

## CHAPTER

# 8

## Collegiate Sport

Carol A. Barr

### ■ INTRODUCTION

Intercollegiate athletics is a major segment of the sport industry. It garners increasingly more television air time as network and cable companies increase coverage of sporting events and athletic conferences create their own networks (e.g., Big Ten Network), it receives substantial coverage within the sports sections of local and national newspapers, and it attracts attention from corporations seeking potential sponsorship opportunities. Television rights fees have increased dramatically. Sport sponsorship opportunities and coaches' compensation figures have escalated as well. The business aspect of collegiate athletics has grown immensely as administrators and coaches at all levels have become more involved in budgeting, finding revenue sources, controlling expense items, and participating in fund development activities. The administrative aspects of collegiate

athletics have also changed. With more rules and regulations to be followed, there is more paperwork in such areas as recruiting and academics. These changes have led to an increase in the number of personnel and the specialization of positions in collegiate athletic departments. Although the number of athletic administrative jobs has increased across all divisions, jobs can still be hard to come by because the popularity of working in this segment of the sport industry continues to be high.

The international aspect of this sport industry segment has grown tremendously through the participation of student-athletes who are nonresident aliens (a term used by the National Collegiate Athletic Association for foreign student-athletes). Coaches are more aware of international talent when recruiting. The number of nonresident alien student-athletes competing on U.S. college sports teams has grown from an average of 1.8% of the male student-

athletes in all divisions in 1999–2000 to 4.0% in 2008–2009. The male sports with the most nonresident alien representation are ice hockey (29.8% of all male ice hockey student-athletes), tennis (25.9%), and squash (22.0%) (National Collegiate Athletic Association [NCAA], 2010b). On female sport teams, a similar increase in the number of nonresident alien participation has occurred. In 1999–2000, 1.5% of all female student-athletes were nonresident aliens, a percentage that increased to 4.4% in 2008–2009. The sports showing the largest representation on the women's side include the same sports of ice hockey (29.3%), tennis (20.8%), and squash (20.6%) (NCAA, 2010b). Athletic teams are taking overseas trips for practice and competitions at increasing rates. College athletic games are being shown internationally, and licensed merchandise can be found around the world. It is not unusual to stroll down a street in Munich, Germany, or Montpellier, France, and see a Duke basketball jersey or a Notre Dame football jersey.

## ■ HISTORY

On August 3, 1852, on Lake Winnepesaukee in New Hampshire, a crew race between Harvard and Yale was the very first intercollegiate athletic event in the United States (Dealy, 1990).



What was unusual about this contest was that Harvard University is located in Cambridge, Massachusetts, and Yale University is located in New Haven, Connecticut, yet the crew race took place on a lake north of these two cities, in New Hampshire. Why? Because the first intercollegiate athletic contest was sponsored by the Boston, Concord & Montreal Railroad Company, which wanted to host the race in New Hampshire so that both teams, their fans, and other spectators would have to ride the railroad to get to the event (Dealy, 1990). Thus, the first intercollegiate athletic contest involved sponsorship by a company external to sports that used the competition to enhance the company's business.

The next sport to hold intercollegiate competitions was baseball. The first collegiate baseball contest was held in 1859 between Amherst and Williams (Davenport, 1985), two of today's more athletically successful Division III institutions. In this game, Amherst defeated Williams by the lopsided score of 73–32 (Rader, 1990). On November 6, 1869, the first intercollegiate football game was held between Rutgers and Princeton (Davenport, 1985). This "football" contest was far from the game of football known today. The competitors were allowed to kick and dribble the ball, similar to soccer, with Rutgers "outdribbling" its opponents and winning the game six goals to four (Rader, 1990).

The initial collegiate athletic contests taking place during the 1800s were student-run events. Students organized the practices and corresponded with their peers at other institutions to arrange competitions. There were no coaches or athletic administrators assisting them. The Ivy League schools became the "power" schools in athletic competition, and football became the premier sport. Fierce rivalries developed, attracting numerous spectators. Thus, collegiate athletics evolved from games being played for student enjoyment and participation in fierce competitions involving bragging rights for individual institutions.

Colleges and universities soon realized that these intercollegiate competitions had grown in popularity and prestige and thus could bring increased publicity, student applications, and alumni donations. As the pressure to win increased, the students began to realize they needed external help. Thus, the first "coach" was hired in 1864 by the Yale crew team to help it win, especially against its rival, Harvard University. This coach, William Wood, a physical therapist by trade, introduced a rigorous training program as well as a training table (Dealy, 1990). College and university administrators also began to take a closer look at intercollegiate athletics competitions. The predominant theme at the time was still nonacceptance of these competitive athletic activities within the educational sphere of the institution. With no governing organization and virtually nonexistent playing and eligibility rules, mayhem often resulted. Once again the students took charge, especially in football, forming the **Intercollegiate Football Association** in 1876. This association was made up of students from Harvard, Yale, Princeton, and Columbia who agreed on consistent playing and eligibility rules (Dealy, 1990).

The dangerous nature of football pushed faculty and administrators to get involved in governing intercollegiate athletics. In 1881, Princeton University became the first college to form a faculty athletics committee to review football (Dealy, 1990). The committee's choices were to either make football safer to play or ban the sport all together. In 1887, Harvard's Board of Overseers instructed the Harvard Faculty Athletics Committee to ban football. However, aided by many influential alumni, the Faculty Athletics Committee chose to keep the game intact (Dealy, 1990). In 1895, the **Intercollegiate Conference of Faculty Representatives**, better known as the **Big Ten Conference**, was formed to create student eligibility rules (Davenport, 1985). By the early 1900s, football on college campuses had become immensely popular, receiving a tremendous amount of attention from the stu-

dents, alumni, and collegiate administrators. Nevertheless, the number of injuries and deaths occurring in football continued to increase, and it was evident that more legislative action was needed.

In 1905 during a football game involving Union College and New York University, Harold Moore, a halfback for Union College, died of a cerebral hemorrhage after being crushed on a play. Moore was just one of 18 football players who died that year. An additional 149 serious injuries occurred (Yaeger, 1991). The chancellor of New York University, Henry Mitchell MacCracken, witnessed this incident and took it upon himself to do something about it. MacCracken sent a letter of invitation to presidents of other schools to join him for a meeting to discuss the reform or abolition of football. In December 1905, 13 presidents met and declared their intent to reform the game of football. When this group met three weeks later, 62 colleges and universities sent representatives. This group formed the **Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States (IAAUS)** to formulate rules making football safer and more exciting to play. Seven years later, in 1912, this group took the name **National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA)** (Yaeger, 1991).

In the 1920s, college and university administrators began recognizing intercollegiate athletics as a part of higher education and placed athletics under the purview of the physical education department (Davenport, 1985). Coaches were given academic appointments within the physical education department, and schools began to provide institutional funding for athletics.

The **Carnegie Reports of 1929** painted a bleak picture of intercollegiate athletics, identifying many academic abuses, recruiting abuses, payments to student-athletes, and commercialization of athletics. The Carnegie Foundation visited 112 colleges and universities. One of the disturbing findings from this study was that although the NCAA "recommended against"

both recruiting and subsidization of student-athletes, these practices were widespread among colleges and universities (Lawrence, 1987). The Carnegie Reports stated that the responsibility for control over collegiate athletics rested with the president of the college or university and with the faculty (Savage, 1929). The NCAA was pressured to change from an organization responsible for developing playing rules used in competitions to an organization that would oversee academic standards for student-athletes, monitor recruiting activities of coaches and administrators, and establish principles governing amateurism, thus alleviating the paying of student-athletes by alumni and booster groups (Lawrence, 1987).

Intercollegiate athletics experienced a number of peaks and valleys over the next 60 or so years as budgetary constraints during certain periods, such as the Great Depression and World War II, limited expenditures and growth among athletic departments and sport programs. In looking at the history of intercollegiate athletics, though, the major trends during these years



were increased spectator appeal, commercialism, media coverage, alumni involvement, and funding. As these changes occurred, the majority of intercollegiate athletic departments moved from a unit within the physical education department to a recognized, funded department on campus.

Increased commercialism and the potential for monetary gain in collegiate athletics led to increased pressure on coaches to win. As a result, collegiate athletics experienced various problems with rule violations and academic abuses involving student-athletes. As these abuses increased, the public began to perceive that the integrity of higher education was being threatened. In 1989, pollster Louis Harris found that 78% of Americans thought collegiate athletics were out of hand. This same poll found that nearly two-thirds of Americans believed that state or federal legislation was needed to control college sports (Knight Foundation, 1993). In response, on October 19, 1989, the Trustees of the Knight Foundation created the **Knight Commission**, directing it to propose a reform agenda for intercollegiate athletics (Knight Foundation, 1991). The Knight Commission was composed of university presidents, corporate executive officers (CEOs) and presidents of corporations, and a congressional representative. The reform agenda recommended by the Knight Commission played a major role in supporting legislation to alleviate improper activities and emphasized institutional control in an attempt to restore the integrity of collegiate sports. The Knight Commission's work and recommendations prompted the NCAA membership to pass numerous rules and regulations regarding recruiting activities, academic standards, and financial practices.

