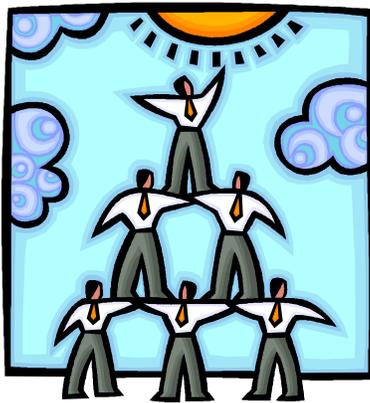


THE SMART JOURNAL

Sport Management and Related Topics

EDITOR'S CORNER: SMART CHANGES ARE AHEAD



SMART seeks to reach new educational horizons in the future

Welcome to the second volume of *The SMART Journal*. As we begin our second year of publication, *SMART* has been able to serve as an outlet for the sharing of information pertaining to Sport Management and Related Topics. The future looks bright and we have plans to turn *SMART* into a fixed hard version within the next year. We like the versatility of the online format, but there has been

tremendous interest in making a print version available for subscription.

As we head into a new year of publication, we wish to inform everyone of some new features that will be included in *SMART*. We will be continuing to offer a wide variety of media reviews which will serve as a means to share the issues that are addressed in various media outlets including books, movies, and television programs. The current issue includes an example of the insights that can be gathered by reviewing, analyzing, and critiquing such works (refer to the review of *I Am Charlotte Simmons* on p. 59).

Additionally, upcoming issues (starting with the Spring 2006 issue) will include "question and answer" (Q & A) articles in which various individuals will be interviewed regarding areas of interest pertaining to sport management and related topics. We hope that our readers can benefit from the insights, experiences, and opinions of these "insiders."

(Continued on p. 65).

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- Titles and Headings: The use of headings is expected. Titles, subtitles, headings, and author names are to be left justified and in ALL CAPS.
- Reference Citation: All references are to be cited within the text and at the conclusion of the text on a reference page in accordance with APA 5th edition guidelines.
- Length: Articles should be clear and to the point. There are no word limitations or maximum word requirements.
- Audience: Articles should be written with sport management (and peripheral areas of study) students, academicians, and practitioners in mind.

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SMART is a refereed publication utilizing a blind review process. Manuscripts are reviewed by multiple reviewers and are evaluated based on quality of content including attention to detail, academic value, topical relevance, and academic rigor. Reviewers are to have a timely day turnaround for the convenience of our authors and reading public (as this will allow for a more timely publication process). All interested authors are encouraged to submit manuscripts as SMART is continuously reviewing articles for forthcoming issues.

Send submissions as e-mail attachments in MS Word to jwlee@troy.edu

DEFINING ALTRUISTIC LEADERSHIP IN THE MANAGEMENT OF INTERCOLLEGIATE COACHING

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KEYWORDS: LEADERSHIP, COACHING, ATHLETICS

ABSTRACT

Altruistic leadership is defined as guiding others with the ultimate goal of improving their wellness. Research on altruistic leadership in coaching has not been published. This study explored intercollegiate coaches' perceptions of altruistic leadership. The findings from the participants' responses to interview questions are presented. An analysis was enacted to determine similarities and differences among coaches' responses. Fifteen NCAA Division I head coaches from the Midwest United States participated in this study. Seven coaches were female and eight were male. Eight coaches were from team sports, and seven were from individual sports. Their coaching experience ranged from 8 to 36 years. The average years of head coaching experience were 17 years. Results indicated that coaches perceived similar definitions for altruistic leadership in intercollegiate coaching. The factors they included were (a) character, (b) caring, (c) empowerment, and (d) balance. These findings are discussed in relation to theoretical and empirical literature on altruism, leadership, and motivation and in practical terms for higher education and sport management.

DEFINING ALTRUISTIC LEADERSHIP IN INTERCOLLEGIATE COACHING

Altruism is a motivational state with the ultimate goal of increasing another's well-being (Batson, 1991). No attempts have been made to apply an altruism framework to examine coaches'

motivation. The role of a coach as a leader within intercollegiate athletics has been criticized for rule violations and ethical problems to achieve the ultimate goal of winning (Byers, 1995; Simon, 1991; Sperber, 1990; Zimbalist, 1999). Critics of intercollegiate coaches' have described their behavior as greedy and selfish. These behaviors include: demanding high salaries, pushing to win at all costs, lacking time spent with players, breaking contracts, scalping tickets, focusing on their own income from summer camp revenue, and asking for bonuses based on wins in order to gain greater financial incentives (Byers, 1995; Sperber, 1990; Zimbalist, 1999). On the opposite side, research is lacking on coaches' motivation to improve the wellness of their athletes. This would be defined as altruistic leadership in coaching.

Due to the lack of literature on altruistic leadership, it is important to examine this understudied area of leadership in intercollegiate athletics to determine if it exists, to what extent it exists, and how coaches define altruistic leadership. This study has the primary purpose of exploring coaches' definitions of altruistic leadership in their profession. The study is

Altruistic leadership is defined as guiding others with the ultimate goal of improving their wellness

intended to provide a valuable resource for researchers and coaches interested in the wellness of student-athletes and leadership motivation of coaches.

LEADERSHIP IN INTERCOLLEGIATE COACHING

Despite the dearth of literature on altruistic leadership, much research has been conducted on the conditions of intercollegiate coaching (Gaal, Glazier, & Evans, 2002; Leland, 1988; Martin, Arena, Rosencrans, Hunter, & Holly, 1986; Pastore, 1991; Pastore, Goldfine, & Riemer, 1996; Sabock, 1979). For example, Sabock (1979) discussed the roles that a coach must fill in intercollegiate athletics. These roles included a teacher, disciplinarian, psychologist, mother, father, community citizen, university citizen, and role model. Unfortunately, coaches do not always serve as a good role model within these roles. Sperber (1990) wrote a section about coaches in his book on intercollegiate athletics, and this section was entitled "Greed City." The author described many unethical and selfish behaviors of coaches. These leadership problems in intercollegiate coaching are often reported in the media, such as rule violations, unethical decisions, and selfish overemphasis on winning. Others have reinforced the existence of these "greedy" problems in intercollegiate coaching (Byers, 1995; Simon, 1991; Zimbalist, 1999). Despite the focus on selfish behaviors, the paradigm of unselfish, altruistic leadership has not been studied as a contrast to selfish behaviors in intercollegiate coaching.

Altruistic leadership is the guidance of others with the ultimate goal of improving their wellness. Unfortunately, few studies exist regarding altruistic leadership (Barker, 1997; Staub, 1991; Staub, 1992). Barker (1997) described altruistic leadership as a common higher calling to social compassion from a universal ethical conscious. This definition may apply within intercollegiate coaching for those coaches who have a higher motivation beyond performance records. Perhaps even a universal ethical conscious of helping student-athletes exists within the profession of intercollegiate coaching. Greenleaf (1992) referred

to a similar form of leadership called servant leadership. He defined servant leadership as social leaders who transcend self-interest to serve the needs of others. A difference between servant leadership and altruistic leadership is the foundational components; servant leadership is based on behaviors of helping and altruistic leadership is based on the motivation behind helping. Further studies of altruistic leadership would facilitate the delineation and definition of the construct.

The focus in this study is defining altruistic leadership in intercollegiate coaching. This type of leadership could be studied in the relationship between coaches and student-athletes in intercollegiate athletics. Coaches provide guidance for their student-athletes, and the motivation behind this guidance may or may not be altruistic. Therefore, knowledge of altruistic leadership is important to investigate within intercollegiate coaching. The purpose of this study is to gather information from intercollegiate coaches regarding their perspectives on altruistic leadership in intercollegiate athletics in order to answer the research question of how is altruistic leadership defined in intercollegiate athletics

METHOD PARTICIPANTS

Participants were 15 (8 male and 7 female) NCAA Division I-A coaches from a large Midwestern university in the United States. The range of coaching experience was 8 to 36 years with an average of 17 years of head coaching experience. Coaches represented both men's and women's teams, and individual and team sports. Participants were asked to respond to questions regarding altruistic leadership. They were ensured confidentiality of their identity. Data was reported with pseudo-names of the participants.

INTERVIEW AND INTERVIEW GUIDE

Coaches responded to questions in a semi-structured interview process. The interview followed an interview guide that was developed for this study. Each participant signed a form of confidentiality and responded to demographic

survey questions prior to being interviewed. Examples of the demographic questions included (a) years of coaching, (b) sport currently coaching, and (c) gender of athletes being coached. The interviews extended between 30 to 60 minutes. One researcher conducted the interviews, and each interview was tape-recorded and transcribed verbatim. Thirteen interviews were conducted in person and two were conducted over the telephone.

The interview guide described altruism and contained five questions regarding altruistic leadership in intercollegiate coaching. Questions referred to the definition of altruistic leadership specifically in intercollegiate coaching in addition to examples in alignment with or opposite to altruistic leadership. An expert panel of ten people in sport psychology, sport management, human resource development, and coaching reviewed the guide and offered suggestions for changes. The experts recommended changing two questions from the interview section to the demographic section, and another change was asking participants for descriptive stories. Probes that diverged from the interview guide occurred when appropriate to gain more information.

DATA ANALYSIS

For this study, the procedures of analysis involved systematically organizing evidence from the interviews. Glense and Peshkin (1992) explained that working with data helps researchers create explanations, pose hypotheses, develop theories, and link stories to other stories. Several steps were taken to work with this data. The oral data had to be transcribed to written form. This allowed the information to be carefully reviewed to see patterns and themes. To facilitate the review, analytical coding was used for categorizing and classifying the data. Each sentence was analyzed for connections to the themes. Analytical files helped organize the coding. The researcher labeled sentences that reflected central themes, such as character and empowerment. Also, the NUDIST N-6 computer program was useful for this examining process. Results of patterns and relationships were obtained after data entry and coding. These results were related back to the research questions.

TRUSTWORTHINESS AND VALIDITY

Marshall and Rossman (1992) stated that qualitative validity depended on the researcher as an instrument. The researcher influences information through his or her knowledge, skills, and abilities. In qualitative terminology, the trustworthiness, dependability, and credibility of the researcher's processes must be ensured. This is often accomplished through triangulation, member checks, a reflective journal, and peer debriefing. Each of these procedures was utilized in this study.

TRIANGULATION

In order to determine whether the same conclusion would be obtained from multiple data collection processes, coder triangulation was enacted. Triangulation allowed the researcher to explore perceptions from different standpoints. In this study, conclusions were analyzed from background questionnaires, interviews, and field notes. These multiple coders of information were used as cross-checks on the interpretations. In addition, multiple coders were utilized to increase perspectives and perceptions on altruistic leadership.

MEMBER CHECKS

Respondents were contacted for member checks. Member checks involve going back to the respondents with information collected and interpretations made in order to clarify or modify the data. Lincoln and Guba (1989) stated that member checks are the most important technique for establishing credibility. The process in this study involved giving the participants copies of their transcripts. They were asked to confirm the accuracy of the statements, and they could add additional comments and delete or change comments. The researcher changed the data recommended from one participant. Other participants responded with a "thank you" for the information. This process added credibility to the research design.

REFLECTIVE JOURNAL

A reflective journal was utilized in this study to record the researcher's perceptions. This process allowed the researcher to be aware of issues,

biases, and subjectivity (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). Therefore, a more trustworthy interpretation was produced. In this study, the researcher kept a journal as a way of recording thoughts and questions. The researcher wrote in the reflective journal after each interview and anytime an important issue occurred in the process. This information was also used to identify important themes for coding. As the study progressed, this record provided the researcher with a dependable resource to review during the interpretive process.

PEER DEBRIEFING

Peer debriefing was also useful to check credibility of data interpretation. Lincoln and Guba (1985) described peer debriefing as an external check of the research process. In the peer debriefing process, a peer unrelated to the dissertation process helps explore aspects of the study that might remain unchallenged and encourages the researcher to expand the assumed viewpoint. Two peer debriefers were chosen in this study. One was a doctoral student with an interest in sport psychology and qualitative research. The second was a doctoral student in policy and leadership also with an interest in qualitative research

ROLE OF THE RESEARCHER

Marshall and Rossman (1995) described the role of the researcher in qualitative research as an additional “instrument” to be considered. In their view, the researcher changes the paradigm from which the data are viewed. The researcher influences the trust, mutual respect, and reciprocity involved in the interview (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). The researcher was aware of the influence that an individual’s paradigm could have and the role that the qualitative researcher should maintain. The researcher was aware of a bias toward the existence and helpfulness of altruistic leadership to intercollegiate athletics. With knowledge of this bias, the researcher was vigilant to avoid influencing desirable responses by coaches. This was accomplished by using neutral wording in questions and comments.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Four themes emerged from coaches’ responses to questions regarding the definition of altruistic

leadership in intercollegiate athletics. These themes are presented in the order of the number of coaches that endorsed each theme. The themes are character, caring, empowerment, and balance. Each of these themes is discussed in the following section.

CHARACTER

Webster’s Dictionary (2000) defines character as “the pattern of behavior or moral constitution found in an individual” (p. 246). Coaches indicated the importance of character in defining altruistic leadership. When asked to define altruistic leadership in intercollegiate coaching, 14 out of 15 coaches discussed the importance of morals, ethics, integrity, trust, honesty, humility, and fairness. For example, Coach Leonard said:

It comes down to your ideology, down to your ethics, and down to your integrity because you stand before them. They know you after having you for four years as a coach. They know whether you're an honest person or whether you're a fair person or not, whether you're moral.

In addition, examples of exceptionally good altruistic leadership in intercollegiate coaching were related to coaches’ philosophy or values. Coach Pam offered an example of one coach with exceptional altruistic leadership, “He has all kinds of things [in his office] about family, university pride, values, faith, and work ethic. You can see that all over almost everywhere in his auditorium.” Coach Kate described the importance of ethical decisions in her program:

I've never seen a live example but you read in magazines about athletes making bad decisions that maybe you'll sweep under the rug. Probably because you want to win that game for nationals or it's good for them since the draft is coming up. In our program if someone violates a rule or goes outside of what we want as a team, they will be disciplined whether it's a national championship or an exhibition. I would never think of giving in for wins for something I think is right.

When asked about behaviors and attitudes that are the opposite of altruistic leadership, coaches described opposites by discussing unethical actions and attitudes. They often mentioned intimidation and harsh comments and behaviors. Coach Al stated:

My philosophy is, as a coach, I will never embarrass anybody or talk negatively to somebody in front of other people or their own teammates. I've seen coaches get right into kids' faces and start swearing at them and everything. I've never done that and hope I never will do that. I know I never will do it. It kind of embarrasses the kid, and he feels bad and the coaches feel bad.

Coach Guy reported:

I've seen that happen plenty of times on television and I've seen it in real life and from other coaches on occasion. They coach through intimidation. You have to do this because I said so. I told you to do this. They motivate differently. They may get in somebody's face or they put their hands on a kid or they intimidate, which I don't buy.

Coaches also mentioned character as a way of improving altruistic leadership in intercollegiate coaching. Coach Howard felt that altruistic leadership started with the hiring process of selection:

Well, we have a group of coaches put together by our administration that are the right kind of people and the right kind of teachers. It starts with the athletic director's beliefs in core values that everyone of them heard during the interview process and is truly what he wants the university's athletics to be all about. I think the people that choose to come here to coach that that is important to them. We're fortunate. We have outstanding people on our staffs, and while there is the reality that you better win some games in order to stay employed, we all really buy into the values philosophy

that really what is most important is the experience we give the student-athletes and the way we represent the institution. We all have the understanding that this is part of orientation.

This statement indicated the importance of taking character into consideration during the hiring process of intercollegiate coaches. One coach voiced concern for altruism due to lack of feedback and difficulties with players' character flaws. Coach Annie stated:

You have to get feedback on how you're doing. If you're winning all the time, there might not be any feedback. Then, the only situation they might be facing is when a kid does something wrong, and it's frustrating. So, you need constant feedback, and keep them up to date on where you think problems are going to be.

From the coaches' comments, character is perceived to be a component of altruistic leadership. Several coaches discussed the importance of working from inside out to develop altruistic coaches. They were referring to building good character within a leader in order to increase student-athletes' welfare. Coaches perceive that character is important to provide an altruistic role model of ethical and moral values.

CARING

Webster's Dictionary (2000) defines caring as "to feel concern, interest, love, or liking" (p. 221). Thirteen of the 15 intercollegiate coaches perceived caring to be part of altruistic leadership. They included topics such as meeting student-athletes needs, providing individual attention, having a parent's mentality, and thinking of the greater good. Coach Shaun spoke about caring:

You can yell and scream all you want, but motivate by knowing it comes from love, support, and care. It is the type of style I have, and other coaches that I have coached exhibit the same type of care.

Many coaches suggested the use of individual attention. They suggested setting aside time to get to know each player. For example, Coach Leonard said:

You can't coach everybody the same way. In my business, I think I have to be more knowledgeable about more things if I'm going to have more success with more people than any other job I could imagine. You just don't put the blinders on and do it, because then you only meet the certain aspects of a certain clientele. The rest of them you lose.

Caring was also communicated as having a parent's mentality. Coaches described themselves as being like a father or a mother to their student-athletes. Coach Marcus stated, "You want to treat them like one of your sons or daughters. I think the administration always looks at it from a standpoint of whether they would want their son or daughter playing for you. You have to always remember that." Lastly, concern for the greater good was also acknowledged in the coaches' responses. For example, Coach Shaun provided this explanation:

Letting someone know that there is something more than yourself. We talk a lot on this team about you're not just doing it for yourself. You have to be willing to be giving of yourself. You have to be willing to do it for the person standing next to you, for your parents, and for the university and so many other things besides yourself. You have to look beyond yourself for you to train hard and your team to do well. I think we've had a lot of leaders on this team and just for myself watching these young men mature. I'm working for these guys who really want to be unselfish and do so much for this team. It's not hard. It's not hard for these young men to give of themselves. As far as myself in terms of being the coach, I'm always available. They may have a test, and they can't make the normal workout. Unlike football or basketball where you have to put an offense or a defense together

to get an effective workout, it is an individual sport. Yeah, it's a team, but as a young man they know the coach is going to be there if I have to come in at 9 o'clock or I have to stay late, whatever, so they can do well in school. They see me being willing to give as much as I can of myself to them. In terms of following my lead, they need to be as giving as you can for their teammates, for their coaches, and for their university. That type of leadership leads them to what they want.

