CSRI CONFERENCE SCHEDULE
WEDNESDAY, APRIL 3, 2019

ACADEMIC PRESENTATIONS – SESSION 1
9:15-9:45am

(B1A) Charitable Donation Cuts: An Analysis of the Tax Cuts and Jobs Act on College Athletic Donations from Ticket Sales
Dylan Williams & Patrick Tutka

(B1B) Community First: The Cautionary Tale of an Urban University and Stadium Development
Alicia Cintron, Leland Brown III, & Marion Hambrick

(CR1A) Perceptions of College-Athlete Graduation Rates: Are Faculty in Touch?
Ashley Kuhn

(CR1B) Collegiate Soccer Players’ Perception of Future Plans after Experiencing a Program Cut: A Qualitative Study
Jeongwon Choi & Daewon Yoon

(CR1C) You Know the Words: Content Analysis of College Fight Songs
Chris Hanna, Robert Thompson, & James Morton
Charitable Donation Cuts: An Analysis of the Tax Cuts and Jobs Act on College Athletic Donations from Ticket Sales

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Patrick Tutka, Ph.D., Niagara University

On December 22, 2017, President Donald Trump signed the Tax Cuts and Jobs Act (TCJA) of 2017. According to Gae, Gefond, Krupkin, Mazur, and Toder (2018), TCJA was the largest tax overhaul since the passage of the Tax Reform Act of 1986. The overall goal of TCJA was to lower tax rates for both individual and corporations in an effort to increase wages and create new jobs for workers (Michel, 2017). Further, TCJA provides additional relief for individuals by doubling the standard deduction, expanding the child tax credit, and eliminating the individual health care mandate established by the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act (Pear, 2017).

While many pundits argue tax reform has been needed and TCJA provides tax relief to individuals (Dimon, 2017; Gae et al., 2018; Greenwood, 2017; Michel, 2017), it also has created new problems with its policy, particularly for National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) institutions.

Traditionally, individuals purchasing sporting event tickets from university athletic departments were asked to make annual-gift contributions tied to their seats as a licensing fee (Rovell, 2017; Murschel, 2018). Internal Revenue Code (IRC) Section (§) 170(l) allowed individuals to classify 80% of the amount paid for tickets to college athletic events as a charitable contribution and deduct it from their taxes if they itemized deductions (Smith, 2017). As such, many university athletic departments utilized this vehicle to generate revenue through donations. However, the passage of TCJA eliminated the IRC §170(l) deduction in an effort to close loopholes with itemized deductions. According to the Committee on Ways and Means of the U.S. House of Representatives (2017), this adjustment would generate an additional $200 million per year in tax revenue for the U.S. government.

Still, the savings for the U.S. government could impact a major source of revenue that many university athletic departments depend upon for their overall budgets (Rovell, 2017; Murschel, 2018). As an example, University of Alabama Athletic Director Greg Byrne noted the elimination of the tax deduction would hurt how the school funds its 21 programs and compete for championships (Rome, 2017). Annual giving provides many high-profile universities with funding to pay for the year-to-year expenses that teams generate such as travel, scholarships and food amongst many items (Smith, 2017; Ulher, 2018). As these donations generate approximately 25 to 30 percent of most Power Five conference schools budgets, significant losses from the lack of donations could leave athletic departments needing to fill significant gaps while facing uncertainty due to ongoing litigation and the financial ramifications from those decisions.

The project has two distinct purposes. First, the researchers will examine the tax ramifications for individuals in a variety of tax brackets showing the potential changes to tax bills and why it could potentially their overall revenue. Specifically, the researchers will provide a history and analysis of the 80% deduction, which was developed from the Technical and Miscellaneous Revenue Act of 1988, to determine whether the instrument should have been allowed as a deduction overall. Second, the researchers will analyze what university athletic departments are planning to counter this potential revenue shortfall. Particularly, the researchers
plan to contact university athletic departments classified as either a Power Five and Group of Five school to determine their immediate and long-term strategies for the changes derived from TCJA.

References


Temple University has long grappled with a home field disadvantage for its football program. The Temple Owls share its home field with the NFL Philadelphia Eagles at Lincoln Financial Field since the stadium opened in 2003. Prior to this, the Owls shared Veterans Stadium with both the Eagles and MLB Philadelphia Phillies from 1976 until 2002, and played at Temple Stadium, an off-campus stadium northwest of the main campus, from 1928 until 1975 (Fitzpatrick, 2015). Temple’s lease to play at Lincoln Financial Field was set to expire in 2017. Terms of the original lease included a rental payment of $1 million per season and the forfeiture of most concessions and all parking revenue (Parson, 2016). Given the impending lease expiration, university officials faced a challenge.

While Temple considered its options, its initial lease agreement was amended, giving the university the option to play at Lincoln Financial Field for the 2018 and 2019 seasons (Snyder & Narducci, 2015). The newly proposed 30-year lease agreement included a rent increase from $1 million annually to between $2-$3 million each year with a potential upfront payment of $12 million (Atkins, 2018). As university officials debated their options, it became evident that continuing to play at Lincoln Financial Field was less financially viable for the university with increasing rent and little room for revenue generation.

Discussions surrounding the stadium issue publicly began around 2013, when former university President Neil Theobald projected that one of the major items for the university was a proposed on-campus football stadium (Ford, 2013). Progress towards the on-campus football stadium became official when Theobald announced in 2015 that the university had secured about 75% of the funds needed to build the 35,000-seat stadium (Snyder, 2015). The following year, the university board of trustees approved upwards of $1.5 million for the completion of a feasibility study for the proposed football stadium (The Philadelphia Inquirer, 2016).

Backlash from students, faculty, and community members was almost immediate, as concerns that the presence of an on-campus stadium would worsen the issues with trash, congestion, noise, light pollution, student behavior, and community relations (Terruso, 2018b). Some community members expressed concerns about the continued destruction of the North Philadelphia identity, and the overdevelopment of campus that might eventually displace them (Terruso, 2018b). Their fears were not without merit, as Temple had a history of purchasing land for university expansion within the historically black and low-income North Philadelphia neighborhood (see Hildebrandt, 2015). Additionally, private developers previously purchased land and homes to build housing units to accommodate the growing number of students who wished to live near campus (Rolen & Sasko, 2014), adding to the university-related expansion into the community.

Ultimately, community members feared this project would push them out of their homes, as so many North Philadelphians experienced in the past (Moskowitz, 2014). In response to the university’s plan, a stadium opposition group called the Stadium Stompers formed in 2016 (Shaw, 2017). The Stadium Stompers, which included neighborhood groups, student organizations, and social justice advocates, held monthly meetings, protest marches, and town hall marches in Philadelphia to protest the stadium project (Carroll, 2016). University officials
met with this group once, in mid-2017 (Terruso, 2018a). Additionally, both Temple faculty and students were against the construction of the stadium, as evidenced from a faculty vote (Terruso, 2018b) and student survey (Tanenbaum, 2018).

On January 18, 2018, two years after the board of trustees authorized a preliminary study and design for the proposed on-campus stadium project, university officials announced they would present the project to the City Planning Commission for approval (Temple University, 2018), yet city officials publicly stated they would not support the project without community support (Terruso, 2018c). The proposed site would be fully contained within Temple’s campus and require the closure of one main road, but no displacement of neighbors would occur (Temple University, 2018). However, Temple still faced immense community backlash. As a result, the development of the on-campus stadium is currently at a standstill, and university officials have not officially extended the lease with the Eagles.

Considering Temple’s history of expansion within its urban community, the issues surrounding lease negotiations with the Eagles, and the community backlash, this case study provides an opportunity to examine the university’s decision-making process from a social and managerial perspective. This analysis is completed through the integration of stakeholder analysis and social dominance theory. Stakeholder analysis provides context into Temple’s decision-making process by examining how it managed relevant groups of people who affected or could be affected by the stadium project (Freeman, 1984). Additionally, the application of social dominance theory, which posits the existence of power-based social hierarchies (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999), provides an opportunity to examine power dynamics between an institution of higher education and the community in which it resides.

References


Perceptions of College-Athlete Graduation Rates: Are Faculty in Touch?
Ashley Kuhn, Florida Gulf Coast University

Faculty are a critical part of the undergraduate student experience. Faculty attitudes and perceptions of students can affect students’ engagement in the classroom, motivation for learning, and self-concept (Arbaugh, 2001; Umbach & Wawrzynski, 2005; Urdan & Schoenfelder, 2006). Student-athletes are a subpopulation of students on campus that faculty may have beliefs about, specifically regarding student-athlete academic success. However, a majority of the research that exists on this topic focuses on faculty satisfaction with the control and administration of athletic programs (Cockley & Roswal, 1994; Engstrom, Sedlack, & McEwen, 1995; Lawrence, Hendricks, & Ott, 2007). What we do know about faculty perceptions from the academic research is that faculty hold more prejudicial attitudes towards male revenue and non-revenue sports compared to other students (Engstrom et al., 1995).

The most publicized measure of student-athlete academic success is graduation rates. The Federal Graduation Rate (FGR) is a critical measure to faculty as they are used to judge their institution’s quality. The NCAA and member institutions often release information on student-athlete graduation rates, using their measure called the Graduation Success Rate (GSR). However, GSR measures may be misleading, and faculty specifically may not recognize it as the standard graduation rate. Therefore, this study examines faculty perceptions of student-athlete graduation rates at four Division I institutions located in the South and Midwest regions of the country.

Faculty respondents were randomly assigned to answer questions about either men’s football, men’s baseball, or women’s basketball. The study finds that faculty perceptions of student-athlete graduation rates are mostly between the GSR and FGR measures for their institutions. Additionally, perceptions of men’s football graduation rates were significantly lower than men’s baseball and women’s basketball. Qualitative responses regarding student-athlete graduation are also examined to provide more understanding of results.

References

LITERATURE REVIEW: Research has explored the collegiate student-athlete experience from a variety of areas (e.g., academics, pressures and challenges experienced by athletes, transitioning out of sport, athletic identity, etc.; Anderson, 2002; Brewer, Van Raalte, & Linder, 1993; Kimball, 2007; Lally, 2007). Particularly, there has been a focus over the last three decades on the inevitable transition or athletic retirement that most student-athletes face. Sport scholars have studied athletic retirement from a deficit model where the transition from sport was viewed as a “crisis”, “death” or accompanied with negative repercussions (Lavallee, Kremer, Moran, & Williams, 2004; Stambulova, Alfermann, Statler, & Côté, 2009). A multitude of studies have found that some student-athletes face difficulty leaving their athletic role and this can be accompanied with feelings of anxiety, loneliness, and stress (i.e., Gayles & Baker, 2015, Kidd, Southhall, Nagel, Reynolds, & Anderson, 2018; Smith & Hardin, 2018; Smith, Taylor, & Hardin, 2017). However, emerging research has found that athletic retirement can be positive for a student-athlete’s well-being and personal growth (Wylleman & Lavallee, 2004). Thus, a large amount of athletic retirement and transition research recently has focused on providing student-athletes support, career planning, and development both in and out of their sport environment (i.e., August, 2018; Alfermann & Stambulova, 2007; Navarro, 2014; Stambulova et al., 2009).

Despite the large amount of research on athletic retirement, very little research exists on the involuntary exit from sport due to an athletic program cut. Many college athletic departments are struggling to keep and maintain their athletic programs for various reasons such as: budget, Title IX issues, teams’ poor performance, etc. (NCAA, 2016). Due to the above reasons, many colleges are considering cutting sports and supporting fewer teams overall. However, the decision of cutting sports may significantly affect student athletes’ future and their entire lives. Blinde and Stratta (1992) determined that involuntary sport exits are much more traumatic and disruptive than voluntary retirement. Some players may transfer schools and maintaining the ability to play, but others might stop playing sport all together. Even if players transfer schools, they may still struggle socially and psychologically. Thus, this study sought to explore how a Division I athletic department’s decision to cut a male soccer program affects student athletes’ transition process and future decision-making.

METHODOLOGY: This study uses a qualitative semi-structured research design guided by the conceptual model of athletic retirement (Taylor & Ogilvie, 1994). The model encompasses five steps: the causes of athletic retirement, factors related to the new adaptation, available resources, the quality of this adaptation, and the need for inventions with distressful transitions (Taylor & Ogilvie, 1994). This study seeks to expand the model to include cutting a sport program as a fifth criteria for the cause of athletic retirement, expand the factors related to new adaptations, available resources, and quality of adaptation through looking at an unexplored area in a program cut.

A purposeful or specific criterion sample will be used for this study (Patton, 2002), as the researchers seek out a single Division I university who has recently cut its men’s soccer program. All players on the team will be emailed and invited to participate in the interview process.
establish higher quality interviews, a semi-structured interview guide was formed, and questions were based on the conceptual model of athletic retirement. Interviews will be conducted in person and transcribed verbatim.

Once the interviews are transcribed the researchers will participate in three rounds of data coding: open, in-vivo, and axial coding. These three coding methods will be used due to the primary focus on using the words of the participants (Lindloff & Taylor, 2011). From the three rounds of coding, the codes will be compared in order to combine and narrow or collapse the categories. Thus, beginning the constant comparative data analysis process where one segment of data is compared to another in order to find similarities and differences (Merriam, 2009). Finally, the categories will continue to narrow through a process called dimensionalization where each category is examined under its construct and then compared back to the incident that created the construct (Spiggle, 1994). Once the categories are solidified, themes will be created and quotes will be pulled to illustrate each theme (Lindloff & Taylor, 2011).

The researchers expect the results will be informative to create another layer to the conceptual model for athletic retirement (Taylor & Ogilvie, 1994), as well as inform collegiate coaches and administrators about the factors that student-athletes experience when their sport team is cut. This information could influence future decision making and policy development around cutting sports teams.

References


You Know the Words: A Content Analysis of College Fight Songs
Chris Hanna, Georgia Southern University
Robert Thompson, Georgia Southern University
James Morton, Ithaca College

College fight songs are a “significant part of American popular culture” (Studwell, 1994, p. 49). Given the significance of college fight songs, the growing popularity and rapid advancement of Sport Management (Doherty, 2012), and the fact studies have engaged in content analysis of various forms of music (Chepp, 2015; Epps & Dixon, 2017), it is surprising sport researchers have given little attention to the “particularly American organism” (Chapman, 2000, p. 76) known as the college fight song. This 30-minute oral presentation will utilize content analysis to examine the fight songs composers have written for America’s top college sport programs. More specifically, the purpose of this study is to utilize grounded theory to inform a content analysis of all 130 NCAA Division I Football Subdivision fight songs in order to find common topics in their lyrics. Fight songs continue to be written and updated to this day. Arkansas State University updated its fight song in 2008 (“ASU Modifies,” 2008). Jacksonville University composed its fight song in 2012 (Lovejoy, 2012). The University of West Florida created a fight song in 2017, then replaced it later that same year because its first effort was not well received (Wallace, 2017). Therefore, this study’s results contribute to sport literature both by providing a content analysis of a fundamental component of college sport culture and pageantry—the college fight song—as well as informing the topics lyricists and composers should incorporate in future fight songs in order to produce new or updated lyrics that align with college sport tradition.