Whether improvements have occurred within college athletics as a result of the Knight Commission reform movement and increased presidential involvement has been debated among various constituencies over the years. Proponents of the NCAA and college athletics

cite the skill development, increased health benefits, and positive social elements that participation in college athletics brings. In addition, the entertainment value of games and the improved graduation rates of college athletes (although men's basketball and football rates are still a focus of concern) in comparison with the student body overall are referenced. Those critical of college athletics, though, cite the continual recruiting violations, academic abuses, and behavioral problems of athletes and coaches. These critics are concerned with the commercialization and exploitation of student-athletes as well. The "Current Issues" section of this chapter discusses some of the more recent controversial issues and events taking place in college athletics.

### Women in Intercollegiate Athletics

Initially, intercollegiate sport competitions were run by men for men. Sports were viewed as male-oriented activities, and women's sport participation was relegated to physical education classes. Prevailing social attitudes mandated that women should not perspire and should not be physically active so as not to injure themselves. Women also had dress codes that limited the type of activities in which they could physically participate. Senda Berenson of Smith College introduced basketball to collegiate women in 1892, but she first made sure that appropriate modifications were made to the game developed by James Naismith to make it more suitable for women (Paul, 1993). According to Berenson, "the selfish display of a star by dribbling and playing the entire court, and roughhousing by snatching the ball could not be tolerated" (Hult, 1994, p. 86). The first women's intercollegiate sport contest was a basketball game between the University of California-Berkeley and Stanford University in 1896 (Hult, 1994).

The predominant theme of women's involvement in athletics was participation. Women

physical educators, who controlled women's athletics from the 1890s to 1920s, believed that all girls and women, and not just a few outstanding athletes, should experience the joy of sport. Playdays, or sportsdays, were the norm from the 1920s until the 1960s (Hult, 1994). By 1960, more positive attitudes toward women's competition in sport were set in motion. No governance organization for women similar to the NCAA's all-encompassing control over the men existed until the creation of the **Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW)** in 1966, the forerunner of the **Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW)**, which was established in 1971 (Acosta & Carpenter, 1985).

The AIAW endorsed an alternative athletic model for women, emphasizing the educational needs of students and rejecting the commercialized men's model (Hult, 1994). The AIAW and NCAA soon became engaged in a power struggle over the governance of women's collegiate athletics. In 1981, the NCAA membership voted to add championships for women in Division I. By passing this legislation, the NCAA took its first step toward controlling women's collegiate athletics. The NCAA convinced women's athletic programs to vote to join the NCAA by offering to do the following (Hult, 1994):

- Subsidize team expenses for national championships
- Not charge additional membership dues for the women's program
- Allow women to use the same financial aid, eligibility, and recruitment rules as men
- Provide more television coverage of women's championships

Colleges and universities, provided with these incentives from the NCAA, began to switch from AIAW membership for their women's teams to full NCAA membership. The AIAW immediately experienced a 20% decrease in membership, a

32% drop in championship participation in all divisions, and a 48% drop in Division I championship participation.

In the fall of 1981, NBC notified the AIAW that it would not televise any AIAW championships and would not pay the monies due under its contract (a substantial percentage of the AIAW budget). Consequently, in 1982, the AIAW executive board voted to dissolve the association (Morrison, 1993). The AIAW filed a lawsuit against the NCAA (*Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women v. National Collegiate Athletic Association*, 1983), claiming that the NCAA had interfered with its commercial relationship with NBC and exhibited monopolistic practices in violation of antitrust laws. The court found that the AIAW could not support its monopoly claim, effectively ending the AIAW's existence.

Much has changed within women's college athletics since Title IX took effect in 1972. Since 1981, women's participation in collegiate athletics has increased from 74,239 to 182,503 student-athletes in 2008–2009 (NCAA, 2010a). The 2010 NCAA Division I women's basketball championship involving the University of Connecticut against Stanford drew an average of 3.5 million viewers, up 32% from the 2009 championship game (Jenkins, 2010). The popularity and importance of successful women's basketball programs is also reflected in the coaching salaries being provided. In 2010, Geno Auriemma at the University of Connecticut possessed the highest salary, receiving \$1.6 million per year in base and other compensation incentives. Pat Summitt at the University of Tennessee earns \$1.3 million per year, with Gail Goestenkors of Texas and Kim Mulkey at Baylor also members of the \$1 million or more per year women's basketball coaching salary club ("Top paid," 2010). The growth in women's sports provides evidence that college athletics today is both a men's and a women's game and has come far from its birth in 1852.

## ■ ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND GOVERNANCE

### The NCAA

The primary rule-making body for college athletics in the United States is the NCAA. Other college athletic organizations include the **National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA)**, founded in 1940 for small colleges and universities and having close to 300 member institutions (National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics, 2010), and the **National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA)**, founded in 1937 to promote and supervise a national program of junior college sports and activities and currently having approximately 525 member institutions (National Junior College Athletic Association, 2010).

The NCAA is a voluntary association with more than 1,200 institutions, conferences, organizations, and individual members. NCAA **Division I** consists of 335 member institutions (120 in the Football Bowl Subdivision, 118 in the Football Championship Subdivision, and 97 in Division I sponsoring no football program), **Division II** comprises 288 member schools, and there are 432 active institutions within **Division III** (these NCAA division classifications are defined later in this chapter) (NCAA, 2010d). All collegiate athletics teams, conferences, coaches, administrators, and athletes participating in NCAA-sponsored sports must abide by the association's rules.

The basic purpose of the NCAA as dictated in its constitution is to "maintain intercollegiate athletics as an integral part of the educational program and the athlete as an integral part of the student body and, by so doing, retain a clear line of demarcation between intercollegiate athletics and professional sports" (NCAA, 2009a, p. 1). Important to this basic purpose are the cornerstones of the NCAA's philosophy: namely, that college athletics are amateur competitions

and that athletics are an important component of the institution's educational mission.

The NCAA has undergone organizational changes throughout its history in an attempt to improve the efficiency of its service to member institutions. In 1956, the NCAA split its membership into a University Division, for larger schools, and a College Division, for smaller schools, in an effort to address competitive inequities. In 1973, the current three-division system, made up of Division I, Division II, and Division III, was created to increase the flexibility of the NCAA in addressing the needs and interests of schools of varying size ("Study: Typical I-A Program," 1996). This NCAA organizational structure involved all member schools and conferences voting on legislation once every year at the NCAA annual convention. Every member school and conference had one vote, assigned to the institution's president or CEO, a structure called **one-school/one-vote**.

In 1995, the NCAA recognized that Divisions I, II, and III still faced "issues and needs unique to its member institutions," leading the NCAA to pass Proposal 7, "Restructuring," at the 1996 NCAA convention (Crowley, 1995). The restructuring plan, which took effect in August 1997, gave the NCAA divisions more responsibility for conduct within their division, gave more control to the presidents of member colleges and universities, and eliminated the one-school/one-vote structure. The NCAA annual convention of all member schools still takes place, but the divisions also hold division-specific miniconventions or meetings. In addition, each division has a governing body called either the Board of Directors (Division I) or Presidents Council (Division II and III), as well as a Leadership Council (Division I) or Management Council (Division II and III) made up of presidents, chancellors, and athletic administrators and faculty athletics representatives from member schools who meet and dictate policy and legislation within that division (Figure 8-1). The NCAA Executive