An important concept in Coach Shaun's explanation is the phrase "willing to give as much as I can of myself to them." The coach reinforces the importance of striving for the greater good beyond one's self.

When asked to describe the opposite of altruistic leadership, coaches often gave examples of egoistic coaches who have their own goals as their ultimate motivation. Coach Leonard explained:

Yes, I've seen coaches use athletes for their own level of achievement. I think when they're done they haven't proved themselves. They may have survived, and they may have made a living. But, they haven't left a legacy. Coaching is probably the number one place where you're judged by the people you serve, because their success is totally dependent on what you truly are.

In summary, caring for individuals by meeting needs, providing individual attention, and taking a parent mentality in addition to caring for the greater good emerged from the coaches' responses regarding altruistic leadership. Coaches' perceptions of the opposite of altruistic leadership also aligned with a lack of caring for others. The opposite was egoistic leadership where the focus was on meeting one's own individual goals instead of caring for others.

EMPOWERMENT

Webster's Dictionary (2000) defined empowerment as "to give ability to or to enable" (p. 466). The

coaches' perceptions of altruistic leadership included many forms of empowerment. Ten out of 15 coaches mentioned their desire to teach, to improve life skills, to encourage striving for excellence, and to maintain a positive attitude.

Several coaches included teaching and educating athletes on a variety of life skills. Coach Leonard described actions and attitudes of altruistic leadership as teaching about more than just playing the sport. He said:

You impact them. I get involved with my athletes. I have a variety of speeches I give my kids. I feel as an educator I should. I talk about honesty. I actually talk about sexual issues. I first talked about it as respect for everyone else in their lives, but now it can make a difference of whether you live or die.

One coach's comments combined teaching and altruism. Coach Marcus was concerned with the selfishness of student-athletes coming into intercollegiate programs. He said, "Many players have their own personal reasons. Most coaches will try to take that selfish person and try to change him, but that takes time." He felt that changing the selfish ways of players would improve the student-athlete's interactions with coaches and teammates. Coach Annie focused more on teaching life skills in general. She commented:

I feel that each year I impacted them somewhat. So, life skills are very important. We guide them, show them what's good and what's bad. We see them grow so much between the ages 18 and 22 years old. You can't even imagine what we see.

Another coach when asked about the actions and attitudes of an altruistic leader described how he was taught by his coach to strive for excellence. Coach Guy said:

I didn't think I could do it. I became a little internally negative. I think the coach

probably saw that. I didn't see that. I was a high school sophomore or junior. All I saw was that I couldn't do it. I had this roadblock, it's too much to ask kind of thing. How can you ask this of me? I believe looking back today my coach believed I could do it. His vision was that I could handle it. He thought it would be something of value to me, an obstacle for me to overcome. I didn't handle it well. So, he kicked me out. The next day he made me do it again. I wasn't getting out of the set. I thought it was going to go away. Although, I learned a couple of valuable lessons: 1) if you don't do it right the first time, you're probably going to do it again, 2) you didn't accomplish, to attempt without full effort is not accomplishing. The attempt is not good enough. To complete something, to succeed, to believe you can do it, I obviously didn't believe I could do it. The coach was trying to teach me that. I needed to believe it first. Then, third was to stretch your limits to stretch your imagination to what your possibilities are. Those are the things athletics brings to most kids. Those are some of the values, as I look back today, that my coaches were trying to teach me.

Another example this coach provided as an action or attitude that aligned with altruistic leadership focused on his way of teaching and motivating some student-athletes to strive for excellence. He explained:

I do believe that there are some people that need a strong person to demand excellence from them, not allow them to give no as an answer or 'I'm not going to do that' as an answer. Maybe that is a window in our lives when someone has to drive us that way and get us over the hump. Maybe it's because we're being a knucklehead. We're 16 or 18 or 19, and no one can teach us anything. We have points in our lives when we can't be taught anything. I think at that point in our lives we need to have someone strong who won't take no from us and help

us understand that there are no exits. There are no exits. I use that term with our guys. We're in this together. There are no exits. You can't get out. You can't just walk out the door. You can't crawl out through a window. You're either going to win it or lose it as a team. Nobody points fingers. Nobody is more or less responsible than another. You are responsible. You can't escape it. That's your responsibility to understand you win it or lose it as a team. This is our job today, to be the best we can be. We can't have any excuses. You can't say today was not my day. I felt bad today. So, I teach young people to do it right the first time, to be all into it, to give it all up, to challenge yourself to be in the here and now, to be in the moment, not I'll do it tomorrow.

In addition to Coach Guy's perception of teaching excellence as a part of altruistic leadership, he also encouraged teaching student-athletes to strive for excellence regardless of the expected outcome and to consider the impact this has on others. He encouraged:

If you do these things and you're still striving and you're teaching winning, you could be eighth and you could still be striving to be number one in everything and you're still teaching to be number one, you just didn't get to be number one. You're still teaching it. Here is a difference between the right things. You can fail at what you're doing. People fail all the time at what they're doing. Those folks who choose not to play the best or settle for less than the best, aren't doing justice to themselves, their team, their university, or their alumni.

Another related action and attitude to empowerment is maintaining a positive attitude. Coach Al had this to say about the importance of teaching student-athletes to be positive with themselves. He said:

The other thing is a positive influence on them and staying positive the whole way. In this sport it's easy to get down on yourself real quick. You're out there all by yourself. You can't call timeout. You don't have a half-time or anything like that. You just have to battle it out there. It's hard for the kids to keep it together. We try to keep it like a positive influence out there. I tell them a lot about positive self-talk. You're your own best friend out there, because you're probably the only one out there with you.

According to Coach Al's perception, a positive attitude empowers athletes to overcome obstacles. Therefore, the ability to teach how to maintain a positive attitude would align with altruistic leadership to improve the well-being of student-athletes.

This theme of empowerment also emerged when coaches were asked to provide an example of behaviors or attitudes that were the opposite of altruistic leadership. These opposites include dependence and negative attitude. Coach Kirby spoke about creating dependence on the coach by not allowing choices. She said:

I hate being put in a situation where I don't have a choice or where I'm told what to do. So, your choice may be not to do this, but don't feel like a victim. You always have a choice. Even when they might be in trouble, they still have a choice.

Another coach described a situation opposite of altruistic leadership. In this example, a negative attitude led the student-athletes to feel afraid and powerless. Coach Annie said:

I had a coach that came in after I left a university she told the seniors you can do whatever. I don't care if you like my program or not, because they were from my program. She came in, and she didn't care about what the kids needed. She was just worried about living up to what I built. I can't fault her for that. It's an insecurity. I

don't think that is who she is, but it came off like that. It turned those kids off. They had a terrible experience all the way down to the freshman that I recruited, because they heard how the seniors were treated.

Therefore, according to the coaches' perceptions, altruistic leadership in intercollegiate coaching involves empowerment. Coaches enable student-athletes by teaching them a variety of lessons about building life skills, striving for excellence, and maintaining a positive attitude. Coaches' perceptions of the opposite of altruistic leadership also aligned with empowerment by not allowing independence and presenting a negative attitude.

BALANCE

Webster's Dictionary (2000) defines balance as "a state of equality in amount, value, or importance" (p. 108). In intercollegiate athletics, balance often refers to student-athletes' ability to balance athletics and academics. Seven of the 15 coaches discussed the importance of balance within student-athletes' lives and within their own life. Coach Marcus provided the encouragement he provides his players in regards to maintaining a balance of athletics and academics:

I graduated in four years. I wasn't a physics major or anything like that, but it helped me go out and pursue a professional sports career knowing I could fall back on my education. I was very lucky to have it, because I played up and down in the pros for five years. Then would I have come back to school? Probably not. I just want to stress how important that was to the young kids and getting the opportunity to stay in the game that I liked. It's extremely difficult for kids to accept the fact when I tell them is you better get your education in four years. If you have any intention of playing in the pros, you better get your education. I'm not saying he won't make it, but I'm saying there is a 70 to 80% chance that he won't make it. There is a 20 % chance that he will, but your education is going to be so important to the rest of your life. Kids can go one way or another. They

can go crazy on their education and making sure they understand that. A lot of kids are starting to understand....That's the hardest part of this job, getting them to understand the truth of what we're seeing. You can be a great intercollegiate player, but you're probably not going to make the big money in the pros. Having the experience of playing the minors and having an education after four years, go ahead and go. Try it for a few years. Experience it. You'll come back to your education. You're going to drop thirty to sixty thousand dollars in two years, because they don't pay you very well in the minors. With your education, you could be well ahead of the game. It's hard trying to tell them that when they're freshman or sophomores. Now, the seniors start to understand that. You hope you recruit good enough to combine that character of wanting to get an education and wanting to play intercollegiately, and the pros will be there when they get done. In the meantime, get your education, because you'll enjoy it more. You won't have to go back to school. Go give it a shot. Guys are starting to understand that.

This coach encourages balance between athletics and academics as a part of altruistic leadership. Coaches also show concern for student-athletes' entire college experience. Coach Pam stated:

I think balance is important. Those are things that I think you also have to understand that they're also students. I was just talking to the men's coach from [name of university], and he was talking about dealing with school and trying to play, too. Like this weekend, we're not doing anything. We're off. I think it's really important if you want them at maximum amount at practice and tournaments that they have some time away and time to be college students, too, and enjoy doing other things.

Therefore, coaches connect the importance of balance in student-athletes entire college experiences to altruistic leadership.

The opposite of balance also emerged as an opposite to altruistic leadership. Coach Kate described the overemphasis on athletics and winning, and she believes in balance for her team:

I think you see it sometimes with those higher profile sports, maybe basketball, hockey, and football. That is where it is win or lose at all costs. Maybe the athletes don't get the degree, or you don't have the follow-up and they flunk out of school. You're not looking at the whole picture of what is important about that student-athlete. I think you have to have that balance. If you asked me what was number one, I would say there is a tie of academics and the sport. You have to put emphasis on both of them. You can't let the sport overshadow academics. Academics has to be the top and the sport is right there with it. But, I would say with those other sports the big bucks are hanging there. The priority is that sport and then the academics.

Overall, coaches desire balance for their student-athletes, but also for themselves in the coaching career. One coach thought a coach could consciously choose to be both a winner and an altruistic leader. Although, the focus and requirement to win seems to build barriers that some coaches cannot overcome. Coach Guy provided a summary that also depicted winning as a monster threatening balance:

It's not just about win, win, win, or the university or the team doing well. I would say it is a monster. Winning is a monster. Winning drives us, yet at the same time, it's our method of evaluating ourselves against the competition. Yet, at the same time, it's the worst method of evaluating yourself in how you're doing in a healthy, holistic manner of people. Hopefully you're not going to put yourself in the position where you're evaluated by just that one thing. Many times it is the bottom line.

As this coach described, an overemphasis on winning is a threat to holistic wellness of athletes and coaches. Many coaches responded with desire for balance despite the pressure to win. An attitude that supports a balance of academics, athletics, and personal time was perceived to be in alignment with altruistic leadership.

To summarize the discussion, coaches aligned attitudes and behaviors consistently with altruistic leadership. These attitudes and behaviors that aligned with altruistic leadership included character, caring, empowerment, and balance. In order to guide the wellness of student-athletes, coaches in this study perceived an important need for character in terms of morals, ethics, integrity, trust, honesty, humility, and fairness (Gould, Hodge, Peterson, & Petlichkoff, 1987; Jordan, Gillentine, Hunt, 2004). This particular group of participants is from the highly competitive NCAA Division I-A, and they may be more stigmatized to character flaws when the pressure to win surmounts (Yuan, 2000). Therefore, the ability to maintain character was supported by coaches as a part of altruistic leadership. They also spoke of the importance of giving attention and thinking of the greater good for athletes in alignment with altruistic leadership. The caring attitudes discussed by this level of coaches may surprise those espousing a negative paradigm of selfishness in NCAA Division I-A coaching (Byers, 1995; Crawford, 1986; Murray, 1990; Wendt, 2000; Zimbalist, 1999). Another surprising altruistic leadership theme was empowerment of student-athletes' skills beyond their athletic responsibilities. Coaches spoke of teaching life skills, striving for excellence, and maintaining a positive attitude (Jordan, Gillentine, & Hunt, 2004; Sutliff, & Solomon, 1993). Many of these intercollegiate coaches felt an altruistic responsibility for teaching similar to that of a professor. Lastly, coaches also utilized the concept of life balance in alignment with altruistic leadership. A concern in intercollegiate athletics is the overemphasis of winning in comparison to other aspects of playing and other aspects of a balanced life (Weiss, Barber, Sisley, Ebbeck, 1991). In contrast to this

belief, the coaches in this study supported a life balance for their student-athletes as a part of altruistic leadership in intercollegiate coaching.

IMPLICATIONS FOR HIGHER EDUCATION AND SPORT MANAGEMENT

Coaches' perceptions of altruistic leadership included themes of character, caring, empowerment, and balance. These characteristics could be further validated for intercollegiate coaching management for selection, training, development, and evaluation purposes. Coaches understood how the concept of altruistic leadership applied to their careers in intercollegiate athletics. They easily defined altruistic leadership with coaches' behaviors and attitudes that aligned with having the ultimate goal of caring for the well-being of student-athletes. In addition, they easily suggested behaviors and attitudes of coaches that would be the opposite of altruistic leadership, such as intimidation, selfishness, dependence, lack of discipline, harsh comments and behaviors, negativity, and overemphasis on winning. Therefore, the coaches' perceptions of altruistic leadership provided clarifying, consistent, and helpful information that would be useful for defining this concept of altruistic leadership in intercollegiate coaching management.

LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Despite the useful information, this study was limited by the nature of the data collected and the sample selected. For example, the data was collected through interviews that have little control over participants' responses. Participants could respond in a way to enhance their self-image, or they may respond arbitrarily without putting much thought into their answers. This study was also limited to Division I-A intercollegiate coaches' perceptions of altruistic leadership. Therefore, the results may not be generalized to other populations, such as head coaches in Division III or assistant coaches in Division I.

These limitations lead to recommendations for future studies on this topic. Based on the findings of this study, the continued examination of

altruistic leadership is warranted. One direction for future research could focus on the development of an altruistic leadership scale for management of intercollegiate coaching. A scale could provide for exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of altruistic leadership in intercollegiate coaching. This would allow for valid and reliable assessment of coaches' altruistic leadership. Practical recommendations are also available for future study. For example, athletic directors could use these scales for managing the selection and development processes of intercollegiate coaches. In contrast to practical implications, development of altruistic leadership may seem like an ideal rather than an attainable objective in intercollegiate coaching. However, the conscientious effort to develop altruistic motivations in coaches may be the first step towards improving the sensitivity for athletes in a variety of sport contexts. This step moves forward to more support for positive intercollegiate sport management practices and more positive experiences for athletes in sport environments.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DRAMATIC CHANGES IN TEAM PERFORMANCE AND UNDERGRADUATE ADMISSIONS APPLICATIONS

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KEYWORDS: TEAM PERFORMANCE, ACADEMICS, INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS

ABSTRACT

This study examines the relationship between dramatic changes in NCAA Division I-A intercollegiate athletics team performance and undergraduate admissions applications. Major collegiate athletic teams with dramatic increases, decreases, or no change in winning percentage in four sports were identified as subjects. The number of undergraduate admissions applications received for the identified year and the subsequent year were compared for each of the randomly selected subjects. Football winning percentage ($p=.0015$) was found to have a significant positive relationship with the number of applicants, while no such significance was found with men's or women's basketball or women's volleyball. Post-hoc testing revealed that a relationship did exist between the improvement in a school's football record and applications for undergraduate admissions.

INTRODUCTION

One of the justifications for the existence of high-profile, big-budget NCAA Division I-A athletic programs is they provide advertising which can lead to increased alumni contributions and student applicants to universities (McCormick & Tinsley, 1987; Grimes & Chressanthis, 1994), the latter of which, number of student admission applications, is the focus of this study. According to Bremmer and Kesselring (1993), universities' "primary form of media exposure (and advertising) derives from a distinctly nonacademic enterprise – intercollegiate athletics" (p. 409). Bremmer and Kesselring also stated, "successful' athletic

programs provide a university with cost effective advertising which attracts more student applicants" (p. 409).

Stagnation in the number of traditional-age students matriculating to universities in recent years has resulted in increased competition for these students among universities and their admissions officers (Bouse & Hossler, 1991). As a result, there is a need for further examination of the relationship between intercollegiate athletic team performance and student applicants.

COLLEGE CHOICE MODELS

A number of studies have been conducted to analyze college choice and to develop models explaining how students select a college or university to attend (Litten, 1991; Galotti & Mark, 1994; Hamrick & Hossler, 1996). According to Toma and Cross (1998), three major types of college choice models have emerged from these studies: economic models (Chapman, 1979; Young & Reyes, 1987), sociological models (Sewell & Shaw, 1978), and a model combining economic and sociological approaches (Hossler and Gallagher, 1987). Hossler and Gallagher's model has been adopted as the conceptual framework for this study. This model of college choice is a developmental process in which the potential college attendee progresses through three phases: (1) predisposition, in which the student determines whether to continue education beyond the high school level, (2) search, in which the student gathers information about colleges and universities and decides upon a group of

institutions for application purposes, and (3) choice, in which the student determines which college or university to attend. Toma and Cross (1998) suggested that the attention received by an institution through intercollegiate athletic success may impact all three of Hossler and Gallagher's phases of college choice, depending upon the background and values of each student, with the most influence likely occurring in the search and choice phases.

PREVIOUS STUDIES ON ATHLETICS AND ADMISSIONS

A relationship between athletic team performance and applications for undergraduate enrollment has been supported by anecdotal evidence. On November 23, 1984, Doug Flutie threw a 48-yard touchdown pass as time expired to lead lesser-known Boston College to an upset victory against the University of Miami, one of the nation's top college football programs. With that one pass, seen by millions across the United States on television, Flutie secured the Heisman Trophy, given each year to college football's best player, and brought the most significant national media attention ever experienced by the college. Over the next two years, applications for admission to Boston College rose 30%, potentially generating millions of dollars in additional tuition revenue for the school (Marklein, 2001). This apparent relationship between dramatic changes in athletic team performance and admissions applications has been labeled by the media as the "Flutie Factor" and is a focus of this study (Marklein, 2001; "Schools Ride," 1997). Similarly, admissions applications at Northwestern University increased 21% the year following the school's 1995 increase from three victories the previous year to ten victories and participation in the prestigious Rose Bowl (Dodd, 1997). Similarly, North Carolina State University received a 40% increase in applications after winning the 1983 NCAA Men's Basketball Championship. Even Penn State University, who has traditionally been successful in football, had a 15% increase in undergraduate applications after winning the 1995 Rose Bowl ("Schools Ride," 1997).