The seminal college fight song researcher is William E. Studwell (1994, 1995a, 1995b). Studwell (1994) penned an article detailing the challenges researchers face in tracking down fight songs within college libraries. Studwell also wrote a journal article that provided a short survey of college fight songs (Studwell, 1995b) as well as a journal article that considered the history of college fight songs (Studwell, 1995a). Rosen (2013) examined the manner in which home team music—including fight song lyrics—may contribute to violence in sport venues. Overstreet and Healy (2011) studied the manner in which familiarity with a college fight song influenced student retention of fight song lyrics. So, while there have been studies of college fight songs, this is an area in the literature that could use more attention—particularly given the importance of these songs to the American culture (Chapman, 2000, Studwell, 1994).

Grounded theory is the proper theory for this study. Grounded theory is a general methodology that allows researchers to develop new theory from data that are gathered and analyzed (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). The name grounded theory comes from the concept an emerging theory is ground in the data the researchers are analyzing (Martin & Turner, 1986). Researchers are to approach the data they are analyzing with an open mind and allow the data to guide their findings (Martin & Turner, 1986).

This content analysis study examined 130 NCAA Division I Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS) schools’ college fight songs. In an initial round of analysis, three researchers analyzed two fight songs from each NCAA Division I FBS conference as well as two fight songs from the NCAA Division I FBS major independents seeking common emerging themes from the songs. The researchers then met—retaining themes all three researchers agreed on and discussing themes that were found by either two or one of the researchers. Following the meeting, the three

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researchers retained 10 themes that they agreed were prevalent across the sample. All 130 NCAA Division I FBS fight songs are currently being coded for content tied to those 10 themes. This research will conclude soon. The results will be in hand well in advance of the April 2019 CSRI conference date.

References


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Introduction

In NCAA Division I athletics, it is imperative for athletic administrators to develop a road map to guide the athletic department along a path toward sustainable success. Often administrators utilize both mission statements and strategic plans to reveal and reach both university and athletic department goals. Due to the high-profile nature of intercollegiate athletics, it is imperative that athletic directors and their constituents develop and adhere to strategic plans to measure long-term success.

Literature Review

Strategic planning is a management tool that allows organizations to adapt and plan for the future. According to Kriemadis (1997), “strategic planning may help athletic departments anticipate and respond effectively to their new situations and develop strategies necessary to achieve the athletic department’s mission and objectives” (p. 238). Furthermore, Starsia (2010) stated, “for colleges and universities, strategic planning, when properly practiced, can be a powerful tool in helping academic units listen to their stakeholders, recognize opportunities, correct operational weaknesses, and make decisions that help to support the organizational mission” (p. 15).

Ketterer (2015) stated that mission statements are the cornerstone of strategic planning, and missions and strategic plans are written to set objectives for the future. Stemming from that mission, the strategic plan should provide an organization with long-range strategies, the short-term objectives to complete them, and measures of evaluating performance (Kriemadis, 2009). Importantly, Earle (2009) reported that one of the most common components of strategic planning used by athletic departments was a mission statement. Mission statements are designed to enhance the organization’s legitimacy and to motivate and guide its members (Rainey, 2009). According to Falsey (1989), mission statements, “tells two things about a company: who it is and what it does” (p. 3). In essence, mission statements may be considered the primary tool for an organization to communicate with their stakeholders (Bartkus, Glassman, & McAfee, 2000). Strategic planning and mission statements are arguably the most important aspects of effective management in sport organizations (Masteralexis, Barr, and Hums, 2015). However, prior research revealed that fewer than 50% of NCAA Division I athletic departments have formally written strategic statements or mission plans (Kriemadis, 1997). This research contributes more recent knowledge on the latest summaries of Power 5 intercollegiate athletic departments’ mission statements and strategic plans.

Methodology

The general objectives of the mission statements and the specific goals and performance measures of the strategic plans may often be viewed on the organizational websites (Rainey, 2009). As such, the researchers examined the websites of all NCAA Division I Power 5 (FBS) intercollegiate athletic departments to evaluate public availability of both mission statements and
strategic plans. This analysis included universities in the Atlantic Coast Conference (ACC), Big Ten Conference, Southeastern Conference (SEC), Big 12 Conference, and Pacific Athletic Conference (PAC 12).

The researchers employed content analysis to determine similar language, goals, measurements, and outcomes of strategic plans and mission statements of the aforementioned NCAA Division I Power 5 (FBS) intercollegiate athletic departments. Content analysis has been acknowledged as an accepted method to collate publicly accessible information (Krippendorf, 1980). Additionally, content analysis was deemed appropriate for this type of study as it is a process of analyzing written, verbal or visual communication messages (Cole, 1988).

A cluster analysis was incorporated from the content to evaluate emerging themes, common strategies, and other similar variables. Contrasting from other classification statistical methods, an advantage of using a cluster analysis is that it does not make prior assumptions about important differences within a population (Punj & Stewart, 1983). In this analysis, a word frequency was used to determine the emergent items.

Results
While the majority (62%) of athletic departments revealed a mission statement, only 14 (22%) strategic plans were available on the athletic department websites that supports Kriemadis’ (1997) study. After the content analysis was completed, a cluster analysis, using qualitative software NVivo 11, revealed the three most significant components of the mission plans were: success in athletic programs, academic development of the student-athlete, and the development of sports facilities. Interestingly, although it was mentioned in the analysis, national championships were not significantly identified in the cluster analysis. Regarding the strategic plans, three elements emerged. The most common strategic plans dealt with providing satisfactory academic support for the student-athletes. The second strategy concerned programs and coaches with support from the university and athletic department. The third item related to the creation of resources within the community.

Conclusion
Despite the potential advantage of adhering to mission statements and strategic plans, athletic administrators struggle to effectively develop and implement them. Mission statements and strategic plans may vary at each athletic department, but similar elements related to athletic and academic success appeared in this study. These results will be discussed with the audience in this interactive presentation.
How to Build a Bowl Game: Surviving in a Cultural Industry
Chad Seifried, Ph.D., Louisiana State University
William A. Czekanski, Ph.D., University of Alberta
Brian Soebbing, Ph.D., University of Alberta

Societies across the world create and produce products for entertainment as part of cultural industries developed by individual communities (Lampel, Lant, & Shamsie, 2000). The Division I Football Bowl Subdivision of the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) participates in a cultural industry within the American holiday season through the production of bowl games to facilitate relationships between bowl communities and institutions of higher education along with several other external stakeholders (Seifried & King, 2012). Bowl games are cultural products because they are frequently independent and/or specific to a community but also tailored to meet general or normative consumer and participant interests they are trying to attract. To build relationships and achieve attraction from various external stakeholders bowl games rely heavily on various symbols to establish and management perception, emotional interest, or attachment (Seifried, Soebbing, & Agyemang, 2018).

The purpose of the present study is to better understand how to build a sustainable bowl game in that cultural industry by examining if there: 1) are there certain conditions that helped developed the bowl industry collectively and individual games separately; and 2) how the emergence of interorganizational relationships (IR) potentially helped or hindered the survival of existing bowl games? Babiak and Thibault (2008) defined IR as “voluntary, close, long-term, planned strategic action between two or more organizations with the objective of serving mutually beneficial purposes in a problem domain” (p. 282). IR are generally purposive collaborations (e.g., joint ventures, networks, consortia, alliances) meant to help produce or maintain events, products, or services (Babiak, 2007, 2009). We chose the bowl industry because those events provide important charity opportunities, impact their local economy, and offer intangible benefits like social cohesion and image improvement (Seifried & King, 2012; Seifried, Soebbing, & Agyemang, 2018). Next, bowl games produced a significant public record with respect to payouts, attendance, and television ratings and other variable to establish or maintain a standing in the industry (Seifried & King, 2012; Williams & Seifried, 2013). Further, bowl games established many IR (e.g., conference, television, sponsorship agreements) to survive. Survival is emphasized because the bowl industry is uncertain as 29 bowls failed to survive at least five years.

The present research study used the historical method to collect information on the Division I-FBS bowl games from 1935 thru 2018. To complete this project, primary documents (e.g., letters of correspondence, financial reports, game programs, and committee reports) were collected via an archival visit with the NCAA and individual bowl sites. Secondary sources (e.g., scholarly books, journal articles, and newspapers) were gathered via various databases such as Lexis-Nexis Academic, HathiTrust Digital, JSTOR, Academic Search Complete, America’s Historical Newspapers, Newspapers.com, and Google Scholar among many others. The collected primary and secondary sources endured a source criticism (i.e., internal and external) following the steps provided by Seifried (2010, 2017) to triangulate the accuracy of data and the emergence of dissonant data. A timeline and spreadsheet was used to detail various aspects of bowl games such as: name of bowl, day and month, year, city, facility, capacity, participants, head coaches,
conference, wins before bowl games, ranking before bowl game, total all-time wins, point spread, total payout, television network, start time, sponsor, temperature, and weather.

Preliminary findings of this work in progress show the amount of bowl games a year has increased generally since 1935. Furthermore, the games have been played in 84 different stadiums in 57 cities, and 23 different states. In those bowl games, of the 189 teams that participated, 784 different individuals coached served as head coach. Next, a total of 49 different conferences played in at least one bowl game and 24 different networks or independent television producers broadcasted at least one bowl game. Lastly, on average, a company engaging in a sponsorship of bowl games sponsored 5.6 games since 1983. To help answer question 1, we were interested if there would be a significant difference in the percentage capacity of attendance, the TV ratings, and the number of households that watched the game based on the two schools playing in the game, conference, head coach, network carriers, date of the contest, day of the week, kick off time, facility, ranking, payout, point spread, and weather/temperature. The plan is to run Multiple ANOVAs for each of the three dependent variables (i.e., percent capacity of attendance, TV ratings, and number of households watching). To answer question 2 we will examine network, conference, and sponsorship agreements previously outlined as IR (Seifried, et al., 2018). The completed work should provide important practical implications regarding (e.g., day of the week to play a game, location of contest, members to recruit, payout to provide, network to shown on, etc.).
Across the United States, nearly 45 million children are involved in organized sports every year (Merkel, 2013). This equates to at least one child in seventy-five percent of family households participating in sport. Of the roughly 45 million youth who participate in sports, around 460,000 go on to play at the college level. Of those 460,000 student-athletes, nearly 18,000 are Black women. Despite the large population of Black women student-athletes, Black women are largely underrepresented across all levels of athletics (e.g., coaches, administrators, advisors) (Francique, 2018). Therefore, in order to better meet the needs of Black women student-athletes, it is imperative that we better understand the experiences of Black women student-athletes both within and prior to college. Previous work with Black women student-athletes has pointed to the positive and negative impact influential others, stereotypes, and loss of autonomy can have on student-athletes experiences (Bernhard, 2014; Foster, 2003; Withycombe, 2011). Under the right conditions and within supportive environments (having supportive academic advisors, and family members) Black women student-athletes are able to thrive and be successful (Comeaux, Snyder, Speer, & Taustine, 2014; Cooper, Cooper, & Baker, 2016). Thus, in order to support this success, it is important for us to better understand the conditions that support such achievements, and the potential unintended costs/consequence that may accompany such success.

The current study seeks to further our knowledge of the experiences of Black women student-athletes in athletics and academics. The aim of the proposed study is to continue to 1) understand how sports participation impacts Black female student-athletes’ identity, and 2) better understand the way in which sports participation impacts Black female student-athletes subsequent psychological processes and developmental outcomes in athletics and academics. By better understanding the experience of Black women student-athletes, those interacting with student-athletes (parents, teachers, coaches), and the organizations student-athletes operate within (e.g., schools, and athletics departments) can be better equipped and prepared to meet the needs of Black Women student-athletes.

The current study interviewed current Division I Black women student-athletes about their experiences in athletics and academics. Interviews explored the way in which socialization from adult figures (parents, coaches, and teachers) impacted Black women’s identity development. In particular, interviews focused on exploring how the experiences (opportunities) student-athletes had and messages they heard growing up impacted their current identities. Additionally, interviews explored how these previous experiences play a role (if any) in student-athletes current college experience. Example interview questions include: “What are 5 things important to how you think of yourself”, “Tell me about how you got involved in sports/athletics” & “How do your teachers respond to your academic/athletic involvement?”. Narrative analysis will be utilized to analyze each individual interview and maintain each student-athletes story. Preliminary findings and key themes from qualitative interviews will be presented. From the narratives, it is anticipated we will glean a better understanding of the experience of Black women student-athletes. As a result, those interacting with student-athletes (parents, teachers, coaches), and the organizations student-athletes operate within (e.g., schools,
and athletics departments) can be better equipped and prepared to meet the needs of Black Women student-athletes.

This study will help contribute to the research on the experiences of Black women college athletes and to provide directions for future research. While there has been some research on the experiences of Black women college student athletes, we still have much to learn. Overall results from this study can be used to help improve the experiences of future Black Women student-athletes, by highlighting key places to target that have been positive for previous student-athletes. Findings can also serve as a starting point for future work, which could involve programs or workshops directly targeting parents, coaches, and teachers.

References


The National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) has a rich history of providing small colleges and universities an opportunity to compete in intercollegiate athletics. The NAIA began as the National Association of Intercollegiate Basketball (NAIA) tournament in Kansas City in 1937 and has grown to an association of over 250-member institutions. The association takes pride in considering its basketball championships as the “Toughest Basketball Tournaments” in the land because all 32 participating teams compete for a championship at one-site over a seven-day period. Throughout the history of the NAIA, the association has made changes to help benefit its member institutions and association. One such decision came in 1992 when the NAIA elected to move to two divisions in men’s and women’s basketball instead of the original one division. Member institutions would elect to participate in one of the two divisions based on scholarship allotment. This association move allowed institutions, based on each member’s mission and financial ability, to determine what division best aligned with its goals and objectives. The four NAIA basketball tournaments (Men’s Division I and II and Women’s Division I and II) have been held at various sites throughout the country but the Men’s Division I tournament has predominately taken place in Kansas City’s Municipal Auditorium (the birthplace of the NAIA). The governance model of NAIA men’s and women’s basketball has been in existence for over 25 years, but the NAIA recently announced a move to one single division in men’s and women’s basketball.