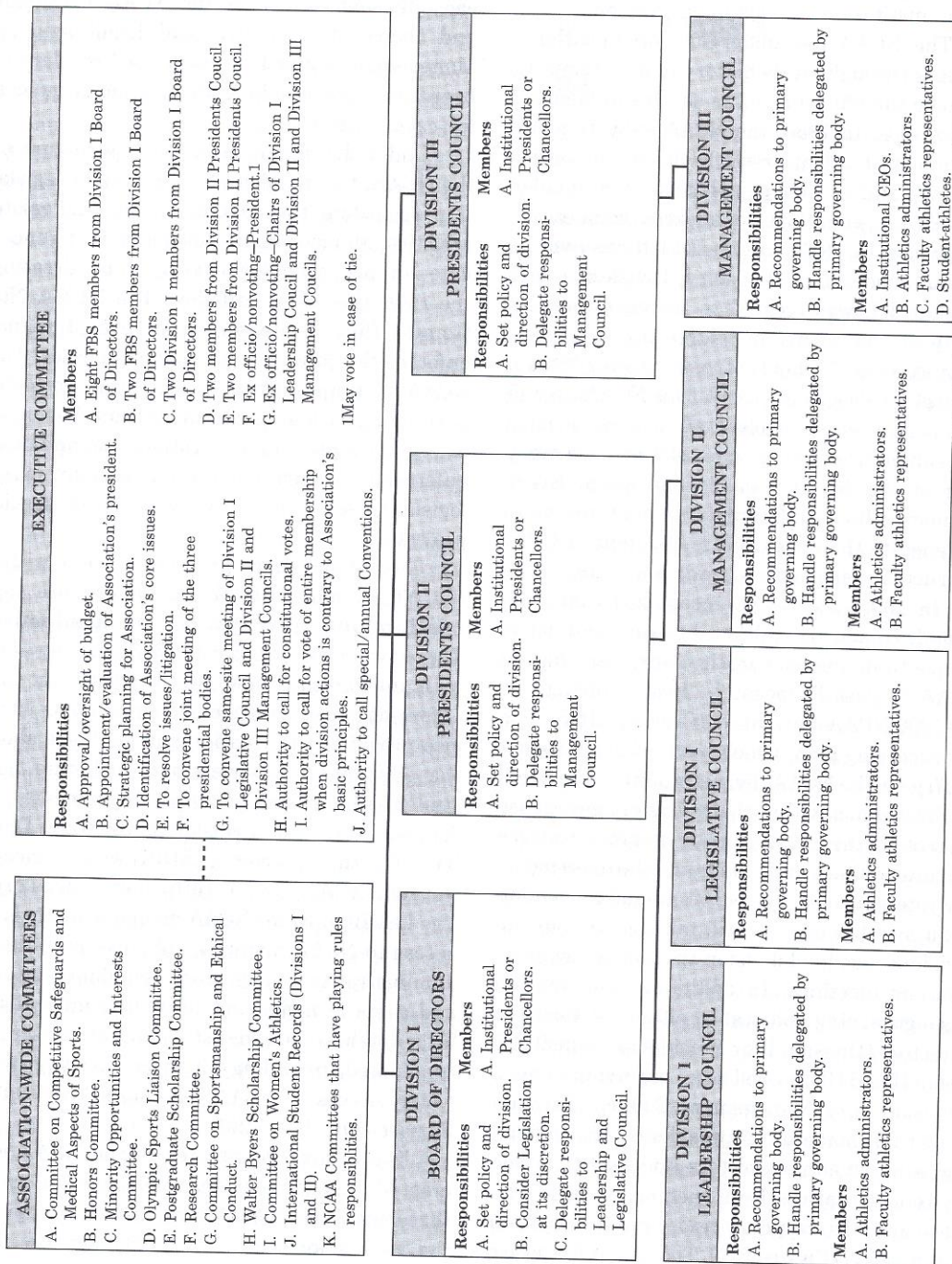
Committee, consisting of representatives from each division as well as the NCAA President and chairs of each divisional Leadership or Management Council, oversees the Presidential boards and Leadership or Management Councils for each division.

Under the unique governance structure of the NCAA, the member schools oversee legislation regarding the conduct of intercollegiate athletics. Member institutions and conferences vote on proposed legislation, thus dictating the rules they need to follow. The **NCAA National Office**, located in Indianapolis, Indiana, enforces the rules the membership passes. The NCAA National Office is organized into departments, including administration, business, championships, communications, compliance, enforcement, educational resources, publishing, legislative services, and visitors center/special projects.

Two of the more prominent areas within the NCAA administrative structure are **legislation and governance** and **academics**. These two areas are pivotal because they deal with interpreting new NCAA legislation and enforcing these rules and regulations, while also providing information and guidance about the educational environment, including how student-athletes stay eligible to compete. In August 2002, the Legislative Services Database for the Internet (LSDBi) was launched through NCAA Online (<http://www.ncaa.org>). The LSDBi provides NCAA members immediate access to NCAA manuals, rule interpretations, administrative-review cases, eligibility issues, and cases of major and secondary infractions. This database is updated whenever legislation is adopted, providing all three divisions with timely access to NCAA legislation (Legislative Services Database, 2010).

The **enforcement** area of the NCAA was created in 1952 when the membership decided that such a mechanism was needed to enforce the association's legislation. The process con-

**FIGURE 8-1** NCAA Governance Structure



Source: National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2010). 2010–2011 NCAA Division I manual. Indianapolis, IN: Author, 29. © National Collegiate Athletic Association. 2010. All rights reserved.



sists of allegations of rules violations being referred to the association's investigative staff. The NCAA enforcement staff determines if a potential violation has occurred, with the institution being notified of such finding and the enforcement staff submitting its findings to the Committee on Infractions (NCAA, 2010e). The institution may also conduct its own investigation, reporting its findings to the Committee on Infractions.

If a violation is found, it may be classified as a secondary or a major violation. A secondary violation is defined as "a violation that is isolated or inadvertent in nature, provides or is intended to provide only a minimal recruiting, competitive or other advantage and does not include any significant recruiting inducement or extra benefit" (NCAA, 2009g, p. 289). A major violation is defined as "[A]ll violations other than secondary violations . . . , specifically those that provide an extensive recruiting or competitive advantage" (NCAA, 2009g, p. 290).

It is important to note that although the NCAA National Office staff members collect information and conduct investigations on possible rule violations, the matter still goes before the Committee on Infractions, a committee of peers (representatives of member institutions), which determines responsibility and assesses penalties. Penalties for secondary violations may include, among others, an athlete sitting out for a period of time, forfeiture of games, an institutional fine, or suspension of a coach for one or more competitions. Major violations carry more severe penalties to an institution, including, among others, bans from postseason play, an institutional fine, scholarship reductions, and recruiting restrictions.

The NCAA also has in place committees at the various divisional levels to oversee sports rules and conduct championships. There are also Association-wide groups, such as the Committee on Women's Athletics and the Minority Opportunities and Interests Committee, which examine issues specific to certain segments of the NCAA

membership as well as the Student-Athlete Advisory Committee that provides student-athletes at each divisional level representation in the NCAA's governance structure (NCAA, 2010f).

### Divisions I, II, and III

The latest NCAA organizational restructuring, which became effective in 1997, called for divisions to take more responsibility and control over their activities. This was due to the recognition of substantial differences among the divisions, both in terms of their philosophies as well as the way they do business. A few of the more prominent differences among divisions are highlighted in this section. The sport management student interested in pursuing a career in intercollegiate coaching or athletic administration should be knowledgeable about the differences in legislation and philosophies among the divisions so as to choose a career within the division most suited to his or her interests. Students should be aware that each institution has its own philosophy regarding the structure and governance of its athletic department. In addition, generalizations regarding divisions are not applicable to all institutions within that division. For example, some Division III institutions, although not offering any athletic scholarships, can be described as following a nationally competitive, revenue-producing philosophy that is more in line with a Division I philosophy. The student should thoroughly research an athletic department to determine the philosophy that the school and administration embraces.

Division I member institutions, in general, support the philosophy of competitiveness, generating revenue through athletics, and national success. This philosophy is reflected in the following principles taken from the Division I Philosophy Statement (NCAA, 2009h):

- Strives in its athletics program for regional and national excellence and prominence

- Recognizes the dual objective in its athletics program of serving both the university or college community (participants, student body, faculty/staff, alumni) and the general public (community, area, state, nation)
- Sponsors at the highest feasible level of intercollegiate competition one or both of the traditional spectator-oriented, income-producing sports of football and basketball

Division I athletic departments are usually larger in terms of the number of sport programs sponsored, the number of coaches, and the number of administrators. Division I member institutions have to sponsor at least seven sports of all-male or mixed-gender teams and seven all-female teams, or six sports of all-male or mixed-gender teams and eight all-female teams (NCAA, 2009i). Division I athletic departments also have larger budgets due to the number of athletic scholarships allowed, the operational budgets needed for the larger number of sport programs sponsored, and the salary costs associated with the larger number of coaches and administrators.

Division I schools that have football are further divided into two subdivisions: **Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS)** is the category for the somewhat larger football-playing schools in Division I and was formerly called Division I-A, and the **Football Championship Subdivision (FCS)** is the category for institutions playing football at the next level and was formerly called Division I-AA. FBS institutions must meet minimum attendance requirements for football as well as higher standards for sports sponsorship (16 teams rather than the minimum of 14 teams required of Division I members), whereas FCS institutions are not held to any attendance requirements. Division I institutions that do not sponsor a football team do not have a FBS or FCS classification (NCAA 2009j).

Division II institutions usually attract student-athletes from the local or in-state area who may receive some athletic scholarship money

but usually not a full ride. Division II athletics programs must offer at least 10 sports (at least four to five for men and five to six for women) and sponsor at least two team sports for each gender (NCAA, 2010d).

Division III institutions do not allow athletic scholarships and encourage participation by maximizing the number and variety of athletics opportunities available to students. Division III institutions also emphasize the participant's experience, rather than the experience of the spectator, and place primary emphasis on regional in-season and conference competition (NCAA, 2010d).