Several authors have attempted to substantiate the relationship between intercollegiate athletic team performance and an increase in undergraduate admissions applications and enrollment. Allen and Peters (1982), in studying the college choice decisions made by students and their parents, found that the success of the DePaul University men's basketball team positively influenced students in making their decision to attend the school. Chressanthi and Grimes (1993) found that while athletic postseason play and television coverage had no significant effect on the number of undergraduate applications, winning percentage in football did have a significant positive effect on the number of applications received by the university in a 30-year longitudinal study of success in college sports and enrollment demand at one major Division I-A university.

Similarly, Murphy and Trandel (1994) presented evidence that success in football related positively to an increase in admissions applications at major Division I-A institutions. Murphy and Trandel's data showed that an increase in football winning percentage of .250 produced an average applicant increase of 1.3% the following year at Division I-A schools. Toma and Cross (1998) found that winning a national championship in either Division I-A football or Division I men's basketball resulted in an increase in undergraduate admission applications and that the applicant increase did not represent just a one-year increase, but tended to last for at least three years.

Furthermore, Zimbalist (2001) gathered a variety of data on 86 Division I-A institutions from 1980 to 1995 and found that "there was some tendency for athletic success to increase applications" (p. 171). However, Zimbalist noted that even though the number of applications increased, the quality of the applicants, as measured by SAT scores, did not. This latter result supported findings by McCormick and Tinsley (1990) and Bremmer and Kesselring (1993).

These studies' findings appear to support anecdotal evidence of a positive relationship between success in intercollegiate athletics, particularly football and men's basketball, and an increase in admissions applications at Division I-A institutions. The present study, in contrast with previous works, examined the relationship between intercollegiate athletics performance and undergraduate admissions applications relative to two men's sports, football and men's basketball, and two women's sports, volleyball and women's basketball. Additionally, this study specifically analyzed dramatic improvements and declines in athletic team performance, something other studies have not considered.

METHODS

Similar to the McCormick and Tinsley (1987) and Murphy and Trandel (1994) studies, this study examined athletic team performance at schools in six major NCAA Division I-A athletic conferences – the Atlantic Coast, Big East, Big Ten, Big 12/Big Eight, Pacific Ten, and Southeastern Conferences. Between 1994 and 1998, the period of years analyzed in this study due to data availability, a total of 62 schools competed in these six conferences.

INDEPENDENT VARIABLE AND PROCEDURE

Following McCormick and Tinsley (1987) and Murphy and Trandel (1994), athletic performance was defined as the change in winning percentage from year to year and was used as the independent variable. This variable was limited to contests played against other members of a school's own athletic conference in order to control for differences in the strength of a team's non-conference schedule. These annual within-conference winning percentages were collected from data obtained from the NCAA Statistics office. The change in winning percentage was calculated for four sports (football, men's basketball, volleyball, and women's basketball). These sports were examined because they represented the two female and two male sports receiving the most attendance and media exposure in intercollegiate athletics (NCAA, 2004). Following McCormick and Tinsley (1987) and Murphy and Trandel (1994), the winning

percentage variable was limited to contests played against other members of a school's own athletic conference in order to control for differences in the strength of a team's non-conference schedule. These annual within-conference winning percentages were collected from data obtained from the NCAA Statistics office.

The annual change in within-conference winning percentage for each of the four sports' teams was grouped into one of three categories – those whose winning percentage increased by .250 or greater (from .500 to .750 for example), those whose winning percentage showed no change, or those whose winning percentage decreased by .250 or greater (from .500 to .250 for example). Universities and athletic teams who did not meet these criteria were withdrawn from consideration in the study. It was possible for a team to qualify for more than one category depending on their year-to-year within-conference record. For instance, the 1994 Penn State University football team was grouped in to the increase of .250 or greater category based on their improvement from 6-2 (.750) in 1993 to 8-0 (1.000) in 1994, while the 1995 Penn State football team fit in the decrease of .250 or greater category as a result of their decline from 8-0 (1.000) in 1994 to 5-3 (.625) in 1995. Table 1 summarizes the results of this phase of the data collection.

DEPENDENT VARIABLE AND PROCEDURE

Stratified random sampling was used to select 30 subjects from each of the 12 strata – the three previously mentioned categories across each of the four sports being studied. For each of the 240 total sample situations, the number of total undergraduate applicants was obtained through the annually published College Handbook (1995-2001) produced by The College Board. In football and volleyball, both fall sports, the change in applicant numbers were compared from the year identified in the three categories of the won-loss percentage change data to applicant numbers from the following year. For example, the 1998 University of Texas football team was identified as having improved to .750 from .250 the previous year. University of Texas' undergraduate admissions applications data from 1998 and 1999

was then examined to see if a change occurred in the number of total undergraduate applicants from the year identified in the team performance data, in this case 1998, to the following year. In men's and women's basketball, both winter sports, a slightly different approach was utilized to account for admissions deadlines at many schools which occurred before the completion of that particular year's basketball seasons. In these cases, the change in applicant numbers would be compared from the academic year immediately following the year identified in the three categories of the won-loss percentage change data to applicant numbers from the following academic year. For instance, the 1996-97 Duke men's basketball team was identified as having improved from .500 the previous season to .750. In this case, because the Fall 1997 admissions class would have likely already submitted their applications for enrollment before the success of that year's Duke University men's basketball team would be known, data was collected and compared for the 1997-98 and 1998-99 academic years. In an attempt to control sample size across strata, three additional subjects, a ten percent over-run, were also randomly selected from each of the twelve strata to be used if applicant data could not be obtained on identified subjects in the respective strata.

DATA ANALYSIS

ANOVA tests were conducted on applicant data collected for each of the four sports in order to test for significant differences between the three categories of annual change in within-conference won-loss percentage for each sport. The critical value for significance for each was set at alpha equal to .05 a priori. Because four separate ANOVA tests were conducted, a Bonferroni-type adjustment was made to this critical value in an attempt to account for inflated chances of committing Type I errors that are associated with conducting multiple ANOVA tests (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). The critical value for significance for each of the ANOVA tests was therefore adjusted to alpha equal to .0125 (.05 divided by four). Tukey post hoc tests were utilized in the event of significant findings in the ANOVA tests.

RESULTS

The results of each of the four ANOVA tests as well as the percent change in applicants for each of the increase, no change, and decrease winning percentage groups are displayed in Table 2. Among the four sports studied, only football had a significant relationship with number of applicants ($p=.0015$). The data indicated that an institution's change in football winning percentage was related to the number of undergraduate applicants received by the university the following year. For the schools that had football teams whose conference winning percentage increased by .250 or greater realized a 6.1% gain in undergraduate applicants the following year. The schools whose football team's conference winning percentage did not change from one year to the next had a 2.5% applicant increase the following year and schools whose conference winning percentage decreased the by .250 or more had 0.4% less applicants the next year.

The post-hoc test showed that the schools whose football team had a conference winning percentage which increased by at least .250 was significantly different than the other two groups. However, the latter two groups did not differ from each other.

DISCUSSION

FOCUS OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to determine whether change in winning percentage from one year to the next on any of four sports (football, men's basketball, women's basketball, and women's volleyball) had any relationship with number of applicants to the referent university. The results indicated that schools that had a football team which showed an increase in winning percentage of greater than .250 realized more academic applications than schools whose football teams did not improve or got worse. No other sport showed any significant relationship between change in winning percentage and number of applications.

SUPPORT FOR FINDINGS IN LITERATURE

The findings of this study support the conclusions of others (Chressanthi & Grimes, 1993; Murphy & Trandel, 1994) that a significant positive

relationship exists between success in NCAA Division I-A college football and undergraduate applications for admission at universities. However, previous findings (Toma & Cross, 1998) regarding a similar positive relationship between success in men’s basketball and applicants were not supported in this investigation.

RELEVANCE TO ORGANIZATIONAL CONCERNS

Without question, there are many reasons why individuals select particular institutions, some of which may involve aspects of intercollegiate athletics, depending upon each individual. There are certain areas related to this issue which merit discussion here, such as levels of media exposure, regional and conference biases, memorable teams, and selectivity.

Sports such as football receive more media attention than do other college sports, which enhances the advertising effect of college sports discussed earlier (Bremmer & Kesselring, 1993). This increased media attention is likely a primary reason why the data in this study found differences in applicants relative to football, but not the other three sports investigated. The current trend toward increased exposure for women’s sports in the United States may warrant future study as to the advertising effect of sports such as women’s basketball should this trend continue.

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Sports receive varying levels of attention in different regions of the country, as well as within particular conferences. For example, basketball is generally regarded as being most popular in the Midwest and Northeast, while football is extremely popular in the South. Also, the Atlantic Coast and Big East conferences are respected as

excellent men’s basketball leagues, while the Big 12 and Southeastern conferences typically are strong in football. These regional and conference differences were not taken into account in this study. Future researchers may wish to examine the athletics advertising effect on an athletic conference-by-conference or region-by-region basis.

Toma and Cross (1998) suggested that, “one factor that might explain the large relative increases experienced by some schools and not by others may be the compelling stories that make for particularly memorable seasons in some cases” (p. 651). There does seem to be merit to this argument, and it is one that is worthy of future research. Examining athletic teams and universities based on the television ratings of their championship game appearances or the amount of national media attention received would be possible alternatives for studying this concept.

Another issue raised by Toma and Cross (1998) is the influence of universities’ admissions criteria, or selectivity, on the number of applicants. Toma and Cross found that universities winning championships were seemingly more likely to realize applicant increases if they were schools, such as Duke University and Georgetown University, which had highly selective admissions criteria. Less selective schools experienced applicant declines following their championship seasons. The relationship between admissions selectivity, athletic team performance, and changes in admissions applications received by universities should be studied further, perhaps by stratifying universities based on the percentage of applicants admitted, figures which are typically reported in university guidebooks, such as the previously mentioned *College Handbook* (The College Board, 1995-2001).

IMPLICATIONS FOR ORGANIZATIONS

These findings are quite important for universities and their respective administrators. For example, just a 5 percent increase in undergraduate admissions applications could result in millions of dollars in increased tuition revenue over several years for large university if the additional applicants had qualifications similar to the

university norm and the university chose to admit the additional qualified applicants. Such a revenue increase would allow a university to improve itself by funding a number of scholarships, important research projects, faculty hires, and so on.

The issue of gender effect is also raised by this study. While a significant relationship between women's sport performance and the total number of undergraduate applicants received by a university was not found in this study, the relationships between male sports and male applicants and female sports and female applicants should be examined, however, based on this author's own experiences in this study, collecting this data may prove to be problematic for future researchers.

STUDY LIMITATIONS

One of the limitations of this study was in the way that the subjects were stratified. All winning percentage increases and decreases are not necessarily the same. For example, a winning percentage increase of .250 is quite important for a football team going from seven victories and perhaps a bowl bid to ten victories and a chance to compete for a national championship, while the same winning percentage increase is not likely to make a dramatic difference for a team with zero wins one year and three wins the next. Additionally, the magnitude of dramatic winning percentage change is not accounted for here. A school with a change in winning percentage of .500 or more would be assigned to the same category/group as others with just a winning percentage change of .250. Another limitation of this study is the collecting of data from secondary sources. While data collection from primary sources may be methodologically preferable, it was deemed to be both time and cost prohibitive for this study.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

As stated previously, there is a need in the literature to learn more about the relationships between success, and the lack thereof, in male and female sports and with male and female applicants. Understanding the relationships between these variables using secondary data, as

this study and most previous ones have done, may be problematic. A future course in this area might entail primary data collection with current, or recent, applicants.

Further research is also needed to examine the relationship between athletic performance and applicants to institutions in different regions of the United States, as the popularity of different sports tends to vary across regions. Additionally, investigation into the relationship between elite individual athletic performance and applicants, rather than team performance studied here and in most previous studies, may shed light on the impact of individual "star" athletes on applicants if team success and other related variables can be controlled for.

CONCLUSION

This study supports previous findings that a significant positive relationship exists between college football success and applications for undergraduate enrollment at NCAA Division I-A universities. Additionally, this study examined a similar relationship with college men's basketball, women's basketball, and women's volleyball, the latter two of which had received little previous study, and found no significant relationship to exist between success in those sports and applicants. The relationship between a dramatic decrease in team performance and applicants was also examined and significance was not found with any of the four sports studied.

[Tables 1 & 2 on page 24]

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Table 1

Subjects Identified in the Three Annual Team Performance Categories Across Sports

Conference	Football			Volleyball			Men’s Basketball			Women’s Basketball		
	+ .250	None	- .250	+ .250	None	- .250	+ .250	None	- .250	+ .250	None	- .250
ACC	11	12	6	7	7	4	6	3	7	7	4	4
Big East	5	14	6	6	5	9	7	6	7	8	4	8
Big 10	10	12	10	7	5	5	4	6	6	8	3	9
Big 12/Big 8	6	12	5	4	8	6	5	4	6	5	3	6
Pac 10	12	8	10	2	8	1	6	8	5	4	6	6
SEC	11	11	11	8	11	7	6	3	7	7	8	6
Totals	59	74	52	34	44	32	34	30	38	39	28	39

Note. Annual team performance categories designated as follows: +.250 = conference winning percentage increased by .250 or greater from one year to the next; None = conference winning percentage did not change from one year to the next; -.250 = conference winning percentage decreased by .250 or greater from one year to the next.

Table 2

P-Values and Percent Change in Applicants Across Sports

Percent Change in Applicants

Sport	p-value	+ .250	None	- .250
Football	.0015*	+6.11%*	+2.47%	-0.04%
Men’s Basketball	.3337	+9.83%	+5.88%	+4.40%
Women’s Basketball	.4790	+3.83%	+2.98%	+1.82%
Women’s Volleyball	.4816	+4.14%	+2.78%	+1.76%

Notes. * represents a significant finding at alpha=.0125. Column headings under Percent Change in Applicants denote the three groups of subjects as defined in Table 1.

SPORT AND THE CHURCH: EXPLORING SPORT IN THE CHRISTIAN LIFE CENTER

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KEYWORDS: RECREATION, RELIGION, CASE STUDY, QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

ABSTRACT

Sport and religion are aligned with each other in a variety of fashions, including the association between churches and sport activity. The use of sport commonly occurs by Protestant Christian churches, including Southern Baptist churches, which is a denomination that readily promotes the value of offering sport and recreation activities. This work identifies sport activities and related aspects of church provided sport.

INTRODUCTION

Sport is a major facet in the lives of many people in contemporary America. The emergence of sport can be seen in practically all aspects of life and society. The presence of sport is even seen in relation to churches. This connection of church and sport proposes some interesting issues.

The relationship that exists between sport and religion occurs in a variety of associations. As Hoffman (1992) stated, where the organized church is found, sport is also likely to be found. The “use” of sport by religious institutions and organizations, as well as the “use” of religion by sports organizations appear in various forms throughout contemporary sport (Coakley, 1998; Eitzen & Sage, 1992; 1997). This can be seen through all levels of sport, from local level (i.e. church sport) up through elite level sport (i.e. Olympic Games or professional sports).

To date the presence of church-provided sport has received a relatively small amount of attention by researchers. There can be numerous reasons that can be given to help explain why the research in

this area has been and still is so limited. Prebish (1992) proposed that the lack of sophistication and a lack of knowledge related to the connection of religion and sport, as well as the relative newness of the study of sport as an area of academic interest have help hinder such research.

CHURCHES USING SPORT

Churches providing sport is a common occurrence in America today. The phenomena of prevalence of churches providing sporting endeavors and facilities has really proliferated since the 1970's (Ladd & Mathisen, 1999). Churches have made use of sport in the form of leagues, tournaments, facilities and so forth, for members and nonmembers alike.

CHURCH SPORT AND CHURCH RECREATION STUDIES

Various studies have looked at the place of sport and recreation as it is being used by churches. From these studies, results suggested that recreation was held in high regards among church leaders. Furthermore, it was shown that the majority of responding churches provided recreation programs to both members and nonmembers in the surrounding church community, though it was noted that the majority of the recreational activities were offered to members.

Churches have made use of sport in the form of leagues, tournaments, facilities and so forth, for members and nonmembers alike.

Also, it was shown that recreation and sport activities were seen as making valuable contributions to the church (Adkins, 1987, Ermand, 1990; Ernce, 1987; Hensley, 1998; Mattingly, 1984; and Ogden, 1978). Among the contributions that such activities brought were providing an avenue for social connections (including personal connections, such as fellowship opportunities), outreach opportunities, and health aspects, and a non-threatening sport environment.

SOUTHERN BAPTIST SPORT AND RECREATION

The Christian Life Center (CLC) selected for this study belonged to a Southern Baptist church. A Southern Baptist CLC was selected due to the fact that the Southern Baptist church has been recognized as a denomination that commonly promotes sport and recreation activity involvement (Kraus, 1984; Ladd & Mathisen, 1999; Mattingly, 1984; Ogden, 1978; Overman, 1997). Furthermore, the Southern Baptist church also has a Church Recreation Program. The Church Recreation Program is part of LifeWay Ministries which is responsible for a variety of publications and advisory functions for Southern Baptist churches (and other Christian denominations potentially). The Church Recreation Programs serves as a service that provides a variety of resources for church recreators and church sport providers. Among the services that are provided include a variety of manuals and materials, personal instruction from professional advisors, conferences, and other items of interest. The Church Recreation Program does not serve as a governing agency, but rather as an advisory and assistance providing organization.

Church provided sport is often desired to be associated to the principles associated with Coakley's (1998) pleasure and participation model of sport. This model shows the comparison and contrast with Coakley's power and performance model. The pleasure and participation model basically represents a diverse array of different physical activities, but can generally be classified as emphasizing aspects such as: active participation centered around a combination of connections (i.e. connections between people, mind

and body, and between physical activity and the environment), empowerment (as opposed to power) through experiencing sport, inclusive participation, democratic decision making through cooperation, interpersonal connection through participation with others (rather than against), and an ethic of personal expression and growth.