The announcement of one division in both men’s and women’s basketball was determined after two years of research and data analysis conducted, at the request of the Council of Presidents, by a task force of representatives from various NAIA member institutions (“Divisions in Basketball”, 2018). The task force determined that one division was best for the association based upon the number of institutions participating in each division currently and that the new tournament format would grow to 64 teams from the previous 32 team format. The new basketball tournament will have 16 regional sites with 16 teams advancing to the final site. The task force found that the average aid awarded at Division I and Division II institutions had narrowed and that the financial impact of one division would not be significantly different in a merger of divisions (“Divisions in Basketball”, 2018). Furthermore, the move to one division in basketball was believed to make sense both financially and logistically by the data collected from the task force. In this presentation, the researchers will examine the findings of the task force and further analyze the implications of a merger to one division in NAIA basketball. The data collected by the task force will be discussed along with other issues that may not have fully been developed that could impact the NAIA as an organization and the student-athletes that compete in the sport of basketball.

Issues to be discussed in the presentation will be the impact of the historical element of the NAIA basketball tournament. The Men’s Division I basketball tournament in Kansas City’s Municipal Auditorium has been a staple in the community and the new one division structure and expanded tournament will change the event. How will the new structure of the tournament affect site selection as well as branding of the tournament? This question as well as others will be addressed when discussing the logistics of the newly formed one division tournament. Likewise, the impact of student-athletes will be examined further. Based on the findings of the task force,
the student-athlete experience will not be affected adversely in this new tournament format. The researchers will discuss the findings of the task force regarding the student-athlete experience and examine if the student-athlete experience is truly enhanced with this new format or hindered. Lastly, the presentation will examine the impact financially that this new format could have on member institutions beyond the findings of the task force. The type of impact financially this merger into one division has on the institutions from a scholarship level as well as travel costs, etc. will be examined in further detail. As the NAIA begins the transition to one division in both men’s and women’s basketball, this presentation will help answer the question: Is this the right move for the association at this time?

Reference:

A Qualitative Analysis of the Intersectional Socialization of NCAA Division I Student-Athletes across Diverse Identities
Serena Archer, Elon University

This research explores the socialization of NCAA Division I student-athletes through qualitative, in-depth case-study research methods to understand the influence of collegiate sport on interactions across intersectional identities. Student-athletes are uniquely positioned on college campuses in terms of their time-demands, strong athlete identity, and learned social behaviors within a team environment. As institutions move toward increasing diversity on campus (Franklin, 2013; Smith, 2015; Vos, 2016), the opportunity for cross-sectional socialization, particularly with student-athletes (Cunningham, 2007), is ample. In contrast, a body of research suggests that one of the great detriments of participating in collegiate athletics has been a lack of opportunity for social and personal development (Ready, 2013; Singer, 2009) due to time constraints and the struggle with the dual-identity of student and athlete (Clayton, 2015; Lee, 2015; Rubin, 2016). To address this dichotomy, the purpose of this research was to conduct an in-depth case study of an NCAA Division I football program and its influence on the socialization of student-athletes across intersectional identities, such as race and socio-economic class. Specifically, this research poses the following overarching question: What is the influence of NCAA athletic participation on the socialization of student-athletes across diverse identities?

We assessed the dualism of the current body of contrasting literature by looking specifically at the connection between athletic involvement and socialization within the team and campus environment. This work was conceptualized and grounded by academic theories from four distinct bodies of thought pertaining to: socialization, the student-athlete experience, the college campus environment and intersectionality. As an interdisciplinary study, this research utilized a theoretical foundation to examine the diversity of relationships within collegiate athletic teams and across campus and how they affect the social development of athletes.

This study used qualitative research methodology to give a voice to athletes typically categorized only by demographic descriptors. Sport researchers have identified a need for more qualitative research methods in the industry (Beamon, 2008). By utilizing a qualitative approach with athletes, the research allowed for a discussion and careful analysis of the college athlete experience. A semi-structured interview guide was created based on the conceptual model. Interviews lasting 30-45 minutes were conducted with student-athletes, coaches, and athletic staff associated with a NCAA Division I football program at a predominantly white institution (PWI) in the southern United States. Though the nature of case studies precludes findings from being generalized to all NCAA Division I institutions, this research methodology allowed for a much deeper understanding of student-athlete experiences at the target institution.

Thematic analysis revealed that the learned experiences of athletes based on their background in sport greatly influences their ability to socialize outside of the athletic realm as well as with their teammates. Identities such as race, economic class, leisure interests, and academic strength affect the formation of student-athletes’ situational identities in social environments. Finally, many interview participants suggested that athletic identity was the most prominent factor in the student-athletes’ socialization habits; this finding was intertwined with the understanding that their athletic identity on this particular campus was not always received favorably. Overall, this case study suggests that the socialization of student athletes is
complicated by their diverse, intersectional identities and often times requires them to fall into perceived situational identities depending on the social setting. By understanding the diverse student-athlete experience and their patterns of socialization, athletic administrators and coaches can work to break down barriers for student-athletes that may exist on college campuses.

References


CSRI CONFERENCE SCHEDULE
WEDNESDAY, APRIL 3, 2019

ACADEMIC PRESENTATIONS – SESSION 3
10:25-10:55am

(B1A) Athletic Department Involvement in Strategic Sustainability Management
*Martin Barrett, Kyle S. Bunds, & Jonathan M. Casper*

(B1B) Lived Experiences of Injured Collegiate Athletes
*Kaitlin Pericak*

(CR1A) Black Female College Athletes’ Sense of Belonging at a Historically Black College/University (HBCU)
*Ajhanai Newton*

(CR1B) A Conceptual Model to Assess College-Athlete Satisfaction with Stadium Facilities
*J. Patrick Marsh, Jeffrey C. Petersen, Marshall J. Magnusen, & Andrew R. Gallucci*

(CR1C) Dual Role Conflict and Power Five FARs
*Crystal Southall & Joel Cormier*
Higher education institutions (HEIs) have a profound, moral responsibility to create a just and sustainable future (Cortese, 2003). More specifically, the role of HEIs in advancing sustainability is twofold: as an institution that needs to be changed and/or as a potential change agent (Stephens, Hernandez, Roman, Graham & Scholz, 2008). In response, HEIs continue to embrace change as the number of academic initiatives and examples of campus sustainability modelling continues to grow at a rapid rate (Cortese, 2012). However, executing change in HEIs from a strategic perspective is a complex matter. Krizek, Newport, White and Townsend (2011) liken universities to “multi-headed monsters, each with unique recipes for success” (p. 28). Relationships and tensions between these ‘multiple heads’ (i.e., different departments and functions) make for slow implementation. Athletic departments serve as poignant examples where, especially at the most competitive levels, a relative sense of financial autonomy from the university exists (Guiliani, 2015), which, in turn, serves to drive a ‘chasm’ between the university and athletics (Chandler III, 2011).

At the college and university level, athletic departments are adopting greener practices (Casper, Pfahl & McCullough, 2014). Yet, these sustainability wins are considered a result of collaborative, as opposed to strategic, processes between personnel in sustainability offices and athletic departments (Pfahl, Casper, Trendafilova, McCullough & Nguyen, 2015). Adams (2013) puts forward a framework for managing sustainability in universities, which stresses the need for a collaborative approach across senior leaders alongside the empowerment of a senior person responsible for sustainability. In doing so, Adams’ framework aligns with the notion of shared governance, which is where various stakeholders participate in well-defined parts of the decision-making process, but also where certain constituencies are given primary decision-making responsibility and approval is made by an executive-level officer (Olson, 2009). Therefore, the execution of sustainability strategy and how this permeates from universities (i.e., administration and faculty) through to athletic departments presents a timely examination of contemporary governance issues in the higher education sector. As such, this exploratory study examines shared governance approaches to strategic sustainability management at HEIs across the United States through self-reported, publicly accessible data, and structured interviews with sustainability office personnel. Accordingly, this research has three guiding research questions: 1) To what extent are athletic departments involved in strategic sustainability management at the university-level, 2) What are the defining characteristics of the HEIs where this involvement takes place, and 3) What are the perceived benefits of this involvement.

This study uses a descriptive research design using multiple-methods to establish a detailed account of athletic department involvement in strategic sustainability management through a shared governance framework. The sample comprises United States colleges and universities with a valid Advancement of Sustainability in Higher Education’s (AASHE) Sustainability Tracking, Assessment and Rating System (STARS) report (i.e., reports expire after three years) at a bronze or higher rating, and a National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) affiliated athletic program (N=226). First, secondary analysis of STARS reports is conducted to determine which HEIs are involving their athletic departments in strategic sustainability
management. Second, statistical analysis is conducted to determine the defining characteristics of the HEIs that involve their athletic departments in strategic sustainability management. Third, structured interviews are conducted with sustainability office personnel from a representative sample of the HEIs identified through the initial secondary analysis to understand the perceived benefits of involving athletic departments in the strategic sustainability management process.

Results of the secondary analysis confirm that 30 of the 226 sampled HEIs, or 13.3%, involve their athletic departments in sustainability management. Furthermore, a Chi-Square independence test reveals the association between NCAA Division and athletic department involvement is significant, which means HEIs with Division I programs are more likely to involve athletic departments in sustainability management versus HEIs with Division II or III programs (p=.001). Moreover, an independent samples T-test comparing STARS rating in athletic department sustainability management exclusion and inclusion conditions reveals a significant difference in ratings for exclusion and inclusion conditions. These results suggest HEIs with more robust and impactful approaches to sustainability are more likely to involve their athletic departments in sustainability management (p=.035). The second independent samples t-test comparing student enrollment in athletic department sustainability management exclusion and inclusion conditions also reveals a significant difference in enrollment for exclusion and inclusion conditions. These results suggest larger HEIs are more likely to involve their athletic departments in sustainability management (p=.002).

Interviews with sustainability office personnel continue to be conducted with data collection scheduled for completion by mid-February. However, discussion points will center on the potential role of a shared governance model of sustainability management in delivering more sophisticated sustainability efforts within intercollegiate athletic departments.

References


Lived Experiences of Injured Collegiate Athletes
Kaitlin Pericak, University of Miami

In 1910, in response to President Roosevelt and college administrators concerns about the numerous injuries and fatalities occurring in the new college sport of football, the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States, which later became the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), was established (Ibrahim 1975). This association was tasked with, among other things, documenting injuries among student-athletes. While injury among collegiate student-athletes has been prevalent to the NCAA since the beginning, there is little research on what it actually means to be injured according to student-athletes. Moreover, research understanding injury among athletes within the space of an athletic training room is practically non-existent (Walk 2004), which is surprising since institutionalized medicine has long been discussed within the sociological discipline (Conrad and Barker 2010; Foucault 1963; Freidson 1970; Goffman 1961; Starr 1982). Hence, there is a great need for a thorough scientific examination of the meaning making of injury in athletic training rooms.

Using a social constructivist framework and situated in the orienting framework of phenomenology, this study uses qualitative methodology to examines the lived experience among collegiate student-athletes surrounding injury. The methodology for this project is multidimensional. Through qualitative data this study documents both the role of social support and athletic identity in the injury experience from the perspective of injured athletes. The study aim is achieved during three related, yet distinct, phases of the study. The first phase included 10 unstructured interviews with key athletic staff of the Athletic Training Facility. The unstructured interviews focused on the role of athletic identity and social support services for injured athletes from the perspective of the staff involved in injury recovery. Those involved in recovery consist of the sports medicine team, which include primary care physicians, orthopedic surgeons, physical therapists, athletics trainers, and student athletic trainers. One purpose of these interviews was to inform the unstructured qualitative interviews with injured student-athletes.

Phase two occurred concurrently. I conducted ethnographic observations in the athletic training room which allowed me to observe the relationship between the sports medicine team and the injured athletes including how injured student-athletes talk to the staff about their injury and how they perceive the recovery process. These participant observations are part of the formative research. The goals in this stage were to understand holistically the effect of injury on athletes as well as build rapport, or ethnographic presence. The third phase of the study consisted of unstructured one-on-one qualitative interviews with student-athletes who have experienced an injury (restricted student-athlete from participation for 1 or more calendar days). These interviews lasted approximately 45 minutes to 1 hour and were audiotaped and transcribed verbatim. The interviews focused on the following themes: 1) students’ lived experience of injury, 2) how injury influenced their athletic identity; and 3) the effect of perceived social support from the sports medicine team, coaches, teammates, peers, and family.

Preliminary findings indicate that the meaning of injury according to student-athletes differs from the meaning of injury according to staff in the athletic training room, which further highlights the consequences of the social construction of injury. I argue that intersections of demographic characteristics (i.e., race, gender, social class, etc.), type of sport, and type/severity of injury have an impact on the overall health of student-athletes given the social construction of injury in the athletic training room.
References

Black Female College Athletes’ Sense of Belonging at a Historically Black College/University (HBCU)
Ajanai Newton, University of Connecticut

Introduction

When examining Black female college athletes, the literature has noted the importance and significance of providing insight into their marginalized identities of race and gender, as Black women operate in a collegiate sporting world that privileges male athletic prowess and a women’s intercollegiate landscape that is 70% White women (Bruening, 2004, 2005; Carter, 2008). Beal (2008) suggested that Black women are bounded by American social double jeopardy, in which oppression is rooted in their most recognizable identities of gender (sexism) and race (racism). The aim of this qualitative study explores the experiences of Black female student athletes attending a Historically Black College/University (HBCU) to better understand how they interpret and make meaning of their overall experiences in college. The following research questions were examined:

1. What are the reasons Black female college athletes choose to attend a Division I HBCU?
2. What are the holistic college experiences (academic, athletic, and social) of Black female college athletes at a Division I HBCU?

Theoretical Framework

Given the fact a majority of empirical research on Black female college athletes has been conducted at HWIs, there is a scarcity of research on their holistic college experiences at HBCUs. Extant research on Black female college athletes at HBCUs has primarily been historical in nature (Carter-Francique and Richardson, 2015; Flowers, 2015). Carter-Francique and Richardson (2015) outlined how traditionally HBCUs have provided safe havens for Black female college athletes. Such safe-heavens found on college campuses, has led to the identification of the sense of belonging theory. Hurtado and Carter (1997) contended through a sense of belonging students have the ability to create “multiple communities on campus” (p. 327). The reciprocal nature of sense of belonging as a theoretical construct addresses the degree to which institutions support students to “experience mattering or feeling cared about, accepted, respected, valued by, and important” (Strayhorn, 2012, p. 3).