### Conferences

The organizational structure of intercollegiate athletics also involves **member conferences** of the NCAA. Member conferences must have a minimum of six member institutions within a single division to be recognized as a voting member conference of the NCAA (NCAA, 2009b). Conferences provide many benefits and services to their member institutions. For example, conferences have their own compliance director and run seminars regarding NCAA rules and regulations in an effort to better educate member schools' coaches and administrators. Conferences also have legislative power over their member institutions in the running of championship events and the formulation of conference rules and regulations. Conferences sponsor championships in sports sponsored by the member institutions within the conference. The conference member institutions vote on the conference guidelines to determine the organization of these conference championships. Conferences may also provide a revenue-sharing program to their member institutions in which revenue realized by the conference through NCAA distributions, TV contracts, or participation in football bowl games is shared among all member institutions. The increase in TV contracts with conferences over the years has

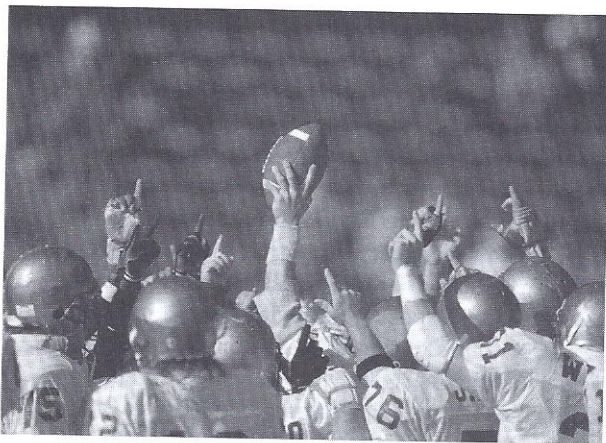
contributed substantially to the revenue sharing plans within conferences, but of even greater significance was the emergence of conferences owning their own television networks. The Big Ten Conference distributed \$22 million per institution in 2009 as a result of revenue received from the Big Ten Network (Kalafa, 2010).

Conferences have their own **conference rules**. Member institutions of a particular conference must adhere to conference rules in addition to NCAA rules. It is important to note, though, that although a conference rule can never be less restrictive than an NCAA rule, many conferences maintain additional rules that hold member institutions to stricter standards. For example, the Ivy League is a Division I NCAA member conference, but it prohibits its member institutions from providing athletic scholarships to student-athletes. Therefore, the Ivy League schools, although competing against other Division I schools that allow athletic scholarships, do not allow their athletic departments to award athletic scholarships.

**Conference realignment** is an issue that has occurred periodically affecting the landscape of college athletics. Some of the reasons for a school's wanting to join a conference or change conference affiliation are (1) exposure from television contracts with existing conferences, (2) potential for more revenue from television and corporate sponsorships through conference revenue sharing, (3) the difficulty independent schools experience in scheduling games and generating revenue, and (4) the ability of a conference to hold a championship game in football, which can generate millions of dollars in revenue for the conference schools if the conference possesses at least 12 member institutions. The most recent conference realignment taking place in 2010 speaks to the revenue sharing gain that can be experienced, as Nebraska will benefit greatly from joining the Big Ten Conference due to the Big Ten Network monies that each Big Ten institution receives ("Nebraska approved by Big Ten," 2010).

One of the biggest conference realignments involved the demise of the 80-year-old Southwest Conference. In 1990, the Southwest Conference (SWC) comprised nine member schools (Mott, 1994). In August 1990, the University of Arkansas accepted a bid to leave the Southwest Conference and join the Southeast Conference (SEC). The university stated that the SEC gave it bigger crowds in revenue-producing sports and more national exposure ("Broyles Hopes," 1990). In 1994, four Southwest Conference schools—Texas, Texas A&M, Baylor, and Texas Tech—announced they were leaving to join the Big Eight Conference (Mott, 1994). In April 1994, three other SWC schools—Rice, Texas Christian University, and Southern Methodist University—joined the Western Athletic Conference (WAC) ("Western Athletic," 1994). Thus, the Southwest Conference had lost all of its member schools except Houston. This led to the demise of the Southwest Conference because it dropped below the six-member school minimum required by the NCAA for recognition as a member conference. Houston, the sole remaining SWC school, joined Conference USA in 1995.

The demise of the Southwest Conference due to conference realignment was rivaled by the 2003–2004 realignment that affected six Division I-A (now called FBS) conferences. This realignment was initiated by the movement of the University of Miami, Virginia Tech, and Boston College from the Big East Conference to the Atlantic Coast Conference. With three of its eight football-playing schools leaving for the ACC, the Big East invited five schools from Conference USA (Cincinnati, Louisville, South Florida, Marquette, and DePaul) to join it (Lee, 2003). Conference USA also lost two schools (St. Louis and University of North Carolina–Charlotte) to the Atlantic 10 Conference. Conference USA subsequently went looking for schools for its conference, with Marshall and Central Florida from the Mid-American Conference, and Southern Methodist University, Tulsa, Texas–El Paso, and Rice from the Western Athletic



Conference accepting the invitation (C-USA Milestones, 2010). The Western Athletic Conference added New Mexico State and Utah State from the Sun Belt Conference (Lee, 2003). More recently, in 2010 there were four institutions changing conferences (Nebraska from the Big 12 to the Big Ten, Colorado from the Big 12 to the Pac 10, Utah from the Mountain West to the Pac 10, and Boise State departing the Western Athletic Conference and joining the Mountain West Conference). There is sure to be more conference shuffling among NCAA member institutions as the conferences seek stability and individual institutions seek potential revenue gains from conference affiliation.

### ■ CAREER OPPORTUNITIES

For many decades, the traditional route followed for a career in collegiate athletics was to be an athlete, then a coach, and then an athletic administrator. It was a very closed system, with college athletic administrators selecting from among their own who would coach teams and then move into administrative positions. A 1992 study of Division I and Division III athletic directors found that 86% of the athletic directors in both divisions had been athletes at the col-

legiate level, while 78% in Division I and 90% in Division III had collegiate coaching experience (Barr, 1992). Yet, when asked whether more emphasis in the hiring process was placed on the athletic participation and coaching experience or the educational background of the applicant, the athletic directors in both Division I and Division III emphasized the importance of educational background over athletic participation and coaching experience (Barr, 1992). Much has changed since the original apprentice system used in college athletics, though, with athletic administrators being able to understand the financial and legal complexities that are a part of college athletics today.

### Coaches and Athletic Directors

Differences exist among the divisions in terms of coaching and administrative duties and responsibilities. When moving from the smaller Division III institutions to the larger Division I institutions, the responsibilities and profiles of coaches within these athletic departments change. At the smaller Division III institutions, the coaches are usually part-time, or if full-time, they serve as coach to numerous sport programs. These coaches may also hold an academic appointment within a department or teach activities classes. The Division III coach's budget on average is smaller than that of a Division I coach because most competition is regional and recruiting is not as extensive. There are no athletic scholarships allowed in Division III. Division III athletic directors may sometimes also coach or hold an academic appointment. Depending on the size of the athletic department, the Division III athletic director may wear many hats, acting as manager of the athletic department and coaches, business manager of the athletic department budget, media relations staff person, fundraiser, and compliance officer. Some Division III athletic directors (ADs), due to the size of the athletic

department, have a staff of assistant or associate athletic directors providing administrative help in these various areas.

Athletic department budgets at the Division I, and especially FBS, level are in the tens of millions of dollars. It is common at this level to find coaches and assistant coaches employed full-time coaching one sport program. Athletic scholarships are allowed, increasing the importance of recruiting, travel, and other activities geared toward signing blue-chip athletes. Individual sport program budgets are larger, providing more resources for recruiting and competitive travel opportunities. Division I athletic departments usually employ a large number of associate and assistant athletic directors with specialized responsibilities. The athletic director usually attends public relations and fund-raising events, participates in negotiating television contracts, and looks out for the interests of the athletic department in the development of institutional policies and financial affairs.

As college athletics has become more complex and business-like, colleges and universities have looked to the corporate world for CEOs or administrators with business backgrounds to run their athletics department. University of Florida President Bernard Machen, in talking about Florida AD Jeremy Foley, states, "The athletic director is more like a CEO of a corporation than a guy who hires coaches. Jeremy oversees everything from the sale of bonds for capital construction to tickets and sponsorships, and he manages more than 500 employees" (Eichelberger, 2009). To assist in the hiring process and identify key corporate world candidates to take over as athletic director, these schools are using search firms. Chuck Neinas, founder of Neinas Sports Services in Boulder, Colorado, and a former Big Eight Conference Commissioner, has helped place athletic directors at the University of Kansas, University of Missouri, and the University of Oklahoma among others. Neinas states that the days of

hiring the retired football coach to run the athletic department are long gone. Today's athletic directors need years of practical experience and contacts, and need skills in budgeting, hiring coaches, sports marketing, and fundraising as well (Eichelberger, 2009). Similar to the stock options and performance-based bonuses used in the business world, college athletic directors also are negotiating bonus clauses in their contract based on performance in areas such as wins and postseason appearances for high-profile teams, fiscal management within the athletic department, graduation rate of student-athletes, and lack of NCAA violations and probation of teams, to name a few (Bennett, 2003).

