.21	-.37*	0	-0.38
NAIA	35.10	.59*	0.01	0.38	0

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

TABLE 3

Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Predicting Sense of Community (Overall, N = 18681; NCAA I, N = 8803)

Variable	Overall Sample			NCAA I Level		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
Step 1						
Gender	0.08***	0.07	0.08***	0.67***	0.10	0.07***
Distance from home	0.13***	0.03	0.03***	0.22***	0.05	0.05***
Step 2						
Greek membership	0.52***	0.08	0.05***	0.48***	0.12	0.04***
Working full-time	-0.86***	0.13	-0.05***	-0.90***	0.18	-0.05***
Socializing with friends	0.43***	0.02	0.13***	0.46***	0.03	0.13***
Clup participation	0.61***	0.02	0.20***	0.59***	0.03	0.20***
College athlete	0.41***	0.08	0.04***	0.42***	0.11	0.04***
Campus residence	0.81***	0.14	0.05***	1.07***	0.21	0.06***
Avg. college grade	0.73***	0.04	0.14***	0.77***	0.06	0.14***
Step 3						
Public/Private inst.	1.52***	0.11	0.10***	1.66***	0.13	0.14***
Step 4						
Director's Cup Points	0.001***	0.00	0.05***	0.002***	0.00	0.10***

Note. Overall Sample: $R_2 = .02$ for Model 1; $R_2\Delta = .10$ for Model 2; $R_2\Delta = .01$ for Model 3; $R_2\Delta = .002$ for Model 4 ($ps < .001$).

NCAA I: $R_2 = .03$ for Model 1; $R_2\Delta = .11$ for Model 2; $R_2\Delta = .01$ for Model 3; $R_2\Delta = .01$ for Model 4 ($ps < .001$).

*values significant at the .05 level

** values significant at the .01 level

*** values significant at the .001 level

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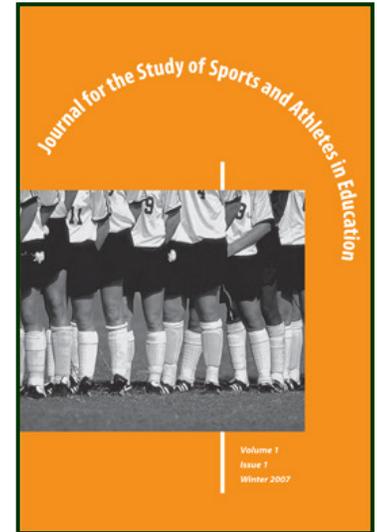
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