



Sport Entertainment and  
Venues Tomorrow

November 16-18, 2011  
Columbia, SC

Department of Sport &  
Entertainment Management

College of Hospitality, Retail &  
Sport Management

## **Conference Abstracts**

Published by  
University of South Carolina  
Department of Sport &  
Entertainment Management

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# Developing Shared and Peer Leadership Practices in Facility and Event Management

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Dr. Shannon Kerwin, University of Florida

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Crowd management is a practice by which facility and event supervisors implement an organization, facility, or event's policies and procedures to ensure a safe and enjoyable environment for all participants (Ammon, Southall, & Nagel, 2010). These policies and procedures are of utmost importance as they oftentimes convey the organization, facility, or event's mission and goals, as well as provide the means by which to achieve strategic objectives (Bodey, 2009). As such, it may be reasonable to assume that the mission and values of an organization, facility, or event can be witnessed in an agent's policies and procedures.

Equally important is the administration under whom these policies and procedures will be managed and the employees for whom these practices have been put in place. Specifically, it is the individual employees who will express these values to the public, which can have a substantial influence on the image and reputation of the organization, facility, or event. Consequently, it is critical that employees working most closely with the clientele and participants also hold, or at least buy into, the values of the organization, facility, or event. One method by which this can be achieved is through shared leadership.

Shared leadership is "an emergent team property that results from the distribution of leadership influence across multiple team members" (Carson, Tesluck, & Marrone, 2007, p. 1218). The result of which can be a leadership network, in which, individual and team interactions cyclically influence one another with regards to responsibilities and direction (Carson et al., 2007). By providing each employee or team member some semblance of authority and influence, the potential for peer leadership is created. Peer leadership emerges from the interactions and shared leadership roles, both formal and informal, of team members striving towards a collective aim (Price & Weiss, 2010). Taken together, the concepts of peer and shared leadership seem to suggest the necessary involvement of all employees when developing and maintaining the values of an organization, facility, or event. Furthermore, Hamm, MacLean, Kikulis, and Thibault (2008) suggested that shared values amongst employees lead to higher productivity and commitment; two factors critical to success in facility and event management.

Contemporary Services Corporation (CSC) is a leader in crowd management, providing peer group management and security services in a variety of venues and events, including but not limited to over 100 professional stadiums and arenas, convention centers, festivals, and university and college campuses (CSC, 2011). CSC and other similar organizations primarily operate as an outsourced service; in that the workforce comes from surrounding areas. Given the complex and evolving nature of facility and event management, the individuals who form the workforce of these organizations may experience increased turnover. As such, it could become problematic for management of a facility or event to obtain commitment from outsourced employees to adhere to and project the values of the organization, facility or event.

When organizations outsource security and crowd management services such as CSC, it is imperative that management instill upon the incoming temporary employees their mission, values, policies, and procedures. This is not an easy task as employees might be diversified in their backgrounds, experiences, personal objectives, and values. The current study proposes a method of standardizing management responsibility by way of shared and peer leadership practices that can be employed by facility and event managers to achieve a collective understanding of the organizational, facility, or event's mission and values. Specifically, the purpose of this study is to examine a team of individuals who possess similar characteristics (i.e., fluent team members entering and leaving, long hard work hours, etc.) to organizations like CSC to uncover the mechanisms by which effective leadership can foster core group values.

An elite Division I women's soccer team at a large public institution that is currently in the second year of a leadership development program is the sample population for this study. The focus of this study is to determine the extent to which this leadership program is effectively grooming leadership skills and abilities, and developing shared understanding of group values among participants. Semi-structured interviews will be conducted with the team's selected leaders ( $n = 6$ ), the team's players ( $n = 24$ ) and its coaching staff ( $n = 5$ ). The interviews will take place at two time points; once prior to the soccer season and once at the conclusion of the season. Furthermore, team leaders, players, and coaching staff ( $N = 35$ ) will complete collectively-developed evaluation forms four times throughout the season: at the beginning of the season, at the end of the season, and twice during the season. Team leaders will self-evaluate their own development, while players and coaches will evaluate the team leaders' skills and abilities. Each evaluation form will measure shared and peer leader abilities with regards to developed core values, core leader competencies, and core leader attitudes.

This study aims to examine a team of individuals to uncover the mechanisms by which effective shared and peer leadership can foster core group values. As such, our expectations are two-fold. First, we will determine the effectiveness of an established leadership development program in a context where turnover of participants is inevitable. As noted by Carson et al. (2007), shared leadership may be essential to developing consistency in unstable environments; a necessity for success within organizations such as CSC. Second, supported by previous research on leadership and management by values and results uncovered here, we will demonstrate the utility of this program's policies and procedures and propose a model that focuses on implementation of these strategies across facility and event management contexts (e.g., CSC). It is expected that a proficient model will help managers expand their shared and peer leadership skills to successfully develop, implement, and communicate the organization, facility, and/or event's missions and values in groups with a diverse and fluent workforce.

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## **Make or Buy your Players – A National Study**

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Make vs Buy has long been a traditional business concept used in operations research. High labor costs present a significant investment risk found in Professional sports teams. Thus a closer examination of the athletic human resource talent identification process has now been placed at a premium. The purpose of this study was to investigate the decision making process involved in Make vs Buy as it applies a professional sports league (MLB). Baseball is the last free economy that does not have a salary cap. Baseball also has the most expansive labor identification system with multiple minor leagues (e.g. Triple A, Double A etc.) Subsequent talent salary expenditures have a direct bearing on profitability and success in differing sized markets. Results indicate a very linear relationship between expenditure and success (team record). Investment into large scale developmental costs may not be deemed appropriate. Alternative and more efficient remedies for large athletic developmental expenditures are provided. Recommendations for further research are provided.

# The Impact of Video Realistic Job Previews on Applicants' Perceptions of Sport Jobs

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Dr. Marshall Magnusen, Baylor University  
Dr. Damon P. S. Andrew, Troy University

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Organizations use numerous recruitment tactics in order to attract the best individuals for vacant job positions. These tactics take many forms, including print ads, website portals, job fairs, and visits to college campuses. Because of the cost involved with recruitment, organizations have an incentive to ensure they attract and hire the best available candidates who have realistic expectations about the work. But sometimes, recruits have unmet expectations of the actual work and thus, are less attracted to the company and are less likely to accept a job offer (Barber & Roehling, 1993; Maurer, Howe, & Lee, 1992). Also, if these individuals are actually hired, these unmet expectations can lead to employee dissatisfaction, turnover intentions, and a loss of financial resources for the respective organization (Hom, Griffeth, Palich, & Bracker, 1998; Wanous, 1973). One way to minimize these unfavorable outcomes is through the use of a Realistic Job Preview (RJP); this is the presentation of both favorable and unfavorable job-related information to job applicants (Rynes, 1991). RJPs are designed to prevent newcomer dissatisfaction and function similarly to a vaccination in that they give job candidates a small dose of "organizational reality" (Popovich & Wanous, 1982).

RJPs have taken the forms of videos (Meglino, 1993; Reilly & Brown, 1981), written descriptions (Thorsteinson, 2004), site visits (Reilly & Brown, 1981), verbal presentations (Dugoni, 1981), and simulations (Lent, 2007) and are delivered at various times in the recruitment process. In general, scholars have noted that RJPs are related to lower attrition from the recruitment process, better initial expectations of new employees, improved job performance and satisfaction, and lower turnover intentions (Dilla, 1987; Hom et al., 1998; Phillips, 1998).

Because job seekers in sport often use somewhat distinct heuristics when considering satisfactory job openings (Andrew et al., 2006; Todd & Andrew, 2006; Todd & Andrew, 2008; Todd & Kent, 2009), in this current study, we were particularly interested in how a RJP influenced a sample of job applicants in Sport Management. More precisely, we sought to understand whether or not applicants' attraction levels to jobs, acceptance intentions, and perceived person-job fit would be impacted by a video presentation of a RJP.

With this underlying purpose in mind, the study was set up in the following manner. First, two students fulfilling internships for course credit each separately developed a 25 minute video of a Game Day Operations job in college athletics. Students were asked to develop a video that would essentially be a realistic preview of the actual work he/she was doing. The video shows the intern completing typical, day-to-day set up and break down of athletic events. Two videos were used to control for the effects of a single producer and the videos were not completed as part of the same academic term (i.e., the students were not working in that job at the same time and did not know each other).

Next, three graduate research assistants independently coded the videos and produced a written job description. These three job descriptions were combined to properly align the material in the video with the job description. We then developed a survey instrument consisting of two Job Acceptance Items (Harris & Fink, 1987) scored on a 5 point Likert-type scale ranging from “Definitely Not” to “Definitely”, four Person Job Fit items (Saks & Ashforth, 1997) scored on a 4 point Likert-type scale ranging from “Not at all” to “Very Much”, and three Applicant Attraction items adapted from Rau and Hyland (2002) and scored on a 5 point Likert-type scale ranging from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree.”

The study procedures were as follows. To start, each group of students was given a packet that contained the written job description. They were asked to read it carefully, and then complete the survey items representing the three dependent variables. The survey administrator then played the RJP [video] for the class for at least 25 minutes and the dependent variables were collected again using a survey instrument. Overall, there were three separate groups in this study from a total of two Universities. Group 1 was at University A and watched Video A. Groups 2 and 3 were from University B and watched Video B. The dependent variables were collected on the same day for Group 1 and Group 2, but there was a delay of four days for Group 3.

A significant change occurred in all three dependent variables after the video was presented to the participants. In particular, the means for all three dependent variables decreased from time 1 to time 2. Acceptance Intentions time 1 mean dropped from 3.65 to 2.84 ( $t = 7.53$ ), PJ Fit time 1 mean dropped from 2.8 to 1.69 ( $t = 6.9$ ) and time 1 Applicant Attraction dropped from 3.16 to 2.16 ( $t = 9.19$ ). However, not every participant was negatively impacted by the video. Indeed, for some, the video made them more attracted to the job and/or they perceived the job to be a better fit. Generally, those students who were less knowledgeable about Sport Management (i.e., in lower level classes) reported the greatest changes in Acceptance Intentions, PJ Fit, and Applicant Attraction after the watching the video compared to students who were more advanced in their Sport Management curriculum.

Implications of the study will be directed at practitioners in the sport industry who screen applicants for jobs (e.g., human resources personnel). It is possible that a video RJP would pre-screen the applicant pool and assist with what is an already arduous process. Implications will also be directed at theory to explain why certain students viewed the video positively and others perceived it negatively (as far as it pertained to their career interests). Future research ideas concerning RJP and sport organizations will be presented as well.

## Economic Benefits Derived from the College Football Game Experience

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In addition to economic impacts of sport teams and facilities, Alexander et al. (2000) indicate sports teams produce other economic contributions in the form of consumption benefits. Two types of consumption benefits, public and private, can be derived by individuals. Zimmerman (1997, p. 121) suggests residents derive public consumption benefits from the satisfaction “from living in a ‘big league’ town, from having another topic of conversation that is common to most citizens, from reading about its [the team] successes and failures in the newspaper.” Public consumption benefits can be derived by all individuals in the locality whether they attend sport competitions or not. On the other hand, private consumption benefits are only derived by individuals who attend sporting events (Alexander et al., 2000). Private consumption benefits arise when the cost an individual is willing to pay to attend a sporting event is greater than the actual cost incurred by the individual. The amount of money the individual is willing to pay above actual expenditures is a benefit or welfare gain to the individual (i.e., consumer surplus or net willingness to pay).

Barget and Gougnet (2007) propose the total economic value of a sports team or sporting event includes an estimate of both use (i.e., private consumption benefits) and non-use values (i.e., public consumption benefits). Since previous research suggests sport teams and facilities fail to provide a significant economic impact on local regions, academic researchers purport the economic valuation of sport teams and facilities should shift away from economic impact assessment and shift towards a cost benefit framework (Barget & Gougnet, 2007; Mules & Dwyer, 2005; Siegfried & Zimbalist, 2002). In a cost benefit framework, the monetary value of both private (i.e., use) and public (i.e., non-use) consumption benefits of sporting events are necessary components (Barget & Gougnet, 2007; Alexander et al., 2000). A few published studies have estimated the value of these consumption benefits, but focused mainly on the public consumption benefits of professional sport teams. Far less attention has been given to the measurement of private consumption benefits which constitute a substantial portion of consumption benefits (Alexander et al., 2000; Irani, 1997).

To the authors’ knowledge, no research has been conducted to estimate the private consumption benefits derived by individuals attending college sporting events. Estimating the private consumption benefits generated by sports teams and facilities is a vital piece of information required in the evaluation process of competing programs (Irani, 1997). Barget and Gougnet (2007) imply an estimate of private consumption benefits is a necessary component in determining the total economic value of a sporting event. Similarly, Mules and Dwyer (2005) suggest researchers conducting a cost benefit analysis of a sports project should include an estimate of consumer surplus derived by local residents attending the sporting event (i.e., private consumption benefits).

Data collection for the study was conducted at five home football games at a southeastern university. An on-site sampling strategy was employed using a systematic sampling procedure with a random start. The procedure consisted of a research team member systematically collecting email addresses from individuals in parking areas throughout the university campus,

as well as outside the stadium. Each email address was sent a link to an online questionnaire the Monday following the game with two subsequent follow-up emails. The study's response rate was 56.9% with a sample size of n=769. A dichotomous choice contingent valuation question was utilized to discover the amount visitors were willing to pay per trip in excess of their actual trip costs. The truncated mean willingness to pay technique was utilized to compute the value of private consumption benefits.

Estimated net willingness to pay (i.e., private consumption benefits) over trip expenditures is \$168.80 per game. Confidence intervals for the willingness to pay estimate were calculated using the delta method. The 95% confidence intervals for private consumption benefit estimates were \$151.83 for the lower bound and \$185.78 for the upper bound.

Estimating the private consumption benefits derived by individuals participating in the college football game experience provides several implications. First, an estimate of private consumption benefits can be used to justify the utilization of public subsidies. Second, estimating the private consumption benefits derived by spectators provides sport team administrators with an estimate of spectators' willingness to pay for the college football game experience. Third, Coughlin and Erekson (1984) suggest private consumption benefits derived from attendance at sporting events is "a key source for athletic contributions" (p. 182). Fourth, this study provides an estimate of the value individuals place on the college football game experience. Fifth, this research introduces the use of the contingent valuation method to estimate the use value (i.e., private consumption benefits) of sport teams and facilities. Finally, this study adds to the limited research on the economic contributions of college athletics. As college athletics continues to expand, new research streams and new techniques will be required to properly evaluate the total economic value of college athletics.

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## Teaching Sport Event Management via Experiential Learning: Chase Charlie Races

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Event management skills such as scheduling, staffing, settlement, budgeting, marketing, risk management, and game day operations are necessary in many facets of the sport industry. While these concepts may be addressed in other sport management courses, an event management course can uniquely combine them with the opportunity to actually practice these skills. According to Silvers (2003), event management is the process by which an event is planned, prepared, and produced. It encompasses the assessment, definition, acquisition, allocated, direction, control and analysis of time, finances, people, products, services and other resources to achieve objectives (Silvers, 2003). An event management course can demonstrate the three phases of event management: conceptualization, development, and execution (Lawrence & Wells, 2009). The purpose of this presentation is to showcase the Chase Charlie Races as a pedagogical model for teaching sport event management to senior-level undergraduate students.

Experiential learning has been identified within the field of sport management as a critical element for sport industry career preparation (Pierce & Petersen, 2011; Southall, Nagel, LeGrande & Han, 2003). Course projects designed through this teaching methodology have been noted in content areas such as sport marketing (Pauline & Pauline, 2008), sales (Irwin, Southall, & Sutton, 2007; McKelvey & Southall, 2008; Pierce & Petersen, 2010; Pierce & Petersen, 2011), and event management (Walker & Lim, 2007). Kolb described the process of experiential learning as “Knowledge created through the transformation of experience” (p. 41). Research has supported the concept of enhanced student learning via students actively engaged in concrete experiences because student-centered learning provides a relevant, real-world experience (Fish, 2008).

The Chase Charlie Races are an annual community event in Muncie, Indiana, promoting fitness and wellness in the face of growing childhood obesity rates. The event includes an elementary school-based training program and three race components: the 5K run, walk, and roll for all ages; a 1-mile run for youth 13 and under called the Mile Mania; and the Kiddie 100, a 100-yard dash for children 8 and under racing the Ball State mascot across the football field. Students enrolled in a senior-level sport event management course are tasked with organizing and implementing the three race components, while freshman and sophomore students in the undergraduate sport management club organize and implement an elementary school-based running program.

Lecture content is delivered via a course packet with notes and selected readings from a variety of sport and event management textbooks and trade publications. Daily lecture topics are selected based upon the student skills needed to execute the project. For example, event planning, marketing, public relations, and sponsorship sales topics are covered at the beginning of the semester, while event operations and logistics are covered closer to the event. Lectures on event settlement occur late in the semester after the races are completed.

In order to ensure that students reflect on their experiences, students answer weekly journal questions such as “Describe the most difficult task you have completed,” bi-weekly group progress questions such as “Describe how your group overcame conflict or disagreement,” and monthly peer evaluations assessing dependability, cooperativeness, contribution to planning, attitude, and overall contribution to the group’s success.

The course instructor is responsible for tasks that are difficult for students to accomplish in one semester or tasks that are required by the university, such as: securing grant funding from internal and external agencies, securing facility space, obtaining approval from university and public officials and completing related paperwork, and depositing revenues and disbursing payments via the university financial system. Students are placed into groups and are responsible for executing tasks in the following functional areas: marketing, public relations, sponsorship sales, operations, web and creative design, and registration.