SPORT MODELS

Coakley (1998) described two models of sport, the power and performance model of sport and the pleasure and participation model of sport. In North America today, sport is largely identifiable in the form of the power and performance model. Power and performance sports are characterized as being highly organized and competitive in nature. In general this model emphasizes sport in which:

- Strength, speed, and power to push the human limits, as well as to dominate opponents in the pursuit of victory and accolades.
- The concept that excellence occurs through competitive success, as well as intense dedication and hard work, plus the combination of such with aspects such as sacrifice and risk taking.
- Importance is expressed toward record setting, technology implementation, and through defining the body as a machine.
- There is a focus toward exclusive participation based on competitive success and physical skills.
- There is a hierarchical authority structure where athletes are subordinate to coaches and these coaches are in turn subordinate to owners/administrators.
- Defining opponents as "enemies;" antagonism between us and them (opponents) (Coakley, 1998).

PLEASURE AND PARTICIPATION MODEL

Many forms of contemporary sport fall in line with the pleasure and participation model of sport. Jay Coakley (personal communication, 2000, October 31), explained that the pleasure and participation model, (as well as the previously mentioned power and performance model) was partially inspired by Mariah Burton Nelson's (1991) "military model"

and “partnership model” of sport, and the work of Mary Duquin's concept of an “ethic of care.” This model basically emphasizes:

- Active participation based on the combination of various connections (such as the connections between people and the connections between physical activity and the environment).
- An ethic of enjoyment, growth, personal expression, good health and mutual concern, including concern for teammates and opponents.
- Empowerment (rather than domination) through experiencing one’s body as a source of pleasure and well-being.
- Inclusive participation based on accommodating for differences in physical skills.
- Democratic decision making systems which are categorized by cooperation, sharing power, and establishing a give-and-take relationship between athletes and coaches and other figures.
- Interpersonal support through competing with rather than against others (opponents serve as a means of testing each other, rather than an enemy) (Coakley, 1998).

“People do not play sports in a social and cultural vacuum,” (Coakley, 1998, p. 113) and the two aforementioned models do not necessarily encompass all means in which sport activity can be organized. However, pleasure and participation model offers a way to challenge and oppose the power and performance ideals. When taking part in sport, participants can be drawn to consider alternative selection opportunities.

Emphasizing pleasure and participation considerations can allow sport and socialization to have a profound influence on the experiences sports participants have by impacting the social world which are created by sport activity and establishing sport’s role within the setting and the subsequent cultural processes. By rejecting power and performance principles, sport participants can opt for sport opportunities that are focused on values and experiences, which can allow them to establish connections through enjoyable physical

activities such as can be seen in the following generalizations from the pleasure and participation model in sport:

- *Playing not winning* is the most important thing.
- People enjoy playing with each other—even when there are unequal skill levels
- Humiliation, shame, and domination are not consistent with the “spirit” of the activities (Coakley, 1998).

CHURCH PROVIDED SPORT: A CASE STUDY OF A CHRISTIAN LIFE CENTER (CLC)

To provide greater insight into the aspects of church provided sport, the following descriptive and informative information pertaining to a case study of a CLC setting should shed some light on this situation. In this particular site, the CLC is a facility that is adjoined to a large church that is located in the heart of the thriving downtown section of a city in the Southeastern United States. The CLC is approximately 35 years old, and is quite a nice facility that has housed quality health and fitness equipment, as well as an attractive gym and an outdoor swimming pool. The CLC served as the location for activities both pertaining to sport and physical activity as well as non-sport related activities, including arts and crafts, Bible study groups, dining and snacking, and also as a site for work for numerous full and part-time employee and interns, including the CLC director (also referred to as the Minister of Christian Life), the church youth minister, the minister to college students, two secretaries, and numerous other employees that spend work time duties in the CLC.

There were numerous sport and physical activity programs that were based at the CLC. Among the activities and programs that were provided are things such as formally structured leagues, informal mid-day and morning basketball leagues, camps, pick up games, a variety of aquatic activities (including “water babies” which is a parent-child interaction in a swimming environment, recreational swimming, and water aerobics), aerobics, and game room activities (such as air hockey, billiards, foos ball, and table tennis),

and a variety of other physical health related activities, such as body analysis and first aid training.

Facility attributes included a gymnasium that housed various activities including basketball courts and volleyball courts, two racquetball courts, an outdoor swimming pool, an aerobics studio, a Nautilus universal weight room, a free weight room, an exercise room (including Stairmasters, exercise bikes, and treadmills), and a well supplied game room. Furthermore there are locker room facilities established for users as well.

FINDINGS AND RESULTS

The researcher examined the emerging themes in an effort to understand and identify the role of the sport activity in the CLC, as well as understanding the implementation of the pleasure and participation model characteristics in the sport activities (elements of this is detailed throughout the findings section, but is primarily highlighted in the final subsection—components of sport play). Four dominant themes emerged and will be reflected in the findings and results section. Theme sections such as social connections, religion aspects, outreach, and components of sport play and competition will be detailed.

SOCIAL INVOLVEMENT

Social connections were commonly observed through personal interactions throughout the CLC. The occurrence of fellowship, which includes involvement and interaction with others in a joyous manner, between the activity participants was displayed in a variety of forms. The CLC served as a site for individuals to spend time and interact with their friends. These connections could be seen in the form of the prevalently found interactions of college students, church members, league members, and additional other activity participants. Such connections were noticeable through observations, interviews, and general conversations between the researcher and activity participants. It became obvious to the researcher that there were a lot of regular attendees who viewed the CLC to “hang out” (in the verbiage of one participant).

Just as was the case in a study by Adkins (1997), fellowship was a major part of the CLC culture. The CLC was viewed as a site for socialization, including recurring actions such as the presence of joking and picking with each other, and occasional flirtation.

Other occurrences of social and personal connections were displayed through actions and interactions of college-aged activity participants. As one individual put it, “we are all friends in the college department.” This individual also went on to explain how they also get to know and interact with other age groups through league interaction, including the prevalent occurrence of roommate relations at the CLC and the fact that the CLC served as a site for making future social plans (such as dining or movies) and discussions of previous social encounters (such as going to the beach or watching movies the previous night).

The social interaction aspect was further developed in the CLC through the facility serving as site for many professionals and business people from the surrounding downtown business community commonly participated church provided sport and physical activities at the CLC. According to the CLC director, the main focus for the outreach plans of the CLC is to reach these populations. The occurrence of this was evident as the common involvement of such participants were readily observed, including a variety of actions which included playing basketball with each other in formal evening league games, as well as in informal businessmen’s leagues games during the daytime-lunch break time period. It was quite common to see the “regulars” conversing with each other about the sport and recreation activities or other items of general interest when they meet up at the CLC. This was evidenced through conversation about activities such as a tennis tournament, trips to the beach, vacations, and other points of conversation.

The friendly interaction between players from the teams that were just composed of individuals from this particular church’s activities, seemed to be more commonplace than the interaction with “others” that were from other church settings.

This was noticeable through the inter-church volleyball league. In this league, two of the teams were affiliated with the host church and the other teams were from other area churches. In this league, though there was some extra-team interaction, it was different from the basketball league in which all of the players and teams were affiliated with the church and/or the CLC Wellness Program (which is a CLC membership that is similar in form to a health club membership in the form of paying dues for privileges of using the CLC and activities therein).

THE RELIGION CONNECTION

In addition to the interpersonal connections occurring at the CLC, the presence of connections between sport activity involvement and aspects of religion also were prevalent. Traces of this could be seen in a variety of forms. First of all, the site itself is located on the same “campus” as the religious settings of the sanctuary, offices, and other sections of the entire church structure. The CLC is headed by a director that holds the position of Minister of Christian Life and is a seminary trained religious leader. He says that he took this position in response to “God’s call to do this ministry.” In addition to this, there were Bible study groups and youth group religious meetings that took place within the setting of the CLC. Additionally there were various other items such as printed materials and signs that displayed Bible verses and religious principles prominently displayed in the CLC.

Additionally, the presence of prayer was commonly implemented in sport activities. Prayer was held during evening league events (always before games and sometimes after) and camps alike. The prayers that were initiated at the league events were administered before the start of the matches. Players from both teams, as well as supervisors and/or officials would take part in the prayer time activity. Issues such as safety, having fun, proper conduct, and Christian behavior (including attributes such as glorifying God, being good examples, and exemplifying one’s faith) would be addressed in these prayer sessions.

As previously mentioned, prayer also occurred in the camp settings as well. In addition to prayer time, the basketball camps also implemented a time of devotion. The basketball camps were a part of a program called Upward Basketball, which is a church involved basketball camp program that is part of Upward Unlimited, based out of Spartanburg, South Carolina. Upward Unlimited provided materials for the camp activities and other camps that have been provided in various settings such as this around the country. The mission statement of Upward Basketball aims to “lift Upward the name of Jesus and reach Unlimited lost people for Jesus Christ.” During the camp instruction, coaches were responsible for giving a time of devotion or Bible study. Additionally, stars were given to the campers as a form of “reward.” One of the stars that were issued was the white star which stood for Christ-like attitude.

Another religious involvement that occurred in the collected data was the fact that people were observed sitting or standing around in the main entrance and the dining/snacking area of the CLC discussing different religious issues. Religion conversations included discussion of the Bible and theological issues pertaining to thoughts on salvation and denominational differences.

It should be noted, however, that not all sport participants take part in religious activities provided by the CLC. Some participants were involved such activities at other churches or did not take part in other church provided activities.

OUTREACH

The presence of outreach has ties to personal connections and religious connection as well. According to John Garner (1999), director of the Church Recreation Program of the Southern Baptist Convention, churches should use sport as a tool for outreach. The uniqueness of the CLC, as well as the wide variety of activities that that it provides, served as a platform for various forms of outreach, which was exemplified by offering league participants and their families the opportunity to utilize aspects of the facility on league nights. This included groups from other

churches such in the volleyball league, and the point was stressed about how families could use the facility, including the pool (which seemed to be especially emphasized). As one participant stated, the CLC “brings a lot of people in.” This individual also went on to state that a lot of these people stay on and continue to come to the CLC and the church. Another individual went on to explain about how the CLC could be a “good witness,” but “we often fall short.” This point was expanded on by detailing that sometimes people fall short due to putting personal interests first. The same individual went on to say that people “could do more” in regards to bringing people in to the CLC and the church, and subsequently making these individuals feel welcomed once they do enter the CLC. He said that some people do a better job than others do, “it depends on the people.”

To note the desire for outreach even further, the director explained that there are a number of modifications planned that are to be aesthetically pleasing to guests and participants. Scheduled modifications included adding a new floor in the aerobics studio. He said that when they get the new floor, it will be more appealing and easier on people’s legs and will serve to “draw people in.”

Ermand (1990) found that church programs can provide opportunities to a wide selection of people, both from the church site as well as to people that are not church members or church regulars. Ogden (1978) found that though respondents (church pastors and lay leaders) felt that evangelism should be church recreation’s most important purpose, the results suggested that the actual practice was to meet church member’s needs. The CLC served both church members and non-members well, and placed a strong emphasis toward involving a wide range of people in CLC activities. The CLC director actually stated that the main focus of the CLC ministry was actually focused on business people and workers that are largely grouped in the proximate area of the church. One of the promotional brochures from the CLC actually mentioned how the Priority Wellness program is specifically designed “to meet the needs of the business professionals in the downtown [name of city] community.” The same

brochure went on to explain that features of the Priority program assisted individuals in the business and professional communities to pursue “more productive, well-balanced” lives. The director stated that the focus of the CLC had moved from a focus toward senior citizens at its inception, to focus on youth, to the current status of the focusing toward the business workforce.

COMPONENTS OF SPORT PLAY

The level of athletic competition was quite compatible with the pleasure and participation model. This was exemplified in the presence of a diverse field of activity participants, through a camaraderie-natured (rather than a combative-natured) sport environment, aspects of togetherness, and connections with the environment and others. Such issues has been exemplified throughout the findings, and in particular, will be profiled throughout the “components of sport play” subsection.

Participants involved in CLC activities included individuals of diverse characteristics, including a great diversity in the range of ages for those involved (ages ranged from babies, such as with the “water babies” program, which includes babies and small children, through senior citizens). Additionally, diversity in skill levels in both league and non-league play was reflected, where individual participants displayed a wide range of abilities.

As for the competition level at the CLC, the organized evening leagues displayed great parity among the participating teams. The league events commonly displayed contests that were very competitive in nature and for the most part, the competing teams in the evening basketball league had similar records, except for one team, which was the only team that was undefeated. As it turned out, the undefeated team was the one in which the director was a member. This brought up a bit of speculation on the part of members of other teams, but no major points of contention were addressed. Though they were undefeated, they have had a few closely contest events, which they were just fortunate enough to come out winning in the end.

As for the equity in playing ability, this has been noted by numerous individuals in conversation with the researcher. It was said that it often is a matter of “who shows up” or “who doesn’t show up” on any given night. This is basically stating that the key presence of a key player can sometimes make the difference in the outcome of the games.

As for the volleyball league, the level of play there was quite even as well. In this league, teams were composed of willing participants from a variety of different area churches. There were a couple of teams that played below the level of the other teams, but it was a tight race usually to see who emerged victorious during the weekly play. Regardless, participants, whether having won or lost, generally expressed that they enjoyed their experience (i.e. through conversations, smiles, facial expressions, or other gestures).

Aspects of teamwork also appeared during this research. It was obvious that some teams functioned well together. Nowhere was this more prevalent than in the volleyball league play. Teams commonly functioned smoothly, and it was obvious that some of these individuals had played together before as well.

Additionally components of skill development performance improvement were observed. Children partaking in camp activities, as well as adults that cultivated their team work and playing skills were detectable throughout the duration of the camps and leagues. Such improvements were apparent to the researcher, and were communicated to the researcher via comments made by leaders such as the camp organizer and the CLC director.

It should be noted that often times the sport activities were being held under somewhat lax or flexible rules. There have been various occurrences where teams “picked up” extra players or would have individuals “fill in” on their teams. Additionally, other occurrences of flexibility occurred, such as during volleyball play, when a particular team won the first two games in a two out of three set, most of the time, they would go

ahead and play the third game for the fun of it. There were also numerous instances in which teams were allowed to start with an insufficient number of players. Examples of this included four players against six in volleyball and four on four basketball games. In the later example, the director said to “go ahead and play four on four” (as opposed to the regulation five against five starting line-up). Taking this matter into account even further, the same holds true for workers and officials, such as when one official had to call the game by himself, rather than the regular two person crew. Associated with this, there was a need for workers to commonly fill in where needed. If an absence due to prior commitment or unforeseen circumstance set up a conflict, workers would fill in or do additional tasks to help out in the process of putting on the planned activities. This was demonstrated when officials were running late or there was a need for some other adjustment to be made (i.e. fill in officials of just one official, instead of two).

Additionally, there was a general feeling of willingness to help when needed. When approached by the director or other supervisors, the researcher filled in as scorekeeper or time keeper when needed. Others were also willing and had previous experience or knowledge of such matter could be called upon to fill certain voids when they emerged.

CONCLUSION

This work explores the use of sport by churches. Aspects pertaining to church provided sport activity, including a case study of a particular Christian Life Center were detailed. Attributes pertaining to this site as well as larger concepts have been expounded on as well.

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EXAMINING THE BODY OF SCHOLARSHIP IN SPORT MANAGEMENT: A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF THE *JOURNAL OF SPORT MANAGEMENT*

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ABSTRACT

Sport management scholars have called for examination of the literature in sport management to explore its state in relation to its representation of the field of study and the industry. The purpose of this study was to examine the *Journal of Sport Management (JSM)*. Content analysis methodology was used. Findings reveal that the 52 issues examined in this study contain 233 peer reviewed empirical research articles authored by 435 authors. The field of study, as measured against sport management curriculum standards content areas, was found to have unequal coverage with a high level of content in Management and Organizational Skills, Sport Marketing, and Sport Business in the Social Context. Additionally, the sport business industry is inequitably represented with a majority of research involving intercollegiate athletics (40%).

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Many scholars and academic leaders in the rising academic discipline of sport management, at its early inception and today, note that the profession must have a comprehensive body of literature with a foundation of knowledge that will prepare individuals with a solid and appropriate education for their career endeavors in the sport business industry (Cuneen & Parks, 1997; Fielding, Pitts, & Miller, 1991; Mahony & Pitts, 1998; Parkhouse,

Ulrich, & Soucie, 1982; Parks, 1992; Paton, 1987; Zeigler, 1987). Indeed, a body of knowledge ought to represent the defined field of study. As Hancher stated, a body of literature should consist of “a minimum body of basic and fundamental knowledge that is commonly possessed by members of the profession” (1944, as cited in Fielding et al., 1991, p. 1). The sport management field of study and the sport business industry are defined by the sport management curriculum standards and sport management textbooks (Sport Management Program Review Council, 1993; 2000) (see, for example, Parkhouse & Pitts, 2001; Parks & Quarterman, 2003; Parks, Zanger, & Quarterman, 1998).

Nonetheless, sport management scholars have also pointed out that the state of sport management literature does not sufficiently reflect the defined field of study or the sport business industry (Olafson, 1990; Paton, 1987; Pitts, 2001; Slack, 1996; Soucie & Doherty, 1996). For

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instance, Slack stated that “sport management has not kept pace with the type of changes that have occurred in the world of sport” and that “our research is still very much dominated by studies of physical education and athletic programs” (p. 97). Pitts (2001) stated that “when one reads the totality of our literature, one gets the distinct impression that sport management is nothing more than the study of managing college athletics and some professional sports” (p. 3). In a study on one journal, the *Sport Marketing Quarterly (SMQ)*, Pedersen and Pitts (2001) stated that the journal should make changes in order to ensure its relevance to the field of sport management because they found that there are “uneven amounts of coverage of the basic sport marketing components, sport industry segments, and different sports” (p. 23).