#### Assistant or Associate Athletic Director Areas of Responsibility

Reporting to the athletic director are assistant and associate athletic director positions functioning in specialized areas, such as business manager, media relations director, ticket sales manager, fund development coordinator, director of marketing, sport programs administrator, facilities and events coordinator, academic affairs director, or compliance coordinator. Depending on the student's interest, various educational coursework will be helpful in preparing for a position in these areas. For example, business courses will prepare the student for positions working within the business aspect of an athletic department, communications courses will prepare the student for a position working with public relations and the media, educational counseling coursework is beneficial for positions within academic affairs, and a legal background will be helpful to administrators overseeing the compliance area.

Areas of growth where increased attention is being directed within collegiate athletic departments are **student-athlete services**, **fund development**, and **compliance**. Student-athlete services addresses the academic concerns and

welfare of student-athletes, overseeing such areas as academic advising, tutoring, and counseling. Fund development has increased in importance as athletic departments seek new ways to increase revenues. Fund development coordinators oversee alumni donations to the athletic department and also oversee fund-raising events. Compliance is the term used to describe adherence to NCAA and conference rules and regulations. The compliance coordinator works closely with the coaches to make sure they are knowledgeable about NCAA and conference rules. The compliance coordinator also oversees the initial and continuing eligibility of the student-athletes as well as being directly involved in preventing or investigating any violations that take place within the athletic department.

Two other positions important to the collegiate athletic department are the **senior women's administrator (SWA)** and the **faculty athletics representative (FAR)**. The senior women's administrator is the highest-ranking female administrator involved with the conduct of an NCAA member institution's intercollegiate athletics program (NCAA, 2009d). The faculty athletics representative is a member of an institution's faculty or administrative staff who is designated to represent the institution and its faculty in the institution's relationships with the NCAA and its conference (NCAA, 2009c).

### **Conference/NCAA or Other Association Opportunities**

Opportunities for students interested in a career in college athletics exist within the NCAA member conferences as well as in the NCAA itself. With the specialization of positions and increased activities taking place within the athletic department, conference administration and management activities have followed a similar path. The size of athletic conference staffs has increased over the years, with conference administrators being hired to oversee growth areas such as conference championships, television negotiations,

marketing activities, and compliance services offered to member schools.

The NCAA, as well as other college athletic associations such as the NJCAA and NAIA involved in the governance of college athletics, employs numerous staff members. Students may be interested in pursuing a career in college athletics at the NCAA, NJCAA, or NAIA National Office level.

At whatever level or area in which the student is interested, one thing must be kept in mind: A job in college athletics is hard to come by because many people are trying to break into this segment of the sport industry. Therefore, students should set themselves apart from all the other applicants for the position to get noticed and hired. The way to do this is to prepare yourself academically by taking appropriate coursework and excelling in the classroom, to volunteer or help out in any way possible with the athletic department at your institution to gain valuable experience that you can include on your resume, to network and get to know people working in the industry because it is an industry that relies on who you know and word-of-mouth during the hiring process, and to pursue fulfilling an internship. Even if unpaid, the internship gives you a valuable first step into the industry, where you then have the ability to prove yourself so that you can be hired into that first job.

### ■ **CURRENT ISSUES**

Current issues affecting collegiate athletics abound and are constantly changing. Coaches and athletic administrators must be aware of the financial, legal, managerial, and ethical impact of these issues.

#### **Title IX/Gender Equity**

Perhaps no greater issue has affected collegiate athletic departments over the past couple of

decades than **Title IX** or gender equity. As discussed in Chapter 5, *Legal Principles Applied to Sport Management*, Title IX is a federal law passed in 1972 that prohibits sex discrimination in any educational activity or program receiving federal financial assistance. Early in its history, there was much confusion as to whether Title IX applied to college athletic departments. Title IX gained its enforcement power among college athletic departments with the passage of the 1988 Civil Rights Restoration Act. In 1991, the NCAA released the results of a gender-equity study that found that although the undergraduate enrollment on college campuses was roughly 50% male and 50% female, collegiate athletic departments on average were made up of 70% male and 30% female student-athletes. In addition, this NCAA study found that the male student-athletes were receiving 70% of the athletic scholarship money, 77% of the operational budget, and 83% of the recruiting dollars available (NCAA Gender Equity Task Force, 1991). In response to such statistics, an increase in the number of sex discrimination lawsuits took place, with the courts often ruling in favor of the female student-athletes.

Collegiate athletic administrators started to realize that Title IX would be enforced by the Office for Civil Rights (OCR) and the courts, and as athletic administrators they would be required to provide equity within their athletic departments. The struggle athletic administrators are faced with is how to comply with Title IX given institutional financial limitations, knowing that lack of funding is not an excuse for not complying with Title IX. To bring male and female participation numbers closer to the percentage of undergraduate students by sex at the institution, numerous institutions are choosing to eliminate sport programs for men, thereby reducing the participation and funding on the men's side. Another method selected by some institutions is capping roster sizes for men's teams, known as **roster management**, thus keeping the men's numbers in check while try-



ing to increase women's participation. A third, and most appropriate, option under Title IX is increasing participation and funding opportunities for female student-athletes. Of course, in selecting this option, the athletic administrator must be able to raise the funds necessary to add sport programs, hire new coaches, and provide uniforms for the new sport programs.

The debate surrounding Title IX continues, with numerous organizations (e.g., the National Women's Law Center, Women's Sports Foundation, and National Organization for Women), as well as advocates within the college athletic setting, arguing the merits of Title IX and that the appropriate enforcement methods are being used. In contrast, though, organizations such as USA Gymnastics and the National Wrestling Coaches Association are concerned about the effects Title IX has had on their sport (men's teams) and in particular are questioning the appropriateness of certain Title IX compliance standards. About 400 men's college teams were eliminated during the 1990s, with the sport of men's wrestling being hit particularly hard. The National Wrestling Coaches Association filed a lawsuit against the Department of Education arguing that the male student-athletes were being discriminated against as a result of the Title IX enforcement standards directly causing a reduction in men's sports. This lawsuit was

dismissed in May 2004, with an appeals court panel ruling that the parties lacked standing to file the lawsuit, which instead should be litigated against individual colleges that eliminated men's sports ("Appeals Court," 2004). To date, these types of lawsuits have not been effective for male student-athletes. In May 2004, Myles Brand, former president of the NCAA, endorsed Title IX while speaking at a meeting of the National Wrestling Coaches Association, stating that it should not be used as an excuse or a cause for elimination of sport programs. Instead, these are institutional decisions reflected in the statistic that although the number of men's wrestling and gymnastics teams, among others, has declined over the past two decades (from 363 to 222), the number of football teams over the same time period has increased (from 497 to 619) ("Brand Defends Title IX," 2004).

The most recent issue involving Title IX compliance involves the definition of what constitutes a qualified sport program for women. In July 2010, a federal judge ruled that Quinnipiac University was violating Title IX by failing to provide equal athletic opportunities to female students. In March 2009 Quinnipiac University in Hamden, Connecticut announced the school was cutting three sport teams: women's volleyball, men's golf, and men's outdoor track. The school also stated that it was establishing varsity cheerleading beginning in the 2009–2010 season. Five female student volleyball players and the coach of the volleyball team filed suit claiming that Quinnipiac was violating Title IX (Mahony, 2010). In his ruling, U.S. District Judge Stefan Underhill stated that the competitive cheerleading team does not qualify as a varsity sport for the purposes of Title IX and, therefore, its members may not be counted as athletic participants under the statute (*Biediger et al v. Quinnipiac University*, 2010) (For further information on this case and gender equity, see Chapter 5, Legal Principles).

### Hiring Practices for Minorities and Women

Minority hiring has long been an issue of concern and debate within collegiate athletics. In 1993–1994, the NCAA's Minority Opportunity and Interests Committee found that African Americans accounted for fewer than 10% of athletic directors and 8% of head coaches, and when predominantly African-American institutions were eliminated from the study, the results dropped to 4% representation in both categories (Wieberg, 1994). The more recent 2008–2009 NCAA data do not show much improvement, with only about 4% of all athletic directors being black (Brown, 2010). Modest improvements have been made in the coaching profession as representation for minority head coaches for both men's and women's teams has increased approximately 3% since 1995–1996 (Brown, 2010).

The Black Coaches and Administrators Association (BCA; formally called the Black Coaches Association) in October 2003 announced the establishment of a "hiring report card" to monitor football hiring practices at major institutions. Grades are based on contact with the BCA during the hiring process, efforts to interview candidates of color, the number of minorities involved in the hiring process, the time frame for each search, and adherence to institutional affirmative action hiring policies (Dufresne, 2003). In Fall 2009, Randi Shannon at the University of Miami was the only black head coach at one of the six major conferences that make up the Bowl Championship Series (BCS). In Fall 2010, Shannon was joined by the new hires of Charlie Strong at Louisville, Turner Gill at Kansas, and Mike London at Virginia. There were a total of 13 head coaches of color at FBS schools during the Fall 2010 season after seven got jobs since the end of the 2009 season (Strange, 2010).