Students benefit from the project by gaining experience in managing an event, learning to work with others in a high-pressure environment, and obtaining a work experience worthy of inclusion on a resume submission for an internship or entry-level job. Faculty benefits for the utilization of experiential learning in an event management course are numerous, including: attainment of funding from external sources, which is often required by promotion and tenure committees; higher student evaluations as a result of doing a “real-life” project; increased visibility on campus and in the community; and revenue generation to build programmatic resources.

Results from student perception surveys regarding event management skills, post-race surveys completed by participants, and demographics of race participants for the October 2011 race will help demonstrate project outcomes and feedback. This presentation will provide a blueprint for sport management faculty members to implement a major community event through a sport event management course using experiential learning.

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## Tragedy at Fujairah: Risk Management Issues at Open-Water Swimming Events

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On October 23, 2010 the city of Fujairah, east of Dubai, United Arab Emirates (UAE) hosted the eighth and final race of the 2010 FINA (Fédération Internationale de Natation) 10 Kilometer (10K) Marathon Swimming World Cup. Eighty-two swimmers, men and women, entered the water, but Fran Crippen of the United States was the only competitor who did not finish. For some time race officials and fellow swimmers did not even realize that he was missing. When the swimmers, not officials, realized that he was missing they raced back into the water trying to find him. After more than a two hour search, coast guard and police divers found him just before the last buoy on the course about 400 - 500 meters out from the land and in water seven to eight meters deep (Gomes, 2010). Crippen was carried to shore and taken to Fujairah Hospital, where he was later pronounced dead of complications from heat exhaustion (Gomes, 2010).

The death of Fran Crippen was just the culmination of the problems at the race. There was significant confusion as originally the race was supposed to be held at Sharjah, but was moved to Fujairah where organizers had only five days to prepare a course and facilities for international competition. The night before the race, coaches and managers all had questions about course safety including water temperature and shading (Gomes, 2010). The executive director of UAE Swimming said that the water temperature, one of the issues in question, had been tested early in the morning of the race as well as during the race. The morning water temperature was recorded at 29°C (85°F ) and had risen to 30-31°C (86-88°F ) which was then deemed to be acceptable (Lord, 2011).

On the day of the race, safety was an issue. Although there were some safety boats, there was no agreement if there were enough boats, where the boats were supposed to be and what swimmers they were to follow. Several of the swimmers openly questioned the safety of holding the event in such conditions. Christine Jennings was a multi-time All America swimmer, US 5K Champion, and Pan Pacific Games Champion. During the race at Fujairah she too had difficulty with the conditions (Shipley, 2010). She became dizzy, veered off course, and vomited several times in the water. Jennings signaled for help, but no safety boats came to her rescue (Shipley, 2010).

Another serious concern was the apparent lack of trained medical personnel available. However, the FINA Commission noted that the open water rules were “rather general and should be revised to keep up with the evolution of the sport” (Gomes, 2010). For example, under the rules at the time of the Fujairah, there is no mention of the minimum requirements or certifications of safety personnel. There was no risk assessment strategy in place and when Crippen did not finish the race, organizers were unprepared. As one witness said, “There was no response on that. It was really disorganised (sic). It made an impact on everyone there. There was a feeling of hopelessness and a belief that no-one knew what they were supposed to be doing” (Lord, 2011). Yet, Ayman Saad, **Executive Director of UAE Swimming**, contended that the water temperature

was 84 degrees and that all safety measures were in place and that the race protocol was approved by FINA (Gomes, 2010). In a chilling statement, the UAE Swimming Federation Secretary stated that, “We’ve organized so far 14 competitions and championships and never had any deaths” (Lord, 2011). Yet, while FINA rules had set a minimum temperature in which to compete (60.8 °F, 16°C), there was not a maximum temperature listed. So an event could be cancelled if the water is too cold, but there were no guidelines if the water is too hot (Gomes, 2010).

Those associated with the sport such as event organizers are under no duty to protect competitors from the inherent risks associated with their respective sports (Dobbs, 2000). However, the organizers have a duty to use due care not to increase the risks to a participant over and above those inherent in the sport (Dobbs, 2000). As such, it would be incumbent on a sports event manager to develop and maintain a risk management plan. Operationally speaking, risk management becomes ineffective when there is not a clearly articulated view of the risk policy and its relationship to overall strategy and policy (Miller, Wendt, & Young, 2010). As such, it is important to emphasize that present-day risk management is developed and implemented as a broad process for assessing and addressing risks – a process in which operational risk management is but one part. Risk management practices identify and assess the broadest possible range of risks in less structured settings (Miller, Wendt, & Young, 2010). Thus, risk management offers the organizational decision-makers an opportunity to advance a wide-ranging organizational policy for managing risks.

This case study presentation will discuss the national and international safety changes that occurred in the aftermath of Fran Crippen’s death. Information will be discussed as to how risks are often a highly interconnected assortment of items that need to be managed by a sport event manager, not just in response to the individual characteristics of a particular risk. Finally, discussion will address the need of sport event managers to be proactive in assessing and implementing a risk management plan to prevent future incidents such as Crippen’s death.

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## **Stock Pricing Performance of Stadium Naming Rights Sponsors**

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The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effect of a naming rights announcement on the stock price of a sponsoring company. The ability of a sport property to provide value to sponsoring companies is one of the key or central components of a successful sponsorship program. Measurement of the impact upon a sponsoring company will provide quantitative data to support or refute the market reaction to a major naming rights deal. Research methods included the use of sponsoring companies stock prices from the University of Chicago's CRISP (Center for the research into stock prices) to be used in an Event study. Event studies focus upon the cumulative abnormal returns over a 41 day period. This study was delimited to 20 days before a naming rights deal and 20 days post for a total of 41 days. Further, market capitalization was looked at pre and post naming rights deal. (Market cap was calculated by multiplying each company's outstanding shares by the market price of one share for each time period under consideration). Results of the Event study yielded a very distinctive "S" shaped curve for the period of pre and post naming rights deal. The results were not statistically significant; however the trend was almost uniform. Market capitalization results data was mixed but did present enough data to warrant further investigation.

# Professional vs. Collegiate Luxury Suite Owners – Are They All That Different?

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## Purpose of the study

This exploratory study investigated the perceived motivations and purchasing trends of those who sell luxury suites in college institutions, particularly the South Eastern Conference (SEC). The results are then compared to the buying tendencies presumed by sales associates of luxury suites within the professional sports marketplace.

## State of the Industry

Professionals in luxury suite sales have little literary guidance to assist in selling luxury suites. Academic literature has only recently begun to address this discipline (e.g., Lawrence & Moberg, 2009, Lawrence, et. al., 2009, Lawrence & Kahler, 2007).

The luxury suite industry is growing. This growth is not just at the professional ranks as colleges are building more additional luxury suites to their stadiums by either renovating the entire stadium or building a new stadium in order to accommodate additional seating. The University of Michigan football stadium underwent a three-year renovation project that added luxury suites. In 2011, the University of Michigan “had received commitments for all 81 of the suites built during the renovation” (Hordwedel, 2010). Therefore, the continuing growth of the luxury suite industry provides an opportunity for colleges to gain revenue.

Colleges believe “that the only way athletic departments can fund such large budgets, with a “win at all costs” attitude, is to appeal to commercial interests”. They seek out advertising from local television stations or sponsorships from local clothing stores to provide uniforms and attire for their collegiate players”. In this sense, the collegiate and professional suite purchasers are similar because they both seek commercial sponsorships (Johnston, 2003).

The leading professional organization for premium seating sales, the Association of Luxury Suite Directors (ALSD), has recognized a changing landscape in suite sales and renewals. As early as 2004, ALSD executive director Bill Dorsey noted that “[p]remium seats do not sell themselves anymore” (Stone, 2004, p. 1). Understanding the buyers’ perceptions of a luxury suite has become extremely critical to the success of the luxury suite market.

## Method

The survey instrument was divided into four sections addressing: 1) the perceived importance of a variety of motivating factors in the initial suite purchase decision; 2) the perceived importance of strategies related to enticements to purchase a suite; 3) the importance of improvement in certain sales and marketing areas moving into the future; and 4) the effectiveness of selling methods. The 32-item questionnaire was developed based on previously identified areas of perceived motivations for suite purchases/renewals by other populations as well as identified areas of possible improvement in suite operations established by Titlebaum and Lawrence (2010).

All responses were measured using a 5-point Likert type scale (1 = least important/effective, 5 = most important/effective). Surveys were administered to suite sales professionals representing the four professional sport leagues, National Basketball Association (NBA), National Football League (NFL), National Hockey League (NHL), and Major League Baseball (MLB), with a response rate of 38.5% (47 out of the 122 teams).

Next with the same instrument, we add the South Eastern Conference (SEC) to the mix of leagues to see how the collegiate market compares to the professional leagues already surveyed. From the South Eastern Conference (SEC), the survey response rate was 83.3% (10 out of the 12 teams).

## **Results**

The results indicated collegiate and professional suite purchasers are similar based on the perceived perceptions of the luxury suites sales associates. However, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted to explore the differences between the collegiate market and the professional sports arena for any of the 29 variables under investigation. According to the findings, there are three significant differences that warranted further investigation among luxury suite purchasers in the collegiate (SEC) market place when compared to the professional market. Purchasers in the collegiate market are more likely than professional suite buyers to buy a suite for personal use and to support the community. In addition, college purchasers want improved amenities in their suites, which might correlate with the fact that collegiate purchasers buy a luxury suite for personal use.

## **Limitations**

Due to the limited sample size of one collegiate conference, which only includes 12 collegiate teams, the ability to detect numerous differences between the collegiate market and the professional market can be difficult. However, the results showed three other differences approaching significance in the data. The development of personal relationships between teams and suite buyers, team performance, and creating more unique experiences in which to conduct business-to-business deals are the three differences which should be monitored as more data is collected. One reason that might explain why these differences appeared as areas to watch is due to the fact that in professional sports the suite market purchase is done more by corporations. In this sense, more data will be able to determine whether these differences are more significant in either the collegiate or professional markets or if they will become similarities.

## **Conclusions**

By understanding the differences between professional and collegiate luxury suite purchasing decisions, the sellers of those suites can create a better sales position or retain the owner who has already purchased a suite. Both markets can gain insights from the sharing of this information.

Luxury suite sellers at all levels need to understand the popular ways to attract business for professional suites so they can similarly attract collegiate buyers using the same techniques. From the findings, luxury suite owners can see that many luxury suite purchasers identify with both the collegiate market and the professional arena. There are more similarities between the two markets than there are differences; therefore, using new and exciting sales techniques is

not as important for collegiate customers. If professional and collegiate suite owners use what they already know from previous experiences, they will enhance the attraction for collegiate buyers.

The next step is to explore actual motivations of suite owners by surveying or interviewing suite buyers. Other areas for future research relate to issues of customer analytics of suite and premium seat holders.

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## The Value of Sports Stadium Sponsorship

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What was once considered an untested investment from the corporate perspective and blatant commercialization by the local community, the transaction of stadium naming rights between stadium builder and corporate sponsor has now become commonplace. Big as well; such deals now represent a substantial marketing investment for corporations, often lasting decades and costing hundreds of millions of dollars, and are considered essential to the financial success of any potential new stadium's business plan.

In 2006, Citigroup Inc. purchased the exclusive naming rights to the New York Mets new baseball stadium. The agreement, worth more than \$470 million over twenty years, would emblazon "Citi Field" across the sides of the stadium as well as countless billboards, banners, signs, advertisements, t-shirts, newspaper columns, and television broadcasts. The Citigroup deal ensured that when the new baseball park in Queens opened in 2009 that the name "Citi" would become synonymous with New York Mets baseball, as well as a constant in the daily lives of New Yorkers and American baseball fans. Speculation suggests that the eventual naming rights deal for the recently opened New Meadowlands Stadium in East Rutherford, New Jersey will eclipse the amount Citigroup paid to the Mets. But what is the tangible value of these sponsorship deals to companies like Citigroup? While the benefit to a sports organization is obvious, how do these agreements benefit the corporate sponsor in the future?

Our findings show brands that sponsored stadiums outperformed their industries among fans of the sport being played in their sponsored stadium and are growing over time compared with their performance among non-fans of that particular sport. Stadium sponsorship deals are building Energized Differentiation, a driver of future financial performance, and are therefore also growing firm value. Additionally, Esteem and Knowledge show modest improvements among fans when compared to the non-fan group.

We evaluated the landscape of US corporate stadium sponsors over the last decade using the BrandAsset Valuator (BAV) model, a longitudinal survey of some 44,000 brands in over 50 countries capturing consumer perceptions of equity and imagery. Our research focused on BAV data regarding twelve brands who have engaged in recent stadium naming sponsorship deals, analyzing their data over eight years among a nationally representative US audience. BAV focuses on key components of building long-term and sustainable brands which are continuous, cross-cultural, and driven by brand benefits and meaning. The BAV brand dimensions have been established as leading and current indicators which correlate with current and future financial returns. This provides a great platform for measuring returns to stadium sponsorship.

The BAV model, as generally applied, is based on four key pillars that measure consumer sentiment and helps find variables that work in tandem to drive results and create value. Each of the pillars contributes in a different way to building brand. Energized Differentiation contributes to pricing power, Relevance builds consideration and trial, Esteem builds loyalty and, along with Knowledge (awareness), moves sale. Energized Differentiation and Relevance can be combined into Brand Strength, a leading indicator of future growth, while Esteem and Knowledge can be combined into Brand Stature, the current indicator of a brand's operating value.

The four BAV pillars, as well as Brand Strength and Stature, were tracked in order to determine what value can be derived from a stadium naming rights deal. Twelve brands were analyzed from 2002 through 2010 on these measures among two segments, fans of the particular sport that was being played in the sponsored stadium and non-fans of that sport. For instance, Citibank would be evaluated among baseball fans in the US over that time period and then compared to the perceptions of non-baseball fans in the US over the same time period. We used these two segments for our analysis because professional sports fans are the intended target audience for sponsorship deals, while non-fans serve as a control group; the sponsorship deal was not intended to directly influence them and any difference in brand value registered among this group during this time can be considered natural movements in brand value, independent of the naming rights deal.

Brand data were also indexed against the brand's product category averages to control for category effects that affect all brands in a particular industry. We sought to understand growth for these brands among sports fans compared to non-fans as well as in the context of competitors in a category.

Corporations involved in stadium sponsorship deals are realizing significant gains in brand value and firm value from these agreements. While costs can be very high for these sponsorships, companies involved will experience, over time, tangible gains in brand value and in future financial values for their firm.

# The Influence of Car Crashes on Sponsorship Effects in NASCAR Racing

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## Background

Sport sponsorship expenditures have risen greatly over the past couple decades. In North America alone in 2010, sponsorship spending was expected to have grown to \$17.1 billion ("Sponsorship spending," 2010). Because of the massive spending on sponsorship, many scholars have tried to evaluate sport sponsorship effects and their associated mechanisms (e.g., Gwinner & Eaton, 1999; Madrigal, 2001; Meenaghan, 2001; Lee & Pedersen, 2010).

To archive the sponsors' goals, companies try to associate their brands with various sports. For example, Samsung became the official HDTV of the NFL (Lefton, 2009) and Nike and adidas battled to be an official sponsor for NCAA Division I athletic teams. Many companies also sponsored in the National Association for Stock Car Auto Racing (NASCAR). The title sponsor of the NASCAR, Sprint, contracted 10-year deal for \$750 million since 2004 (Smith, 2007) and NASCAR teams' main sponsors invest \$3-to-20 million each year (Miller & Milton, 2004). NASCAR has become an attractive sponsee because of extensive television broadcasting and many loyal fans (Broughton, 2008).

## Literature Review

Because of the importance of NASCAR sponsorship, there were many studies that have examined the effects of NASCAR sponsorship activities. For example, Lee and Pedersen (2010) evaluated sponsorship effects based on a sponsor's logo exposure frequency and the researchers concluded that exposure frequency had a positive relationship with both brand recall and attitude toward the sponsoring brand. Dees, Bennett, and Ferreira (2010) proposed that a personality fit between NASCAR drivers and sponsors had a positive relationship with sponsorship effects while fan identification and product involvement worked as moderators.

Although there were many sponsorship studies in NASCAR, no study has examined the impact of race crashes on sponsorship effects. In general, a reduced sponsorship effect outcome is expected if a sponsor's car is involved in an accident and out of a race. However, there is another possibility. Lee (2010) found that NASCAR fans easily recall sponsoring brand when the car crashed during the NASCAR broadcast. This scholar suspected that the subjects would more pay attention to the crash scenes because the scenes were sensational. Some studies have suggested that people respond differently based on personal traits (e.g., sensation seeking) in violent/sensational situations. Leone and Arienzo (2000) concluded that sensation seeking subjects showed more favorable responses on a high arousal commercial. McDaniel, Lim, and Mahan (2007) found that different gender and personality traits influenced responses to violent advertisements for some sports.

## Purpose

This study investigates how race car crashes affect sponsorship effects in NASCAR racing. In addition, different sponsorship effects based on NASCAR fans' gender and personality traits will be examined as moderators.

## Research Hypotheses

Based on the literature review and the purpose of study, four research hypotheses are suggested. First, a car crash will influence NASCAR fans' sponsoring brand recall. Second, a car crash will influence NASCAR fans' attitudes toward the sponsoring brand. Third, level of NASCAR fans' sensation seeking will affect their recall of and attitude to the sponsoring brand. Last, NASCAR fans' gender will affect brand recall and brand attitude. The research framework is illustrated in Figure 1.