These statements are supported by findings of other studies and reviews of the body of literature in sport management. In the earliest known study, Parkhouse et al. (1982) examined 336 sport management doctoral studies reported in *Dissertation Abstracts International* between 1950 and 1980. It was concluded that the studies that were conducted dealt almost exclusively with physical education and athletics at the collegiate level. Lambrecht (1991) conducted an examination of 45 articles published in the *Journal of Sport Management (JSM)* from 1987-1990. Lambrecht noted that 35% of the articles focused on college, university, and school issues while the remaining 65% covered numerous other topics. However, no single topic was represented more often than the college, university, and school setting. Paton (1987) conducted an examination of 122 sport management studies reported in *Completed Research in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation* and found that 60% focused on the college and university setting. Soucie and Doherty (1996) conducted a study whose stated purpose was “to identify past research endeavors in sport management and examine...the topics and areas of concern that have preoccupied research in this field (p. 142).” They examined 288 North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM) conference abstracts and 207 sport management articles in seven journals from 1983-93. The

findings revealed that the highest cluster (20%) of articles/abstracts focused on sport management curriculum and professional preparation issues. In a study by Barber, Parkhouse, and Tedrick (2001) in which 42 empirical studies published from 1991 to 1995 in *JSM* were examined, the findings revealed that most studies focused on personnel management, curriculum, organizational structure, and Title IX, gender, and race issues.

In two studies conducted recently, examination of singular sport management journals was the focus. Pedersen and Pitts (2001) investigated the *SMQ* and Mondello and Pedersen (2003) examined the *Journal of Sports Economics (JSE)*. The Pedersen and Pitts study used a sport marketing management model (Pitts & Stotlar, 1996) against which to determine the extent of the coverage of sport marketing elements. Further, they looked at the extent of the coverage of the sport business industry by using a model designed by Parks et al. (1998). The results showed that the bulk of the sport marketing elements covered in the research was marketing management (22%) and consumer analyses of spectators (17%). The Mondello and Pedersen (2003) study revealed that the highest percentages of articles focused on professional sport team performance and payrolls (20%) and labor market research (12.9%).

In another study, Mowrey (2003) examined conference proceedings published in 2000, 2001, and 2002 for the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), the European Association for Sport Management (EASM), and the Sport Management Association of Australia and New Zealand (SMAANZ). Similar to the two other studies, Mowrey’s findings revealed uneven coverage of sport management content areas (Mowrey also used the sport management curriculum standards for categorization). In addition, Mowrey’s findings showed seemingly different interests in sport industry segments between the three associations. Whereas EASM papers were focused on governance and SMAANZ papers were focused on tourism and leisure based sport management, the NASSM papers were centered around intercollegiate sport.

One fairly consistent finding of these studies was that research in sport management has failed to involve full representation of sport management content areas and of segments of the sport business industry: There is a disproportionate focus on intercollegiate athletics and a few professional sports and on some management and some marketing topics. In relation to the frequently investigated area of intercollegiate athletics, Pitts pointed out in 2001, and Soucie and Doherty (1996) earlier stated, "This is not to suggest that in-depth research on some important topics is not warranted, but [both pointed out this phenomenon] simply to make the case that the scope of research options in sport management is almost limitless" (p. 498). While intercollegiate athletics administration is clearly a segment of sport management, sport management and its accompanying research should be much broader than athletics administration.

Analyzing the content of the academic publications in the field of sport management, while not new, is not comprehensive, and therefore, more research is warranted. While not excusable, the limited self-examination is understandable because of the relatively young and developing nature of this area of academic study. A reflection of this youth is revealed in the fact that the field of sport management has only produced journals over the past two decades while other disciplines of study have journals dating back to the early part of the twentieth century. Currently, there are over a dozen outlets for theoretical literature within the field of sport management, most of which began in the 1990's. These sport management journals, with their inception dates, are shown in Table 1.

The influence of a journal can be far-reaching. According to Danylchuk and Judd (1996), scholarly journals are a significant resource and source of information for academicians. This information is most likely used in the classroom, field, and further research. Because scholars attend the same conferences and read the same journals, they are, according to Soucie and Doherty (1996), "considerably influenced by what

other researchers are doing in the same field...and there is often a temptation to pursue similar investigations" (p. 498). Therefore, it is imperative that literature represents the field of study and its industry.

Recently, several noted sport management scholars have challenged their colleagues to assess the current state of research literature in the field. Scholars such as Parks (1992), Paton (1987), Pitts (2001), and Slack (1993; 1996) have challenged the research in the field. Olafson (1990) and Chelladurai (1992) questioned and challenged the frequent lack of scope in the research. There is a need for sport management scholars to reflect on their literature in an effort to determine what has been published, where the field is right now, and what future directions might be taken. Critical self examination such as this reveal the advances that have been made, identify the areas within the literature that could use improvement, and determine the extent to which the literature accurately reflects the field of study and the sport industry. As Parks (1992) noted, there is a need to attempt to determine, "what knowledge is needed in sport management" (p. 224). As Pitts (2001) noted, "in the near future, I challenge us to critically examine the state of our literature and begin the work toward expansion" (p. 4). Furthermore, Pedersen and Pitts (2001) noted that, "the advancement of the discipline requires that the field of sport management take an inward look [at] scholarly publications" (p. 23).

In addition, examining the role that gender plays in determining content in academic journals is warranted (Aitchison, 2001; Spender, 1981). There are politics in relation to gender at play in every boardroom, including editorial boards (Aitchison, 2001). Gender has the potential to influence what is happening with academic journals.

JSM was launched in January of 1987 by the scholars of the North American Society for Sport Management (NASSM), which was formed in 1985. Parks and Olafson (1987), in their initial comments regarding the publishing of a new sport management journal stated, "launching a new professional publication designed to meet the

needs of academicians, practitioners, and students is an exhilarating and challenging experience” (p. 1). *JSM*, according to Weese (1995), “garnered a high standard of scholarship in a relatively short period of time” (p. 239). Furthermore, Parkhouse and Pitts (2001) stated that the journal, “has become the major source for disseminating significant knowledge in the field” (p. 7).

To date, *JSM* has not been examined to determine the extent of its coverage of contributions to the sport management literature, its coverage of sport management content areas, its coverage of the segments of the sport business industry, and other similar factors. In an earlier study on the *JSM*, Barber, Parkhouse, & Tedrick (2001) examined one aspect of the journal: the research methodologies used by authors. Therefore, it was the aim of this study to conduct such an examination. Specifically, an investigation, through content analysis, was conducted into the publishing history of the *JSM*. As was the intent of Soucie and Doherty’s (1996) analysis, the intention of this research effort is not, “to dictate where research should focus at this time” (p. 494) but rather to stimulate thought and discussion regarding the body of knowledge in the field of sport management. The ultimate goal was, similar to the quest by Olafson (1990), to determine objective evidence – and thus support or reject subjective opinions – regarding the research (and those associated with that research) published in the *Journal of Sport Management*.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine *JSM* to provide a research based descriptive analysis of the journal. This type of research will reveal the state of this journal and provide a basis of information that could be used in regards to future decision-making. For instance, if it is found that there actually is a large and inordinate amount of research on intercollegiate athletics, decisions made by researchers and journal editors could be guided toward increasing attention to and emphasis on those areas with little or no research coverage.

Specifically, the following questions guided this examination: What is the status of editorship for

this journal? How many and what type of papers have been published? Who are the authors in regards to gender, institutional or organizational affiliation, and country? What types of research methods have been used? Does the body of literature in this journal reflect the range of content areas as outlined in sport management curriculum standards? Does the literature in this journal reflect the depth and breadth of the sport business industry?

METHODOLOGY

Using the content analytic research methodology, this study was an examination of *JSM* from its inception in January of 1987 (Volume 1, Issue 1) through the April issue of 2003 (Volume 17, Issue 2). Content analysis, also referred to as the analysis of communication, is an unobtrusive or non-reactive research method employed by social scientists. A content analytic method is unobtrusive or non-reactive because it has no effect on the subject being studied as what is being analyzed has been already written or broadcast (Babbie, 1995). While content analysis has been applied to virtually every form of communication (books, magazines, periodicals, poems, letters, newspapers, radio broadcasts, and the Internet), this study applied content analysis to the articles published in a leading academic journal.

RESEARCH DESIGN

Quantitative content analysis is the systematic and replicable examination of symbols of communication, which have been assigned numeric values, and the analysis of relationships involving those values, in order to describe the communication and draw inferences about its meaning (Riffe, Lacy, & Fico, 1998). Similarly, a half-century earlier, Berelson (1952) stated that the aim of content analysis is to objectively, systematically, and quantitatively describe the manifest content of communication. Stempel (1981) suggested a broader view of content analysis when he called it, “a formal system for doing something that we all do informally rather frequently, drawing conclusions from observations of content” (p. 119). Content analysis is simply a systematic and replicable way of formally doing something we informally do all the time. A content

analytic method is a more formal process as it involves the objective, systematic, replicable, valid, and quantitative discovery of communication content (Berelson, 1952; Holsti, 1969; Krippendorff, 1980; Riffe et al., 1998).

MEASURES

As the purpose of this study was to examine *JSM* to provide a research based descriptive analysis of the journal, and specifically, to determine the status of editorship, how many and what type of papers have been published, who the authors are, what types of research methods have been used, does the literature reflect the range of content areas in sport management, and does the literature reflect the depth and breadth of the sport business industry, measures for the analysis were developed based on these areas of inquiry. For this study, those measures included the following categories and individual measures: (1) Articles: number of research articles per issue, length of article; (2) Authors: number of authors, gender of authors, author credit, institutional affiliation of author, location of author, academic/professional level, type of research (qualitative or quantitative); (3) Editorship: number of editor/reviewer opportunities, gender of editors and editorial board; (4) Research Methods: research category and methodology; (5) Sport Management Content Areas: management content area focus of article (based on ten sport management curriculum standards content areas and two added areas); (6) Sport Industry Segment: segment of the sport industry in the study; and (7) Gender Focus of Article. The following provide a description of each measure.

THE ARTICLES

The papers (articles) were examined to reveal the state of the literature in this journal. The study involved a descriptive analysis of the material included in the research sections in the journal's 52 issues over the prescribed timeframe. The investigation focused solely on peer-revised, empirical research articles. Such articles are located in the "Research and Review" section as well as the "Research Notes" section of the journal. For all the data, the unit of analysis was the written material (i.e., the research article).

Analysis did not include articles in such sections as journal introductions, commentaries, perspectives (e.g., the official section which was launched in the journal's third year), invited articles (e.g., the contents of the first issue), and book reviews. Measures included number of articles per issue, and number of pages per article.

THE AUTHORS

In an attempt to identify the authors and their research endeavors in the published articles of *JSM*, measures were developed to ascertain number, gender, author credit (how many authors per paper, and in what order), institutional affiliation, academic or professional level, and location of author.

EDITORSHIP

To examine the status of editorship for this journal, all editor and editing opportunities were investigated. That included Editor, Associate Editor, Guest Editor, Section Editors, and Editorial Board Members (reviewers). Measures included number, gender, and type of editorial opportunity. Aitchison (2001) and Spender (1981) examined the key role that gender plays in determining content in academic journals. Aitchison emphasized, "the significance of editorial boards in relation to the politics of gender and knowledge" (p. 13). That is, gender of editors and reviewers might prejudice view of articles submitted. Based upon such research, the coders in this study were asked to determine the gender of the editorial and review boards.

RESEARCH METHODS

To identify what research methods have been utilized, the category of research (qualitative or quantitative) and the research methodology were identified. This information will provide a synopsis of what research methodologies have been used thus far in *JSM* and show which methods are utilized less.

SPORT MANAGEMENT CONTENT AREAS

To identify the content area on which *JSM* authors focused, the content areas as identified and categorized in the NASPE-NASSM Sport Management Program Standards and Review

Protocol were used (see Sport Management Program Review Council, 2000) (see Table 2). In addition, two content area categories were added: "sport management education," and "other." This was done because the primary researchers knew that there were some research articles that focused on some aspects of sport management education, such as curriculum and accreditation issues, and some articles that focused on areas that were outside of the prescribed content areas.

SPORT INDUSTRY SEGMENT

To examine the coverage of the sport business industry, measures were developed based on industry segments as delineated by Parks et al. (1998) (see Table 3). Coders were asked to fit each article into the most appropriate ("best fitting") segment. (Note: Because we limited the sport industry segments to the Parks et al. work, some segments were not included, such as, the fitness industry, and governing organizations.)

Those segments included the following: Intercollegiate Athletics (any affiliation with college sports), Professional Sport (any affiliation with pro sport), Participant Sport, Campus Recreation (i.e., Outdoors, Intramurals, Fitness Center), Sport Communication (i.e., media, public relations), Sport Marketing (i.e., marketing director, operations), Sport Event and Facility Management (i.e., coordinator, manager), Sports Medicine (i.e., trainer, fitness director, physiologist), Health Promotion (i.e., wellness director, health educator), Sport Tourism (i.e., tour guide, planner, convention specialist), Sport Management and Marketing Agencies (i.e., agent, research), International Sport (i.e., Olympics, Women's World Cup), and Other (specify/explain).

GENDER FOCUS OF ARTICLE

To determine if the authors published in *JSM* are focusing on women's or men's sports or sport businesses, we measured the gender focus of the articles. Because females make up roughly half of the population and have made significant gains in sports participation rates, spectator rates, as consumers of sport, as managers and owners of sport businesses, and in all other areas, we examined to what extent authors who have

published in *JSM* reflect this (Pitts & Stotlar, 2002; "Female Executive," 2002). For example, if an article examined a sport organization such as the Ladies Professional Golf Association (LPGA), that article was coded as being focused on female sports. Similarly, if the article included an analysis of the National Football League (NFL) or a similar organization, it was coded as being focused on male sports.

CODERS

This study required four trained individuals (two sport management professors [one female and one male] and two sport management doctoral students [one female and one male]) who worked independently of each other to code every issue of the *Journal of Sport Management*. Depending on time and financial constraints, a content analytic method can use one, two, or several coders (Riffe et al., 1998). The rationale for using these four coders for this study was that the four coders, because of their involvement in the field of sport management and the coding for the pilot study, were comfortable and familiar with the definitions of the protocol and codebook (Riffe et al., 1998). For this study, the four coders first independently examined five issues of *JSM* (9.6% of the total number of issues) to test intercoder reliability. This is further explained in the section on reliability below. After intercoder reliability coding was completed, the entire collection of issues (52) was randomly divided into four groups (one for each of the four coders).

PRE-CODING AND PILOT TEST

In an effort to test the coding system, train the coders, and determine any problematic areas overall, a pilot study was conducted using randomly selected issues of *JSM*. For this preliminary analysis, the four coders each coded five issues of the journal. This pre-coding process revealed several problems that were addressed before the actual study was performed. Through the pilot study process it was determined that four additional variables needed to be added to the codebook. Furthermore, four initial categories were modified and two initial categories were determined to be too problematic and were thus removed. Additional pilot study changes involved

clarification of the coding protocol, expansion of descriptors, and the addition of coding options to the coding list.

INTERCODER RELIABILITY TESTING

Reliability in content analysis measures how consistent the coders make decisions. This measurement in content analysis determines if the coders, working independently of each other, are measuring the variables consistently. "Reliability requires that different coders applying the same classification rules to the same content will assign the same numbers" (Riffe et al. 1998, p. 54). Therefore, reliability in content analysis relies on the concept of intercoder reliability. Intercoder reliability tests in content analysis should involve both a simple agreement figure and a statistic (usually Scott's Pi [1955]) that takes chance into consideration.

In order to test reliability in content analysis, there must be a selected overlap whereby the coders may code the same information. In the first stage of reliability testing, the researchers are looking for simple percentage agreement. This is determined through the tabulation of the number of times the coders agree. This percentage can be the result of accurate coding, or simply can be the result of agreeing by chance alone. The second stage in computing a reliability assessment takes out the agreement by chance alone. This stage involves turning the percentage of agreement to a reliability coefficient. This is done through the Pi statistic invented by Scott (1955). Scott's Pi is an index of reliability that takes into account that some coding agreement occurs strictly by chance alone. The coefficient arrived at through Scott's Pi represents a comparison of the frequency of agreements found to those agreements that one would expect by chance alone.

For this study, the same coders who coded the data in the pilot study performed the coding for the main study. Reliability in content analysis looks at how consistent the coders make decisions. In an effort to assess intercoder reliability, five issues were randomly selected to provide a reasonable size (9.6%) for an overlap (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, 1999; Riffe, Lacy, & Fico,

1998). The study's four coders independently analyzed the same five issues. Defining an acceptable level for reliability is not easily accomplished in content analysis (Holsti, 1969). A reasonable standard number for acceptable percentage of agreement is anything above 80% (Riffe et al., 1998). The standard number for corrections for chance agreement (Scott's Pi) is around .70. Content analysis research, "with reliability assessment below .70 becomes hard to interpret and the method of dubious value to replicate" (Riffe et al., 1998, p. 131). This study had very high numbers (mostly in the middle 90s) relating to percentage of agreement and correction for chance agreement. These numbers are understandable as most of the material coded for this study was manifest content in nature (i.e., location, color, gender, and sport). Furthermore, the intercoder reliability percentages and numbers for this study confirm that the five coders had become thoroughly familiar with the coding protocol and codebook by the time this study was conducted.

VALIDITY

Validity must be established in addition to reliability because a measure can be reliable in its application but still wrong in what the researcher assumes it is really measuring (Riffe et al., 1998). While reliability is a necessary and vital condition for arriving at valid inferences from content analysis, it is not totally sufficient. Validity is necessary to determine if a study's methods produce the desired information. Direct or face validity is the most commonly accepted form of validity assessment in content analysis (Riffe et al., 1998). Face validity can be defined as an assessment in which the categories are clearly defined with a logical and consistent coding scheme (Folger, Hewes, & Poole, 1984). The presumption that is made with face validity is that if the measurement categories have been clearly defined and there is strong reliability in the coding, the measures will self-evidently measure what they are supposed to measure (Budd, Thorp, & Donohew, 1967). Face validity is simply a matter of a particular measure making sense on its face. In other words, on the face of it, the measure works and the adequacy of the measure

is obvious to all.

RESULTS

The data gathered in this study were used to investigate specific aspects of the state of the research literature published in the *Journal of Sport Management* and other aspects of the journal. The following are the findings in this examination.

THE ARTICLES

Fifty-two issues of *JSM* were included for examination in this study – from its inception in January of 1987 (Volume 1, Issue 1) through the April issue of 2003 (Volume 17, Issue 2) (the study was conducted during the Fall of 2003 and Spring 2004).

The 52 issues in this study yielded for examination 217 research articles over the 17-year (Volumes 1-17) timeframe. The journal was published twice a year through its first five years in existence. With volumes six through nine, it was published three times a year. Beginning with Volume 10, *JSM* was published four times a year. Overall, for this study, the journal averaged just over three issues and 13 peer-reviewed empirical research articles each year.