Findings

The findings section is organized by divergent themes and one convergent theme identified across the two sub-groups related to each research question. In addition, sense of belonging (Hurtado & Carter, 1997) concepts are incorporated throughout the findings to highlight the interplay between institutional conditions and participants’ perceptions, experiences, and outcomes. These themes are as follows: Convergent Theme: “With HBCUs It’s More Like a Family”, Divergent Theme: “They Are Understanding with Me”, Divergent Theme: “They Are Just Not as Understanding as They Should Be”, Divergent Theme: “A Good Relationship with Coaches and Teammates”, Divergent Theme: “Not Fun”, Divergent Theme:

1 Pseudonyms chosen by the participants are used throughout the findings section to preserve participants’ anonymity.
“When I Came to an HBCU People Understood More”, Divergent Theme: “It Definitely Prevents Us from Doing Some Things”.

Discussion

One of the benefits of an HBCU environment is the critical mass of Black students, faculty, coaches, and peers as well as the proximity of being located in a historically Black community. Participants described how prior to their enrollment, they felt a sense of belonging because the culture at the HBCU offered them a desirable blend of positive racial and cultural affirmation, a meaningful educational experience, and an athletic opportunity to compete with peers who looked like them. A majority of the participants (7 out of 10) were involved in sports that were traditionally White so having the opportunity to compete with peers of the same race both on their teams as well as their opponents was a distinct opportunity that could only occur at a HBCU. Socially, a sense of cultural belonging among the participants ranged from being in an environment with a critical mass of Black women who understood participants’ personal issues (i.e., hair maintenance) to having access to culturally congruent resources (i.e., being located in a Black community). Academic experiences had both professors perceived as family and professors who delivered athletic microaggressions (Comeaux, 2012). The connection between lower academic performance (i.e., lower GPA) and negative perceptions of faculty is consistent with previous research and underscores the importance of cultivating strong positive student-faculty relationships (Carter, 2008; Comeaux & Harrison, 2011; Gaston-Gayles & Hu, 2009). Athletically, participants noted both benefits and challenges associated with their experiences. Some participants cited having positive relationships with coaches and teammates to the extent that the term “family” was used to convey their bonds. This finding is also reflected in the work of Carter-Francique and Richardson’s (2017) assertion that coaches at HBCUs have historically fulfilled the role of “othermothering,” whereby they serve as surrogate family members or fictive kinship for Black female college athletes (p. 67).

Conclusion

Instituting and incentivizing involvement and collaborations with campus organizations would signal to Black female college athletes that their overall college experience and personal development is valued. Utilizing Hurtado and Carter’s (1997) and Strayhorn’s (2012) frameworks to inform the creation of programming around sense of belonging would assist with this aim.

References

Bruening, J. E. (2005). Gender and racial analysis of sport: Are all the women White and all the Blacks men?. Quest, 57, 330-349.


A Conceptual Model to Assess Student-Athlete Satisfaction with Stadium Facilities

J. Patrick Marsh, Samford University
Jeffrey C. Petersen, Baylor University
Marshall J. Magnusen, Baylor University
Andrew R. Gallucci, Baylor University

College athletics is a big business and business is booming. One major evidence of this is found within facility investments. Universities are building bigger and better facilities at extremely high rates (Bennett, 2012). From 2009 to 2018, 11 FBS universities invested an average of $333,000,000 each on football stadium construction or renovation (Patterson, 2018). As construction booms, the question becomes, what impact are these facilities having on their institutions, and more specifically, their athletes?

The NCAA’s core values make no reference to fans, money, or commercialism, instead focusing on the academic, social, and athletic experiences of the student-athletes (NCAA, 2017). However, the preponderance of research on collegiate athletic facilities focuses on finances and fan experience rather than the student-athletes using the facilities (Maxcy & Larson, 2015; Chen, Lin, & Chiu, 2013). Any impact that these facilities have on the student-athlete experience remains absent from the literature. This study seeks to define the construct of satisfaction with football facilities and develop a conceptual model for its measurement. The development of a scale to measure student-athletes’ satisfaction with their facilities will allow for data collection and analysis regarding facility impacts upon student-athletes.

The construct being examined is student-athlete satisfaction with their competition facility. The conceptual framework for this scale was developed through the incorporation of three related components: satisfaction measurement, quality measurement, and elements of facility quality.

The theoretical approach to the measurement of satisfaction guiding this model, norms as comparative standards (Cadotte, Woodruff, & Jenkins, 1987), is appropriate due to student-athletes’ previous experiences with other stadiums. One deviation from the traditional norms as comparative standards approach in this model was the use of hindsight expectations rather than foresight expectations because of hindsight bias associated with the uncertainty of outcomes in sport (Kim, Magnusen, & Kim, 2014) and the difficulty of measuring foresight expectations.

Quality is multi-dimensional in nature thereby creating a lack of consensus on how quality should be defined (Getty & Getty, 2003). Since quality measurement instruments are lacking within the sport industry, we must seek relevant literature from other industries. Within the hospitality industry, SERVQUAL is the predominant quality measure instrument (Parasuraman et al., 1988). SERVQUAL defines service quality through five dimensions: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy. The tangibles dimension is directly related to facilities. While SERVQUAL is designed to measure the quality of service, SERVQUAL dimensions significantly correlated to satisfaction in several studies (Margaritis, Katharaki, & Katharakis, 2011; Koo et al., 2009; Tsuji, Bennett, & Zhang, 2007).

The SERVQUAL model measures service quality with five service-related dimensions. To measure satisfaction with facility quality, it is necessary to define the dimensions of facility quality. Through the review of both sport-based and non-sport-based facility management literature, four dimensions of facility quality have been identified: functional, financial, atmospherics, and aesthetics. While financial indicators comprise one dimension of facility
quality, they impact the quality of the other dimensions. Therefore, financial aspects of facility quality are being conceptualized as moderators of the functional, aesthetic, and atmospheric aspects. The resulting model of student-athlete satisfaction with stadium facilities includes three dimensions with one moderator.

References


Dual Role Conflict and Power Five FARs
Crystal Southall, Western Colorado University
Joel Cormier, Eastern Kentucky University

While there is no official definition for the position, faculty athletics representatives (FARs) play an important role on college campuses, providing oversight of the “academic integrity of athletics program and serving as advocates for [collegiate athlete] well-being (Miranda & Paskus, 2013, p. 10). Each National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) member institution must appoint an FAR from among its faculty or non-athletic administrative staff. FARs are often called upon to perform dual roles, serving as an active member of their university’s faculty (i.e., teaching, research, and service) or administration, while also performing prescribed duties in concert with members of their athletics department.

The presence of dual roles may create role conflict, one of two key role stressors: role conflict and role ambiguity (Bowling et al., 2017). Role conflict occurs when there are competing and therefore, incompatible demands placed upon a person such that compliance with both roles is almost impossible (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Persons may experience role conflict when they seek to respond to, and satisfy, various and/or competing demands placed upon them by disparate and incompatible sources of authority (House, 1970; King & King, 1990; Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970). Role ambiguity occurs when there are multiple roles assigned to an individual that are not clearly defined in terms of expectations and primacy (Kahn et al., 1964). Role ambiguity may also occur when an individual lacks the requisite training, expertise and/or clear authority required to perform assigned tasks (Idris, 2011). Further, role conflict can pair with role ambiguity to create role stress that may be detrimental to one’s well-being, workplace performance and job satisfaction.

The FAR position is one that seems to meet the criteria for the presence of role conflict and role ambiguity. FARs are called upon to ensure the well-being of collegiate athletes and uphold academic integrity standards across the athletics department, while at the same time being charged with following rules prescribed by the NCAA and athletics conferences. An individual may also accept the FAR position with limited knowledge of collegiate athletics and the complexities of NCAA rules and regulations. Further, the FAR position is one in which the expectations of the role may be ill-defined in terms of duties and scope of authority.

Since the NCAA conducted its own self-study in 2013, there has been no follow-up study updating the study’s findings related to the experiences and beliefs of FARs and the relationship to role conflict and role ambiguity. This presentation will review the results of the 2013 NCAA FAR study as the foundation for the present study. Data collection and analysis will focus on publicly available information related to FARs serving in Division I “Power 5” institutions (e.g., rank, position, and background). Future research related to the role, background, training, and experiences of FARs serving at colleges and universities across NCAA divisional affiliations will also be discussed in considerable detail.
CSRI CONFERENCE SCHEDULE
WEDNESDAY, APRIL 3, 2019

ACADEMIC PRESENTATIONS – SESSION 4
11:00-11:30am

(B1A) Following the Money: Learning How Revenues and Expenses Work in Division I Athletics
Ryan King-White & Adam Beissel

(B1B) Is there Support for Support? Examining the Use of Online Support Groups for Athletes with Career-Ending Injuries
Amanda L. Paule-Koba & Kaitlin Rohrs-Cordes

(CR1A) The Recruiting Game: Then and Now?
Theodore L. Goudge

(CR1B) All About Ball: An Analysis of Official Visit Itineraries among Football Programs in the SEC
Chris Corr & Richard M. Southall

(CR1C) College Football: A Sesquicentennial Perspective
Olin L. Adams III & Jeffrey M. Long
Following the Money: Learning How Revenues and Expenses Work in Division I Athletics
Ryan King-White, Towson University
Adam Beissel, Miami University

This presentation builds from our previous research focusing on the development of athletics at Towson University – a large 4-year public institution located in the mid-Atlantic (King-White & Beissel, 2018). In that project we gathered information about the institution from a variety of news sources (40 year analysis of school newspapers, local and national coverage in newspapers, magazines, and television shows), interviews of two past Presidents (including the current Chancellor of the University Systems of Maryland), current and former athletic directors, coaches, students, athletes, faculty, staff, and the comptroller of Maryland in order to create a rich genealogical case study that found that despite escalating costs and an historic lack of stakeholder support for athletics at Towson University administrators continued to push “big-time” athletics at the institution.

While we found the process interesting and enlightening it became clear to us that the ethnographic case study process actually led us to new and as-yet unanswered questions. Following, Flyvbjerg (2006, p. 19) this is actually quite normal as those who conduct such “intensive, in-depth case studies typically report that their preconceived views, assumptions, concepts, and hypotheses were wrong and that the case material has compelled them to revise their hypotheses on essential points”. One such area where our preconceived notions about college sport were significantly challenged was the oft-repeated and taken for granted statement that most schools lose millions of dollars on athletics (Hruby, 2013).

Scholars like Rodney Fort and Jason Winfree (2013), along with economists Patrick Hruby (2013), Andy Schwarz (2014, 2017), and Dan Rascher (e.g. Dinzeo, 2014) have complicated this as little more than accounting trickery. Specifically, the aforementioned scholars and economists have made cogent points that Universities are able to hide revenues generated by athletics programs as being a part of institutional windfalls, grossly overstating the costs of educating student-athletes, and spending wastefully in order to maintain non-profit status. In all, their work has done a nice job at pointing to the fact that there is something more going on here than simply “college athletics are a drain on the institution”. However, and where we would like to complicate this a little more is to utilize our case study research in order to gain a better understanding about what all this creative accounting ‘means’ to a student at schools that charge significant amounts for mandatory athletics fees.

Put differently, while we can accept the argument that at big-time schools where revenues total over $100M for teams with historic and numerically large fan support student fees are little more than a blip on the fiscal radar, and therefore arguably “worth it”, we suggest that things are a little different at places that charge students thousands of dollars to financially back athletics programs that they do not and, largely, have never supported. What this presentation will do then, is take a deeper look into how revenues, expenses, and inter-departmental transfers are recorded and reported to administrators and the general public. In so doing we hope to be able to more clearly explain to the audience, students, faculty, administrators, and the general public how money moves in and around athletics in the University in order to better understand both why and to what ends it flows in the ways that it does.
References


Is there Support for Support? Examining the Use of Online Support Groups for Athletes with Career-Ending Injuries
Amanda L. Paule-Koba, Bowling Green State University
Kaitlin Rohrs-Cordes, Bowling Green State University

One way or another, an NCAA athlete’s competitive collegiate athletic career will come to an end. An athlete will either choose to leave the sport, retire upon completion of his or her eligibility, continue on to play the sport professionally, or be forced to stop playing due to forces outside of their control. One way to that athletes are forced to stop playing in college may be due to suffering a career-ending injury. A career-ending injury is an injury or illness that restricts an athlete’s participation in further varsity competition in the college sport(s) in which he or she received financial aid (NCAA, 2013). Forced early retirement due to a career-ending injury is a unique and traumatic life event for an NCAA collegiate athlete (Blinde & Greendorfer, 1985).

The NCAA claims to support and protect collegiate athletes with a priority on their well-being (NCAA, 2013). However, collegiate athletic organizations receive criticism for the exploitation of collegiate athletes to generate revenue and for the insensitive management of athletes suffering career-ending injuries (Beamon, 2008; Zirin, 2013). Despite NCAA provision of Catastrophic and Exceptional Student-Athlete Disability Insurance Programs and potential for athletic scholarship renewal by collegiate athletic departments, problems due to the NCAA’s lack of attention to the psychosocial effects associated with career-ending injuries suffered by athletes in college sport still exist.

Although the NCAA financially helps some of these athletes, problems still arise due to insufficient acknowledgement of the psychosocial effects of career-ending injuries. The majority of these athletes feel they face the results of their injuries alone (Blinde & Stratta, 1992; Stoltenburg, Kamphoff, & Lindstrom Bremer, 2011). Little research has evaluated the effectiveness of a common psychosocial intervention for these athletes, and the topic has not received adequate attention from professionals responsible for the well-being of these athletes (Lavallee, 2005).

The purpose of this qualitative study was to investigate if an NCAA-sponsored online support group would help collegiate athletes with career-ending injuries transition out of college sport. Participants were identified using purposive criterion sampling (Patton, 2002). Semi-structured interviews were conducted with twelve former Division I NCAA collegiate athletes who experienced a career-ending injury. Participants were asked questions that explored the experiences they encountered during their transition out of collegiate sport, identified their opinions regarding the NCAA’s handling of career-ending injuries, discovered the services they would desire from the NCAA to facilitate sport exit, and concluded the likelihood of them utilizing an NCAA sponsored online support group if it incorporated their preferred format. After the interviews were completed, the digital voice recordings were transcribed verbatim by the researchers (Patton, 2002; Silverman, 2001). The authors worked through each interview to develop lower order themes using an inductive method (Patton, 2002). Upon reaching consensus and identifying “repeated” themes, the research team was able to determine common experiences, opinions, and needs of former collegiate athletes sustaining career-ending injuries. The process of identifying themes continued until all the lower order themes were combined to form the higher order themes.
Four major themes emerged from the data analysis of the participants’ interview transcripts: Transition, Effects of Support, Lack of NCAA Support, and Support Group. Implications practitioners could use to help ease these athletes’ transition out of sports were identified and a foundation was established for future studies regarding the helpfulness of online support groups for career-ending injured athletes.