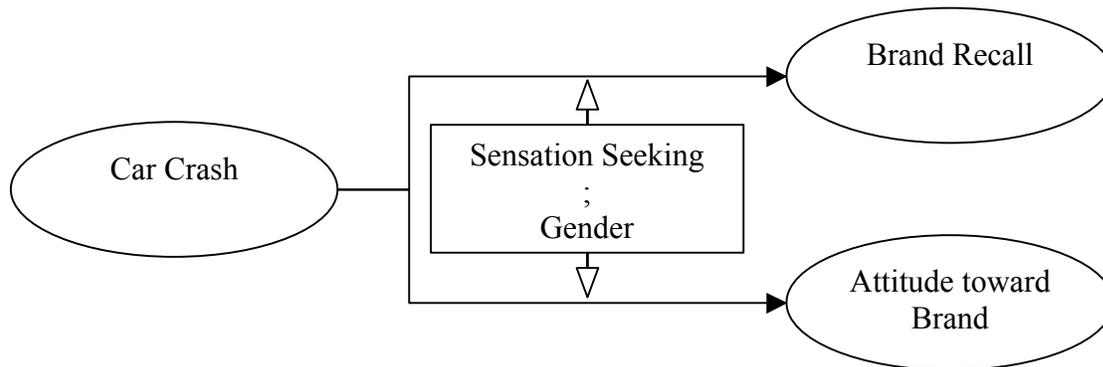


Figure 1. Research framework for measuring the effect of NASCAR car crashes.

## Methods

An experiment will be administered to collect data. First, the researcher will recruit more than 200 university students ( $N > 200$ ) as the study subjects. The subjects will be randomly assigned into either (1) a control group or (2) an experiment group. In the control group, the subjects will watch 10 minutes of NASCAR racing in a classroom condition. The edited NASCAR video will not contain any crashes or accidents. In the experiment group, the subjects will watch the same 10 minutes of NASCAR racing in the same classroom condition. However, the edited NASCAR video for the experiment group will include two crashes. Both videos will be edited exactly the same (e.g., length, racing scenes, sponsoring logo exposure frequency) except for the crash scenes. After watching the videos, the subjects in both groups will receive questionnaires. The questionnaires will measure the research constructs: brand recall, attitude toward sponsoring brand, and sensation seeking. In addition, basic demographic questions (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity) will be asked in the questionnaires. Multiple regression and other statistical methods will analyze the data and test the research hypotheses.

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## Sport Diplomacy: A Program Evaluation

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This session will present a case study of a sport diplomacy program evaluation. The diplomatic use of sport stems from its universality and structural power (Wolf, 1990). Sport, as a valuable contributor to the global economy and a significant component of the United States' GDP, consistently ranks in the top ten segments of the U.S. economy (Fort 2003; Pitts and Stotlar 2002; Sports Business Journal 2008). At an estimated \$425 billion dollar industry in America, sport is a major economic force (Plunkett Research Ltd, 2010). It is also a major social force, a social institution that can influence society on a large scale (Coakley, 2007). Yet, on a local level, sport is an arena for individual engagement and exchange. Sport is a universal language. As such, it is a valuable vehicle for nations and societies to build relationships, and for individuals within diverse cultures to engage with one another. Sport's economic, social, and political implications can support diplomatic, cultural exchange, development, and peace-building efforts. Using sport for diplomatic goals has been a long-employed strategy, from the founding of the modern Olympics to 'ping pong diplomacy' and beyond, the enhancement of diplomatic initiatives can be bolstered through sport.

While top-down diplomatic initiatives are common and receive both resources and attention, the bottom-up approaches are essential in humanizing the stakeholders, building mutual understanding, and uniting past enemies. Beer and Nohria (2000) suggest that top down change might have a more immediate economic upside, but may not have sustainability; whereas bottom up change may be more costly but yield longer term results. Forced contact through sport could lessen hostility, break down stereotypes, and foster more tolerant attitudes between segregated groups. Sport interaction can bring new knowledge, and remove the fear associated with the lack of personal experience with another group (Allport 1954). The very nature of team sports and competition creates close physical proximity among teammates and opponents, promotes common objectives and understanding, and requires joint contributions for success. Sport can, as a universal language, be a valuable mechanism in building cultural relationships and supporting diplomatic aims. But, how can the effectiveness of sport in achieving these goals be measured?

Senge (1990) noted that "Every program is perfectly designed to yield the results you see." Therefore, one must accurately identify the results, and how they relate to the program's goals and objectives, in order to evaluate the program's effectiveness. The key to effectively evaluating any program, including sport diplomacy programming, is to ensure at the proper measurement of the intended programmatic outcomes. Program goals must be identified and appropriate measures must be determined. Both qualitative and quantitative measures, tied to program goals, can be employed in assessing the outcomes. Yet, in the end, if properly measured, the 'results you see,' or outcomes, reflect exactly what the program is 'perfectly designed' to produce. Putting the results to

use can inform the future course of the program and guide the program managers' decisions.

This session presents a case study of an existing sport diplomacy program. This grant-funded sport diplomacy initiative has had abundant anecdotally-noted success, but evidence of the program's effectiveness was sought through a newly designed evaluation plan. The development of the evaluation plan, including the program objectives, measures employed, and selected results will be discussed in this session.

The sport diplomacy evaluation plan provided essential assessments to close the loop and feedback into future program planning. Its results influence opportunities for foreign visitors to participate in intensive sport exchanges in the United States. The assessments were based upon these overarching programmatic goals to assist foreign participants and their American counterparts to: (a) develop a broad worldview that incorporates diverse perspectives; (b) apply their skills toward productive and positive outlets in their local communities, and (c) build upon their professional skills and knowledge while developing a deeper understanding of U.S. society and culture. Toward these goals, the program attempts to enable participants to: (a) foster understanding and build relationships with others from different ethnic, religious, and national groups; (b) promote mutual understanding between the people of the partner countries and the U. S.; (c) learn more about U.S. society and culture, thereby countering negative stereotypes; and (d) become part of a network of leaders who will share their knowledge and skills with their peers and the broader community.

The objectives, in alignment with the stated programmatic goals, were to: (a) foster opportunities to develop cross-cultural understanding; (b) facilitate interactive exchanges to build relationships; (c) impart information about the United States; (d) provide opportunities for skill development; and (e) develop strategies for dissemination of participants' experiential learning outcomes. The related measurable outcomes were for participants to be able to: (a) Recognize the value of selected cultural experiences; (b) Acknowledge the development of intercultural relationships; (c) Document knowledge of U.S. culture; (d) Reflect on general and sport-related skill development; and (e) Select from a menu of options and undertake a means for sharing the exchange experiences upon return. These objectives served as the foundation for the evaluation of program effectiveness. The evaluations were conducted through multiple means: (a) Question and Answer Sessions with On-Site Program Host; (b) On-site Likert-scaled Survey; (c) On-site open-ended questionnaire; (d) Opportunities for electronic and hardcopy feedback upon return to home country; (e) Required Plan for staying in touch (follow-on options); and (f) Required Plan for sharing information within their home country.

Sport diplomacy, sport for development and peace-building, CSR initiatives, and many 'double bottom line' programming must still provide evidence of their effectiveness. While specific data from this case study are shared, the larger purpose of this session is to enhance the awareness of the use of program evaluation and evidence in all sport enterprises. When properly designed and implemented, program evaluation yields

insights upon which sport managers' data-driven decision-making can produce improved sport programming.

# Understanding Generational Differences in Sport Administration: Creating a Cohesive Work Environment

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## Motivation

The purpose of this descriptive study was to explore and determine if generational differences in attitudes existed in the workplace, specifically in the sport industry, among members of the Baby Boomer Generation (1946 and 1964), Generation X (1965 and 1981), and Generation Y (1982 and 2000).

## Methods

A mixed-method approach was used to obtain quantitative and qualitative data. The findings are intended to help sport organizations recognize and understand how to manage generational differences in the workforce. Three research questions were addressed: What attitudes and preferences are similar in different generations working in the sport industry? What attitudes and preferences are different between generations working in the sport industry? What efforts are taking place in the sport industry to close the generation gap?

Participants were alumni of a University located in the southeast region of the United States. This institution is known to have one of the first sport-administration programs established both at the undergraduate (1973) and master's level (1977).

A total of 8 questions obtained demographic information from participants, whereas a total of 36 questions used a 5-point Likert scale and focused on the exploration of differences between generational attitudes toward work in the sport industry. Two open-ended questions which addressed research question three provided a qualitative component that focused on communication efforts in the workplace.

## Analysis

Appropriate descriptive analysis was used and the Kruskal-Wallis test for one-way ANOVA was used to test the null hypotheses and thereby address the research question.

Additionally, the Tukey method, a post hoc test, was run to compare the means to see where significant differences existed among the generational cohorts. For the qualitative component, the researcher used categorization to analyze and compare major themes that emerged.

## Results

The first research question sought to examine the similarities of attitudes of members of each generational cohort working in the sport industry.

All three generational cohorts indicated that having a “balance between work and family” in the workplace is important. Previous research indicated that Generation X has a higher desire for balance in the workplace while this is not considered something significant for the Baby Boomer Generation or Generation Y (Kunreuther, 2007; Lovely, 2008; Sullivan et al., 2009). This research indicated that all three generational cohorts feel that having a balance between work and family is important.

The findings from this section of the study may be due to the possibility that working in the sport industry has different demands and different hours than does a standard 40-hour work week. Many jobs in the sport industry include working irregular hours and extended hours, implying that finding a balance between their job and their family is important.

The second research question sought to examine the differences of attitudes of the members of each generational cohort working in the sport industry. The Baby Boomer Generation and Generation Y have significant differences in their preferences for attitudes in the workplace, whereas Generation X typically sided with either the Baby Boomer Generation or Generation Y.

Supporting previous research, members of Generation X and Generation Y working for a sport organization agree that they “prefer group projects to individual projects” and “having good working relationships with colleagues” is important. This information coincides with literature indicating that Generation X and Generation Y enjoy working in teams, and will take advice or ask peers their opinion in the workplace more than will members of the Baby Boomer Generation (Downing, 2006).

A qualitative analysis established emerging themes and trends for research question three. The first open-ended question asked participants what their supervisor did to bridge the gap in the workplace. The second open-ended question asked participants what they were doing in the workplace to bridge the generation gap. The topic of communication was brought up as a predominant theme in both questions.

Equally important to supervisors’ actions geared towards bridging the generational gap are the efforts of individuals in non-managerial positions. Universal participation is essential if this goal is to be achieved in the sport industry. The second open-ended question was intended for participants to consider the efforts they were putting forth to bridge the generation gap.

### **Implications**

Despite one’s generational cohort, using the power of communication in the workplace should be a considered a priority of any organization. Generation Y has gradually emerged in the industry; many have obtained a degree in sport administration from one of the many degree-offering programs. Generation X desires to continue their climb in the industry, as the Baby Boomer Generation works toward retirement. Each generation works together in an industry that often requires long hours and late nights. The many

similarities and differences among the generations will be expressed and bridged through communication efforts in the sport industry.

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## Managing Risks at Multi-Sport Events

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Multi-sport sports event involving the completion of three continuous and sequential endurance events is often referred as a triathlon (Garrett & Kirkendall, 2000). Although there are a number of variations in the order in which triathlons are conducted the most popular form involves swimming, cycling, and running (United States Olympic Committee, 2010). According to the national triathlon governing body, USA Triathlon, races may be categorized as sprint, Standard/Olympic, long, and ultra distance (USA Triathlon, 2011). In the sprint distance the competitors typically swim 750 meters, bike 20 kilometers, and run 5 kilometers. In the Standard or Olympic distance the competitors generally swim 1.5 km, bike 40 km, and run 10 km. The most recognized long distance event is the Ironman branded event in which the participants swim 3.8 km, bike 180 km, and run a marathon distance of 42.2 km (United States Olympic Committee, 2010).

Arguably, multi-sport events such as triathlon competitions have become some of the most popular participant activities in the United States (United States Olympic Committee, 2010). The sport has become so popular that it made its debut in the 2000 Sydney Olympic Games (United States Olympic Committee, 2010). Due to increased participation, managers of such events must be constantly vigilant of providing a reasonably safe environment for the competitors. To provide such an environment, an event risk management should be developed. An event risk management plan is designed to identify, evaluate the likelihood, plan and deal with foreseeable risks in conducting a multi-sport event. Very little research has been conducted in identifying how triathlon event managers deal with managing potential risks. Thus, the purpose of this study was to identify the risk management protocols that multi-sport event managers employ.

Sixty-three multi-sport event managers responded to an online questionnaire that was distributed through Survey Monkey. All of the respondents indicated that they were in charge of multi-sport events. It was apparent that the majority (64%) of respondents were responsible for more than triathlon events as 48 indicated that they were in charge of sprint distance triathlons, 31 had been event directors for Olympic triathlon competitions, and eight had been involved in managing long distance competitions. Seventy-three percent reported that the participants in their events were organized by gender and age and 94% were sanctioned by a nationally governing body. More than half of the respondents indicated that they had held their position for 1-6 years, while 20% had been in the position for 11 or more years. Interestingly, more than half of the respondents revealed that the multi-sport events had been conducted at the same location for 1-6 years. Thus, while it would appear that the majority of event managers were relatively inexperienced in years, they gained additional experience by hosting multiple events per year and were fairly stable in maintaining their positions.

In support of the popularity of multi-sport events, nearly 64% indicated that the number of participants have increased over the past three years. Regarding safety protocols, nearly 80% of the respondents reported that all participants were required to attend a pre-race meeting prior to competing in the event. Additionally, all of the respondents required participants to complete a waiver prior to competing in the event to protect against potential litigation. However, 77% did not require the participants to complete and turn in a fitness/medical assessment form prior to competing in the event. This result takes on greater significance as 17% revealed that participants have died while competing in the event since its inception. Additionally, 57% reported that participants had incurred between 1-5 injuries and 5% had incurred between 11 to more than 20 injuries to participants that required emergency medical service or hospitalization as a result of participating in the event in the past 3 years. The most common types of injuries identified were: broken bones (34%), bites and stings (26%), heat exhaustion (24%), and dehydration (20%). Although, it was further revealed that the swimming portion of a multi-sport event required the most medical attention, only 66% required their water safety staff members to possess a current lifeguard training certification.

In regards to event personnel, 87% revealed that they were volunteers. All of the respondents indicated that they possessed an emergency action plan. However, more than 30% did not require any training of the emergency action plan before event safety personnel were allowed to work at an event. Despite 83% reporting that event risk management policies followed by the event were set by a national governing agency, the results also indicated that 39% did not require all volunteer personnel to participate in an orientation that contained risk management information for each of the segments of the event. Of concern was that 30% did not require volunteer safety personnel to have a current First Aid/CPR certification to work at the event. Additionally, 54% did not require volunteer event staff members to participate in a training sessions, conducted prior to the event, which focused on medical emergencies. These results may be because 64% indicated that event medical staff workers were volunteers. Event medical staff members were further delineated as 98% were emergency medical technicians, 83% had physicians on site, and 66% were certified nurses.

Despite the overwhelming majority being sanctioned by a nationally governing body as well as requiring all participants to complete a waiver prior to competing in the event it appears that multi-sport event managers are not sufficiently managing foreseeable risks. This becomes especially pronounced when the past occurrences of participant injury and death while competing in events such as triathlons are considered. The implications of this study will be discussed further in this presentation as they pertain to the need for multi-sport event managers to provide a reasonably safe environment for the competitors.

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# **An Examination of Work-Family Conflict and Related Theories in NCAA Division I Facility and Event Managers**

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Facility managers are responsible for day-to day operations, game management, and special events in athletic venues including stadiums and arenas. At times, these professionals are invisible, working behind the scenes, until there is a problem. At other times, facility and event managers are providing the highest level of customer service to meet the needs of their clients, including coaches, concert promoters, faculty members, and others. Their schedules are determined by the events hosted in their venues, and often they are in their facilities several hours before events begin and several hours after the last guests have gone home in addition to their daily work schedules. Therefore, it is reasonable to infer that facility and event managers experience the challenges of balancing work and family because of their long hours and lack of control over their schedules.

Work-family conflict (WFC) has been studied extensively in the corporate context (Anderson, Morgan, and Wilson, 2002) and is a growing line of inquiry in the sport context. In the sport literature, the majority of the research in WFC examines this construct and the related theories of life satisfaction (LS) , job satisfaction (JS), job burnout (JB), and career commitment (CC) as they relate to the challenges coaches, athletic trainers, and sports information professionals face (Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Dixon & Bruening, 2007; Hatfield & Johnson, in press; Inglis, Danylchuk & Pastore, 2000; Mazerolle, Bruening & Casa, 2008; Mazerolle, Bruening, Casa & Burton, 2008; Pastore, 1991; Sagas & Cunningham, 2005). The goal of this study is to examine WFC and the related theories in collegiate facility and event managers and to identify ways that that their profession challenges them to balance work and family while also providing opportunities for enrichment of their family lives.

The NCAA portal ([www.ncaa.org](http://www.ncaa.org)) was used to access each institution's website. Once on the website, the highest ranking facility and event management professional in the athletic department was identified and an email inviting that individual to participate in the study was sent. At many NCAA Division I member institutions, facility and event management are combined into one position, and at others these responsibilities are separated. Therefore, although there are 347 Division I institutions listed on the NCAA portal, 445 professionals were invited by email to participate. The survey link was provided in the email. The online survey was assembled to include five scales that had previously been tested for validity and reliability (Fields, 2002) and included a section for demographic information and open ended items. Informed consent was obtained prior to obtaining access to the survey. Following the initial invitation to participate and follow-up reminders, the survey was open for five weeks.

In total, 445 facility and event managers in NCAA Division I institutions were contacted, and 101 participated in the study, for a response rate of 23%. The survey results revealed that 86% of the respondents experience WFC. These results are similar to those of previous studies examining other athletic department personnel. Further, the results clearly show that facility and event managers are satisfied with their jobs (59.6%) and lives (73.9%), while only 16.2% frequently experience high levels of job burnout. A majority of participants (56.6%) indicated that they are committed to their careers while 14.4% expressed that they are considering careers outside of facility and event management.