There was an average of just under five (4.5) research articles published each issue. The number of articles in each issue ranged from zero to seven. Thirteen issues (25%) contained four articles and 12 (23%) had five articles. Ten issues (19%) had three articles while seven issues (14%) had seven articles and six issues (12%) had six articles. Three issues had two articles each and one issue had no research articles. The issue without any research articles was the inaugural issue (Vol. 1, No. 1), published in January of 1987. This initial issue was a collection of nine invited articles.

The 233 research articles combined for a total of 3,701 pages. The articles ranged in length from six pages (four times) to 41 pages (one time). Over the 17-year period, the articles averaged 15.9 pages each. At the bottom end, 23 (10%) of the 233 articles were 13 pages long. There were 21 (9%) articles in both the 11-page and the 12-page

categories. At the top end, one article was 41 pages in length, another had 33 pages, and one other was 32 pages in length

AUTHORSHIP OF ARTICLES

The 52 issues in this study contained 233 research articles that were the work of 435 authors. The number of authors for each article varied from one to six. The 101 articles that were written by two co-authors made up the highest percentage (43%) of articles. The second highest category, solo authorship, included 86 research articles (37%). Thirty-nine articles (17%) had three co-authors and six articles (3%) had four co-authors. There were no articles authored by five co-authors, but there was one article authored by six co-authors.

The 435 authors came from 139 different academic or corporate settings. A total of 67 (48%) of the institutions and organizations had at least two authors affiliated with them. A vast majority (92% or 128) of the 139 different affiliations were universities and colleges. The remaining 11 were coded with affiliations to consulting companies (i. e., Navigant Consulting), public entities (i.e., State of California), or sport organizations such as the National Basketball Association (NBA), Kamloops Parks and Recreation Services, Sport Canada, and the Amateur Softball Association.

There were 16 countries represented by the 435 authors who were included in this study. The majority (58% or 250) of the authors came from the United States. There were 118 (27%) authors from Canada, 17 (3.9%) from the United Kingdom, 15 (3.5%) from Australia, and 11 (2.5%) from South Korea. The numerical and percentage breakdown of the 16 countries can be found in Table 4. The authors within the United States represented 34 states while the authors from Canada were situated in Alberta, Ontario, British Columbia, Saskatchewan, New Brunswick, Quebec, and Newfoundland.

The coders were asked to next identify the academic or professional level of the each of the 435 authors. Most (94% or 409 authors) of the authors were listed as unspecified faculty. Thirteen (3%) were coded as corporate or athletic

identity and five (1%) as graduate students. The remaining identified with such titles as lecturers and government or civic identity. Overall, 419 (96%) authors were identified as having some affiliation or employment with the academy.

Regarding the gender makeup of the 435 authors, 263 (61%) were male, 158 (36%) were female, and the gender of the remaining 14 (3%) authors could not be identified as male or female (see Table 5). Of the 86 single-authored articles, 46 (54%) were by male authors and 34 (40%) were by female authors. The gender of the remaining five authors could not be identified. Of the 209 authors who were secondary authors (their names were listed second, third, fourth, or sixth on the authorship byline), 140 (67%) were male authors, 64 (31%) were female authors, and five (2%) could not be identified as either male or female.

EDITORS AND REVIEWERS

For each of the 52 issues of *JSM*, the gender makeup of the editorial staff and review board was determined (see Table 5). Throughout the history of the journal, each issue has had equal gender representation with respect to main editors as there has always been one female editor and one male editor for each issue.

Of the 52 issues included in this study, three (6%) were theme issues. The first themed issue did not arrive until January of 1997 in the eleventh year of the journal's existence. This issue (Vol. 11, No. 1) was titled, "In search of relevance: Social change strategies in sport organizations." The second themed issue (Vol. 14, No. 2) was titled, "University athletics: Cultural, strategic, and economic perspectives." The third themed issue (Vol. 15, No. 4) was titled, "Sport in the third millennium (1990-2000 era sport)." As for the editors of the theme issues, all three had at least one male theme editor. Two of the three had a solo male theme editor while one issue (Vol. 15, No. 4) listed one female and one male as co-editors of the themed issue. In total, there were three male theme editors and one female theme editor for the journal's three theme issues.

The editorial board of *JSM* has consistently been a

collection of some of the leading scholars in sport management. As Weese (1995) noted, "the [*JSM*] editorial review board has always read as a 'who's who' in sport management scholarship and research" (p. 239).

Regarding the gender representation on this editorial board over the 52 issues in this study, there was an average of 8.2 female reviewers and 10 male reviewers for each issue. Female reviewers for each issue ranged from a low of three reviewers in four issues to a high of 13 in one issue. Male reviewers for each issue ranged from a low of seven in three issues to a high of 12 in eight issues. Therefore, the fewest number of female reviewers for an individual issue was three while the fewest number of males was seven. A combined total of 950 opportunities for reviewers existed over the 52 issues. The breakdown according to gender revealed that of the 950, 428 (45%) were female and 522 (55%) were male (see Table 5). Further, Table 5 offers a comparison of gender of editors of *JSM* to the gender of editors of two other sport management journals. As the results show, *JSM* has a more equitable representation of gender than the other two.

RESEARCH METHODS

Based on the previous work by Olafson (1990) and Barber et al. (2001), the research articles were first analyzed and coded according to research methodology. For each of the articles the coders were asked to identify the most appropriate type of research that had been used in the study. Over two thirds (68% or 158 articles) of the articles used quantitative methods of research. A total of 74 (32%) articles used qualitative methods of research while one article was coded as using a combination of quantitative and qualitative.

For the 74 research articles that were coded as qualitative, over half (38 articles or 51%) were coded as descriptive in nature. Twenty-two articles (30%) were theoretical, seven (10%) were interview methodology. There were two articles each (3%) in ethnographical, philosophical, and focus groups, and one article which fit the definition of historical qualitative research methodology according to the study's codebook.

For the 158 articles that used quantitative data analysis, the majority used various approaches to multivariate analysis. The highest percentage (21%) of such approaches consisted of research involving factor analysis. There were 33 articles coded as fitting this category. Twenty-nine articles (18%) used descriptive statistics to summarize the data. This meant that 29 of the 158 quantitative articles used univariate and bi-variate analyses (e. g., measures of central tendency, frequencies, z-scores, and similar descriptive statistics). Another 18% (29 articles) used t-tests and simple Analyses of Variance (ANOVA). Regression analysis, in its various forms within this approach to multivariate analysis, was used in 25 articles (16%) while other forms of Multivariate Analyses of Variance (MANOVA) (9%) were used in 14 articles and Chi Square (8%) was used in 13 articles. The remaining quantitative articles consisted of various statistical and methodological categories such as those using measures of relationship such as correlational analysis (e.g., The Spearman Rho and Pearson Product Moment), discriminate analysis, Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA), and meta-analysis.

SPORT MANAGEMENT CONTENT AREA FOCUS

The results revealed that there was at least one article that fit each content area. The highest percentage of articles (38%) was coded as fitting into the Management and Organizational Skills in Sport content area. Included in these 89 research articles were topics ranging from management to leadership, from organizational culture to motivation, and from organizational theory to organizational behavior. Sport marketing had the second highest percentage (18%) with 41 articles. The only other content area with at least 10% was Sport Business in the Social Context (Behavioral Dimensions in Sport). This area had 24 articles (10%). There were 20 articles (9%) on Sport Management Education. This area included topics that dealt with such issues as education, curriculum, research, and sport management graduates. The complete breakdown of all the categories can be found in Table 6.

SPORT INDUSTRY SEGMENT FOCUS

The findings show that every segment used in this study had at least one article except for the segments of Sports Medicine, Sport Tourism, and Sport Management and Marketing Agencies.

Intercollegiate Athletics (see Table 7) was the most written about segment with 92 articles (40%) of all the articles included in this study. Within this segment were topics related to intercollegiate athletics, physical education, interscholastic athletics, coaches, and interuniversity physical educational and sport. The second and third highest segments were Participant Sport with 31 articles (13.3%) and Professional Sport with 30 articles (12.8%). Participant sport articles included such topics as participation, leisure activities, and health clubs. These segments were followed by a miscellaneous section labeled "Other" that included 19 (8%) articles that could not be placed in any specific segment (i.e., article on combined segments, all sports, mass sport at all levels of competition, general organizational theory, employment, women in sport, sport law). Sport Management Education had 16 articles (7%) on such topics as sport management graduates, academic research, curriculum, and scholarship. The coders identified no articles in three distinct segments of the sport industry (Sports Medicine, Sport Tourism, and Sport Management and Marketing Agencies). While there were most likely articles closely related to these segments, the coders were forced to place each article coded into the "best fitting" segment in their codebook. Therefore, because there were no articles identified in the three above mentioned segments, this meant that any articles related to those segments were coded in another better fitting and appropriate segment.

GENDER FOCUS OF ARTICLES

The findings reveal that there were 110 articles (47%) that were coded as not having an identifiable gender focus. However, of those 123 articles that did have an identifiable gender focus, 38 (31%) were focused on male sports and 14 (11%) were focused on female sports (see Table 8). Furthermore, 71 (58%) of the 123 articles with identifiable gender focus were focused on both

female and male sports. Table 8 also shows how these results compare to two other studies on sport management journals.

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were drawn. First, this journal has contributed 233 peer-reviewed empirical research articles to the body of literature in sport management since its inception in 1987. Indeed, some have praised the journal stating that it “garnered a high standard of scholarship in a relatively short period of time” (Weese, 1995, p. 239) and that it “has become the major source for disseminating significant knowledge in the field” (Parkhouse & Pitts, 2001, p. 7). However, the sport management literature, with this journal included, has received criticism for its lack of full representation of sport management content areas and sport business industry segments (Olafson, 1990; Paton, 1987; Pedersen & Pitts, 2001; Pitts, 2001; Slack, 1996; Soucie & Doherty, 1996). The findings of the current study provide empirical evidence that supports these claims. Although there was at least one article whose content was categorized into each of the content areas identified, there was a disproportionate number of articles on each area, and a wide margin between the content area with the most number of articles (38% of the articles focused on management and organizational skills in sport) and the second most number of articles (18% focused on sport marketing). Beyond those two categories, the percent of articles focused on a content area was 10 percent and lower. Therefore, it can be concluded that there has been an inequitable amount of focus on the sport management content areas.

Second, the findings of this study are similar to the findings of other studies on singular journals in sport management and another study on conference proceedings topics. Taken individually, each study cannot be inferred to the whole population with a high degree of confidence. However, when the findings of all four studies are considered together, that degree of confidence rises. Given that four studies represent a greater percentage of the whole body of literature, there

is more evidence that the sport management literature appears to be heavily lopsided.

Therefore, there is increasing evidence to support the claims that sport management literature does not yet reflect or represent the many different segments of the sport business industry, and are disproportionately focused on intercollegiate athletics and a few professional sports. As noted, the findings of this study are similar to the results of the Pedersen & Pitts (2001) study on another sport management journal, the *Sport Marketing Quarterly*. However, the current study found a slightly higher focus on “participant sport” (13.3%) than “professional sport” (12.8%). Pedersen and Pitts found that the segments of the industry on which most articles were focused included professional sport (36%), sport marketing (19%), intercollegiate athletics (12%), participant sport (8%), sport management and marketing agencies (7%), and sport communication (7%). The results of the current study show that the largest percent of articles were studies on intercollegiate athletics (92 articles, 40%) and that the next largest percent was a distant 13.3% and was participant sport, with professional sport at 12.8%. In addition, these results are similar to the findings of Mondello and Pedersen (2003) in their study on another sport management journal, the *Journal of Sports Economics*. Yet, the results of that study show an overwhelming disparity. Mondello & Pedersen reported that the industry segment focus breakdown was 80% on professional sports (and that that broke down into 51.8% on the men’s ‘big four’ sports while 28.2% was on other professional sports) and 7.1% on college athletics.

Third, although females make up roughly half of the population in general and increasing numbers in sports, the results of this study reveals that this cannot be said for the gender focus of the articles in *JSM*. Of those articles with an identifiable gender focus, more than twice the number and percent of articles were focused on male sports; however, the largest percent (58%) focused on both genders. This finding is also similar to previous research findings. Pedersen and Pitts (2001) reported that the gender focus of articles in the *SMQ* was 28% on male sports and 8% on female

sports while 24% focused on both genders. Alarming, the results of the analysis of the *JSE* (Mondello & Pedersen, 2003) show that the disparity between gender focus was extreme: 81.2% on male sports, 14.1% on both genders, 4.7% with no gender focus, and zero articles on female sports. It is perplexing, if not discouraging, that there is such disparity between the number of male sports and female sports as a focus of the articles because the opportunities to study girls' and women's sports are numerous.

Fourth, in regard to authorship, the following conclusions can be drawn. The number (and percent) of peer-reviewed empirical research articles authored by female and male authors was 36% and 61%, respectively. This finding is similar to the findings of the earlier studies. Pedersen and Pitts, in the study on the *SMQ*, reported that there appeared to be "an alarming disparity in the number of authors in relation to gender" (p. 22). Similarly, the findings of the Mondello and Pedersen study on the *JSE* show a much larger disparity: 95.3% male authors, and 4.7% female authors (Mondello and Pedersen did not comment on this finding). Although there is disparity in the number of articles by female and male authors in the *JSM*, it is not as great as the journals in the other two studies.

The authors of the current study and the authors of the other two studies did not attempt to determine the reasons for these disparities. However, it is common knowledge that there is a difference in the number of female and male faculty in the sport management professoriate. That is, the number of males is slightly higher than the number of females. Therefore, perhaps a partial explanation of the difference in the numbers of the genders of authors in these journals is that the numbers are somewhat reflective of the gender make-up of the professoriate. (It would be interesting if future research could be conducted and offer some actual numbers and explanations of this.)

Fifth, this journal has a more positive record in relation to gender of editors and reviewers than those numbers reported in the two other studies.

In the current study, *JSM's* editor makeup has been 50-50 female/male. Compared to the other two journals, *JSM's* record is tremendous. The findings of the studies on *Sport Marketing Quarterly* and the *Journal of Sports Economics* revealed an alarming number of zero of female editors. In addition, *JSM* also has a much better record in relation to the gender difference in reviewers. *JSM's* gender makeup has been 45% female and 55% male, whereas the *SMQ* has been 35% female and 65% male and the *JSE* has been an alarming 3% female and 97% male.

Certainly, research is warranted in this area in two prongs. First, research is needed to examine the reasons why there is disparity in gender makeup of editorial staff. Second, research is needed to determine if there is gender bias in relation to the types and topics of papers that are submitted and that get published. In other words, at first glance at the numbers provided in Tables 6 and 7, it could be estimated that there is a correlation between the gender makeup of editors and reviewers and the gender of author and gender focus of paper. As Aitchison (2001) notes, "In most cases, there is a close correlation between the percentage of men on the editorial board and the percentage of articles authored by men" (p. 13).

IMPLICATIONS AND AREAS OF CONCERN FOR SPORT MANAGEMENT

The implications of the current study have the potential to be far reaching. The results provide empirical evidence that this journal is falling short of providing literature representative of the sport management content areas and the sport industry segments. However, when compared to two journals included for study in two previous studies, *JSM* has made more positive progress. While these statements are based solely on these results only, it was not the purpose of this study to attempt to examine why this is so. For instance, the topics in the journal probably reflect the interests of its authors. Certainly, editors of journals have no or little control over authors' research interests and, therefore, no control over material that is submitted. Personal interests alone, however, does not relieve one's professional

responsibility to provide the field with an appropriate body of literature. This, then, raises a question that begs consideration: Who is responsible for monitoring and adjusting the sport management body of literature? The stakeholders in sport management perhaps include academics, students, journal editors/owners, book authors, and industry practitioners. We submit that the primary responsibility falls on the shoulders of academics because they are responsible for sport management education: providing the appropriate education for individuals to work in the sport business industry.

Journal editors are also academics. However, they have the added responsibility as gatekeepers of some of the literature. Discourse in the academic setting is most often shaped by publishing and “involvement with the gatekeeping institutions in publishing” (Aitchison, 2001, p. 2). Power and control reside with the gatekeepers whom Aitchison (2001) and Spender (1981) identified as journal editors and reviewers and publishing advisors. These people “set the parameters in which individuals are encouraged to work if they wish to be at the center of issues in their discipline” (Spender, 1981, p. 186). Although editors have no control over researchers’ interests, editors can influence research in specific areas that could impact the coverage of topics in the journal. For example, this can be done with special theme issues: journal editors could specify specific themes that cover the missing or low percentage topics and invite guest editors to manage those issues. This would be far more productive and progressive than relying on the traditional method of waiting for submitted ideas for theme issues.

There is concern that needs examination in relation to gender. Even with better numbers than the previous studies on other journals, the material in *JSM* does not appropriately reflect the industry in relation to women in sport. There could be much improvement in this area. *JSM* editors, as well as the owners of the journal, NASSM, would be wise to investigate this and other gender related issues. As noted by Aichison (2001), “academic associations that have direct links with academic journals have a duty to

ensure that their journals are accountable to their members” (p. 17).

The findings of this study lend empirical evidence to the accusations and concerns of leaders in sport management in relation to the disparity of coverage and representation of sport management content areas, sport industry segments, and women’s sports. Therefore, it appears that there is room for improvement of the depth and breadth of our research literature. Scholars such as Parks, Paton, Pitts, Olafson, Chelladurai, and Slack have questioned and challenged the frequent lack of scope in the research in the field of sport management. There is more often than not an impression given from the literature in our field that the study of sport management is mainly just the study of managing college athletics and some professional sports. Paton (1987) challenged sport management researchers to broaden their scope after he reported that the sport management literature had a heavy focus on careers in higher education and college athletics. Slack (1996) added that the *JSM* devoted 65% of its articles to the subjects of physical education and intercollegiate athletics. A cursory evaluation by Pitts (2001) of sport management journals, conference proceedings, and sport management textbooks only to further report that little had changed with this heavy focus on college athletics. Pitts (2001) challenged sport management researchers, publishers, and editors to not ignore college athletics and professional sports, but to take on the responsibility of expanding the scope of their publications to include more aspects of the vast under-explored aspects of the sport management field. As Soucie and Doherty (1996) stated, while multiple studies on some key topics are warranted and cause scholars to often feel a strong pull toward pursuing similar investigations, “the scope of research options in sport management is almost limitless” (p. 498).