References


Big-Time college sports, in particular, college football, is dominating the news now perhaps more than ever. In addition, most of this news is occurring off the field of play. Virtually every day, new corruptions of the game are announced that include, rules violations, scandals, outrageous coaching salaries, television-driven economic decisions that often result in conference re-alignments that break with long-held traditions. The formation of so-called Super Conferences is the focus of this research. Some reformers suggest a return to strictly amateur athletes adhering to a code of ethics that may no longer exist. Yet, others suggest that since the U.S. is the only country in the world that combines big-time revenue generating sports in an academic setting that we should separate the two functions and pay players for their services.

Work by Rooney in the 1980’s (The Recruiting Game) suggested a ‘practical solution’ to the scandals and corruption along with the monetary inequities that plagued big-time college sports in the past and now more than ever in the present. Rooney measured the success of programs over time (1952-1983) and determined the most and least successful programs should follow different paths or missions as their focus into the future. The purpose of this project was to update the last three and a half decades of success variables and re-examine Rooney’s ‘practical solution’ which included proposed Super Conferences and see how they have weathered the test of time and make projections on how future conferences should be shaped.
National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) members at the Division One (D1) Power Five (P5) conference level average the largest attendance among all football programs per season (NCAA, 2017) and are the highest revenue earners among all collegiate athletic departments (NCAA, 2016). Students at many P5 institutions are initially attracted to a specific college or university because of athletics (Tomas & Cross, 1998). Fandom is powerful across multiple levels whether that be attracting students to a specific institution (Tomas & Cross, 1998), influencing consumers purchase behaviors (Thorne & Bruner, 2006), establishing a sense of tradition (Foster & Hyatt, 2008), or uniting groups of people (Branscombe & Wann, 1991). For the athletic departments at P5 institutions, fandom is the element that drives commercial activity in the form of merchandise deals, ticket sales, and television contracts, all of which aid in providing the funding for an athletic departments’ athletic teams (McEvoy, Morse, & Shapiro, 2014). The commercial element of P5 sports is unique when compared to all other levels of collegiate athletics as the entertainment value of an individual athletic game or contest is a determining factor in fandom (Wann, 1995). Collegiate athletes, more specifically profit-athletes, are at the center of this entertainment as they make up the athletic teams that provide the most revenue for an athletic department. Television contracts and conference specific television networks [e.g. the Southeastern Conference (SEC) Network and the Pacific-12 (Pac-12) Network] have created an increased exposure of profit-athletes (Dent, 2012). The exposure, however, is almost solely athletics related and may cast a specific label on an athlete based off their merits as an athlete rather than any other factor which can further engulfment into the athletic role (Schur, 1971). With exposure limited to that of the athletic based identity of profit-athletes, viewers and fans alike gain very limited access into a profit-athlete’s life but their exposure may lead them to make assumptions or create labels applied to all profit-athletes (Ward & Friedman, 2006). High school aged athletes may alter their identity based in an attempt to align themselves with a profit-athlete that may be seen as an example of their own individual goal, earning a collegiate athletic scholarship (Hyman & Sierra, 2009; Karniol, 2001).

The recruitment process of high school aged athletes participating in sports that generate revenue on the collegiate level is a big money industry in itself (Brady, Kelly, & Berkowitz, 2015). Millionaire college coaches with bigger than life personas maneuver their way into the lives of high school athletes and their families during a time when adolescents are extremely impressionable (Reid, 2005). The recruitment process is inherently lavish in the manner athletes are encouraged to attend a specific institution through daily communication and visits to campus (Dumond, Lynch, & Platania, 2008). Athletic programs erect multi-million-dollar sport specific facilities and renovate existing facilities with the hope of attracting new talent to attend the institution (Klenosky, Templin, & Troutman, 2001). In regard to revenue generating sports, the stakes in recruiting are higher and come with greater ramifications than all other sports (Caro, 2012; Langelett, 2003). Universities rely on revenue generating sports to provide a level of entertainment that draws in multi-year, big-money contracts in the form of merchandising deals, ticket sales, and television contracts (McEvoy et al., 2014). Therefore, the recruitment of profit-
athletes is of high priority and the dollars expended to assist in recruiting efforts within P5 athletic programs furthers this point (Brady et al., 2015).

Athletic role engulfment by profit-athletes competing in P5 men’s football is a problem due to the negative outcomes in the classroom (Adler & Adler, 1985; Snyder 1985), social settings (Curry, 1991; Leichliter, Meilman, Presley, & Cashin, 1998; Martens, Dams-O’Connor, & Beck, 2006), and one’s post athletic career (Kidd, Southall, Nagel, Reynolds, & Anderson, 2018). However, a gap exists in the research of role engulfment of collegiate athletes as to the role college and university institutions play in the formation of a collegiate athlete role. The purpose of this study is to examine the role in which colleges and universities have in the formation of collegiate athlete role engulfment. The present study aims to further the academic literature on athletic role engulfment by examining the exposure a football student athlete has to college through the experience of an official visit college recruiting trip. The significance of this study is that by identifying the role institutions occupy in athletic role engulfment we may better understand the concept of athletic role engulfment that may benefit further studies in the field. By examining athletic role engulfment through the lens of the recruiting process of an official visit the author’s goal is to establish an understanding of institutional involvement in the process of athletic role engulfment that has negative effects on profit-athletes.

References


College football began November 6, 1869, with a game between Princeton and Rutgers at College Field on the Rutgers campus in New Brunswick, New Jersey. The game was actually the international game of football, or soccer. Each team had 25 players, comprised of two goalies, known as “captains of the enemy’s goal,” (Herbert, in Danzig, 1971, p.3), defenders, called “fielders,” and offensive players, termed “bulldogs.” The first team to score six goals was the winner, with Rutgers prevailing 6-4.

Columbia and Yale, along with Rutgers and Princeton, met to formulate intercollegiate rules in 1873, but Harvard declined, having broken from the tradition of soccer and adopted the English game of rugby. After a concession on rules, Harvard and Yale played in 1875 “a hybrid game that was part soccer and part rugby” (Danzig, 1971, p. xiv). Princeton joined Harvard and Yale in a move to rugby the following year.

The most influential figure in the evolution of football on college campuses was Walter Camp of Yale, who devised the concept of possession through rules on scrimmage and downs, thus transforming the game of rugby into American football. Camp also set the number of participants at eleven, defined scoring plays and developed a point system for them, and introduced the forward pass.

The early days of football were marked by brute force and mass play. The year 1905 included 18 player deaths and 149 serious injuries. In October of that year President Theodore Roosevelt demanded reform of college football, absent which he threatened to abolish the sport. A new organization for oversight of football and other college sports was created in 1906, taking the name of the Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States, but four years later was renamed the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) and has remained the governing body to the present time.

The capacity of the new game for revenue generation was apparent even in its early days. The great powers of the Midwest constructed stadiums with large initial capacities. Ohio State in 1922 opened Ohio Stadium, with a capacity of 66,210. Although seven of the 13 largest stadiums today are found in the Southeastern Conference, most SEC institutions built small stadiums and expanded them in piecemeal fashion, responding to demand for increased seating.

The Pasadena Tournament of Roses staged the first post-season football game in 1902, known initially as “The Tournament East-West Football Game.” Michigan so dominated Stanford that the game was called before the end of the second half, and Tournament organizers shelved football until 1916 when the first game entitled the Rose Bowl was played. The Cotton Bowl debuted in 1937, two years following the Orange and Sugar Bowls and one year after the Sun Bowl.

While bowls possessed authority over post-season revenue, the NCAA exercised tight control of the regular season television contract beginning in 1951, limiting both the total number of games and appearances by individual members. Sensing the opportunity cost, the principal conferences other than the Big Ten and Pacific Ten chose as representative plaintiffs the universities of Oklahoma and Georgia to challenge the association on an Anti-Trust claim. The United States Supreme Court found the television contract violated the Sherman Act, limiting both price and output (NCAA v. Board of Regents of University of Oklahoma et al., 468
U.S. 85 (1984)). The decision was a watershed in the commercialization of football and of college athletics in general, leading to an explosion of television exposure and revenue. While conferences, universities, coaches and administrators proved beneficiaries of the newfound wealth, players were limited to athletic scholarships. The most successful challenge to revenue sharing was an Anti-Trust action led by former UCLA basketball star Ed O’Bannon and others, resulting in stipends paid to athletes for cost of attendance (802 F.3d 1049, 9th Cir. 2015, cert. denied). However, Northwestern football players pursued a labor law claim, seeking to form a union. The regional director determined the players were employees, but the National Labor Relations Board vacated the decision, holding that union recognition would create chaos in the college football labor market (Northwestern University v. College Athletes Players Association, Case No. 13-RC-121359 (2015)). Nonetheless, relaxed NCAA rules on transfer and the prevalence of graduate transfers are intimations of free agency.

A tradition of observing major anniversaries is the placement of a time capsule, to be opened in 50 or 100 years. What questions about college football might we raise for future generations? With mounting neurological evidence of chronic traumatic encephalopathy, will parents still permit their sons to play football? Will college football players be primarily students or primarily employees? Will the game sustain fan interest in the intense competition for the entertainment dollar and the yet unknown technology of the future?

Reference

ACADEMIC PRESENTATIONS – SESSION 5
2:10-2:40pm

(B1A) Education Versus Athletics: What would Division I Football and Basketball Players Choose?  
*B. David Ridpath, Andrew Rudd, & Sarah Stokowski*

(B1B) The Tipping Point: Coaches Work Engagement and Workaholism  
*Marlene A. Dixon, Matt Huml, & Elizabeth Taylor*

(CR1A) Beyond the Lights: An Examination of the Perceived Roles of Race within Intercollegiate Athletic Administration  
*Leland Brown III, & Alicia Cintron*

(CR1B) eGames are Not Sports: Why this Distinction Matters and Why the NCAA is about to Make a Big Mistake  
*Adam G. Pfleegor, & Colleen English*

(CR1C) “We Need Dawgs!” Narrative Construction of Athletic Identity among Black Pre-Collegiate Football Players  
*Victor D. Kidd, Chris Corr, & Richard M. Southall*
Education Versus Athletics: What would Division I Football and Basketball Players Choose if They Had the Option

B. David Ridpath, Ohio University
Andrew Rudd, Belmont Abbey College
Sarah Stokowski, University of Arkansas

Under the current “winning at all cost” model in Division I athletics, raising academic standards may be an ineffective approach for addressing rampant academic misconduct. As an alternative, the researchers suggest allowing Division I basketball and football players the freedom to choose the pursuit of a college degree while participating in college athletics. It is proposed that doing so would remedy the problem of college athletes attempting to earn degrees that they are wholly unprepared to achieve or being placed in more of an eligibility driven curriculum. However, it is currently unknown how many college athletes would choose solely to participate in athletics during their defined athletic eligibility period. As a result, the purpose of this study was to conduct an exploratory investigation into Division I basketball and football players’ attitudes towards the option of participating in college athletics without pursuing a degree. Accordingly, the primary research question for this study is: What percentage of Division I basketball and football players would choose to participate in college athletics without pursuing a degree versus the percentage that would choose to do both and why?

Data were analyzed via a non-experimental descriptive design was utilized to answer this study’s research question. The surveyed population consisted of 153 Division I football (FBS) and basketball players using a 6-item electronic questionnaire. Specifically, there were 92 football and 58 men’s basketball players who participated. Results via various statistical analyses demonstrated that over 80% of respondents desired to play sport and earn degree, but that was influenced by belief in whether they could go on to the professional ranks or not. A statistically significant relationship was found between an athlete’s belief that they can play professionally and their choice to either play and earn degree simultaneously or play only. Other analyses were also performed to assess results by year in school and by sport. Overall results indicated a desire to pursue a degree and play by most athletes, but that choice is influenced by how the individual athlete views playing professional after college.
Work commitment among sport employees remains a fertile area for investigation, particularly as work hours and pressure to perform continue to rise (Burke, 2001; Schaufeli, Leiter, & Maslach, 2009). Work commitment has been conceptualized as two-tailed, with engaged employees on one end and workaholics on the other. Several scholars have suggested workaholism is simply fanatical or extreme work engagement (Bakker, Albrecht, & Leiter, 2011; Schaufeli, Bakker, van der Heijden, & Prins, 2009). That is, committed workers begin as engaged – they are enthusiastic about their work, committed to the organization and its goals, and desire success (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá, & Bakker, 2002). However, when these characteristics are taken to the extreme, especially in a high-pressure environment, the workers could become “so immersed in their work that they forget to rest or to maintain personal relationships” (Schaufeli et al., 2011, p. 18). What, then, are the conditions or factors that may foster or protect against workaholism, such that workers maintain engagement without becoming overly engrossed in their work to the detriment of their long-term well-being? Given the evidence that the coaching context may be one that is ripe for workaholism (Taylor, Huml, & Dixon, in press), this study investigates the relationship between work engagement and workaholism, and the factors contributing to or protect against workaholism among intercollegiate athletic department employees.

The main hypothesis for the study was the following:

\[ H_1: \text{There will be a positive, direct relationship between work engagement and workaholism.} \]

Other factors to consider include work-family interactions and work flexibility. First, highly engaged employees typically report high levels of work-family conflict. While this creates issues in the family realm, it is possible as an employee faces more pressure to fill family roles, it may protect them from workaholism. Thus, the following hypothesis is presented:

\[ H_2: \text{The relationship between work engagement and workaholism will be partially mediated by work-family conflict.} \]

Work flexibility is a resource for employees to reduce pressure and commitment for work and allow employees to prioritize their other roles, such as family (Grant & Kiesler, 2001). Thus, work flexibility could act as a protective factor to workaholism. Thus, the following hypothesis is presented:

\[ H_3: \text{The relationship between participant’s job flexibility will be:} \]
\[ a. \text{Negative, direct relationship with workaholism} \]
\[ b. \text{Negative, direct relationship with WFC} \]
\[ c. \text{Positive, direct relationship with work engagement} \]

This study examined the perceptions of work engagement, workaholism, and work-life conflict within a large sample of full-time athletic department employees at NCAA institutions.
The sample consisted of 4,167 intercollegiate athletic department employees from all three divisions, ranging in age from 22 to 76 years old (M = 35.8), and work experience from less than a year to 56 years (M = 10.7). Using previously validated instruments, participants reported levels of work engagement, workaholism, work-family conflict, work flexibility, and a range of demographic variables.

Structural equation modeling (AMOS 24) was utilized to test the relationship between work-family conflict, workaholism, and engagement as proposed in the hypotheses. To assess model fit for the structural model, we utilized recommendations from Kline (2005) and Hooper and colleagues (2008). The results of the structural model analysis indicated the model provided good fit to the data ($x^2 = 3604.34, df = 235, p < .001; CFI = .93; GFI = .93; AGFI = .91; RMSEA = .06$).