Correlations were run to examine the degree of relationship between each of the scales. Correlation results differed from previous research as WFC was only significantly correlated with JB and CC, while work-family conflict was shown to be correlated with all scales for sports information professionals. However, each of the other scales (LS, JS, JB, CC) was moderately (0.5 – 0.6) and significantly correlated to each other. These data clearly show that there is relationship between these constructs.

After determining that there were significant relationships between scales, regression analyses were run between WFC and each of the other scales. WFC was not a significant predictor of LS or JS it predicted very little variability of these scales. WFC could successfully predict variability in JB and CC with CC having the strongest predictive quality. Again, these results differ from those collected from other intercollegiate athletic staff members. Data from the qualitative questions support the results from above and provide additional insights.

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## A Historical Analysis of the Non-statutory Labor Exemption in the NFL

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Antitrust law in the US has a long history, serving to promote competition in the marketplace and deter monopoly power of companies, thus protecting consumers. Antitrust law has heavily influenced the organization and operation of professional sports leagues in the US, especially in the areas of player rights and movement. Professional sport leagues have a variety of inherently anti-competitive measures and restraints not seen in other spheres of business. Player drafts compensation systems, free agency, and league rules restricting franchise relocation are argued by leagues as necessary restraints for continued league economic viability and competition. Congress passed the Sherman Antitrust Act in 1890 in order to combat business trusts and monopolies. The antitrust provisions of most interest to the business of professional sports leagues are Sections 1 and 2 of the Sherman Act. Section 1 prevents contracts or agreements in restraint of trade by two or more entities, while Section 2 prevents unilateral monopolization (Sherman Antitrust Act, 15 U.S.C. §§1-2, 2006). Most antitrust challenges involving professional sport leagues have involved Section 1 scrutiny, as opposed to Section 2. With the advance of trade and commerce in the US, labor unions became a source of contention with employers, who argued that their collective action on behalf of workers served to restrain trade and as thus in violation of §1 of the Sherman Act. Recognizing the importance of such unions, Congress passed the Clayton Act, which provided a statutory labor exemption for actions taken by labor unions, thus insulating them from antitrust violations (Wong, 2010).

While the Congressionally-created statutory labor exemption protected actions by labor unions, there was no similar protection for the joint actions of employers acting in concert with unions. Three Supreme Court decisions (*Allen Bradley Co. v. Local Union No. 3, International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers*, 1945; *Amalgamated Meat Cutters & Butcher Workmen of North America v. Jewel Tea Co.*, 1965; *United Mine Workers v. Pennington*, 1965) involving antitrust challenges in this arena changed this and resulted in the nonstatutory labor exemption, commonly referred to as “the labor exemption” (Wong, 2010). The nonstatutory labor exemption specifies that a collective bargained agreement between a union and employers does not represent a conspiracy, combination, or concerted activity and is thus not in violation of Section 1 of the Sherman Act. Use of the nonstatutory labor exemption in the professional sports context began in 1972, involving the National Hockey League’s reserve system (*Philadelphia World Hockey Club, Inc. v. Philadelphia Hockey Club, Inc.* 1972). Perhaps the most significant use of the nonstatutory labor exemption in the professional sports context, however, occurred in *Mackey v. NFL* (1976). At issue was the “Rozelle Rule,” instituted by League Commissioner, Pete Rozelle, which required a team that signed a veteran free agent to provide compensation to that player’s former team in the form of cash, draft picks, or other players. A group of present and former NFL players challenged the rule on the grounds that it represented a restraint on trade, as the compensation requirement served to deter teams from signing veteran free agents from other teams,

lowering player salaries. The NFL asserted that the nonstatutory labor exemption applied, since the system was a condition of the collective bargaining agreement (CBA) agreed upon by the NFL Player's Association and the league. The court established a three-prong test to determine when a professional sports league could use the labor exemption in antitrust cases:

1. The restraint on trade must primarily affect only the parties to the CBA.
2. The issue must concern a mandatory subject of bargaining.
3. The issue must have been achieved through arm's-length bargaining.

In ruling against the NFL in *Mackey*, the court stated that even though the compensation system at issue had been collectively bargained and was included in the 1970 CBA, it had not been achieved through arm's-length bargaining, because the Player's Association had little bargaining power at the time as compared to the league. Thus, the court ruled that the league could not raise the labor exemption defense against the alleged antitrust violation (*Mackey*, 1976). Furthermore, the court concluded that the Rozelle Rule was more restrictive than necessary, serving as a "perpetual restriction on a player's ability to sell his services in an open market" (p. 622). The "Mackey test" subsequently served as the barometer for applying the nonstatutory labor exemption in antitrust cases involving professional sport leagues. Much of the structure and organization of the NFL has been shaped, in large part, by the 70+ antitrust cases it has faced throughout its history (Wong, 2010).

In March of 2011, the (NFLPA) de-certified and became a trade association. Seven hours later, the NFL locked out the players following the expiration of the CBA. A group of players subsequently filed an antitrust lawsuit against the NFL and each team individually (*Brady v. NFL*, 2011). An important legal question now is whether the nonstatutory labor exemption still applies despite the fact that the CBA has expired and the NFLPA has decertified. This presentation will focus on the nonstatutory labor exemption in the NFL and discuss the history of case law, including *Mackey v. NFL* (1976), *Powell v. NFL* (1988), *McNeil v. NFL* (1992), *White v. NFL* (1993), and *Clarett v. NFL* (2004). It will also discuss the current NFL labor dispute and offer insight as to what may happen in the future.

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# Organizational Perception Management as a Means to Legitimate Sport Venue Subsidization: A Conceptual Framework

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In the United States, professional sport teams are increasingly engaging in corporate pro-environmental behavior (CPEB). Since 2008, the facilities of nine professional teams across North America's four major sport leagues have received Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design certification by the U.S. Green Building Council (USGBC). Additionally, prominent sport venue design firms such as Populous and AEG have pledged commitments to sustainability. Within sport facilities, professional teams have incorporated sustainable initiatives in the management of their facilities and events (cf. Babiak & Trendafilova, 2009). On a larger scale, some of sport's most visible events, including the Olympic Games and FIFA World Cup, emphatically have endorsed the reduction of their environmental impacts.

In addition to its ecological and economic benefits, for-profit businesses may also engage in CPEB in order to control its public image, reputation, and identity. Elsbach (2006) characterized the maintenance of an organization's public status as organizational perception management (OPM). While any organization can benefit from proper engagement in OPM, professional sport organizations should be especially cognizant of their public perception due to the elevated influence of community members: In addition to their role as consumers of the team's products and events, on occasion community members—including fans and nonfans—have significant influence as voters on sport facility subsidization referenda.

One method through which agreement on public spending issues is measured is ballot measures, which represent a democratic process aimed at legitimating the government's allocation of public funds (Fort, 1997). As discussed in this presentation, sport organizations may allay the concerns of wary referendum voters by engaging in OPM, thus circumventing potential subsequent resistance. That is, the purpose of this presentation is to suggest that the incorporation of pro-environmental design in a planned facility enhances a team's image, reputation, and identity—particularly among non-sport-consumers in the community—thereby increasing the likelihood of referendum success.

In this purpose, two complementary arguments are made. First, organizations can enhance their legitimacy through the use of CPEB. Second, organizational legitimacy can be enriched when an organization seeks the approval of community members by supporting a vote by referendum (i.e., rather than curtailing the efforts of anti-subsidy activists). However, professional sport teams interested in legitimacy might avoid referenda out of fear the subsidy measure would be defeated, a supposition supported by the lack of sport facility subsidy referenda in recent years. However, this presentation argues that CPEB—particularly when incorporated in the proposal and design stages of a facility—increases the likelihood of referendum success. Therefore,

these two arguments reinforce one another. On the one hand, CPEB and referenda drive legitimacy; on the other, sustainability increases the odds a referendum will pass.

In a broader sense, this presentation demonstrates how professional sport organizations benefit from the employment of OPM. One increasingly prevalent strategy relied upon by organizations in order to influence others' perceptions is the implementation of CPEB, and sport teams are no exception. For sport organizations seeking to garner public financial support for an improved or new facility, the management of their images, reputations, and identities is critical. CPEB may be a particularly effective means through which perceptions of the organization can be managed favorably because it attracts the attention of forward-thinking citizens who may otherwise be dispassionate in and unsupportive of the organization's facility campaign. This presentation illustrates the leveraging influence of OPM through the lens of a pro-environmental professional sport organization engaging in CPEB in order to obtain a desired referendum outcome. Based on this description, the Desired Voting Outcomes Framework will be presented to illustrate the benefits produced through the engagement in OPM by professional sport organizations.

Despite the long-term economic benefits, professional sport organizations stand to benefit more immediately by engaging the public's interest in environmental causes. To demonstrate how CPEB can be used to influence public opinion, OPM and its components will be defined. Next, the arguments for and against the subsidization of professional sport facilities will be summarized. Additionally, a brief history of public and private sport facility funding in the United States will be provided. Finally, the concepts of OPM, CPEB, and sport facility funding will be fully integrated in order to illustrate the potential influence of professional sport organizations. This discussion will include implications of this line of inquiry and directions for future research.

The Desired Voting Outcomes Framework makes several contributions to the field. Generally, this conceptualization offers an alternative and legitimate approach to obtaining public support for a professional sport facility. Additionally, the Desired Voting Outcomes Framework considers the significance of the organization's long-term reputation. Sport facility referenda are becoming increasingly infrequent, partially due to organizations' avoidances. However, as this presentation will show, scholarly consideration of referenda is essential, as referenda can confer hundreds of millions of dollars along with a reputation of increased legitimacy. Through OPM, the organization may not only gain public support for its facility, but it may also enhance others' positive perceptions of the team's image, reputation, and identity.

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## Marketing Stadium Accessibility: New Legal Requirements and Anecdotes from College Athletic Department Websites

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Providing equal opportunity to people with disabilities is the fundamental principle of the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (ADA) (U.S. Department of Justice, 2011). While the legal mandate to ensure facility accessibility for people with disabilities is clear, implementation of the ADA by the venue management industry has proven to be more of a challenge (Grady, 2005). In explaining the significance of the problem, the United States Department of Justice noted, “over the past 20 years, some public and private venues, ticket sellers, and distributors have not provided the same opportunity to purchase tickets for wheelchair-accessible seats and non-accessible seats” (U.S. Department of Justice, 2011). Given the nuanced configurations of stadia and arenas as well as each venue’s approach to managing accessibility, this has resulted in widely differing policies and procedures for accommodating people with disabilities.

These new requirements, which went into effect on March 15, 2011 (ADA 2011), are the first set of major revisions since passage of the ADA in 1990, and are focused mainly on ticketing regulations which were previously absent or ambiguous in the original ADA. These regulations have a significant impact on college athletic venues and may challenge the ability to ensure accessibility, due, in part, to the frequent use of season tickets in college athletics as well as athletic donor priority systems which provide donors the opportunity to renew athletic season tickets for several generations. Under the 2011 requirements, athletic venues are now required to **sell tickets for accessible seats, defined in the law as seats specifically designed for wheelchairs, in the same manner and under the same conditions as all other ticket sales (U.S. Department of Justice, 2011). Sport venues must also provide the same information about accessible seats as provided about non-accessible seats, using the same text and visual representations**, including detailed maps or displays of seating configurations on its website or if it provides seating information in its pamphlets or brochures, including information for particular events or shows (U.S. Department of Justice, 2011). The legislative update and resulting changes in sport marketing practice present a need for the current study.

The purpose of this study was two-fold: (1) identify the marketing and ticketing requirements in the 2011 ADA requirements and (2) analyze college athletic department websites at two points in time to see whether the information presented about accessibility for people with disabilities changed due to the new requirements. By comparing the website presence soon after the law change with the website presence prior to the start of the 2011-12 football season, the researchers gauged whether athletic departments may have made changes to their policies, procedures, or marketing materials in an effort to comply with the 2011 requirements. Attention also was paid to whether athletic departments followed person-first language (e.g., placing

the person before the disability), which is often preferred by people with disabilities (Lynch, Thuli, & Groombridge, 1994; Titchkosky, 2001).

This study explored athletic department websites in the Southeastern Conference (SEC) and Big Ten conference for their marketing of the ticketing requirements addressed by the 2011 ADA changes. The SEC and Big Ten were selected for this study because of similarly high attendance, financial resources, and makeup of universities. A total of 24 websites were examined in June 2011, when no college sports took place, to record the content regarding accessible ticketing policies and seating options. The websites were revisited in October 2011 during football season to determine if changes had been made in an effort to adhere to the new ADA requirements.

This study is considered exploratory research and therefore anecdotal evidence from the websites was shown. Results were categorized in a “good,” “bad,” and “ugly” format. Good represented websites that changed in adherence to the ADA requirements. Bad represented those that did not change, displayed inconsistencies in language, yet were still informative. Ugly represented those that did not change, did not use person-first language, and were not informative.

Michigan, Nebraska, Ohio State, and South Carolina were the only athletic departments categorized as good by changing their online wording to comply with new ADA requirements. Anecdotal evidence from Michigan’s site displayed it as the most proactive in addressing accessible seating, with a dedicated page to accessibility, alignment with ADA changes, and use of person-first language. However, these changes can also be attributed as part of the settlement with the Department of Justice over modifications at Michigan Stadium. Categorized as “bad” were athletic departments such as Florida, Michigan State, and Northwestern where patrons were informed of accessible services; however, no changes per ADA regulation were advertised in the text and language use was inconsistent. Categorized as “ugly” were athletic departments such as Iowa, LSU, Minnesota, and Mississippi, where information was present but used indirect communication to visitors with instruction to call the ticket office (for which no number was given in Mississippi’s case) or to note special inquiries on ticket requests.

Big Ten athletic departments, in general, were more explanatory and proactive about informing prospective patrons of accessible seating and ticketing options. Still, with four of 24 athletic departments in the two most popular and financially stable football conferences adhering to the new ADA changes, the lack of response is concerning. Athletic departments such as Michigan and Ohio State displayed proactive action by dedicating entire pages and interactive documents to inform people with disabilities about accessible seating, and schools such as Nebraska and South Carolina made significant changes to their accessible seating information to better serve their ticket holders. Yet, the majority of athletic departments in this study displayed qualities of lagging behind on adhering to the ADA, not updating content with regard to accessible

seating, or a mixture of both, while using mixed language to address people with disabilities.

This presentation will address the background of the ADA changes for athletic facilities. Results of an exploratory study of athletic department websites will be provided to determine if schools adhered to the ADA changes and what information was provided to online visitors. Anecdotal findings show that while a small number of athletic departments updated their websites in a way that complied with the new requirements, the vast majority ignored marketing requirements by updating their websites. Athletic departments may be avoiding compliance with ADA changes with regard to accessible seating and ticketing, thereby preventing people with disabilities from being fully informed about their opportunities to attend events at their university.

# Examining Counselor Satisfaction in an Outdoor Therapeutic Recreation Camp

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**Introduction:** Therapeutic camping programs yield many benefits for youth with disabilities (e.g. Brannan, Arick, Fullerton, & Harris, 2000; Fullerton, Brannan, & Arick, 2000; Goodwin & Staples, 2005; Michalski, Mishna, Worthington, & Cummings, 2003). However, providing programs that foster such benefits are faced with challenges surrounding the retention and recruitment of their staff (Lawrence, Glidden, & Jobe, 2006; Tatsapaugh, 1994). Retention has been reported as negatively correlated with job satisfaction for those who provide direct care to people with disabilities in residential settings. Job satisfaction has been linked to predicting a counselor's return to camp as well (Lawrence et al., 2006). This study examines job satisfaction of counselors in a therapeutic camping program who provide direct care to youth with multiple disabilities (cognitive or physical).

The therapeutic recreation camping program in this study is a component of a service learning class that has been in existence since 1977. This service learning program provides a one week outdoor educational experience for campers where students gain education, awareness, and exposure to people with disabilities. The program is conducted in two phases. Phase one includes classroom and outdoor instruction where the students learn how to organize, develop, implement and evaluate the program. Phase two consists of the implementation of the therapeutic program itself. Each counselor is paired with a camper providing a one-to-one camper-counselor ratio. Additionally, the students work to create a safe, caring, educational, and fun setting which results in an equally relevant educational experience for campers. The purpose of this study was to examine the counselors experience at camp, looking specifically at job satisfaction.

**Methods:** Participants were enrolled in therapeutic recreation programming course at a university in the Southeast. The course enrollment was 211, and 113 students completed the questionnaire for a 54% response rate. The course was open to students across all disciplines at the university so there were no enrollment restrictions. Levels of job satisfaction were measured using a modified version of the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Spector (1985, 1994). The JSS is a 36-item survey that measures nine factors assessing attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. It was originally developed for use in human service organizations but has been used in studies regarding recreation management employees and volunteers (Kaltenbaugh, 2009; Siverberg, Marshall, & Ellis, 2001). There are nine factors within job satisfaction with each measured by a summed score of 4-items. They are (1) pay, (2) promotion, (3) supervision, (4) fringe benefits, (5) contingent rewards, (6) operating condition, (7) coworkers, (8) nature of work, and (9) communication. Participants have six choices per item, anchored by "strongly disagree" and "strongly agree." Pay and rewards were not part of the camp environment so the statements used to measure the

dimensions of pay, promotion, and fringe benefits were not included in the questionnaire.

**Analysis:** Cronbach's alpha was used for scale reliability with scores ranging from .54 to .77. Overall scale reliability was .87. One item was deleted within the dimension of operating conditions to increase the reliability of the dimension. Thus, 23 items were used in examining satisfaction. Levels of satisfaction were calculated and interpreted based on the guidelines set forth by Spector (1994).

**Results:** The respondents were overwhelmingly female with a 3-to-1 female-to-male ratio which mirrored the class demographic breakdown. Only 17.7% of the students were freshman and sophomores and this was the first time taking the class for 69% percent of the respondents. The majority of students (69.1%) as well were outside the major in which the course is housed. The level of satisfaction with the camp experience was extremely high. All six categories had satisfaction ratings above 80% and three were above 95%. The overall satisfaction score was a near 100% of the participants being satisfied. Only, one respondent fell into the ambivalent range.