It appears that the body of knowledge in sport management research is in need of researchers with a vision and scholarship that can enhance the literature and fill the gaps. This will ensure that the field’s literature reflects what scholars in the field claim to be the sport business industry.

The literature influences the definitions of a field. Most importantly, the researchers must identify where improvements are needed and strive to make progress.

Sport Management was an outgrowth of the field of Physical Education. Many early sport management programs were so connected with physical education and athletics that they were named, appropriately, athletic administration. But the field of sport management, today, is one that is much larger than athletic administration. In fact, this component of sport management is a relatively small part of the \$195 billion (Broughton, 2002) sport industry. With this in mind, why does it appear that athletic administration is still the main emphasis in the programs of higher learning and academic literature of sport management? In order for academia to catch up with reality, there is a need for this young academic field of sport management to move beyond the boundaries of athletics administration. As Soucie and Doherty (1996) noted, "sport management researchers have only begun to scratch the surface and many more pertinent topics and relationships that bear on the efficient and effective management of sport need to be investigated" (p. 498). Furthermore, Barber et al. (2001) also stated, "it does appear that a number of topics are ripe for exploration" (p. 230).

NEED FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

There is a need for this study to be replicated in a number of years and compared to the results of this study to look for changes in future issues of the journal. Additionally, There is a need for further critical self-examination of the other journals in this relatively young and developing nature of this area of academic study. The field of sport management has only produced academic journals over the past two decades while other disciplines of study have journals dating back to the early part of twentieth century. Currently, there are over a dozen outlets for theoretical literature within the field of sport management, most of which began in the 1990's. With this in mind, in order to determine the advancement of the discipline, there is a need for the field of sport management to take an inward look at these

scholarly publications. In addition to determining if the current state of literature is reflecting what sport management scholars believe to be the sport business industry, this critical self-examination is needed in order to identify what advances have been made and where improvements need to be made.

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Table 1

Sport Management and Related Journals and Dates of Inception

Cyber Journal of Sports Marketing — started January, 1997 (ended July, 2000)
European Sport Management Quarterly (European Journal of Sport Management) — 1994
ICHPER-SD Journal of Research — 2005
International Journal of Sport Management — 2000
International Journal of Sport Management and Marketing — 2005
International Journal of Sports Marketing and Sponsorship — 2000
International Sports Journal — 1997
Japan Journal of the Sports Industry — 1998
Journal of Contemporary Athletics — 2005
Journal of Legal Aspects of Sport and Physical Activity — 1990
Journal of Quantitative Analysis in Sport — 2005
Journal of Sports Economics — 2000
Journal of Sport Management — 1987
Journal of Sport Tourism — 1993
Korean Journal of Sport Management — 1995
Marquette Sports Law Review — 1990
Seton Hall Journal of Sport Law — 1990
Sport Management Review — 1998
Sport Marketing Quarterly — 1992
The SMART Journal — 2004 (previously known as *SMART Online Journal*)
The Sports Lawyers Journal — 1993
Villanova Sports and Entertainment Law Journal — 1994

Table 2

Content Areas Used in the Current Study as Identified in the NASPE-NASSM Sport Management Program Standards (2002) and the Added Categories

Sport Business in the Social Context
 Sport Marketing
 Finance and Sport
 Sport Economics
 Ethics in Sport Management
 Sport Law
 Communication in Sport
 Governance in Sport
 Management and Organizational Skills in Sport
 Field Experiences
 Sport Management Education
 Other

Table 3

Sport Business Industry Segments Used in the Current Study as Identified in Parks, Zanger, & Quarterman (1998) and the Added Categories

Intercollegiate Athletics
 Professional Sport
 Participant Sport
 Campus Recreation
 Sport Communication
 Sport Marketing
 Sport Event and Facility Management
 Sports Medicine
 Health Promotion
 Sport Tourism
 Sport Management and Marketing Agencies
 International Sport
 Sport Management Education
 Other

Table 4

Country of Authors in JSM

Country of Author	<i>f</i>	P
United States	250	58%
Canada	118	27%
United Kingdom	17	3.9%
Australia	15	3.5%
South Korea	11	2.5%
Japan	6	1.4%
South Africa	5	1.2%
China	2	0.5%
France	2	0.5%
Belgium	2	0.5%
Nigeria	1	0.2%
New Zealand	1	0.2%
Greece	1	0.2%
Finland	1	0.2%
Singapore	1	0.2%
India	1	0.2%
Unspecified	1	0.2%

Table 5

Gender of Authors, Editors, and Editorial Reviewers: A comparison to the previous studies

Journal	Gender of Author:		Gender of Editors:		Gender of Reviewers:	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
<i>Journal of Sport Management</i> (current study)	36%	61%	50%	50%	45%	55%
<i>Sport Marketing Quarterly</i> (Pedersen & Pitts)	20%	78%	0	100%	35%	65%
<i>Journal of Sports Economics</i> (Mondello & Pedersen)	4.7%	95.3%	0	100%	3%	97%

Table 6

Results: Sport Management Content Areas

Content Area	<i>f</i>	P
Management & Organizational Skills in Sport	89	38%
Sport Marketing	41	18%
Sport Business in the Social Context	24	10%
Sport Management Education	20	9%
Finance in Sport	13	6%
Governance in Sport	12	5%
Sport Economics	10	4%
Sport Law	10	4%
Ethics in Sport Management	8	3%
Communication in Sport	4	2%
Field Experience	1	<1%
Other	1	<1%

Table 7

Results: Sport Business Industry Segments

Content Area	<i>f</i>	P
Intercollegiate Athletics	92	39.5%
Participant Sports	31	13.3%
Professional Sports	30	12.8%
Other	19	8.2%
Sport Management Education	16	6.9%
Campus Recreation	13	5.6%
Sport Marketing	12	5.2%
International Sport	8	3.4%
Sport Communications	5	2.1%
Sport Event & Facility Management	4	1.7%
Health Promotion	3	1.3%
Sports Medicine	0	0%
Sport Tourism	0	0%
Sport Management & Marketing Agencies	0	0%

Table 8

Results: Gender Focus of Article

Journal	Gender Focus of Article:		
	Female	Male	Both
<i>Journal of Sport Management</i> (current study)	11%	31%	58%
<i>Sport Marketing Quarterly</i> (Pedersen & Pitts)	8%	28%	24%
<i>Journal of Sports Economics</i> (Mondello & Pedersen)	0%	81.2%	14.1%

MAKING IT IN THE MINORS: AN INTEGRATED STRATEGY TO ACHIEVE SUSTAINED FINANCIAL HEALTH

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KEYWORDS: FAN RETENTION, MINOR LEAGUE, ATTENDANCE

ABSTRACT

As competition for the entertainment dollar increases, sport managers must become increasingly aware of the intangibles associated with marketing the sport product as well as factors affecting fan retention and loyalty. While most major league teams can rely on revenue sharing and large television contracts to boost the bottom line, minor league teams must rely on season ticket sales, gate receipts, and sponsorship dollars. Thus, the purpose of this paper was to develop an integrated strategy for minor league franchises through identification and recognition of factors affecting sport consumer satisfaction and loyalty.

INTRODUCTION

As competition for the entertainment dollar increases, sport managers must become increasingly aware of the intangibles associated with marketing the sport product as well as factors affecting fan retention and loyalty. While most major league teams can rely on revenue sharing and large television contracts to boost the bottom line, minor league teams must rely on season ticket sales, gate receipts, and sponsorship dollars. Although minor league sports constitute a significant and growing segment of the sport industry, little research exists in this area. Thus, the purpose of this paper was to develop an integrated strategy for minor league franchises through identification and recognition of factors affecting sport consumer satisfaction and loyalty.

A review of attendance figures spanning the last ten years at the minor league level indicate that

the large majority of franchises struggle each year to retain fans. Several teams experience attendance drops by as many as 1,000 fans while other teams see reductions as few as 25. In contrast to their major league counterparts, these figures pose dramatic threats to the sustained success of a minor league franchise. Ticket sales are the lifeblood of the minor league sport organization, and with an average ticket price of \$7 fan retention is of primary concern. As such, these franchises must develop an integrated marketing strategy that will not only attract fans to the venue but also provide a high quality fan experience, since it is often the quality of the experience that will determine if the fan becomes a repeat consumer.

As competition for the entertainment dollar increases, sport managers must become increasingly aware of the intangibles associated with marketing the sport product as well as factors affecting fan retention and loyalty.

Achieving sustained financial success at the minor league level poses unique and distinct challenges. To formulate the most effective strategies, sport managers must possess an awareness and understanding of the interrelationships of factors affecting fan loyalty at the minor league level. An assessment of purchase motivators as well as factors that may affect consumers' desire and

ability to purchase the sport product should be paramount (Berry, Parasuraman, & Zeithaml, 1994). Oftentimes, it is consumers' expectations that determine their perception of the sport fan experience, which in turn determines their level of satisfaction. Since the intangibles associated with sport make it challenging for sport managers to identify consumer expectations, it is imperative that marketing strategies include a significant emphasis on customer satisfaction and fan identification with the sport entity (Arnett & Laverie, 2000; Chelladurai & Chang, 2000; Gladden & Funk, 2000; Gladden, Milne, & Sutton, 1998; Kelley & Turley, 2001; Pritchard, Havitz, & Howard, 1999; Wann & Branscombe, 1993; Van Leeuwen, Quick, & Daniel, 2002; Zhang, Lam, & Connaughton, 2003). Since satisfaction level and identification are major reinforcement tools for repeat purchasing, such a significant emphasis is warranted.

THE IMPORTANCE OF FAN LOYALTY

To understand the benefits of an integrated approach to fan retention, one must first understand the importance of fan loyalty. Loyalty refers to an entity's ability to attract and retain customers and is grounded in consumer commitment to the sport product (Berry, 1999; Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000). Most importantly, loyalty and commitment focus on the frequency, duration and intensity of an individual's involvement with sport and that individual's ability and desire to spend money, time, and energy on that involvement (Berry, 1999; Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000). Nowhere is fan loyalty and commitment more important than at the minor league level where resources are often limited and lucrative broadcast opportunities are minimal.

Stimulating strong consumer loyalty is beneficial for sport entities because loyal customer bases provide protection against aggressive competitors and insure a consistent and predictable level of sales (Gladden & Funk, 2001; Madrigal, 1995; Shocker, Srivastava, & Ruekert, 1994). Loyal consumers typically spend more, refer new customers, and cost less to do business with than the average consumer (Boone, Kochunny, &

Wilkins, 1995; Kuo, Chang, & Cheng, 2004). A loyal fan base at the minor league level may also prove advantageous to management when soliciting, negotiating, and retaining local and regional corporate partners. Even when small in number, loyal fan bases can increase product sales and boost revenue for the corporate partner. Building strong and consistent corporate relationships provide additional revenue sources.

AN INTEGRATED APPROACH

To achieve long-term success, minor league sport managers must focus on developing integrated marketing strategies that recognize the multi-faceted and unique nature of the sport product. Multiple factors have been suggested to affect fan loyalty including motives for attendance, the quality of the entertainment experience, fan satisfaction, and fan identification (Berry, 1999; Bristow & Sebastian, 2001; Gladden & Funk, 2001; Greenwell, Fink, & Pastore, 2002; Irwin, Sutton, & McCarthy, 2002; Kelley & Turley, 1999; Arnett & Laverie, 2000; Madrigal, 1995; Tomlinson, Buttle, & Moores, 1995; Trail, Fink, & Anderson, 2003; & Zhang, Lam, & Connaughton, 2002). These factors are examined here and used in formulation of seven-step integrated fan retention strategy specifically for minor league sport organizations. The seven steps suggest that minor league sport managers formulate core values, educate employees on service quality and organizational policies, communicate and encourage fan feedback, entertain and enhance service quality through the fan experience, reward loyalty, research consumption habits and patterns, and foster relationships with out-groups. The seven steps are designed to add value to the sport fan while ultimately leading to franchise stability and sustained financial health.

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DEVELOP A SET OF CORE VALUES

Researchers have consistently examined management's core values as key to success in business and industry, yet an exploration of the relationship between management's core values and the sustained success of sport organizations is virtually non-existent. It is suggested in this strategy that the core values of management and the infusion of those values among the organization's employees plays a central role in cultivating fan satisfaction, identification, and loyalty.

The core values of top level management often make the greatest impact on the culture and climate of the sport organization. The beliefs and philosophies of management set the tone for employee and customer relations and dictate the quality and meaning of those relationships. Further, trusting relationships between managers and employees have been linked to increased sales performance (Sallee and Flaherty, 2004). In service delivery organizations like the minor league sport franchise, these relationships will determine the sustained success of the organization (Berry, 1999). As such, management must value high level customer service as well as providing a quality experience for the fan (Kennet, Sneath, & Henson, 2001; Passikoff, 2000; Schiffman, 2003; Tomlinson, Buttle, & Moores, 1995). Although management cannot control on-field performance, it can dictate employee interaction with fans as well as the quality of the fan experience (Kelly & Turley, 2000). Failure to recognize the importance of values as influential on fan loyalty puts the sport organization at a disadvantage, especially at the minor league level where interaction with the fans is commonplace. Mike Veeck and his staff of the St. Paul Saints are guided by "fun is good" as a key core value. This value guides the staff when formulating short and long-term marketing strategies. Adhering to this core value has aided the franchise in maintaining profitability since its inception while selling out all home games (Berry, 1999).

EDUCATE EMPLOYEES REGARDING SERVICE QUALITY AND ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES

Sport managers should place great emphasis regarding educating employees on the policies and procedures of the organization. In small sport organizations like the minor league franchise, all employees will at some point encounter the casual fan who attends one or two games a season as well as the loyal season ticket holder. These interactions can greatly impact the fan's experience and perception of the organization. Employees should be well-versed and trained in providing quality customer service to the fan. Quality customer service has proven highly influential in cultivating consumer satisfaction and loyalty (Berry, 1999; Ruyter, Bloemer, & Peeters, 1997; Tomlinson, Buttle, & Moores, 1995; Westerbeek & Shilbury, 2003).

It is beneficial for the sport organization to align its employee relation strategies with those strategies designed to attract and retain fans (Iverson, McLeod, & Erwin, 1996). An alignment of these strategies has proven advantageous for many service delivery organizations. A level of employee interaction that creates internal relationships and adds value to external relations with current and potential fans will provide a competitive advantage to the sport organization. Front office staff with the St. Paul Saints consistently expresses a love and passion for their jobs. The staff was allowed great freedom in developing strategies to sell tickets and enhance the entertainment value and experience for the fans. This freedom cultivated a sense of ownership among the staff and has created a fan-oriented team (Berry, 1999).

Management's focus on employee relations is warranted given that employee commitment and trust are predictors of organizational performance (Iverson, McLeod, & Erwin, 1996). Since fewer than 24% of employees plan to stay with an organization for more than two years, designing appropriate employee benefits and rewards systems to attract and retain employees are essential to creating a values-driven organization (Berry, 1999). It is imperative for sport managers to recognize the impact of employee retention on the productivity and sustained success of the organization not only in cultivating employee

relations but also during the hiring process. Hiring individuals who possess similar values to that of the organization and fit well within the current organizational culture will likely prove most profitable and rewarding.

COMMUNICATE AND ENCOURAGE FAN FEEDBACK

It is essential for minor league sport managers to communicate early and often with the casual fan and the more loyal season ticket holder. The casual fan who attends a few games each season and the season ticket holder will likely have different motives for attending the event and thus provide management with different feedback. Although the casual fan may not be as loyal as the season ticket holder, they are just as important. Casual fans represent individuals who are currently consuming the minor league sport product and as such represent an effective target market. Current consumers represent the most cost effective way to increase sales, and it has been suggested that fans who attend several games per season tend to be more satisfied and identified with the sport product and are typically easier to reach than fans who attend infrequently (Arnett & Laverie, 2000; Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000). With feedback from the casual fans, management can increase their frequency and duration of consumption and in turn increase revenues. It is important to understand the attendance motivations and perceptions of the casual fan in order to formulate the appropriate strategies to not only retain them but to increase the frequency with which they consume the minor league sport product.

While the casual fan represents the most cost effective way to increase revenues, the season ticket holder's value is in their commitment to the minor league sport product. The manner in which the season ticket packages are serviced is integral in the renewal process and in cultivating loyalty. To encourage satisfaction among season ticket holders, packages should be value driven and provide unique benefits. Ticket sales staff should clearly communicate the benefits of the season ticket package to facilitate maximum value and to avoid any confusion regarding policies. Staff

should also develop relationships with season ticket holders in order to adequately address their needs. Channels of communication should be open early in the season and continue well into the renewal period.

Management should actively seek feedback from fans in all aspects of the event experience. Fan Service Booths should be available on site during the event, and fans should be encouraged to submit comments regarding their experience. In order to encourage fan feedback, sport managers should consider centralizing the fan service booth and place it in an area of high visibility. Fans should be directed to the fan service booth for general and specific questions or comments.

The respective team website should also serve as a primary area for gauging fan feedback. Teams should utilize the features of the website to encourage fan feedback through providing contact information and a message board. Management can often gauge fan opinion by simply reading the fan message board.

Management must be willing to encourage feedback, even when feedback is negative. When handled properly, consumer complaints can greatly benefit the organization. Negative feedback allows sport managers to understand why fans are not relating or are not satisfied with the sport product. This feedback should be used in improving the service quality of the fan experience. Complaints from fans should be viewed as avenues to increase satisfaction and cultivate loyalty (Davis & Halligan, 2002; Halstead, 2002). More than half of the consumers who share negative feedback with the organization will remain loyal. However, if this feedback is not communicated, fewer than 10% will continue to consume the product (Halstead, 2002; Neuborne, 2003). Sport managers should work to satisfy the complaints of fans given that complainers typically consume the product more frequently and if unsatisfied will generate significant negative word of mouth advertising (Halstead, 2002; Neuborne, 2003).

ENTERTAIN AND ENHANCE SERVICE QUALITY THROUGH THE FAN EXPERIENCE

Equally important as attracting fans to the venue is providing a high quality entertainment experience. The entertainment element of the sport product has been linked with satisfaction and repeat attendance (Zhang, Lam & Connaughton, 2003). Given this, minor league sport managers should develop marketing strategies to enhance the quality of the entertainment presentation. Pre and post game activities can add to the fan experience and enhance corporate partnerships as added pieces of inventory. Fan focused activities should be designed to cultivate a sense of identification with the minor league sport franchise since highly identified consumers tend to be more loyal to the sport product (Wann & Branscombe, 1993).