Hypothesis 1 was supported; the structural model showed a significant, positive relationship between workaholism and employee engagement ($\beta = .17, p < .001$). Hypothesis 2 was supported; the indirect effect of workaholism on engagement, as mediated by work-family conflict was significant ($\beta = -.18, p < .001$). Hypothesis 3A was supported; respondents’ schedule flexibility had a statistically significant, negative relationship with workaholism (WART; $\beta = -.14, p < .001$). Hypothesis 3B was supported, respondents’ schedule flexibility had a statistically significant, negative relationship with their work-family conflict (WFC; $\beta = -.14, p < .001$). Hypothesis 3C was not supported; respondents’ schedule flexibility had a statistically significant, positive relationship with their family-work conflict (FWC; $\beta = .07, p < .001$).

These findings support arguments that work engagement can lead to workaholism. Working in high pressure career vocations can morph highly engaged workers into workaholics as a means for satiating their employer’s expectations. They also suggest work-family conflict could be a protective factor toward workaholism. It is potentially beneficial for employers to encourage their employees to engage in outside family activities or hobbies in attempts to aid in continued work engagement. Finally, the findings suggest work supports such as flexibility may also help protect against workaholism. Employers who provide their employees with work-life supportive benefits and encourage usage of the benefits may be able to prolong engagement while minimizing workaholism and the negative consequences.

References


Beyond the Lights: An Examination of the Perceived Roles of Race & within Intercollegiate Athletic Administration  
Leland Brown III, University of Cincinnati  
Alicia Cintron, Ph.D., University of Cincinnati

Over time, research has shown that sport organizations significantly lack racial, gender, and ethnic diversity (Stowe & Sage, 2018). Women and racial minorities account for 12.3% of NCAA Division I Ads, despite there being a hiring pool of 45.4% of women and racial minority administrators for NCAA Division I positions (Lapchick 2015; Wells & Kerwin 2016). Over the past three decades, progress to increase this diversity within Athletic departments has remained stagnant (“Snail-Like Progress,” 2005). The perceived stagnation has been born from a slew of problems including institutional racism, a lack of access and resources, and negative stereotypes based on gender and race (Stowe & Sage, 2018). Cunningham & Sagas (2005) suggested lack of access for minorities in sport derives from several dimensions of contextual discrimination: the location, the racial breakdown of the actors displaying racist acts, and the type of hostility or discrimination taking place. Moreover, issues of racism and access discrimination are particularly salient in the context of higher education. These issues affect faculty, students, and athletic personnel (Cunningham & Sagas, 2005). The adverse effect of access discrimination has led to athletics being a segregated field dominated by males, specifically White males, in athletic administration positions (Lapchick, 2017). This is a problem our society knows all too well as racism and racial ideology in the U.S. is linked to moral worth (Coakley, 2017).

Racial ideology is an interrelated system of beliefs used to classify certain human beings in categories assumed to be biological and related to attributes such as intelligence, temperament and physical abilities based on race (Coakley, 2017). Although research is limited, data has shown that minority groups, particularly African Americans, have more difficulty obtaining prominent roles in the management structures of sport due to racist ideology (Lapchick, 2017). Within Intercollegiate Athletic Administration, people are more likely to associate whites with upper-level positions and African Americans with more peripheral leadership roles (Cunningham, 2012), suggesting racist ideologies are embedded within the world of collegiate sport. Cunningham and Sagas (2005) purport lack of diversity in the workforce is due to attributions made by White employers toward job applicants with different races than themselves led to the assumption of conflict in the work place, to be unreliable, and to possess a poor attitude.

While White males dominate, control, and lead the world of sport, there is a lack of research on the perceived roles race and gender have within the world of sport (Stowe & Sage, 2018). Regarding theoretical framework, Social Dominance Theory (SDT) and Critical Race Theory (CRT) has been used to help researchers understand the perception of race in sport. CRT has been applied in sport management research to give relevancy to the cultural context of race relations as it relates to the perceptions of race within sport (Stowe & Sage, 2018). SDT provides a framework for investigating the underpinnings of such a hierarchical structure, where the dominant groups have secured a disproportionate share of social status, power, and other symbolic things of positive social value in comparison to the oppressed group (Wells & Kerwin, 2017). SDT’s focus is on both the structural and the individual factors contributing to group-based oppression (Wells & Kerwin, 2017). SDT’s application in sport management research has focused on the notion that individuals’ behaviors are shaped by legitimized myths or social
ideologies used to justify the establishment and maintain group-based social inequities or equities (Wells & Kerwin, 2017).

Unlike majority of their White counterpart’s Black sports administration students expect lower-level career opportunities in the sport industry rather than on the upper levels (Stowe & Sage, 2018). In order to address, combat, and change this problematic narrative Stowe and Sage (2018) suggests it is imperative to educate both practitioners and future sports leaders of the discrimination, privilege, and inequities practiced within the sport industry. While inequities remain constant within the hiring of minorities, we as researchers must ask ourselves, are we doing enough? The goals of this research study are to (1) address the apparent, yet, inadequately researched topic of racial inequity in intercollegiate athletic administration, (2) consider how minorities perceive race, social status, power, and the hierarchal structures within intercollegiate athletic departments, before lastly, (3) contributing to the scholarly work used to alleviate race-based barriers within intercollegiate athletic administration. Part one will cover the history of racial inequity (both perceived and factual) within intercollegiate athletic administration. Part two will apply CRT and SDT to the current landscape of collegiate athletics. Part three will identify the potential consequences with the continued lack of research on the perceptions of race in correlation to self-efficacy and career opportunities.

References


eGames are Not Sports: Why this Distinction Matters and Why the NCAA is About to Make a Big Mistake
Adam G. Pfleegor, Belmont University
Colleen English, Penn State Berks

Over the past few years, the rise in popularity of eSports in the United States has been evident. In a special issue in Sport Management Review dedicated to eSports, Cunningham, et. al. (2018) outlined increased attendance at eSports events and revenue increases year after year ($660 million revenue in the United States in 2017). From this increase in popularity, eSports coverage in academia has followed suit with amplified attention to the phenomena spanning several academic fields, including sport management, sport philosophy, kinesiology, biomechanics, and general management (i.e., management, marketing).

One such interesting debate in the new academic discourse surrounding eSports is determining its place in the academy by defining the parameters of eSports contests. That is, do eSports constitute as sports and are they worthy of study in our field? Several sport management scholars (e.g., Hallmann & Giel, 2018; Heere, 2018; Jenny, et. al., 2018; and Scaeperkoetter) have advocated that eSports are indeed sports (or that the distinction does not matter) and they firmly belong in the academic discourse and applied field of sport and sport management. However, scholars from other fields, most notably sport philosophy, have advocated that eSports do not constitute as sport, and that this distinction between sport and non-sport (e.g., games, play) is important for both academic and practical concerns (e.g., Parry, 2018).

Along with the rise in pragmatic and academic popularity, college sponsorship of eSports is increasing at a rapid pace. Recently, the Peach Belt Conference became the first NCAA conference to fully sponsor eSports (Hendrickson, 2018). In addition, the NCAA is actively discussing the possibility of sponsoring an eSports season and championship (Smith & Fischer, 2018). The NCAA’s interest should not be surprising, as sponsorship, television, social media, and exposure opportunities are abundant within the quickly growing contrived universe of online gaming.

This presentation has three primary objectives. First, after examining the current state of eSports in the United States and the NCAA’s apparent move toward sponsorship, we will utilize the philosophical theory of sport to argue that eSports are not indeed sports. With this revelation, we propose the proper nomenclature of eGames for the online activities and explain why this distinction does not make them inferior. Second, we intend to clarify the need of defining our activities and why the delineation of sport versus non-sport is important for academics and practitioners alike. Finally, using these distinctions, we will make the case the NCAA is wrong in wanting to sponsor eGames and how this move would entrench themselves as an organization that places profits over athletes.

References


Within college sport settings there have been several examinations of athletic identity and sport participation (Beamon, 2008; Beamon & Bell, 2006, 2011; Bimper, 2014; Bimper & Harrison, 2011; Harrison, Tranyowicz, Bukstein, McPherson-Botts, & Lawrence, 2014). Development of a salient athletic identity, which may result from athletic role engulfment (Adler & Adler, 1991; Goldberg & Chandler, 1995; Kidd, Southall, Nagel, Reynolds, & Anderson, 2018), makes athletes susceptible to difficulties pertaining to sport retirement (Beamon & Bell, 2011; Singer, 2008), conflicting athletic and academic role sets (Beamon, 2012; Goldberg, & Chandler, 1989; Lapchick, 1987), and racial identity issues (Gaston, 1986). Previous research has included general examinations of college athletes’ athletic identity (Houle, Brewer, & Kluck, 2010; Murphy, Petitpas, & Brewer, 1996), career maturity and readiness (Brown & Hartley, 1998; Lally & Kerr, 2005; McQuown-Linnemeyer & Brown, 2010), as well as substance abuse (Lisha & Sussman, 2010). Notably, there is a lack of research regarding high school athletes’ athletic identity development.

Recently, there have been calls for the use of narrative identity theory, narrative analysis, and narrative approaches to understand a myriad of phenomena (McGannon & Smith, 2015; Smith, 2010; Smith & Sparkes, 2009, 2009; Smith & Weed, 2007; Stride, Fitzgerald, & Allison, 2017). Consequently, the current study adopted a narrative identity approach (Hammack, 2008; McAdams & Mclean, 2013; McLean, Pasupathi, & Pals, 2007) to explore how athletic identity, roles, and responsibilities inform the narrative identity of high school football players. The current study implemented a narrative identity approach to examine the lived experiences of current black pre-collegiate football players currently enrolled in the local high school in Washington, D.C. Researchers conducted semi-structured interviews with players, school staff, and coaches, while serving as an participant observer to (a) delineate how athletic identity, roles, and responsibilities were symbolically interpreted within and through social institutions, personal interactions, and the historical context of such lived experiences (Ezzy, 1998), and (b) determine ways in which narrative construction of a salient athletic identity, along with pre-collegiate hyper-devotion to athletic roles and responsibilities, affected academic and social development of pre-collegiate football players.

Presenters will discuss narrative identity theory and narrative construction to provide theoretical understanding of how social constructed identities permeate the sport context. In addition, presenters will provide preliminary results, along with plans for completion of the project along with practical and theoretical implications for the field of sport and entertainment management.

References


A Critical Analysis of Black Males’ Miseducation and Exploitation through Collegiate Sport and Reform Strategies for True Education and Empowerment
Joseph N. Cooper

Dealing with Parents: Views from Intercollegiate Coaches
Megan Parietti & Sean Dahlin

Staff-to-Facility Imbalance within Division I FCS and No-Football Athletic Facilities Operations Departments
Kelly P. Elliott, Camille A. Patterson, Timothy Kellison, & Beth A. Cianfrone

Recruiting and Marketing Athletes at HBCU ‘s
Jaime Orejan

College-Athlete Experiences: A Comparison of Time Demands of Athletes and Non-Athletes
Chuck Provencio & Yan Gioseffi
A Critical Analysis of Black Males’ Miseducation and Exploitation through College Sports and Reform Strategies for True Education and Empowerment

Previous research on Black male college athletes’ experiences and outcomes has documented the damaging effects of the exploitative structure of intercollegiate athletics in the United States (U.S.). Given their unique positionality within broader U.S. social structures, this presentation will outline an emerging theory of gendered racism in and through sport and miseducation at the intercollegiate level (also referred to as Black male athletic role engulfment and identity foreclosure socialization process). Unlike their different race peers who participate in the same sports, the impact of Black males’ exploitation through sport and miseducation yields distinctive effects on the collective group. A unique component of this presentation is the infusion of a critical ecological systems analysis that will connect National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) policies, practices, and outcomes with broader societal trends. Topics such as special admissions, academic underpreparedness, problematic enrollment trends, toxic workplace cultures, academic clustering, gender racial gaps with academic progress rates (APRs) and graduation success rates (GSRs), myth of the collegiate model and amateurism, and economic exploitation are highlighted. The presentation will also offer specific reform strategies for enhancing Black male college athletes’ education, empowerment, and holistic development. These multi-level recommendations illustrate a paradigm shift centered on college athletes’ empowerment and overall well-being by accounting for the colorblind (gendered) racism intercollegiate athletics.
Dealing with Parents: Views from Intercollegiate Coaches
Megan Parietti, University of Wisconsin Parkside
Sean Dahlin, University of Wisconsin Parkside

Parents are often very influential in their child’s life (Melendez & Melendez, 2010). Parental involvement has typically been agreed to be beneficial to children (Odenweller, Booth-Butterfield, & Weber, 2014); however, it has also been found that too much involvement can be detrimental (Cullaty, 2011). At the college level, it has been found that parents are becoming increasingly involved in the lives of their children, including student-athletes (Cullaty, 2011; Parietti, Sutherland, & Pastore, 2017). Parietti et al. (2017) found that student-athletes and academic advisors for athletics believed that many parents were very involved in the lives of student-athletes. The advisors indicated that they had seen this involvement increase throughout their careers. Cullaty (2011) shared that since the year 2000, there has been a cultural shift in how parents are involved in their children’s lives.

The importance of parental involvement and the changes of how parents are involved has many implications for the coach-parent relationship. Few researchers have examined this aspect of coaching. The purpose of this study was to see how coaches navigate their relationships with the parents of their student-athletes. Thirteen coaches from three universities (NCAA Division I, II, and III) agreed to participate in this project. Each participant was asked to be involved in two interviews and to keep a journal for two weeks. The initial interview addressed what coaches thought about the parent-coach relationship and how they addressed the relationship. After the initial interview the coaches journaled every interaction they had with parents over a two-week period. Finally, the coaches participated in a second interview where themes from the first interview, follow-up questions, and their journals were discussed. Two participants chose to stop participation after their first interview. Their information was still utilized, but it was understood that this was a limitation.

Thematic analyses were run on the transcripts and journal entries. The following were themes that emerged: Interactions with Parents, Questions, Support, Drawing the Line, and Good and Bad Parents. Coaches shared that they had many interactions with parents and these interactions varied in many ways. They also explained that parents often asked questions and offered support. The coaches had to navigate drawing the line with parents of what they would and would not discuss. Also, the coaches shared stories of “good” parents and “bad” parents with whom they had interacted. Implications for coaches, parents, and those who work with student-athletes will be shared as well.