**Implications:** The findings indicate that the counselors had a high level of overall job satisfaction which stands to provide possible reasoning as to why students repeat the service learning course. This helps ensure that the service learning program retains trained staff yearly. Additionally, the findings validate that the students are being provided with a valuable experience that is highly satisfying. In return, the students promote the program to their peers making the recruitment process less challenging. This information may be of interest to potential donors to the university who want to fund programs that provide such valuable and rewarding experiences to students or when seeking grant dollars to support educational training. Two factors had more than 14% of the respondents as ambivalent: communication and operating conditions. Such knowledge affords the opportunity to direct efforts of improvement towards these areas specifically. Future research should delve further into examining why this program is so rewarding to the students.

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## **Athletic Facility Managers' Knowledge of Access and the Americans with Disabilities Act**

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Physical barriers prevent people with disabilities from participating in social activities such as attending sporting events, and there is disconnect between facility managers' interpretation of accessibility versus the interpretation by a person with a disability (Burgdorf, 1991; Hirst, 1989; Jackson, 2005; Mazumdar & Geis, 2003; McClain, Medrano, Marcum, & Schukar, 2000; Saito, 2006). The purpose of this pilot study was to develop an instrument to survey national collegiate and professional athletic facility managers with the aim of understanding their knowledge of Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) guidelines for accessibility. The ADA helps ensure people with disabilities have access to and can enjoy facilities of varying use (Mazumdar & Geis, 2003). An existing survey examining ADA Title III (accessibility to public accommodations) was slightly modified and used for this study (Redick, McClain, & Brown, 2000). Four athletic facility managers from universities in a Bowl Championship Series conference in the Southeast completed the survey to provide feedback on creating the best possible instrument for a national study and validate the study's purpose. One athletic facility manager from a large university in the Southeast and one athletic facility manager from a large university in the Southwest also participated in unstructured interviews.

Results from the study gave the researchers an initial understanding of what athletic facility managers may know about the ADA with regard to accessibility to public accommodations. Participants were well-established employees at their place of employment, predominantly male, and mostly of the Baby Boomer generation that is facing greater accessibility issues as it gets older. The participants mostly work with someone with a disability, and therefore accessibility issues have a greater chance of being top of mind. The participants acknowledged equal access should be provided to individuals, therefore revealing their understanding of need for access. It was unclear to them, however, as to whom should provide that access or inform individuals with disabilities of their rights to equal access.

Participants indicated that facility managers may be knowledgeable of specific ADA requirements for facilities such as concessions counter height, door width, and toilet seat height. However, facility managers may not have a firm grasp on more general issues patrons with disabilities face and that have often been the point of contention in the courts such as parking, entranceways, seating, and sightlines (*Christman v. Tymaco Inc.*, 2008; *Lara v. Cinemark USA, Inc.*, 2000; *Oregon Paralyzed Veterans of America v. Regal Cinemas Inc.*, 2003; *Paralyzed Veterans of America v. Ellerbe Becket Architects*, 1996; *United States v. Cinemark USA, Inc.*, 2003; *United States v. Hoyts Cinemas Corporation*, 2004). That these issues have been argued in the courts indicates they are perhaps the most important issues people with disabilities face in regards to, for example, attending a sporting event. Yet facility managers, from what this pilot study indicates, may lack knowledge in these very areas.

Physical barriers and structural constraints keep people with disabilities from attending sporting events, and facility managers must educate themselves on these precise issues. The gap of knowledge between corporate missions, employees, and perceptions of accessibility by people with disabilities exists because organizations and their employees have met measurable requirements of accessibility knowledge (e.g., toilet seat height) but not maintained a specific knowledge base in regards to the most important needs of a segment of the population (e.g., best accessible parking or seating location). Advancements have been made in desegregating and preventing isolation for minorities and women, and the same must be done for people with disabilities. No longer are crowds and athletes segregated by color of skin, and women, who were once prevented from sport participation, have leagues and hold administrative positions running athletic facilities. It is time for athletic facility managers to recognize a segment of the population, people with disabilities, is being segregated and isolated because of physical barriers that some facility staff may not acknowledge.

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## **Fiscal Efficacy, Effectiveness and Efficiency of Environmental Sustainable Practices in Parks and Recreation: A Case Study of the City of Knoxville**

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Sustainability practices produce programs and services that meet current needs while preserving the environment and natural resources for the future. City parks and recreation departments are facing budget shortfalls and increasing expectations from customers. Governments are now embracing sustainability practices to create financial savings while also fostering relations with customers. The purpose of this single case study is to examine the efficacy, cost effectiveness, and efficiency of one city department's strategies to promote outsourcing environmental sustainable changes as well as capture the feelings of employees towards these changes at different levels of the organization. A convenience sample of 12-20 employees, stratified by employee class (upper management, middle-management, and line staff) will be drawn from the City of Knoxville, Tennessee's parks and recreation department. Qualitative data generated from semi-structured interviews will be coded and thematized to analyze the perceptions of the employees included in the sample about the agency's sustainability practices. Additionally, financial archival data from utility bills will be analyzed throughout the environmental sustainability implementation stage. The results of this data could be generalized to cities of similar sizes and help determine if the environmental sustainability approach is a beneficial financial action.

## Criticizing the Coach, Social Media and the First Amendment

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The use of the Internet and social media is infused in the American student lifestyle. Pew Internet & American Life Project: Teens and Social Media 2 (2007) (stating that 93% of teenagers use the Internet and 73% of teenagers use a social networking site). This phenomenon of social media use in its various forms (Facebook, MySpace, Twitter, etc.) has presented school administrators and coaches with a twist on an old issue: criticism by students and student athletes in the scholastic setting. Instead of hate mail to the coach or a scribbled cartoon lampooning the principal or athletic director posted in the cafeteria or locker room, modern technology enables students to disseminate public criticism of school officials quickly to a large audience complete with pictures and video. Student-generated hostile and offensive online speech directed at school officials has generated a line of litigation pitting administrators' control of the educational environment against students' First Amendment rights.

Citizens are guaranteed the First Amendment Constitutional right of free speech. How should administrators balance students' First Amendment rights with the school's responsibility to regulate social media which is disparaging to administrators, coaches, and staff members?

The proposed session will explore the evolution of student free speech protections beginning with the seminal U.S. Supreme Court cases of *Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District*, 393 U.S. 503, 89 S. Ct. 733 (1969) and the later exceptions carved out in *Bethel School District v. Fraser*, 478 U.S. 675, 106 S. Ct. 3159 (1986), *Hazelwood Sch. Dist. v. Kuhlmeier*, 484 U.S. 260, 266, 108 S. Ct. 562 (1988) and its' most recent school speech decision *Morse v. Frederick*, 551 U.S. 393, 127 S. Ct. 2618 (2007). *Tinker* recognizes the custodial and comprehensive authority of public school officials and the court's reluctance to interfere with the resolution of conflicts and discipline of students which arise in the operation of the school systems. Because of these special characteristics of the school environment the Court in *Tinker* held lawful the prohibition of student speech which would materially and substantially interfere with the requirements of appropriate discipline in the operation of the school. *Fraser* carves out a narrow expansion of speech that may be restricted, limiting lewd, obscene, profane speech on campus. *Hazelwood* also allowed school administrators to restrict speech emanating from school-sponsored activities, such as a school newspaper generated on campus. *Morse* allowed restriction of speech promoting illegal activities at school sanctioned or supervised events.

The application and interpretation of these foundational cases has been tested most recently in *J.S. v. Blue Mt. Sch. Dist.*, 2011 U.S. App. LEXIS 1147 (3d Cir. 2011) in which a student constructed a MySpace page disparaging her principal as a pedophile with public accusations of sexual misconduct. In a split decision the majority held that the administration had violated the student's First Amendment rights by punishing the

student with a 10-day suspension for her creation of the profile from her home computer. Conversely, in *Lowery v. Euverard*, 497 F.3d 584, 591-92 (6th Cir. 2007) student-athletes formed a petition to discredit the football coach and the court held that these student-athletes could be dismissed from the team for their disparaging comments toward the coach without similar free speech protections.

The proposed session will address the policy questions for administrators and coaches in light of the reasoning in this line of cases and most recent rulings.

1. Can administrators treat student-athletes differently than the general student body and why?
2. Does *J.S. v. Blue Mountain* give students license to make hostile and malicious allegations directed at school personnel as long as the comments are generated off campus?
3. What could be considered a “reasonably foreseeable substantial disruption” under the Tinker Standard?
4. What policy should administrators establish regarding social media “speech” by students and student-athletes?
5. Are there other legal avenues of redress for hostile speech by students?

## **Risk Management Plans and Lightning Safety Policies: Do High Schools in America have and Enforce Them?**

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Millions of teenagers participate in organized school-sponsored interscholastic sports programs each year. Increased participation and rapid body changes make the risk of injuries for high school students engaging in interscholastic athletics a real threat (Ballard, 1996). In addition to the well-known mental, physical, economic and spectator benefits provided by high school sports, the possible cost or hazard of interscholastic athletic participation are always present (Lipsey, 2006). These inherent risks to sports and our society's litigious nature make the implementation and enforcement of a risk management plan and lightning safety policies central to the prevention of sports-related liability (Appenzeller, 2005; Cotton & Wolohan, 2007; McEwin & Dickinson, 1996).

The Youth Risk Behavior Surveillance System showed that 55.5% of American high school students participated on at least one sports team, and 21.9% of those students reported seeking medical treatment as a result of their activities (Eaton, Kann, Kinchen, et al., 2007). These data justify the need for increased efforts in developing and implementing strategies to identify and treat potential risks related to interscholastic participation. With that in mind, it is important for interscholastic athletic administrators to become familiar with commonly utilized best practices related to risk management in high school sports.

One of the inherent risks of participation in interscholastic sports that is often overlooked is lightning. Lightning kills more people than tornadoes, hurricanes, or high winds on average each year in the United States (Ashley & Gilson, 2009; Curran, Holle & Lopez, 2000; Rakov & Uman, 2003). Many school activities can put students at high risk from lightning. The largest number of lightning casualties (U.S.) occurs in outdoor spaces, including sports fields, playgrounds, etc. (Roeder & Vavrek, 2005). This fact justifies the need for coaches, referees, and leaders of other outdoor school activities to practice recommended lightning safety procedures (Roeder & Vavrek, 2005).

So, for high school athletics, the challenge becomes providing sport programs which take safety seriously. In other words, the task is to effectively manage the risk exposure to students/athletes. To do so, schools should rely on risk management plans and lightning safety policies to ensure that all school employees involved with athletics are fully prepared to prevent losses and to deal with losses when they occur (Appenzeller, 2005; Cotton & Wolohan, 2007).

However, is that really the case? Do high schools across the country actually have a risk management plan and truly enforce it? Do they practice recommended lightning

safety? What are the most common practices related to lightning safety and risk management currently utilized by athletic departments at high school level? This exploratory study was designed to answer these questions. Specifically, it attempted to describe the current risk management plan and lightning policies status of high school's athletic departments across America. 5,785 high school athletic directors (affiliated with the National Interscholastic Athletic Administrators Association) were contacted and 820 completed the survey.

The present study demonstrated that interscholastic activities in the U.S. are vastly conducted with the support of risk management plans, but there is still a significant amount of interscholastic athletic departments where risk management plans are either nonexistent (17.3%) or unenforced (28%). A large majority of respondents seem to be employing risk management best practices consistently, but there is an indication of a less than the desired level of adoption of some practices (i.e., informed consent forms, pre-season sport specific meetings, ADA compliance, coach evaluation and written criteria, safety training, AED's accessibility and warning signs). It also appears that the athletic directors' years of experience play a role in the adoption of certain risk management practices (coach evaluation, evaluation criteria, risk management enforcement and hazard abatement), but (surprisingly) not to the adoption of other similarly important practices. This study will provide high school athletic administrators and principals with relevant information that can be used to support their decision to adopt and enforce lightning safety policies and risk management plans applied to interscholastic athletic activities.

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## Pitch Perfect: How MLS's Emphasis on Stadia Offers Path to Profitability

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Soccer has been the “sport of the future” in the United States since at least the early 1970s, and that future has remained a moving target, with various trends such as the youth soccer boom of the 1980s and massive Hispanic immigration of the past three decades failing to fully win America over to “the world’s game.” But, dreamt in the afterglow of the United States’ wildly successful turn as the hosts of the 1994 World Cup, Major League Soccer (MLS) has through fits and starts established a permanent place on the North American sports landscape. Hemorrhaging hundreds of millions through its first decade of existence, the league’s fortunes have slowly turned towards profitability as teams have increased revenue through mid-sized stadia built specifically for soccer and cost control measures such as a salary cap and structural limits on free agency. Through this carefully-managed growth, and the wild success of recent expansion franchises in Toronto and the Pacific Northwest, MLS has hinted at the potential for offering owners a far higher return on capital than any of the “big four” sports (MLB, NFL, NBA, NHL) while offering far lower average ticket prices.

While the foundation for the league’s viability is built on its “single-entity” structure, its path to profitability comes from its focus on controlling the revenue from its stadia. Playing its first season in largely NFL-sized stadia in 1996, MLS struggled to fill the seats and typically paid large rents to a competing entity. But by 2004, there were signs of a turnaround, with a renewed focus on the bottom line. The appointment of former NFL executive Don Garber as commissioner in 1998 began a decade-long focus on building soccer-specific stadiums, which served two key purposes in buffering MLS’s bottom line. First, by creating artificial scarcity and a more intimate venue, the 20,000-25,000-seat venues would boost the game day experience for fans and generate higher ticket prices than the cavernous NFL stadia. More importantly, teams are able to harness the revenues streams from parking, concessions and advertising their games generate rather than pay rent (Goff 2010). Averaging a new stadium per year over the past eight years, attendance grew to the point at which it is the 13<sup>th</sup>-best attended soccer league in the world.

Tellingly, the price of an expansion team has gone from the \$10 million Real Salt Lake and Toronto FC each paid in 2004 to \$40 million for Montreal, which will enter the league in 2012. Existing teams have had similar appreciations in value (Mickle 2008). Franchises now are valued at approximately \$30-40 million, compared to \$100 million for the cheapest NHL team, and new technology has allowed teams to build 27,000-seat covered stadiums for as little as \$14 million. Vancouver’s “temporary” Empire Field, built by the Swiss firm Nussli, is a potential game-changer: in theory, if the Whitecaps’ 2011 entrance matches Toronto’s financial performance in 2008 (as preliminary attendance suggests), it could generate \$17 million in revenues and \$2.1 million profit, or a 3.8% ROIC (stadium plus expansion fee) (Constantineau 2010). That would put the team ahead of 16 NHL and 12 NBA teams in 2009 in terms of raw

operating income, according to Forbes estimates, despite exponentially lower overhead (Forbes 2009a, 2009b). Similarly, Portland's MLS feasibility study, which led to the Timbers' 2011 entrance into MLS, estimated that the team could generate as much as \$3 million in sustainable EBITDA off approximately 12,000 per game in average attendance (HVC 2009). Even if the study's authors are off dramatically with their estimates, the lesson is clear: teams that control the revenue streams from their stadiums have a clear path to success operationally and/or via capital gains.

In the presentation, I examine via regression analysis and market studies the effect of the new wave of MLS stadia thinking---that access to mass transportation and a centralized location tend to be more important than the stadium's amenities or acres of parking lots for minivans or, even the team's success. In a particular case study, Vancouver's stadium offers a potential example for older teams in outdated stadia (e.g., D.C. United) to dramatically reshape their balance sheets. The revolutionary addition of three runaway success clubs in the Pacific Northwest (Seattle in 2009, Portland and Vancouver this year), and their precursor in Toronto, has offered MLS a blueprint. While it is doubtful that MLS will compete talent-wise with the English and Spanish leagues anytime soon, or on a raw revenue basis or for television audience with any other major North American sport, it appears it could soon offer something to fans (an affordable product) and owners (operating profits) that are almost extinct in the sports industry landscape.

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## **A Comparison of Online and In Person Survey Methods Related to Direct Spending and a Large Volleyball Event**

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Sport Commissions and Convention and Visitor Bureaus representing many cities from across the United States are actively involved in recruiting sporting events to their communities in order to reap the benefits of out of town tourist spending. The economic impact of large sporting events can be significant for host communities. In recent years, a number of economic impact studies (Crompton & McKay, 1994; Dolnicar, Laesser & Matus, 2009; Mondello & Riske, 2004) have been conducted in order to assess and validate community expenditures that are directed at attracting sporting events to selected communities. In the past, the most common method of collecting economic impact data has been to conduct an in person paper and pencil survey just prior to the start or during a sporting event. With advances in computer technology, a number of economic impact studies are now being conducted after the sporting event has ended. A major question has surfaced in recent years as to whether in person paper and pencil surveys conducted prior to or during a sporting event are more accurate and effective than post event online surveys. The purpose of this study was to examine the differences between in person and online survey methods while studying direct spending patterns at a large volleyball event held in the mid-Atlantic region of the United States. A total of 396 (223 in person and 173 online) event attendees (e.g., parents and relatives of volleyball tournament participants) responded to the direct spending survey. In person surveys were collected during the three day volleyball tournament and online surveys were collected three days after the event ended. The average age of the respondents was 44.3 years (in person) and 45.3 years (online). The average travel party size was 5.3 (in person) and 4.4 (online). The round-trip distance traveled to the event was reported as 408.5 miles for the in person respondents and 430.9 for the online respondents. The average number of nights stayed in a hotel/motel was listed as 2.8 nights (in person) and 2.7 nights (online). A majority of respondents to the surveys were female (71.3% in person and 57.8% online). The primary racial group reported by the respondents was Caucasian (88.4% in person and 94.6% online). Both in person and online respondents indicated middle to upper middle family income levels. A t-test was performed on each of the direct spending variables for the in person and online respondents with  $\alpha=.05$ . Significant differences were found between in person and online responses to the direct spending categories of food and beverage, retail shopping, transportation, tourist attractions, and entertainment and recreation. Direct spending categories that usually receive advanced planning such as lodging and registration and fees showed no significant differences. Most of the in person during event surveys provided direct spending figures that were consistently higher than the post event online surveys. During event surveys were based primarily on estimates of

spending whereas the post event online surveys allowed respondents to review spending records once they returned home. As direct spending and economic impact surveys continue to be conducted in connection with sporting events, it appears that online direct spending surveys should be considered as a clear alternative to the traditional in person surveys that are conducted prior to or during sporting events.