Women have also lacked appropriate representation among administrators at the collegiate level. In 1996, women represented 17 (5.6%) of the 305 Division I athletic director positions,

with  
at D  
1996  
athl  
III 8  
fema  
(200  
wom  
dire  
sion  
III (C  
cont  
tent  
of c  
the l

### Acad

Sinc  
the l  
the l  
prep  
been  
mean  
altho  
eligi  
the  
2.0  
11 h  
also  
[equ  
SAT  
low.  
to co  
gres  
1991  
adde  
mini  
cent  
be b  
grad  
tion  
initia



with only 6 of these 17 female athletic directors at Division I-A (now FBS) institutions (Blauvelt, 1996). In Division II, 36 (14.6%) of the 246 athletic directors were female, and in Division III 84 (23.9%) of the 351 athletic directors were female (Blauvelt, 1996). More recent statistics (2008–2009) show a slight improvement, with women accounting for 9.4% of Division I athletic director positions (32 out of 341), 16.8% in Division II (49 out of 291), and 27.5% in Division III (124 out of 451) (NCAA, 2010c). This issue continues to demand—appropriately so—the attention of college athletic directors, in the hiring of coaches, and of institutional presidents, in the hiring of athletic directors.

### Academic Reform

Since the early 1990s and the publication of the Knight Commission reports that criticized the NCAA's academic legislation and academic preparation of student-athletes, the NCAA has been involved in numerous **academic reform** measures. The Knight Commission noted that although Proposition 48 was in place (to be eligible to play his or her first year in college, the student-athlete was required to possess a 2.0 minimum grade-point average [GPA] in 11 high school core curriculum courses while also meeting a minimum 700 SAT requirement [equates to an 820 score under the "revised" SAT]), student-athlete graduation rates were low. Student-athletes could maintain eligibility to compete in athletics while not adequately progressing toward a degree (Knight Foundation, 1991). Satisfactory progress requirements were added, requiring student-athletes to possess a minimum GPA while taking an appropriate percentage of degree-required courses each year.

In response to concern that the SAT may be biased and in an attempt to increase the graduation rates of student-athletes, Proposition 16 went into effect in 1996–1997. This initial eligibility academic legislation required

student-athletes to possess a minimum GPA in 13 core courses, with a corresponding SAT score along a sliding scale. If the student-athlete had a minimum GPA of 2.0, he or she needed a minimum SAT score of 1010. The student-athlete would then need to possess a corresponding GPA and SAT score along a scale to the minimum SAT of 820, which corresponded with a 2.5 GPA requirement. This legislation was changed through Bylaw 14.3, which became effective for all student-athletes entering a collegiate institution on or after August 1, 2005. Bylaw 14.3 requires student-athletes to meet a minimum GPA standard in 14 core courses, with a corresponding SAT score, but the sliding scale was changed to range from a 2.0 GPA with a 1010 SAT minimum to a 3.55 GPA with a minimum 400 SAT (NCAA, 2009f). In addition, satisfactory progress requirements were made more stringent to push student-athletes toward graduating within six years.

The NCAA initiated the latest academic reform proposal, the **Academic Progress Rate (APR)** in the fall of 2004. The APR collects data on a team's academic results based on eligibility and retention of student-athletes each academic year. The APR is calculated by awarding up to two points per student-athlete per semester or quarter (one point for being enrolled and one point for being on track to graduate or eligibility). The total points earned are divided by the total possible points with a benchmark of 925. An APR score of 925 predicts an approximately 50 percent Graduation Success Rate (GSR). The sport's APR is then based on the past four years' performance. Teams scoring below 925 can face penalties, such as scholarship losses and restrictions on practice and competition ("Most Division I," 2010).

Academic progress, academic preparations, and the graduation rate of student-athletes will continue to be issues of importance as college athletics and the educational mission of colleges and universities continue to coexist.

### Agents, Gambling and Amateurism (AGA)

Over the past ten years the NCAA has placed additional emphasis in the areas of agents and gambling to assist student-athletes with these issues and how they may impact their amateur status. On June 20, 2010, the NCAA handed down sanctions on the University of Southern California (USC) football team as a result of improper benefits Heisman Trophy running back Reggie Bush received from his involvement with agents while still competing as a student-athlete at USC. The penalties include the loss of 30 football scholarships over three years, vacating 14 victories in which Bush played, and a two-year post-season bowl ban for the football team (Beachem, 2010). According to NCAA Bylaw 12.3: "An individual shall be ineligible for participation in an intercollegiate sport if he or she ever has agreed (orally or in writing) to be represented by an agent for the purpose of marketing his or her athletics ability or reputation in that sport (NCAA, 2009e, p. 69)." This bylaw also spells out how the student-athlete will be deemed ineligible if they accept or receive benefits from a prospective agent. Many states have passed laws that criminalize behaviors by agents that jeopardize the amateur status of collegiate student-athletes. The NCAA, through the **Agents, Gambling and Amateurism (AGA)** area, is also working to not only investigate alleged violations of involvement by student-athletes with agents, but also to inform and educate student-athletes and agents themselves surrounding acceptable and unacceptable practices.

According to the NCAA's 2008 gambling survey, about 30% of male student-athletes and 7% of female student-athletes reported wagering on sporting events within the past year (*Results from the 2008 NCAA study on collegiate wagering*, 2009). With the proliferation of the Internet, sports gambling has become easier to access with virtual anonymity by anyone, including

student-athletes. As well, student-athletes within revenue-producing sports may be viewed as easy targets by organized crime or gambling units. In addition to NCAA legislation that prohibits sports wagering activities, the NCAA tries to proactively educate student-athletes and coaches on the dangers of sports wagering by producing information materials, holding information sessions, creating an interactive educational Web site among other activities (College sports betting, 2010). The NCAA also conducts background checks of officials and umpires in select, high-profile sport competitions (College sports betting, 2010).

### New Technologies

As with many industries and disciplines today, college athletics has been impacted both negatively and positively by the explosion of new technologies and their usage. With the development of technological advances in communication methods and the widespread availability of various electronic communication devices, the use of such technology in the recruiting process has increased exponentially. The NCAA has since needed to revise and update its policies to keep up with new technologies and social media sites, in particular in regards to recruitment activities. NCAA rules do not allow comments or photos about possible recruits on an institution's social media page or a page belonging to someone affiliated with the institution. In addition, messages cannot be sent to recruits using these social media technologies other than through their e-mail function ("Social media and recruiting," 2010). Text messaging is not permissible, but a prospect (high school student-athlete being recruited) may elect to receive direct messages as text messages on a mobile device. Twitter has also become a popular recruiting tool and is permissible as long as coaches are not using it to contact individual prospective student-athletes ("Social media and recruiting," 2010).

Beyond the usage of technology for recruiting purposes, the World Wide Web has infiltrated the college athletic ranks through such sites as Facebook.com, MySpace.com, and Badjocks.com. In 2006, pictures of University of South Florida football players as well as members of the baseball and volleyball teams engaged in underage drinking were posted to Facebook ("Athletes' online pics causing concern," 2006). Photographs of hazing found on Badjocks.com resulted in the May 2006 suspension of the Northwestern University women's soccer team (Sandomir, 2006). Blogs, personal Web sites, and social networking sites, such as Facebook and MySpace, have made policing improper contact between fans and athletes all but impossible, while forcing athletic departments to take disciplinary action against the growing number of student-athletes found through these Web sites to be engaged in improper behavior.

These new technologies can be used in positive ways, for example: to help market various sports and college athletic department activities, sell tickets to college sporting events, help in the promotion of a student-athlete for the Heisman or some other athletic award, and help garner additional revenues to the athletic department via video streaming or the selling of Internet media rights. The key for athletic administrators will be in providing appropriate oversight and establishing social media policies for athletes, coaches, and the athletic department staff so that these new technologies can be used in positive ways.

## ■ SUMMARY

Sport management students and future athletic department employees need to be aware that intercollegiate athletics, as a major segment of the sport industry, is experiencing numerous organizational, managerial, financial, and legal issues. The NCAA, first organized in 1905, has

undergone organizational changes throughout its history to accommodate the needs of its member institutions. Knowing the NCAA organizational structure is important because it provides information about the power and communication structures within the organization.

It is also important for students to know the differences that exist among the various divisions within the NCAA membership structure. These differences involve the allowance of athletic scholarships, budget and funding opportunities, and competitive philosophies. Distinct differences exist among divisions and even among schools within a particular division. Students, future collegiate athletic administrators, and coaches must become informed of these differences if they hope to select the career within a school or NCAA membership division that best fits their interests and philosophies.

In pursuing an administrative job within collegiate athletics, the sport management student should be aware of and work on developing skills that current athletic directors have identified as important. These skills include marketing expertise, strong public speaking and writing skills, creative and problem-solving abilities, the ability to manage complex financial issues, and the ability to manage and work with parents, students, faculty, alumni, booster groups, and sponsors. Appropriate coursework and preparation in these areas can better prepare the student interested in a career in collegiate athletic administration.