References

Staff-to-Facility Imbalance within Division I FCS and No-Football Athletic Facilities Operations Departments
Kelly P. Elliott, Georgia State University
Camille A. Patterson, Georgia State University
Timothy Kellison, Georgia State University
Beth A. Cianfrone, Georgia State University

As both athletic department budgets and the number of facilities managed have expanded across many colleges and universities, facilities operations staffs may report being overworked as a result of growing responsibilities and dwindling budgets. When comparing athletic revenues and expenses, the trend of schools outspending their revenues to compete with peer institutions is clear. For instance, in review of the Division I institutions placed in the Football Championship Subdivision (FCS), schools have increased revenue by 82.5 percent; however, to keep up with peers, they have increased expenses by 88.4 percent (Burnsed, 2014). Although institutions continue to lose money in athletics, keeping up with peers seems to be key as a university’s prestige or position relative to other universities, including new and updated facilities, has been cited as a significant factor in attracting top recruits (Judge et al., 2014). However, as the number of sports facilities managed by a university grows, it is unclear whether the number of employees staffing these facilities has kept pace. Thus, colleges and universities may prioritize investment in new or upgraded facilities (cf. Hobson & Rich, 2015) over the hiring of additional staff, even when supplementary facilities are acquired and managed by the athletic department.

A recent example is Abilene Christian University, who in 2017 opened a new stadium on campus for its football team. Previously, the FCS institution shared its stadium with the local Abilene school district (Abilene Christian University, 2017). In contrast, the new stadium is the university’s first on campus since 1942. However, despite the change from a city-owned field to an on-campus venue, there still appears to be limited staff for this new stadium. According to the staff directory page on the institution’s athletic website, there are no employees designated as facilities operation staff. Although there are employees responsible for external or internal operations, none are designated as solely responsible for the new stadium. The lack of staff designated to operate this new facility indicates the new stadium may have created additional demands on current athletic staff members. This example illustrates a potential staff-to-facility imbalance.

Like Abilene Christian, East Tennessee State University completed construction of a new football stadium in 2017. However, in contrast to Abilene Christian, ETSU designated two employees for facilities operations. These differing staffing responses suggest not all institutions follow the conventional wisdom of expanding staff whenever new athletic properties are constructed. With this difference in athletic staffing it is unclear if the additional employees are necessary. Further investigation into the current state of athletic department facilities and operation staffing could help identify where issues may arise in facilities and operations department and determine best practices. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which NCAA Division I athletic departments face staff-to-facility ratio imbalances, and how these institutions plan for the future in terms of staffing.
Method and Analysis

To examine the extent to which growth in facilities operations staffs was consistent with facility numbers, an electronic survey was distributed to 218 senior-level employees in the athletic facilities operations departments of Division I FCS and no-football institutions.

Facilities operations department directors were asked both closed and open-response questions about staffing, budget allocations, the total number of facilities, and distance to facilities from the main office. Descriptive statistics were assessed for the closed items. Content analysis of the qualitative responses was conducted to identify themes and patterns within the empirical material. Through the coding process, themes of staffing, budgets, multiple responsibilities, and time demands were identified.

Discussion and Implications

Based on the empirical material collected, it appears that despite the perception by administrators that their facilities operations departments are understaffed, there is little expectation from facilities and operations employees that significant changes will be made in the near future. By increasing facilities yet stagnating the department in charge of maintaining these facilities, the only option facilities operations staffs have is to work longer hours to accomplish these additional responsibilities. One hundred percent of participants stated they were overworked and understaffed, either during the busy season or throughout the year. To remedy the imbalance of the staff-to-facility ratio, several recommendations were provided by the facilities and operations staff surveyed. First, athletics personnel should improve communication between coaches and, when possible, schedule games, tournaments, and events in a more practical way that ensures the facilities operations staff has enough time to maintain facilities between events. Second, facility managers should work with human resources or the athletic administration to establish policies that will allow for staffing budgets to adjust according to the number of facilities owned and operated by the university athletic department. Finally, when facility staff is unavailable, use senior athletic department staff members to act as game managers.

References


Recruiting and Marketing the Student-Athlete at HBCU’s
Jaime Orejan, Limestone College

In today’s economy, one of the most challenging aspects of the small athletic departments at Historical Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) is recruitment and retention. It is no secret that small colleges and certainly HBCU rely heavily on the enrollment of the student-athlete due to the need for tuition dollars. Students have the opportunity to choose from a plethora of colleges and universities throughout each geographic region (Reynders, 2000). With heavy competition for these tuition dollars the need for athletic administrators to know and understand the needs and desires of these student-athletes is critical for the subsistence of their institutions (Alden, 2000; Hall, 2015).

HBCUs still serve as institutions for a higher education, but the athletic departments, especially regarding tier-one sports like football and basketball are losing out on big-time recruits to bigger programs. This is a problem for HBCUs for a number of reasons. “I think what makes it especially challenging is that marketing is pretty much a new area of expertise for our black institutions,” says Philip McAlpin, president of Focus Marketing, a Greensboro, N.C., company that produces “Black College Sports Today,” a weekly program on ESPN (Berg 2018).

Marketing, once a foreign concept in most college athletic programs, has become part of the everyday vocabulary of sports management. Unfortunately, below the highest levels of Division I competition, marketing is more often talked about than practiced effectively, particularly at HBCU’s.

There have been numerous studies that have researched the factors that persuade the general student population’s choice of colleges and universities (Mathes & Gurney, 1985; Martin & Dixon, 1991; Hamrick & Hossler, 1996; Goss, Jubenville, & Orejan, 2006). Very few studies, however, have focused the student-athlete’s reasons for attending a particular school (Gabert, Hale & Montalvo, 1999), but none on the student-athlete at HBCU’s. The student-athlete at HBCU’s is a unique individual recruited for his/her athletic talent along with his/her academic contributions, and therefore the same factors may not apply. With more and more pressure on athletic administrators to produce winning seasons and retain and graduate their student-athletes, the recruitment as well as their marketing process is a key to their success (Mathes & Gurney, 1985).

Moreover, while prospective student-athletes may be focused on the fame they could get from attending a bigger school, the reality is that they can get to the NFL from HBCU’s. In fact, NFL Hall of Famer Jerry Rice went to Mississippi Valley State, Walter Payton went to Jackson State University, and Deacon Jones attended two HBCU’s, Mississippi Valley State and South Carolina State. Thus, recruiters may want to dismiss the notion that players have to go to a predominantly white institution (PWI) in order to get to the NFL and use these particulars as a recruiting tool when marketing their programs.

The purpose of this study sought to identify selection factors that are most influential upon HBCU’s student-athletes. Mean scores for 129 student-athletes (N=87 males and N=42 females) from three southeastern institutions were analyzed using a modified a Student-Athlete College Choice Scale previously modified by Goss, Jubenville, & Orejan (2006). Overall, four of the most influential factors were related to sport and degree programs, with both male and females similarly motivated by the same factors. Influences differed between high-profile sport
athletes who choose sport programs factors as their major influence, versus low-profile sport athletes who ranked degree programs as the most influential factor.

Results from this study imply that factors influencing student-athletes at HBCU combine athletic, academic and campus related cultural influences, and that administrators could best recruit these particular student-athletes by incorporating school culture, academics and athletics in their public relations to market their programs to these unique student-athletes’ needs.

References


Reynders, J. (2000). For such a time like this: A five-year plan for Morningside College. Sioux City, IA, Office of the President
College-Athlete Experience: A Comparison of Time Demands of Student-Athletes and Non-Athletes
Chuck Provencio, Yan Gioseffi, John Barnes, & Allison Smith
University of New Mexico

Study Background
For many student-athletes, college life can be an overwhelming challenge. Classes, homework, and academic pursuits combined with social, familial, and faith-based demands along with rigorous practice, workout, and travel schedules create a maze of stressful time pressures (Provencio & Hacker, 2017). According to the NCAA GOALS study (2016), student athletes spend approximately 34 hours per week on athletics, 14 more than the NCAA rules allow a coach to mandate. The report also showed that 42% of student-athletes wanted to spend more time on athletics, while only 16% wanted to spend less. The NCAA GOALS (2016) study also noted that student-athletes spent 38.5 hours per week on academics, 8.8 hours per week on work (among the 11-23% that were employed), and 17.1 hours per week on socialization.

Study Purpose and Procedures
This study aims to help develop the literature around the college experience by defining the time demands placed on student athletes compared with those of their non-athlete peers. Subjects will complete a student activity log, which entails logging the time spent within specified categories of academics, athletics, work, and social events (NCAA, 2016; Provencio & Hacker, 2017). Each category contains subcategories of interest (i.e., Academics > in-class). This log was derived from the NCAA GOALS study (2016) and modified by Provencio and Hacker (2017) to include non-athlete college students.

Demographic information will also be collected from the participants in order to assess differences based upon gender, race, academic class, student-athlete or non-athlete, employed or not employed, and undergraduate or graduate student status. This data will allow us to answer the following research questions:
1. What are the time demands for student-athletes in the following categories: academics, athletics, work, and social activities?
2. What are the time demands for non-athlete students in the following categories: academics, athletics, work, and social activities?
3. Is there a significant difference in time demands between student-athletes and non-athlete students in the following categories: academics, athletics, work, and social?
4. Are demographic factors such as gender, race, academic class, and being employed or not employed related to time demands?

Study Participants
Study participation was limited to college students enrolled full-time (minimum of 12 credit hours for undergraduate students or 6 credit hours for graduate students) in courses within an academic department that is focused upon health education and exercise and sport sciences. This department was specifically targeted due to the high number of athletes in its population, allowing researchers to target and access student-athletes. Participants will be recruited through the university via departmental email list and face-to-face contacts in departmental courses. Once
data is collected, the researchers will conduct a quantitative analysis using one-way and factorial analyses of variance (ANOVA).

**Study Significance**

Results from this study may assist in understanding the demands on student-athletes’ time and the differences between athlete and non-athlete students is a significant piece of information for those participating in, facilitating, or assessing collegiate athletic programs. Information on the day-to-day activities of student-athlete life compared with student non-athlete life is crucial in forming educated opinions on what student-athletes gain or lose through their participation in varsity college sports. This research is different from academic outcome studies in that it acknowledges the variety of activities that an athlete gives up to participate in their chosen sport.

**References**


ACADEMIC PRESENTATIONS – SESSION 7
3:30-4:00pm

(B1A) Career Advancement for Women in Intercollegiate Athletics: The Role of Social Capital
Donna C. Grove & Bonnie Tiell

(B1B) Does Gridiron Success Yield Applicant Intrigue? An Examination of the “Flutie Effect” through Google Trends Search Data
Brian A. Turner, James O. Evans, & Mark A. Beattie

(CR1A) “We Get Bad Jobs and No Time to Fix Them”: A Glass Cliff Examination of Black Coaching Hires in Division I Football
Robert Turick & Nicholas Swim

(CR1B) “For the Culture”: HBCU Classic Consumers’ Attraction, Identification, and Retention
Brigitte Burpo, Jessica Murfree, & T. Christopher Greenwell

(CR1C) Taking Control: Role Management in College Athletics
Arden J. Anderson
Career Advancement for Women in Intercollegiate Athletic: The Role of Social Capital
Donna C. Grove, D.Ed., York College of Pennsylvania
Bonnie Tiell, D.Ed., Tiffin University

This presentation addresses the results of a study involving intercollegiate athletics personnel (n=130) who participated in gender-specific leadership training provided by Women Leaders in College Sports (Women Leaders) between 2011-2016. Specifically, this presentation explored the presence of social capital for women in intercollegiate athletics and the impact on their career after completing one or more training programs administered by Women Leaders.

Despite the growth and presence of females in leadership positions throughout the sports field, women continually lag behind their male counterparts in high-level administrative positions in the industry (Acosta & Carpenter, 2014; Burton, 2015; O'Neil, Hopkins, & Bilimora, 2015; Taylor & Hardin, 2016). One of the arguments for increasing the availability of leadership training programs for women in intercollegiate athletics is to potentially narrow the gap in the gender-hiring practice that has historically favored white males in top administrative positions. Organizations such as Women Leaders and the NCAA are staunch promoters of advancing women in the industry and have responded to the gap-issue by providing a plethora of training, networking, and career assistance for females seeking promotions to leadership positions. However, the one constant factor in the industry has been that females are still less likely to fill the highest-ranking positions at the national, conference and institutional level. This phenomenon is true despite what is perceived as women representing a better-qualified applicant pool. Lumpkin, Achen, and Hyland (2015), for example, illustrated that female athletic administrators more frequently possess greater work experience, coaching experience, and have obtained higher-level degrees than their male counterparts serving in identical positions.

As indicated, this study explored the presence of social capital for participants in the Women Leader’s training program and the subsequent impact on career advancement. Social capital has been defined as the “investment into social relationships with expected returns” (Lin, 1999). The effectiveness of social capital is partially based on the quality of relationships (level of trust) which has been linked to the positive development of adolescent females involved in urban after-school sport-based experiences (Bruening, Clark, & Mudrick, 2015). It has been widely acknowledged that the positive effect of social capital in developing a network of individuals in different positions creates a support system that aids in an upward career trajectory (Metz & Tharenou, 2001; Sagas & Cunningham, 2004; Siebert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). Mentors are part of one’s social capital. The presence of a mentor was assessed in participants before and after attending formal training.

A total of 86% of the participants in the study advanced in their career after attending training administer by Women Leaders according to operational definitions provided in an electronic questionnaire. This large percentage (86%) supports the effectiveness of programs provided by Women Leaders which include a multitude of interconnecting development programs such as the opportunity to develop or enhance social networks. A total of 53.8% of participants already had a mentor before training and an additional 16% obtained a mentor after attendance. Noteworthy is the fact that there was no statistically significant difference (p<.05) between career advancement and the presence of a mentor. Of great interest in the study, however, was an examination of the correlation among gender alignment of a mentor (male to female or female to female), the formality of the relationship, and whether someone advanced or
didn’t advance in their career. Results of the study supported the research of Bower (2010) and Young (1990) who addressed mentorship characteristics and the impact of advancing in the field of intercollegiate athletic coaching or administration.

Since the dearth of women in administrative roles is a reality for many professions, assessing the correlation between career advancement and the impact of social capital in the field of intercollegiate athletics should resonate with other male-dominated fields. Understanding the impact of social capital, specifically in regard to gender relationships and the formality of mentorship relationships, may provide managers with insights into designing opportunities and programs that have a greater likelihood of facilitating career advancement for qualified females. Both men and women benefit from acquiring social capital, but data indicates that women in primarily male-dominated industries often navigate a more complex path and therefore may find greater value to their career advancement by aligning with mentors that possess characteristics that enhances an individual’s self-efficacy and are willing to develop meaningful relationships over the long term.

References


When describing the impact that successful intercollegiate athletics programs can have on an institution, both administrators and scholars often resort to the “front porch” analogy. That is, the way in which athletics programs serve as a gateway through which publics are exposed to an institution (Bass, Schaeperkoetter, & Bunds, 2015; Kane, 2018). In fact, recent history provides examples of the potential downstream effects successful athletics programs have on the institution at large.