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# Managing Pedestrian Risks: Practical Implications for Sport and Entertainment Managers

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Spectators are exposed to a variety of risks when attending sport and entertainment events. Many of these events attract a large number of spectators, and managing risks associated with pedestrian safety is an important consideration for sport and entertainment managers. Though a growing number of sport and entertainment venues are planned and built with ease of access and pedestrian safety in mind, many spectators continue to walk a considerable distance to and from these venues. Distracted driving and walking, alcohol consumption, and lack of appropriate infrastructure, signage, and education contribute to pedestrian dangers (Egberts & Connaughton, 2011). Pedestrians are common in many roadway environments and are victim to a significant number of traffic-related injuries and deaths. In 2009, traffic (motor vehicle) crashes in the U.S. claimed the lives of 4,092 pedestrians and injured an estimated 59,000 (National Highway Traffic Safety Administration (NHTSA), 2010). On average, in 2009, a pedestrian was injured every nine minutes and one killed every two hours in a traffic-related crash. Despite the lower percentage of walking trips, pedestrians remain 1.5 times more likely than passenger-vehicle occupants to be killed in a crash on each trip (Beck, Dellinger, & O'Neil, 2007). Alcohol use by spectators in and around sport and entertainment venues is common and should be considered when managing pedestrian safety. Alcohol use was involved in 48 percent of traffic crashes resulting in a pedestrian fatality in 2009, with 35 percent of those pedestrians having a blood alcohol level of .08 g/dL or higher (NHTSA, 2010). Additionally, NHTSA (2010) reported nearly 70 percent of pedestrian fatalities in 2009 occurred at nighttime. There are inherent risks whenever pedestrians interact with traffic. Sport and entertainment events often draw large crowds which walk to and from events from adjacent parking areas and garages, as well as from venue property. Through adopting a research of literature approach, this study summarized, synthesized, and analyzed reported case studies on pedestrian injuries and fatalities. Practical risk management implications and recommendations, as well as suggestions for research will be provided.

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## **Guilty Until Proven Innocent: Are Finances Guiding the NCAA's Decision Making with Respect to Infractions**

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With the increased media coverage of NCAA Football Championship Subdivision (FCS), many pundits of college football have taken a stance that program's under investigation for rules infractions are invariably guilty. An observation often made is one of; where there is smoke, there must be fire. The media scrutiny surrounding allegations of bylaw violations, or infractions, has intensified in part due to the ever expanding, and innovative, technology changing the landscape of how sports are covered. For every respected journalist there seems to be twenty bloggers who are quick to opine. It isn't difficult to find a financial connection between these perceived "dirty" programs and the NCAA decision-making processes, as it is in the NCAA's best interest to allow universities who are successful on the field to continue to play, and henceforth earn more revenue.

Although public perception seems to be that there are a plethora of universities that have major rules violations, in the past five years there have been only ten violations for FCS programs. Of those ten teams, only five have been FCS Bowl eligible. In fact, many schools that are suspected to have committed violations, and are perceived as if they were already guilty during investigations, have their cases concluded to little acknowledgment or mention of their innocence. As a sporting society there seems to be an ever-present sense of schadenfreude every time a popular university is alleged to have committed a violation.

It is understandable why the NCAA and its' member institutions are looked upon in such an unflattering light by the media at large. The NCAA makes hundreds of millions of dollars with their contract for the Bowl Championship Series (BCS). Member institutions that play in a BCS game also stand to make millions of dollars. There have been many rules violations that have occurred that directly impacted the NCAA and BCS, most notably the Reggie Bush and the University of Southern California case. Most recently, Ohio State University was found guilty of an illegal benefits scandal prior to 2011 Sugar Bowl. The NCAA's actions in regards to these two situations highlight examples of the possibility of finances guiding their decision-making. In each case, the teams that were under suspicion were allowed to play in the bowl game, and in turn collect their appearance fees. Ratings for the bowl games were extremely high and helped generate additional revenue through commercials, ticket sales, and other avenues for the NCAA and BCS.

There are essentially four ways that teams can be penalized for violating NCAA bylaws. The first, and most ethical, way is through self-reporting. The University of North Carolina did this prior to the 2010 season when they became aware of possible academic violations. They took preemptive measures to suspend all players who were

believed to be involved pending an official NCAA investigation. A second, but less common way, is to self impose penalties prior to season starting, but after an investigation has begun by the NCAA. The University of Miami took this route after a booster alleged to give improper benefits over several seasons to Miami football players. The NCAA investigation is currently ongoing. A third, and common stance, is to wait for the NCAA to take action and impose penalties after the sanctions and findings have concluded during the season. Ohio State is the most recent example of this situation where players were found to have received improper benefits and were suspended following the BCS bowl game for five games the following season. This scenario is the example that sheds the most light onto the NCAA having their decision-making for financial reasons called into question. Lastly, it is not uncommon for the NCAA to conduct an investigation after a season has concluded and retroactively assess penalties for violations as was the case with the University of Southern California.

The latest, and most telling, scenario guiding the premise that the NCAA may be motivated by finances while investigating possible rules violations, in addition to the media portraying the university of being guilty, is that of the 2011 National Champion Auburn Tigers. During the 2010-2011 season, Auburn quarterback, Cam Newton, was under investigation for his father selling his son's services for an alleged price of \$180,000. Media members were quick to point to Newton's past NCAA violations and also his past legal issues to render him guilty before the investigation had even officially gotten underway. Auburn, in the midst of a successful season, decided to bench Newton prior to the game as the allegations were being reported. After conducting their own internal investigation, Newton was reinstated to the team, without missing a game, and remained a starter for the rest of the season. The NCAA was being criticized for not acting quickly enough to resolve the investigation prior to the SEC championship game, and subsequent BCS national title game, which Auburn would go on to win. Six months later the NCAA would release their findings of the investigation where they concluded that no violations had occurred. Nevertheless, the damage to Cam Newton and Auburn by the national media was irrevocably damaged and tainted their championship. The NCAA seems to have been vindicated for allowing Auburn to continue playing Newton during the season, without having to answer questions of their motives for the allowance. Had it been found that he was in fact guilty, the NCAA would have seen their second national champion found guilty and had their title revoked.

The aim of this poster is to present the various scenarios where the NCAA may have been financially driven to delay investigations, render punishment that favors their BCS agreement, and/or overlooks violations until after the season has concluded while also delving into whether it is financially responsible to be ethical for FCS member universities in self reporting possible NCAA rules violations.

# NCAA Division I Strength Facilities: A Design and Operational Analysis

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While spectator venues typically gain a great deal of notoriety and coverage within the sport media, the less publicized facilities used for the daily training and development of the athlete are vital to his/her general performance and overall satisfaction. Within intercollegiate sport, the strength and condition facility (SCF) is one of the primary training areas utilized by nearly every athletic program participant. As the financial stakes of intercollegiate athletics continue to expand, university athletic programs continue to seek opportunities to attract better athletes and to physically develop these athletes within their span of eligibility. The SCF can become a critical component of this development process. However, because the SCF is neither the competitive venue nor the primary practice area for most sports, it is often overlooked from a facility design and operations perspective. This study sought to examine collegiate SCFs in order to better define their size and scope, the equipment utilized and the operational and staffing patterns present.

A total of 110 NCAA Division I universities participated in this study. Head strength coaches were surveyed to determine the size and scope of their facilities and equipment along with an analysis of their operations within their athletic departments. Strength coaches completed this 84-item survey hosted online with the inQsit system. Descriptive statistics and Pearson correlation analyses were conducted with SPSS version 17.0.

Facility size results indicated that the mean primary SCF size was 7,170 square feet, and the combined strength facility size for all athlete SCF areas was 10,557 square feet. Athlete-exclusive strength facilities have become more common in the university setting with 67.3% reporting the creation of exclusive facilities in the past 20 years. A further trend of exclusivity has expanded to the creation of football-only facilities within 90.7% of the schools. The trend of multiple sites is also demonstrated through the finding of a mean of 2.6 SCFs per school. An analysis of space allocations within the facilities revealed mean values of 71.3% for free weights, 17.9% for machine weights (both selectorized and plateloaded), and 9.1% for cardio areas. In addition, major facility renovation occurred within the past five years for 63.3% of the surveyed schools. SCF size was significantly positively correlated with total school enrollment ( $r = .316, p = .008$ ) and maximum safe capacity ( $r = .667, p < .001$ ).

Just as important as the amount of space available for the SCF is the equipment used. Therefore, both types and amounts of equipment were assessed. Free weight equipment was the most prevalent type present in 100% of the SCFs. Squat rack stations were most common ( $M=10.4$ ) ranging from 1 to 40, followed by bench press stations ( $M=9.0$ ) ranging from 0 to 40, Olympic platforms ( $M=8.2$ ) ranging from 0 to 40,

and dumb bell sets ( $M=1.9$ ) ranging from 0 to 8. Equipment in the machine weight category was assessed in two different classes: selectorized and plate loaded. Selectorized weight machines were present in 91.8% of the schools averaging 6.5 different machine types with a range of 1 to 19. Plate loaded machines were present in 73.6% of the SCFs averaging 4.4 different machine types per SCF with a range of 1 to 14 types. Cardiovascular training machines were included in 82.7% of the SCFs. Most prevalent were standard exercise bikes followed by treadmills and elliptical machines.

In order to assess the SCF operation, several staffing and organization aspects were assessed. The mean SCF staff size was 7.7 employees ranging from 3 to 24. Three types of strength coach staff members were present in every SCF with the following means: full-time ( $M=3.6$ ), part-time ( $M=1.5$ ), and graduate assistant ( $M=2.6$ ). An average of 13.8 athletic teams utilized the SCF ranging from 2 to 24. In order to accommodate these teams, the weekday opening time ranged from 5:00 to 8:00AM ( $M=5:54AM$ ), and the weekday closing time ranged from 4:30 to 9:30PM ( $M=6:48PM$ ). The operational strategies to cover these hours included eight hour shifts (47.8%), specific team(s) assignment (38.9%), and split shifts (9.7%). Special training in the form of certification was indicated in 93.6% of head strength coaches including: CSCS (74.5%), USAWF (53.6%), and SCCC (21.8%). Additionally, 62.7% of the schools reported that every member of their staff was certified. The typical level of daily use ranged from 40 to 700 individuals ( $M=258$ ), while the estimates of SCF safe user capacity ranged from 6 to 500 ( $M=51$ ).

From a budgetary perspective SCFs were assessed in the areas of equipment replacement and equipment maintenance budgets. Annual equipment replacement budgets included 31.2 % of universities indicating \$5,000 to \$10,000 in expenditures, 26.4% with less than \$5000 annually, and an additional 19.0% having no budget allocation in this area. Equipment maintenance added \$1,001 to \$5,000 to the budget for 42.6% of the schools annually. These generally modest amounts relate to the finding that 56.9% of the schools reported a majority of their equipment was less than five years old, and 36.1% reported use of external maintenance contracts for their equipment.

The enormous financial rewards for a successful athletic program have fueled an arms race among National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) member institutions to build larger, more lavish venues that can serve to attract prospective athletes. Over a recent span of five years, schools in the NCAA's top six sport conferences raised more than \$3.9 billion for new sport facilities, according to the *Chronicle of Higher Education* (Wolverton, 2007). Schools engage in this arms race by building and upgrading stadiums, training facilities, offices, and meeting rooms. Before evaluating and/or constructing a SCF facility, it is important that one has a clear understanding of the programmatic objectives and the vision of the facility design. It is important for the planners to consider the desired outcomes of the completed facility. These outcomes should focus upon, but not be limited to: maximizing the use of existing or future space, assuring the safety of participants, achieving program objectives successfully, and increasing user satisfaction.

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## Marketing Segmentation of Division I School Fans through Socio-Demographics and Consumption Level

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The saga of athletic programs' operating expenses exceeding revenues continues to plague many universities (Knight Commission, 2010). For example, Fulks (2008) reported an average increase of 43% in operating spending, while only an approximate growth of 33% in revenue. Aligned with these results, a recent *National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Revenues and Expenses Report* noted that program deficits have risen 35% in Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) programs in just four years (NCAA, 2010). In fact, the NCAA recently reported that 80% (94/119) of FBS institutions had average losses of \$9.9 million (NCAA). Thus, the ever growing need to drive collegiate athletic consumption is at the forefront of most programs, especially given that ticket sales account for approximately 28% of revenues (Knight Commission, 2010). However, collegiate athletic program have constantly faced challenges in finding the necessary fiscal resources to adequately support their programs (Fulks, 2008). Therefore, it is important to understand the market segmentation concept.

According to Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton (2007) and Pitts and Stotlar (2002), market segmentation is central to the understanding of sport consumer behaviors, which would provide crucial information that can be used to design marketing strategies and activities aimed to attract and retain consumers. Segmentation is a process of dividing a large, heterogeneous market into more homogeneous groups of people, who have similar needs and wants, and are likely to exhibit similar consumption behaviors (Weinstein, 1994). In order for sport organizations to remain competitive, they must be able to develop and refine their products and services to meet the needs and preferences of consumers of diverse backgrounds. Due to the relative ease of obtaining information such as age, race, and education, demographic segmentation is the most widely used method of segmentation. Researchers have identified a number of sociodemographic variables that are associated with the level of sport consumption. Consumption level would be another popular form of market segmentation, through which consumers are categorized into groups based on their types of membership, frequency of attendance, and level of purchases. Mullin et al. (2007) indicated that when possible, it would be advantageous to adopt multiple approaches of market segmentation, which would help provide more specific information about the consumers. The purpose of this study was twofold: (a) conducting a market segmentation of Division I School fans according to their socio-demographics and Division I School fans' consumption levels, respectively, and (b) examining the relationships between sociodemographics and levels of consumption of Division I School fans.

A total of 522 participants were recruited from Division I university. They responded to a survey that included socio-demographic variables (gender, ethnicity, marital status,

education level, occupation, and household income) and variables assessing Division I University attendance. Descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis were conducted by applying the SPSS 18.0 program. Descriptive statistics were calculated for the sociodemographic variables and consumption variables. ANOVA was conducted in order to reveal significant differences across sociodemographic variables and consumption variable.

Results indicated that 80% of the participants were between 18 and 34 years of age. Also, 80% of respondents were driving within 50 miles to attend the game, while 10% of participants drove 100 miles to attend game. The participants were of various educational backgrounds and occupations, with a majority having at least some college experience (77.3 %) and being educator/student (51%) or professional (14.4%). Regarding household income level, 59% of participants had less than \$40,000 annually. ANOVA revealed that Division I fan attendance consumption level was significantly influenced by age [ $F(2, 353) = 20.1, p > .05$ ], marital status [ $F(4, 361) = 11.0, p > .05$ ], education [ $F(3, 351) = 6.81, p > .05$ ], occupation [ $F(11, 328) = 7.23, p > .00$ ], and income [ $F(11, 298) = 3.09, p > .001$ ]. However, gender was not found to be significantly related to the consumption level [ $F(2, 364) = .877, p < .05$ ], neither was ethnicity [ $F(5, 364) = 1.00, p > .05$ ].

The findings of this study revealed that Division I fans of various ages, marital statuses, education, occupation, and income had different consumption level of attendance, which were likely due to the differences in their needs, wants, preferences, disposal resources, availability, and even lifestyles. While young male singles with good family income are likely the core market segment of Division I school fans, greater marketing efforts and service activities should be targeted at attracting adult members, female consumers, and even families. When formulating promotional strategies, differential marketing procedures may be formulated and used to specifically address the uniqueness of needs for members with difference combination of socio-demographics and consumption levels.

# Think Green: Spectators Thoughts to Improve Recycling Programs

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## Motivations

Sport organizations have been challenged to decrease their overhead costs in all areas within their organization. One such way to reduce costs and improve their image is by way of environmental initiatives like recycling and composting. The San Francisco Giants implemented such a program, which saved the organization nearly \$200,000 in 2005 (Williams & Sherman, 2005). Despite the potential of these environmental programs some sport organizations unknowingly introduce programs without understanding spectator recycling behaviors. Decreasing the organization's impact on the environment and their bottom line is in the hands of the spectator. To further understand sport spectator recycling behaviors, this study examines the obstacles and suggestions of season ticket holders to increase sport spectator recycling while attending large scale sporting events.

## Methods

The interview guide was formulated based on the theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1985; 1991). Based on the recommendations of Ajzen (1991) and Stake (2000), three groups of sport spectators were identified that attended PCU's (school pseudonym) home football games. These groups were identified to be sets of spectators that would provide the richest data. Participants were chosen based on three criteria: willingness to participate in the study, regular attendance of PCU home football games (3 or more home games attended in the previous season) and awareness of PCU's recycling program. In total, 16 participants were interviewed until data saturation (6 students, 5 non-student adults without luxury seats, and 5 non-students with luxury seats). Further, 6 women and 10 men participated in the study, with an age range from 20 to 69 years ( $M = 37.44$ ).