Probably the most important quality a coach or administrator needs to possess is being informed and knowledgeable about issues currently affecting this sport industry segment. Perhaps the most prominent issue currently affecting collegiate athletic departments is Title IX and gender equity. Coaches and administrators must educate themselves in understanding what the law requires and how to comply with it. Another issue foremost

in collegiate athletic administrators' minds is finances. Today, millions of dollars go into athletic department budgets, and television contracts play a large role in the operation and scheduling of intercollegiate athletic competi-

tions. Staying on top of these and other issues affecting college athletics is important for all coaches, administrators, and people involved in the governance and operation of this sport industry segment.

### CASE STUDY: The Role of an Athletic Director

Rebecca Jones has thoroughly enjoyed her job as athletic director at a Division FCS institution. She has always enjoyed the day-to-day activities of managing a \$25 million athletic budget, overseeing 25 sport programs (well beyond the minimum 14 needed for NCAA Division I membership), and interacting with the 15 assistant and associate athletic directors. But when she came into work one spring Monday morning, she knew some very difficult days were ahead of her that would test her managerial, financial, and communication skills. At the lacrosse game on Saturday, the chancellor cornered Rebecca to let her know of an emergency meeting the state legislators had the previous day. The governor was forwarding, with the legislators' endorsement, a budget that called for a 10% reduction to the university's budget starting July 1. The chancellor, in turn, told Rebecca that she would need to reduce the \$25 million athletic budget by 10% (or \$2.5 million). Word spread quickly of this impending budget cut, and there in her office early on this spring morning were three head coaches (men's soccer, men's swimming, and women's volleyball). Rebecca has always employed an open-door philosophy encouraging any coach, student-athlete, student, or faculty member at the university to stop by and talk to her whenever he or she had a question or concern. Rebecca could tell by the faces of these three coaches that they were worried that their sport programs, and their jobs, would be eliminated as part of the budget reduction.

Rebecca invited the coaches into her office and began to listen to what they had to say. The men's soccer coach was concerned that his was a low-profile sport and therefore was easily expendable. The men's swimming coach was concerned that even though he had been modestly successful over the years, the pool was in drastic need of repair—an expense the university could not afford—and therefore he felt it made the men's swimming program a target for elimination. The women's volleyball coach was concerned because of the high cost of volleyball (a fully funded sport at the university), with a huge potential savings possible by cutting just this one sport program. Also, volleyball wasn't as popular in the region and therefore wasn't drawing a lot of fan support.

As Rebecca was talking to the coaches, her administrative assistant interrupted to tell her that the local newspapers had been calling for a comment, and a local television station was camped outside the basketball arena interviewing coaches as they came to work. The administrative assistant overheard one of the questions being asked by the reporter: "Whether the Division FCS football program, that had been running a deficit of between \$1.3 million and \$2.2 million per year over the past couple of years, should be dropped completely or go non-scholarship?" Rebecca knew she had two initial concerns: one of an immediate nature, dealing with the media, and the second of a communication nature, regarding the coaches and administrators within the department. The chancellor asked her to submit a preliminary report in two weeks, so she had a little bit of time to address the bigger issue: What to do?

**Questions for Discussion**

1. Put yourself in Rebecca's position. What is the first thing that you should do with the media and with the coaches and other athletic department administrators?
2. What types of information and data does Rebecca need to collect to make a decision on how to handle cutting \$2.5 million from the athletic department's budget?
3. If you were Rebecca, would you involve anyone in the decision-making process or make the decision by yourself? If involving other people, who would they be and why would they be an important part of the process?
4. What types of communication need to take place, and how would you go about communicating this information?
5. What are some potential solutions in terms of budget reduction? What are the possible ramifications surrounding these solutions?
6. If you choose to eliminate sport programs, what criteria would you use to determine which teams are eliminated?

■ **RESOURCES**

**National Association for Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA)**

1200 Grand Blvd.  
 Kansas City, MO 64106  
 816-595-8000  
<http://naia.cstv.com>

**National Association of Collegiate Directors of Athletics (NACDA)**

24651 Detroit Road  
 Westlake, OH 44145  
 440-892-4000  
<http://www.nacda.com>

**National Association of Collegiate Women's Athletic Administrators (NACWAA)**

2000 Baltimore, Ste. 100  
 Kansas City, MO 64108  
 816-389-8200  
<http://www.nacwaa.org>

**National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA)**

700 W. Washington Street  
 P.O. Box 6222  
 Indianapolis, IN 46206-6222  
 317-917-6222  
<http://www.ncaa.org>

The NCAA, through its member login function on the Web site, provides a number of resources helpful to collegiate athletic administrators and coaches, including the NCAA Manual, links for Legislation and Governance as well as Academics and Athletes, and News/Updates items.

**National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA)**

1755 Telstar Drive, Suite 103  
 Colorado Springs, CO 80920  
 719-590-9788  
<http://www.njcaa.org>

**National Women's Law Center**

11 Dupont Circle NW, Suite 800  
 Washington, DC 20036  
 202-588-5180  
<http://www.nwlc.org>

**Women's Sports Foundation**

Eisenhower Park  
 1899 Hempstead Turnpike, Suite 400  
 East Meadow, NY 11554  
 516-542-4700  
<http://www.womenssportsfoundation.org>

## ■ KEY TERMS

Academic Progress Rate (APR), academic reform, academics, Agents, Gambling and Amateurism (AGA), Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW), Big Ten Conference, Carnegie Reports of 1929, Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (CIAW), compliance, conference realignment, conference rules, Division I, Division II, Division III, enforcement, faculty athletics representative (FAR), Football Bowl Subdivision (FBS), Football Championship Subdivision (FCS), fund development, Intercollegiate Athletic Association of the United States (IAAUS), Intercollegiate Conference of Faculty Representatives, Intercollegiate Football Association, Knight Commission, legislation and governance, member conferences, National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA), National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA), National Junior College Athletic Association (NJCAA), NCAA National Office, one-school/one-vote, roster management, senior women's administrator (SWA), student-athlete services, Title IX.

## ■ REFERENCES

- Acosta, R. V., & Carpenter, L. J. (1985). Women in sport. In D. Chu, J. O. Segrave, & B. J. Becker (Eds.), *Sport and higher education* (pp. 313-325). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Appeals court: Individual colleges to blame for cuts. (2004, May 14). *ESPN.com*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://sports.espn.go.com/espn/news/story?id=1801717>
- Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women v. National Collegiate Athletic Association*. 558 F. Supp. 487 (D.D.C. 1983).
- Athletes' online pics causing concern. (2006, April 27). *The Oracle*. Retrieved November 22, 2010, from <http://www.usforacle.com/2.5741/athletes-online-pics-causing-concern-1.623293>
- Barr, C. A. (1992). A comparative study of Division I and Division III athletic directors: Their profiles and the necessary qualifications they deem as essential in their positions. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Massachusetts, Amherst.
- Beachem, G. (2010, June 10). NCAA drops the hammer on USC football. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from [http://nbcports.msnbc.com/id/37621070/ns/sports-college\\_football/](http://nbcports.msnbc.com/id/37621070/ns/sports-college_football/)
- Bennett, B. (2003, July 13). Athletic directors: In the money; bonus clauses pay for wins, good grades, bottom line. *The Courier-Journal*, p. C11.
- Biediger et al v. Quinnipiac University*. Case No. 3:09cv621 (SRU), (U.S. Dist. Ct., 2010).
- Blauvelt, H. (1996, October 2). Women slowly crack athletic director ranks. *USA Today*, p. 1C.
- Brand defends Title IX. (2004, May 21). *Lubbock-Online.com*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from [http://lubbockonline.com/stories/052104/col\\_0521040012.shtml](http://lubbockonline.com/stories/052104/col_0521040012.shtml)
- Brown, G. (2010, May 19). NCAA study shows slow progress with women and minority hiring. *The NCAA News*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from [http://www.ncaa.org/wps/wcm/connect//ncaa/ncaa/ncaa+news/ncaa+news+online/2010/association-wide/ncaa+study+shows+slow+progress+with+women+and+minority+hiring\\_05\\_19\\_10\\_ncaa\\_news](http://www.ncaa.org/wps/wcm/connect//ncaa/ncaa/ncaa+news/ncaa+news+online/2010/association-wide/ncaa+study+shows+slow+progress+with+women+and+minority+hiring_05_19_10_ncaa_news)
- Broyles hopes a move won't end Arkansas' SWC rivalries. (1990, August 1). *The NCAA News*, p. 20.
- College sports betting—NCAA official statement (2010). Retrieved October 19, 2010, from [http://www.ncaa.org/wps/portal/ncaahome?WCM\\_GLOBAL\\_CONTEXT=/ncaa/ncaa/media+and+events/press+room/current+issues/sports+wagering](http://www.ncaa.org/wps/portal/ncaahome?WCM_GLOBAL_CONTEXT=/ncaa/ncaa/media+and+events/press+room/current+issues/sports+wagering)
- Crowley, J. N. (1995, December 18). History demonstrates that change is good. *The NCAA News*, p. 4.
- C-USA Milestones (2010). C-USA. Retrieved November 22, 2010, from <http://conferenceusa.cstv.com/ot/c-usa-milestones.html>
- Davenport, J. (1985). From crew to commercialism—the paradox of sport in higher education. In D. Chu, J. O. Segrave, & B. J. Becker (Eds.), *Sport and higher education* (pp. 5-16). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Dealy, F. X. (1990). *Win at any cost*. New York: Carol Publishing Group.