Typically, service quality is categorized in two main areas, technical and functional with technical quality referring to the core service and functional referring to the quality of the service delivery (Gronroos, 1991; Kelley & Turley, 2000). As illustrated by Kelley & Turley (2001), sport managers possess minimal ability to control and influence technical quality of team performance but can have a great impact on functional quality in regards to the event experience. The functional quality of minor league sport involves the fan's perceptions of all facets of the event experience including accessibility to parking, pre and post game activities, arena and on-field promotions, concessions and merchandise, public address announcements and musical selections during the game, interaction with game operations staff, amenities of the venue, and other aspects of the event experience (Kelley & Turley, 2001; Westerbeek & Shilbury, 2003). Most of these aspects fall into Wakefield, Blodgett, & Sloan's (1996) "sportscape" and are suggested to add value to the fan's entertainment experience (Chelladurai & Chang, 2000; Church, Javitch, & Burke, 1995). The intimacy of minor league venues provides a unique opportunity for a heightened event experience. The Frisco RoughRiders implemented an internal strategy designed to add value to the entertainment experience by focusing on superior customer service with a personal touch. The

strategy highlighted the franchise's 100% access program allowing fans to make requests of the franchise via email. Requests have ranged from trips to the press box to providing "special guests" of fans with tours of the park and taking on-field pictures of fans for keepsakes. Staff estimates the 100% access strategy has positively influenced more than 20% of season ticket holders to renew their packages. Staff firmly believes that increasing the value of the ticket with a personal touch is essential in cultivating fan retention and loyalty (Migala, 2005a)

Ushers and event staff play a key role in the entertainment experience through their interactions with fans. Ushers and event staff should be easily identifiable, informative, and courteous. They should be active in maintaining proper crowd control and diligent in preventing fans from roaming to other sections of the venue. Roaming fans may obstruct views and detract from the experience.

In arena and on-field promotions should be designed for optimal enjoyment for fans. Promotions that at times involve the entire audience can generate a high level excitement among the crowd and enhance the experience for all attendees. Prizes and awards for promotions should meet quality standards and have value for the fan. If possible, awards should expose fans to various corporate partner products while also cultivating identification with the minor league sport product. For example, the Birmingham Barons partnered with a local plumbing company and distributed 1,500 plungers to fans. The plungers included the team's logo and the logo and phone number of the plumbing company (Lieberman, 2004). Similarly, the Memphis Redbirds and a home developer gave away a \$150,000 home at the end of its season (Lieberman, 2004). These promotions provided value for the fan while also creating a lasting link between the fan and the respective company's products and services.

REWARD LOYALTY

Minor league sport managers should strive to encourage repeat attendance through developing

reward systems for both the casual fan and the season ticket holder. Attendance of casual fans should be encouraged through utilization of a reward system based on number of games attended. Given that resources at the minor league level are limited, the sophistication of the reward system should be at management's discretion. A simple fan loyalty card may prove useful. Fan loyalty cards may allow fans to earn merchandise discounts or team merchandise and ultimately facilitate the expansion of management's database for marketing and research purposes.

When pitching the minor league sport product, marketers should focus on the benefits to the fan, especially when selling season tickets. Season ticket packages require a significant time commitment from the fan and should be created with appropriate incentives to warrant such a commitment. Season ticket holders are the most loyal and arguably the most highly identified with the respective minor league franchise. As such, they should be rewarded for their loyalty through the benefits provided in the package. Season ticket holders should be granted special access to certain areas of the venue as well as to selected franchise activities and events. Free or reserved parking, discounts on team merchandise, and special commemorative items also add benefit to season ticket packages. Given that season ticket holders represent a significant and constant revenue source for minor league franchises, special strategies should be developed to retain them. Benefits should include special parking, special access to certain areas in the venue, special access to franchise events, merchandise discounts, and other benefits which add value for the season ticket holder.

Management should work with its corporate partners when creating added value to the season ticket package and as an incentive for renewal. As part of their package, season ticket holders may enjoy trials or discounts on corporate partner products. This will create added value to the season ticket package while also driving sales for the corporate partner. While season tickets are included as inventory in most sponsorship

packages, incorporating the corporate partner's product as part of a comprehensive benefit package afford unique opportunities for the corporate partner while adding value for the season ticket holder. The Beloit Snappers open the VIP deck to season ticket holders toward the end of each season. Season ticket holders enjoy free food and drink as well as premium giveaways from corporate partners. Similarly, the Macon Knights invite season ticket holders to pre-game scrimmages via a media release. Knights' corporate partners cater the event and season ticket holders are allowed to pick up their season tickets while socializing with friends and players (Migala, 2005c).

When designing season ticket packages, management should seek to provide benefits that will not only increase the value of the package but will also create a sense of identification with the minor league sport product. This could include a weekly online season ticket holder newsletter which incorporates feature articles on players, staff, and coaches as well as highlights of franchise activities within the community to provide season ticket holders with a feel for the organization. Increasing fans' exposure to the franchise assists in promoting fan identify to the minor league sport product (Arnett & Laverie, 2000). The Wilkes-Barre/Scranton Penguins implemented a phone system with the explicit purpose of programming the database to increase interactivity with their fans. The franchise will call fans and leave them messages from front office personnel and players to notify them of schedule changes, game cancellations or to simply wish them happy birthdays or a happy holiday (Migala 2005d).

Although season ticket packages at the minor league level are priced significantly lower than at the major league level, payment options for season ticket packages should be considered. While most season ticket packages are affordable, many fans may be deterred from purchasing season tickets due to financial constraints. Minor league sport managers may generate greater season ticket sales by allowing season ticket holders to make a series of payments prior to the season. In turn,

incentives should be developed to encourage payment in full at the time of purchase. Some minor league franchises have also implemented multi-year plans for season ticket holders. The Grand Rapids Griffins have renewed 43% of its season ticket base to multi-year season ticket packages. Griffins management views this as an integral reward strategy for its most loyal and valuable customers (Migala, 2005b).

Season ticket holders should also be provided with an opportunity to either exchange or donate individual game tickets when unable to attend various games throughout the season. The inability to attend one or two games per season is not unusual for a season ticket holder but could provide them with an incentive to not renew their season ticket package. Minor league sport managers should recognize this and develop a means to add value to the season ticket package. Examples of adding value include permitting season ticket holders to submit unused tickets prior to game day that can be donated to charitable organizations or to exchange the tickets for additional tickets to another game.

Minor league sport managers should provide multiple opportunities to cultivate social relationships among season ticket holders (Melnick, 1993). The sport venue provides an appropriate setting for casual socialization among fans which enhances the fan experience (Zhang, Lam, & Connaughton, 2003). The opportunity to socialize will create a fun and rewarding environment for season ticket holders and provide them with a sense of fanship and psychic income.

BUILD DATABASES AND CONDUCT RESEARCH

Since ticket sales are the lifeblood of the minor league franchise, databases are paramount to its success. Sport managers are at a distinct advantage when building databases. Oftentimes, fans will contact the organization via telephone or the franchise web-site to obtain information regarding game time or opponent and in doing so are identifying themselves as fans of the franchise. Minor league sport managers should recognize this and facilitate the acquisition of the fan's

contact information. Team personnel should be creative and capitalize on multiple opportunities when building their databases. Examples include cross-promotional activities with corporate partners and the acquisition of contact information from fans who win prizes through game promotions.

Databases must be well maintained, comprehensive, and conducive to conducting research. The minor league sport manager should not overlook the value of fan research. Even the results of a simple fan survey may help the franchise improve the experience for the fan. Minor league sport managers should know the demographic breakdown of the fan base and strive to obtain baseline figures on fan satisfaction and identification with the franchise. Databases should also be used as a research tool to track the consumption habits of fans. Fans attending several games per season may be targeted for mini season ticket packages while season ticket holders may be encouraged to "refer a friend" or increase expenditures of merchandise and souvenir items. This type of research and information will assist the franchise in developing more appropriate marketing strategies and prove advantageous when negotiating corporate partnerships.

FOSTER RELATIONSHIPS WITH OUT-GROUPS

Minor league sport managers should strive to foster positive relationships with members of the media as well as members of their respective communities. The media's perception of the minor league sport organization is often the public's perception since the media create and reinforce images within the local, regional, and national communities (Wenner, 1998). Minor league sport managers should be well-versed in media relations and communicate in a timely manner with the media. Fostering positive relationships with the media will prove beneficial to the minor league sport entity in creating a sense of identification to the franchise (Funk, 2002; Zhang, Lam, & Connaughton, 2003).

Cultivating relationships with members of the business community will prove beneficial when

developing community oriented programs as well as when negotiating corporate partnerships. Franchises should engage in mutually advantageous partnerships with members of the business community (Kolbe & James, 2000; Zhang, Lam, & Connaughton, 2003). This assists in encouraging positive word of mouth and in marketing the franchise to business leaders as well as the public. Strong relationships with the business community will facilitate opportunities for the franchise to be highly visible and to solidify corporate partner activities. In the small markets that host minor league franchises, relationships such as these must not be overlooked or undervalued.

CONCLUSION

Achieving sustained financial success at the minor league level poses unique and distinct challenges to sport managers. To formulate effective strategies, sport managers must possess an awareness and understanding of the interrelationships of factors affecting fan commitment and loyalty at the minor league level. The purpose of this paper was to develop an integrated strategy for minor league franchises through identification and recognition of factors affecting sport consumer satisfaction and loyalty.

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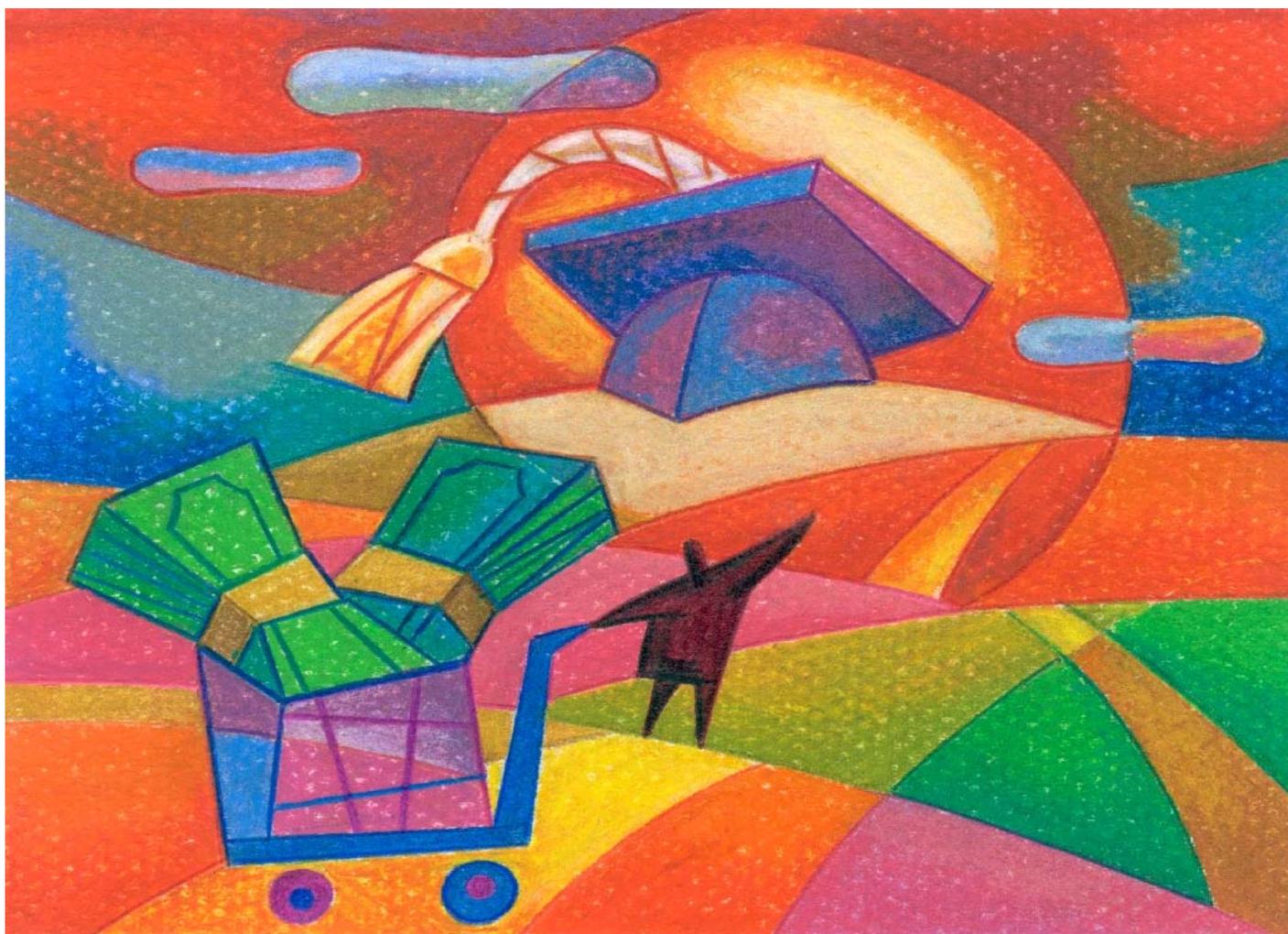
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I AM CHARLOTTE SIMMONS (BOOK REVIEW)**BY TOM WOLFE. PUBLISHED IN 2004 BY FARRAR, STRAUSS AND GIROUX, NEW YORK (676 PP., \$28.95 COVER PRICE)****REVIEWED BY B. DAVID RIDPATH, EDD, MISSISSIPPI STATE UNIVERSITY**

I am Charlotte Simmons is a novel written by world-renowned novelist Tom Wolfe. Wolfe is also the author of many works, including *The Bonfire of the Vanities* (1990) and *The Right Stuff* (1979). *I am Charlotte Simmons* is Wolfe's first venture into the world of higher education as he examines social class systems, political conflicts, sexual morality, academics, and most notably the current culture of big-time NCAA Division I college athletics. Even though this book is directed at popular culture and not academicians, it is still a must read as it offers a thorough, liberal, and behind-the-scenes view of what really goes on at college campuses across the country, especially those with an institutionalized popular jock culture.

While a novel, this book can be viewed almost as historical fiction. The story presents graphic descriptions of several problems with intercollegiate athletics and higher education today. The main setting of the book is the fictional DuPont University in Pennsylvania. While DuPont is one of the finest academic institutions in America, it also has a very large and noted athletic department, highlighted by one of the best NCAA men's Division I basketball teams, led by a larger-than-life coach. Predictably, there are sordid stories of academic corruption, athletes being forced into classes they do not like, situational morality when athletes and athletics is

involved in questionable moral and ethical dilemmas, and the clear implication that athletics *IS* the most important thing at DuPont, despite an outwardly stellar academic reputation.

I am Charlotte Simmons is essentially a novel that could be based on the real world prose of Murray Sperber's *Beer and Circus* (Sperber, 2000). In some ways, Wolfe's book can be viewed as a *Beer and Circus* historical fiction. Wolfe does not hold back as he eloquently, and many times disturbingly, describes how the jock culture on a campus actually works. Wolfe did not dream up the interesting scenarios he so eloquently describes. He spent more than a year on college campuses like The University of North Carolina, Michigan, and Stanford researching this project. He spent time talking to students, attending classes, athletic contests, and even fraternity and sorority parties. His outlook may not be how it is at every institution of higher learning in America, but it is not far off.

I am Charlotte Simmons is really several stories masterfully woven into one. There is the story of Charlotte, a small-town, overly naïve girl from Sparta, North Carolina leaving home for the first time and getting exposed to the "wild" liberal life of an Ivy League like campus. Then there is Hoyt Thorpe, a member of the prominent fraternity who primarily has young co-eds on his mind and not

studying. This is not the case with basketball star JoJo Johanssen, who actually wants to get an education yet is forced into a watered down “jock curriculum” just to maintain his eligibility to play basketball for one of the marquee programs in intercollegiate athletics.

I was particularly struck with how accurate Wolfe described how elite athletes are treated as celebrities on campus, how high profile coaches have carte blanche at DuPont, and how coaches often flaunt that power in the face of a substantially lower paid president of the university, who in turn will pressure faculty and staff to loosen standards and ethics when it comes to the athletic program. Wolfe uses several vignettes within the book around the main characters to accurately tell what is really going on in the world of commercialized college sport. While there is very little discussion as to why this culture exists at DuPont, it is tacitly understood that a successful college athletics program generates revenue and prestige for a university, and DuPont values that even if it is a myth.

Behind the scenes at DuPont University, Wolfe describes a litany of real-world college athletic problems such as out-of-season basketball practices arranged and monitored by the coaching staff, even though such practices are clear violations of NCAA rules, the pressure on athletic academic advisors to keep star athletes eligible. This includes many faculty and staff being forced to participate in academic fraud which in turn gives athletes and coaches a strong feeling of entitlement that encourages exploitation and demeaning treatment of women, and of course the win-at-all costs mentality that exists today in many institutions of higher learning. One particular vignette describes how a tenured professor, who somewhat understandably has a chip on his shoulder about athletics and athletes, discovers potential plagiarism on a paper written by one of the star basketball players-JoJo Johanssen. Johanssen denies academic misconduct even though the paper is obviously not his own work. Wolfe details how the athletic and university spin machine went into overdrive to protect this star athlete who obviously engaged in

academic fraud. Johanssen himself violates all ethical principles by lying about how the paper was written. In the end, the vaunted head men’s basketball coach pressured the university president to make the problem go away as something unproven, much to the chagrin of the faculty member who brought the charges. This is a scenario that takes place daily at athletic factories masquerading as institutions of higher learning and Wolfe tells it like it is. So goes the daily ethical dilemma in big time college sport.

While this book may seem over-the-top about general student life, it does a better than adequate job of describing what truly goes on in athletic departments and on campuses around the country every day as detailed in major media publications, and demonstrated in recent NCAA scandal. Wolfe should be commended for taking an unbiased look at the culture of higher education, and descriptive review of the win-at-all costs culture of NCAA Division I athletics and putting it all together in a very entertaining story. This book illustrates how far academia has to go in changing the professional model of intercollegiate athletics, if it truly can ever be changed at all.

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