## Analysis

Participants engaged in semi-structured interviews where they were asked to recall and recreate their own experiences while tailgating and attending PCU home football games. Participants were asked about their experiences with recycling and were asked to provide their recommendations to the athletic department on how to increase spectator recycling. Throughout the study a constructivist (interpretivist) paradigm was used. The raw data were analyzed, broken down into emerging themes, and categorized respectively. Additionally, steps were taken to increase trustworthiness and credibility through the use of peer debriefers and member checks, respectively (Lincoln & Guba, 1995).

## Results

Three themes emerged from the data collected from the participants that can be used to increase spectator recycling; norm transmissions, behavioral prompts, and improved image. Participants commonly referred to norm transmission (Cialdini & Trost, 1998). These norms can originate from "anyone in one's social-sphere, including children,

partners, family, friends, coworkers, strangers, and the media” (Cialdini & Trost, 1998, p. 154). Having spectators simply see other spectators recycle can increase spectator recycling. Additionally, having spectators see the athletes recycle during the event can encourage further recycling by spectators.

Similarly, the second theme that emerged from the participants was behavioral prompts (see Hopper & Nielsen, 1991). These prompts can come in the form of additional signage showing where recycling receptacles are located and what can be recycled. These signs can reduce confusion among spectators as well as serve as a reminder to recycle. Additionally, in keeping with the first theme, public announcements by significant figures (i.e., popular athletes and coaches) were recommended by the participants in this study to encourage spectators to recycle.

Lastly, the sport organization has the opportunity to improve their image through the promotion of environmentally friendly programs like recycling (McCullough & Cunningham, 2010). As suggested by participants, sport organizations are not necessarily focused on recycling programs, in particular college athletic programs. They are the so-called “Neanderthals” on a college campus. However, athletic departments and professional sport organizations can use their social influence to change the behaviors of spectators while improving their image for engaging in such programs. These three themes can be applied directly to sport organizations as they introduce and even improve recycling programs.

### **Implications**

Sport organizations commonly introduce recycling programs because of the relative ease to implement, manage, and wide visibility to spectators. However, organizations may haphazardly implement these programs without the proper forethought to be used as a tool to reduce solid waste disposal costs. Despite these shortcomings, understanding spectator recycling behaviors can fiscally help the organization as well as provide a richer return from the investment in such programs. As more organizations start their own greening programs, deeper care and attention to the effectiveness of these programs is needed.

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## Soccer Specific Stadia & Designated Players: Exploring the Major League Soccer Attendance Assumption?

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One of the most significant elements in profit outcomes for a sport organization is ticket sales (Irwin, Sutton, & McCarthy, 2008). Prior research has established relationships between a variety of factors and spectator attendance patterns in the United States yet much of this body of work considers the “big three” sports of football, basketball, and baseball. While the global literature on soccer spectator attendance is abundant (Allen & Roy, 2008; Brandes, Franck, & Nuesch, 2008; Garcia & Rodríguez, 2002; Madalozzo & Villar, 2009), these studies and respective findings are contextual and therefore not applicable to professional soccer in North America.

The following study is specific in scope. It seeks to explore the relationship between Major League Soccer (MLS) attendance figures and two conspicuous trends permeating the league, 1) the construction and finance of soccer specific stadia and 2) paying market value for “designated players” (DPs).

Since the opening of Crew Stadium in Columbus, Ohio in 1999, MLS continues to encourage the construction and finance of soccer specific stadia throughout the league. The late Lamar Hunt was the pioneer behind this movement, which presumes (among other benefits) soccer specific stadia will attract larger crowds by providing a more appealing atmosphere for spectators. Although this notion seems plausible and has been recognized by prominent academes (Southall & Nagel, 2007), empirical evidence to support it is elusive.

In 2007 MLS amended its contentious salary cap restrictions to permit franchises to sign one highly marketable player without having the total amount of this particular “designated player’s” salary count against the team’s overall cap. The amendment was a strategic effort to make it possible for the Los Angeles Galaxy to acquire international superstar David Beckham (Wahl, 2009). Although it took nearly two years to achieve approval from the MLS Board of Governors the league ultimately acknowledged the potential positive impact he, and other future international stars, could have on league attendance figures (Dure, 2010; Wahl, 2009). In 2010 the so called “Beckham Rule” was amended. Currently each team has the flexibility to sign two DPs above the salary cap with the option to sign a third for a fee of \$250,000. While earlier findings from Jewel and Molina (2005) indicate MLS attendance is dependent upon the presence of “better players”, analysis considering the presence of DPs on attendance figures across MLS is needed.

A two-factor ANOVA using SPSS statistical analysis software was used to test whether MLS match attendance figures depends on 1) the type of stadium (Soccer Specific or Multi-purpose) and 2) the rated number of DPs on the rosters of competing teams (0= None, 1= At least 1, & 2 or more= Multiple). Consistent with the league’s rationale outlined above, it is hypothesized both factors will have a statistically significant main

effect. Also, it is hypothesized there will not be a statistically significant main effect for the interaction between the two predictors.

The following preliminary results consider data from the first fourteen weeks of the 2011 season ( $N= 139$ ). Full results will be presented later. After identifying and eliminating outliers, the Levene's Test of Equal Variance indicates the homogeneity of variance assumption is met,  $F(5,123) = .948, p > .05$ . Results from the Two Factor ANOVA indicate there is neither a statistically significant main effect for type of stadium,  $F(1, 123) = .079, p > .05$  nor for the interaction between type of stadium and number of DPs,  $F(2, 123) = .021, p > .05$ . However, there is a statistically significant main effect for the rated number of DPs on the rosters of the competing teams,  $F(2,123) = 8.301, p < .001, \eta^2 = .119$  on attendance figures.

A Tukey post hoc method of multiple comparisons shows there is a statistically significant attendance difference for matches with no DPs and those with multiple DPs ( $p < .05$ ) as well as matches with 1 DP and those with multiple DPs ( $p < .001$ ). Specifically, league matches with multiple DPs outperformed league matches featuring no DP and 1 DP by at least 1,544 and 2,462 spectators respectively.

The preliminary results support the league's motives for introducing and later amending the designated player rule. Surprisingly, considering available data there is no statistical evidence to suggest soccer specific stadia correlates with higher attendance figures across the league. Additional observations and analysis are needed to fully understand this phenomenon.

Finally, the limitations of this study should be made explicit. Previous research has established many other significant factors in explaining the variance of attendance figures for professional sports in the United States (Shank, 2009). These predictors represent opportunities for future inquiry.

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# Sponsorship Effectiveness in Ultimate Fighting Championship

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## Motivation

The purpose of the current study is to determine the level at which ultimate fighting championship (UFC) event viewers recall and recognize fighter and event sponsors. We seek to answer several questions: (a) Are the main sponsors of the individual fighters more memorable to consumers than event sponsors? (b) What causes an event sponsors to be remembered? (c) How does involvement, sponsor/event fit, and sponsor recognition influence purchase intentions?

Many researchers have advanced the sponsorship effectiveness literature through recall and recognition research (e.g. Barros, de Barros, Santos, & Chadwick, 2007; Bennett, Hensen, & Zhang, 2002; Nufer & Buhler, 2010; Walsh, Kim, & Ross, 2008). However, there is little understanding of UFC event sponsorship effectiveness. Over the past decade UFC's popularity has caused television broadcasts to increase tremendously. "UFC television events now draw better cable ratings in key demographics than NBA, NHL, and MLB games" (Kim, Greenwell, Andrew, Lee, & Mahony, 2008, p. 109). "Brand recall is unaided" (Walsh et al., 2008, p. 206) and when consumers are able to recall a sponsor they are "enhancing brand preference for the sponsors products" (Barros et al., 2007, p. 169). Recognition studies focus on aided recall from a list of potential sponsors (Bennett et al., 2002).

## Methods

This study used a convenience sample of students enrolled in a sport management course at a large southwest university. The current sample consists of 60 participants, mainly white (73%) male (60%), with an average age of 21 years old. This sample size will increase after August 22, 2011, as we will be collecting more participants on this date.

Participants were asked to watch a 25 minute pre-recorded fight. The video was selected because it included the entire main-event of UFC 79 (i.e. pre-event videos, fighter walk-ins and introductions, fight, and the post-fight interviews). Both fighters received approximately the same amount of sponsorship exposure during the video. Fighter sponsors were shown on the clothing of training staff and fighter, as well as their sponsor posters. Event sponsors were seen throughout the video.

After the video they were asked to recall as many sponsors of the fighters as they could remember, without help. The same method was used for event sponsor recall. Then they were asked to select correct fighter sponsors from a list of 10 brands, five actual and five pseudo sponsors. The same method was used for the event sponsors recognition. Then they responded to questions about sponsor/event fit ( $\alpha = .879$ ), purchase intentions ( $\alpha = .785$ ), and involvement ( $\alpha = .943$ ).

## Results

Of all fighter sponsors, the winning fighter's clothing sponsor was recalled the most (63%). Only 17% recalled the losing fighter's clothing sponsor, even though both had equal exposure. The rest of the fighter's sponsors were rarely recalled. Interestingly, recognition rates increased for the losing fighter's clothing sponsor (17% to 58%). Likewise, the winning clothing sponsor received a 24-percentage point.

The most commonly recalled event sponsor was Harley Davidson and Mickey's Fine Malt Liquor, with 40% of participants recalling both. Another major sponsor, Lumber Liquidators, was recalled by 18.3 percent of the sample. During recognition, Harley received a 22-percentage point increase, Mickey's 17-percentage point increase, and Lumber Liquidators 23-percentage point increase.

To determine predictors of purchase intentions, we used a linear regression. Purchase intentions were positively predicted by involvement ( $\beta=.281$ ,  $p=.022$ ), sponsor/event fit ( $\beta=.330$ ,  $p=.006$ ), and event sponsor recognition ( $\beta=.1.97$ ,  $p=.103$ ) ( $F=6.697$ ,  $df = 56$ ,  $p<.05$ ). There were no issues with multicollinearity ( $VIF<1.08$ ,  $CI<13.37$ ).

## Implications

The winning fighter's clothing company was recalled and recognized at a higher rate than that of the losing fighter. This might suggest that favorable attitudes toward the winning fighter might cause the consumer to remember the fighter's sponsors. This might be further explained by the participants remembering the losing fighter's clothing company at a higher rate, only after they were reminded.

Results of the event sponsor recall and recognition have several interesting implications. Harley Davidson had a large logo on the center of the ring, and was the main sponsor of the event. They also had virtual logos during the introduction of the fighters. Mickey's was recalled at the same rate as Harley, even though Mickey's largest logo was smaller than Harley's. Mickey's logo was seen more than Harley's, due to where the fighters spent most of the fight. Therefore, sponsors should be aware that their logos might be recalled more often if they are in the view of the consumers.

Fights that occur predominantly standing up, may have a wider camera shot of the ring; so larger logos may be more visible. However, fights that occur primarily on the ground, such as this study's fight (GSP/Hughes), may have closer camera angles, which may not show all the sponsors. Therefore, sponsors should also be aware of the type of fighters performing before negotiating the sponsorship deal.

Our linear regression reveals that when consumers are more involved, find there to be a higher sponsor/event fit, and are able to recognize the sponsors, they are more likely to purchase the sponsor's goods or services. It is important for sponsors and event promoters to recognize the importance of fit and recognition of sponsors when attempting to induce purchase intentions.

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## Examining the Relationship between Team Identification and Service Quality in College Sport Website

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College sport fans interact with college sport websites to access game schedules, players' information, ticket sales, online shopping, message boards, and chat rooms with others. Additionally, the recent emergence of media technologies (e.g., podcast, live broadcasts, social networking, mobile networking) has encouraged more interaction with sport fans, and those technologies have been updated in many sport websites (Loakimidis, 2010). In these competitive surroundings, it is indispensable for sport marketers of college websites to understand consumers' perceptions of website service quality.

According to previous research (Cronin, Brady, & Hult, 2000; Theodorakis & Alexandris, 2008; Tsuji, Bennett & Zhang, 2007), two significant findings were proven: (1) service quality directly influenced customer satisfaction, and 2) customer satisfaction worked as a mediator between service quality and behavioral intentions. Therefore, maintaining a successful college sport website would mainly rely on deriving positive behavioral intentions, which can be enhanced by great quality of service. Along with the importance of website service quality, team identification has gained attention and has been studied by many researchers in sport settings. Previous research (Ko et al., 2010) reported that strongly identified fans have more positive perceptions of service quality than weakly identified fans. Additionally, their results indicated that team identification affected consumers' satisfaction and behavioral intentions. However, few studies have been conducted to identify the effects of team identification on perceptions of service quality, satisfaction, and revisitation of college sport website users.

The purpose of the current study is, therefore, to identify the factors of website service quality and to investigate the relationship between team identification, perceived service quality, satisfaction, and revisitation. Based on an electronic service quality literature review, the proposed model included five service quality dimensions (i.e., usability, security, reliability, content, visuality). The data were collected from 409 students enrolled in at large mid-western university in the United States. All analyses were conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) 17.0 and AMOS 6.0. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) were performed to understand the relationship between team identification, perceived service quality, satisfaction, and revisitation. The overall model fit of the structural model was found to be good (i.e., Chi-square = 1618.152, df = 518, RMSEA = .072, CFI = .93, SRMR = .064). The results revealed that team identification had a positive and significant effect (.37,  $p < .05$ ) on service quality. Team identification was also positively and significantly correlated with satisfaction (.09,  $p < .05$ ) and revisitation (.17,  $p < .05$ ). In summary, team identification has a considerable impact on each construct (e.g.,

service quality, satisfaction, revisitation). Given these results, theoretical and practical implications for future research will be discussed in this presentation.

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## The Role of Antitrust Law in Non-Team Sports

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Recently, professional sports leagues have garnered much attention due to expiring collective bargaining agreements and potential antitrust claims that may arise as a result. The Supreme Court's ruling in *American Needle v. NFL* has left leagues without a single entity defense in antitrust challenges. However, the non-team professional sports organizations such as golf, tennis, or automobile racing may still have a chance. While the challenges of these sports do not mirror those of professional team sports, antitrust law has had an influence, nonetheless.

Sports have introduced a unique problem in the application of the Sherman Act. Other than Major League Baseball, no other professional sports league has enjoyed an exemption from antitrust law (Kahn, 2009). As a result, courts have had to reconcile the purpose and goals of antitrust law with the necessary agreements and restraints essential for the success of professional sports. Fortunately, labor law has shielded professional sports leagues from some antitrust scrutiny through the labor exemption. The non-statutory labor exemption allows employers and employees to collectively bargain terms that would otherwise violate the Sherman Act (McCormick, 1997). The parties to a collective bargaining relationship are free to negotiate terms and conditions of employment, which in the realm of sports can include salary, rules of the games and other elements of the sport (McCormick, 1997). In the absence of a collective bargaining relationship, non-team sports cannot not assert this defense (Bolen, 2010). Without a complete antitrust exemption or a labor exemption, non-team sports are more susceptible to antitrust challenges.

*Copperweld Corp. v. Independent Tube* opened the door for another possible exemption from antitrust challenges under Section 1 of the Sherman Act. There, the Supreme Court ruled that a parent and wholly-owned subsidiary could not constitute an agreement or combination required under Section 1 because there is "complete unity of interest (*Copperweld Corp. v. Independent Tube Corp.*, 1984 at 2741). While the Supreme Court limited its holding to parent corporations and their wholly-owned subsidiary, professional leagues have argued for an extension to include their organizations.

The Supreme Court answered the question of whether leagues should be granted single entity status in *American Needle v. NFL*. In rejecting the single entity defense, the court echoed the sentiments of *Copperweld* stating that the teams that make up the league lack a complete unity of interest and still retain their own individual economic goals that make them competitors (*American Needle v. National Football League*, 2010). While the impact of *American Needle* is most obvious for the team sports, its impact on non-team sports is less clear.

The role of antitrust law in general, has been tenuous in the realm of non-team sports. Cases concerning non-team sports have slowly evolved. Even after the court in *NCAA v. Board of Regents of University of Oklahoma* held that the rule of reason was the appropriate in sports cases, other courts were still hesitant to automatically apply the rule of reason analysis (*Volvo v. Men's International Professional Tennis Council*, 1988).

The courts have been confronted with the issue of single entity status for non-team sports indirectly and, coincidentally, have responded to it indirectly, so as to avoid making an absolute judgment for non-team sports. It would appear that non-team sports would make the decision of single entity status a relatively simple one. However, the inevitable existence and necessity of joint ventures and sponsorships for tournaments complicate the issue.

The attention given to antitrust cases concerning professional team sports has overshadowed the complex antitrust issues in non-team sports. Countless articles have been devoted to dissecting and analyzing the decisions concerning the major professional leagues, while very few have focused on non-team sports, which leads one to question how antitrust law has been applied in those cases. A bigger question is whether the governing bodies of non-team sports should be (or can be) granted single entity status in light of *American Needle*.

### **Purpose of Study**

The purpose of this study is to analyze how antitrust law has been applied to non-team sports and the possible ramifications of *American Needle v. NFL* on future case law involving non-team sports.

### **Methods**

A comprehensive analysis of cases will be performed to review the application of antitrust law on non-team sports in the United States. The scope of case law for this study will consist of all federal circuits and the United States Supreme Court. A purposive sample of all minable cases concerning non-team sports challenged under antitrust law will be collected to analyze and evaluate the evolution of the application of the Sherman Antitrust Act. The most recent cases involving antitrust law and professional sports will be examined to extract the main elements influencing the courts' decisions. A discussion of those relevant elements as they may apply to future cases involving non-team sports will follow.

### **Implications**

While it is impossible to predict how courts will resolve future legal controversies, existing case law does provide insight into how courts apply antitrust law to non-team sports to detect any patterns that make exist in the decisions. This study will seek to extract the relevant factors in case law in hopes of providing guidance for future cases involving non-team sports.