- Dufresne, C. (2003, October 22). BCA to grade hiring efforts. *Los Angeles Times*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://articles.latimes.com/2003/oct/22/sports/sp-bca22>
- Eichelberger, C. (2009, January 6). Florida enters BCS title game with top-paid athletic director. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from [http://www.bloomberg.com/apps/news?pid=newsarchive&sid=aYYY\\_mDwYMKY](http://www.bloomberg.com/apps/news?pid=newsarchive&sid=aYYY_mDwYMKY)
- Hult, J. S. (1994). The story of women's athletics: Manipulating a dream 1890-1985. In D. M. Costa & S. R. Guthrie (Eds.), *Women and sport: Interdisciplinary perspectives* (pp. 83-106). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Jenkins, S. (2010, June 4). On television, highlights of women's sports are running low. *The Washington Post*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2010/06/03/AR2010060302030.html>
- Kalafa, J. (2010, February 28). Big Ten revenue sharing: Are Michigan & Ohio State getting fair shares? *Bleacher Report*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://bleacherreport.com/articles/353856-big-ten-revenue-sharing-are-michigan-ohio-st-getting-fair-share>
- Knight Foundation Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics. (1991, March). *Keeping faith with the student-athlete*. Charlotte, NC: Knight Foundation.
- Knight Foundation Commission on Intercollegiate Athletics. (1993, March). *A new beginning for a new century*. Charlotte, NC: Knight Foundation.
- Lawrence, P. R. (1987). *Unsportsmanlike conduct*. New York: Praeger Publishers.
- Lee, J. (2003, December 8-14). Who pays, who profits in realignment? *SportsBusiness Journal*, 25-33.
- Legislative Services Database (LDSBi). (2010). NCAA. Retrieved November 22, 2010, from <https://web1.ncaa.org/LSDBi/exec/homepage>
- Mahony, E.H. (2010, July 21). Judge says Quinipiac discriminates against female student athletes. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from [http://articles.courant.com/2010-07-21/sports/hc-quinipiac-decision-0721-20100721\\_1\\_title-ix-athletic-participation-opportunities-female-student-athletes](http://articles.courant.com/2010-07-21/sports/hc-quinipiac-decision-0721-20100721_1_title-ix-athletic-participation-opportunities-female-student-athletes)
- Morrison, L. L. (1993). The AIAW: Governance by women for women. In G. L. Cohen (Ed.), *Women in sport: Issues and controversies* (pp. 59-66). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Most Division I teams post top grades (2010, June 9). NCAA News Release. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from [http://www.ncaa.org/wps/portal/ncaahome?WCM\\_GLOBAL\\_CONTEXT=/ncaa/ncaa/media+and+events/press+room/news+release+archive/2010/academic+reform/20100609+apr+release](http://www.ncaa.org/wps/portal/ncaahome?WCM_GLOBAL_CONTEXT=/ncaa/ncaa/media+and+events/press+room/news+release+archive/2010/academic+reform/20100609+apr+release)
- Mott, R. D. (1994, March 2). Big Eight growth brings a new look to Division I-A. *The NCAA News*, p. 1.
- National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA). (2010). Member institutions. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://naia.cstv.com/member-services/about/members.htm>
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2009a). Article 1.3.1: Basic purpose. In *2009-10 NCAA Division I manual*. Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2009b). Article 3.3.2.2.2.1: Full voting privileges. In *2009-10 NCAA Division I manual*. Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2009c). Article 4.02.2: Faculty athletics representative. In *2009-10 NCAA Division I manual*. Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2009d). Article 4.02.4.1: Senior woman administrator. In *2009-10 NCAA Division I manual*. Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2009e). Article 12.3: Use of agents. In *2009-10 NCAA Division I manual*, Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2009f). Article 14.3: Freshman academic requirements. In *2009-10 NCAA Division I manual*. Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2009g). Article 19.02.2: Types of violations. In *2009-10 NCAA Division I manual*. Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2009h). Article 20.9: Division I philosophy statement. In *2009-10 NCAA Division I manual*. Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2009i). Article 20.9.4: Sports sponsorship. In *2009-10 NCAA Division I manual*. Indianapolis, IN: Author.

- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2009j). Article 20.9.7: Football bowl subdivision requirements. In *2009-10 NCAA Division I manual*. Indianapolis, IN: Author.
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2010a). *1981-82-2008-09 NCAA sports sponsorship and participation rates report*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://www.ncaapublications.com/productdownloads/PR2010.pdf>
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2010b). *1999-2000-2008-09 NCAA student-athlete race/ethnicity report*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://www.ncaapublications.com/productdownloads/SAEREP10.pdf>
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2010c). *2008-09 race and gender demographics*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://www.ncaapublications.com/productdownloads/RGDMEMB10.pdf>
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2010d). Differences among the three divisions. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://www.ncaa.org/wps/wcm/connect/public/NCAA/About+the+NCAA/Who+We+Are/Differences+Among+the+Divisions/>
- National Collegiate Athletic Association. (2010e). Enforcement process. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://www.ncaa.org/wps/wcm/connect/public/NCAA/Issues/Enforcement/The+Enforcement+Process>
- National Collegiate Athletic Association (2010f). Student-Athlete Advisory Committee (SAAC). Retrieved November 22, 2010, from [http://www.ncaa.org/wps/portal/ncaahome?WCM\\_GLOBAL\\_CONTEXT=ncaa/NCAA/Academics+and+Athletes/SAAC/index++SAAC](http://www.ncaa.org/wps/portal/ncaahome?WCM_GLOBAL_CONTEXT=ncaa/NCAA/Academics+and+Athletes/SAAC/index++SAAC)
- National Junior College Athletic Association. (2010). *Today's NJCAA. History*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from [http://www.njcaa.org/todaysNJCAA\\_History.cfm?category=History](http://www.njcaa.org/todaysNJCAA_History.cfm?category=History)
- NCAA Gender Equity Task Force. (1991). *NCAA gender equity report*. Overland Park, KS: National Collegiate Athletic Association.
- Nebraska approved by Big Ten. (2010, June 12). *ESPN.com*. Retrieved November 20, 2010, from <http://sports.espn.go.com/ncaa/news/story?id5276551>
- Paul, J. (1993). Heroines: Paving the way. In G. L. Cohen (Ed.), *Women in sport: Issues and controversies* (pp. 27-37). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Rader, B. G. (1990). *American sports* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Results from the 2008 NCAA study on collegiate wagering. (2009, November 13). NCAA Research. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from [http://www.ncaa.org/wps/wcm/connect/5a30d30040962f3190739a7e5b626114/Results\\_2008\\_NCAA\\_Study\\_Collegiate\\_Wagering.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CACHEID=5a30d30040962f3190739a7e5b626114](http://www.ncaa.org/wps/wcm/connect/5a30d30040962f3190739a7e5b626114/Results_2008_NCAA_Study_Collegiate_Wagering.pdf?MOD=AJPERES&CACHEID=5a30d30040962f3190739a7e5b626114)
- Sandomir, R. (2006, May 18). On the web, college athletes acting badly. *The New York Times*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://www.nytimes.com/2006/05/18/sports/18hazing.html>
- Savage, H. J. (1929). *American college athletics*. New York: The Carnegie Foundation.
- Social media and recruiting (2010). NCAA. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://www.ncaa.org/wps/wcm/connect/public/NCAA/Issues/Recruiting/Social+Media+and+Recruiting>
- Strange, M. (2010, February 19). Black coaches finally getting call to take over major college football programs. *Knoxnews.com*. Retrieved October 19, 2010, from <http://www.knoxnews.com/news/2010/feb/19/making-head-way>
- Study: Typical I-A program is \$1.2 million in the black. (1996, November 18). *The NCAA News*, p. 1.
- Top paid college basketball coaches (2010, May 7). *The Hartford Courant*. Retrieved October 18, 2010, from [http://articles.courant.com/2010-05-07/sports/hc-college-basketball-coaches-salaries\\_1\\_michigan-state-average-yearly-salaries-basketball-coaches](http://articles.courant.com/2010-05-07/sports/hc-college-basketball-coaches-salaries_1_michigan-state-average-yearly-salaries-basketball-coaches)
- Western Athletic Conference to become biggest in I-A. (1994, April 27). *The NCAA News*, p. 3.
- Wieberg, S. (1994, August 18). Study faults colleges on minority hiring. *USA Today*, p. 1C.
- Yaeger, D. (1991). *Undue process: The NCAA's injustice for all*. Champaign, IL: Sagamore Publishing.