In the years following a thrilling late-season victory over defending-champion Miami, Boston College claimed both applications and admissions spikes (McDonald, 2013). Similarly, Boise State University and George Mason University credited surges in applications to unexpected success in football and men’s basketball, respectively (Chung, 2013; Rhodes, 2018). At Gonzaga University admissions nearly doubled during the years its men’s basketball team rose to national prominence (1997-2007; Anderson & Birrer, 2011). These anecdotal examples describe the so-called “Flutie Effect,” named after the quarterback responsible for Boston College’s upset win over Miami.

To date, empirical studies examining the “Flutie Effect” have produced mixed results. Pope and Pope (2008) found institutions with high-ranking men’s basketball or football teams could expect an increase in the quantity (between two and eight percent) and quality (SAT scores) of applications. Among NCAA FBS institutions, Chung (2013) concluded that athletic success boosted an institution’s total applications, with gains more attributable to applicants with lower-than-average SAT scores compared to those with higher-than-average SAT scores.

The purpose of this study was to utilize search engine data to observe the “Flutie Effect” throughout one college football season. Specifically, the researchers addressed the following question: After controlling for other relevant variables, does winning as a non-favored football team significantly predict internet searches for a school’s admissions information? While the aforementioned empirical examples relied on data mined from various postsecondary databases, the current study turned to search engine data. Indeed, the notion that search engine data reflects consumption patterns has attracted the curiosity of scholars (Dinis, Costa, & Pacheco, 2017; Stevens-Davidowitz, 2017).

Six Big Ten football teams (i.e., Maryland, Michigan, Northwestern, Ohio State, Purdue, Rutgers) were purposively chosen to include the top two finishers from each division from last season and the two newest conference members. Data were collected for 14 weeks of the 2018 college football season (i.e., opening weekend through the conference championship game), yielding a total sample of 84 observations.

Multiple regression analysis was performed to determine whether winning as a non-favored team was a significant predictor of interest in the school on a weekly basis. The dependent variable was the standardized number of Google searches for the school’s name plus “admissions” on the day of the team’s game that week, retrieved from Google Trends (e.g., “Maryland admissions”). Independent variables included in the model were whether the team had a home game, a bye week, was non-favored, beat the spread, and won. Two academic-related variables served as controls: the school’s U.S. News and World Report (USNWR)
national ranking, and whether the school’s priority admission deadline was that week. Finally, to answer the substantive question of interest, an interaction term between the non-favored condition and the winning condition was added to the model.

The omnibus test for the final model suggested the overall model fit significantly better than the null model, $F(7, 65) = 2.70, p = .016$, and explained 22.5% of the variance in the dependent variable. The only two significant predictors in the model were USNWR ranking, $\beta = -0.27$, SE = 0.12, $t = -2.27, p = .027$, and bye week, $\beta = 25.5$, SE = 9.22, $t = 2.77, p = .007$. For every spot a school moved down (i.e., got worse) in the USNWR ranking, searches for that school’s admissions were expected to decrease by 0.27 percentile points. Schools on bye week were expected to have an increase of about 25.5 percentile points in searches for their admissions. The interaction term for schools that won when they were non-favored was nonsignificant, and therefore the research question was answered in the negative.

The results of the study showed no evidence of a significant “Flutie Effect” on a weekly basis for the schools in the sample. Northwestern University excepted, the schools in the study are all relatively large research universities with strong academic profiles who participate in the highest levels of college football. Therefore, the effect of an individual win or loss across time is not as meaningful as it might be at smaller, regional schools. Not surprisingly, searches for a school’s admissions were expected to decrease as the school’s USNWR ranking became worse. Interestingly, a statistically and practically significant bump was expected on bye weeks—this could be because students who are naturally interested in a certain school use that school’s open date to complete college applications. These and other implications will be explored during the presentation.

References
“We Get Bad Jobs and No Time to Fix Them”: A Glass Cliff Examination of Black Coaching Hires in Division I Football

Robert Turick, & Nicholas Swim
Ball State University

Despite the success of Black head coaches at the professional level (Branham, 2008; Madden & Ruther, 2011), Black coaches at the collegiate level have had a difficult time obtaining the head and assistant coaching positions. The fact that many minority head coaches have struggled at the collegiate level, with White head coaches having statistically higher winning percentages (Turick & Bopp, 2016), may have created a bias in the minds of administrators regarding their ability to lead teams. Additionally, the media’s continued depiction of White coaches as more knowledgeable than their Black counterparts (Cunningham & Bopp, 2010) further validates racial assumptions that administrators might possess. Black coaches might also face more pressure to win sooner than White coaches, as Turick and Bopp (2016) found that White head coaches are afforded nearly a full year more on average than Blacks to lead their programs.

Former University of Colorado head football coach Jon Embree stressed this fact in his farewell press conference when he said, “You know we (Black head coaches) don’t get opportunities. At the end of the day, you’re fired and that’s it. Right, wrong, or indifferent. Tyrone Willingham was the only one who got fired and got hired again. We get bad jobs and no time to fix them” (Gemmell, 2012, para. 7). This quote reflects Wingfield’s (2012) claim that Black men in leadership positions are most likely cognizant of how much harsher they will be evaluated than Whites. Coach Embree’s comment should be amended to note that the University of South Florida hired former University of Texas head coach Charlie Strong prior to the 2017 season, and the University of Arizona hired former Texas A&M University head coach Kevin Sumlin prior to the 2018 season, making them the second and third Black men to receive another chance to lead a FBS program, respectively.

For those minorities that are afforded with opportunities to coach college football, a glass cliff effect may be part of their experiences. The glass cliff suggests that certain leadership positions are relatively risky or precarious since they are more likely to involve management of organizational units that are in crisis (Ryan & Haslam, 2005). Thus, an argument could be made that if Black football coaches are more likely to be selected for positions that are in crisis and that those outcomes may serve to reinforce preexisting stereotypes regarding their ability to be leaders. Black and White football coaches might be used and viewed differently by athletic administrators as a result of their race, with Blacks potentially serving as temporary placeholders during times of crisis. The discrepancy in first year winning percentages (Turick & Bopp, 2016) supports the notion that Black coaches might not always be inheriting talented programs. Cook and Glass (2013), in the college basketball context, found that minorities are more likely than Whites to be promoted to losing teams and that when minority coaches are unable to generate winning records they are replaced by White coaches, a phenomenon they termed the savior effect.

Aside from Cook and Glass’s (2013) study, most of the previous research into the glass cliff has largely focused on women in administrative roles (Brescoll, Dawson, & Uhlmann, 2010; Ryan, Haslam, Hersby, Bongiorno, & Renata, 2011), so race is an area that merits consideration. To that end, the purpose this study is to determine whether a glass cliff effect has impacted Black
college football head coaching hires at the DI-FBS level. To determine whether a program is “in crisis”, data is currently being collected (near completion; adding 2018 data now) from the last ten years (2009-2018 seasons) of college hires. This data included the newly hired coach’s win percentages in his first three seasons, the winning percentages of the team over the ten years prior to his hire, the newly hired coach’s first three recruiting ranking finishes, and the recruiting ranking finishes of the team over the five years prior to his hire. Since recruiting rankings are subjective in nature, the 247Sports composite rankings – which use a proprietary algorithm that compiles prospect “rankings” and “ratings” listed in the public domain by the major media recruiting services (247Sports Staff, 2012) – were chosen as the rankings that best reflect the general national consensus of a team’s recruiting class. This data will be analyzed using ANOVA tests to determine what significant differences exist.

This research adds to the sport management literature by investigating whether Black college football coaches have consistently, in accordance with Embree’s thoughts, been hired into bad jobs (i.e. teams in crisis). Cunningham (2014) argued that sport management researchers should attempt to ensure that sport promotes equality, inclusion, and opportunities for all. This study will critically assess the quality of the opportunities that Black coaches have had in college football.

References


The history of HBCU athletics has been one of financial ups and downs. HBCUs have had financial difficulty at the institutional level due to serving underrepresented populations with a history of underfunding and discrimination (Gasman, 2009). Lower tuition and smaller endowments also strain operating budgets which then strain the amount the institution is able to subsidize athletic departments. Facilities, human capital, and financial resources are scarce in comparison to larger Power Five institutions (Cheeks & Crowley, 2015).

Although athletics can add to the alumni support and student recruitment of an institution, if the university is already struggling to maintain academic necessities, a struggling athletics department can also add tremendous strain to the general fund. With the heavy burden of securing financial resources to maintain athletic programs, HBCU athletic departments often make decisions based on increasing their operating budgets. One of those decisions to adjust a thin bottom line is downsizing staff within HBCU athletic departments (Cheeks & Crowley, 2015). While marketing is an intricate component to ticket sales and broadcasting efforts for athletic departments, 75 percent of HBCU athletic departments reported that they do not have a marketing department (Jackson, Lyons, & Gooden, 2001). The athletic departments without marketing departments also reported a lack of funding and staff to support adding a marketing department.

This lack of staff presents a problem when seeking to consistently and effectively reach the target market that HBCU athletic departments need to continue to thrive, consumers of color. Consumers of color are a growing market in sport and respond to different marketing strategies. In a 2008 study, Armstrong found that sport consumers of color were significantly motivated by the event promotions, family appeal, entertainment, social interactions, and event culture more than Caucasian consumers of sport (Armstrong, 2008). Armstrong (1999) posits that Black sport consumers are also highly impacted by various streams of media. Extant literature has reported that there are several key elements to Black American consumerism: brand loyalty, Black ownership, and word-of-mouth (Podoshen, 2008). HBCU athletic departments are in a position of opportunity to increase revenue through the use of HBCU Classics. HBCU Classics offer a unique environment that cater to a Black audience through entertainment and promotions (Armstrong, 2008). The revenue generation in previous years for two of the nation’s top HBCU classics is sizeable. The Magic City Classic, one of the largest and oldest classics in the nation, generated $1,917,118 in 2016 (Johnson, 2017). Ticket sales alone accounted for $709,356, a significant amount of ancillary revenue for Alabama A&M University and Alabama State University. In addition to ticket sales, various peripheral events take place during HBCU Classics providing more financial support for those institutions.

In order to better meet the needs and appeal of HBCU sport consumers, it is important to analyze what motivates them to attend HBCU games, particularly HBCU Classic games for this study. The purpose of this study is to identify the motivations for attending HBCU Classics in order to give practical insight for marketing strategies at the conference and institutional level. In our effort to explore the needs and appeals of HBCU sport consumers, we seek to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What aspects of HBCU Classic events attract consumers?
RQ2: What aspects of HBCU Classic events motivate consumers to return?
RQ3: What aspects of HBCU Classic events deter consumers from returning?

Using the three motivating factors of Black consumers (Podoshen, 2008) to answer the research questions, this presentation will consist of a qualitative data analysis (Patton, 2002) and practical insight that emerges from data collection. This presentation will explore the lived experiences of current and former HBCU Classic consumers. Study participants must meet the following criteria: (a) have attended an HBCU Classic event within the last 2 years, (b) have attended more than three HBCU Classic events, and (c) have a willingness to share their insights regarding their experiences attending HBCU Classic events.

With a dearth of literature exploring the motivations of consumers to attend HBCU Classic events, this study will add to the empirical data in our field. This study would also add practical insights for HBCU athletic departments and host-cities for planning and executing successful HBCU Classics that meet the needs of their primary consumers. Because of the aforementioned lack of marketing departments and personnel within many HBCU athletic departments, the information gathered in this study would assist their efforts to create effective marketing plans in the absence of a dedicated marketer on staff.

References


Taking Control: Role Management in College Athletics
Arden J. Anderson, & Marlene A. Dixon
Texas A&M University

Background and Purpose
Once college athletes encounter the demands of college athletics, they undergo a learning and sense making process whereby they try to manage their athlete role and other roles (e.g., student) to achieve role balance and alleviate role conflict (Adler & Adler, 1991; Chao, 2012). Athletes may re-assess their athlete role to determine whether it is too salient, how it aligns with their priorities, and whether they feel held back from fulfilling other roles. Moreover, individual (e.g., stress, feelings of isolation) and team (e.g., cohesion, performance) outcomes inform the athlete’s attitudes and behaviors, which, in turn, impact if and how the athlete manages his/her role. The purpose of this study was to examine how college athletes manage their roles and the impact of these management strategies on their satisfaction and well-being.

Literature Review
Miller and Kerr (2003) discovered athletes engage in an ongoing negotiation between their athletic, academic, and social domains in which increased investment in one, leads to limited exploration of roles in the other two. Lally and Kerr (2005), however, suggested athletes do not need to reduce their athlete role in order to invest more in the student role and/or explore their future career path. They argued that coaches and managers should encourage athletes to invest in both athletics and academics, and even other roles. Anderson & Dixon (2018) found some athletes who were dissatisfied with their team environment and role identities take active control over their situation by altering identity standards or adopting new identities. In conversations with their coach, athletes negotiated the standards of their athlete role, which allowed them to explore additional roles. The athletes who broadened their role set reported increased satisfaction with their experience and an outlet for the stresses of college athletics. Thus, it seems possible and healthy for athletes to maintain multiple roles, but the actual strategies for doing so are not well understood.

The first step in helping athletes manage their roles to achieve optimal role balance is to investigate the strategies and actions that athletes employ to manage their roles and balance the demands of athletics, academics, and other pursuits. This would include an investigation of the people with whom athletes communicate the conflict they may be experiencing between roles and how these individuals assist athletes with managing their roles.

Method
I conducted a season-long ethnographic study of a Division I volleyball team, including observations, interviews, journals, questionnaires, and documents to capture the everyday experiences and role perceptions of the athletes and the surrounding culture of the team and university (Tedlock, 2000). I am presently engaged in discourse tracing of their attitudes and behaviors concerning role management. This method is oriented toward “asking how and why such issues came into being and how various levels of discourse play a role in their creation and transformation over time” (LeGreco & Tracy, 2009, p. 1522). Discourse tracing will allow me to detect the emergence of conversations, meanings, and social processes across time that enact role management.
Significance and Contribution

From a theoretical perspective, unpacking athlete experiences within team environments builds a more integrated understanding of processes and outcomes toward role management that unfold in teams or organizations. Moreover, this research points to the true impact of elite sport on the lives and more importantly, the futures, of college athletes. From a practical perspective, in the present study, I attended to athlete integration into the campus community, athlete satisfaction with their sport and college experience, and the impact of participation in intercollegiate athletics on the social experiences of athletes. By exploring the experiences and perspectives of the athletes themselves (not coaches or experts), the findings have the potential to influence the ideal management of roles among college athletes, so that they are able to achieve greater satisfaction with their college sport and overall college experience without negative outcomes. Thus, the present study helps inform policy and practice for better integrating college athletes into the breadth of the higher education experience.

References