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# North American Major Sports Teams are Big Business: All Cities are Not Equal

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This study purpose was to better understand the numbers behind North America's top sports leagues and pricing in the luxury suite market. What allows one market to charge a premium when other markets can only command a fraction of the price? When the leagues are aggregated, the National Basketball Association (NBA), National Football League (NFL), National Hockey League (NHL), and Major League Baseball (MLB), are there major distinctions between geographical marketplaces that support different pricing structures? The study limited its scope to teams in the four most popular leagues in North America (n=122).

## Introduction

Luxury suites in professional sport are part of the lifeblood of the sport industry. Forbes values change each year. A star athlete may retire or leave, as LeBron James did with the Cleveland Cavaliers. Their Forbes value dropped \$121 million with his departure. While it might be assumed that the team that wins the championship can charge the most for a premium suite, team performance is only one factor. Forbes assembles a list each year valuing sport franchises in each league in the "Big Four" sports, which might also influence suite pricing.

Teams realize that luxury seating is a revenue generator. The annual revenue all teams generate is estimated at \$5 billion for suites and premium seating (Washington and Miller, 2011). Sport franchises keep most of the revenues from their stadiums. Luxury box revenues need not be shared with other teams, the league, or other owners (Greenberg & Ward, 2010). If teams can figure out how to fill suites, the gains can be tremendous.

## Method

Data was collected on the four professional sports teams using 2010 Forbes values for MLB, NFL, NHL, and 2011 values for NBA. The values are based on the team's current stadium deal (arena for hockey/basketball) or a pending stadium (Forbes.com). Geographic regions were based on the four regions delineated by the United States Census Bureau: Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. Population data was obtained from the 2010 US Census Bureau and Arbitron.

## Results

The Northeast has the fewest teams in the USA, 22, but the highest cost of a suite, at \$537,500. The Northeast has the maximum suite seating capacity for all suites among all areas of North America. The Midwest ranked second highest in number of teams at 29.

By sport, the Northeast region ranks first in three out of four sports for highest mean value of suites: NBA-\$422,000, MLB-\$831,000 and NFL-\$1,128,000. Canada is the only exception and tops the NHL category for suites, with a mean value of \$293,000.

Twenty-two cities have only one professional team: NHL-10, NBA-8, NFL-3 and MLB- 1. Five of Canada's eight teams are in the NHL and are located within these one-team cities.

California, at 15, led the market for most teams in a single state. The West had the lowest mean value in number of luxury suites and ranked third out of four on the high cost of a suite. The Northeast holds the highest mean value for the number of suites, which was consistent with the greater Arbitron population rankings.

### **Discussion**

Los Angeles does not have an NFL team, even though it is the second largest market according to Arbitron. In 1995, the Los Angeles Rams moved to St. Louis, Missouri from Anaheim, California. The team relocated to a newly built St. Louis stadium, and the city guaranteed them "a three-year sellout of sky boxes and luxury seats" (Greenberg & Ward, 2010).

Arbitron's population ranking of metropolitan area plays a role in pricing. The number of Fortune 1000 companies in the marketplace made a significant difference, with few exceptions. The team's geographical location, according to the US Census Bureau, played a significant role in the value of a team (Northeast, South, Midwest or West). Canada's eight teams are part of this study.

Five of the ten most densely populated states in the country are in the Northeast. Washington, D.C. was number one, with 9,856.5 people per square mile. New Jersey ranked a distant second with 1,195.5 people per square mile. Shifts occurred in population growth as well. The South and West experienced the largest increases in population (2010 Census Data). But again, population is only one of many factors.

Stadium location has come full circle. Early ballparks (Yankee Stadium and Fenway Park) were built on inexpensive land, an important issue for owners who financed the facilities. When the population moved from the city to suburbia, the stadium facilities followed.

The issue of teams relocating for better stadiums is not new. The Giants moved to San Francisco for a stadium with 40,000 seats (Chapin, 2000). Walter O'Malley lobbied for a new stadium for the Brooklyn Dodgers in the late 1950s when he recognized the cost/benefit of a modern stadium. The Colts moved to Indianapolis in 1984, the Browns to Baltimore, and the Oilers to Tennessee in the 1990s.

Baseball has grown little since the 1960s—only 12 expansion teams were added up until 1998. It was relatively quiet until the topic of contraction came up, and the MLB determined the Minnesota Twins and Montreal Expos were not financially strong in

relation to the other teams. The league intended to purchase the Twins and contract, or fold the team (Greenberg & Ward, 2010). The Twins remained in Minnesota, and Montreal's team moved to Washington, D.C. The composition of baseball was restructured, but it had little impact on its overall size.

### **Limitations**

Both the Arbitron population ranking of teams and the US Census Bureau findings are limited to US statistics. However Canada should be included given its considerable presence in the NHL. Assessment of population was derived from other sources.

### **Conclusions**

This article provides information about what regions draw the most value for luxury suites. From an economic standpoint, leagues may be assisted with recommendations for new team placements, relocation, or contraction with the actual figures provided. Those people who follow the sports industry might be surprised to discover given the states that lead, these sources of value.

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# An Analysis of Perceived Risk and Corresponding Risk Management Practices Related to Disease Control and Prevention in Club Sport Programs

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Sport activities within campus recreation and club sport programs will always involve a certain amount of risk. It is therefore essential for such club sport programs to identify and address such risks in an effort to reduce them. While club sport program administrators are wise to focus on known risks (based upon frequency and severity), it would also be prudent for them to account for new and emerging areas of risk that may threaten the safety of their staff and/or participants (Fuller & Drawer, 2004; Lee, Farley, & Kwon, 2010; Spengler, Anderson, Connaughton, & Baker, 2009). For example, a risk in the sport environment, which has recently received a great deal of media attention, is potential exposure to bloodborne pathogens and communicable diseases (MRSA, HIV, HBV, Swine Flu, etc.). Disease control and prevention within campus recreation club sport programs is a critical element of a comprehensive risk management (RM) plan. Without it, club sport employees, participants and institutions may be exposed to increased health and liability risks. The purpose of this study was to examine: (1) club sport program administrators' perception of the risk of bloodborne pathogens and communicable diseases to employees and participants, and (2) the scope and nature of RM practices relevant to reducing such risks. Based upon a review of literature, a focus group, and test of content validity, a 40-item online survey, utilizing a 7-point Likert scale and forced response questions, was developed. The study population was the club sport director at every U.S. institution (college/university;  $N = 522$ ) listed in the *NIRSA 2011 Recreational Sports Directory* (NIRSA, 2011). An e-mail containing an informed consent and link to the survey was sent to all directors. Two follow-up e-mails were sent to non-responders and 156 completed surveys were returned, representing a 30% response rate. Data were analyzed using SPSS 17.0 (SPSS, 2008). Respondents indicated that they were familiar with the risk of communicable diseases and bloodborne pathogens in the sport environment, with 84% ( $\bar{x} = 5.12$ ;  $SD = 1.11$ ) reporting that they were familiar to very familiar with the risks. A total of 62.6% ( $\bar{x} = 4.45$ ;  $SD = 1.15$ ) of respondents also rated the risk associated with communicable diseases and bloodborne pathogens within their club sport programs as moderate to extreme. Furthermore, 94.9% ( $\bar{x} = 5.97$ ;  $SD = 0.85$ ) of respondents indicated that there was an increased risk of transmitting communicable diseases and bloodborne pathogens in heavy contact sports such as rugby, wrestling, and boxing. Additionally, 69.3% ( $\bar{x} = 4.96$ ;  $SD = 1.31$ ) indicated that there was an increased risk of transmitting communicable diseases and bloodborne pathogens in sports that require the wearing of significant amounts of protective equipment such as fencing, lacrosse, and ice hockey. The data suggest the respondents' awareness and perception of the risks associated with communicable diseases and bloodborne pathogens is somewhat high, and, therefore, should warrant

the adoption and practice of relevant RM policies. A majority (57.7%) of respondents, however, indicated that they did not have a written RM plan that specifically addressed disease control and prevention. Additionally, 53.2% reported that they did not have an exposure control plan that addressed bloodborne pathogens. Failure to properly manage the risks associated with communicable diseases and bloodborne pathogens in sport can lead to severe infection, illness, death, and subsequent legal claims (Menaker & Connaughton, 2009). It is prudent for club sport program administrators to develop and/or revise RM plans aimed at reducing such risks. Practical implications and suggestions for future research will be provided.

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# **Branding the Sports City: A Case Study of Indianapolis, Ind.**

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## **Introduction**

Professional sport teams can provide the host community with various benefits (e.g., economic, social) and costs (Turco & Lim, 1998). Furthermore, hosting mega events can be essential to the community's development. While sport events offer various benefits for local residents (e.g., job, entertainment, experience), they also aid in building the city's brand image.

## **Literature Review**

Previous studies suggest that various sport teams and events play a significant role in building consumers' perceptions of a city. Several studies have investigated the economic impacts of professional sport teams and events and financial operations (e.g., Turco & Ostrosky, 1997; Baade, 1996; Rosentraub, Swindell, Przybylski, & Mullins, 1994; Johnson, 1993; Rosentraub, 2003). However, little is known about the intangible benefits (e.g., brand image) that hosting sporting events and franchises may provide to a city.

Branding is an important aspect for sport cities, as it may aid city officials in differentiating their city from others in the sport marketplace (Keller, 1993). Previous research has focused on the economic impact of hosting major sporting events. Moreover, these studies tend to be critical of hosting sporting events, and suggest alternatives which may yield a higher return on investment.

Despite the lack of a long term economic impact, many cities covet the opportunity to acquire sports teams and host sporting events (Rosentraub et al., 1994). There is a need to re-evaluate the benefits of hosting sport franchises and events as it relates to strategic brand management. This study will examine the branding of a sports city through a case study of Indianapolis, IN.

In the 1970s, Indianapolis implemented its sport and downtown development program, which included an export and substitution component. The export component focused on sport tourism (i.e., attracting amateur sporting events). The substitution component focused on the acquisition of professional teams to lure citizens downtown to stimulate the local economy (Rosentraub, 2003).

## **Purpose of the Study**

This study will investigate the brand-related benefits of hosting sport franchises and events. Specifically, this study will utilize Indianapolis as a case study. Rosentraub (2006) stated that "no city or region in North America has focused as extensively on sports and hospitality for redevelopment and economic expansion as has Indianapolis."

The impact of hosting sporting events and franchises on the host city can be explained in various ways. In this study, the benefits of hosting sporting events were analyzed through two dimensions (i.e., intangible, tangible). These two benefit dimensions are mutual and occur simultaneously.

### **Method**

Secondary statistical data from Bureau of Tourism in the city of Indianapolis will be used to investigate the economic impact and growth of the city through sport. Additionally, a thorough review of existing sport branding and sport tourism literature will be employed to propose recommendations for other sport cities.

### **Discussion**

Since implementing the sport and downtown development program, Indianapolis has branded itself as the “amateur sports capital of the world.” It is home to several major sports entities, team, and events, such as the NCAA, NCAA Men and Women Final Four, World Gymnastics Championship, Indianapolis 500, Super Bowl XLVI, Big Ten Football and Basketball Championships, and the Pan Am Olympic Games to name a few. Other benefits associated with the city’s sport branding initiative include new sport and hospitality-related jobs, and a national reputation as a sport tourism destination.

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# Exploring Core Product Factors through the Analysis of Taekwondo Match Attack Patterns

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## Introduction

Sporting events provide a unique nature of athletic competition (Madrigal, 1995; Sloan, 1989). The uniqueness, uncertainty, and drama all serve as an important attraction to spectators. The drama that attracts fans to sport maybe attributed to the core element (i.e., game form) more than any other element of the sporting event (Bee & Havitz, 2010).

Specifically, the international sport of Taekwondo has seen interest decline amongst its core consumers. Fans of the sport consider the core product (e.g., the match) to be humdrum and apathetic despite the physical and violent nature of the sport. Moreover, The World Taekwondo Federation (WTF) has made several attempts to rectify the problem by implementing changes to the game form via the official rule book (WTF, 2010).

## Literature Review

Previous research in the area of martial arts has focused on changes made in attack techniques as a result of rule changes (e.g., Ha, 2005; Joo, 2005). Choi & Park (2006) found differences among Taekwondo weight classes and type of starting attack.

In the area of spectator sports, Palmatier, Dant, Grewal, and Evans (2006) found that customer satisfaction has the ability to create long term benefits for sport leagues, including positive word-of-mouth, cross-buying, and customer loyalty. Previous scholars have examined how the peripheral elements of sporting events (e.g., in-game promotions, sponsorship) enhance consumer satisfaction (e.g., Nancy, 1996; Meenaghan, 2001, Urich & Koenigstorfer, 2009). However, there has been limited research as it pertains to how the core sport product and its subsequent rule changes enhance or decline consumer satisfaction.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine elements of the core product (i.e., attack patterns) in professional Taekwondo, and attempt to uncover the factors leading to the lack of customer satisfaction amongst the sport's fans.

## Method

A sample of 15 matches (n=15) from each weight-category were selected from men's performances at the 17<sup>th</sup> National Defense Department Taekwondo championships in Korea. A quantitative content analysis coding sheet was used to analyze players' performances and skill levels (e.g., Middle Dollyo Chagi-1. Middle Dui Chagi-5, etc). Secondly, coders independently recorded the various attack patterns employed by each

participant (i.e., leadoff attack, counterattack, and attack skill per step). Thirdly, inter-coder reliability was achieved (99.4%) by coding five (4.2%) matches of the 120 scheduled matches and proved that the instrument was both valid and reliable.

In regard to data analysis, descriptive statistics were employed to analyze patterns in the number of attack attempt, winner/loser group, attempt skill, score skill, and step score. Secondly, the Chi-square test ( $\chi^2$ ) was utilized to compare and analyze attacking patterns by each weight category, attacking patterns by winner/loser group with an alpha level  $p < .05$ .

## **Result**

The results indicated that the 1st attack pattern was used the most at 2,742 times (70.3%), followed by the 2nd attack pattern which was used 892 times (22.9%), the 3rd attack which was used 201 times (5.2%) and the 4th attack was used 65 times (1.7%).

Also, according to the attack pattern between winner and loser, there were no significant differences on the six weight-categories except for fin-weight ( $\chi^2=14.28$ ,  $df=2$ ,  $p=.001$ ) and feather-weight ( $\chi^2=7.66$ ,  $df=2$ ,  $p=.022$ ). Additionally, the results indicated that the winner group used the 1st attack more than the loser groups, but the loser group used the 2nd attack more than the winner group.

In addition, there were differences in the attacking types between winner and loser that the leadoff attack was shown greater than the counterattack ( $\chi^2=110.29$ ,  $df=1$ ,  $p=.001$ ). The leadoff attack by the winners (50.6%) was less than losers (67.2%). The counterattacks by the winner (49.4%) were greater than loser (32.8%). The six weights excluding welter- and heavy- weight-categories were founds the significant differences ( $p < .05$ ). Also, in the seven weights, excluding light-weight, the number of total winners' attack attempts was less than the losers'.

Finally, the results specified that the Middle Dollyo Chagi, Middle Balbuchyeo, and Middle DollyoChagi were the most commonly used attack patterns.

## **Discussion**

The current study analyzed Taekwondo match attack pattern in order to find core product factor for consumer satisfaction. The uniqueness and uncertainty of the core product outcomes are very important factors for fans. However, the results indicate that Taekwondo matches are very predictable and lack spontaneity. Specifically, most attack attempts were stopped after the first or second attempt, and most winners reduced their attack attempts when they led the match. Therefore, it is apparent that elements of the game form can impact consumer satisfaction.

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## **Stakeholder Influences on Sustainability Practices in Public Assembly Facilities**

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The phrase “going green” is now a commonplace term, heard across several media forums directed at American consumers on a consistent basis. Whether it is for the newest hybrid car or kitchen cleanser, the call for sustainable products has permeated societal culture. For almost forty years, the conservation of natural resources, proper disposal of waste, and reduction of carbon emissions have become worldwide concerns (Ambec & Lanoie, 2008). These (and many other) environmental issues have come to the forefront as the primary global challenge in the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Sachs, 2007). Businesses often make it a requirement for Requests for Proposals (RFPs) when looking to build or partner with other. “The green movement has emerged as a critical business model and facilities that want to be competitive and in the forefront of their industry are taking steps to join the movement” (Wettlaufer, 2009, p.10). An initial step many facilities are taking to join the green movement includes making efforts to make their building more sustainable and have less of an environmental impact. Sustainable practices within industrial buildings are an influential, rapidly growing and evolving field. It is not surprising that this trend has found its way into the business and sport and entertainment industry.

While research on Environmental Social Responsibility (ESR) is gaining momentum (e.g., Husted & de Jesus Salazar, 2006; Siegel & Vitaliano, 2007), environmental research specific to sport and tourism management is still in its infancy. Much of the work in these fields have focused on the environmental drain of golf courses (Schmidt, 2006) and environmental issues associated with sport mega-events (e.g., Berkaak, 1999; Getz, 2005; Leopkey & Parent, 2009; Stubbs, 2001). In addition, conceptual calls for research on the environmental impacts of sport have been forwarded (e.g., Hums, 2010; Thibault, 2009), however, little attention has been paid to how facilities and arenas are addressing environmental issues. This is somewhat surprising since these buildings are where the largest and most visible environmental challenges loom for sport and tourism practitioners. For example, recycling (e.g., cans, cups, food wrappers, discarded game programs, etc.), waste water control (e.g., irrigation, sewage, etc.), kilowatt monitoring (e.g., lighting, heating, ventilation, etc.), all influence the environmental impact of the venue. Thus, the challenges faced by modern facility managers underscore the need for empirical robustness to guide environmental practice and theoretical development in this area. As such, this poster presentation will begin to delve into the reality of the facility response to external and industry pressure for sustainable actions.